

UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON



**CLAUSE COMPLEXING IN GHANAIAN NEWSPAPER LANGUAGE: A CASE  
STUDY OF *DAILY GRAPHIC* EDITORIALS IN GHANA**

BY

**KWASI OPOKU**

**10636620**

**SAMUEL  
ADJORNOR**

**THIS THESIS IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON IN  
PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF A PHD  
IN ENGLISH DEGREE**

**OCTOBER, 2022**

**DECLARATION**

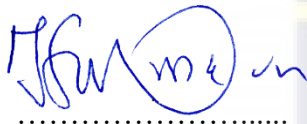
I, hereby, do declare that apart from references to works duly cited, this work is the result of an original research I conducted, and that it has not been presented in whole or in part to any other university.

DATE 22/07/2024



KWASI OPOKU  
(CANDIDATE)

**SUPERVISORS**



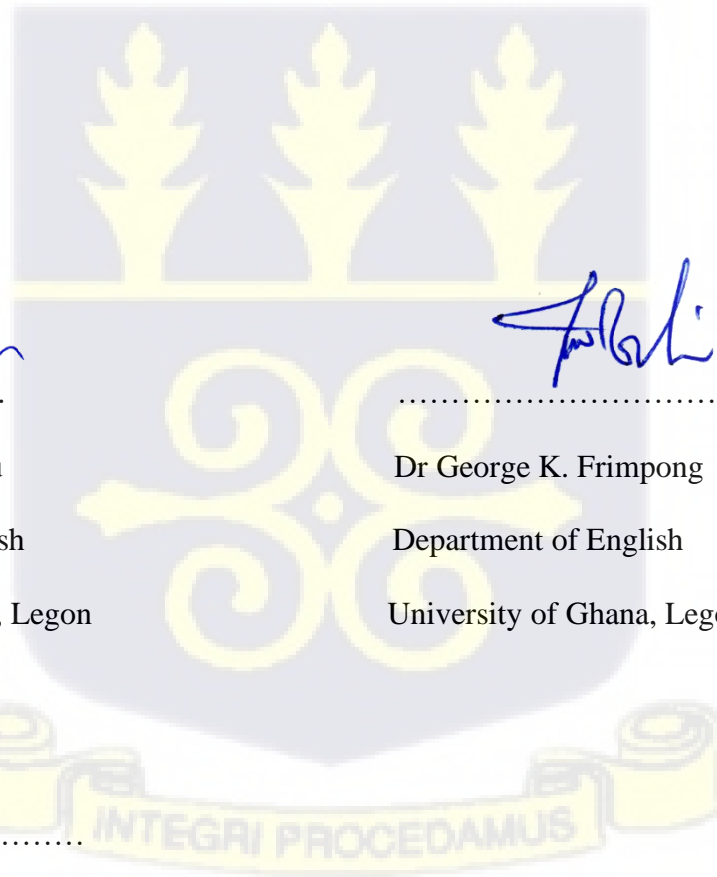
Prof. John F. Wiredu  
Department of English  
University of Ghana, Legon



Dr George K. Frimpong  
Department of English  
University of Ghana, Legon



Dr K. Osei-Tutu  
Department of English  
University of Ghana, Legon



**DEDICATION**

I dedicate this work to my wife, Victoria Gyameah, who has supported this success.



## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am indebted to God for His magnificent, limitless, marvellous, infinite and matchless grace, which has enabled me to accomplish this PhD journey successfully. God himself has been with me, supported me and made this journey fruitful. Gladly, I give Him praise, glory and honour. There are a lot of support which I gained from diverse individuals, groups and institutions. I am glad to acknowledge and mention their names because they deserve to be mentioned. First, I thank my supervisors, Prof. John F. Wiredu, Dr George K. Frimpong, and Dr K. Osei-Tutu for their irreplaceable support, guidance and encouragement. Owing to their openness, affability, direction, commitment and inspiration, I was able to confer with them as frequently as was required. I also thank Prof. Jemima Asabea Anderson, for her keen attention and monitoring towards the completion of this work. I am equally indebted to Andrew W. Mellon Foundation for a no-cost extension to utilize unexpended funds remaining on its project- G-31700720 – titled Enhancing Capacity and Postgraduate Education at the University of Ghana (ENCAPEH) to support thesis completion of doctoral students. In addition, I am very grateful to the Techiman Municipal Assembly and Scholarship Secretariat, Ghana, for partially providing funding support. I also thank Mr Tony Mboye, who took me through the various statistical information in the data analysis. I thank undergraduate students of English from Catholic University, Fiapre-Sunyani, and Valley View University, Techiman-Campus who manually counted to confirm the results given by the *Textalyser* and Microsoft Word (MS Word) count. Finally, I thank my friends, Mr Stephen Kwaku Duah, Lawrence Ewusi-Mensah and Anthony Kwarteng who did some initial editing for me. May the good God replenish you abundantly for your time and attention to make this dream come true.

Thank you!

**TABLE OF CONTENTS**

<b>DECLARATION</b> .....	<b>ii</b>
<b>DEDICATION</b> .....	<b>iii</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b> .....	<b>iv</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES</b> .....	<b>viii</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES</b> .....	<b>x</b>
<b>ABSTRACT</b> .....	<b>xii</b>
<b>CHAPTER ONE</b> .....	<b>1</b>
<b>BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY</b> .....	<b>1</b>
<b>1.0 Introduction</b> .....	<b>1</b>
<b>1.1 The Print Media in Ghana</b> .....	<b>1</b>
<b>1.1.2 Complexity in texts</b> .....	<b>10</b>
<b>1.2 Statement of the Problem</b> .....	<b>22</b>
<b>1.3 The overall aim</b> .....	<b>28</b>
<b>1.4 Research Questions</b> .....	<b>29</b>
<b>1.5 Significance of the Study</b> .....	<b>29</b>
<b>1.6 Limitation of the study</b> .....	<b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b>
<b>The delimitation of the study</b> .....	<b>32</b>
<b>1.8 Organization of the study</b> .....	<b>32</b>
<b>CHPATER TWO</b> .....	<b>36</b>
<b>LANGUAGE CHANGE</b> .....	<b>36</b>
<b>2.0 Introduction</b> .....	<b>36</b>
<b>2.1 Language change as an expansion of human interaction process</b> .....	<b>36</b>
<b>2.2 Some definitions of language change</b> .....	<b>45</b>
<b>2.3 Language change: internal and external factors</b> .....	<b>50</b>
<b>2.3.1 Internal factors of language change</b> .....	<b>50</b>
<b>2.3.2 External factors of language change</b> .....	<b>53</b>
<b>2.4 Grammatical change</b> .....	<b>58</b>
<b>2.5 Language change and writing skills of newspaper editorial writers</b> .....	<b>64</b>
<b>CHAPTER THREE</b> .....	<b>69</b>
<b>THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK</b> .....	<b>69</b>
<b>LANGUAGE, GRAMMAR, SYSTEMATIC AND FUNCTION</b> .....	<b>69</b>
<b>3.0 Introduction</b> .....	<b>69</b>
<b>3.1 Theories of grammar</b> .....	<b>69</b>
<b>3.2 Theoretical Framework: Systemic Functional Grammar</b> .....	<b>71</b>

