A COMPARATIVE REGISTER ANALYSIS OF EDITORIALS FROM GHANAIAN AND BRITISH NEWSPAPERS

BY

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JULY, 2015
DECLARATION

I hereby do declare that apart from references to works duly cited, this work is the result of an original research I conducted, and that it has not been presented in whole or in part to any other university.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my father, John K. A. Frimpong, who laid the foundation to this achievement and yet did not live long to see its accomplishment.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is the grace and favour of God that have brought me this far. To Him alone be all the glory. I have received support of various kinds from many people who deserve special mention in this work. I first acknowledge the invaluable guiding support and encouragement of my supervisors Prof J. F. Wiredu, Emerita Prof M. E. K. Dakubu and Prof Magnus Huber. It is as a result of their genuine direction, commitment and approachability that this study has been completed. I also owe Prof Calvin Gidney who showed much interest in this work during my one-year stay at Tufts University in the US. I am equally indebted to the University of Ghana (ORID), for providing funding support to this work. Prof Yitah, Prof Dako and Ms Keleve have shown great concern in the course of this study period. Prof Yitah in particular always went beyond her official duty as Head of Department to encourage me and prompt me about my responsibilities to the University ahead of deadlines. I was specially favoured during the study period to have senior colleagues like Dr Ansah, Dr Afrakomah hMensah, Dr Anderson and Dr Dzregah as friends. Their invaluable support over the years has contributed to the completion of this work. I am eternally indebted to my parents and siblings who sacrificed the scanty resources of the family towards my education. I finally acknowledge my wife, Gloria, my two children, PaaKay and Ohemaa and my mother-in-law, Auntie Rosina, for providing a home and for being willing to let me go for the academic laurels. May the Lord who is our recompense bless you all abundantly now and forever.
ABSTRACT

This work is a corpus-based study of newspaper editorial language. It compares the usage of sentence types and clause patterns in newspaper editorials from native and nonnative English contexts. Using register theory (RT), and other theories which relate language to contexts of use and to communicative function, this work investigates the distribution of the two major grammatical structures across newspaper editorials from the two sociocultural contexts. The aim is to validate the central claim of RT that linguistic features within a given register are essentially similarly distributed across dialects of the same language because they are functional choices people make to fulfill communicative functions within a situational context. To this end, editorials from Ghanaian and British newspapers were explored using corpus methodology, which combined quantitative and qualitative principles with the hope of ascertaining the functional motivation behind the distribution of sentence and clause patterns in the editorial register. Our findings supported by a confirmatory statistical measurement at Pearson’s critical value of 0.05 supports the claim that linguistic features are similarly distributed across dialects of a given language in the sense that the complex declarative sentences and the nominal and relative clauses, which were the dominant sentence and clause patterns were similarly distributed across the two sociocultural contexts. Besides, these structures were noted to relate both to the production and comprehension circumstances and to the communicative purpose of the newspaper editorial register, a confirmation that linguistic features are functionally distributed in a situation of use.
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<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DG</td>
<td>Daily Graphic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DG01, 02, 03, etc.</td>
<td>Daily Graphic Text 1, 2, 3, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DT</td>
<td>The Daily Telegraph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DT01, 02, 03, etc.</td>
<td>The Daily Telegraph Text 1, 2, 3, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GT</td>
<td>The Ghanaian Times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GT01, 02, 03, etc.</td>
<td>The Ghanaian Times Text 1, 2, 3, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAT</td>
<td>Speech Acts Theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SFL</td>
<td>Systemic Functional Linguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interrogcl</td>
<td>Interrogative Clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TT</td>
<td>The Times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TT01, 2, 3, etc.</td>
<td>The Times Text 1, 2, 3, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XML</td>
<td>Extensible Markup Language</td>
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CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This study is a corpus-based textual analysis of newspaper editorial texts from British and Ghanaian contexts. It is an attempt to compare the language of newspaper editorials produced in different sociocultural contexts (especially across native and nonnative contexts). The aim is to establish the nature of the language of texts performing the same communicative function and having similar situational context but produced across different cultural contexts. The underlying assumption is the claim by register theory that texts performing the same communicative functions and sharing basic situational context (i.e. field, mode and tenor) should share similar linguistic features even when they are produced across different cultures.

Newspaper editorials are generally argued to perform the communicative functions of expressing an opinion and persuading readers to that opinion (Biber & Conrad, 2009, p. 119). As a result of this function, Van Dijk (1989, p. 252) describes editorials as “THE formulation place for newspaper ideologies.” Formulating ideologies and persuading readers to specific opinions require strategic use of language (Wiredu, 2012). This explains why editorial writing is inclined towards argumentation (Westin & Geisler, 2002; Albakry, 2007; Susinskiene, 2010).

One of the specific features of the argumentative language requisite for formulating ideologies and persuading readers is argued in Wiredu (2012) to be the complex sentence. That is, through the complex sentence, complex information is strategically
packaged towards achieving the communicative goal of persuading readers. This study investigates the editorial genre with the aim of uncovering how sentence patterns have been employed as strategies for achieving the communicative functions of newspaper editorials. The attempt is to verify the claim by register theory (Biber & Conrad, 2009) that linguistic features are functional and similarly distributed even across different dialects of the same language.

1.2 The problem

The principal assumption of register theory is that the choices of linguistic categories in a variety are both functionally motivated and invariably distributed even across dialects of a given language (Biber & Conrad, 2009). This assumption has a number of implications. It means, in the first place, that a variety may have a predominance of, say, nominal structures for communicative purposes. The emphasis is on the dominant linguistic features. In other words, it is the most attested structures in a variety which are deemed to be functional. That is, a careful quantitative survey should reveal a variety’s preference for particular linguistic features, and this should hold true even across different dialects of a given language.

Across varieties whose sociocultural orientations are similar (say between different native varieties), this assumption may generally seem true in some aspects of the language. This is because varieties of similar sociocultural experiences largely use the language for similar functions. That is, native speakers, for instance, from different regional backgrounds may share similar linguistic features because they use their language in all aspects of their social life. And so it may be unsurprising that the
attestations and usage dynamics of, say, nominal or relative clause structures in newspaper reporting across American and British texts will be similar. This assumption underlies Biber and Conrad’s (2009, p. 15) argument that “academic writing is essentially the same, regardless of whether the writer uses a British or American dialect”. The same observation may hold true about different nonnative contexts. That is, though they may largely be guided by disciplinal orientations to use language a certain way, the fact that nonnative speakers of English everywhere use English mostly in official situations may make them use language differently from the native speaker.

Equally superficially problematic is the claim that speakers from unshared sociocultural backgrounds will make similar linguistic choices within the same variety. If the common assumption that our linguistic choices reflect our (cultural) context is anything to go by, then it should be normal to expect English users from, say, Ghana and Britain to use the language differently at least for two reasons. In the first place, whereas one is a native user of the language, the other is nonnative. Besides, each of these users is addressing different audiences whose expectations differ in many ways. For example, Ghanaian and British audiences may have different expectations especially in relation to sensitive issues concerning religion and culture which have implications for cross-cultural communication.

This register assumption is inherently disputable (Milroy, 2001; Preston, 2001). In fact, the debate about the emergence of new Englishes is principally hinged on a contrary assumption that claims that when a language migrates to a new geographical
location it has a natural tendency to be domesticated. That is, the language takes on features of its new sociolinguistic environment (Kachru, 2006; Schneider, 2007). The result of this domestication (also known as indigenization or nativization) is at least a “reinterpretation” and/or “restructuring” of the systems of the language (Huber, 2014; Huber, 2012).

There is therefore a gap in the literature between these two assumptions. That is, when a language migrates and so takes on features of its new environment, how do aspects of the emergent dialect share similar linguistic properties with the native variety as claimed by register theory? In other words, where do register and new Englishes converge or diverge?

This gap is worthy of exploration. There is the need to examine empirical data emerging from variable dialectal contexts to ascertain the universal similarity claim put up by register theory. Limiting ourselves to newspaper editorials, and focusing on two grammatical structures, we investigate in this study whether sentence patterns and their clause constituents are similarly distributed across Ghanaian and British newspapers. We equally examine the functional motivation, if any, behind the distribution of these grammatical features in the editorials from the two sociocultural contexts.

Since the editorials constitute an already existing corpus, corpus methodology seems one of the best approaches for this study. Corpus methodology is one of the most
promising approaches to textual analysis. As Mcenery and Gabrielatos (2006, p. 33) cogently put it, corpus methodology strengthens descriptive linguistics and “enhances theoretically oriented linguistic research”. Its quantitative emphasis in the applications of frequency counts and linguistic measures (Mcenery & Gabrielatos, 2006) coupled with its basis in content analysis makes corpus methodology a better heuristic for verifying the functional distribution of clause patterns in the editorial texts examined.

1.3 Aims/Objectives

The research aims at achieving one key objective. It attempts to uncover the basic linguistic structure of newspaper editorials across native and nonnative contexts with a specific focus on the structures at the level of the sentence. This aim is achieved through the following specific set of objectives:

i. determining the distribution of sentence patterns across British and Ghanaian newspaper editorials;

ii. determining the distribution of clause patterns across British and Ghanaian newspaper editorials;

iii. ascertaining the preferred sentence and clause types in newspaper editorial language;

iv. establishing the contextual properties of predominant clause patterns; and

v. ascertaining the functional motivation behind the distribution of sentence and clause patterns;
1.4 Research questions

One central research question drives this project:

1. what is the linguistic structure of newspaper editorials at the level of the sentence? To answer this question, this study examines the following set of related questions:

   a. how are sentences distributed across the British and Ghanaian newspaper editorials?
   
   b. how are clause types distributed across the British and Ghanaian newspaper editorials investigated?
   
   c. what are the co-textual dynamics of the most predominant clause types?
   
   d. what are the functional motivations behind the distribution of sentences and their internal clause patterns in newspaper editorials?

1.5 Research assumptions

i. In line with register theory, we expect similar distributional patterns for sentences and clauses in the editorials from Ghanaian and British newspapers investigated in this study.

ii. Similarly inspired by register theory is our second assumption that the distributional patterns of sentences and clauses should be explicable functionally. That is, sentences and clauses, just like other linguistic features, are used strategically.
1.6 The focus on Sentence patterns and Clause constituents

The decision to focus this study on the sentence and its clause constituents is first inspired by claims in the literature and then by personal observation from a preliminary investigation. A preliminary survey of some editorials from *The Ghanaian Times* reveals that they are predominantly composed of complex declarative sentences. One wonders whether this usage dynamics of sentences in *The Ghanaian Times* (henceforth GT) is intentional. What motivates this pattern of distribution, and will this phenomenon be replicated across editorials from other newspapers?

Our observation is supported by Wiredu’s (2012) investigation of editorials from the *Daily Graphic* (henceforth DG) which reveals that complex declarative sentences are the preferred sentence patterns. In the same work, Wiredu again observes that dominant clause patterns attested in the editorials of the DG are those which are relevant to the communicative purpose of newspaper editorials.

These observations are worth verifying with texts from various newspapers in the light of claims by systemic functional linguistics that language use involves choices and specifically by register theory that linguistic choices are functional when situated in their context of use. As a first step towards this study, we tested the distribution of sentence patterns in two editorial texts from each of the following newspapers: the *Daily Graphic* (DG), *The Ghanaian Times* (GT), *The Daily Telegraph* (DT) and *The Times* (TT). The results of this initial test (Table 1.1) forms part of the initial impetus to examine a larger corpus from variable sociocultural contexts. Table 1.1 below reports on attestations of only structural sentence types.
Table 1.1: Preliminary survey of sentence patterns across the four newspapers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simple</td>
<td>5 (11.11)</td>
<td>3 (10.7)</td>
<td>4 (8.51)</td>
<td>13 (22.80)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complex</td>
<td>35 (77.77)</td>
<td>22 (78.57)</td>
<td>38 (80.85)</td>
<td>38 (66.66)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound</td>
<td>3 (6.66)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>1 (2.12)</td>
<td>4 (7.01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound complex</td>
<td>2 (4.44)</td>
<td>3 (10.71)</td>
<td>4 (8.51)</td>
<td>2 (3.50)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>45 (100)</td>
<td>28 (100)</td>
<td>47 (100)</td>
<td>57 (100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These results are enough incentive to motivate an exploration of the sentence types. As is observable in Table 1.1, there is not an absolute consistency across the four newspapers. The minimal unpredictability especially with the compound and compound complex sentence types indicates that there is the need to investigate a larger corpus.

1.7 The choice of newspaper editorials

Newspaper editorials have been chosen for this study for a number of reasons. In the first place, they represent one of the most powerful and influential voices in society (Bolivar, 1996). That is, they evaluate current events and offer advice useful to governments (Bolivar, 1996, p. 75). Besides, they have the express communicative purpose of propagating opinions and ideologies. Additionally, newspaper editorials occupy one of the most accessible platforms especially to educated members of society. The platform of the newspaper through which editorials are conveyed survives through sales, a motivation that has a potential of extending editorials to most parts of society. This drive gives the editorials the opportunity to penetrate most sectors of society with their ideologically laden information. These factors place a
high sense of linguistic responsibility on the editorialist to craft what should attract readers’ attention. It is this supposed linguistic responsibility that makes a linguistic analysis of the editorials appealing.

1.8 The choice of political editorials

Political editorials have been operationalized in this study as editorial texts that address issues about “the form, organization, and administration of a state, and…its relations with other states” based on the *Oxford English Dictionary’s* definition of political. This was necessary to enable us limit the topical scope of the study. These types of editorials were selected based on their availability. Our preliminary examination of the editorials texts particularly from the Ghanaian newspapers revealed that they were deficient in topical scope. Thus, to achieve comparability with the British editorials which have wider topical coverage, it was necessary to narrow the topical scope of the study to areas which are available in both Ghanaian and British newspapers.

1.9 The relevance of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and Register Theory (RT)

There are several approaches to text analysis. There is, for instance, the approach which investigates the structural organization of texts, commonly referred to, in linguistic research, as the genre approach. There is also the style perspective which examines the peculiar linguistic choices of a particular author. However, apart from these two approaches, linguistic choices in texts may equally be examined with the view to ascertaining what functional motivations influence their distribution. This
perspective on text analysis is referred to as register study. And this is the theoretical perspective to this work. Thus, though an experimental work may legitimately investigate the grammar of texts without explicit emphasis on the communicative function the grammatical choices achieve, the objective of this study (to probe the communicative functions behind linguistic choices) is normally a register study by default.

Register theory relates generally to systemic functional linguistics for its emphasis on linguistic choices as functionally motivated. It also, in a more specific sense, relates to SFL because register is one of its theoretical strands.

1.10 Significance of the study
This study generally contributes to several ongoing scholarly debates. It helps in our understanding of register across dialectal varieties of a language. It equally contributes to media linguistics and composition writing and rhetoric. More specifically, this research is hoped to:

i. increase our understanding of why some texts are more effective than others;

ii. add to register theory in terms of approach. We have argued in this work that the primary focus in register theory on dominant linguistic features needs reconsidering since it is sometimes the internal make up of dominant structures that distinguish the variety. Besides, the communicative function of varieties is sometimes realized by a combination of factors rather than the prominence of a single feature;
iii. increase our awareness of some grammatical aspects of newspaper editorials;
iv. draw attention to newspaper texts as a readily available corpus for linguistic investigation.

1.11 Scope of the study

Our immediate grammatical focus in this study is the sentence. But since our preliminary survey reveals that the complex sentence is the dominant type in the editorial corpus, it stands to reason most of the discussions will be based on the complex sentence. We adopt an approach which explores the external grammar as well as the internal grammar of the sentence. In this regard, sentences are described from both formal and structural perspectives. This therefore takes us beyond the simple, complex, compound and compound complex types to include the declarative, interrogative, imperative and Exclamative types.

The internal grammar of the sentence will be limited in the scope of this study to the grammatical unit immediately below the sentence – the clause. As a common approach in the literature (Wiredu, 2012), an investigation of the sentence tends to dwell on clause constituents. We discuss the clause from functional and formal perspectives. Clauses may perform three major functions (Vincent, 1999): nominal, adjectival and adverbial functions. Thus, we classify nominal (complementation), relative and adverbial functions (Vincent, 1999, p. 353). Structurally, we classify clauses into subordinating, interrogative, infinitival and participial types.
These sentence and clause types are the grammatical features we intend to investigate in a corpus-based study. Our approach is register inclined; we explore the possible functional motivation behind the distribution of these linguistic features across native and nonnative contexts.

1.12 Development of print media in Great Britain

This section of the work focuses on the development and current status of the press in Britain, sometimes referred to as the English press. The English press has a very extensive history. Morison (1932) traces the origin of British newspapers to the seventeenth century. According to Morison’s account, the first newspapers appeared in hand written pamphlet forms in 1622. These were the Corantos, the Diurnalls and the Mercuries and were published weekly. These forerunners of modern newspapers were replaced by printed paper formats some of which were the London Gazette (1665) and the Daily Courant (1702). The two British newspapers of this study, The Times and The Daily Telegraph were established later in 1785 and 1855, respectively.

In the course of time, British newspapers developed along political party lines. And so both The Times and The Daily Telegraph are conservative in ideology. But a much more important feature of this development is the classification of British newspapers according to type of readership targeted.

British newspapers over the years have been classified based on their targeted readership as well as on the quality of their language. Accordingly, British
newspapers are classified into the “upmarkets/qualities”, the “midmarkets”, and the “populars” or the tabloids (Chan & Goldthorpe, 2007). The term tabloid was used to contrast generally with broadsheets (i.e. the qualities) based on their size. Tabloids basically are small-sized – about half the size of a standard broadsheet. Over time they came to be associated with sensational, less serious writing (Quinn, 2013). Thus, not only do newspapers in these categories target the upper middle, lower middle and the working classes, respectively. They also, reflect a particular style of writing (Chan & Goldthorpe, 2007; Susinskiene, 2010). These types reflect a continuum of formality according to which the qualities represent a formal and serious style of writing and the populars, a sensational writing.

And these latter qualities of the British newspapers (i.e. their style of writing) are what in recent times sets the quality newspapers apart from the populars. For, currently, some quality newspapers (for example The Times) have adopted the size of the tabloids while maintaining the formal style of their content. The Times and The Daily Telegraph are chosen for this study because both belong to the quality papers which represent formal style of writing.

1.13 Development of print media in Ghana

The seed of journalism was, arguably, first sown in the Ghanaian soil by the British colonial masters in the nineteenth century. Ghana, then Gold Coast, saw the first newspaper in 1822 when the Royal Gold Coast Gazette and the Commercial Intelligencer were established by the colonial government with the aim of consolidating and extending its sphere of influence and authority in West Africa.
(Asante, 1996, p. 1). Though this British initiative survived for only three years, one may argue that the Ghanaian press is by and large an offshoot of the English press, however, distinctive the developmental trajectory it has taken over the years.

In 1857, about 35 years after the demise of the British newspapers, Gold Coasters, Charles and Edmund Bannerman, established the first West African newspaper called Accra Herald (Asante, 1996). Theirs, which was also handwritten like the first two British newspapers, paved the way for several other Gold Coasters to also venture into newspaper publication. But it was not until 1874 that “the first African-owned fully printed newspaper”, the Gold Coast Times, was published in the Gold Coast by James Hutton Brew (Asante, 1996, p. 2). It is important to note, however, that none of these nineteenth century newspapers survived until modern times, making the state owned Daily Graphic the oldest currently published newspaper (first published in 1950).

In the course of its development, the Ghanaian press, just like its British counterpart, has been divided along political affiliations. But the uniqueness of the Ghanaian press rests in the fact that their political inclinations do not inform the classification of Ghanaian newspapers. In the first place, newspapers in Ghana are either state-owned or private newspapers; The Times and the Daily Graphic, which are the Ghanaian newspapers selected for this study, are state-owned. All state-owned Ghanaian newspapers are pro-government (established to promote government agenda) whereas private newspapers are either pro-government or pro-opposition (BBC World Service, 2006). This means that Ghanaian newspapers are classified differently from British
newspapers. That is, whereas British newspapers are classified based on content, Ghanaian newspapers are classified based on ownership.

In terms of language, there is a common belief that state-owned papers are more formal, serious and objective while the private newspapers are “sensational, verbose and slanted” in their reportage, a claim which is not backed by any serious research (Denkabe & Gadzekpo, 1996, p. 49). Thus, though the state-owned papers are noted to target a middle class educated readership (Denkabe & Gadzekpo, 1996), no formal attempt has so far been made at classifying Ghanaian newspapers into quality and popular newspaper types.

1.14 Newspaper editorials
When we talk about newspaper editorials our mind immediately goes to the article in a regular position in a newspaper which represents the institutional opinion of the publishing house (referred to as institutional editorials). Much as that is more popular and so sometimes assumed to be the only editorial in newspapers, Biber (1988) identifies 2 other types in the context of the newspaper:

1. personal editorials which are opinions of individuals and which bear the name of the writer; and

2. letters to the editor which offer readers the platform to present their issues to an assumed counselor for advice.

Though these varieties are produced across different regional/national boundaries, they are collectively called editorials because they are supposed to share similar
functions. Fundamentally, they represent (varying degrees of) opinionated views with
the aim of influencing the beliefs and practices of their readers. Ansary and Babaii
(2009, p. 237) record that in terms of rhetorical structure, English newspaper
editorials from different cultural contexts share gross similarities. One wonders how
cultural variation affects the language of English newspaper editorials. Institutional
editorials which are the focus of this study, for instance, are mostly marked by some
of the following situational features across many cultural contexts\(^1\) (Van Dijk, 1989,
p. 235):

1. they evaluate current news with the view to influencing readers’ perspectives.
2. they represent the views of the publishing house;
3. they have a fixed position in the paper;
4. they bear the newspaper’s logo;
5. they are marked by a relatively broad column size;
6. they are not signed or datelined;
7. they have a brief headline, which summarizes one main opinion.

Particularly influential in linguistic choices are the first two as well as the last two
features. In view of this, it is understandable that institutional editorials, wherever
they are produced, should share basic linguistic features. It is in this sense that Biber
and Conrad (2009) make the argument

Regardless of any dialect differences, speakers using the same register
are doing similar communicative tasks; therefore in most basic respects
the characteristic language features used in a given situation are similar
across speakers from different dialects (Biber & Conrad, 2009, p. 12).

\(^1\) It must be noted that Ghanaian editorials lack some of these features. For instance, they are not
marked by their newspaper’s logo and they have a relatively narrow column size.
1.15 Organization of the thesis

The thesis is organized around seven chapters and this organization is largely inspired by Biber and Conrad’s (2009) recommendation for register study. According to their framework of register theory, any register study involves a description of the situational characteristics of the register involved (in this case newspaper editorials), a description of the most pervasive linguistic features and an interpretation of the functional correlation between the situational characteristics and the distribution of the linguistic variables.

We have established the foundation for this study in Chapter One by describing the background of this study. This involved stating the problem motivating the study, outlining research objectives, research questions and hypotheses, as well as justifying the choice of theoretical and grammatical concepts. Alongside all these are some attempts to throw light on the variety studied.

Chapter Two reviews the relevant literature on the grammatical scope of the study. This enables us to describe the grammatical structure of sentence and the clause in the light of typological models for categorizing them. By this, we not only fulfill the recommendation by Biber and Conrad (2009) to describe the linguistic features investigated but also, we establish a basis upon which we classify and code the linguistic variables of the study. More importantly, the literature reviewed in Chapter Two has direct implications for the analysis of the data in the sense that some of these concepts are relatable to the core discussions of the analysis.
Chapter Three establishes the theoretical framework of the study. The focus of the study places it within register theory but since register is one of the concepts which relate language to its context of use (situational context), we examine the other forms of context so as to lucidly delineate the scope of this study from related perspectives. Two other theories which relate to the study and so are reviewed in Chapter Three are speech acts and systemic functional linguistic principles of linguistic choices and their functional implications. Chapter Four outlines the methods for corpus compilation and analysis. Chapter Four therefore prepares the grounds for the analysis and discussions in Chapter Five and Chapter Six.

In Chapter Five, we present the distributional patterns of sentences and the implications of their distribution. The emphasis is placed on prevalent sentence patterns. Chapter Six reports on distributional attestation of clause patterns on the one hand and on the other hand interprets the distributional dynamics functionally. Chapter Seven summarizes the findings, discusses implications of the study, offers recommendations for future research and concludes the study.
CHAPTER TWO: THE CLAUSE AND THE SENTENCE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature on sentences and clause patterns with the aim of establishing a useful model by which we may identify and classify these two grammatical structures in the editorial corpus for subsequent analysis. The discussions have largely focused on concepts and typologies for classifying the sentence and the clause. Concepts relevant to the sentence and the clause such as subordination, constituency and embedding have been equally reviewed.

2.2 The sentence

The sentence is perhaps the most loaded grammatical unit since it is within it that all the grammatical units below the rank of the sentence are realized. Because of this, the sentence may be aptly described as the ultimate grammatical potential. As a result of its rich grammatical density, the sentence has received enormous investigation (Payne T., 1997; Payne T., 2006; Payne T. E., 2011; Longacre, 1999; Huddleston, 1999; Huddleston & Pullum, 2002; Kroeger, 2005), etc. In these discussions, scholars have attempted to define, classify and explore the sentence and its constituents. However, in this study, the question in this regard goes beyond what a sentence is, since it has little or no practical relevance to this work. Besides, identifying a sentence in written texts is a very simple task since it is orthographically marked by a beginning capital letter and an end point. The crucial question is how are sentences classified? In other words, what typologies exist in categorizing sentences? Answers to this question help not only in coding the data but also in stipulating the specific typologies adopted in establishing the linguistic variables for the study.
Observably, in spite of the extensive attention given to the sentence, it is one area of syntax which finds some degree of convergence especially in the area of its classification. Quirk et al. (1985), one of the most referenced grammars, classify sentences based on two factors:

- The formal properties of the sentence; and
- The structural peculiarities of their internal constituents.

Formally, four sentence types are identified. These are the declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamative sentences. There is the tendency in the literature to refer to these as functional types (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985; Wiredu, 2012; 2014). And so these terms (functional sentences and formal sentences) will be used interchangeably in this work.

The major formal properties distinguishing these functional sentence types are the arrangement of the subject and verb in them. Thus, the declarative sentence, for instance, has a subject usually located before the verb in the sentence. On the other hand, the interrogative sentence has alternative patterns; it either has an inversion of the subject and operator\(^2\) in one of the interrogative sub-types or a placement of an interrogative \(\textit{wh}\)-element initially in the other of the interrogative subtypes.

Similarly, imperative sentences are types of sentence which lack an overt subject and whose verbs are in base form. Finally, an exclamative sentence is one which has an

\(^2\) The operator is a grammatical reality realized in an auxiliary verb. However, when a verb is inflected and so lacks an auxiliary, the operator is inferred from the tense of the verb (Greenbaum & Nelson, 2002).
initial phrase introduced by what or how and whose subject and verb follow a normal order. These four sentence patterns constitute a system in two senses (Sadock & Zwicky, 1985):

- They are mutually exclusive in the sense that no sentence can belong to two types at the same time.
- Members of these sentence types differ only because they belong to a different type (Sadock & Zwicky, 1985, pp. 158-159).

This system of the formal sentence types together with their formal features makes them easily distinguishable. Thus, it is indisputable to determine that sentence 1 to 4 below excerpted from the corpus of the study are declarative, interrogative, imperative and Exclamative, respectively.

1. **Declarative**: <sentence text="TT01" snumber="02" function="declarative" structure="simple">The coalition has struggled to articulate a convincing growth strategy beyond its vital commitment to deficit reduction.</sentence>

2. **Interrogative**: Is the second chamber supposed to act as a bridle on unchecked executive power, as Mr Clegg has argued in which case it should be very powerful? <sentence text="TT06" snumber="15" function="interrogative" structure="complex">

3. **Imperative**: At the party conferences, watch the audience rather than the platform. <sentence text="TT27" snumber="19" function="imperative" structure="complex">

4. **Exclamative**: What an extraordinary admission that is. <sentence text="DT31" snumber="12" function="exclamative" structure="simple">
One noteworthy observation is that these sentence types reflect corresponding discourse functions. As a result, there is a tendency in the literature to discuss them under functional typology. For instance, the declarative sentence above is conveying some information; i.e. the fact that some people are making some effort. This function is referred to as *statement of facts*.

On the other hand, the interrogative sentence above does not convey information; it is rather seeking information; a request that requires a response. As a result of this function, sentences like sentence two above are alternatively called *questions* based on their discourse function. Imperative sentences, based on their discourse functions, are generally referred to as *directives*. They are used “to instruct somebody to do something” (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985). And so sentence 3 above is instructing an unspecified addressee to observe something. Finally, the exclamative sentence in sentence 4 is expressing the writer’s impression about a situation. This function is referred to as *exclamation*.

Of these four sentence patterns, it is declarative, interrogative and imperative which recur most frequently in language (Huddleston, 1999, p. 329). This finds confirmation in Wiredu (2012) whose investigation of the use of complex sentences in newspaper editorials reveals that the declarative sentence is the dominant type in newspaper editorials. Wiredu limited his investigation to editorials from one Ghanaian newspaper, the *Daily Graphic*. A cross-cultural investigation of the kind conducted in this work will validate the universality of the register concept which
claims that linguistic features are similarly distributed within the same genre across cultures.

Quirk et al.’s second typology for classifying sentences is based on the structural peculiarities of their internal clause constituents. In other words, as Wardhaugh (1995, p. 114) puts it, this system classifies sentences “according to the number and types of clauses they contain” Accordingly, we identify simple, and multiple sentences (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985, p. 987). The simple sentence is composed of one independent clause. In line with traditional grammar (Wardhaugh, 1995, p. 114), we classify as simple a sentence with compound predicate and compound subject such as the following:

5. John and Mary sang and danced all night.

6. The children ate their food and then left.

The multiple sentence, which consists of two or more clauses, has three sub-types (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985; Wardhaugh, 1995). There are multiple sentences which possess two or more independent clauses. These are commonly referred to as compound sentences. Similarly, there are multiple sentences which consist of one independent clause and at least one subordinate clause. These are called complex sentences.

Quirk et al. (1985) additionally remark that a further permutation, which blends a compound sentence with a complex sentence, exists. Wiredu (2012) and Wardhaugh call this multiple sentence a compound complex sentence. These four sentence types, which are upheld in this study, are instantiated in the following excerpts from the editorial corpus data of this study:
7. *Simple sentence*: President Sarkozy has not been arrested. <sentence text="DT11" snumber="14" function="declarative" structure="simple">

8. *Compound sentence*: Ghana has scored high marks in its democratic march and the country is seen as the beacon of hope for Africa. <sentence text="DG02" snumber="07" function="declarative" structure="compound">

9. *Complex sentence*: The Canute-like frustration of politicians at their inability to control the tax affairs of the multinationals is out of proportion to the benefit they bring to the economy - or to the sums at stake which set against the country's vast indebtedness can only be symbolic. <sentence text="DT35" snumber="28" function="declarative" structure="complex">

10. compound complex: Be that as it may, the Daily Graphic thinks that the efforts by the ACI to seek divine intervention for peaceful elections in 2012 are commendable and those who believe in that cause should lend their support. <sentence text="DG01" snumber="15" function="declarative" structure="compound complex">

The multiple sentence is noted in the literature to be the most preferred structural type (Wiredu, 2012). Of the multiple subtypes, Wiredu again argues that it is the complex sentence which is the most preferred type in newspaper editorial (Wiredu, 2012). This observation is interesting particularly in relation to the editorial genre. As Hopper and Traugott (2003, p. 117) observe, it is normal for complex sentences to be used in any human language. What is special is the “reorganization of complex combinations”
since complex sentences are preferred in planned discourse. For this study, therefore, we classify sentences into the above eight subtypes.

In classifying the sentences, emphasis has been placed on their direct speech act functions. We therefore classify a structure interrogative whose formal properties mark it as declarative but which has a question mark as an end point. Since the complex sentence is the dominant type in the editorials, we explore the structure of the complex sentence in the next section.

2.2.1 The complex sentence

Complex sentence in our corpus may be sub-classified as follows:

- Complex declarative sentences:
  - I will tell you when the time comes.

- Complex interrogative sentence:
  - Where is the lady you were talking about yesterday?

- Complex imperative sentences:
  - Give me the pen you took from my table.

- Complex Exclamative sentences:
  - How good you look in the suit I gave you.

Of these patterns, the complex declarative sentence is claimed to be the dominant type in the editorials (Wiredu, 2012).

It is important to note a deliberate deviation from Quirk et al.’s (1985) classification in our framing of the complex sentence. As illustrative in sentence (9) above, we
classify as complex any sentence with a main clause within which any of its constituents are post-modified by a clause. This is contrary to Quirk et al.’s approach. To them, a structure with one main clause in which any of the constituent phrases are post-modified by a clause is a simple sentence (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985, p. 719). In their approach, then, sentence 9 above would be classified as a simple sentence.

In this study, therefore, a complex sentence is a sentence which has one main or matrix clause and at least one subordinate clause (Wardhaugh, 1995). It is important to add that the subordinate clause in our complex sentence may either constitute an element of the sentence or a modifier of any of its elements (Wardhaugh, 1995; Wiredu, 2012).

This classification has at least one implication. It leads us to sub-classify complex sentences into 2 structural subtypes. These are:

11. A complex sentence in which the subordinate clause is an element of the sentence. The subordinate clause in this regard may be a subject, an object, or an adverbial. The italicized subordinate clause in sentence (a) is an adverbial whereas those of sentence (b) are subject and object of the sentence, respectively.

   a. *Where Mr Johnson is by nature a unifier*, Mr Livingstone is by nature divisive. <sentence text="DT13" snumber="21" function="declarative" structure="complex">
b. *What political leaders should do* is restrain their spokespersons who engage in the so-called “verbal diarrhea” instead of saying *what they can do to change the fortunes of the people.*

12. A complex sentence in which the subordinate clause is a post-modifier of a phrase. Typically, the ‘head phrase’ which is being post-modified may be a noun phrase, an adjectival phrase or a prepositional phrase. In the example below, the clause italicized post-modifies a noun phrase:

a. There is also an argument that the devolution of decision making in the NHS did not require a structural overhaul, but rather a low-key, managerial approach.

A layered complex structure, however, exists where the phrase being modified is within a subordinate clause as in the italicized clause in the sentence below:

13. An ugly strain of anti-Semitism has underpinned his campaign, while his loose relationship with the truth has been shocking in a man seeking public office.

Wiredu (2012) argues about the dominance of the complex sentence in his work that the complex sentence is the most suitable form of sentence for the communicative purpose of the newspaper editorial genre. That is, it is the complex sentence, more than any of the others, which allows for complex hierarchical arrangement of information needed to persuade readers.
2.3 The concept of the clause

The grammatical rank immediately below the sentence is the clause. The clause and the sentence are just two of the levels (ranks) at which grammatical analysis may be conducted, the others being the phrase (also known as the group in some traditions), the word and the morpheme.

Like the sentence, the clause is one of the most investigated grammatical units. This attraction of the clause has been ascribed to the fact that the clause is “the central processing unit in the lexicogrammar” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 10). That is, the clause is the only grammatical unit below the sentence which enables the realization of several functions simultaneously\(^3\) (Bloor & Bloor, 2004; Eggins, 2004). Accordingly, a clause can establish the orientation of a message and indicate the relationship between the participants of a discourse.

However, the clause, unlike the sentence, is one grammatical unit which has received the most variable treatment especially in the area of classification and conceptualization (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985; Payne T., 1997; Vincent, 1999; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Kroeger, 2005). In this chapter, we limit our discussion of the clause to concept and classification. Both concept and classification of the clause are directly relevant to this study in that whereas a specification of the concept enables us to frame the clause for investigation, an

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\(^3\) Systemic functional linguists argue that the clause has a potential of realizing three meanings (metafunctions) simultaneously. These are the ideational functions, interpersonal functions and textual functions (Eggins, 2004). A detailed discussion of the metafunctions is done in Chapter Four.
overview of standard typologies for clause classification facilitates coding, tagging and eventual analysis of the corpus of this study.

The clause has been largely conceptualized as an aspect or a sub-unit of the sentence (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985; Vincent, 1999; Kroeger, 2005). That is, a sentence constantly has a place for a clause – at least one main clause. But optionally, a clause may compete with phrases or words to perform functions of clause element within the structure of the sentence. This means that each time a clause is used as a constituent in a sentence, a phrase or a word has been dispreferred. Of the sub-grammatical units of the sentence, the clause is the highest grammatical constituent capable of encapsulating all the other grammatical units, including the clause. For instance, sentence (14) below:

14. Of course, while the Times admits that a greater responsibility rests with Dr. Kwadwo Afari-Gyan and his team on the EC, it also holds the view that there is little the commission can do, without the cooperation of all Ghanaians. <sentence text="GT01" snumber="02" function="declarative" structure="complex">

is made up of the following 5 clauses which constitute the immediate grammatical constituents below the sentence:

15. …while the Times admits that a greater responsibility rests with Dr. Kwadwo Afari-Gyan and his team on the EC

16. that a greater responsibility rests with Dr. Kwadwo Afari-Gyan and his team
on the EC

17. it also holds the view that there is little the commission can do

18. that there is little the commission can do

19. the commission can do

These are very special examples because not only are the clauses made up of units below the rank of the clause but as may be observed, most of the clauses (15), (17) and (18) are layered, embedding other clauses within them. So the point is that though clauses are normally made up of phrases and words, there are instances like in above clauses where clauses function as constituents of other clauses.

Similarly, there are alternative concepts apart from the notion that the clause is a subunit of the sentence. Systemic functional grammarians, for instance, conceptualize the clause as the highest rank on a grammatical rank scale (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Eggins, 2004; Bloor & Bloor, 2004). For them, grammatical units relate in a rank scale with the morpheme and the clause at the extreme ends of the continuum. The sentence, in their conceptualization, is a form of a clause, equal in status to the clause. In this system, they argue further, a higher unit is made up of the unit below it. That is, the clause is made up of groups, which in turn are made up of words and words are made up of morphemes (Eggins, 2004; Fawcett, 2000).
Finally, the clause has also been conceptualized as a desententialized unit (Huddleston, 1999). In this perspective, Huddleston argues that a clause is a desententialized unit in the sense that though it lacks the full force of illocution (Huddleston, 1999, p. 337) and some essential features of a sentence, it has a potential of becoming a sentence. And this informs Weisler and Milekic’s understanding of the clause when they define the subordinate clause as “sentences that appear as subconstituents of larger sentences” (Weisler & Milekic, 2000, p. 160). Besides, some clauses, especially the independent ones, are capable of standing alone in a discourse. This is exemplified in sentence (14) above, in which apart from clause (17) (it also holds the view that there is little the commission can do), none of the other clauses has all it takes to make it fully interpretable as a sentence. Clause (17) is what will be referred to later as a main/independent clause and so is capable, as such, to stand alone. And yet, even as an independent clause, while it forms part of a larger sentence, the full illocutionary potential of this clause is curtailed (Huddleston, 1999). However, it must be emphasized that even the other dependent clauses are capable of being turned into sentences through the process of recoverability of eroded features.

The nature of clause (17) above, in terms of its ability to make more sense alone than any of its counterparts in the sentence, is what leads to the argument that the degree of clause desententialization depends on whether a clause is subordinate or independent, finite or nonfinite. That is, a subordinate clause is more desententialized than an independent clause. Even more desententialized are nonfinite clauses, for the inflected features of finite subordinate clauses make them more easily sententialized than nonfinite clauses. We can therefore extend the argument by adding that a
A subordinated clause is more desententialized than a coordinated clause in that the process of coordination involves a combination of independent clauses whereas subordination involves a subordinate clause which may be finite or nonfinite. Thus, the process of desententialization is a process by which a potential sentence is depleted of its crucial properties or “has lost features of interpretation and/or forms that are associated with a clause standing alone as a sentence” (Huddleston, 1999, p. 337).

In this study, we are using the clause in the first and last perspectives. Though the concept of the clause in SFL tradition is as much innovative as it is attractive, in this work we conceptualize the clause as an aspect of the sentence which itself is a potential sentence. In rank we rank the clause immediately below the sentence.

2.3.1 Clause typology

In our discussion of the sentence and the clause we have been using the terms independent and dependent clauses without explaining what they are. We have noted, for instance, that structural classification of sentences is based on the nature of their internal clause constituents. Thus, whereas a simple sentence is defined as having one independent clause, a multiple sentence is defined as consisting of a combination of independent and dependent (also known as subordinate) clause. One common tradition for classifying clauses is to categorize them into independent and subordinate/dependent types. In this regard, the italicized clauses in sentences (20) and (21) are independent clauses whereas those italicized in sentences (22) and (23) are subordinate clauses:
20. *This picking of winners is the job not of ministers but of the expert Technology Strategy Board,* which Mr Willetts announced yesterday would be setting up a new innovation centre in the area of satellite applications.

21. *The British economy does, indeed, have structural weaknesses* that need to be rectified.

22. *The rules governing ministerial conduct are more open to interpretation than the existence of a formal code implies.*

23. *Although concerns have been raised over the delay in the registration exercise,* the EC has assured Ghanaians *that it will deliver on its constitutional mandate.*

This classification of the clause is based on its ability to stand alone in discourse. And so the italicized clauses in sentences (20) and (21):

   a. *This picking of winners is the job not of ministers but of the expert Technology Strategy Board*

   b. *The British economy does, indeed, have structural weaknesses*

are referred to as independent clauses because they possess features that are capable of making them function alone (independently) in discourse whereas the italicized in (22) and (23):
c. governing ministerial conduct

d. than the existence of a formal code implies

e. although concerns have been raised over the delay in the registration exercise

f. that it will deliver on its constitutional mandate

are subordinate clauses because they lack some essential features capable of making them stand alone in discourse, a situation which has been referred to above as desententialization. The process whereby two or more independent clauses are joined together in a compound sentence by coordinating conjunction or by punctuation is referred to as coordination. In coordination, the clauses involved are said to enter into a paratactic relationship (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985, p. 987). That is they are of equal grammatical status.

A combination of an independent clause and a subordinate clause in a complex sentence, on the other hand, is a process referred to as subordination. Whereas coordination involves a symmetrical relationship, subordination involves an asymmetrical relationship (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985, p. 987). That is, in subordination, a sentence is considered as forming a hierarchical relationship with its subordinate clause(s) whereas clauses in coordination share a relationship of equivalence. The process of subordination has been discussed in some detail in section 2.4.2 below.

Going back to the clauses above, we realize that clauses (a), (b), (d), (e) and (f) have finite verbs whereas clause (c) has a nonfinite verb. This leads us to another level of
classification where clauses are either finite or nonfinite. Quirk et al. add verbless clauses to this classification and refer to them as structural types of clauses (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985, p. 992). Independent clauses are necessarily finite whereas subordinate clauses may be finite or nonfinite as exemplified in clause (a) to (f) above. In view of our focus on the subordinate clause more of the classificatory emphasis will be given to the subordinate clause.

One very useful classification of the subordinate clause is based on its grammatical function in a sentence (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985; Vincent, 1999; Kroeger, 2005; Hopper & Traugott, 2003; Wiredu, 2012). Three basic functions are usually identified:

- A clause performing a nominal function and so is referred to as a nominal clause: it may be a subject, object or a complement;
- A clause performing an adjectival function: this function is typically performed by relative clauses; and
- A clause performing an adverbial function: this may be any of the circumstantial functions that phrases and words can perform. These clause types are referred to as adverbial clauses.

In line with Vincent (1999), we define nominal (complementation in his model), relative and adverbial clauses as follows:

a. RELATIVES, in which a clause modifies a noun or other element;

b. ADVERBIALS, in which a clause, usually introduced by a
conjunction, marks a peripheral relation such as cause, purpose, time, manner, etc. (see van der Auwera, 1998 for valuable typological material and analyses);

c. COMPLEMENTATION, in which a clause is an argument of a verb, noun, or other category (Vincent, 1999, p. 353).

Vincent’s classification above is useful here in terms of its extensive approach especially in the treatment of nominal (complement) clauses. It, at least, facilitates coding and tagging of the corpus. For example, it helps in the classification of the following clauses identified in the corpus:

24. clauses which are complements of nouns
   a. The most exciting constitutional changes are the prospect that British cities may be led by mayors and that local policing will be overseen by a dedicated police commissioner. <clause text="TT05" snumber="04" cnumber="02" function="nominal complement" structure="subordinating">

25. clauses which are complements of adjectives
   a. However, it would be wrong to think that authority derives just from the principles written into an official. <clause text="TT05" snumber="08" cnumber="12" function="adjectival complement" structure="infinitival">

26. clauses which are complements of prepositions:
   a. They have talked about restraining boardroom pay in a game of populist chicken with Mr Miliband…<clause text="DT03"
27. clauses which are complements of verbs:
   a. …it cannot be said *that Mr Lansley has played a blinder.*

Nominal clauses are therefore sub-classified in this study into:

   i. nominal complements
   ii. adjectival complements; and
   iii. verbal complements

Prepositional complements are particularly problematic in their classification (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002). For instance, how different is the underlined structure in sentence (28) from the underlined in sentence (29):

28. They have talked about restraining boardroom pay in a game of populist chicken with Mr Miliband…

29. They spoke before leaving the office.

The inconsistency in the literature (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002) is to treat the underlined structure in sentence (29) as an adverbial clause and that in (28) as a prepositional phrase embedding a clause as its complement. It is, however, reasonable to consider the two structures not as two different structures. They therefore deserve to be classified alike. For the purpose of this work, we refuse to classify the clause minus the preposition as nominal clause especially when they don’t seem to encode circumstantial information. We, however, classify those whose circumstantial status is
obvious as in sentence (29) as adverbial clause. In both of these two clauses above, we note that they share a common structural feature; a feature that enables their classification together under present participial nonfinite clauses.

Besides nominal clauses, relative and adverbial clauses have been sub-classified into various subtypes. Relative clauses, for example, have been traditionally sub-classified into restrictive/defining, nonrestrictive/nondefining and sentential subtypes (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985; Fabb, 1999; Huddleston & Pullum, 2002). However, because the classification of relative clauses has been semantically based, it becomes sometimes difficult to, for instance, differentiate a restrictive clause from a nonrestrictive clause. The fact is that both restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses share similar relativizers, though there are additional features which are supposed to set restrictive clauses apart from nonrestrictive ones:

i. restrictive clauses may alternatively be introduced by *that*, a *wh*-word or a zero relativizer;

ii. non-restrictive clauses are introduced by a *wh*-word alone (Kroeger, 2005, pp. 231 -132).

But the confusion also relates to the semantic distinction drawn between restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses. For example, the distinction between restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses is mainly in the level of its integration in the noun phrase. That is, whereas the restrictive clause is described as being bound to a noun phrase besides narrowing down the meaning of the head, the nonrestrictive relative clause is considered as being loosely connected to the noun phrase (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002). Meanwhile, in a naturally occurring text, it is not easy to distinguish these
types based on this traditional explanation given to the relatives. Hundt et al. (2012, p. 218) identify two of these problems to which we have added a third:

i. there are clauses which appear formally as restrictive relative clauses but which in reality are not semantically restrictive;

ii. some nonrestrictive relative clauses which are supposed to be providing optional information are sometimes obligatory; and

iii. English users are not consistent in applying the punctuation mark distinguishing nonrestrictive relatives from restrictive ones.

In view of the above problems, we have attempted to simplify identification and tagging of relative clauses by reclassifying them based on their formal properties (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002). The following are the types of relative clauses attested in the corpus:

30. Relative clauses which are introduced by a *wh*-word:

a. And then there are the texts of Mr Smith, and Mr Hunt himself, *which are, frankly, embarrassing.*

31. Relative clauses which are introduced by *that*:

a. The questions *that were raised will now be for Mr Cameron to answer.*
32. Relative clauses which lack a relativizer:

a. The congress comes after several postponements emanating from strong differences and litigation among some leading members of the party. <clause text="DG05" snumber="02" cnumber="03" function="whiz-Relative" structure="present participial">

b. If they cannot accelerate that process by military intervention they must at least be ready with coordinated assistance on a massive scale for those he has so cruelly abused. <clause text="TT09" snumber="22" cnumber="30" function="whiz-Relative" structure="zero relativizer"> </rank>

33. Relative clauses in which the relativizer is being fronted by a preposition:

a. Is the second chamber supposed to act as a bridle on unchecked executive power, as Mr Clegg has argued, in which case it should be very powerful? <clause text="TT06" snumber="15" cnumber="24" function="pied piping" structure="interrogcl"> </rank>

These four examples above correspond to our simplified subtypes of relative clause:

i. **wh-Relative clause**: these relatives are normally introduced by any of these relativizers – *who, which, whom, whose*

ii. **that-Relative clause**: the *that*-Relative clause should not be confused with the that-complement clause since they have both syntactic and intonational differentiation. That is, the *that* in a *that*-Relative clause is replaceable with *which or who*. This cannot be said about the *that* in *that*-complement
clauses. Besides, the *that* in the two clause-types are intonationally realized differently. That is, the *that* in that-Relative clauses is realized with a relatively higher intonation than the *that* in that-complement clauses. This differentiation can be made by comparing the following *that*-complement clauses in sentence (a) and (b) below with the *that*-Relative clause in (31) (a) above.

a. The fact that we are your friends alone gives you an advantage.

b. He complained that people are not patronizing the programme.

iii. whiz-Relative clauses: whiz-Relatives are of two subtypes. These are clauses in which only a relativizer is deleted as in *the topic* ∅ *we are discussing today*… and clauses which have both relativizer and a BE verb deleted as in *the person* ∅ *shouting must stop*.

iv. pied piping (Horvath, 2006) relative clauses: also referred to as upward percolation (Hudson, 2012), pied piping relative clauses are the most formal of the four types (Wiredu, 2012). They are typically fronted by different prepositions such as in (33) (a) above.

The advantage of this classification is that it is based on the syntactic features of the clause. As a result they are easily identified and distinguished for tagging and analysis.

For adverbial clauses, though several subtypes have been discussed in the literature (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985; Payne T., 2006), we limit our discussion to common subtypes. We therefore identify: adverbial clauses of time,
place, manner, purpose, result, concession, reason, simultaneity and conditionals. Simultaneity clauses are treated as subtypes of time adverbial clauses.

One final classification of clauses we make is based on the formal properties of clause patterns. This classification is an attempt to exhaust the description of clause types especially as they are used in the newspaper editorial corpus of this study. Observably, the clauses identified from functional perspectives above are noted to possess some unique formal features. We identify, for example:

34. clauses which begin with a subordinator. We refer to these clause-types as *subordinating clauses*. Examples are the three clauses emphasized in (a) below:

a. The woes of Greece in particular have shown that *currency union cannot succeed without political union* and that Europe's democratic deficit must be addressed *if the latter is to take place*. 1. <clause text="TT18" snumber="16" cnumber="19" function="verbal complement" structure="subordinating">; 2. <clause text="TT18" snumber="16" cnumber="20" function="verbal complement" structure="subordinating">; 3. <clause text="TT18" snumber="16" cnumber="21" function="conditional" structure="subordinating">

35. Clauses whose verbs are in the infinitive form. We identify these as *infinitival clauses*. Example:

b. Mr Miliband is right to *argue that government can be more active in pursuit of growth*. <clause text="TT03" snumber="14" cnumber="16" function="adjectival complement" structure="infinitival">
36. Clauses which have an interrogative word in their initial position. We refer to these clauses as *interrogative clauses* coded in the corpus as *Interrogcl*. Example:

   a. We hope the NDC has made the right choice of candidates *who are ready to battle for honours and serve their constituents*...<clause text="GT03" snumber="11" cnumber="22" function="wh-Relative" structure="interrogcl">

37. Clauses whose verbs are in participial forms. Of these, there are clauses with present participial verb forms as well as clauses with perfect participial verb forms. These give us *present participial clauses* and *perfect participial clauses*. Examples:

   a. We expect to go beyond the public relations gimmick of *appending their signatures to a code of conduct a few days to the elections*<clause text="DG01" snumber="10" cnumber="24" function="prepositional complement" structure="present participial">

   b. Recent governments have therefore preferred generic growth policies rather than ones *focused on particular sectors or technologies*. <clause text="TT01" snumber="07" cnumber="06" function="whiz-Relative" structure="perfect participial">

As we may observe in the examples above, whereas subordinating and interrogative clauses are finite clauses, the infinitival and participial clauses are nonfinite. Example:

- Subordinating: *when we meet him*, we will make the proposal.
• Interrogative: the student who just left is in our department.

• Infinitival: Investment in science and technology is the government’s only chance to rebalance the economy.

• Participial: Raising that number will be very tough for the government.

It must also be added that these formal subtypes identified here cross over boundaries of functional types. For instance, the subordinating clause type covers some nominal clauses (those introduced by subordinators) and almost all adverbial clauses:

• Nominal subordinating: it is important that we mention his name.

• Adverbial subordinating: If he returns early, tell him to follow us.

Similarly, interrogative clauses are either nominal clauses or relative clauses:

• Nominal interrogative clause: What he said displeased many.

• Relative interrogative clause: The lady who gave you the key is my sister.

Infinitival clauses, on the other hand, are noted to function as either nominal clauses or adverbial clauses:

• Nominal infinitival clause: To regain public trust is the leader’s concern.

• Adverbial clause: To save some money, we cooked for ourselves.

Finally, participial clauses function as either nominal clauses or as reduced relative clause:

• Nominal participial clauses: Reading before class is a good habit.
• Reduced relative participial clause: The man standing in front of the class is the lecturer.

Out of the typologies examined above, we adopt the last two – functional and formal types of clauses – not only because they receive treatment in major grammars (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985; Biber, Johanson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999; Huddleston & Pullum, 2002) but more importantly, they cover the major clause patterns in English. Under the functional types, we have the nominal clause (and its three subtypes), the relative clause (and its four reclassified subtypes) and the adverbial clause (and its common subtypes). Under the formal classification, we have the subordinating, interrogative, infinitival and participial subtypes.

2.3.2 Subordination, constituency and embedding/rank shifting

This section of the discussion reviews some of the controversial issues in the literature regarding subordination and its allied concepts. The aim of this discussion is to stipulate explicitly the position of this work concerning subordination, constituency and embedding and/rank shifting which are pertinent to our study of the complex sentence. This review helps us to not only conceptualize the relationship between subordinate clauses and their main clauses but it also serves as a guide about how we apply these concepts in our analysis.

We start with the argument, by Quirk et al. (1985), that the process of subordination is an asymmetrical relationship in which a “sentence and its subordinate clauses are in a
A hypotactic relationship…that is they form a hierarchy in which the subordinate clause is a constituent of the sentence as a whole…” (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985, p. 987). We note, first of all, the use of the terms emphasized in the assertion above: hypotactic and constituent. In fact, these same terms are used in systemic functional grammar but with different senses.

In the sense as it is used by Quirk et al., a hypotactic relationship is the relation between a main clause and its subordinate clause where the subordinate clause is considered as a constituent of the sentence. And so in the sentences below, the italicized clauses are in a hypotactic relationship with their main clauses and constituents of the entire sentence in which they are adverbial, subject, object, and object, respectively:

38. They had already exchanged the vows when we got there.
39. How we saw them is a mystery.
40. They bought what was available.
41. He thought that they were our friends.

The constituency relationship of a subordinate clause to its main clause is noteworthy because elsewhere, in systemic functional linguistics, as we shall see later, a subordinate clause is not treated as a constituent of its sentence. To Quirk et al., therefore, constituency is the same as ‘embedding’ or ‘rank shifting’ in SFL. They, thus, explicitly explain in a footnote: “Subordinate clauses…have also been called ‘dependent’, embedded…and syntactically bound clauses” (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985, p. 988).
It is necessary to raise a few issues here. Their treatment of a subordinate clause as embedded and rank shifted gives room for a wider scope of defining embedding. In the light of Quirk et al.’s argument, we can posit that a grammatical unit can be a constituent of a higher unit or a lower unit. This relationship is referred to as embedding and we have no problem with this reasoning. Our problem is with treating every constituency relationship as rank shifting. We argue in this work, like systemic grammarians, that rank shifting be reserved for the phenomenon where a unit is constituent of a unit lower than or equal to it. It makes sense then to refer to such a relationship as a shift in rank. Thus, to us, though a subordinate clause is a constituent of a sentence, it is not rank shifted unless it is used as a constituent of a phrase.

Alternative perspectives to clause subordination are presented in systemic functional grammar. Systemic functional grammar advances a number of concepts about clause subordination which are contrary to Quirk et al.’s argument. They argue, in the first place, that the concept of the sentence is fundamentally a problematic one in the sense that it frustrates a cross-varietal investigation of speech and writing. In place of the sentence, they have created the concept of the clause complex⁴ in which we can have a number of clauses grammatically linked together (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 8).

They argue further that the clause complex typically involves two processes of clause combination: these are paratactic process and hypotactic process. Though the same

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⁴ The opposite of the clause complex is the clause simplex where there is only one clause in a sentence (Eggins, 2004).
term, the concept of hypotaxis in systemic functional linguistics is not exactly the same as used in Quirk et al. (1985). In SFL tradition, hypotaxis is a relation between clauses which are grammatically unequal in the sense that one of the clauses is dependent, though not a constituent of the other (Eggins, 2004). The difference is that whereas in Quirk et al. hypotaxis is synonymous with subordination whereby a clause is a constituent of its sentence, in SFL a hypotactic clause is not a constituent. This perspective of SFL on hypotaxis has a number of implications. It means, in the first place, that not all subordinate clauses in the Quirkean sense of the term share hypotactic relations with their main clauses. For example, though the italicized clause in the following sentence is a subordinate clause in the Quirkean model and so relates hypotactically with its main clause in the same model, it does not share a hypotactic relation with its main clause in the SFL model:

42. They took what the man gave us.

Another implication of the SFL notion of hypotaxis is that no embedded structure (reserving embedding and for that matter rank shifting for the situation where “a clause or phrase comes to function as a constituent within the structure of a group, which itself is a constituent of a clause…” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 426)) shares a hypotactic relation with its head or with the outer clause. There is, therefore, no hypotactic relation between a relative clause and the noun it modifies, or with the outer clause within which the NP appears (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). In fact, to SFL, hypotactic relationship can exist only between two clauses and not between a clause and a phrase. In this reasoning, then, the italicized clauses in sentences (43), (44) and (45) below are in hypotactic relationship with their dominant clauses.
43. In the case of Ghana, this cynicism is understandable because the country is a secular state and the constitution enjoins us to operate as such.

44. Be that as it may, it is very refreshing to know that after all the bickering and internal wrangling, the party is finally going to congress.

45. The expensive mistakes that governments in the 1970s made while attempting to pick corporate winners have led to a widespread wariness about industrial policy.

Parataxis, on the other hand, is a relationship between clauses of equal grammatical status as in sentence (46) below.

46. The quality of our universities is one of Britain's great strengths and we already have 12 in the top 100, according to the Times Higher Education ranking.

It must be observed that apart from the second hypotactic clause in sentence (44), all the other hypotactic clauses are examples of what we refer to in this work as adverbial clause, a norm adopted from Quirk et al. (1985). The distinction between the second clause in sentence (44) and the other clauses in sentence (43), (44) and (45) is a delicate one which marks the two forms of logical relations that systemic grammarians ascribe to tactic relations. That is, whether paratactic or hypotactic, the
clause complex exhibits the two logical sequences of projection or expansion (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004).