3.3 The three metafunctions .....	74
3.4 The logical metafunction .....	79
3.5 The clause paradigm as a bigger unit in systemic functional grammar .....	80
3.5 Relating Systemic Functional Grammar and Traditional Grammar theory .....	84
3.7 Chapter summary .....	86
<b>CHAPTER FOUR.....</b>	<b>88</b>
<b>RESEARCH METHODS .....</b>	<b>88</b>
4.0 Introduction .....	88
4.1 Research Design .....	88
4.2 The Choice of <i>Daily Graphic</i> .....	89
4.3 The Choice of Editorial Register .....	Error! Bookmark not defined.
4.4. Sampling Technique and Sample Size .....	91
4.5 Data building and processing .....	91
4.6 Coding of data.....	94
4.7 Measurement of statistical tests.....	95
4.8 Data Analysis Procedure .....	95
4.9 Validity.....	97
4.10 Summary of chapter .....	97
<b>CHAPTER FIVE.....</b>	<b>99</b>
<b>CLAUSE INTERDEPENDENCY IN THE EDITORIALS.....</b>	<b>99</b>
5.0 Introduction .....	99
5.1 Clause distributions and taxis relations in the editorials .....	99
5.1.1 Clause simplex and clause complex.....	100
5.2 The clause complex .....	107
5.2.1 The Taxis Relations: Paratactic and Hypotactic .....	108
5.2. 3: The patterns of hypotactic structures in the Editorials.....	113
5. 3 Number of dependent relations in a hypotactic clause complex .....	122
5.4 Types of hypotactic signals .....	128
5.5 Types of dependent clauses which are released by hypotactic clause complex ...	131
5.6 Summary of chapter .....	136
<b>CHAPTER SIX .....</b>	<b>138</b>
<b>LOGICO-SEMANTIC DISTRIBUTION OF CLAUSES .....</b>	<b>138</b>
6.0 Introduction .....	138
6.1 The Logic-semantic relations.....	138
6.2 The types of Expansion in the editorials .....	145

6.3 The patterns of enhancement in the editorials.....	156
6.4 The patterns of elaboration in the editorials.....	181
6.4.1 Types of elaboration.....	182
6.5 Patterns of Extension.....	197
6.5.1 Types of extension.....	198
6.6 Summary of chapter .....	210
CHAPTER SEVEN .....	212
CONCLUSION .....	212
References.....	Error! Bookmark not defined.
APPENDIX 1: EXTRACTS FROM THE NEWSPAPER EDITORIALS.....	251



**LIST OF TABLES**

<b>Table 4.1: Trio-logy</b>	<b>84</b>
<b>Table 4.2: List of Linguistic Elements</b>	<b>87</b>
<b>Table 5.1: The distribution of clause simplex and clause complex in the editorials year by year</b>	<b>94</b>
<b>Table 5.2: Clause simplex and Clause complex</b>	<b>97</b>
<b>Table 5.3 Taxis relations in the data year by year</b>	<b>101</b>
<b>Table 5.4 Paratactic and Hypotactic</b>	<b>103</b>
<b>Table 5.5 The different types of hypotactic clauses which are dominant year by year</b>	<b>106</b>
<b>Table 5.6: Average for independent and dependent clause complex relations</b>	<b>113</b>
<b>Table 5.7 The number of clauses per clause complex</b>	<b>116</b>
<b>Table 5.8: Average for dependent clauses in clause complex relations</b>	<b>119</b>
<b>Table 5.9: Types of subordinators</b>	<b>120</b>
<b>Table 5.10 Types of subordinators which are used to achieve hypotactic relations</b>	<b>120</b>
<b>Table 5.11: Average for subordinators</b>	<b>123</b>
<b>Table 5.12: Types of dependent clauses</b>	<b>124</b>
<b>Table 5.13: Average for the dependent clause of hypotactic clauses</b>	<b>128</b>
<b>Table 6.1 Logico-semantic relationships in the editorials</b>	<b>131</b>
<b>Table 6.2: Average for logico-semantic relations</b>	<b>136</b>
<b>Table 6.3 Types of expansion</b>	<b>137</b>
<b>Table 6.4 Average for types of expansion</b>	<b>147</b>
<b>Table 6.5: Patterns of enhancement</b>	<b>150</b>
<b>Table 6.6: Average for Subtypes of Enhancement</b>	<b>171</b>

<b>Table 6:7 Patterns of elaboration year by year</b>	<b>174</b>
<b>Table 6.8: Average for subtypes of Elaboration</b>	<b>188</b>
<b>Table 6.9: Patterns of extension year by year</b>	<b>191</b>
<b>Table 6.10: Average for patterns of Extension</b>	<b>202</b>
<b>Table 7.1: Average for clause simplexes and clause complexes</b>	<b>205</b>
<b>Table 7.2: Average for paratactic and hypotactic</b>	<b>206</b>
<b>Table 7.3: Average for Hypotactic relations</b>	<b>207</b>
<b>Table 7.4: Average for subordinators</b>	<b>208</b>
<b>Table 7.5: Average for dependent clause relations</b>	<b>209</b>
<b>Table 7.6: Average for projection and expansion</b>	<b>210</b>
<b>Table 7.7: Average for elaboration, extension and enhancement</b>	<b>211</b>