In expansion, the meaning of one clause is elaborated, extended or enhanced whereas in projection a process of verbal (say, report, comment, argue, etc.) or mental (think, know, believe, etc.) action is being extended in another clause (Eggins, 2004). The second hypotactic clause in sentence (44) is an example of projection while all the other hypotactic and paratactic clauses instantiate expansion of different kinds. A number of issues are noteworthy here.

Firstly, the treatment of hypotactic and paratactic structures together under logical relations implies that a hypotactic relation is conceptually closer to paratactic relation than it is to embedding. And this is fundamentally problematic because hypotaxis is arguably closer to embedding than to parataxis for the simple reason that they both cannot stand alone in communication. Sinnemaki’s (2006) probe of the distinctions drawn by Halliday reveals closeness between an embedded clause and a hypotactic clause rather than between hypotactic and paratactic clauses. He reports, among other things that according to his data “…hypotactic clauses are not as different from embedded clauses as Halliday claims” (Sinnemaki, 2006, p. 375)

Equally importantly, the distinctions among hypotaxis, parataxis and embedding present other fundamental problems. For instance, the treatment of that-clauses after verbal and mental verbs only as instances of hypotactic projection is also problematic.
This problem is instantiated in the distinction systemic grammarians draw between the following two underlined clauses in sentences (47) and (48):

47. Be that as it may, it is very refreshing to know that after all the bickering and internal wrangling, the party is finally going to congress.

48. His victory in the Bradford West byelection suggests that political disenchantment observes no party boundaries.

In their interpretation, the underlined clause in sentence (47) is a hypotactic projection whereas that in (48) is neither hypotactic nor paratactic simply because whereas the *that*-clause in (47) is placed after a mental verb (know), that in (48) is used neither after a mental nor a speech verb. In explaining this distinction, systemic linguists introduce the distinction between embedded clauses and tactic clauses according to which all *that*-clauses apart from those after verbal and mental verbs are embedded. This position is not clear. It is this distinction that Sinnemaki (2006, p. 375) considers unjustified, while Fawcett (2000, p. 240) describes as an attempt to minimize “the role of embedding in grammar”.

On the contrary, it is easier to argue that *that*-clauses, whether placed after verbal/mental verbs or not, perform complementation functions. In fact, our editorial data attest to instances where *that*-clauses complement nouns, verbs, and adjectives as in the following:

49. This newspaper has argued *that the strategy must be more ambitious for Britain and should include an unashamed commitment to an activist industrial policy*. <clause text=“TT01” snumber=“04” cnumber=“03” function=“verbal complement” structure=“subordinating”><rank>
50. In doing so, it would solve a wider concern of Britain's security services, which fear a reluctance to share intelligence on the part of their counterparts in other friendly nations if they cannot offer assurances _that such information will not end up in the public domain_.

51. The two men are apparently equally frustrated by Mr Assad's intransigence in Syria, and equally confident _that he will eventually be toppled_.

These types of clauses are described in this study as subtypes of nominal clause because, as can be seen in sentence (49) to (51) above, they are all complements. We analyze complements as examples of embedding. This is in line with Fawcett who conceptualizes embedding involving the clause broadly as follows:

By far the most important type of embedding is the embedding of a clause as element of a higher clause, or a clause as an element of a nominal, quality or quantity group – and so indirectly as an element of a higher clause (Fawcett, 2000, p. 265).

2.4 Summary
This review has revealed that whereas the sentence has received a more straightforward classification in the literature, the clause is one of the grammatical
units which has attracted divergent classifications. Accordingly, the two traditional
typologies for classifying the sentence (i.e. formal and structural typologies)
according to which eight sentence types are classified are upheld here.

On clause patterns, we have maintained that the clause is a desententialized unit. In its
desententialized status, the clause functions as a constituent subunit of its sentence. In
our attempt to set a standard for classifying clause patterns for this study, we have
reviewed common typologies in the literature and eventually settled on the two major
typologies: functional and structural classification.

The concepts of constituency, embedding and subordination have been argued as
related concepts. We have argued in this review that constituency is a broader
concept, which incorporates embedding and subordination. Embedding, however, is a
sub-concept which is applied in this study in SFL sense of rank shifting according to
which a higher unit is downgraded to function as a modifier in lower unit.
CHAPTER 3: LANGUAGE, CONTEXT AND FUNCTION

3.1. Introduction

The intention to compare the language of newspaper editorials from two different sociocultural contexts (i.e. native and nonnative contexts) presupposes a number of assumptions. In the first place, the very fact that certain texts, produced within different cultural contexts, bear the same nomenclature (newspaper editorials) suggests that those texts share common features. The questions that come to mind are numerous. For example, what is it that enables us to identify a group of texts as belonging to the same class? More specifically, what is it that enables us to call the texts we are studying newspaper editorials? What common linguistic denominator, for instance, promotes their collective classification? In other words, what linguistic features make one “genre”, say newspaper editorials, different from other “genres”?

Similarly, the linguistic focus of this investigation, the sentence and the clause, equally raises some relevant questions. Why limit the discussion to the sentence and the clause? Are they of any special relevance in editorial language? What models of theoretical and analytical heuristics inspire the study?

These questions, which we address in this research, may be considered by establishing the relevant theories which inspire this study. These include:

- SFL concepts of system, choice and function (Halliday M. K., 1985; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004).
- Speech acts (Austin, 2005)
- Text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976)
• Context (Bloor & Bloor, 2004)

• Register, genre and style (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Biber & Conrad, 2009)

A combination of these theories does not only enhance one’s understanding of the way sentences and clauses are used in the newspaper editorials studied but also, they facilitate the analysis and interpretation of corpus attestations.

3.2 System, choice and function

Our understanding of the use of sentences and clauses is influenced primarily by four fundamental claims about language use put forward by systemic linguists (Halliday M. K., 1985; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). They argue, among other things

• that language use is functional;
• that its function is to make meanings;
• that these meanings are influenced by the social and cultural context in which they are exchanged; and
• that the process of using language is a semiotic process, a process of making meanings by choosing (Egins, 2004, p. 3).

This conceptualization about language use is much relevant to our study for we conceive of the use of sentences and clauses in newspaper editorials as choices which are motivated by social functions. It is in this framework that we argue that dominant sentence and clause patterns work together with other structures to achieve the communicative purpose of newspaper editorials.
3.3 Speech Acts Theory (SAT)

One theory that pays attention to functions of language and the context of language use, with particular focus on sentences/utterances is the speech acts theory. The speech acts theory (SAT) is one of the first theories to draw attention to the common phenomenon that people use language to accomplish many things: to offer greetings, to swear an oath, to give directions, to declare vows, to seek information, etc. (Austin J. L., 1962). Austin set the grounds for the discussion by categorizing types of utterances as performatives and constatives and proposed the components of speech acts, principal among which are the locution (the utterance itself), illocution (the intention behind the utterance) and perlocution (the effect of the utterance on the addressee) (Crystal, 2010, p. 125).

Over the years, the speech acts theory has undergone several modifications. Notable among these include those within the Gricean paradigms of communicative intentions (Harnish, 2005). Among the several principles explaining acts that humans perform with language are the following six prominent types (Finegan, 2012, p. 304; Crystal, 2010, p. 125):

1. **Representatives** represent a state of affairs by which a speaker is committed to the truth of a proposition. These may include acts such as the following: assertions, statements, claims, hypotheses, descriptions and suggestions.

2. **Commissives** commit a speaker to a certain course of action, including promising, pledging, threatening and vowing.

3. **Directives** are intended to get the addressee to carry out an action: commands, requests, challenges, invitations, entreaties, and dares.
4. **Declarations** alter the state of affairs of objects or situations with an utterance. That is, language is used to hire, baptize, arrest, marry, etc.

5. **Expressives** express the speaker’s attitude about a state of affairs: greetings, apologies, congratulations, condolences and thanksgivings.

6. **Verdictives** make assessments or judgments: ranking, assessing, appraising, condoning. (Finegan, 2012, p. 304; Crystal, 2010, p. 125)

These speech acts are useful in the description of sentence types. Taking the sentence as performing one speech act, regardless of whether it is simple or non-simple, based on the argument made earlier that subordinate clauses are desententialized and so lack independent speech acts (Huddleston, 1999), we will interpret the distribution of functional sentence types partly based on the speech acts theory. In this regard, apart from directives and expressives which are typically realizable through imperatives, interrogatives and exclamatives, all the rest are potentially realizable through the declarative sentence.

The weakness of SAT in this study is that, the volume of data at our disposal will not allow assessment of indirect speech acts. That is, instances where a declarative sentence is meant to issue a request or directive as in

> You are in the sun.

or an interrogative is meant to issue a command as in

> will you come here?

will not be captured in the study.
3.4. Text as a theoretical concept

In Christian circles, a child is normally given a “text” to memorize when he or she goes to the Sunday school. This “text” is typically a short quotation from the Bible, usually consisting of one or two verses. An adult church service has, as an essential component, a “text” also from the Bible. This one is usually longer, ranging over several verses of a particular book of the Bible. Mobile phone users ‘text’ their friends messages. And of course, the newspaper editorial is a text.

In more recent times, text has been given a more extensive coverage by functional linguists such as Halliday and Hasan (1976), Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), Eggins (2004). According to these linguists, there are written and spoken texts. The question that is germane at this stage is what is a text?

Halliday and Hasan (1976), in their pioneering work on text, define text as “any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole” (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 1). That means a text is independent of medium and length of the communication. These two properties of text underlie the practice of categorizing seemingly different linguistic units under a common terminology. But this does not, by any means, imply that any linguistic unit qualifies to be designated as text.

Based on their definition above, we can deduce features that set texts apart from non-texts as follows:
A text is a unified whole;
A text is a semantic entity; and
A text is a product of context to which it always makes reference.

To understand that a text forms a unified whole is to understand why different structures – text message, a biblical quotation, a memory verse, a conversation, etc. – are texts, for they share a common feature. Each of these largely constitutes a complete message. As a semantic entity, a text, though may be expressed through several paragraphs or structural sub-parts and lexico-grammatical features, has one central message or a set of connected pieces of information which usually achieves a common goal. This leads systemic functional linguists to argue that a text is a semantic unit rather than a grammatical unit (Halliday & Hasan, 1985; Eggins & Martin, 1997; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Esser, 2009). The newspaper editorial can be illustrated in these lights.

As a unified whole, an editorial text focuses on “a single event or issue per day” (Van Dijk, 1989, p. 230) – its central communicative goal being to influence “the attitudes, beliefs or behavior” of the reading public (Wiredu, 2012, p. 76). This it achieves through a conscious weaving together of cohesive linguistic devices. Besides the general communicative purpose of editorials, each editorial text presents a certain reality about life. It may criticize, defend, endorse, praise or appeal (Bonyadi, 2011) to an authority about an issue “the newspaper attributes a particular social or political significance to” (Van Dijk, 1989, p. 231). This strand of meaning which symbolizes the relationship between a text and its society of production is what systemic linguists call ideational meaning.
Again the same editorial text establishes a relationship with its audience. For instance, it assumes a knowledgeable authoritative posture, informing the reader who is removed from the context of production and who has a limited chance of responding. This relationship between the editorialist and his/her audience is changing in recent times (Lagonikos, 2005), especially with the advent of the Internet. For, many newspapers give their audience the opportunity to interact with the editor on their online platform. And as Stonecipher (1979) rightly argues, the limited freedom of the modern editorial writer “in what he chooses to write” is the consequence not only of a newspaper’s policy. It is also as a consequence of the changing nature of editorial audience in modern times, which manifests in the following features (Stonecipher, 1979, p. 24 & 26):

- Today’s audience is very “active” and looks to the editorial to make sense out of the vast amount of news it receives;
- Today’s audience is made up of a mixture of readers who are highly educated and so well informed and those who are less educated; and as a result
- Today’s audience is more critical and less likely to accept one opinion

These characteristics of editorial audience may reflect in the linguistic choices of command forms, elaboration, or economy of expression, deictic choices, address forms, etc. employed by the editorialist in his writing. The relation the editorialist creates between him/her and his/her readers is conceptualized as *interpersonal* meaning.

Finally, the editorial text is communicated through a written medium whose content is carefully arranged to achieve a particular meaning. That is, the arrangement of clauses
in the editorial text is crucial to the packaging of the information at stake. This strand of meaning is the *textual* meaning of the text. As Eggins (2004) sums it up below, these meanings are achieved concurrently:

> More accurately, in systemic terms a text is a unit of meanings, a unit which expresses, simultaneously, ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings (Eggins, 2004, p. 28).

Finally, Halliday and Hasan (1976) conceptualize the text as a product of context. That is, a text is fully understood only in reference to its context of production. A simple analogy is that a misplaced text message does not make sense simply because it always has contextual gaps which only the intended reader shares with the sender. Thus, by this claim, one is only expressing the common observation that a careful consideration of a text indicates its context of production. Eggins and Martin’s (1997) claim that “[C]ontext…gets into text” may sum up this argument.

### 3.5. Context as a theoretical construct

Every human activity is performed within a context. A dinner, for example, cannot be held without certain obligatory and optional features which form the immediate physical context. These features of the context influence the choice of linguistic expressions as well as our understanding of a text produced about the occasion, or a conversation that took place during the occasion. In this exposition on context, we define context using useful taxonomies in the literature. The argument in this discussion is that context is crucial to understanding text and that no text-based analysis is complete without reference to context.
Context first attracted the attention of scholars only in recent times. In spite of its seemingly universal relevance, it was not until the 20th century that context was brought into academic theorization. In 1923, Bronislaw Malinowski, an anthropologist, made the seminal observation that language achieves full intelligibility only when it is placed within its “context of situation” (Eggins, 2004; Martin J., 2010). This concept was later adopted into linguistic research in 1935 by John Firth. Firth pursued the context of situation in the general framework of linguistic predictability (Eggins, 2004, p. 89). That is, he believed that a careful analysis of a text should lead one to predict successfully its context of production and vice versa.

Among the second generation of linguists who took interest in the context of situation was Firth’s student, Halliday, whose work has generated the systemic functional linguistic tradition. Halliday’s focus has been to uncover the specific aspects of the context of situation that have linguistic consequence (Eggins, 2004, p. 90). His quest led him to discover that the following three variables are of direct linguistic impact: field, mode and tenor (Martin J., 2010, p. 16). Later, he would call these register variables. These register variables have been discussed in some detail in section 3.4.1 of this chapter below. But another type of context worth discussing is the context of culture.

Systemicists argue that when Malinowski postulated the relevance of situational context to language interpretation, he also posited the context of culture. The context
of culture, which is claimed to have effect on the organization of a text, has, in recent
times, engaged modern systemic functional linguists (Martin J., 2010, p. 21). In this
conceptualization, a letter, for instance, has a peculiar structural organization because
it is universally required by its cultural context. That is, educated users of the letter
writing mode accept conventionally that its organizational form, with the addresses,
salutation, body and complementary close, are best suited for the function it performs.
It must be noted that this cultural context is superior to ethnic context in the sense that
inspires Hallidays definition:

When we talk of the cultural context for language education, we have
to go beyond the popular notion of culture as something defined solely
by one’s ethnic origins. All of us participate in many simultaneous
cultures; and language education is the principal means by which we
learn to do so (Halliday, 1978, p. 17).

This dimension of the cultural context is relevant to this comparative study. In a
sense, this notion of cultural context undergirds register theory which argues that texts
produced across different geographical locations may share the same generic
classification and characteristics. It is by this assumption that we can compare
Ghanaian and British newspaper editorials because they are deemed to perform the
same communicative functions. More appropriately, texts from these two sharply
contrasted contexts are deemed to satisfy common cultural requirements of
journalistic practices.
Finally, there is the linguistic context. Also known as co-text (Bergs & Diewald, 2009, p. 3), the linguistic context is the linguistic environment within which a text, a sentence, a word, a paragraph, etc. occurs (Bloor & Bloor, 2004, p. 13). In other words, it is the factors that relate one word to another in the structure of a linguistic system. The co-text has implications for the syntagmatic relations in language. That is, linguistic items in the same context have a tendency of influencing each other. In fact, it is generally accepted that a word preselects its counterpart (Bergs & Diewald, 2009, p. 3). Words that come to mind include beautiful/woman, handsome/man, handsome/amount, etc. This is another area of linguistic predictability.

For instance, as has been made clear above, editorial is about current news events. News events are typically about what someone did or thought and commenting on these requires cognitive and speech verbs (i.e. say, declare, report, think, consider, argue, etc.). Normally, the choice of these cognitive and speech verbs has implications for what gets placed after them. Observably, these verbs have a high probability of selecting that-finite subordinating clauses which we categorize in our analysis as subtypes of nominal clause. One therefore can expect a higher frequency of nominal clause in editorials due to the co-textual implications of the use of cognitive and speech verbs.

Thus, in a sense, co-text limits the linguistic choices writers or speakers can make. It should be noted that whereas the co-text is intra-textual, both context of situation and context of culture are extra-textual. That is, co-text explains language variation by reference to the impact of words or linguistic structures on other structures in the
linguistic context whereas contexts of situation and culture explain variation as a result of the function language is performing reflected either through linguistic choices in the case of situational context or through the organization of the text in the case of cultural context.

Though the co-text has a tremendous effect on the creation of texts, its impact is of a general kind. It is, arguably, the context of situation and the context of culture which distinguish a variety of texts from others. For instance, the professional culture requires newspaper editorials to be organized distinctively from other texts. Similarly, the situation within which newspaper editorials are written influences the choices of certain linguistic features. Thus, a newspaper editorial text is unique because its language is used in a specific situation in response to a communicative demand. Although the analysis of this study focuses on the linguistic and situational contexts of newspaper editorials, elements of the cultural context are evoked when necessary.

Context relates to this study through the context of situation in the sense that it is that which frames the relationship between linguistic choices and the immediate physical and non-physical environment within which they are produced. In this regard, we consider the newspaper editorial text as a product of a set of situational context:

- It is written with an institutional voice;
- It is written for a mass audience;
- It is written for immediate consumption;
- Its language is deemed to perform a certain communicative function.
These situational parameters, which are argued to impact structural choices, are explored in detail below in terms of their impact on the language of editorials. Though the context of culture is also functionally inclined, it affects the staged, step-by-step structure of texts (Eggyins, 2004, p. 9).

3.6. Register: The interface between language and context of situation

Years after linguists took interest in the relationship between language and its context of situation, it was not until 1975 that Halliday would adopt the term ‘register’, a term which had been used earlier by Reid to capture the concept of text variety (Lukin, Moore, Herke, Wegener, & Canzhong, 2011, p. 90). His definition of register is captured in one of his seminal collaborative works with Matthiessen as follows:

…a functional variety of language (Halliday, 1978) – the patterns of instantiation of the overall system associated with a given type of context (a situation type). These patterns of instantiation show up quantitatively as adjustments in the systemic probabilities of language; a register can be represented as a particular setting of systemic probabilities (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, pp. 27 - 28).

This representation of register captures three features of register theory:

1. register theory extrapolates the effects of context of situation on language use realized through the three register variables of field, mode and tenor;
2. register is a functional notion; a semiotic system which depends on language; and
3. register features are probabilistic and indexical instantiations of linguistic features.

The discussion on register theory in this section will be built around these three assumptions.

### 3.6.1. Relating the register variables to newspaper editorials

In systemic terms, field is the institutionalized activity humans undertake. Martin conceptualizes field in two perspectives: “what people are doing and what they are doing it to” (Martin J., 2010, p. 20). Newspaper editorials capture a specific human endeavor. In it, editorialists engage their readers with the express intention of influencing their behavior. Their activity is using language to influence and their target is a mass audience. These factors have a tendency of shaping editorial texts a certain linguistic way.

In concrete terms, field relates to language through both indexical and probabilistic instantiations of linguistic features (Martin J., 2010, p. 21). That is, we can determine the field of a particular text based on specific linguistic features which point to a particular field as well as linguistic features common to all fields but which are distributed predominantly in texts from a particular field. For example, though it may not be easy to identify indexical linguistic features of newspaper editorials, unlike the case of some varieties, the function of editorials to persuade its audience will account for the use of complex language structures (Biber, 1988). It is in this light then that Susinskiene (2010) discovers preference for nominalization as a cohesive device in newspaper editorials. She argues, accordingly, that nominalization serves a
communicative function in newspaper editorials. And this is the crux of register theory. That is, probabilistic linguistic features are significant in register analysis when they are pervasive in the target variety (Biber & Conrad, 2009, p. 6) because it is then that they are functional.

The *mode* register variable is about the channel of communication and the effects of the channel on the communication (Martin J., 2010, p. 22). The channel extends beyond the two basic modes of writing and speech. All of such channels as e-mail, telephone, letter, radio, conversation, interview, etc. have tremendous effects on language production. For instance because editorials are carefully written and edited, its language is more likely to be relatively complex. Similarly, the type of channel may engender specific use of language. For example, because editorials cover current news events which readers are assumed to be familiar with, certain deictic information may be acceptably elided. As a result, such expressions as “this week”, “yesterday”, “the last government”, “the last election”, etc. are common in newspaper editorials. We anticipate in this work that the distribution of sentential clause patterns will find explanation in the mode.

Like field, mode is realized through both indexical and probabilistic textual features. Indexical features are signaled in some texts by specific beginnings and endings such as a salutation, a preface, a heading, a complimentary close, etc. Probabilistic realizations of mode, however, are the general textual patterns that are pervasive in certain texts. These involve dynamic use of tense, patterns of identification, distribution of thematic elements, distribution of nominal patterns and embedded
structures, etc. (Martin J., 2010, p. 23). In newspaper editorials for example, what may pass as indexical features are regular reference to the newspaper such as *The Times, The Ghanaian Times, Graphic*, etc. in the body of the text. Similarly indexical are linguistic features marking specific aspects of the structural organization of editorial texts.

Typically, editorials have a heading, created in a certain unique way to conform with journalistic norms and a body which is sub-organized into paragraphs. It must be emphasized that it is the special use of language in the paragraphs in the performance of particular functions that matters. Thus, the introduction and conclusion of newspaper editorials, for instance, will use language in very different dimensions for the reason that they perform different functions. It is in accordance with the functions implied that Stonecipher (1979, p. 26) would structure the editorial into three subparts: an introduction, a body and a conclusion. This tripartite structure of the editorial is what MacDougall (1973, p. 26) appropriately functionally refers to as the newspeg or subject, the reaction and the reasons. Probabilistically, since newspaper editorials report on past news, there is the expectation that tenses employed will predominantly be past. However, in view of the fact that editorial writing is not historiography, but rather a persuasive argumentation, a variety of tenses and modal forms will be expected.

Tenor is another register variable which has significant impact on language use. Tenor refers to the relations between participants in a communicative event reflected through linguistic choices. Three sub-notions of tenor – power, contact and affective
involvement – have been proposed by Poynton (1985). These sub-notions constitute a set of three continua (Eggins, 2004, p. 100):

- **Power**: choices of expressions may reflect equal, unequal or hierarchical power relations between participants;
- **Contact**: the contact continuum relates the roles between participants along frequent and occasional contact.
- **Affective involvement**: an interaction between participants of a communication may reflect a continuum between high and low affective involvement.

These sets of continua manifest especially through vocabulary choices which indicate whether events are conducted within formal or informal situations. Standard expressions and formal address forms are noted to characterize formal situations whereas emotive and “diminutive forms of names and terms of endearment” (Eggins, 2004, p. 101) typify informal situations. There may be an interesting dimension to the use of address forms particularly in newspaper editorials. Texts produced in societies that emphasize the use of titles and respect for elders and people in authority will record a higher frequency of indexical features of tenor.

For example, since the Ghanaian society promotes the use of titles and formal address forms, Ghanaian political editorials are noted to exhibit a relatively higher use of address forms and titles especially in editorial texts about politicians. Contrary to this, however, is the situation with British editorials. As if a norm, one observes, especially in the British editorials, that the full name of anybody discussed is used without a title. It is the surname which is usually marked with the common title Mr./Mrs.
so one finds in these editorials David Cameron, Vince Crabbe, George Osborne, Theresa May, but Mr Cameron, Mr. Crabbe, Mrs. May, etc. One area that reflects tenor is the use of modal auxiliaries. Frimpong (2007), for instance, observes in an unpublished thesis that the use of modal auxiliaries in Ghanaian editorials is largely influenced by the status of the person discussed and that deontic modals such as must and should are rarely used when people in leadership positions are discussed.

In the discussion of the register variables, we made the claim that all three variables are realized through both indexical and probabilistic instantiation of linguistic features. This claim is very crucial to the discussion of register theory. That is, though register does not have its own symbols (Martin J., 2010), linguistic expressions instantiated in the discussions on the three register variables above show that it is able to appropriate certain linguistic features through regular conventional association.

The last claim is that the linguistic features – both indexical and probabilistic – which realize the register variables are functional. In other words, they are preferred because they are the most suited for performing the communicative function of the variety. That is, language is utilized in an appropriate context. This means that, the words and expressions found in newspaper editorials are both suitable for performing the persuasive communicative function, and relevant to the physical situational context of newspaper editorials. In the SFL tradition, function is not a product of language, but an essential component of language. According to Halliday and Hasan (1985),
…we have to take a further step: a step that interprets functional variation not just as variation in the use of language, but rather as something that is built in, as the very foundation, to the organization of language itself…function will be interpreted not just as the use of language but as a fundamental property of language itself, something that is basic to the evolution of the semantic system (Halliday & Hasan, 1985, p. 17).

This means that language and function are inseparably interconnected. Thus, one should be able to determine the variety of a text by studying its language features. But SFL takes the relation between language and function a step further. In SFL, language performs three simultaneous metafunctions – ideational, interpersonal, and textual functions – discussed under text above. Thus, the language of newspaper editorials performs these three functions simultaneously and our analysis of the functional use of sentence and clause patterns is a quest to uncover how these functions are realized.

In a more direct relationship with register theory, the systemic metafunctions dovetail well with the register variables (Martin J., 2010, p. 17). In this theory, the register variable, field, correlates with the ideational metafunction; tenor with the interpersonal function; and mode with the textual function. This means that both indexical and probabilistic linguistic features which encode field, mode and tenor are the ones which realize the ideational, interpersonal and textual functions.

An alternative perspective to register analysis is presented in Biber and Conrad (2009). Though it presents itself as an independent model, it seems to uphold the
systemic functional register framework. Thus, we consider Biber and Conrad’s register framework as complementary to the Hallidayan model. It is little wonder that among the sources they relied on in building the framework for analyzing their situational features is Halliday (1978).

To start with, Biber and Conrad’s model emphasizes the functional position of register theory. They express this as follows:

…linguistic features are always functional when considered from a register perspective. That is, linguistic features tend to occur in a register because they are particularly well suited to the purposes and situational context of the register (Biber & Conrad, 2009, p. 6).

This functionality is consistently underscored in their framework to such an extent that it forms part of their three principles for conducting register analysis. But one thing that makes their framework relevant to this study is their proposal of a three-pronged model for conducting register analysis (Biber & Conrad, 2009, p. 6). These principles, listed below, largely guide the organization of this work.

1. A description of the situational characteristics of the variety analyzed;
2. A description of the pervasive linguistic features; and
3. A functional interpretation of the correlation between the situational characteristics and the pervasive linguistic features.

According to this framework, these principles are applied in the order of their arrangement here, though they concede that the first and second principles may be
engaged in a cyclical manner. The obvious question that one can ask then is: how different are they from the SFL model and how do both models apply to our study of newspaper editorials? In an attempt to answer this question we devote the following section to relating the two approaches and to establishing their collaborative relevance or otherwise to our investigation of editorial language.

3.7 Relating Biber and Conrad’s model with Hallidayan Register Theory

Whereas register analysis in the Hallidayan systemic functional tradition is conducted by examining how language use in a particular situation reflects the register variables of field, mode and tenor, Biber and Conrad (2009) propose analyzing the situational background of the variety in question. Technically known as the situational characteristics/features in their model, these are seven factors which are claimed to relate to varieties in varying degrees. They include analyzing the following features:

1. the background of participants of the communication,
2. the relationship between participants,
3. the channel of communication,
4. the setting
5. the production and comprehension circumstances
6. the communicative purpose, and
7. the topic

As has been noted above, it is the position of this study to consider the two models as complementary. We argue that the situational characteristics of Biber and Conrad’s model offer detailed explanation relevant to Halliday’s register variables. The observation is that field is roughly relatable to topic, communicative purpose and
setting of Biber and Conrad’s situational variables. Mode relates with the channel of communication and production and comprehension circumstances, while, finally, tenor corresponds roughly to participants and relations among participants.

To start with, though the topic of a text may be general, it always directs attention to the field of the discourse. A newspaper editorial, for instance, always relates to a particular discipline or human activity and as a result, choice of words, in particular, indicates the field of the discourse (i.e. the economy of a country, sports, international relations, politics, etc.) For as Wiredu (2012, p. 77) argues, “…there is a link between language choices in the editorial and its intended function of persuading a targeted audience.” Thus, regardless of the topic, an editorial always has one central communicative purpose: that of influencing societal perception and it is this communicative function that practically directs the creation of a variety.

For example, there is a difference between an economic lecture and an editorial on the economy. The difference, which may primarily be in varying styles of presentation, is motivated by a difference in communicative purpose. Now, these features – the topic, the communicative purpose, together with the setting of the communication (i.e. time and location) – help in identifying the variety of a particular text. Thus, knowledge of these three situational circumstances at the background of a text enables one to determine the field of communication.
Since this work investigates structural patterns, topic, which reflects typically in choice of words (Biber & Conrad, 2009, p. 46), will not be of much importance. The communicative purpose as well as the physical situational context, however, directly influences grammatical choices (Biber & Conrad, 2009, p. 46). It is generally accepted in the literature that newspaper editorials perform the communicative function of persuasion, advocacy, benchmarking and agenda setting (Van Dijk, 1989; Biber, 1988; Wiredu J. F., 2012). It is equally argued that editorials are generally composed under certain physical situational conditions:

- Editors are much aware of language and linguistic usage and conscious of their role in “defending” the standard variety (Albakry, 2007, p. 27);
- Editorials are composed under strict space constraints (Susinskie, 2010, p. 145);
- Editors need to compress information into a limited space, be clear and avoid ambiguity (Crystal & Davy, 1973, p. 174).

Each of the communicative functions, together with the physical situational features some of which are enumerated above, influences the linguistic choices editorialists make in their composition. This explains Wiredu’s (2012, p. 77) argument cited above that linguistic choices are directly linked up with “intended functions” of communication. Persuasive and advocacy functions of editorials, in particular, require “argumentative structures and strategies” (Van Dijk, 1989, p. 231) and more specifically “targeted choices of language use – grammatical, lexical, phonological, discoursal...” (Wiredu, 2012, p. 77). The nature of these linguistic strategies forms the primary quest of this study.
The channel of communication and production and communication circumstances are related in some respects. A particular channel of communication influences the production and comprehension circumstances. For instance, since the production of a written text involves careful planning and editing, written varieties are generally more linguistically complex. This complexity, correspondingly, requires careful reading for comprehension. Conversely, the limited time for spoken communication conditions spoken texts to be relatively linguistically loose. Biber and Conrad’s (2009) framework deems these features as having a great impact on text variation. Both of these situational features seem directly relatable to mode of the Hallidayan register variables. As explained above, the mode in SFL covers roughly the same scope dilated in Biber and Conrad’s model.

The mode is as relevant to our understanding of newspaper editorials as the communicative function. In fact, it is one of the most important physical situational contexts. In the first place, newspaper editorials, like any other written genre are composed under situational conditions that make them linguistically complex. Though they are written under the strictest conditions of satisfying their audience and working within the philosophies of the newspaper, there is some time for both planning and editing. The opportunity to plan and edit their text gives editorialists room enough to make the right linguistic choices in the fulfillment of their mandate of persuading their reading public. There are, equally, some implications of the comprehension circumstance on the composition of editorials. Editorialists are aware of the lack of contact with their audience. This awareness calls for explicitness and elaboration in the use of language. In the face of this, it will be unsurprising that complex sentences, for example, will be preferred above simple sentence.
Finally, we make the claim that Biber and Conrad’s situational features of participants and relations among participants relate perfectly with tenor. This is because an investigation of the background of participants of a discourse can explain choices of certain linguistic devices which may indicate the status of participant at both ends of the communication. In a newspaper editorial, the addressor is unidentified. It is the official voice of the newspaper. Its audience is unspecified – involving people of varying backgrounds. The effect of this on editorials is a tendency for them to be impersonal especially in the choice of pronominals.

These relations between Biber and Conrad’s model and Hallidayan register theory have been charted below.

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<tr>
<th>HALLIDAYAN MODEL</th>
<th>BIBER &amp; CONRAD’S MODEL</th>
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<td>mode</td>
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<td>• production and comprehension circumstances</td>
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<td>tenor</td>
<td>• participants</td>
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<td>• relations among participants</td>
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Fig 3. 1: Relating the register variables with the situational features
Like Wiredu (2012) and others (Finegan & Biber, 2001; Biber & Conrad, 2009), we argue in this work that communicative function is a very vital situational parameter that influences the newspaper editorial language. However, we equally argue, in addition, that both the channel of communication, and production and comprehension circumstances are equally vital physical situational parameters which have a potential of influencing linguistic choices in newspaper editorials apart from the communicative function. This means that, for us, a combination of these parameters that relates to aspects of the field and mode of the register variables is directly relevant to our study of newspaper editorials.

3.8 Genre: the context of culture
The concept of genre relates to this work not only in terms of its direct relationship with register but also because of the tendency in the literature to use genre and register interchangeably. It seems necessary, therefore, to specify what genre really is both as a concept and as an approach in order to distinguish it from register.

Genre is relatively a recent concept in linguistics. It was originally a literary concept which referred to “types of literary productions’, with short stories, poems, novels and plays being the principal different genres…” (Eggins & Martin, 1997, p. 235). Its application in linguistics is different from its literary application in two ways. In the first place genre is applied in a broader sense in linguistics to include “everyday as well as literary genres, in both written and spoken modes” (Eggins & Martin, 1997, p. 326). In this perspective conversation is a genre type, and so also are sports commentary and staff meeting genres.
Secondly, linguistic genre is different from literary genre in its functional orientation. In this second dimension, linguists conceptualize genre as a functional entity “in terms of its social purpose” (Eggins & Martin, 1997, p. 236). This means that the various genres are structured and staged in their unique fashion for corresponding social functions. For example, newspaper editorials in most parts of the world are organized into a heading which announces the topic, an introduction which introduces the topic, a body which argues the newspaper’s position and a conclusion which usually emphasizes the paper’s position or gives a warning, admonition, encouragement (MacDougall, 1973), etc. This organization according to linguistic genre is not an individual author’s stylistic preference nor is it a mere convention. It is deemed the best organization necessary for achieving the communicative function of newspaper editorials.

On the contrary, a novel, for instance, has a prose form not for any direct communicative function. It is aesthetically and conventionally required. Biber and Conrad (2009, p. 21) argue this point as follows “the underlying causes of style variation in literary genre (my own emphasis) are related to aesthetic preferences and attitudes about language, rather than a more direct functional influence from the communicative situation.” Thus, an author may conform to a literary style without any explicit intention of performing any specific social function of say persuading, informing, educating, explaining, instructing an audience.
Genre in its broad and functional linguistic applications inspires three traditions. These are the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) tradition, the New Rhetoric tradition and the Systemic Functional Linguistic tradition (Yunick, 1997, p. 322). Though all three traditions are motivated by a common desire to relate language function to cultural context, they differ in their approach to textual analysis and in their ideological inclinations.

In terms of their analytical focus, the ESP tradition concerns itself primarily with moves in discourse structure (Yunick, 1997). Genre in this perspective is conceived as a staging of social activities in a combination of obligatory and optional organizational sub-parts (Ansary & Babaii, 2009). And so a careful analysis of the organizational parts of newspaper editorials, for instance, will reveal that while some are indispensable, others may be easily done away with. New Rhetoric, on the other hand, explores the social purpose of the texts constituting the genre (Yunick, 1997). In the view of New Rhetoric proponents, various texts represent various aspects of the world. This means that a newspaper editorial text is different from a feature article because the two varieties represent two different social functions humans employ texts to perform. This also means that classification of texts in the New Rhetoric tradition is based primarily on the social functions they perform.

Genre approach in Systemic functional linguistics is similar to the ESP genre perspective. The uniqueness of SFL genre perspective rests in it emphasis on the relation between language (i.e. grammar, lexicon and discourse structure, etc.) and cultural context (Yunick, 1997). That is, SFL conceptualizes genre as an abstract
semiotic system which shapes language through the intermediation of register (Martin J., 2010; Figueiredo, 2010). This means that the organizational sub-parts of a particular genre exhibit variation in linguistic choices. Thus, the introduction of an editorial text may have linguistic choices different from those in its conclusion.

Another distinction among the three traditions of genre is their intellectual persuasion. Each of these traditions has its variable historical background. New Rhetoric, for instance, hails from multidisciplinary theories of social and literary post-structuralism and developmental psychology. Though both SFL and ESP genre theories are rooted in Hallidayan systemic functional linguistics, ESP shifts focus to ethnographic methodology and “models of learning and discourse” (Yunick, 1997, p. 322). Genre in the SFL tradition, however, maintains a commitment to Hallidayan linguistic tradition, which focuses on the interface between language and context (Yunick, 1997).

Finally, a definitional approach to classifying genres groups texts based on some constant textual properties. In this vein Swales (1990, p. 46) argues that “the principal criterial feature that turns a collection of communicative events into a genre is some shared set of communicative purposes”. In this regard, besides its physical properties of a heading, and a body (which has an introduction, a main argument and a conclusion), newspaper editorial texts from different regions and different newspaper categorizations share a common communicative purpose of persuasion.
It is worthy, at this point of the discussion, to declare the position of this work on a controversial classificatory tendency in the literature. There is the tendency to refer to narration, description, exposition and argument as types of genre (Martin J., 2010). This classification is quite misleading in the sense that it implies a multiplicity of genres in a variety like newspaper editorials. It seems helpful to consider such categories – description, exposition, narration and argument – as rhetoric/textual modes (Esser, 2009) which are necessary for the development of the subparts of texts.

3.9. Register, genre and style
Throughout the discussions about register and genre in this chapter, a deliberate attempt has been made to not compare the three concepts: register, genre and style. Register and genre, for instance, have been explored above as unique concepts with little reference to each other. We now attempt, in this section, to relate register and genre with the intention of justifying why this study is register-oriented rather than genre-based. The approach here is to examine positions and claims in the literature that relate the two concepts and to emphasize the ones that treat them as separate concepts. We maintain that though the two concepts relate in a number of ways, they are two different theories and approaches to text analysis and that treating them separately enhances linguistic research.

To start with, it must be admitted that both register and genre belong to the same sub-discipline of linguistic research. Both of them relate language use to context, though each has a specific aspect of the context it relates to. For instance, whereas genre
theories relate language use with the context of culture, register theory relates 
language use with the context of situation.

Again, register and genre have been described together as “technical concepts 
employed to explain the meaning and function of variation between texts” (Eggins & 
Martin, 1997, p. 234). The important observation here is that register is not the only 
functional concept, contrary to what has been claimed in the literature (Biber & 
Conrad, 2009, p. 6). As claimed in Eggins and Martin (1997) above, genre too is 
functional. But genre relates with language through register. That is, whereas genre 
focuses on the sub-units of a text, register focuses rather on the linguistic features of 
the subunits or the entire text. It is in this light that Martin (1985) refers to register as 
the “expression-plane” of genre, which concerns itself mainly with the linguistic 
choices that people make across different genres. It is unsurprising, therefore, that we 
legitimately refer to the term “genre” even in our register study. What this means is 
that in a register study one is investigating the linguistic properties of a particular 
genre. In other words, one is exploring language used in a certain way to perform a 
certain social function.

Due to this interconnectedness between register and genre, there is a tendency in the 
literature to sometimes use them interchangeably. That is, there are instances in the 
literature where genre is used exclusively or interchangeably with register in 
investigations which focus on the linguistic properties of a variety. One typical 
inconsistency in this direction exists in Biber (1988) whose investigation of the
pervasive linguistic properties of speech and writing is referred to as a genre study. But this should not arise at all especially if one is clear about the focus of the study.

Another concept that tends to be equally interchanged with genre and register is style. But this confusion, though a genuine one, should not arise since there is ample argument in the literature distinguishing them. Biber and Conrad’s *Register, Genre, and Style* (2009) is a very compelling argument for keeping the three concepts apart. They argue that genre, register and style differ in the following four ways (Biber & Conrad, 2009, p. 16):

- the textual focus;
- the linguistic characteristics considered for the analysis;
- the distribution of linguistic characteristics; and
- the interpretation of linguistic differences.

They argue, in the first place, that in genre analysis, linguistic features serve as organizational signposts for an entire text. These features are distinguished from register features in the sense that they are not pervasive but rather feature minimally in the entire text. In conventionally marked genres like the formal letter, for example, expressions such as ‘Dear Sir/ Madam’, ‘Yours faithfully/sincerely’, ‘We count on your usual cooperation’, etc. indicate specific sections of the variety. As a result of the sparse distribution of genre features, a complete text is recommended for a genre analysis in order that all of the features can be accounted for (Biber & Conrad, 2009).

On the contrary, both register and style analyses examine linguistic features which are pervasive within a variety (Biber & Conrad, 2009). Thus, register and style analyses
can be conducted at any section of the text with the assumption that since the pervasive linguistic variables are common linguistic features, their distribution is not restricted to any particular part of the text. In this regard, both register and style analyses do not require complete texts (Biber & Conrad, 2009).

The focus of register and style on pervasive linguistic features distinguishes them from the genre perspective. This means that the difference between genre and register and style is in the linguistic focus. That is, while register or style normally focus on the sentence, the clause, the phrase, the word, a particular lexical or syntactic category, etc. a genre study focuses on special expressions and the organizational structure of texts (Biber & Conrad, 2009, p. 54). These special expressions which serve as organizational signposts usually appear only once in a text. For example, whereas nominal clauses may be instantiated in all parts of a letter, the address, the salutation and the complimentary close occur only once in the letter.

The last distinction drawn in this model concerns the interpretative focus. According to this model, it is only in the register approach that linguistic features are interpreted in the light of their communicative function (Biber & Conrad, 2009). For genre and style analyses, this framework argues further, linguistic features are deployed for conventional and aesthetic purposes respectively. This position is not supported in this work (as hinted above) in the sense that both genre and style can be conducted from functional perspectives. In fact, Eggins and Martin’s argument, cited above, is a very good counter-argument to this last claim: both genre and register are “technical concepts employed to explain the meaning and function of variation between texts”
Genre, as has been argued above, is also both meaningful and functional especially in SFL.

Register has also been related to style in a part-whole relationship. In this perspective, Bhatia (2006) treats register as a subset of style, though he too admits the tendency to use register and style interchangeably:

Whereas genre as a category is often identified predominantly in terms of text-external factors, style is generally defined in terms of text-internal factors, especially in relation to two parameters: a typically individual use of language, or a typically functional use of language, sometimes configured in terms of contextual factors of field, mode, and tenor of discourse. In the second sense, it is also called register, as in Halliday, McIntosh, and Strevens (1964), whereas some prefer to call it style, as in Crystal and Davy (Bhatia, 2006, p. 388).

These views on the three concepts offer definitions of the concepts which support our interpretation of the concepts and particularly our application of register in this study. That is, whereas style is defined as “a typically individual use of language”, register is defined as “a typically functional use of language, sometimes configured in terms of contextual factors of field, mode and tenor of discourse” (Bhatia, 2006, p. 388). The distinctions drawn here are unambiguous, though largely undifferentiated from Biber and Conrad’s model. And this is the argument made in this work. That is, register features are functional, and by analyzing linguistic features of newspaper editorials, we should be able to establish a correlation between choice of linguistic structures and the situational context of newspaper editorials.
So far, genre, register and style have been related as analytical approaches. However, register and genre, in particular, differ conceptually as well. Some linguists, for instance, conceptualize register and genre as focusing on two aspects of context (Martin J., 2010). Genre theory, in the words of Martin, is a recent development by students of the SFL tradition to explore what “Malinowski and Firth meant by context of culture” (Martin J., 2010, p. 28). In the SFL framework, register and genre are construed as two levels of a semiotic system. And as semiotic systems, both genre and register are meaningful (a point made above) though both lack individual signs and symbols for expressing meaning (Martin J., 2010). Thus, genre and register relate with language – which is also a semiotic system – in a one-sided relationship in which genre, the more abstract of the two, shapes language through the mediation of register (Martin J., 2010).

3.10 Implications of these theories

The reviews of these theoretical arguments emphasize our claim hypothesized in Chapter One that the grammatical features explored in the editorials are similarly distributed. That is, based on the argument here that the distributional patterns of linguistic features in a variety have functional implications, it is sensible to expect that sentence and clause patterns will be similarly distributed in the editorials from British and Ghanaian contexts because though they are produced in variable social contexts, they largely share communicative purpose and production and comprehension circumstances.
3.11. Summary

This chapter has attempted to establish the theoretical direction of this study basing the argument fundamentally on the debates in the relevant literature. We have argued that though there are still inconsistencies in the applications of register, genre and style, the three concepts are separable and that this study is a register study. This position has enabled us to determine the type of context relevant to the analysis of this work. As has been established, of the three kinds of context (cultural context, situational context and co-text), it is the context of situation which has a direct impact on our study.

We have also argued that the two models of register theory (i.e. Biber and Conrad’s model and the Hallidayan SFL model) are not by any means incompatible. In fact, as we have argued, they relate in a complementary manner, so that the three situational variables we deem of immediate relevance to this study correspond roughly to the field and mode of the register variables. Throughout this chapter we have maintained the claim that the distribution of linguistic features in a variety of language reflect the functional choices people make with a situational context. The speech acts theory has also been proposed in terms of its relevance to sentence use. The onus is to validate the functional correlation between the relevant situational characteristics editorials and the distribution of the two grammatical structures across Ghanaian and British newspapers.
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODS

4.1. Introduction

This study is empirical in its methodological approach in the sense that it analysed and described linguistic features in actual texts (Albakry, 2007); the corpus data was made up of editorial texts. But ultimately, it combined both quantitative and qualitative heuristics. Quantitatively, the attestations of linguistic features were counted and compared across newspapers from two sociocultural contexts (Connor, 2004); qualitatively, distributional patterns were given in depth functional interpretation (Albakry, 2007). The decision to combine quantitative and qualitative methods was partly inspired by Biber (Biber, 1988) who finds complementary strengths in their joint application in the sense that “[Q]uantitative analysis gives a solid empirical foundation to the findings” while “non-quantitative analyses are required for the interpretation” (Biber, 1988, p. 52).

The corpus covered editorials from four Ghanaian and British newspapers produced during the calendar year 2012 out of which 244 texts were sampled for register-based analysis (Biber & Conrad, 2009). The texts were selected using a stratified purposive sampling method. Issues that were taken into consideration in the selection of the newspapers and editorials for the compilation include comparability of texts and representativeness of texts sampled (Connor, 2004). Details of these quantitative and qualitative principles together with analytical methodology are discussed in this chapter.
4.2. The Corpus

This study investigated one of the prime sub-varieties of newspaper genre. Institutional editorials, which are the main opinion piece of newspapers, were examined from two sociologically divergent (native and non-native English speaking) contexts. Institutional editorials occupy a special place in modern newspapers because of their primary role of projecting the ideologies and opinions of their newspapers (Van Dijk, 1989). Besides, due to their potential of influencing their audiences, newspaper editorials are becoming an increasingly attractive data for scholarly research in recent times.

The decision to do a cross-cultural examination of the editorial genre resulted in a number of problems. In the absence of compiled relevant corpora, the first problem involved generating a corpus. This special corpus for a specific study and with a well-defined focus is much in line with many others, typically PhD theses (Jeffries, 1989). These corpora are different from already compiled corpora such as the Brown corpus, the LOB (Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen) corpus and the ICE (International Corpus of English) corpus in size and in availability. Creating a special corpus for a specific study of the kind undertaken in this work involved generating and compiling an entirely new corpus which resulted in a set of problems. In this study, it involved

1. selecting appropriate comparable newspapers from the two contexts of the study;

2. selecting a representative sample of texts for the study.

5 The Brown, LOB and ICE corpora are large English corpora of about 1 million words each. The prime purpose of their compilation is to facilitate a cross-study of Englishes spoken around the world (Nelson, 2006).
In selecting newspapers for the study, one had to consider what newspapers are available both in Ghana and in Britain and to stipulate principles to guide the selection. There were a lot of newspapers from both contexts to select from. Ghana’s relatively young press industry currently produces about 106 newspapers (BBC World Service, 2006). This number, according to the BBC World Service, is the sum total of all papers produced over three periodic schedules per week in Ghana:

1. Papers published every day apart from Sunday (the Dailies): 11
2. Papers published once every week (weeklies): 67

Apart from these basic periodic groupings, there is the more popular classification – public (state-owned) newspapers and private newspapers – described in Chapter One above. The eleven dailies are, thus, made up of both public and private newspapers out of which the *Daily Graphic* is noted as having a true national character by having structures, and enjoying circulation, in all the ten regions of Ghana (BBC World Service, 2006).

An equally reputable, daily published, newspaper is *The Ghanaian Times*. Though it has undergone massive institutional upheavals since its establishment in 1957 (according to a brief profile of the paper on its website), *The Ghanaian Times* has managed to enjoy a special prestige in Ghana over the years, being one of the most
accessible newspapers to the reading public. Today, it is one of the staple supplies to almost every Ghanaian public institution/department.

The reputation and popularity of these two newspapers imply that they have a good chance of impacting a wide section of Ghanaians. These qualities have created for the two newspapers an extensive platform for propagating their opinions, ideologies and philosophies particularly through their editorials. These are the primary considerations that motivated the choice of the two state-owned newspapers for the current study.

The two British newspapers *The Times* and *The Daily Telegraph* were also carefully selected. British newspapers are basically grouped into regional and national subtypes. *The Times* and *The Daily Telegraph* are, in the first place, national newspapers. British national newspapers include 10 daily newspapers and 12 Sunday newspapers (Quinn, 2013). These national dailies and the Sundays are what are normally classified into either quality or tabloid newspapers. In this regard, *The Times* and *The Daily Telegraph* are both influential quality national British newspapers. In fact, they are among the top quality newspapers in circulation (the others being *The Financial Times, The Guardian* and *Independent*, arranged in the order of popularity) (Westin & Geisler, 2002; Quinn, 2013). In the interest of comparison, these two most circulated quality national British newspapers were selected to match the two most reputable Ghanaian national newspapers.
Fortunately, both *The Daily Telegraph* and *The Times* have online archives of all their publications. Access to this archive was possible through LexisNexis\(^6\), an online database which hosts, among other things, archives of many world newspapers. The soft versions of the British editorials from the online archive were hugely useful to this work since they were readily manageable. On the contrary, archives of the Ghanaian newspapers could not be accessed online and so we had to deal with hard copies for the Ghanaian editorials. This meant going through a process of scanning all the Ghanaian texts in a PDF researchable version and transferring them into workable Microsoft Word Version x format which always left the texts somehow deformed\(^7\). As a result, it took the help of friends\(^8\) to compare the original texts with the scanned versions to fix deleted parts. This delayed the compilation of the corpus.

The next level of consideration had to do with determining how many texts as well as what ‘types’ of text to select into the corpus. We focused on texts belonging to the same topical orientation in dealing with the type of texts to include in the corpus. This topical dimension to the study was aimed at forestalling any biases. Indeed, one area of textual variation may be in the scope of topics treated across the two contexts studied. It became clear in the course of the compilation that one prominent feature that set British newspaper editorials apart from their Ghanaian counterparts was the diversity in their topical scope.

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\(^6\) I got access to LexisNexis thanks to my one-year studentship at Tufts University in the US which gave me access to their online Library.

\(^7\) It is as a result of this that the Ghanaian editorials still appear of a different font in the corpus attached, for though they were transferred into Microsoft Word they still look different.

\(^8\) I am grateful to friends like Umar Farouk and Nancy Frimpong who assisted in the scanning and processing of the Ghanaian texts.
Across the two British newspapers, topics covered during the study period (2012) touched on varied socio-political news including politics, education, economic affairs, international affairs, public administration, local government, etc. Ghanaian editorials within the same period, however, limited their coverage to narrower socio-political issues. The Ghanaian newspapers, as was observed, were typically scanty in international affairs, economic affairs, and public administration. We observed that most of the topics covered during the 2012 calendar year by Ghanaian newspapers were predominantly political. Based on this observation, then, we narrowed the scope to editorials which reported on political issues. For, any attempt to extend the topical scope would affect the comparability of the study. The narrowing of the topical focus is informed by Biber and Conrad’s (2009) argument that

…there is no single ‘right’ level for a register analysis. Rather, situational characteristics and linguistic features can be analysed for a general register or a very specific register. An investigation may even start with a general register and then shift to analysing the more specific registers within it. There will be more variation among texts within a general register than a specific sub-register… (Biber & Conrad, 2009, p. 33).

Accordingly, we classified political editorials based on some related models in the literature (Dobrosklonskaya, 2013). Dobrosklonskaya suggests that newspapers, generally, are classified along thematic topics including politics, business, education, sport, culture, technology, weather, etc. Given the topical deficiency of Ghanaian newspaper editorials, the choice of political editorials was a utilitarian one. We took a step further to stipulate a working definition of political editorials based on

The OED defines “political” as “Of, belonging to, or concerned with the form, organization, and administration of a state, and with the regulation of its relations with other states”. Based on this definition, we defined a political editorial text as an editorial text which addresses issues about “the form, organization, and administration of a state, and with the regulation of its relations with other states”. By this definition, we were able to categorize political editorials as editorial texts which touched on any of these topics:

- national elections and campaigns
- national registration of voters
- parliamentary and presidential debates
- activities of government departments and agencies
- speeches by members of the four wings of government,
- a nation’s relations with other nations, etc.

There were, in fact, so many editorial texts produced during 2012 by the Ghanaian newspapers (the Daily Graphic and The Ghanaian Times) and the British newspapers (The Daily Telegraph and The Times), which satisfied this definition.

In determining how many political editorials got selected into the corpus, we in turn determined the number of editorials produced per month by each of the four newspapers. Each of the four newspapers investigated produced at least 24 editorials per month some of which qualified as political editorials. This meant that for each of
the newspapers studied, there were at least 288 editorial texts produced within one year. It was out of these 288 per each of the four newspapers that we selected 36 texts making 144 political editorial texts altogether for the corpus, using the mixed method of stratified purposive sampling (Teddlie & Yu, 2007).

The assumption was that newspaper editorial texts are fairly homogeneous and that any text, which qualified as a political text, was a potential candidate for selection. However, in order that one would have a fair representation from across the 12 months of the year, the period of 2012 was stratified into 12 months. Employing stratified purposive sampling we selected every first three texts which passed as political editorial from each of the 12 months of 2012. This amounted to the 36 texts per newspaper and the 144 texts for the entire corpus. The merit of stratified purposive sampling is that it facilitates a detailed discovery and description of “characteristics that are similar or different across the strata or subgroups” (Teddlie & Yu, 2007: 90) in the sense that its characteristic narrowing of perspective allows for a detailed longitudinal investigation. A breakdown of the corpus can be represented in Table 4.1 below:
Table 4.1: The compositional breakdown of corpus

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Newspaper</th>
<th>No of Texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ghanaian Newspapers</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily Graphic (DG)</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghanaian Times (GT)</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>British Newspapers</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Daily Telegraph (DT)</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Times (TT)</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3 Analytical Framework

Textual analysis may be conducted through genre, stylistic or register methods (Biber & Conrad, 2009) and each of these approaches is claimed to be a unique engagement. However, it is the register approach that makes the claim that the distribution of linguistic features has communicative implications (Finegan & Biber, 2001; Martin J., 2010). It has already been argued in this work that register analysis, such as this work, falls within the general theoretical framework of language and context. It is within this general framework that Biber and Conrad (2009, p. 7) propose the following three procedures for register oriented engagement:

1. a description of the situational characteristics of the genre investigated;

2. a description of the linguistic variables examined; and
3. the functional correlation between the situational features of the genre involved and the distributional patterns of the linguistic variables.

Accordingly, the situational characteristics of the editorial register have been described within the theoretical framework chapter of this study (Chapter Three). The newspaper editorial was analyzed based on the integrated proposal of the Hallidayan/Biber and Conrad framework in which the situational characteristics were complemented with the register variables.

The combination of quantitative and qualitative methods in this study required counting the realizations of the two grammatical structures investigated before describing and interpreting their patterns of distribution. The sentence types attested in the data are the basic functional and structural types below:

*Functional sentence types*

- Declarative
- Interrogative sentence
- Imperative sentence
- Exclamative sentence

*Structural sentence types*

- Simple sentence
- Complex sentence
- Compound sentence
- Compound complex sentence
Similarly, clause patterns attested in the data were described from the functional and structural typological approaches. These included the following:

*Functional clause types*

- Nominal clause
  - Nominal complements
  - Verbal complements
  - Adjectival complements
- Relative clause
  - Wh-Relative
  - Whiz-Relative
  - That-Relative
  - Pied piping Relative
- Adverbial clause
  - Time clause
  - Manner clause
  - Reason clause
  - Purpose clause
  - Conditional clause
  - Concessive clause
  - Result clause
  - Place clause

*Structural clause types*

- Subordinating clause
- Infinitival clause
The quantitative approach employs content analytical methods. The two fundamental principles of content analysis – establishing categories and counting the instances of attestation of categories – (Silverman, 2011, p. 64) were employed at the first level of the analysis. In order to obtain a fair representation of usage frequencies, sentence and clause patterns which appeared in quoted matter were not coded for counting. Content analysis, with its precise counting of attestations, has a tendency of ensuring reliability and validity (Krippendorff, 2004; Silverman, 2011).

To confirm dependency relations of sentence and clause usage with newspaper types, we have also measured attested frequencies of variables across the four newspapers from the two sociocultural contexts using the Chi-square test. The application of the Chi-square enables one to compare “frequencies found experimentally with those expected on the basis of some theoretical model” (Oak, 1998, p. 24). Adopting the Pearson’s critical value of 0.05, we measured the statistical significance of variation in the frequency of variables in Chapters Five and Six. The next level of the analysis involved exploring the contexts of use of the most frequent patterns.

The last level of analysis, also recommended by Biber and Conrad’s (2009), which is qualitatively inclined, requires interpreting distributional patterns of the grammatical
structures functionally. This was handled by relating the two grammatical structures with the communicative purpose and the physical situational contexts (especially the channel of communication and production and comprehension circumstances) of newspaper editorials. This was done with the SFL notion in mind that the use of grammatical structures in a variety is a matter of functional choices people make. Sentence distribution was additionally related with speech acts according to which the declarative sentence was considered to potentially express mainly representative as well as commissive, verdictive and declaration speech acts. The interrogative and imperative sentences were considered to perform directive speech acts while the exclamative sentence was construed as performing expressive functions.

4.4 Corpus coding and tagging

Coding is an essential component of corpus-based research whose objective is to facilitate the organization and interpretation of the corpus data. Benaquisto succinctly explains coding as follows:

In qualitative research, discussions of coding most often center on the inductive process of searching for concepts, ideas, themes, and categories that help the researcher to organize and interpret data.