**LIST OF FIGURES**

<b>Fig 5.1: Clause Simplex</b>	<b>96</b>
<b>Fig. 5.2: Clause Complex</b>	<b>96</b>
<b>Fig 5.3: Paratactic clause complex</b>	<b>103</b>
<b>Fig. 5.4: Hypotactic clause complex</b>	<b>103</b>
<b>Fig. 5.5: Distribution of hypotactic relations</b>	<b>108</b>
<b>Fig. 5.6: One independent clause and one or more dependent relations</b>	<b>110</b>
<b>Fig. 5.7: Two independent and one or more dependent relations</b>	<b>112</b>
<b>Fig. 5.8: Number of dependent clauses per clause complex</b>	<b>118</b>
<b>Fig. 5.9 Types of subordinators</b>	<b>122</b>
<b>Fig. 5.10: Distribution of dependent clause types</b>	<b>126</b>
<b>Fig. 5.11: Nominal, Adverbial, Relative, Infinitival and Participial Clauses</b>	<b>127</b>
<b>Figure 6.1 logico-semantic types</b>	<b>131</b>
<b>Figure 6.2 projection and expansion</b>	<b>134</b>
<b>Figure 6.3 types of expansion</b>	<b>139</b>
<b>Fig. 6.4: Enhancement</b>	<b>140</b>
<b>Fig. 6.5: Elaboration</b>	<b>142</b>
<b>Fig. 6.6: Extension</b>	<b>144</b>
<b>Fig. 6.7: Manner subtype for enhancement</b>	<b>152</b>
<b>Fig. 6.8: Conditional subtypes of enhancement</b>	<b>155</b>
<b>Fig. 6.9: Temporal subtype of enhancement</b>	<b>158</b>
<b>Fig 6.10: Concessive subtype of enhancement</b>	<b>161</b>
<b>Fig. 6.11: Causal subtype of enhancement</b>	<b>165</b>
<b>Fig. 6.12: Spatial subtype of enhancement</b>	<b>168</b>
<b>Fig. 6.13: Clarification</b>	<b>117</b>

<b>Fig. 6.14: Exposition</b>	<b>182</b>
<b>Fig. 6.15: Exemplification</b>	<b>186</b>
<b>Fig. 6.16: Additions</b>	<b>193</b>
<b>Fig. 6.17: Alternation</b>	<b>196</b>
<b>Fig. 6.18: Variations</b>	<b>199</b>



## ABSTRACT

This work is a diachronic study which examines the variations in newspaper editorials in Ghana as far as choices in clause complexing are concerned. Using the logical function of systemic functional grammar (SFG), the study investigates how clause combinations have been strategically achieved in the newspaper editorials and the variations that have occurred during the period of the study. Therefore, the overall aim of the study was to examine how language change has occurred in newspaper editorials from the *Daily Graphic* since Ghana's independence (from 1957 – 2018). The study used a quantitative approach to account for the variations that have occurred over the stipulated period. The findings indicate that the language of the editorials has consistently remained complex in the sense that the hypotactic clause complex was overwhelmingly used across the years. Besides, the findings of the logico-semantic relations also revealed that expansion was overwhelmingly used. The subtypes of expansion indicated that enhancement was the highest, followed by elaboration and extension. Even though there is consistent complexity, there are variations in the internal distribution of hypotactic and logico-semantic clause complex types across the years. It was noted that the pattern of distribution of these clause complex types kept on rising and falling across the years. Therefore, it is difficult to point out that the language has changed or not changed because of the nature of the patterns of distributions. It appears there is no specific pattern of variation in the clauses that were identified in the editorials. This study has given a bigger experience on grammar in discourse and clause complexing occurring diachronically; and the relationship between choices in clause complexing in the editorial genre. It is recommended that a comparative study be done on both public and private newspaper editorials to see the variations in transitivity, nominal group, adverbial group, vocabulary, or sentence patterns.

## CHAPTER ONE

### BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

#### 1.0 Introduction

This study is a grammar in discourse. It looked at the changes in clause complexity. It investigated language change in newspaper editorials in Ghana over 62 years. The study was interested in the changes that have occurred in the English language used in Ghana but it used editorials of the *Daily Graphic* newspaper as sample data. The study could have, as well, selected a language of legislation, religion, or the language of the classroom, and examined the changes that had happened over the years. So, the study did not analyse the language of newspaper editorials because the researcher wanted to know the types of clauses that are used in the newspaper editorials. Therefore, the interest of the study was not in the language of editorials per se, but to find out whether, truly, there had been a change in the language used in the newspaper editorials. In other words, the study wanted to find out if there has been a change in the English language used in Ghana as far as the newspaper editorial language is concerned. This is actually the concern of the study.

#### 1.1 The Print Media in Ghana

The press in Ghana has been vital in presenting information on education, religion, social, economic, politics, culture, identity etc. As far as the researcher knows, from the beginning of the nineteenth century through the twentieth century, Ghana's press has provided information and advocated for independence, good governance, progress, democracy, and partisan politics in Ghana. Much of this information come in the form of printing. One of the elementary and earliest forms of mass communication is the print media. Print media generally refers to newspapers and magazines. It is important to note that the print media contributes immensely in providing and transferring information to persuade readers. It can also inform and entertain, among other possibilities. Therefore, it is possible that in the course of time, the English

language that is used in the print media would reveal changes in language use or varieties across different phases of publications. The history of the print media in Ghana can be traced from the earliest form to the present.

According to the records, the earliest printed newspapers in Ghana were called *Royal Gold Coast Gazette* and *Commercial Intelligencer*, which were started by Sir Charles McCarthy in 1822 (Hasty, 2005; Amissah, 2017; Assibey, Prempeh & Dorborson, 2021). This publication sought to deliver trade and business news to British forces on the Gold Coast (Ghana), and information regarding the British as well as the Western African colonies. The English journalistic culture which was established by the government of Sir Charles McCarthy in the Gold Coast between 1822 and 1824 created an atmosphere as a political benchmark for successive governments in Ghana's history and the growth of journalism and news presentation.

Heath (2001) opines that from 1822 until 1930, this style of news reporting increasingly became the pattern in Commonwealth countries across sub-Saharan Africa. In the course of time, subsequent British administrations published some newspapers such as the *Gold Coast Assize* in 1883, the *Gold Coast News* in 1884, and the *Gold Coast Pioneer* in 1921 prior to the independence of Ghana (Jones-Quartey 1975). The information gathered here so far indicates that the people who established these media houses were foreigners. This means that at that time the people working in this medium were British or Europeans and, therefore, the language that they were using would be probably English or some other European languages. This implies that the foreign language was dominant in print media in Ghana.

With the passage of time, the missionary societies broadened it to add a classificatory thoughtfulness to print communication. They published non-partisan periodicals in order to evangelise and disseminate the Christian belief. For example, the *Christian Messenger*, *Christian Report*, and *Gold Coast Methodist* were all published by the Methodist Mission in 1857 and 1886, respectively, and *Gold Coast Catholic* was published by the Catholic Mission in 1926. What was interesting was that during this time, the evangelists or the missionaries also facilitated the publication of newspapers such as *Akan Language* newspaper *Asenta* (News) in 1953 and *Amansan* (*People*), a Fante dialect newspaper in the local languages (Anyidoho, 2016). Moreover, in 1859, *Sika Nsona Sanegbalo* (Christian Companion for the Gold Coast) was founded by the Basel Evangelical Missionary Society. Also, in 1894, the Catholic Mission established *Mia Holo* (*Our Friend*) in order to expand information delivery in the Gold Coast (Adedeji, 2015; Amissah, 2017; Assibey, Prempeh, & Dorborson, 2021). This period also saw an expansion of the use of British variety of English in Ghana.