(Benaquisto, 2008, p. 86)

In this study, our task was to code the linguistic variables explored and employ the codes in tagging the data. One other function of coding is to enable corpus-assisted “sorting and retrieval of data” (Benaquisto, 2008, p. 86). As Tognini-Boneli (2001, p. 90) puts it, lexico-grammatical investigations which go beyond collocation require tagging “with precisely the required grammatical information”. In this light, the
coding principles employed in this work were those that facilitate both retrieval of data and easy identification of the original categories coded. Names of the four newspapers for this study were coded as DG, GT, DT and TT for the *Daily Graphic*, *The Ghanaian Times*, *The Daily Telegraph*, and *The Times*, respectively. For the grammatical features, names of categories were maintained except in instances where a particular category could be confused with another. For instance, the interrogative sentence was distinguished from the interrogative clause by coding interrogative clause as “interrogcl”.

The next step after the coding is tagging. Tagging was done using Extensible Markup Language (XML). XML enables customized markup which means that the codes devised here can be incorporated. Besides, XML enables interactivity with the Internet. The following elements were tagged:

1. Text number
2. Sentence number
3. Type of sentence (both structural and functional types)
4. Clause number
5. Type of clause (both structural and functional types)
6. Whether clause is rank shifted or not

Tagging was done manually. In order to ensure reliability of tagging, a National Service personnel\(^9\) who was a graduate of English served at various points as a checker and as a coder. She additionally alternated with me in the sorting and retrieval

\(^9\) I received enormous support from Miss Nancy Achaa Frimpong, an English graduate National Service personnel, who assisted in the tagging of the corpus. I trained her to tag so that she could act as a checker and help in retrieving attestations.
of data. In the following excerpt of tagged corpus the following detailed information has been tagged:

1. The excerpt is from the first text from *The Times*: TT01;
2. The excerpt is the 16th sentence and the sentence is a complex declarative sentence;
3. There are 2 clauses which are the 15th and 16th clauses in the text. Clause (15) is a *wh*-Relative at the functional level and an interrogative clause at the structural level. Clause (16) is functionally adverbial and structurally subordinating which lacks a subordinator.
4. Whereas clause (15) is rank shifted in a noun phrase, clause 16 is not rank shifted.

```xml
<sentence text="TT01" snumber="16" function="declarative" structure="complex">This picking of winners is the job not of ministers but of the expert Technology Strategy Board, <clause text="TT01" snumber="16" cnumber="15" function="wh-Relative" structure="interrogcl">which <clause text="TT01" snumber="16" cnumber="16" function="adverbial" structure="zero subordinator">Mr Willetts announced yesterday</clause> would be setting up a new innovation centre in the area of satellite applications</clause>.</sentence>
```

**Summary**

This chapter has outlined the methods upon which compilation of corpus of this study was based. This has involved the principles guiding the selection, coding and tagging of the 144 newspaper editorial texts from Ghanaian and British newspapers. The
chapter has equally established methods for analyzing the data. These include quantitative principles of frequency counting and qualitative interpretation of the functional motivations underpinning the distribution of attested sentence and clause patterns. What this chapter has accomplished essentially is paving the way for subsequent analysis in Chapters Five and Six.
CHAPTER FIVE: SENTENCE DISTRIBUTION AND FUNCTIONAL IMPLICATIONS

5.1 Introduction

From the preceding discussions, we have argued based on theoretical assumptions that linguistic features serve communicative functions when used in a situational context and that it is the probabilistic realizations of these features rather than indexical realizations that are functional (Finegan & Biber, 2001; Biber & Conrad, 2009; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). This assumption, it has been argued, ties in with Systemic Functional Grammar theory on register, which claims that language choices in texts are made based on functional considerations (Eggins, 2004). In the light of these we investigate in this chapter the usage patterns of formal and structural sentence types in the editorial corpus of this study as well as discuss the motivation behind their distributional patterns.

This and the next chapters are quantitatively inclined. This is in line with the argument that “[A] register is a functional variety of language (Halliday, 1978) – the patterns of instantiation of the overall system associated with a given type of context (a situation type). These patterns of instantiation show up quantitatively as adjustments in the systemic probabilities of language…” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, pp. 27-28).

For comparative purposes, we test the frequency attestations of sentence patterns to identify areas of dependency using the Chi-square test of independence. We conducted the test at the 5% level of significance which indicates that any p-value obtained which is less than 0.05 leads to dependencies among the variables under consideration.
5.2 Distribution of sentence patterns

Sentences are described in this chapter from the two perspectives adopted in this study: formal sentence types and structural types. From these two perspectives, a sentence is described based on the supposed intension behind its use (its speech act) and on the nature of its internal clause constituents – issues discussed in detail in Chapter Two. The position of this study is that the distributional patterns of sentence types presented in sections below are important when we situate them contextually. This is in line with Eggins and Martin’s (1997) claim when argue that “[C]ontext…gets ‘into’ text by influencing the words and structures that text-producers use” (Eggins & Martin, 1997, p. 232). For the purpose of this study we have argued that communicative function, channel of communication, production and comprehension circumstances are among the most influential contextual parameters on editorial writing. Specific patterns of distribution are reported under the two sub-areas below.

5.2.1 Formal sentence types

First, we report on the distributional patterns of the formal types of sentences in our editorial corpus. These are the four traditional sentence types also referred to as functional sentences (Wiredu J. F., 2012): declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamative. Table 1 below presents attestations of these sentence types across the four newspapers.
Table 5.1: Distribution of formal sentence types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Declarative</td>
<td>690 (98.57)</td>
<td>520 (97.37)</td>
<td>751 (97.02)</td>
<td>1086 (97.13)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interrogative</td>
<td>6 (0.85)</td>
<td>5 (0.93)</td>
<td>19 (2.45)</td>
<td>31 (2.77)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperative</td>
<td>4 (0.57)</td>
<td>8 (1.49)</td>
<td>2 (0.25)</td>
<td>1 (0.08)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exclamative</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>1 (0.18)</td>
<td>2 (0.25)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

700 (100) 534 (100) 774 (100) 1118 (100)

($x^2 = 4.1, p$-value = 0.9)

These results show a high similarity in the usage patterns of formal sentence types throughout the four newspapers. The Chi-square test ($x^2 = 4.1, P$-value = 0.9) confirms that the distribution of functional sentences does not depend on newspaper types, a point that supports the register theory. A closer look at Table 1 shows that the declarative sentence type is overwhelmingly preferred throughout the four newspapers (attesting above 95% across the four newspapers), followed by the interrogative sentence whose representation in the corpus though is very minimal (barely 3% in the British editorials and 1% in the Ghanaian editorials). The remaining types, the imperative and the exclamative sentences are the least preferred duo, with attestations of less than 1% for each of the newspapers except The Ghanaian Times which inconsistently realized almost 2% for both.
A representation of these results on a graph vividly captures the sharp variation across sentence patterns throughout the four newspapers.

![Graph of Formal Sentence Types]

**Fig 5.1: Distribution of formal sentence types**

From this graph it becomes apparent that the declarative enjoys an almost absolute dominance, with the interrogative barely visible at the bottom. Both exclamative and imperative sentences are virtually absent. This indicates a remarkable degree of consistency across the newspapers from the different sociocultural backgrounds. This is so, especially given that all four newspapers consistently recorded attestations above 95% for declarative sentences and fewer than 5% for the rest. This confirms what has been observed, first by Crystal and Davy (1973), and then by Wiredu (2012).

For instance, Crystal and Davy, in their description of the style of newspaper language, noted that the declaratives are the most preferred type of sentence (Crystal

In spite of the huge variations across the functional sentence types, however, a comparison of these results with those of other genres gives a different picture. Wiredu’s (2014) study of law reports, for instance, reveals that all the sentences used in the legal reports were hundred percent declarative types. This is an area that may need to be considered in detail later with a bigger data for the full representation of the functional sentence types in the in editorial language (though the interrogative, imperative and exclamative types are minimally represented) may emerge as the distinctive feature of the editorial genre.

A close observation of the types of interrogatives attested in the editorials reveals that the few attested interrogatives are mainly the rhetorical types. Table 5.2 below, for instance shows the pattern of distribution of the interrogative types across the four newspapers.
Table 5.2: Distribution of interrogative sentences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional</th>
<th>DG</th>
<th>GT</th>
<th>DT</th>
<th>TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rhetorical Que</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes/No</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wh-Que</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rhetorical questions normally raise polemical issues which often serve as a plank to launch onto the next level of argument; a function that most of the attested interrogatives perform in the editorials. This argumentative function is different from the general function observed by Crystal and Davy (1973, p. 181) according to which interrogatives are used to keep articles from dragging in general newspaper reporting. The following example of interrogative sentence is a typical rhetorical question from the data:

1. **Rhetorical question**: Had he, as the minister deciding on the purchase by News Corporation of the outstanding shares in BSkyB, acted inappropriately and favoured the company for political reasons?

   <sentence text="TT16" snumber="06" function="interrogative" structure="complex">

As a typical rhetorical question, the writer does not expect a direct answer from his/her readers neither does he/she provide an answer himself/herself.

Equally noteworthy in the distribution of interrogative sentences is the observation, captured in Table 2 above, that the most preferred structural types of interrogatives,
especially among the British newspapers, are the ones which do not just require YES or NO for an answer. They are the ones which have the potential of engaging their readers, with the WH structure like the following:

2. What, he asked, would the protesters in Tahrir Square make of a nation in which more than 70 per cent of the upper chamber are political appointees, in which the legislature is "stuffed full of friends and colleagues of party leaders"? <sentence text="DT08" snumber="04" function="interrogative" structure="complex">

Other equally important observations about the distribution of interrogative sentences unique to the British newspapers include the following:

3. They do not seem to be evenly distributed. They tend to be used in successive order of two or three. In the example below, three questions (Q1, Q2 and Q3) are asked one after the other in one text (TT25); and this is not an isolated pattern, for similar instances exist in the corpus, especially among the British editorials.

a. (Q1) How about, for instance, appointing Boris Johnson as Party Chairman? <sentence text="TT25" snumber="08" function="interrogative" structure="simple”>

(Q2) Or asking Vince Cable if he would sort out Health? <sentence text="TT25" snumber="09" function="interrogative” structure="complex”>

(Q3) Or bringing back Michael Heseltine to the Business Department to ensure the Government is ambitious and organised in its plans for growth and enjoys the confidence of the business community?
They tend to appear as the last sentences of their texts.

Some interrogatives are premised upon preceding declarative sentences. As a result, they do not always make complete sense in isolation. For instance, in example (a) below, ‘But why?’ is meaningless unless it is analyzed within its co-text. Similarly, ‘Why?’ in (b) makes sense only when it is put after the preceding declarative.

a. But why?  

b. Yet it was overwhelmingly rejected.

The question that is outstanding at this point is, what makes the declaratives the overwhelming choice especially across four newspapers from different sociocultural backgrounds? Again, are the low attestations of the other types, including the interrogatives, indicative of representation by accident?

In the first place, the distribution of the functional sentence types supports the claim of register theory that linguistic features are similarly distributed across dialects of the same language. This is because the patterns of distribution of the functional sentence types are consistently similar across the four newspapers from native and nonnative contexts. This observation is confirmed by the statistical test ($\chi^2 = 4.1, p$-value = 0.9).
This pattern of distribution is claimed in this study to be functional. It is, in fact, the first step towards register interpretation. We therefore argue that declaratives are the most preferred sentence type in the editorials because they are suitable for the situational context of newspaper editorials. This means that the speech acts functions of declarative sentence types in expressing claims, hypotheses, descriptions, and suggestions (Finegan, 2012, p. 304) are directly relevant to the accomplishment of the communicative purpose of newspaper editorials.

5.2.2 Structural sentence types

Structurally, sentences are classified in terms of the type of clauses used and the nature of their combination in a sentence. In the newspaper editorial corpus of this study, the sentence pattern most preferred is the type with one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. This typically is the complex sentence type (Wardhaugh, 1995). The results of frequency attestations of structural sentence types are presented in Table 5.3 below:
Table 5.3: Distribution of structural sentence types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simple</td>
<td>62 (8.83)</td>
<td>80 (14.98)</td>
<td>149 (19.27)</td>
<td>261 (23.32)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complex</td>
<td>587 (83.61)</td>
<td>409 (76.59)</td>
<td>548 (70.89)</td>
<td>784 (70.06)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound</td>
<td>18 (2.56)</td>
<td>15 (2.8)</td>
<td>26 (3.36)</td>
<td>34 (3.03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comp compl</td>
<td>35 (4.98)</td>
<td>30 (5.05)</td>
<td>50 (6.46)</td>
<td>40 (3.57)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>702 (100)</td>
<td>534 (100)</td>
<td>773 (100)</td>
<td>1119 (100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( x^2 = 9.4, p\text{-value} = 0.3 \)

The result of Chi-square test \((x^2 = 9.4, p\text{-value} = 0.3)\) on the frequency attestations of these structural types confirms that usage of the structural sentence types is independent of newspaper type. This statistical pattern is explainable observing the details of Table 5.3. We observe, in the first place, that non-simple sentences (multiple sentences) are the most preferred types of sentence in the editorial corpus with complex sentence types as the dominant individual type across the four newspapers at 84%, 77%, 71% and 70% for DG, GT, DT and TT respectively.

Table 5.3 again reveals another dimension to the distributional patterns. It is observable from Table 5.3 that the rate of dominance of the complex sentence type varies slightly between the British newspapers and the Ghanaian newspapers. That is, the *Daily Graphic* and *The Ghanaian Times* have the highest usage rate of complex sentences (84% and 77%) while the British newspapers on the other hand have
relatively the lowest rate (71% and 70% for DT and TT). The average difference for
the use of complex sentences between the Ghanaian newspapers and the British
newspapers is 22%. And yet, in spite of these patterns of distribution, the Chi-square
value ($\chi^2 = 9.4$ and $p$-value = 0.3) shows that any difference in distribution observed
across newspaper type is statistically insignificant.

We note, however, that this dimension of the rate of preference for the complex
sentence type seems to have a reverse impact on the use of simple sentences in the
corpus. It seems that the overwhelming preference for complex sentences in the
corpus is at the expense of simple sentences which realized 9% for DG, 15% for GT,
19% for DT and 23% for TT. That is, the more complex sentences are attested in a
newspaper type, the fewer simple sentences are represented, the others (compound
and compound complex) remaining constant across the four newspapers.

The impact is much felt when one juxtaposes the variation in the distributional
attestations of simple sentences with those for compound and compound complex
sentences whose variation in distribution across the four newspapers is constantly
between 1% and 2% (Compound: >4% for the four newspapers; Compound Complex:
>7% across the four newspapers). This makes the set of structural sentence types
constitute a form of a system with compound and compound complex sentences being
constant and complex and simple sentences being variable. Attestations within the
constants (compound and compound complex sentences) do not seem to impact
significantly on the other members of the system. Changes within the variables
(simple and complex sentences), however, affect the members within the system in a
relationship of mutual exclusivity whereby the more complex sentences are used in a
particular newspaper, the more likely are the chances that simple sentences will be minimally used. This relationship is more prominent in Figure 5.2 below.

Fig 5. 2: Distributional graph for structural sentences

There is a sense in which our results on the distribution of structural sentences confirm observations in the literature. Wiredu (2012), for instance, observes that complex sentences are the dominant patterns (with attestation of 80%), followed by the simple sentence (9%). Strikingly, attestations of structural sentence types in his work (Wiredu J. F., 2012) are very identical to our results.

However, our results together with Wiredu’s do not quite confirm Crystal and Davy’s (1973) observation in their description of the newspaper genre. According to Crystal and Davy:
There is thus a greater diversity of structural types…but in neither do we go very far towards a complexity which could produce obscurity or unintelligibility. …the more complex sentences do not follow each other in a string; they tend to be distributed along the shorter sentences, which aids both readability and comprehension. …the more complex sentences tend to be avoided at the beginning of the articles (Crystal & Davy, 1973, p. 184).

Our observation, however, is quite understandable given that we are dealing with newspaper editorials. This again supports the claim that the newspaper editorial genre is a unique sub-genre whose uniqueness is reflected partly in its grammatical choices. And so the structural diversity adduced by Crystal and Davy cannot be claimed, at least, for the two Ghanaian newspapers in which sentence structures are predominantly of the complex type. The Ghanaian editorials are typically texts whose paragraphs are predominantly made up of one complex sentence, a situation which explains the very low attestation of simple sentences among DG and GT. Again, the very few simple sentences used in the Ghanaian editorials cannot be claimed to have been distributed along complex sentences, owing to their minimal representation, neither are they typically at the beginnings of texts.

This structural pattern of the Ghanaian editorials seems to distinguish them from the British editorials which may be claimed to point towards structural diversity with their relatively higher representation of simple sentences. And yet, even though the simple sentences attested in the British newspapers tend to be used sparingly at the beginnings and ends of some of the texts, they cannot be claimed to be used
intermittently with complex sentences to aid readability and comprehensibility as argued by Crystal and Davy above. We observe, for instance, in the corpus that simple sentences in the British editorial texts are typically not used after complex sentences. We rather observe the tendency of a concentration of all the simple sentences in a particular text within specific paragraphs.

For instance, a cursory survey of The Times reveals that 7 of the 14 simple sentences of text TT34 are located in the first two paragraphs, 4 of the 10 simple sentences of text TT35 in the last paragraph and 6 of 9 simple sentences of text TT36 in first and last paragraph. The Daily Telegraph presents a similar pattern. Both of the simple sentences in text DT06 are used in paragraph 4, 2 of the 3 simple sentences of text DT07 in first paragraph and 3 of the 5 simple sentences used in text DT10 are found in the last paragraph. In most of these instances, these simple sentences follow in succession. This may be ample evidence to be cautious about the functions ascribed to the simple sentence by Crystal and Davy (Crystal & Davy, 1973).

A comparison of attestations of the structural types of sentence in our editorial corpus with their attestations in a legal report (Wiredu, 2014) gives us reason to be prudent in our subsequent interpretation of our observations about patterns of distribution in the newspaper editorials. Wiredu’s (2014) survey of the legal report genre reveals very similar patterns:
Table 5.4: Distribution of structured sentences in legal reports adapted from Wiredu (2014)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simple Sentence</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>19.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound Sentence</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>2.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complex Sentence</td>
<td>2246</td>
<td>74.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound-Complex Sentence</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>3.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>300</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The similarity here perhaps is a pointer to look closely at the internal structure of the complex sentence attested in the editorials since they present interesting patterns of distribution.

5.3 Subordination Patterns

Our classification of sentences from structural perspectives has been based on the nature of clauses used in a sentence. For instance, we have called a sentence simple because it contains one main clause, complex because it contains one main clause and at least one subordinate clause, compound because it is made up of two or more independent clauses, compound complex because it is made up of at least two main clauses and at least one subordinate clause. Based on evidence from our data that complex sentences are the most prominent patterns across the four newspapers, we can safely argue that subordination is the most preferred clause combining strategy.
employed in the editorial register since subordination is the main grammatical process in the complex sentence.

We have established in this work that subordination refers to a “syntactic relationship…of non-equivalence, holding between clauses of unequal status” (Downing & Lock, 2006, p. 277). The representation of complex sentences in the editorial corpus means that information conveyed are arranged in a hierarchical manner. This is achieved through different types of dependency relations as in sentence 6 below:

6. (This is not a rerun of Maastricht, but something more pragmatic: a new generation openly questioning the merit of belonging to an overweening institution that is the antithesis of everything they believe in.)

This is not a re-run of Maastricht, but something more pragmatic: a new generation openly questioning the merits of belonging to an overweening institution that is the antithesis of everything they believe in.
In this sentence, there is one main clause which is expanded in a set of 4 dependent clauses. In this example, a matrix (superordinate) clause embeds another clause which itself is superordinate to another clause. The sentence can therefore be analyzed first into two major idea units reflecting the following two major clauses:

7. This is not a re-run of Maastricht, but something more pragmatic: (main clause)

8. a new generation openly questioning the merits of belonging to an overweening institution that is the antithesis of everything they believe in (dependent clause)

The dependent clause (in 8) is a matrix clause which in turn embeds the following 3 other clauses at its various parts.

9. of belonging to an overweening institution dependent clause

10. an overweening institution that is the antithesis of everything dependent clause

11. everything they believe in dependent clause

Based on these different types of clauses and their arrangement in the complex sentences, we are able to sub-categorize complex sentences in the editorial corpus into three subtypes. We identify:

12. **Type 1**: Complex sentences in which a subordinate clause is an element of the sentence, functioning as a subject, object, complement or adverbial.
These are clauses we have classified as verbal complement, adverbial clause and some types of nominal complements which function as subject or subject complement. For instance, the underlined clauses in sentences (a) and (b) are adverbial and nominal clauses functioning as clause elements:

a. **When the Budget speech is still leading the news three weeks after delivery, something has gone awry.**<br>
   <clause text="TT12" snumber="03" cnumber="02" function="time adverbial" structure="subordinating"> </clause>

b. But **to surrender at this stage** would send out the appalling message, which is precisely Labour's aim.<br>
   <clause text="DT05" snumber="23" cnumber="45" function="nominal" structure="infinitival"> </rank>

13. **Type 2**: Complex sentences in which a subordinate clause is a post-modifier of a phrase, functioning as qualifier or phrase complement. The underlined clauses in excerpts (a) and (b) are *That*-Relative clause functioning as a post-modifier (in excerpt (a)) and *That*-nominal complement whose head is the noun ‘way’ (in excerpt (b)).

   a. These can be called bye-laws or codes of ethics that serves as a guide for acceptable behavior or conduct.<br>
   <clause text="DG04" snumber="02" cnumber="01" function="that-Relative" structure="subordinating"> </rank>
b. Of course, there should be some amount of humour to make proceedings in the House a bit interesting, but this should be done in such a way that discipline would not be undermined.

14. **Type 3**: Complex sentences which blend the first two. In the sentence below, we have, first, an adverbial clause ‘*Although this arrangement is good*’ which depends on the main clause which is a matrix *it is obvious that…the entire exercise would end in a confusion*, containing the complement clause ‘*that…the entire exercise would end in confusion*’ which complements (and therefore depends on) the adjectival head ‘*obvious*’:

a. Although the arrangement is good, it is obvious that without proper education, the entire exercise would end in confusion.

Type 1 Complex sentences (sentence (12) above) instantiate hypotactic relationship (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 375). By this, we mean that clauses of unequal status (i.e. a main clause and a subordinate clause) have been joined together in one sentence, a phenomenon referred to in SFL as clause complex. Type 2 Complex sentences (sentence (13) above) instantiate embedding or rank shifting. Our data reveal that there are more complex sentences with rank shifted subordination than those with hypotactic ones as Table 5.5 below shows.
Table 5.5: Representation of hypotactic and rank shifted relationships

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hypotactic</td>
<td>457</td>
<td>42.11%</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>38.07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>487</td>
<td>46.16%</td>
<td>545</td>
<td>42.94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embedded</td>
<td>628</td>
<td>57.88%</td>
<td>431</td>
<td>61.92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>564</td>
<td>53.45%</td>
<td>724</td>
<td>57.05%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[x^2=1.4, p\text{-value}=0.70\]

The evidence in Table 5.5 supported by the statistical test \(x^2=1.4, p\text{-value}=0.70\) shows that usage patterns are independent of newspaper type and that any observed variation is statistically insignificant. That is, the dominant pattern of subordination across the four newspapers is the type in which a clause is rank shifted within the structure of a phrase. This pattern of representation of rank shifted relations across the four newspapers (58%, 62%, 54% and 57% for DG, GT, DT and TT, respectively) indicates that there is preference for presenting information in a hierarchical manner in newspapers editorials, an observation already made by Wiredu (2012).

Finally, we observe that there are different types of complex sentences used in the editorial corpus depending on the number of dependent clauses subordinated in them. As captured in Table 5.6 below, the dominant complex sentence is the type which has up to three dependent clauses.
### Table 5.6: The number of dependent clauses per sentence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sentences with 1 Dep</td>
<td>218 (36.33)</td>
<td>160 (38.55)</td>
<td>266 (45.16)</td>
<td>390 (50.38)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentences with 2 Dep</td>
<td>196 (32.66)</td>
<td>123 (29.63)</td>
<td>175 (29.71)</td>
<td>235 (30.36)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentences with 3 Dep</td>
<td>123 (20.5)</td>
<td>83 (20)</td>
<td>78 (13.24)</td>
<td>89 (11.49)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentences with 4 Dep</td>
<td>37 (6.16)</td>
<td>39 (9.39)</td>
<td>47 (7.97)</td>
<td>39 (5.03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentences with 5 Dep</td>
<td>19 (3.16)</td>
<td>8 (1.92)</td>
<td>15 (2.54)</td>
<td>11 (1.42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentences with 6 Dep</td>
<td>4 (0.66)</td>
<td>2 (0.48)</td>
<td>6 (1.01)</td>
<td>7 (0.90)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentences with 7 Dep</td>
<td>3 (0.5)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>2 (0.25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentences with 8 Dep</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>2 (0.33)</td>
<td>1 (0.12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>600 (100)</td>
<td>415 (100)</td>
<td>589 (100)</td>
<td>774 (100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Complex sentences with one, two and three dependent clauses constitute <85% (i.e. 89.49, 88.18, 88.11 and 92.23 for DG, GT, DT and TT, respectively) of the total realization of complex sentences across the four newspapers. The remaining >20% are complex sentences which have up to 8 dependent clauses.
Looking at the complex sentences from the perspective of how dependent clauses are combined may be one of the ways that distinguish the editorial register from others. These patterns contrast with the situation in legal reports (Wiredu, 2014, p. 9) where up to 20 dependent clauses are realized in a single complex sentence. It is on this basis that we argue that the uniqueness of newspaper editorial register may reside in the unique distribution of dependent clause patterns within the dominant complex sentence types. This is also in line with one of the basic principles of the register theory which prescribes a close description of the dominant linguistic patterns.

This means that the dominance of the complex sentence is emphasized by the unique pattern of distribution of its dependent clause constituents. This means that the functionality of dominant linguistic features in a variety is sometimes distinctive enhanced by its internal constituents, an observation that explains the need to describe the immediate constituents of the sentence, undertaken in Chapter Six.

This points towards a major shift in the register theory that “…linguistic variables in register studies are the rate of occurrence for a linguistic feature, and a higher rate of occurrence is interpreted as reflecting a greater need for the functions associated with that feature” (Biber & Conrad, 2009, p. 12). Our data supports an extension of this claim that a higher rate of occurrence may need to be complemented by other dynamics in classifying a particular genre. Thus, in this situation, the mere dominance of complex sentences in the editorials is not capable of distinguishing the editorial
register from other written registers, the way it may distinguish it from spoken registers.

Finally, we explain the tendency in the Ghanaian editorials in realizing entire paragraphs in single complex sentence by referring to the mandate on editorialists to manage information within a limited space (Wiredu, 2012). This sounds reasonable for especially for The Ghanaian Times which has the least number of words per text (392 on the average).

By this tendency to keep all the information within one sentence, the Ghanaian editorials achieve “tighter integration in meaning” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 365). This is because by compressing all information in a paragraph into one non-simple sentence

…one clause elaborates on the meaning of another by further specifying or describing it…The secondary clause does not introduce a new element into the picture but rather provides a further characterization of one that is already there, restating it, clarifying it, refining it, or adding a descriptive attribute or comment” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 396).

Achieving tighter integration in meaning, however, by no means suggests that the Ghanaian editorials are better in any way than their British counterparts. It only means that whereas the British editorials make some effort to be less formal, more
interactive and readable the Ghanaian editorials make the effort to remain more formal, requiring more attention for comprehension.

5.4 Summary

This chapter has analyzed the distributional patterns of formal and structural sentence types in the editorials from Ghanaian and British newspapers. This chapter has both confirmed an aspect of the register theory and answered two of the research questions which are motivated by two hypotheses of this study. In the first place, patterns of distribution of both functional and structural sentence types support the register claim that linguistic features used in a particular register are similarly distributed across dialects of a given language. It has been noted that complex declarative sentences are the dominant types across the four newspapers. Additionally, the claim that the dominant linguistic features in a register relate with their situational functions has been supported by this study. That is, not only do complex declarative sentences contribute to the realization of the communicative purpose of newspaper editorials but also they appear elicited by the physical situational context of the editorial register.
CHAPTER SIX: CLAUSE DISTRIBUTION AND FUNCTIONAL IMPLICATIONS

6.1. Introduction
This chapter deals with two major concerns. It presents the results on how dependent clauses are used in editorials from the four newspapers of this study on one hand and on the other hand interprets the patterns of their distribution functionally. We have argued in this work based on register theory (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Biber & Conrad, 2009) that usage of grammatical structures has functional implications, and that their distribution in a register relates somehow to the communicative purpose and situational context of the register (Biber & Conrad, 2009, p. 6). We have similarly argued in this direction that it IS those common linguistic patterns which are prevalent in a variety that are functional (Biber & Conrad, 2009, p. 6). In view of the comparative nature of this study frequency attestations of clause patterns are tested using Chi-Square at 0.05 level of significance. This chapter aims at answering the following three research questions:

- How are clauses distributed in the editorials across the four newspapers from the two sociocultural contexts?
- What are the co-textual properties of the dominant clause patterns?
- What functional motivation underlies the distribution of clause patterns in the editorial register?

6.2 Dependent clause patterns
Major clause types attested in the editorial corpus are the nominal, relative, adverbial, subordinating, interrogative, infinitival and participial types. For the purpose of this study, we have grouped these patterns into functional types – nominal, relative and
adverbial clauses (Huddleston, 1999) and structural types – subordinating, interrogative, infinitival and participial clauses.

6.2. Distribution of functional clause types

The three functional clause types attested in the editorial corpus fulfill noun phrase functions (functioning as subject, object or complement) (Greenbaum & Nelson, 2002, p. 128), adjectival functions (post-modifying nouns) and adverbial functions (modifying a verb phrase or an entire clause) (Hopper & Traugott, 2003, p. 177). These functional types of clauses are distributed in the editorial corpus as captured in Table 6.1 below.

Table 6.1: Functional clause patterns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominal</td>
<td>463</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>587</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>381</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1085</td>
<td>696</td>
<td>1055</td>
<td>1269</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( (x^2 = 0.4, p\text{-value} = 0.09) \)

Our results reported in Table 6.1 show that there is high consistency in the distribution of the functional clause types across the four newspapers from the two sociocultural backgrounds. These results indicate, first of all, that the functional clause types are distributed in the editorials independent of newspaper type. This observation is amply confirmed by results of a Chi-square test \( (x^2 = 0.4, p\text{-value} = \)
It is observable from Table 6.1 that nominal clauses are the most preferred functional clause types across the four newspapers studied at 42.67%, 43.39%, 45.49% and 46.25% for DG, GT, DT and TT, respectively. This is followed, in the order of frequency, by relative and adverbial clause types across the four newspapers.

The congruence in distribution among the functional clause types cannot be taken for granted. In fact, it is basically the first indication that these clauses are functionally relevant to the editorial register. This claim seems supported by the distributional intervals among clause types as evidenced in Figure 6.1 below. We notice, for example, that each clause type is significantly represented in such a manner that no one particular clause type enjoys an absolute dominance. Additionally, there is a seemingly regulated variation in the distribution of clause patterns across the newspapers as captured in Figure 6.1 below.

![The Functional Clause Types](image)

**Fig 6.1: Distribution of functional clause patterns**
We can therefore argue, based on this information, that there is something beyond newspaper type which influences the choice of clause patterns in newspaper editorials. This is the phenomenon we intend to explain using register theory. That is, there is a degree of quantitative consistency in the distribution of linguistic features in newspaper editorials, and the distribution of the clause patterns may be just one area. This observation is consistent with Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) who argue that quantitative consistency is a function of a situational context.

The question is, what communicative functions does each of these clauses perform and how do they contribute to the achievement of the communicative purpose of the newspaper editorial register? Besides, how relevant, we wonder, are the distributional patterns of these clause types to the situational context of newspaper editorials.

In the first place, it must be said that the three clauses patterns captured in Table 6.1 above are generally used to realize the discourse function of expansion (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Downing & Lock, 2006) – a function that is congruent with the discourse function of editorials. That is, in their mandate of influencing public perception and attitudes (Bolivar, 1996; Van Dijk, 1989), adequate information needs to be skillfully packaged into the editorial text in the attempt to be as persuasive as possible. Structural devices for realizing expansion, therefore, become more functional than stylistic in a variety such as newspaper editorials.

However, each clause type in turn performs a specific expansive function. And this is what seems to motivate their unique distributional behavior in a particular variety. For instance, the nominal clause types are claimed to perform functions of elaboration; elaboration at clause level in instances where a nominal clause is a clause
element or elaboration within a phrase in instances where the clause is a complement within a noun phrase. The relative clause, however, performs a specificational function of elaboration within a noun phrase (Wiredu, 2012). By elaboration, an idea is clarified, refined, or restated in a new clause – a function fulfilled by the underlined nominal clause in sentence one below.

1. He was frequently referred to as "the father of the nation", with the clear insinuation that he had helped Scotland, at last, to find a balance between a partnership in the Union, and a degree of devolved autonomy. <clause text="TT02" snumber="03" cnumber="03" function="nominal complement" structure="subordinating"><rank>

In the example above, what a That-complement clause has accomplished is to clarify the noun head “insinuation” by giving it explicitness.

Finally, adverbial clause types realize enhancement functions; functions by which circumstantial information such as the location or time of an event or the condition of an event, etc. was realized (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Thus, the predominant representation of nominalizing structural patterns in the editorial texts across the two cultural contexts suggests that elaboration is of paramount necessity in newspaper editorials. It must be noted that relative clause patterns are sub-features of nominalization. They give detailed specificational information about nominal structures. This implies that there is an attempt in editorial texts to not just achieve elaboration with language but also to be specific about information conveyed.

It must be noted, however, that elaboration, specification and enhancement are not the full scope of functions realized by each of these functional clause structures. In fact
each clause type is realized through a variety of subtypes each of which contributes to the broader functions achieved by the clause types. Therefore, a survey of the detailed distributional patterns of each of the functional clause types in the corpus is necessary at this juncture.

6.2.1 The Nominal clause

We account first for nominal clause types; the most prevalent functional clause types in the corpus. Nominal clauses perform a number of grammatical functions in the corpus. They are used, for instance, as complement of nouns, verbs, and adjectives (Vincent, 1999). Based on this information, we observe the following nominal clause patterns in the corpus:

1. \textit{THAT}-clauses functioning as subject of a sentence or as complement within an NP, a VP or an ADJP,
2. \textit{WH}-clauses functioning in subject positions, in subject complement positions or in object positions; and
3. \textit{INFINITIVAL}-clauses functioning as subjects of sentences or as complements within NPs, and ADJPs\textsuperscript{10}.

These patterns above are the structural patterns which fulfill nominal, verbal and adjectival clause complementation. These three subtypes of the nominal clause – nominal complements, verbal complements and adjectival complements – are distributed in the corpus as follows:

\textsuperscript{10} We treat infinitival patterns post-posed after VPs as catenatives in line with (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002).
Table 6.2: Nominal clause patterns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom compl</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(60.90)</td>
<td>(52.29)</td>
<td>(45.20)</td>
<td>(54.97)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal compl</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(29.15)</td>
<td>(28.47)</td>
<td>(39.79)</td>
<td>(27.65)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj compl</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(9.93)</td>
<td>(15.23)</td>
<td>(15)</td>
<td>(17.36)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>463</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>587</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>(100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(x^2 = 7.4, p\text{-value} = 0.2\)

From this table, it is obvious that nominal complements are the most preferred nominal clause subtype in our newspaper editorial corpus (with the lowest attestation of 45% for DT and the highest attestation of 60% for DG), followed by verbal complements. There is no affinity between newspapers from the same country concerning the distribution of the nominal clause subtypes. The implication of this pattern of distribution is that, nominal clause subtypes are similarly distributed across the four newspapers and that any variation observed in distribution of clauses across the newspaper types is statistically insignificant \(x^2 = 7.4, p\text{-value} = 0.2\). These attested nominal clause subtypes are discussed below.

The dominant nominal clauses, the nominal complements, are clauses which function as complement of noun heads of NPs (as underlined in sentence (4)), as subjects (as underlined in sentence (5)) or as subject complements (as underlined in sentence (6)):

4. There is also an argument that the devolution of decision making in the NHS did not require a structural overhaul, but rather a low-key, managerial
approach. <clause text="DT05" snumber="08" cnumber="12" function="nominal complement" structure="subordinating">\langle rank >

5. To take on the major charities is to begin a battle the Government cannot and should not win. <clause text="TT12" snumber="14" cnumber="13" function="nominal" structure="infinitival">\langle rank >

6. The truth is that the Budget process revealed a serious breakdown in the usually smooth communication between No 10 and No 11 Downing Street. <clause text="TT12" snumber="10" cnumber="08" function="nominal complement" structure="subordinating">\langle rank >

From the corpus, we observe that clauses which perform these functions are typically \textit{THAT}-clauses, \textit{INFINITIVAL} clauses and \textit{WH}-clauses. \textit{WH}-clauses recorded very low attestations in the corpus across the four newspapers (i.e. 8\%, 7\%, 7\%, and 10\% for DG, GT, DT and TT, respectively) as shown in Table 6.3 below.

Table 6.3: Structural patterns of nominal clause in the editorial corpus

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>\textit{THAT}-clauses</td>
<td>282 (61.17)</td>
<td>186 (61.71)</td>
<td>277 (57.82)</td>
<td>304 (52.32)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{INFINITIVAL}</td>
<td>140 (30.36)</td>
<td>95 (31.35)</td>
<td>169 (35.28)</td>
<td>219 (37.69)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{WH}-clause</td>
<td>39 (8.45)</td>
<td>22 (7.26)</td>
<td>33 (6.88)</td>
<td>58 (9.98)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \times^2 = 2.7, p\text{-value} = 0.8 \]
The implication of these distributional patterns is that, in terms of their internal structure, the nominal clauses attested in the editorial corpus are predominantly \textit{THAT}-clauses followed by infinitival clauses. The harmony in the usage patterns having \textit{THAT}-clauses as the preferred type across the four newspapers followed by \textit{INFINITIVAL} clause, is crucial to the register theory. This confirms one of the central claims supported by register theory:

Regardless of any dialect differences, speakers using the same register are doing similar communicative tasks; therefore in most basic respects the characteristic language features used in a given situation are similar across speakers from different dialects (Biber & Conrad, 2009, p. 12).

Equally noteworthy is the observation that nominal clauses used in the four newspapers are predominantly rank shifted as complements within phrases. In this regard, clauses functioning as subject, as underlined in the following two examples, are very few in the corpus:

7. To have proposed and brought forward a significant change in the constitution of local government, but then to have failed to pursue the argument with any vigour, will be a critical failure.  
8. That it did so is thanks, largely, to our wisdom in staying out of the euro.

We observe the following distributional patterns of clauses in subject and complement positions in the corpus which we have presented in Table 6.4 below.
Table 6.4: Distribution of nominal clauses in subject and phrase complement positions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject/subj complement</th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject/subj complement</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(10.79)%</td>
<td>(6.29)%</td>
<td>(7.91)%</td>
<td>(13.62)%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complement</td>
<td>413</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>442</td>
<td>507</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(89.20)%</td>
<td>(93.70)%</td>
<td>(92.08)%</td>
<td>(86.37)%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>463</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>587</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(100)%</td>
<td>(100)%</td>
<td>(100)%</td>
<td>(100)%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overwhelming preference for clauses in complement positions in the editorials studied is as relevant to register theory as the uniformity in the distributional patterns. Post phrasal clause complementation is, actually, the most preferred pattern across the four newspapers with the frequency attestations of 89%, 94%, 92%, and 86% for DG, GT, DT and TT, respectively. The immediate implication is that in the editorial register, elaboration is realized mainly through the strategy of complementation. By complementation, rather than adjunction, ideas realized by clause structure are rank shifted within phrases. By rank shifting, information is strategically packaged to achieve compactness, a strategy which seems relevant to the communicative function of newspaper editorials.

We equally observe that complementation after nouns, verbs and adjectives is typically realized by *THAT*-clauses and *INFINITIVAL*-clauses in the corpus. Especially for *THAT*-clauses, the most attested in the corpus, we identified typical examples such as the ones italicized in the following excerpted sentences which instantiate verbal, nominal and adjectival complement subtypes.
9. *THAT*-clause as complement within a verb phrase:

This newspaper has argued *that the strategy must be more ambitious for Britain*…. 

10. *THAT*-clause as complement within a noun phrase:

Combine that with the aggressive intolerance of the militant secularists, and it is little wonder *that the Church of England frequently feels beleaguered*. 

11. *THAT*-clause as complement within an adjectival phrase:

We are delighted *that in anticipation of a very exciting political season, the government has come up with a code of ethics for its linguists*…

In these three sentences above, the ideas conveyed by the verb *argue*, the noun *wonder* and the adjective *delighted* are being expanded with the use of *THAT*-clauses. The effect of the choice of clauses, instead of phrases, is that it gives the editorial writer the opportunity to pack as much information as possible (Wiredu, 2012, p. 117).

We note in the editorial corpus that a wide range of nouns, verbs and adjectives typically admit *THAT*-clause complements after them. For instance, from the four newspapers, we have generated the nouns in Table 6.5 below which allow *THAT*-clause complementation:
Table 6. 5: Nouns which take THAT-clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nouns which take THAT-clauses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>acceptance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accusation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>allegation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assumption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>case</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>charge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coincidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conviction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>courage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>danger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doubt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>extent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>idea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>indication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insinuation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Wiredu (2012, p. 110) categorizes these nouns into three:

12. Cognitive nouns: nouns which portray the mental frame of the writer.

Examples from the corpus include: hope, belief, reflection, reminder, faith, assurance, expectation, opinion, perception, notion, etc.

a. …the Government is actively conniving at the creation of such a superstate, in the belief that it is the only way to save Europe's economy from disaster. <clause text="DT17" snumber="09" cnumber="07" function="nominal complement" structure="subordinating">\<rank> |

13. Emotive nouns: that is, nouns which express emotion. Attested nouns include
doubt, feeling, possibility, surprise, suspicion, wish, wonder, etc.
a. We have no **doubt** that Okada served a section of the travelling public…

14. Descriptive nouns: These nouns which give general descriptions about a situation include *hypocrisy*, *proof*, *report*, *suggestion*, *ground*, *prospect*, *notice*, *development*, *view*, *news*, *fact*, *way*, etc.

a. This opinion is what translated into the *suggestion* that the CPP should not overburden itself with a shot at the presidency…

Apart from noun complementation, several of the *THAT*-clauses in the corpus complement certain types of verbs. These are normally transitive verbs, which are capable of taking either a phrase or a clause as their object. Our observation is that, though there is a variety of verbs capable of being complemented by *THAT*-nominal clauses, the British newspapers exhibited more richness and variety in the verbs used in this manner. The Ghanaian newspapers, on the contrary, were limited in the scope of verbs complemented, though some of the few used were repeated many times. For comparative purposes, we present a full list of verbs used with *THAT*-clause complements across our four newspapers, beginning with the *Daily Graphic* in Table 6.6 below.
Table 6.6: Verbs used with THAT-nominal complements in DG

| verb      | advise | announce | argue | ascertain | assure | believe | bet   | communicate | contest | demand | demonstrate | emphasize | encourage | enjoin | ensure | expect | explain | feel   | forget  | hear   | hold   | hope   | imagine | imply  | indicate | pray   | insist | know   | maintain | mean   | learn   | plead | point   | point out | presume | realize | recall | recognize | record | reiterate | remember | remind | represent | say     | see    | show   | signal | state   | suggest | tell   | think   | wish   | wonder  |
|-----------|--------|----------|-------|-----------|--------|---------|-------|-------------|---------|--------|-------------|-----------|-----------|--------|--------|---------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|

The *Daily Graphic* used many tokens of verbs and very few types. For instance, the verb *believe* alone was used with a *THAT*-clause complement 37 times, the highest attestation across the four newspapers, followed by the verbs *say* and *ensure* which were used 20 times each. This lack of diversity is not unique to the *Daily Graphic*, for *The Ghanaian Times*, which realized the lowest frequency of *THAT*-nominal complementation, was also characterized by frequent repetition of certain verbs listed in Table 6.7 below. The most preferred verbs for clause complementation in GT, for example, were *ensure*, *say* and *believe* with usage attestations of 20:13:12, respectively.
The monotony in the choice of words perhaps contributed to the observation made by Wiredu that Ghanaian editorials do not inspire much reading enthusiasm (Wiredu, 2012).

The British editorials, conversely, used relatively fewer verb tokens and several types. For example, apart from the verb *say* which was used 20 times in *The Daily Telegraph*, all other verbs used with clause complementation in DT were used less than 10 times. As a result the DT has a wide range of verbs complemented by nominal clause. This is a noteworthy observation. It points towards the fact that though the major clause types are similarly distributed across the four newspapers, variation may be possible in the detailed features of clause patterns. Verbs used with *That*-nominal compliments in *The Daily Telegraph* are presented in Table 6.8 below.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>acknowledge</th>
<th>accept</th>
<th>add</th>
<th>admit</th>
<th>agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>announce</td>
<td>argue</td>
<td>ask</td>
<td>assume</td>
<td>attempt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>avoid</td>
<td>believe</td>
<td>beware</td>
<td>brief</td>
<td>complain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>concede</td>
<td>conclude</td>
<td>confirm</td>
<td>consider</td>
<td>convince</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decide</td>
<td>demonstrate</td>
<td>deny</td>
<td>determine</td>
<td>doubt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ensure</td>
<td>explain</td>
<td>fear</td>
<td>feel</td>
<td>find</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fear</td>
<td>hope</td>
<td>indicate</td>
<td>imagine</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insist</td>
<td>know</td>
<td>maintain</td>
<td>mean</td>
<td>misunderstand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pretend</td>
<td>promise</td>
<td>purpose</td>
<td>realize</td>
<td>reassure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recognize</td>
<td>report</td>
<td>rethink</td>
<td>reveal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>say</td>
<td>see</td>
<td>show</td>
<td>signal</td>
<td>stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suggest</td>
<td>tell</td>
<td>think</td>
<td>understand</td>
<td>warn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>work out</td>
<td>worry</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perhaps, this is one of the areas where a claim for dialectal or idiolectal variation may be made; for, *The Times*, like its counterpart (*The Daily Telegraph*), also exhibits diversity in the types of verb complemented by nominal clause. It also has a long list of transitive verbs (in Table 6.9 below) which are complemented by *THAT*-clauses.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>accept</th>
<th>announce</th>
<th>Argue</th>
<th>Ask</th>
<th>agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>attempt</td>
<td>believe</td>
<td>Complain</td>
<td>concede</td>
<td>conclude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consider</td>
<td>convince</td>
<td>Decide</td>
<td>declare</td>
<td>demonstrate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>discern</td>
<td>ensure</td>
<td>Entail</td>
<td>establish</td>
<td>escape</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>estimate</td>
<td>expect</td>
<td>Explain</td>
<td>Feel</td>
<td>find</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>follow</td>
<td>hint</td>
<td>hope</td>
<td>imagine</td>
<td>insist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>know</td>
<td>mean</td>
<td>note</td>
<td>object</td>
<td>persuade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>point out</td>
<td>pretend</td>
<td>proclaim</td>
<td>promise</td>
<td>prove</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recall</td>
<td>recognize</td>
<td>record</td>
<td>remember</td>
<td>remind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>report</td>
<td>reveal</td>
<td>risk</td>
<td>Rule</td>
<td>satisfy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Say</td>
<td>seek</td>
<td>show</td>
<td>suggest</td>
<td>swear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>symbolize</td>
<td>teach</td>
<td>tell</td>
<td>Think</td>
<td>understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>warn</td>
<td>wonder</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These dynamics about the distribution of transitive verbs capable of taking That-complements in the British editorials contrasts with patterns attested in the Ghanaian editorials. For example, it is observed that the following transitive verbs attested in the British editorials are absent from the Ghanaian editorials: accept, add, agree, ask,
assume, attempt, avoid, announce, brief, concede, convince, decode, demonstrate, deny, determine, doubt, find, etc.

Wiredu (2012, p. 110) again categorizes the types of transitive verbs capable of taking That-complements into two subtypes to which we add a third based on our data:

15. Verbs of assertion: say, tell, warn, teach, report, point out, object, persuade, explain, establish, etc. There are observably more of these verbs in the British editorials than in the Ghanaian counterparts:

a. It has to be said that there is nothing resembling a White House operation in 10 Downing Street.  

16. Verbs of cognition: think, rethink, believe, hope, hear, understand, know, sense, discern, remember, remind, etc. These verbs seem preferable to the editorial register for there are many verbs from this category across Ghanaian and British newspapers:

a. …the Daily Graphic believes that national and constituency officers of NDC will take steps to resolve whatever differences and pain that aspirants might have endured before, during and after the primaries.
17. Other communication-related verbs: demonstrate, signal, indicate, satisfy, show, reveal, prove, risk, decide, entail, etc. There more verbs from this category in the British editorials than in the Ghanaian types.

a. Removing that condition makes sense, and could free up an estimated 75,000 new houses - although developers will apparently need to show that the original design is no longer economically viable.

From this classification an important differential pattern is emerging between the Ghanaian editorials and the British editorials. That is, whereas the British editorialist exploits verbs across the continuum for elaboration, the Ghanaian editorialists limit their choices to verbs of cognition. This has at least two implications.

It is perhaps one indicator that though the texts are equally newspaper editorials, the participants, especially the addressers, are of essentially different linguistic backgrounds: the one is a native user, the other is a second language (L2) user and so competencies in the use of language should normally vary. However, that essential linguistic features are distributed similarly across the two sociocultural contexts confirms that language is being used to perform the same function.

The second implication is that the cognitive verbs preferred across newspapers from the two contexts are typically epistemic. It is normal to assume that the argumentative nature of newspaper editorials would elicit the general predominance of these types of verbs. However, attestations of these verb types across the newspaper types raise other issues. The preference for the cognitive epistemic verbs inclines the Ghanaian
editorials towards the supplicatory, less forceful end of the continuum. This is supported by the observation that whereas cognitive verbs such as believe, think, ensure, know and hope are typically among the most frequent verbs used with nominal clause complementation in DG and GT, they are attested minimally in DT and TT, whose preferences include general communication verbs like argue, demonstrate, insist, show, suggest. Say is generally common across the four newspapers. The underlined verbs in sentences (18) and (19) are the types preferable with That-complements in the Ghanaian editorials.

18. Even before the national fever peaks, the Daily Graphic believes that national and constituency officers of the NDC will take steps to resolve whatever differences and pain…

19. We hope that the election of Dr. Abu Sakara as the flag-bearer, would mark the end of the CPP's woes, and protect its Nkrumaist heritage.

It is worthy to note that by placing the clause after these epistemic verbs, the writer does not make any commitment to the proposition expressed because he or she is only hoping or believing. The verbs predominantly used with nominal complement in the Ghanaian editorials are underlined in sentences (20) and (21)

20. This newspaper has argued that the strategy must be more ambitious for Britain and should include an unashamed commitment to an activist industrial
21. Tim Farron, the **Lib Dem** president, has argued that having an appointed second chamber makes Britain the moral equivalent of Syria... These differential patterns of distribution involving nominal complements across British and Ghanaian editorials are perhaps a reflection of how tenor affects language use within different sociocultural contexts. Perhaps, this also reflects the sensitivity in using language in Ghana. In Ghana, one needs to be careful not to hurt people’s sensibilities in one’s use of language; and the use of epistemic expressions is one way to achieve this. Tenor was initially barred from the potential situational features capable of influencing the use of grammatical patterns, though.

Finally, **THAT**-nominal clauses are observed to similarly complement some adjectives, though their attestation in the corpus is minimal. We identified the adjectives reported in Table 6.10 in complementation with **THAT**-clauses in the corpus.
Table 6. 10: Adjectives with *THAT*-nominal clause

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DG</th>
<th>GT</th>
<th>DT</th>
<th>TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amazing</td>
<td>appropriate</td>
<td>aware</td>
<td>advisable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appropriate</td>
<td>certain</td>
<td>angry</td>
<td>aware</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aware</td>
<td>clear</td>
<td>clear</td>
<td>confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delighted</td>
<td>heart-warming</td>
<td>concerned</td>
<td>inconvenient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>happy</td>
<td>gratifying</td>
<td>confident</td>
<td>inexorable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so high</td>
<td>so ingenious</td>
<td>depressing</td>
<td>likely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hopeful</td>
<td>mindful</td>
<td>so disillusioned</td>
<td>obvious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>important</td>
<td>obvious</td>
<td>evident</td>
<td>odd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>necessary</td>
<td>positive</td>
<td>fortunate</td>
<td>possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>optimistic</td>
<td>proud</td>
<td>so ingrained</td>
<td>reasonable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>refreshing</td>
<td>refreshing</td>
<td>instructive</td>
<td>right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regrettable</td>
<td>so sensitive</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>striking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>surprising</td>
<td>sure</td>
<td>so short</td>
<td>sure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unfortunate</td>
<td>surprised</td>
<td>surprising</td>
<td>surprising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>worried</td>
<td>selling</td>
<td>sure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>unsurprising</td>
<td>unaware</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>welcome</td>
<td>unlikely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>vital</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

And so we have example of structures such as the following involving adjectives being complemented by nominal clauses; the complement clauses are italicized:

22. It is, therefore, **advisable** that it contains experts who have gained their place through their eminence.

23. It is, therefore, crucially **important** that anything that will help speed up the process of resolving electoral disputes to safeguard the peace and stability of our Motherland is most welcome.
It must be noted that both of the two adjectives post-modified by nominal clauses in sentences (22) and (23) are capable of taking infinitival nonfinite clauses. And this is not limited to adjectives. In fact, apart from THAT-nominal clause types, INFINITIVAL clauses are the most preferred structural patterns with frequency attestations of 30%, 31%, 35% and 37% for DG, GT, DT and TT, respectively (c.f. Table 6.3 above) especially for structural patterns of clause nominal clauses in the editorial.

For instance, in sentences (24) and (25), the INFINITIVAL clauses …to protect our infant democracy…and …to accept the possibility of this nation going through a similar experience…complement the noun duty in (24) and the adjective crucial in (25).

24. INFINITIVAL-clause as complement of a noun phrase:
Indeed, each and every Ghanaian has the greatest duty to protect our infant democracy…

25. INFINITIVAL-clause as complement of an adjectival phrase:
It is crucial for us to accept the possibility of this nation going through a similar experience…
The following are nouns retrieved from the data across Ghanaian and British newspapers which are complemented by INFINITIVAL clause patterns.

Table 6. 11: Nouns which take infinitival clause complementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ability</th>
<th>provision</th>
<th>right</th>
<th>pledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>advice</td>
<td>room</td>
<td>sense</td>
<td>policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>areas</td>
<td>step</td>
<td>struggle</td>
<td>recommendation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>attempt</td>
<td>strategy</td>
<td>temptation</td>
<td>response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>call</td>
<td>tendency</td>
<td>will</td>
<td>responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capacity</td>
<td>time</td>
<td>act</td>
<td>role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chance</td>
<td>vision</td>
<td>admission</td>
<td>rush</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>commitment</td>
<td>willingness</td>
<td>advantage</td>
<td>solution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conclusion</td>
<td>way</td>
<td>anxiety</td>
<td>urge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conviction</td>
<td>acknowledgement</td>
<td>atmosphere</td>
<td>appeal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>courage</td>
<td>claim</td>
<td>authority</td>
<td>arrangement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decision</td>
<td>debate</td>
<td>avenue</td>
<td>bid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>failure</td>
<td>desire</td>
<td>challenge</td>
<td>brain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>freedom</td>
<td>eagerness</td>
<td>destiny</td>
<td>collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>idea</td>
<td>effort</td>
<td>determination</td>
<td>cause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incentive</td>
<td>guarantee</td>
<td>duty</td>
<td>deal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>legitimacy</td>
<td>goal</td>
<td>grounds</td>
<td>evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>need</td>
<td>latitude</td>
<td>inability</td>
<td>impossibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>occasion</td>
<td>position</td>
<td>initiative</td>
<td>indication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opportunity</td>
<td>place</td>
<td>intension</td>
<td>mechanism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>person</td>
<td>pressure</td>
<td>mandate</td>
<td>offense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>power</td>
<td>project</td>
<td>meeting</td>
<td>prerogative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>proposal</td>
<td>reason</td>
<td>obligation</td>
<td>presence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>promise</td>
<td>revelation</td>
<td>onus</td>
<td>process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prompting</td>
<td>steadfastness</td>
<td>threat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quest</td>
<td>tendency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These nouns too, as we observe in the corpus, are distributed in very irregular patterns across the four newspapers. For instance, as shown in Table 6.12 below, the most frequent nouns which normally select infinitival clauses vary from newspaper to newspaper.
Table 6.12: Nouns with the most frequent infinitival clause complementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>DG</th>
<th>GT</th>
<th>DT</th>
<th>TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>attempt</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>call</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decision</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>effort</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>failure</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>need</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opportunity</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>right</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>way</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.12 shows that the prototypical nouns for *INFINITIVAL* clause complementation in the corpus based on their attestation across the four newspapers are *attempt, decision, need, failure, opportunity, time, effort, right* and *way*.

Finally we observe a limited set of adjectives which are complemented by *INFINITIVAL* clauses. Adjectives capable of taking infinitival clause complements are presented in Table 6.13 below:
Table 6. 13: Adjectives which take INFINITIVAL complementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DG</th>
<th>GT</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>DT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bold</td>
<td>advisable</td>
<td>able</td>
<td>likely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>critical</td>
<td>appropriate</td>
<td>better</td>
<td>necessary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>difficult</td>
<td>common</td>
<td>depressing</td>
<td>plenty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gratifying</td>
<td>crucial</td>
<td>desirable</td>
<td>possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>happy</td>
<td>cruel</td>
<td>easy</td>
<td>ready</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hard</td>
<td>difficult</td>
<td>enough</td>
<td>reasonable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hypocritical</td>
<td>eligible</td>
<td>essential</td>
<td>right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ready</td>
<td>imperative</td>
<td>expensive</td>
<td>sensible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imperative</td>
<td>important</td>
<td>free</td>
<td>slow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>important</td>
<td>justified</td>
<td>happy</td>
<td>sure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incumbent</td>
<td>likely</td>
<td>hard</td>
<td>tempting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>likely</td>
<td>mandatory</td>
<td>justified</td>
<td>unlikely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>necessary</td>
<td>qualified</td>
<td>important</td>
<td>unwilling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>needless</td>
<td>possible</td>
<td>impossible</td>
<td>unwilling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>too recent</td>
<td>ready</td>
<td>keen</td>
<td>welcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>refreshing</td>
<td>well-informed</td>
<td>liable</td>
<td>willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>wise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>wrong</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These adjectives are typically complemented as underlined in sentences (26) and (27) below:

26. This is essential both to tackle a severe lack of new housing and to bolster one of the weakest parts of Britain's sluggish economy.