Again, in 1903, *Nutifafa Na Mi* (*Peace be with you*) was established by the Basel Mission in reaction to the very first newspaper published in Togo's Ewe-speaking province (Gérard, 1981). These newspapers were given names by missionaries to reflect the non-partisan sociocultural standpoint to express information and to present their teachings of the Bible. This phase also involved the foreigners who were working in Ghana and interacting with the people through media communication. Based on this, then, it is possible that the language that was used at that time was centred on the British variety because the people working there were British. It may be stated that the British variety dominated in the print media since the British were championing the political, educational and commercial activities in the Gold Coast.

Besides, from 1931 to 1945, there were many attempts to establish the link between the British variety and the local variety of the English language used in Ghana and so, a new stage of journalistic expression also evolved. It all started in 1931 with J. B. Danquah's *West African Times* and continued in 1948 with *Ghana Statesman*. According to Asante (1996), this was the age of conspicuous consumption of newspaper production in Ghana when untrained writers or journalists developed rival publications to voice their dissatisfaction of the colonial administration in the country. These independent newspaper publishers took a bold and critical approach to media reporting, questioning the governmental actions, policies, decisions and laws prior to independence. What this means is that there is a possibility that the language which was used to write newspapers in this period was not be the same language that was used to write newspapers in say, 2020. This is possible because as Asante (1996) has said, several attempts were made to establish the link between the British variety and the Local variety of English. Therefore, it is likely that looking at the language in the print media over a period of time, the language will change.

In the course of time, this linkage propelled eagerness in the readers of these English newspapers to pronounce judgment on the government. Ansu-Kyeremeh (1998) contends that some of these newspapers, including Azikiwe and I.T.A. Wallace Johnson's *African Morning Post* and John and Nancy Tsiboe's *Ashanti Pioneer* were formed in 1939 to report national concerns. This means that the people were inadvertently trained to use the British variety of English. For example, many Ghanaians were/are British trained. Even though they were Ghanaians trained in British English, their use of the language likely reflected British norms. Their education under British influence suggests they predominantly used British English for communication. Additionally, their language might have blended British English with local variations.

As time progressed, a new period of journalistic production also commenced in Ghana with Kwame Nkrumah's *Accra Evening News* and *Morning Telegraph* from 1947 through 1949. These were seen as an extension of the training given to Ghanaians in media communication. Journalists began to get training at three institutions at this time: the Ghana School of Journalism, formed in 1959; the School of Communication Studies, established in 1972; and the National Film and Television Training Institute, established in 1978. Asante (1996) and Barton (1994) have confirmed that Nkrumah supported this professional journalistic stage in order to produce major newspapers to provide information to the general public. Nkrumah's publications were professional enterprises that criticised the policy and the ideas of the government before independence. Through his newspapers, he advocated independence now from the colonial control. This period also covers the link between the use of the British variety of English and the Ghanaian variety of English. Therefore, it is possible that the language may change to reflect the changing needs of the people in the Gold Coast.

Consequently, the *Ashanti Times*, published by the Ashanti Goldfields Corporation in 1947, continued this history of independent expert newspaper production in the journalistic wave in Ghana. With the passing of time, it became clear that a group of private trained press consortium in London led by Cecil King launched the *Daily Graphic* in 1950 and the *Sunday Mirror* in 1953. The Mirror Group refers to a British newspaper publishing company known for owning and operating various tabloid newspapers, including the *Daily Mirror*. This group engaged in investigative reporting, aiming to uncover the programs and operation of the pre-independence government (Asante 1996). As Asante (1996, p.7) noted, "the establishment of the *Graphic* opened yet another significant chapter in the history of the Ghanaian press, for it used the first modern press to be set up in the country". This means that the *Graphic* introduced a new journalistic style of presenting news and events in the Gold Coast.

This indicates that a number of Ghanaians were trained in media communication to write and report news and prepare readers into action. Here, schools were even established in the Gold Coast which meant that they were now training people locally in the print media. So, there is the possibility then that now the language would be changed because these people are Ghanaians even though some of them were trained outside Ghana. Therefore, it is possible the variety of the English language used then was basically geared towards Ghanaian variety of English.

As time passed, it became evident that Nkrumah and officials from the Convention People's Party (CPP) in the First Republic of Ghana founded *Guinea Press Limited* to produce the *Ghanaian Times* in 1958 and the *Weekly Spectator* in 1963 during the post-independence era. Given that he had utilized newspapers to criticize the pre-independence government, Nkrumah purchased the Mirror Press in order to gain control of professional journalistic production in Ghana. This brought the *Daily Graphic* and the *Sunday Mirror* under CPP government's control (Ansah 1993; Nkrumah 1965). This wave gave way to the establishment of many media houses in Ghana using locally trained journalists in their writing and reporting. The implication then is that the spread of locally trained journalists would provide a cumbersome, complex and different variety of English language usage in Ghana.

Following Nkrumah's government, the second republic which was led by Kofi Abrefa Busia promoted the freedom of the press, which resulted in increase of private newspapers during his political reign from 1969 to 1972 (Asante, 1996). In the course of time, successive military governments provided some restrictions on media writing and reporting. Most media practitioners were charged with criminal libel, and the courts in Ghana endorsed this path, holding that anyone, not just public officials, can file a criminal libel case under section 112 of

the Criminal Offences Act of Ghana, 1960, (Act 29). Despite the fact that the 1992 constitution of Ghana guarantees both freedom of press and speech and the repeal of the criminal libel law, governments occasionally restrict these rights. It must be stressed that both democratic and military governments could affect the way writers or journalists presented and packaged their information. This means that it is possible then that the language would change to reflect the political situation and news presentation in Ghana even though Ghanaians were trained locally to report news or events in the country. Here, it is possible that different variety of English was keenly used in the print media. Therefore, one would assume that the English language use can either change to be simple or complex in a newspaper genre because writers can be restricted or given freedom to write.

Since 1822, there have been many attempts by the newspapers to use different approaches to circulate information. These newspapers provided columns through which information is disseminated or circulated to the general public (Pavlik, 2001)<sup>1</sup>.

An editorial column in a newspaper is an article that represents the opinions and viewpoints of the editorial board or the editor on current issues and events. Unlike news reports, which aim to be objective and fact-based, editorial columns offer subjective analysis and commentary, often advocating for specific positions or actions. These columns reflect the newspaper's stance on topics of public interest and are meant to influence public opinion and provoke discussion among readers. The importance of a newspaper editorial column lies in its ability to shape

---

<sup>1</sup> A column is a recurrent item or post in a newspaper, magazine, as well as other modes in which a writer expresses his/her own opinions in a certain number of posts assigned by the media organisation. Some of these columns include advice column, fashion column, features column, editorial column etc.

public discourse and influence opinion by providing informed, thoughtful analysis and commentary on current issues. Editorial columns offer readers insight into the newspaper's stance on various topics, often advocating for certain policies or actions. They serve as a platform for addressing societal concerns, promoting accountability, and encouraging civic engagement. By presenting well-reasoned arguments and fostering critical thinking, editorial columns contribute to a more informed and engaged citizenry.

### 1.1.2 Ghanaian English

Ghanaian English (GhE) is a unique variety of English spoken and written in Ghana, shaped by the country's diverse linguistic and cultural landscape. English, introduced during the colonial era, has since evolved into a distinct form influenced by Ghana's indigenous languages and sociocultural context. As the official language, English plays a crucial role in administration, education, and media, reflecting the hybrid linguistic identity of Ghanaians.

The historical trajectory of Ghanaian English can be traced back to the colonial period when English was imposed as the medium of instruction and official communication (Huber, 2004). Over the decades, GhE has undergone significant changes, absorbing elements from local languages such as Akan, Ewe, and Ga. This has led to the development of unique phonological, lexical, and syntactic features that distinguish GhE from other varieties of English (Dako, 2003). For instance, the influence of Akan has resulted in distinctive vowel and consonant sounds that are characteristic of GhE.

One of the most notable aspects of Ghanaian English is its phonology. Studies by Huber (2008) and Dako (2002) highlight how GhE speakers often exhibit tonal patterns and stress placement influenced by their native languages. For example, the tendency to place stress on the first syllable of words and the use of high tone on certain vowels are phonological features rooted

in local language patterns. These phonological traits not only mark the distinctiveness of GhE but also reflect the bilingual or multilingual nature of its speakers.

Ghanaian English also showcases unique lexical and syntactic features. Dako (2003) points out that code-switching and code-mixing are common, with English words and phrases often interspersed with local languages in everyday conversation. Additionally, GhE includes loanwords from indigenous languages, creating a rich lexical repertoire. Syntactically, GhE exhibits variations such as the omission of the copula in certain contexts and the use of double negatives, which are influenced by local grammatical structures (Sey, 1973).

The sociolinguistic context of Ghanaian English is integral to its understanding. As noted by Adjaye (2005), English in Ghana is not just a tool for communication but also a marker of social identity and status. The proficiency and variety of English spoken can indicate one's educational background and social standing. Furthermore, the use of GhE in different domains, such as education, media, and politics, underscores its role in shaping and reflecting the sociocultural dynamics of Ghanaian society.

In conclusion, Ghanaian English is a vibrant and evolving variety that embodies the linguistic diversity and cultural richness of Ghana. The works of researchers like Huber, Dako, and Adjaye provide valuable insights into the phonological, lexical, and syntactic features of GhE, highlighting its distinctiveness. As Ghana continues to develop, GhE will likely continue to evolve, influenced by both internal dynamics and external factors. Future research could focus on the impact of digital communication and globalization on GhE, as well as its role in the identity formation of younger generations.

### 1.1.1 The language of newspaper editorials

The language of newspapers has evolved significantly over the decades, characterized by its unique blend of formal and informal tones, designed to cater to a broad audience while conveying information efficiently. Early 20th-century newspapers often used formal and elaborate language, aiming for an educated readership. For instance, in 1922, Walter Lippmann's "Public Opinion" discusses how newspapers act as a mediator between the public and events, emphasizing the importance of clarity and objectivity in reporting (Lippmann, 1922). Similarly, in 1938, George Orwell critiqued the press's use of "officialese" in his essay "Politics and the English Language," arguing that it often obfuscates the truth rather than elucidates it (Orwell, 1938).

The mid-20th century saw a shift towards more accessible language, reflecting societal changes and the rise of mass media. In 1965, Marshall McLuhan's "Understanding Media: The Extensions of Man" highlighted how the medium of the newspaper was adapting to an increasingly literate and diverse population (McLuhan, 1965). He noted that the language used was becoming more conversational and less formal, aiming to engage a wider audience. By 1976, the impact of television and radio on newspaper language was evident in Neil Postman's "Amusing Ourselves to Death," where he observed that newspapers were adopting more sensational and attention-grabbing language to compete with broadcast media (Postman, 1976).

Entering the late 20th and early 21st centuries, the advent of digital media further transformed newspaper language. In 1999, Clay Shirky's "Here Comes Everybody" explored how the internet was democratizing information dissemination, leading newspapers to adopt a more concise and direct style to capture the fleeting attention of online readers (Shirky, 1999). Shirky pointed out that headlines and articles were becoming shorter, with a greater emphasis on

keywords and search engine optimization (SEO) to reach a global audience. This period also saw the rise of multimedia elements in online news, integrating text with images, videos, and interactive graphics to enhance storytelling.

Today, the language of newspapers continues to evolve in response to technological advancements and changing reader preferences. In 2018, Emily Bell's article "The End of Journalism as We Know It" discussed how the integration of artificial intelligence and data analytics is influencing the way news is written and distributed (Bell, 2018). Bell noted that algorithms are now capable of generating news stories and customizing content for individual readers, leading to a more personalized and engaging news experience. Additionally, the rise of social media platforms has pushed newspapers to adopt a more informal and conversational tone, as seen in the 2020 study "Social Media and the News" by the Pew Research Center, which highlighted the increasing use of colloquial language and interactive elements to foster reader engagement and participation (Pew Research Center, 2020).

### **1.1.2 Complexity in texts**

Halliday (1985) states that written language is usually complex. A number of studies have argued that the language of newspaper editorials is complex. For instance, one of the earliest studies on the grammar of the newspaper editorials in Ghana to explore the complexity of a text was done by Wiredu (2012). He states that the linguistic choices of newspaper editorials are specifically structured and packaged into complex sentences. At the end of the analysis, he observed that there was overwhelming reliance on complex sentences and most of the complex sentences comprised multiple rank-shifted structures (p. 75). This conclusion was confirmed in a study by Frimpong (2015, p. 116) and Frimpong (2019, p.118) that "the complex sentence is consistently the dominant type across the four newspapers followed by the simple sentence,

though after a wide margin”. The argument especially from register perspective is that the writers are influenced by the situational context in making linguistic choices. This means that they themselves may not be conscious of the choices they make to create complexity in the editorials to provide information. Many of the studies done in editorials in Ghana are all synchronic (Adjei; 2010; Logoggy, 2012; Wiredu, 2012; Opoku, 2015; Frimpong, 2015). And so, we do not as yet know the nature of the language of editorials since independence.