27. It is, therefore, important, in discussing Ghana’s admission to the league of liberal democratic nations, to acknowledge the important role played by the NDC…
6.2.2. The Relative Clause

The relative clause is the second most attested functional clause pattern in the editorial corpus with frequency attestations of 32%, 33%, 30% and 30% for DG, GT, DT and TT, respectively, (refer to Table 6.2 above). These results are noteworthy for at least one reason. Their near identical numerical value across the four newspapers is an indication that some motivation other than house style influences their choice in editorial writing. We note that relative clauses used in the editorial corpus are those which have the following features:

28. Wh-Relative clauses: Those which are introduced by a Wh-interrogative word (such as who, whom, whose, which and sometimes by where, why and when (Greenbaum, 1996)). Example:

This picking of winners is the job not of ministers but of the expert Technology Strategy Board, which Mr Willetts announced yesterday would be setting up a new innovation centre in the area of satellite applications. <clause text="TT01" snumber="16" cnumber="15" function="wh-Relative" structure="interrogcl">

29. Whiz-Relative clause: Those which have a Wh-interrogator alone deleted or both wh-interrogator and a form of the ‘Be’ verb deleted together. These are either nonfinite participial clauses as in sentence (a) below, or a finite clause with a zero relativizer as in sentence (b) below:

a. By contrast, the preparations for this year's Budget seem to have been less an attempt to forge a coherent strategy than an exercise in Coalition horse-trading brokered by the so-called Quad of David Cameron, George Osborne, Nick Clegg and Danny Alexander. <clause
b. To take on the major charities is to begin a battle the Government cannot and should not win.

30. *That*-Relative: Those which are introduced by a *THAT*-complementizer.

Example:

a. …it is only vigilance and the prevention of the snatching of the ballot boxes that ensure the will of the people is upheld in an election.

31. Pied piping Relative: Those (typically a *wh*-relative) which are fronted by a preposition. Example:

a. …because there is no reason why many of the existing school buildings should be in such poor state, considering the fact that a huge chunk of the national budget is allotted to the education sector, out of which adequate provision is made for infrastructural development.

These four relative clause sub-types are used in the corpus in the following frequency patterns:
Table 6.14: Distribution of relative clause patterns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wh-R</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>(29.88)</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>(49.57)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whiz-R</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>(39.66)</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>(35.89)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That-R</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>(23.74)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>(9.56)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pied Piping</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>(6.85)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>(5.21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>358</td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>(100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(χ² = 32, p-value < 0.01)

Table 6.14 attests to varied distributional patterns. So far the relative clause subtypes are the only clause pattern that exhibit that usage frequency depends on the type of newspaper. The Chi-square result (χ² = 32, p-value > 0.01) for distribution of relative clause subtypes across the four newspapers shows that variations in usage frequencies across the newspaper types are statistically significant. That is, whereas Whiz relatives (those which have deletion of wh- interrogator and/ or a form of a Be verb) are the most preferred patterns for DG and DT at 40% and 40% respectively – a pattern similar to Wiredu’s (2012) observation, Wh-relatives are the most preferred in GT at 50% and That-relatives the most preferred in TT at 37%. The only subtype that shows some consistency across the four newspapers is pied piping relatives. These inconsistencies are much pronounced when captured in a graph. And so we have represented attestations of relative subtypes in Figure 6.2 which enables one to make a mental impression of the irregularities in the distribution of relative clause patterns.
In Figure 6.2, for instance, the bars attest to the sharp variation in the distribution of the relative clause subtypes. That is, whereas the green bar representing *That*-relatives is clearly very low in GT, it is the tallest in TT. This does not help for much generalization. That the relative clause exhibits these patterns of distribution is interesting since relative clause structures have been observed to be normally used based on regional standards. Hundt, Denison and Schneider observes at least 2 regional norms:

- Across British and American English:
  
  “Matters are further complicated by the fact that there is not a single prescriptive tradition that unifies ‘approved’ usage on both sides of the Atlantic: the British tradition targets non-restrictive *that*, whereas American arbiters of ‘proper’ English fight a war against the use of restrictive *which*” (Hundt, Denison, & Schneider, 2012, p. 211)
• Across British and New Zealand English:

“…in BrE and NZE, ‘the two relativizers which and that may be differentiated in terms of formality . . . rather than restrictiveness’, thus confirming regional differences in the effect that prescriptive traditions may have had.” (Hundt, Denison, & Schneider, 2012, p. 212).

Nevertheless, the distribution of the relative clause in our editorial corpus does not suggest regional norms may have had any influence in the sense that there are no similarities in distribution across newspapers from the two regional contexts. The only thing one can claim at this level of the discussion is that all the relative clause subtypes are represented; perhaps indicating they are of some relevance to the editorial register.

Moreover, the consistent attestation of pied piping structures contributes to the nature of newspaper editorial language. Pied piped structures “tend to occur more frequently in formal styles” (Greenbaum, 1996). Their minimal usage across the four editorials perhaps indicates that newspaper editorials are not at the most formal end of the formality continuum among written varieties.

A closer look at the individual subtypes of the relative clause is revealing. For instance, we observe that who and which are the dominant relativizers for the realization of wh-Relative clauses across the four newspapers represented in the corpus. As captured in Table 6.15 below, whereas who is the preferred relativizer for the British editorials (49% each for DT and TT) the preferred choice for the Ghanaian editorials is between who (63% for DG) and which (58% for GT).
This means that whereas relative clauses, such as the underlined in sentence (32), are dominant in GT, the types such as the underlined in sentence (33) are the most attested in DG, DT and TT.

32. …The exercise enters its fifth day today, but there are reports of certain problems which…may affect its eventual success. <clause text="GT08" snumber="03" cnumber="05" function="wh-Relative" structure="interrogcl"><rank>

33. Power is a function of those who wield it. <clause text="TT05" snumber="10" cnumber="18" function="wh-Relative" structure="interrogcl"><rank>

Though these relative pronouns perform subjective, objective and possessive functions in the editorial, they are more attested in subjective positions throughout the four newspapers studied. A survey of their usage in subject and object positions reveals the results presented in Table 6.16 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Who</td>
<td>65 (62.5)</td>
<td>41 (35.96)</td>
<td>40 (48.78)</td>
<td>47 (49.47)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whom</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>1 (0.87)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whose</td>
<td>5 (4.80)</td>
<td>6 (5.26)</td>
<td>11 (13.41)</td>
<td>7 (7.36)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which</td>
<td>34 (32.69)</td>
<td>66 (57.89)</td>
<td>31 (37.80)</td>
<td>41 (43.15)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.15: Distribution of interrogative pronouns
Table 6. 16: Distribution of relative pronouns in subject and object positions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subject</strong></td>
<td>86</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Object</strong></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 97 | (100) | 96 | (100) | 69 | (100) | 79 | (100) |

By implication, the dominant *wh*-relative clauses in the corpus are the ones in which the noun phrase specified in the relative clause is the subject of the relative clause (Wardhaugh, 1995). For example in sentence (30), the head of the NP *Mr Kagame* is the subject of the underlined relative clause in the sense that it is *Mr Kagame* ‘who became President’.

34. Its military commander was Mr Kagame, *who became President in 2000*.  

Relative clauses such as the one in (34) above are the ones whose relativizers are ineliminable. On the contrary, relative clauses such as the ones in sentence (31) can have their *wh*- relative pronouns deleted. In *wh*- relative clause types such as underlined in (35), which are the least attested in the corpus, the NP substituted for is the object of the relative clause.

35. …there is something beautiful in unity which we have missed all these years.
Whiz- relative subtypes manifest in three different forms in the corpus. There are those in which only the wh-element is elided (Wh- Deleted relatives) as the underlined in sentence (36) below; and there are those which have both the wh-relativizer as well as an aspect of the Be verb deleted. Of this second category of whiz- relatives we identify two subtypes in the corpus: those whose verbs are in the present participial forms (reduced –ing relatives underlined in sentence (37) below) and those whose verbs are in the perfect participial form (reduced –en relatives underlined in sentence (38) below).

36. Perhaps, if Mr Huhne is found to be not guilty of a charge he intends to dispute vigorously, he will be free to resume his political career.  

37. These interventions will inevitably be couched in terms of ministers vs backbenchers, of a restive party testing its leader's mettle.  

38. We must seek to build on the successes chalked up in the previous elections.

These three subtypes of the whiz- relative clause are distributed in the corpus as presented in Table 6.17 below:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Wh</em>-Del</td>
<td>33 (23.23)</td>
<td>23 (27.38)</td>
<td>32 (25)</td>
<td>32 (29.62)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced –<em>ing</em></td>
<td>51 (35.91)</td>
<td>29 (34.52)</td>
<td>42 (32.81)</td>
<td>31 (28.70)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced –<em>en</em></td>
<td>58 (40.84)</td>
<td>32 (38.09)</td>
<td>54 (42.18)</td>
<td>45 (41.66)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>142 (100)</td>
<td>84 (100)</td>
<td>128 (100)</td>
<td>108 (100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 6.17 above, the reduced –*en* whiz relative clause is apparently the preferred choice across the four newspapers followed by the reduced –*ing* subtype or the *Wh*-deleted structure depending on the particular type of newspaper. These patterns of distribution show that the perfect participial relative structure is of some functional significance in the newspaper editorial, in the light the register theory.

Unlike *wh*- and whiz relative clause types, *That*-relative clauses attested in the corpus are more straightforward in the sense that there are no subtypes. A typical example of *That*-relative clause is the one underlined in sentence (39) below.

39. The expensive mistakes that governments in the 1970s made while attempting to pick corporate winners have led to a widespread wariness about industrial policy. <clause text=""TT01"" snumber=""06"" cnumber=""04"" function=""that-Relative"" structure=""subordinating">""</rank>
These That relatives are distinguishable from That nominal complements in the sense that they have their unique intonational property and internal grammar. For instance, that in That-relatives is replaceable by which or who. And so though it is possible, for instance, to replace the that in the relative clause in sentence (39) above with which as in (40) below,

40. The expensive mistakes which governments in the 1970s made…

it is not possible to do the same with the That-complementizer in the nominal complement in sentence (41) below.

41. There is also an argument that the devolution of decision making in the NHS did not require a structural overhaul...

The discussion on the distribution of relative clause structures in the editorials will be concluded by two general observations. In the first place, the relative clause is the only clause type whose distribution is dependent on newspaper type. That is, apart from the pied piping type which is the least preferred type across the four newspapers, all the other subtypes are irregularly distributed across the four newspapers. A comparative schema representing the use the relative clause system the editorial will appear as follows:

- The Whiz-relative (39.66%) is the most preferred type in DG, followed by the Wh-relative (29.88%). That-relatives are equally significantly represented (23.74%) in DG;
The Wh-relative (49.57%) is the most preferred pattern in GT, followed by the Whiz-relative (35.89%). The That-relative is minimally represented in GT (9.56%);

The Whiz-relative (39.87%) is the most preferred type in DT, followed by the That-relative (28.66%). Wh-relative (26.16%) subtypes are equally significantly attested in DT;

The That-relative (36.88%) is the most attested type in TT, followed by the Whiz-relative (28.05%). The Wh-relative (25.19%) is equally represented in TT.

These variations in distribution are confirmed by the statistical test ($\chi^2 = 32$, p-value > 0.01). This means, in the first place, that relative clause subtypes do not share similar patterns of distribution even across newspapers from the same sociocultural context. As a result of these inconsistencies, it is difficult ascribing function to the individual subtypes of the relative clause. What can be argued, however, is that the relative clause in general is functional in the editorial register in the sense that it is the second most attested clause pattern consistently across the four newspapers.

Relative clauses generally perform elaborative functions, as argued above; they provide specificatory elaboration (Wiriedu, 2014) to the noun phrase they post-modify. The implication is that, information elaboration is crucial to newspaper editorial register and so the two most preferred clause patterns are the nominal clause and the relative clause which both perform this function. This same function, we argue, is perhaps what has conditioned the nominal clause patterns and the relatives to be prominently used in complement positions.
6.2.3 The Adverbial Clause

Adverbial clauses are non-rank shifted hypotactic clauses (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). That is, they do not grammatically depend on a phrase; they depend rather on a main clause to provide circumstantial enhancement about the information expressed in the main clause (Downing & Lock, 2006). Circumstantial enhancement is realized in the editorials in the following patterns of instantiation.

Table 6.18: Distribution of Adverbial Clause

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause Type</th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concession</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manner</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Result</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>292</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(\chi^2 = 18.3, p\text{-value} = 0.6\)

As presented in Table 6.18 above, the most preferred clause pattern for realizing circumstantial enhancement throughout the four newspapers is the time adverbial clause. This is followed, depending on the type of newspaper, by any one of the following types: conditional, reason, purpose, concession, and manner adverbial clause types. We observe that whereas the manner adverbial clause is significantly attested in the two British newspapers, it is among the least realized circumstantial
clause in the Ghanaian editorials. It is equally noteworthy that result and place adverbials are the least preferred types across the four newspapers. However, in spite of the irregularities associated with the distribution of adverbial clauses, the statistical test of independence confirms that the distribution of adverbial clause subtypes in the editorials are independent of newspaper type ($\chi^2 = 18.3$, $p$-value = 0.6).

The primary motivation for the dominance of time adverbials is a functional one. There is the impression that temporal enhancement is relevant to the persuasive function of newspaper editorials. This observation is emphasized by the fact that the corpus exhibits a wide range of types of time adverbial clause signaled chiefly by subordinators such as *when, while, before, after, since, as, once, by the time* and by some present participial clauses. Details of distribution of time adverbial clause patterns are presented in Table 6.19.

**Table 6.19: Distribution of Time Adverbial clause subtypes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause Type</th>
<th>DG</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When(ever)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>(39.77)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>(37.03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>(17.04)</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>(35.18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Since</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>(5.68)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>(1.85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>(4.54)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>(3.70)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>(3.40)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>(1.85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(un)till</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>(2.27)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>(1.85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>(17.04)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>(14.81)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>(1.13)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>(0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Now that</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>(1.85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(for) as long as</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>(0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By the time</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>(0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At the time</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>(1.13)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>(0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participial</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>(7.9)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>(1.85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>88</strong></td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td><strong>54</strong></td>
<td>(100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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It is obvious, looking at Table 6.19 above, that time adverbial clauses are the dominant type mainly because temporality is realized across a wide spectrum of the time continuum. However, the most attested time adverbial clauses are the when, while, and as time adverbial clauses instantiated in sentence (42) – (44) below.

42. But when the Chancellor gets to his feet on March 21 to make his Budget statement he will not be able to announce a cut in taxes…

43. While saluting the victors of the NDC primaries and commiserating with the losers, we urge the other political parties…to be guided by internal democratic principles…

44. As the Conservatives lick their wounds after Thursday's polls, and Labour counts its gains, the question that will preoccupy all parties is whether the outcome represents a fundamental rejection of David Cameron, or a temporary rift.

One may argue that these types of time adverbials are predominant probably because the enhancement function relevant to the realization of the communicative purpose of the editorial register is “temporal overlap” with the subordinator when and temporal simultaneity with the subordinator while (Cristofaro, 2003). By these functional relations, the times during which events were realized in the editorials are perceived
to be either unspecific or fleeting (Cristofaro, 2003). For example in sentence (42) above, there are two idea units conveyed through a main clause:

45. …he will not be able to announce a cut in taxes;

and a temporal subordinate clause:

46. …when the Chancellor gets to his feet on March 21 to make his Budget statement

The argument is that, time adverbial clauses such as in (46) typically express time overlap in the sense that they do not convey when the event in the time adverbial clause will end.

Apart from time adverbials, the other most preferred clausal expressions of circumstance across three newspapers (DG, DT and TT) are conditional clauses. We observe that the most attested conditional pattern is the if type though there are other minimally attested subtypes: should, had, provided and unless.

47. Such practices, if they exist, should not be an incentive for the Government to change the law. <clause text="TT11" snumber="22" cnumber="27" function="open conditional" structure="subordinating">48. It is for this reason that the decision by the government to come up with code of ethics for members of its communications team must be seen as a positive development on the political landscape, provided the team members will abide by the provisions… <clause text="DG04" snumber="05" cnumber="11" function="open conditional" structure="subordinating">
49. It is crucial for us to accept the possibility of this nation going through a similar experience, unless we work effectively against such political turmoils.

The if-conditional and the other uncommon conditional clause types are represented in the corpus in the distributional patterns captured in Table 6.20 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>If</strong></td>
<td>44 (97.77)</td>
<td>16 (72)</td>
<td>30 (85.71)</td>
<td>45 (86.53)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Unless</strong></td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>5 (22.72)</td>
<td>1 (2.85)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Should</strong></td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>1 (4.54)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>5 (9.61)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Had</strong></td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>2 (5.71)</td>
<td>2 (3.84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Provided</strong></td>
<td>1 (2.22)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>1 (2.85)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 6.20: Distribution of conditional clause subtypes**

These conditional structures are the open type of conditionals, rather than the hypothetical types. This pattern corroborates Wiredu’s (2012) observation about the distribution of conditional patterns in his data. In line with his argument, we argue that the open conditional clauses attested in the corpus are relevant to the
communicative function of the editorial register because they encode possibilities and as a result, optimism; a situation that feeds specifically into the persuasive function of newspaper editorials.

Reason adverbial clauses are another common type across the four newspapers. Their detailed attestations, however, seem to be influenced by regional style. For example, whereas it is the third most preferred type in the Ghanaian editorials, it is the fourth in the British editorials. One realizes that the dominant reason adverbial clauses are the ones with because subordinators as underlined in sentence (46), followed by since reason adverbials underlined in sentence (47).

50. It is bold because, until now, Mr Salmond has been free to pursue his own ends at his own speed.<clause text="TT02" snumber="09" cnumber="09" function="reason adverbial" structure="subordinating">

51. Since we are constantly being told that this is not allowed under the convention, how have the French managed to do it? <clause text="DT11" snumber="11" cnumber="19" function="reason adverbial" structure="subordinating">

The full list of reason adverbial clauses and their usage patterns in the editorial corpus are presented in Table 6.21.
Table 6. 21: Distribution of Reason Adverbials

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Because</td>
<td>19 (50)</td>
<td>11 (39.28)</td>
<td>18 (62.06)</td>
<td>19 (65.51)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Since</td>
<td>3 (7.89)</td>
<td>11 (39.28)</td>
<td>4 (13.79)</td>
<td>1 (3.44)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So that</td>
<td>4 (10.52)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>1 (3.44)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For</td>
<td>2 (5.26)</td>
<td>2 (7.14)</td>
<td>2 (6.89)</td>
<td>2 (6.89)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As</td>
<td>6 (15.78)</td>
<td>3 (10.71)</td>
<td>1 (3.44)</td>
<td>3 (10.34)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So</td>
<td>1 (2.63)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So long as</td>
<td>2 (5.26)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For + -ing</td>
<td>1 (2.63)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In that</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>1 (3.57)</td>
<td>1 (3.44)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Given that/how</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>2 (6.89)</td>
<td>4 (13.79)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These patterns of distribution of the reason adverbials have two implications. In the first place their preference across the four newspapers suggests they fulfill communicative functions. They at least indicate that the editorial register is argumentative, which requires reasons to be provided for issues raised. However, it appears from the distributional patterns that the Ghanaian editorialists prefer the reason adverbial clause for the expressions of reason enhancement needed in the editorial genre more than their British counterparts.

This observation perhaps relates to an observed differential pattern of the general organization of newspaper types. It is observed that the Ghanaian editorials have a relatively straightforward argumentative structure which begins with background information, introduces the subject under discussion, provides justification for taking
a particular position and ends with an assurance, solution, or projection into the future. And the reason adverbial clause is one of the favoured expressions for rendering the justification in the Ghanaian editorials usually captured explicitly in one of the paragraphs in the middle (body) of the text in any of the pattern below:

- This is the reason why we…
- The Daily Graphic/The Ghanaian Times therefore…
- That is why the Daily Graphic/The Ghanaian Times…
- We therefore, call on the victors…
- This is because…

The British editorials, however, exhibit a more intricate argumentation, which becomes the platform for the adverbial clauses attested in them.

We also note that though manner circumstantial clauses are not particularly favoured by the Ghanaian editorials, they are indeed the third most preferred adverbial clauses in the British editorials. Because the manner adverbial clause is most preferred in the British editorials, we present their usage patterns in the British editorials only in Table 6.22 below.
Table 6.22: Distribution of Manner Adverbial

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>As</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>(65.85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As if</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>(7.31)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As though</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>(2.43)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Like</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>(2.43)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the way</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>(7.31)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participial</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>(14.63)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>41</strong></td>
<td><strong>(100)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We observe from Table 6.22 that manner adverbial clauses such as the underlined in sentence (52) are the dominant type in the corpus.

52. When the going gets tough, as it has this past week or so, Mr Cameron needs all the backing he can get from his supporters.

The difference in the patterns of distribution of manner adverbial clauses across the newspapers from the two sociocultural contexts (5.51%, 8.75%, 13.17 and 15.41 for DG, GT, DT and TT, respectively) is noteworthy. Their favourable attestation in the British editorials, perhaps explains why the British editorials recorded lower attestations for the other dominant enhancement clauses. Categories whose
attestations are not consistent across the two sociocultural contexts of the study are considered in this study as a stylistic preference.

Apart from these prominent adverbial clause subtypes, we observe other types which are minimally used in the corpus. These include purpose adverbials, concessive adverbials, place adverbials and result adverbials. Of these minimally attested types, purpose adverbials need some comment for their representation across the newspapers. Purpose adverbials are similarly attested across editorials from the same regional context. That is, they are similarly higher in frequency in the Ghanaian editorials (10.8% and 10% for DG and GT, respectively) than in the British editorials (7.75 and 3.08% for DT and TT, respectively). Patterns of distribution of grammatical features that are consistent only across newspapers from the same sociocultural contexts are argued in this work as stylistic adjustments.

Equally noteworthy is the category we have referred to as Others among the adverbials. These are clauses categorized in traditional grammar as adverbials because they “are set off from the main clause by a comma and have their own intonation contour” (Downing & Lock, 2006, p. 276). These are the subtypes Payne (1997) refers to as absolutive, additive and substitutive adverbials. However, since their individual attestations are not prominent in the corpus, we have put them together under the general category ‘Others’ for the purpose of this study. For example, the underlined clauses in sentences (49) and (50) are put under Others.
53. This picking of winners is the job not of ministers but of the expert Technology Strategy Board, which would be setting up a new innovation centre in the area of satellite applications. Mr Willetts announced yesterday.

54. So, facing a cataclysm at the next election (especially since new constituency boundaries will undermine their traditional strength in local campaigning), they decided to rehouse their soon-to-be-homeless MPs in the Lords…

The general observation about the distribution of adverbial clauses in this work is that whereas some of them are similarly attested across the four newspapers, others share similar distributional patterns with newspapers from the same sociocultural context. It is those whose patterns of distribution are consistent across all four newspapers that are argued in this work to be functional. Similarities that are intra-regional (say between DG and GT) are considered stylistic adjustment.

6.3 Convergence and Divergence

It is important to offer a summary of divergence and convergence in the distribution of the functional clause patterns. Based on the patterns of distribution of nominal, relative and adverbial clauses and their subtypes a general comparative schema may be deduced as follows:
• There are patterns which are consistently similarly attested across the four newspapers. These are what may be referred to as total consistency.

• There are patterns which are similarly distributed only across newspapers from the same sociocultural contexts. These are called partial consistency.

• There are patterns which are unique to individual newspapers. These are called zero consistency.

Total consistency is considered to be functional. That is, clause patterns, which are similarly distributed across the four newspapers, are the ones which are deemed to be performing a communicative function in a situational context. In this regards the patterns of distribution of nominal clause (42.66%, 43.39%, 45.49%, 46.25% for DG, GT, DT and TT), relative clause (32.25%, 33.04%, 30.04%, 30.04% for DG, GT, DT and TT) and adverbial clause (25.06%, 22.98%, 24.45%, 23.71% for DG, GT DT and TT) are functional for their similar distribution across the four newspapers confirmed by the statistical measurement ($\chi^2 =0.4$, $p$-value = 0.09). This is in line with the claim of the register theory that functional linguistic features are similarly distributed across dialects of the same variety. In this regard, these three types of clauses are argued to provide the following functions needed for the accomplishment of the communicative purpose of the editorial genre:

• elaboratory functions performed by the two dominant clauses (nominal and relative clauses); and

• enhancement functions performed by the least attested (needed for the persuasive communicative purpose of the editorial register.
The distribution of the nominal clause subtypes also exhibit total consistency. The nominal complement type is the dominant subtype across the four newspapers followed by verbal complements.

The detailed attestations of relative and adverbial clause subtypes, however, instantiate partial consistency and zero consistency. For the adverbial subtypes, apart from the time clause type, which is similarly distributed across all four newspapers and so is deemed functional, the rest are distributed based on the regional context of production.

The distribution of the internal subtypes of relative clauses instantiates zero consistency. Each of the subtypes seems to be influenced by some local house style.

6.4 Distribution of structural clauses

Based on the structural features of clauses attested in our editorial corpus, we classify subordinating, infinitival, interrogative, present participial, past participial and reduced clause structures. The participial types are separated because we observed from the corpus that they are variably distributed in a consistent manner. The reduced structures are the subordinating and relative clause structures which lack subordinators and relativizers. A full list of attestations of these 6 structural clause types are summarized in Table 6.23 below.
Our observation, captured in Table 6.23 above, is that subordinating clauses are the dominant clauses in the editorials across the four newspapers. Apart from the subordinating clauses, no other structural type is used similarly consistently across the four newspapers. However, the result of the statistical test ($\chi^2 =16.4$, $p$-value = 0.3) shows that none of these distributional inconsistencies are statistically significant. This means that usage patterns of the structural types of clauses are largely independent of newspaper type.

A closer look at Table 6.23 reveals some interesting patterns of distribution of interrogative, infinitival, present participial, and perfect participial clauses. We observe, for instance, that though infinitival, present participial and interrogative clauses are consistently used in this order of preference in the British editorials, they are variably distributed without any consistent pattern within the Ghanaian editorials. We account in detail for usage patterns of the structural types of clauses in the following sub-sections.

**Table 6.23: Distribution of structural clause Types**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subord</td>
<td>588 (43.28)</td>
<td>344 (38.09)</td>
<td>505 (42.83)</td>
<td>667 (47.98)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interrog</td>
<td>338 (25.01)</td>
<td>160 (17.71)</td>
<td>164 (13.91)</td>
<td>168 (12.08)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infinitival</td>
<td>52 (8.61)</td>
<td>201 (24.47)</td>
<td>202 (17.13)</td>
<td>227 (16.33)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present p</td>
<td>185 (13.58)</td>
<td>99 (10.96)</td>
<td>180 (15.26)</td>
<td>219 (15.75)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect P</td>
<td>52 (3.78)</td>
<td>31 (3.43)</td>
<td>67 (5.68)</td>
<td>52 (3.74)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced</td>
<td>77 (5.71)</td>
<td>48 (5.31)</td>
<td>61 (5.17)</td>
<td>57 (4.10)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 =16.4$, $p$-value = 0.3
6.4.1 Subordinating clause

Subordinating clauses are the clause patterns which are introduced by subordinating conjunctions (subordinators). To this structural category belong most of the adverbial clause subtypes and some other functional clause types. Underlined in sentence (51) are examples of subordinating clause patterns:

55. The expensive mistakes that governments in the 1970s made while attempting to pick corporate winners have led to a widespread wariness about industrial policy.

The underlined subordinating clauses in sentence (55) are not the only two types of subordinating clause. In fact, we identify the following 3 subtypes of the subordinating clause:

56. That- Complement subordinating clauses:
   a. …it is little wonder that the Church of England frequently feels beleaguered.

57. That-Relative subordinating clauses
   a. The expensive mistakes that governments in the 1970s made

58. Adverbial subordinating clauses
   a. The expensive mistakes that governments in the 1970s made while attempting to pick corporate winners
These types of subordinating clauses are distributed across the four newspapers in the dimensions presented in Table 6.24 below.

### Table 6.24: Distributional patterns of subordinating clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>That-Comp</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>276</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(40)</td>
<td>(58.55)</td>
<td>(48.26)</td>
<td>(42.39)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That-Rel</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(15.13)</td>
<td>(6.14)</td>
<td>(16.81)</td>
<td>(20.89)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial Sub</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(44.86)</td>
<td>(35.29)</td>
<td>(34.91)</td>
<td>(36.71)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>555</td>
<td>374</td>
<td>547</td>
<td>651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>(100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is observable from Table 6.24 that *That*-Relative patterns are the least preferred structures among the structural types. It is equally noteworthy that *That*-Complements are the most attested in GT, DT and TT. We observe further that all *That*-Complements and *That*-Relatives attested in the corpus are finite clauses. Adverbial subordinating structures, however, are either finite or nonfinite clauses. A survey of the corpus reveals that Adverbial Subordinating clauses are predominantly finites throughout the four newspapers. We capture this in Table 6.25 below in which finite subordinating clause types are < 80% across the four newspapers.
Table 6.25: Distribution of finite and nonfinite Adverbial subordinating clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DG(%)</th>
<th>GT(%)</th>
<th>DT(%)</th>
<th>TT(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Finite</td>
<td>219  (87.95)</td>
<td>116  (87.87)</td>
<td>164  (85.86)</td>
<td>208  (87.02)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonfinite</td>
<td>30  (12.04)</td>
<td>16   (12.12)</td>
<td>27   (14.13)</td>
<td>31   (12.97)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>249  (100)</td>
<td>132  (100)</td>
<td>191  (100)</td>
<td>239  (100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This determination of finite and nonfinite status of the subordinating clause patterns is particularly useful to the discussion of the finite and nonfinite clauses undertaken below. That is they contribute to determining the overall representation of finite and nonfinite clauses in the data. From Table 6.25, it can be claimed that the adverbial subordinating clauses underlined in sentence (59), rather than the type underlined in (60), are the ones which are most preferred in the editorial corpus:

59. The stakes at every election are always high, and particularly for this year the stakes may be higher because the ruling government would not want to be a one-term government while the main opposition party would not want to miss the boat again.
60. There are also cases of politicians, particularly parliamentary candidates, busing people from other areas to their constituencies to register in order to boost their chances of victory in the December election. <clause text="GT09" snumber="06" cnumber="15" function="purpose adverbial" structure="subordinating">In sentence (55), the two subordinating clauses:

…because the ruling government would not want to be a one-term government;

and

…while the main opposition party would not want to miss the boat again

are both finite mainly because their verbs are tensed. The subordinating clause

…in order to boost their chances of victory in the December election

in sentence (56), however, is nonfinite because its verb is untensed.