Complex sentences are important because they allow for the expression of detailed thoughts by connecting related ideas within a single sentence. This helps convey relationships such as cause and effect, contrast, condition, and time, adding depth and clarity to writing. Using complex sentences enables writers to illustrate connections between ideas more clearly, making arguments more persuasive and discussions more comprehensive. Additionally, varying sentence structure through the use of complex sentences can enhance the rhythm and flow of writing, making it more engaging for readers.

Ghanaian newspaper editorials might choose complex sentences as the dominant sentence type to effectively convey detailed arguments and to articulate the relationships between multiple ideas within a single sentence. This can enhance the clarity and depth of their commentary, making their perspectives more persuasive and comprehensive. Complex sentences allow for a richer and more sophisticated expression of thoughts, which is particularly important in editorials that aim to influence public opinion and foster critical thinking. Additionally, the varied sentence structure can make the writing more engaging and intellectually stimulating for readers, contributing to a more informed and reflective audience (Indriyani, & Said, 2022.)

It must be stressed that the complex structure of the newspaper editorials provides some kinds of coordinated and subordinated linkages in the expression of communication (Opoku, 2015). What this means is that the use of coordinated and subordinated clauses in this genre may create different types of relations and this may exist over a period of time. The question which one may ask is: is it possible that the complex structures have remained constant or have changed over the years in compilation of experiences in newspaper editorials in Ghana?

Since Wiredu's (2012), Opoku's (2015), Frimpong's (2015) and Adjei's & Opoku's (2017) studies were synchronic in their approach, we do not know specifically the nature of the language of newspaper editorials over the period of study. Thus, it will be interesting to know the nature of the language of editorials from diachronic perspective. The study was undertaken to test the assumption that, compared to other areas of language use, grammar hardly ever changes and that if it does, it is not really significant.

It has been observed that writers use a combination of clauses in the sentences to package ideas. For example, Wiredu (2012), Adjei and Opoku (2015) state that clauses are extra tools that writers use to consolidate multiple ideas into a single sentence, enhancing its complexity. Again, Opoku (2015) noted that complexity arises, in part, from a high frequency of complex sentence in the newspaper editorials. This means that clauses among other linguistic features are used to compact ideas in a single sentence to produce complexity. This was extended by Frimpong (2015, p. 76) who said that "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". What Frimpong is saying confirms that the writers of the editorials strategically use complex sentences as a means of distinctively providing information.

In the grammar of newspaper editorials, how is the complexity created? In a study of complexity in legal discourse, Wiredu (2016, p.29) notes as follows:

If legal language is perceived as complex and incomprehensible, it is because there are specific linguistic steps taken to ensure that the language is precise, clear and unambiguous. One such measure is the use of complex grammatical structures. For instance, in order to accommodate the high volume of information within a sentence, different structural types of clauses are used in the law texts.

This implies that different sentences are packaged strategically to communicate information to readers and there are careful linguistic steps used to provide these pieces of information. The parcelling of ideas or sentence information through coordination and subordination to form complex structures could be studied to identify the semantic relationships or interdependencies that exist between the complex ideas in newspaper editorials.

Downing and Locke (2006, p. 272) have stated that the term ‘complex sentence’ refers to a unit comprising “minimally of two clauses of equal status, or two clauses of unequal status”. Downing and Locke use compound and complex sentences generally to refer to syntactic relationships of equivalence and non-equivalence respectively for expansion and projection which espouse the meaning of a sentence logically. This is seen as integration of ideas. Integration is considered as bringing together the basic constituents that will function as a single unit. In this approach, a clause complex is a group of clauses whose meanings are linked integratively and interactively. That is, there is a unifying and correlative bond between clauses

in a sentence which have some logical meaning. The implication here is that the moment experiences are compiled, higher integration of information occurs and this might have resulted in compactness and complexity of ideas in the newspaper editorials.

It must be stressed that this concept of complexity can be handled in a different way using a conceptual framework in Systemic Functional Grammar called *clause complexing*. It is also argued that these complex sentences have different semantic interpretations and therefore, Systemic Functional Grammar provides this framework for the analysis of clause complex structures. Applying this theoretical model to the newspaper editorial genre, this study tries to explore the use of grammatical structures in a compacted manner in newspaper editorials over a period of time to see the changes which have occurred in this newspaper register.

The integration of meanings in clauses, therefore, has to do with the syntactic and semantic composition of clauses. It is from this background that Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) came up with the notion of clause complexes, clause simplexes and embedded clauses. This is presented in their words:

Semantically, the effect of combining clauses into a clause complex is one of tighter integration in meaning: the sequences that are realized grammatically in a clause complex are construed as being sub-sequences within the total sequence of events that make up a whole episode in a narrative (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, p. 430):

This means that combination of clauses results in a tight integration and realization of meaning when clauses are combined in a sentence. That is, clauses are arranged sequentially to make up complexity in a text.

One of the parameters of a good text is the experience of the readers to construe the linguistic choices used in building a logical meaning in a text. This is because the complicated structure of combined clauses in sentences create different logical meanings (Surandi, 2015). This implies that logical meaning is an important phenomenon people must know when using language structures. Surandi presents a synchronic study of taxis and logico-semantic relation of clauses in a sentence. And so, we do not yet know the diachronic study of taxis and logico-semantic relation of the language of editorials since independence. Since Surandi's study was synchronic in his approach, we do not know specifically the nature of the language of newspaper editorials. Thus, it will be interesting to know the nature of the language of editorials in Ghana from taxis and logico-semantic perspective.

Moreover, the meaning that is received from the use of language, either spoken or written, should have a purpose whenever a clause or a sentence is extended, expanded or projected in a particular fashion through some kind of linkages. As Eggins (2004, p. 11) states, "language has evolved with its fundamental purpose to enable people make meanings with each other." One can expand Eggins' idea by saying that language is conceptualised as explaining or describing human activities. It means that meanings that will be accepted by people are based on how the context processes the information within the structures and the linguistic choices which provide them.