6.4.2 The infinitival clause

The infinitival clause too is quite prevalent in the editorial corpus. In fact, it is the second most attested structural clause pattern across the two British newspapers as well as in The Ghanaian Times. These are clauses which function either as clause elements or as phrase complements as in sentence (61) and (62).

61. To take on the major charities is to begin a battle the Government cannot and should not win. <clause text="TT12" snumber="14" cnumber="13" function="nominal" structure="infinitival"><rank/></clause>

62. To avoid a state of nature, it is very critical to clearly define codes in society.

In sentence (61), both underlined clauses are clause elements functioning as subject (cnumber=“13”) and subject complement (cnumber=“14”). The infinitival clauses in sentence (58), however, are a clause element (cnumber=“04”) and a phrase complement (cnumber=“05”). That is, clause (4) in sentence (58) functions as an adverbial clause giving a circumstantial background information about the main clause, while clause (5) in the same sentence is a complement of the Adjectival Phrase giving elaborative information about the Head critical.

Infinitival clauses in clause element positions like clause (4) in sentence (58) are rare in the corpus across the four newspapers. We observe that the majority of infinitival clauses attested in the editorial corpus are those which are post-modifiers to noun phrases and adjectival phrases such as clause (14) in sentence (57) and clause (5) in sentence (58). And this usage pattern of the infinitival clause is functionally appropriate to its context of use since, like other nonfinite clauses they are essential for syntactic compressing (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985, p. 995). Since the editorial register is meant to convey information to influence within a limited space, syntactic compression is indispensable. This explains why the majority of the infinitival clauses are used as embedded structures.
6.4.3 The interrogative clause

Interrogative clauses are, in fact, a subset of subordinating clauses since they also begin with subordinators. However, one factor, which distinguishes them from other types of subordinating clauses, is that they are all finite. For instance, all the interrogative clauses in sentences (63), (64) and (65) are finite.

63. Alex Salmond has shown that the vital question is whether engaging and able characters emerge to embody those institutions.  
64. She has used the opportunity to urge people to be far less timid about their faith and to challenge what she calls "militant secularization".  
65. That is why the Daily Graphic appeals to the law enforcement agencies to prosecute electoral offenders...

Like the underlined interrogative clauses in sentence (63) to 65 above, all the interrogative clauses attested in our editorial corpus are marked by the following introductory interrogators: why, what, how, where, which and whether. Interrogative clause patterns are significantly represented throughout the data. However, they are
more prominent particularly in the *Daily Graphic*. Their inconsistency across the four newspapers makes their usage in the editorial a stylistic one.

### 6.4.4 The Participial Clauses

The participial clauses attested in the corpus are of two kinds. These are present participial and perfect participial clauses of the types underlined in sentence (66) below.

66. In a letter published on this page today, the people owning or running more than 500 of these companies argue for the removal of the 50p top rate of tax.

Both of the participial clauses underlined in sentence (66) are rank shifted as qualifiers within noun phrases. We must add that participial clause patterns also perform other structural functions in the editorials. For instance, they are used as complements within prepositional phrases (67), as nominal clauses (68) and as adverbials (69).

67. The Special Relationship has never been equal, as David Cameron wisely acknowledged by calling Britain America's "junior partner" in Washington two years ago.

68. Closing down tax loopholes is the better option Nick Clegg took his party into government to prove that Liberal Democrats are serious about power.
69. Briefing Parliament last Friday, Dr Afari-Gyan said out of the over 12.75 million voters who registered one million were not assigned polling stations.

Like the two participial clauses in sentence (62) above,

…calling Britain America's “junior partner” in Washington two years ago

in sentence (67) functions as a complement, rank shifted in a prepositional phrase. Participial clauses in sentence (68) and (69), however, are not rank shifted clauses in the strict sense of SFG (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). In fact, they are hypotactic clauses, which function as clause elements (i.e. as a nominal clause functioning as a subject in sentence (68), and as an adverbial clause providing circumstantial information in sentence (69).

6.4.5 Finite/ nonfinite clauses

The distribution of finite and nonfinite dependent clauses in the data is almost balanced. Considering the nonfinite types as being constituted by infinitival, present participial, perfect participial and reduced clause patterns (disregarding the minor percentage of nonfinite subordinating clauses) one may realize 32%, 44%, 43% and 40% for DG, GT, DT and TT, respectively, making the finite structures a nominal majority. The nonfinite clauses are essentially different from the finite types because they are more desententialized. That is, whereas finite clauses, as we note in clauses
(27), (28) and (29) of sentence (70) are fully inflected and can be more easily integrated in discourse, nonfinite clauses are not inflected.

70. Anyone who doubts that change is in order need only be reminded how elderly patients in many NHS hospitals are not being properly fed or looked after…

Nonfinite clauses, however, are typically depleted of major grammatical information (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985). In fact, it is on the basis of the depletion in nonfinite clauses that they are claimed in the literature to be used for information and grammatical integration (Hopper & Traugott, 2003; Hein & Kuteva, 2007; Wiredu, 2012). Hopper and Traugott hypothesize this in the following

…the hypothesis is that the more overt and independent devices for signaling clause linkage … are correlated with minimal semantic-pragmatic integration, and the least overt (in some languages an inflectional affix, in others like English no marking at all) are correlated with maximal semantic-pragmatic integration (Hopper & Traugott, 2003, p. 179).

This means that the finite/nonfinite continuum marks a degree of information integration. And this is what leads Downing and Lock to argue that the very notion of dependency itself “is not an absolute property, but rather a question of degree. It has been suggested that the degree of dependency between two clauses reflects the degree of integration as perceived or imagined by the speaker or writer, between events. That is, the stronger the semantic or pragmatic connectivity perceived between two events, the stronger will be the syntactic connectivity between the two clauses that encode the events” (Downing & Lock, 2006, p. 275).
This notion of integration associated with finite and nonfinite clauses may be delineated in sentences (70) and (71). That is, the finite relative clause in sentence (70)

…who doubts that change is in order

is understood as not as integrated as the nonfinite prepositional complement

…selecting candidates for a general election

because whereas the finite relative clause is marked by an “overt device for signaling clause linkage” through the use of the relativizer “who”, the nonfinite prepositional complement lacks an independent marker. As a result, though it can easily be explained that the relative clause in sentence (70) shares referent with the NP it qualifies, it is not easy to determine the shared grammatical features between the nonfinite prepositional complement and the preposition it complements. Thus, more grammatical repair will need to be done in order to restore the prepositional complement underlined in sentence (71) into a complete sentence.

71. The internal party democratic process in selecting candidates for a general election …reinforces the overall democratic environment. <clause text="DG03" snumber="04" cnumber="05" function="prepositional complement" structure="present participial"> <rank>

In spite of their differences in marking degrees of information integration, we observe that both finite and nonfinite clauses are marked functionally by a common denominator in the editorials. We notice that finite and nonfinite clauses are used predominantly in rank shifted positions in phrase structures rather than in hypotactic clause element positions throughout the four newspapers. Rank shifting (i.e.
embedding), according to Downing and Lock (2006, p. 275) marks “the tightest integration”. We therefore argue, based on this information, that information integration is essential to the newspaper editorial variety and that both finite and nonfinite clauses work together to achieve this function. Thus, as argued by Wiredu (2012), through rank shifting finite and nonfinite clauses are employed collectively as a linguistic strategy for packaging detailed information essential for persuading readers of the newspaper editorials investigated.

6.4 Summary

We have argued in this chapter that our editorial corpus supports the claim that linguistic features are typically functionally distributed in a particular register. Our argument has been based on the findings that the primary clause patterns and even some of their subtypes are similarly distributed across editorials from the four newspapers investigated in this work. We established that nominal and relative clause types are the dominant types because they facilitate the packaging of complex information necessary for persuading readers. It is towards this same goal that finite and nonfinite clauses are predominantly rank shifted as qualifiers and complements within phrases. Information enhancement, we noted, are predominantly achieved through time adverbial clause and conditional adverbial patterns because it is they which are similarly distributed across the four newspapers.

Finally, this chapter compared patterns of distribution of clause types based on which a schematic pattern was developed. It emerged that there are more similar patterns of distribution than there are differences. These similarities and differences were described as distribution patterns that exhibited total convergence (e.g. nominal,
relative, adverbial clause and nominal clause subtypes), those which exhibited partial convergence (e.g. purpose adverbial, and manner adverbial) and those which exhibited zero convergence (the relative clause subtypes). The overwhelming similarities in the distributional patterns have been used to argue in support of the register theory that linguistic features are functionally distributed in a given register.
CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

This chapter concludes the study by summarizing the findings of the study in response to the research questions raised. It also provides the implications of this study for the register theory and for related research areas, as well as offers recommendations for future research.

7.2 Summary of Study

This work has investigated the use of sentence patterns and their internal clause constituents in newspaper editorial language. The quest was to examine whether the distribution of sentence and clause patterns were in newspapers editorials were based on some systematic functional principles as has been claimed by register theory. Chapter One laid the foundation to this study. It provided background to this work, established the problem of the study, and outlined the research questions and the rationale for the study. Chapter Two reviewed the relevant literature on the use of sentence and clause patterns in texts as well as concepts and classificatory models for describing these grammatical structures.

Chapter Three reviewed theories that are relevant to the study. This involved reviewing the literature on theories that relate language with function and context of language use. Basic concepts of SFL including function and linguistic choices were reviewed together with Austin’s Speech Acts theory. Three concepts on context – situational context, cultural context and co-text – were examined in terms of their bearing on this study. Of the three, the situational context was argued to be of a direct
bearing on register analysis. One other important theory that was re-examined is register. Two perspectives to register theory – Biber and Conrad’s model and Hallidayan model – were explored and found complementary.

Chapter Four outlined methods for corpus compilation and for data analysis. This work is corpus-based. Editorial texts used for the study were drawn from English newspapers produced in native and nonnative sociocultural contexts. The aim was to verify the strength of the register theory across variable social contexts by comparing the distribution of the two grammatical structures investigated in this work across Ghanaian and British newspaper editorials. Chapter Three argued that a combination of quantitative content analytical methodology and qualitative analysis are most suitable for the study.

Chapters Five and Six reported on distributional behavior of sentence and clause patterns in the editorial corpus as well as discussed the implications of usage patterns from functional perspectives. A summary of findings presented in Chapters Five and Six, which responded to the research questions raised in Chapter One are outlined below.

**7.3 Summary of Findings**

This study sought to answer 5 research questions. These questions have been restated and answered based on the findings and discussions in Chapters Five and Six.
7.3.1 Question 1:
How are sentences distributed across the British and Ghanaian newspaper editorials?

It was discovered that there is high level of similarities in the distribution of both functional and structural types of sentence across the four newspapers from the two sociocultural contexts. For instance, it emerged that complex declarative sentences were the dominant types of sentence patterns throughout the editorial corpus. The regularity in the distribution of sentences across the newspaper types was confirmed by statistical tests for both functional sentence types ($\chi^2 = 4.1$, $p$-value $= 0.9$) and structural sentence types ($\chi^2 = 9.4$, $p$-value $= 0.3$). These patterns of distribution support the claim in register theory that linguistic features are similarly distributed across dialects of a particular language (Biber & Conrad, 2009).

7.3.2 Question 2:
How are clause types distributed across the British and Ghanaian newspaper editorials investigated?

The clauses were also investigated along the functional and structural paradigm (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985). The corpus revealed that the nominal clause was the dominant functional clause followed by the relative clause and the adverbial clause throughout the four newspapers. The statistical test run on the usage frequency of the functional clause types ($\chi^2 = 0.4$, $p$-value $= 0.9$) indicates that distribution of these clause patterns is independent of newspaper type. This also confirmed the claim that clause patterns are similarly distributed across the two sociocultural contexts.
It was again observed that subtypes of nominal and adverbial clauses were similarly distributed across the four newspapers across the Ghanaian and British contexts. These consistencies in patterns of distribution were confirmed by the following Chi-square measurements:

- Nominal clause subtypes: $\chi^2 = 7.4, p\text{-value} = 0.2$
- Adverbial clause subtypes: $\chi^2 = 18.3, p\text{-value} = 0.6$

Usage of relative clause subtypes, however, was observed to be different across the four newspapers. The inconsistencies were confirmed by the statistical measurement ($\chi^2 = 32.5, p\text{-value} > 0.01$), which indicates that distribution of relative clause types are newspaper-based. This was interpreted as stylistic adjustment in the use of the relative clause subtypes.

Concerning the structural clause types, it was observed that though there were variations in the distribution of some of the types, there were patterns of uniformity which seemed to make up for the minor observed distributional variation. That is, the subordinating clause types were dominant across the four newspapers followed by the infinitival types across three newspapers. Though the patterns of distribution of the others were quite inconsistent across the four newspapers, the frequency differentials across clause types were not much. As a result, the statistical measurement $\chi^2 = 16.4, p\text{-value} = 0.3$ indicates that usage of the structural clause types was independent of the newspaper type since the variation observed were not statistically relevant.
7.3.3. Question 3:
What are the co-textual dynamics of the most predominant clause types?

Interesting contextual patterns were observed about the dominant nominal clause types. In the first place, the nominal clause types attested in the corpus were mostly those which functioned as complements of nouns, verbs and adjectives. There were, however, other minor types which performed the functions of subject or subject complements. Generally, the nominal clauses attested in the corpus were predominantly made up of That-complement clauses followed by infinitival clauses. Wh- nominal clause types were very rare.

It was also found that That-nominal complements were preferable after cognitive, verbal, and general communication verbs. It was, however, found that whereas the British editorials tended to use That-complements after a wide range of these types of transitive verbs the Ghanaian editorialists limited complementation after supplicatory epistemic verbs, a phenomenon which was interpreted to be an influence of tenor on the use of language in different sociocultural contexts. Finally, it was observed that the attested nominal clause types (both finite and nonfinite types) were used predominantly in complement positions more than in hypotactic contexts (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004).

7.3.4 Question 4:
What are the functional motivations behind the distribution of sentences in the editorials?
The dominance of the complex declarative sentence types was found to be functional in the editorial corpus. This conclusion was based on the fact that apart from their dominance across the four newspapers, their distribution is consistent across the two sociocultural contexts. This is in line with the register theory that the prevalent linguistic features are typically functional (Biber & Conrad, 2009) in the first place. Besides, they are consistently distributed across dialects of the same language.

Moreover, it was discovered that declarative and complex sentences are normally suitable for the situational context of newspaper editorials. That is, the complex sentence is ideal for packaging complex information in a hierarchical manner (Wiredu, 2012) such that all information necessary for achieving the persuasive function of the editorial register may be conveyed. Besides, the choice of the complex sentence type is suitable to both production and comprehension circumstances. That is the writer has adequate time to create complex structures aware that his/her readers have time to think through what they read.

7.3.5 Question 5:
What are the functional motivations behind the distribution of clause patterns in the editorials?

The findings on the distribution of clause types showed that the majority of the clauses attested were rank shifted. This was seen not only in the consistent preference for nominal and relative clauses but also in the predominant use of both finite and nonfinite clauses in rank shifted positions rather than in hypotactic (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004) clause element positions across the four newspapers. These patterns of distribution have been argued to be functional since they all pointed in one
direction. They all work together to achieve elaboration and enhancement, functions in line with the communicative purpose of newspaper editorials. This was argued to have been what motivated the dominance of nominal and relative clause types.

7.4 Implications of the Study

The findings of this study have implications for Ghanaian linguistics, register theory, media studies, rhetoric and composition writing, teaching of grammar in the ESL classroom as well as practical implications for language planners.

7.4.1 Implications for Ghanaian English Linguistics

The methodological direction of this work is perhaps the first endeavor in the application of corpus linguistics in Ghanaian linguistics apart from Huber whose research into Ghanaian (Huber, 2012; Huber, 2014) English is corpus-based. The success of this work is an invitation to Ghanaian linguists to adopt corpus methodology.

Again the theoretical focus of the study also makes an innovative addition to Ghanaian linguistics. The observation that the distribution of grammatical features in an aspect of Ghanaian English is functional does not only encourage a replication of the models adopted in this work in other sub-varieties of Ghanaian English; it also shows that the approaches in research into Ghanaian English as a dialect can be diversified to include register and genre approaches. But register and genre approaches to Ghanaian English as well as to Ghanaian local languages will be possible only when corpora are compiled on Ghanaian languages. So far there is only
one corpus on Ghanaian English (International Corpus of English, ICE) which is undergoing compilation.

7.4.2 Implications for Register Theory
The findings of this study have confirmed at least two of the central assumptions of the register theory. It has affirmed that indeed the use of linguistic features in a particular register is functionally motivated. It has also confirmed that since usage patterns are functionally motivated, they are similarly distributed across dialects of a particular language. These findings enhance the register theory in terms of its universality. Similarly, the clarification on the distinction among the three concepts: register, genre and style and the consistent focus on register approach is exemplary for future research.

7.4.3 Implications for Media Studies and Composition Writing
This study has impact on the interface between media studies and linguistics which Dobrosklonskaya (2013) refers to as media linguistics. This work offers insights into theories and methodologies for research in this emerging academic discipline. It paves the way for the use of corpus methodology and register theory in many areas of media linguistics.

Additionally, the data of this work has confirmed the argument in the literature that there are systematic patterns of distribution of linguistic features within registers. This has pedagogical implications on composition as well as expository writing courses. That is, it may be more rewarding to approach these courses from both register and genre perspectives.
7.4.4 Implication for teaching grammar in ESL classroom

The investigation of these two basic grammatical structures in an empirical data has at least two implications. The pedagogical implication is that grammar courses can be enlivened by introducing students to actual texts rather than to artificially generated sentences typical of traditional grammar class. The interest that such an approach can generate in the study of grammar may change the attitude of English as a Second Language (ESL) students to grammar. Besides, the claim consistently argued in this work that grammatical features are functionally situated in register offers a justification for students to consider the grammatical categories not as some abstract theories.

7.5 Limitations

Generating a corpus from scratch is both tedious and time consuming. As a result, the corpus compiled for this study is relatively small. One wonders what the results would be if the same principles adopted in this work were applied on a larger corpus.

Similarly the comparative focus of the work was narrowed to ensure that a detailed analysis could be undertaken. What would have been the outcome if:

- the newspapers were expanded to include private newspapers?
- the corpus was drawn from different register areas, say across newspaper editorials, academic journal editorials, press release, preface of textbooks, parliamentary discourse, sermons, etc. limiting the scope to texts produced in Ghana?
- an alternative approach, say genre theory, had been applied to the same corpus?
Of a theoretical limitation is the approach in register analysis to disregard the context of culture. As may be observed throughout this study, reference has been made to the cultural context in so many instances. This means that a cross-cultural register investigation of the nature undertaken in this study requires the cultural context as an integral theoretical framework for explanation and analysis.

Again, the grammatical categories for this study were limited to the sentence and the clause; we wonder what the situation would be among phrases across a similar corpus. Additionally, new approaches to clause categorization were adopted, particularly regarding the relative clause. We wonder what the observation would have been if the traditional classification among restrictive, nonrestrictive and sentential types were maintained.

7.6 Recommendations for future research

The work inspires a number of recommendations. A few are listed below.

1) Some patterns of variation were detected in paragraph styles across the Ghanaian and British editorials. For instance, it emerged that the Ghanaian editorials were predominantly made up of single complex sentences. This is a research prospect which falls within genre linguistics.

2) Similarly, contrary to the argument that register analysis relates solely to the situational context to the exclusion of the cultural context (Biber & Conrad, 2009) seems problematic especially in cross-cultural studies. Throughout this study, constant reference to the cultural context has been made which shows the indispensability of the cultural context in cross-cultural register
investigations. Future cross-cultural register investigations will need to explicitly involve the cultural context among the relevant theories.

3) A pattern was emerging in the types of verbs preferred for That-clause complementation. This is an area that may be considered for future research.

4) It has been noted that there is a dearth of corpus on Ghanaian languages. One area which may be considered for future research project is corpus compilation of texts on various genres produced in Ghana across English and local languages. The effect such a project will have on research output in Ghanaian linguistics will be tremendous.

5) Finally, this work was made difficult because of the unavailability of soft versions of the Ghanaian newspapers. Many Universities have access to the various sub-areas of LexisNexis. It is recommended that Ghanaian universities extend their access to this online resource into their newspaper archives to enable more comparative research across within media linguistics.
The Daily Telegraph

Date/Title/No of Words/Edition/Issue No

1. 16/1/2012: Osborne bears good tidings to the East/443/Edition 1/National Edition

2. 28/1/ 2012: Rich or poor, we are all paying too much tax/697/Edition 1/National Edition

3. 31/1/ 2012: A shabby episode that Cameron may regret/434/Edition 1/National Edition

4. 6/2/2012: These Tory MPs are in tune with the country/441/Edition 1/National Edition

5. 11/2/2012: This is not the time for surrender on the NHS/686/Edition 1/National Edition


10. 2/4/2012: Voters have no time for political manoeuvring/442/Edition 1/National Edition


12. 21/4/2012: Britain’s cities should say yes to mayors/714/Edition/National Edition


14. 5/5/2012: There is still a route to a Conservative majority/719/Edition 1/National Edition

15. 9/5/2012: Stability has been the Coalition’s key success/434/Edition 1/National Edition


17. 8/6/2012: The comfortable course is no longer an option/440/Edition 1/National Edition

18. 20/6/2012: Regional pay plan scuppered by politics/421/Edition 1/National Edition


22. 1/8/2012: Open government is here to stay, like it or not/308/Edition 1/National Edition

23. 7/8/2012: Clegg shows his true colours on equal votes/448/Edition 1/National Edition


26. 7/9/2012: More can still be done to get Britain growing/441/Edition 1/National Edition

27. 14/9/2012: This defence deal is fraught with danger/434/Edition 1/National Edition


30. 8/10/2012: Sniping at the rich is futile and damaging/441/Edition 1/National Edition

32. 17/11/2012: Until voters feel involved, localism is a lost cause/710/Edition
                  1/National Edition

33. 19/11/2012: Vince’s mansion tax rises from the dead/443/ Edition 1/National
                  Edition

34. 3/12/2012: Osborne is still spending more than we can afford/438/ Edition
                  1/National Edition

35. 8/12/2012: A lot of froth over Starbucks and tax/711/ Edition 1/National Edition

36. 11/12/2012: Leaders’ debates are good for democracy/456/ Edition 1/National
                  Edition

The Times


2. 10/1/2012: Devolutionary Road/620/ Edition 2/National Edition


18. 8/6/2012: In, Out, Shake It All About/562/ Edition 2/National Edition


34. 1/12/2012: Aid and Abetting/614/ Edition 2/National Edition


**Daily Graphic**

1. 11/1/2012: Everybody’s Peace/601/18738

2. 12/1/2012: Preparing for Election 2012/581/18739

3. 24/1/2012: Strengthening internal Democracy/476/18749

4. 2/2/2012: Good Move but…/566/18756

5. 4/2/2012: PNC at the Crossroad/419/18758
6. 16/2/2012: Polarization Destroys Ghana/593/18768

7. 5/3/2012: Bright prospects await Ghana/517/18783

8. 19/3/2012: Guaranteeing continuity in change/532/18795

9. 27/3/2012: Working towards peaceful polls/502/18802

10. 2/4/2012: More Room for Improvement/647/18807

11. 10/4/2012: Sanity must Prevail/568/18812

12. 12/4/2012: Resolving Electoral Blues/496/18814

13. 7/5/2012: Well done, EC, but…/564/18834

14. 12/5/2012: Strengthening Ghana’s democratic system/569/18839

15. 14/5/2012: Another feather in Ghana’s democratic cap/479/18840

16. 7/6/2012: Towards peaceful transition/560/18861

17. 18/6/2012: EC, fix this anomaly/502/18870

18. 20/6/2012: Media shouldn’t declare election results/536/18872

19. 4/7/2012: Let’s die for Ghana, not for…/505/18884

20. 16/7/2012: A shot in the foot/577/18894

21. 25/7/2012: Ghana in tears/511/18902

22. 1/8/2012: Time to bond/566/18908

23. 7/8/2012: We are of age/528/18913
24. 14/8/2012: Towards credible polls/504/18919

25. 4/9/2012: Patronise voters register exhibition/481/18937

26. 13/9/2012: Peace before anything else/677/18945

27. 18/9/2012: Make room for jaw-jaw, not…/612/18949

28. 3/10/2012: Put Ghana first/527/18962

29. 5/10/2012: Upholding campaign promises/739/18964

30. 10/10/2012: Let’s play by the rules/557/18968

31. 1/11/2012: Deepening Ghana’s democracy/553/18987

32. 8/11/2012: Let’s learn from the US elections/497/18993

33. 10/11/2012: Let’s support the NCCE/514/18995

34. 1/12/2012: Let’s lead by example/511/19013

35. 3/12/2012: Resolving electoral disputes/522/19014

36. 4/12/2012: Politicians should stop funding macho men/577/19015

The Ghanaian Times

1. 4/1/2012: Protecting our infant democracy/414/No16532/ISSN:0855-1502

2. 20/1/2012: The President’s portraits and matters arising/354/No.1654/ISSN:0855-1502
3. 24/1/2012: Lessons from the primaries/309/ No.1649/ ISSN:0855-1502
4. 2/2/2012: Enough of the vain promises!/361/ No.16556/ ISSN:0855-1502
5. 18/2/2012: Time for mature politics!/377/ No.16570/ ISSN:0855-1502
6. 20/2/2012: Respect the president!/350/ NO. 16,571   ISSN: 0855-1502
7. 19/3/2012: Ensuring a credible voters register/450/ NO. 16,593   ISSN: 0855-1502
8. 28/3/2012: Getting all voters to register (1)/417/ NO. 16,601   ISSN: 0855-1502
9. 29/3/2012: Getting all voters registered (2)/444/ NO. 16,602   ISSN: 0855-1502
10. 17/4/2012: Making district assemblies efficient/393/NO. 16,615 ISSN: 0855-1502
11. 18/4/2012: A good decision, Mr Minister!/339/ NO. 16,616   ISSN: 0855-1502
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**APPENDIX 1: AN EXCERPT FROM THE TAGGED NEWSPAPER EDITORIAL CORPUS**

<corpus>

<TT01>

<sentence text="TT01" snumber="01" function="declarative" structure="complex">The Prime Minister's biggest challenge <clause text="TT01" snumber="01" cnumber="01" function="time adverbial" structure="subordinating">as he returns to work</clause> after his Christmas break is growth.</sentence> <sentence text="TT01" snumber="02" function="declarative" structure="simple">The coalition has struggled to articulate a convincing growth strategy beyond its vital commitment to deficit reduction.</sentence> <sentence text="TT01" snumber="03" function="declarative" structure="complex">Such a strategy is more pressing than ever, given the headwinds <clause text="TT01" snumber="03" cnumber="02" function="whiz-Relative" structure="present participial"><rank>facing the economy</rank></clause>, particularly the slowdown in overseas markets and the debt crisis in the eurozone.</sentence>

<sentence text="TT01" snumber="04" function="declarative" structure="complex">This newspaper has argued <clause text="TT01" snumber="04" cnumber="03" function="verbal complement" structure="subordinating"><rank>that the strategy must be more ambitious for Britain and should include an unashamed commitment to an activist industrial policy</rank></clause>. In an important speech yesterday, David Willetts, the Universities Minister, sought to address both these criticisms.</sentence>

<sentence text="TT01" snumber="06" function="declarative" structure="complex">The expensive mistakes <clause text="TT01" snumber="06" cnumber="04" function="that-Relative" structure="subordinating"><rank>that governments in the 1970s made</rank></clause> while attempting to pick corporate winners have led to a widespread wariness about industrial policy.</sentence> <sentence text="TT01" snumber="07" function="declarative" structure="complex">Recent governments have therefore preferred generic growth policies rather than ones <clause text="TT01" snumber="07" cnumber="06" function="whiz-Relative" structure="perfect participial"><rank>focused on particularly sectors or technologies</rank></clause>, let alone individual companies.</sentence>
But, as Mr Willetts points out, governments inevitably find themselves taking views on sectors and technologies.

Previous governments have all had unspoken sectoral policies, in particular the promotion of the City.

In a telling example, Mr Willetts recalls that the original impetus for the extension of the Jubilee Line in London was the need to provide Tube access to Canary Wharf.

Had it been a link to a manufacturing centre, not office blocks for financial services, he suggests that it might have been seen as a much more controversial example of industrial policy.

Investment in science and technology is a key plank of the coalition's plan to rebalance the economy.

It rightly ring-fenced the £4.6 billion science and research budget from further cuts.

But resources are clearly limited.

So when it comes to technologies, rather than basic science, Mr Willetts argues that those resources must be focused on a few technologies that are deemed to have particular potential for the UK.

This picking of winners is the job not of ministers but of the expert Technology Strategy Board, which Mr Willetts announced yesterday would be setting up a new innovation centre in the area of satellite applications.

It is hard
He set out goals for Britain to be "the best place in the world to do science" and to increase the number of UK universities in the world top 100.

The quality of our universities is one of Britain's great strengths and we already have 12 in the top 100, according to the Times Higher Education ranking.

Raising that number will be very tough given the huge amount of investment that other countries are putting into universities in general, and science in particular, especially in Asia.

But Mr Willetts believes that it is possible if British universities address two areas of relative weakness in teaching and external sources of income.

Making Britain the best place in the world to do science is also a formidable challenge and will require the Government to tackle sensitive issues such as the way that its curbs on immigration threaten the free movement of scientists.

But Mr Willetts is right to aim high and to challenge the idea that Britain's future is one of managed decline. The coalition needs to show similar boldness and ambition in other areas of its growth strategy.