According to Wiredu (2012), sometimes, the attempt to include detailed information in a sentence creates problems relating to comprehension and absorption of the message. This is because detailed information may extend the information content in several ways and make it a bit cumbersome. This information can be likened to Glenn and Gray's (2016) explanation that too much detail within a single sentence is likely to hinder a reader's comprehension of the message. Therefore, one can assume that, most likely, the reader may lose sight of the point of the message in the language of newspaper editorial because of the cumbersome and complex nature of the sentences presented in the text.

Whenever too much information is packed within one single clause, it means that there are explicit linguistic steps taken to ensure that the language is precise, clear and unambiguous. For instance, in order to accommodate the high volume of information within a sentence, different structural types of clauses are used in editorial text (Wiredu, 2016, p. 29). It must be stressed here that the compression of information allows for expansion or extension of ideas or experience in the grammar of a language. This creates specific connections between clauses in grammar.

The connection between clauses in a sentence is technically called *clause complexing* in Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG). It is because the clauses are logically connected to each other using logico-semantic relations and interdependencies. The interdependencies generate the grammatical structures of the sentence information whereas the logico-semantics provides the meaningful concept of the relationships with the sentence.

### 1.1.3 The choice of *Daily Graphic* newspaper

The *Daily Graphic* is a daily newspaper published in Accra, Ghana, by the Ghanaian Government. This newspaper is published by the Graphic Communications Group Ltd, which is Ghana's biggest and largest newspaper publishing and printing company. The paper was established by Cecil King of the London Daily Mirror Group along with the Sunday Mirror in 1950 (Eribo & Jong-Ebot 1997).

As indicated at the onset, the *Daily Graphic*, a state-owned newspaper, provided the data for the study. The *Daily Graphic* provides authentic and reliable information for the Ghanaian public and beyond. It provides news that is comprehensive in scope and rich in content. The experience is carved fundamentally in words, phrases, clauses and sentences; therefore, analysing the linguistic resources used in the packaging of these experiences is highly justifiable.

Over the years, the corporation has established itself as a reliable source of presenting high-quality news, to the point where its premier publication, in Ghana, the *Daily Graphic*, has become a nickname for all newspapers (Zadok, 2020). Aside from the *Daily Graphic*, the corporation also produces, publishes, and sells a variety of other publications. These include *Graphic Sports*, *The Mirror*, *Graphic Showbiz*, *Junior Graphic*, *Graphic Advertiser* and *Graphic Nsempa*. In their respective sections, they are all market leaders in the country.

Through its newspapers, the company aspires to improve learning by disseminating information. It aspires to be a leader in providing consumers with high-quality information and other products. Petterson (2006) explains that the newspaper covers news stories, politics, religion, law, business, finance, sports, entertainment, the environment, social issues, and

foreign events. The newspaper covers a variety of topics on national issues. This means that writers are mindful of the variety of English that they use to present information.

The *Daily Graphic* in Ghana has the greatest subscription and readership. It is one of Ghana's most widely read daily newspapers, with a circulation of almost 100,000 editions (Temin and Smith, 2002). The *Daily Graphic* has been identified as the most circulated and popular daily newspaper in Ghana (Kafewo, 2006; Yankson et al., 2010), among others. This means that this newspaper is easily recognised or identified in Ghana. Over the course of its history, the paper has shown a considerable number of editors changed, particularly post-independence, following a series of democratic governance and military coups (Kuehnhenrich, 2012; Anokwa, 1997; Hasty, 2005) as a result, editors who challenged the government's agenda were fired. This implies that the *Daily Graphic* has consistently provided foreign and locally trained editors.

#### **1.1.4 The choice of newspaper editorials**

An editorial column of a newspaper is considered as an opinionated news story column. Nyaungwa and Garman (2019) in their study of newspaper editorials noticed a distinct shift in the editorial studies to political events and the media coverage of some political activities. This means that a lot of attention has been given to the study of newspaper editorials for political purposes (Chester, & Montgomery, 2019; Ileri, & Ochieng, 2020; Perloff, 2021).

In recent times, newspaper editorials have come to occupy a distinct position in contemporary newspapers due to the fact that they have a basic function to expand and project the opinions as well as the ideologies of the newspapers. Editorial viewpoints are now societal and institutionalized, which is why they are worth investigating to determine a media group's or

organization's perspective at the time of reporting events. Also, it is assumed that newspaper editorials have the propensity to influence their audiences or readers and thus they have become a more progressively attractive source of data for academic study in current periods (Moravec et al. 2020 & Ningsih, 2020). As it has been stated earlier, only the editorials of the *Daily Graphic* newspaper were studied in this work. This choice of only *Daily Graphic* is justified because the editorial content in contemporary media has been associated with various forces that determine the selection of events. Most critical of these forces are the media owners, media managers, editorial policies, audiences and information sources.

This means that the newspaper editorial is composed of ideas or sentences which contain a large amount of information. Shaw (2006) also expands the definition and says that the language of newspaper editorials is an interconnected system by which linguistic choices are packaged to espouse different kinds of relations to give logical meaning. As a result, Wiredu (2012) confirms Buitkiene's (2008) proposition that the editorial's goal is to motivate readers to take action. He contends that the editorial, in order to attain its objectives, describes or interprets an idea, an experience, or an event by either appreciating or condemning it. These definitions for newspaper editorials by the writers have a converging point because they stem from the fact that newspaper editorials provide *information, opinion, and news or events* for readers to digest the information. It is possible to assume that throughout all these years, the grammar of newspaper editorial genre may have undergone a change, starting from the British variety to the Ghanaian variety.

From the above, it is important to note that the styles of writers may vary from one variety of English grammar to another to reflect the changing needs of the people. In spite of this, there is this long-held assumption that the grammatical structures of a language hardly change

(Aitchison, 1991). This means that grammar may take a very long time before it changes. However, it is possible that the variety of English language used in Ghana may change over time.

As a genre, newspaper editorial can be classified as both a unique sort of media discourse and a subset of the larger category of opinion discourses. This situates the study on a grammar in a specific discourse to see the choices in grammar in a particular newspaper genre as far as clause complexity is concerned. Language users can communicate their opinions in a complex situation, in a variety of contexts, including everyday discussions, arguments, and any other discourse in which (dis)agreement or persuasion is executed (Antaki, 1994; Pomerantz, 1984; van Eemeren and Grootendorst 1992; Wegman, 1994). This offers a linguistic analysis of the language structures which are used in the newspaper editorials. Since it has been established that a newspaper editorial offers readers a variety of materials to read (Wiredu, 2012), it must also be emphasised that newspaper editorials offer researchers a variety of linguistic choices to analyse. One may observe a well packed linguistic structures in the editorials when reading them in the newspaper editorials which present concise issues to readers (Wiredu, 2012).

The researcher's selection of the editorials stems from the fact that the literature has confirmed that the newspaper editorials is complex. All this while, some studies (Frimpong, 2015; Opoku, 2015; Wiredu 2012) have expressed that the editorial language is complex. The study is looking at specific types of sentences and thinks that the editorials has it.

Editorials are opinion pieces written by the editorial board or senior staff of a newspaper. These articles reflect the official stance of the publication on various issues, ranging from politics to social matters. Typically, editorials aim to inform, persuade, or provoke thought among

readers. They are distinct from news articles, which strive for objectivity, by explicitly presenting the biases and opinions of the publication. For instance, The New York Times (established in 1851) and The Guardian (established in 1821) are renowned for their editorials that often spark public debate and influence public opinion globally (Anderson & Benjamin, 2015; Smith, 2017).

In Ghana, editorials in newspapers such as the Daily Graphic (established in 1950) and the Ghanaian Times (established in 1957) serve a similar purpose but are deeply intertwined with the country's socio-political context. Since Ghana's return to democratic rule in 1992, editorial pieces have played a crucial role in shaping public discourse and holding governments accountable. Editorials in Ghanaian newspapers often reflect the unique challenges and perspectives of the Ghanaian populace, addressing issues such as economic development, corruption, and social justice (Owusu, 2010; Adjei, 2012). Unlike some Western counterparts, these editorials may also serve as a platform for promoting national unity and fostering a sense of community.

### **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Newspapers have been in existence in Ghana from the 19th century to provide information and help promote literacy rate among the general public. The first newspaper in Ghana was published in 1822 and it was established by the British (Anyidoho, 2016). Over the years, there have been changes because different writers have come and gone and now newspapers in Ghana are written by locally trained journalists. A lot of studies have actually been done on newspaper editorials. (Frempong, 2007; Adjei, 2010; Logogy, 2012; Wiredu, 2012; Opoku, 2015; Frempong, 2015; Fosu's 2016). All these studies dealt with synchronic study. They did not deal with diachronic studies to look at editorials. Since these studies were synchronic in

their approach, we do not know specifically the nature of the language of newspaper editorials. Synchronic studies focus on understanding language at a specific point in time, analyzing its structures and patterns without considering historical changes. Diachronic studies, on the other hand, explore language evolution over time, tracing historical development and changes across different periods to understand linguistic variation and change.

It has been argued that grammatical structures of a language hardly change or change more slowly (Aitchison, 1991; Greenberg, 1995; Reaser et al 2017). So, the study wants to find out whether truly there are changes in the use of specific grammatical structures in the newspaper editorial. In other words when you study the editorial from 1957 to 2018 is it true that grammatical features have change or not.

Also, the register theory says that when you select a genre text if it is in religion, it does not change no matter the region or period of the text (Biber and Conrad, 2009). These serve as the gap and the basis for the study. To check to see if these two statements are supported by the findings if we undertake a diachronic study of the editorials in Ghana (from 1957 – 2018). These observations are worth verifying with texts from *Daily Graphic* newspaper in the light of claims that grammatical structures hardly change and specifically by register theory that there will be no change if you pick similar text from across different region or period of time.

Thus, it will be interesting to know the nature of the language of editorials from diachronic perspective which has not been touched. In this study, then, the interest was to test a long-held assumption that the grammatical structures of a language change more slowly.

The editorials of a newspaper have been described as texts which contain complex structures (Wiredu, 2012; Opoku, 2015; and Frimpong, 2015). These structures in the newspaper editorials are well packed into a correlation of ideas. Therefore, it is important to attach special attention for their use. For example, Wiredu mentions that:

Clauses are additional devices used to enable the writer pack more complex ideas into a single sentence in editorials and they allow us to expand, clarify, explain or define the information content in a discourse. Also, their use enhances complexity and enables the writer to arrange ideas in a hierarchy (Wiredu, 2012, p. 103).

This information from Wiredu means that clauses among other things allow writers to compact or pack and integrate information or ideas within a sentence when writers are compiling experience. They enable authors to create, describe, expand or specify the content of their information within a text. This may result in complexity in a text. The question is, what information do readers get when clauses are integrated in different ways? This suggests that the complexity has been part of the editorial language for all these years as argued in the literature.

A number of studies have been done on newspaper editorials (Bolívar, 2002; Westin & Geisler, 2002; Kurt, 2007; Abrafi, 2010; Wiredu, 2012; Afful, 2014; Frimpong, 2015; Opoku, 2015; Frimpong, 2017; Ali, & Sheeraz, 2018; Frimpong, 2019). Many of the studies have observed that there is preference in the use of complex sentence in the editorials. For example, Bolívar, (2002) and Wiredu (2012) note that the complex sentence is the most frequent sentence type in newspaper editorials. The most preferred type of sentence in the editorial corpus is complex sentence types (Frimpong, 2015, p. 117). Opoku (2015) also maintains that editors do not

depart from the use of complex sentences. There is the possibility of changes caused by the exit of different writers and the coming of locally-trained Ghanaian journalists. It would, therefore, be interesting to do a study to determine the changes that have occurred in the language of newspaper editorials based on the argument or claim in the literature that language when studied diachronically reveals patterns of changes (Greenberg, 1995). So, this is one of the factors that motivated this study.

Many of the studies also found that there are variations in the use of certain linguistic choices in the editorials. For instance, Frimpong (2017) and Blanco, (2020) noticed that, additionally, there is a seemingly regulated variation in the distribution of clause patterns across the newspapers. Also, Frimpong (2015, p. 117) observed that the rate of dominance of the complex sentence type varies slightly between the British newspapers and the Ghanaian newspapers. Later, this was attested to in Frimpong (2019, p. 118) who stated that some variability exists in terms of how much of a particular structural sentence type was realized in a particular newspaper. For instance, though complex sentences in the two British newspapers are similarly distributed, the difference between attestations of the complex sentence for the two Ghanaian newspapers is too wide for one to argue for regional sway.

Some studies in the Ghanaian newspaper editorials have been synchronic but have not looked at language change or clause combining strategies diachronically (Amoakohene, 2018; Adjei, 2020; Manu, 2020; Bakuuro, & Diedong, 2021). For example, Wiredu (2012) selected 338 sentences from 22 editorials of the *Daily Graphic* published in January 2008. Also, Opoku (2015) did not look at language change and the data were 10 editorials spanning a period of three months (January to March 2014) and did qualitative textual analysis on the issue of clause complexity but in this work, the data is from 1957 to 2018. Also, some studies have looked at

the editorial from the point of view of transitivity, metaphor, and modality (He, 2013; Vathanalaoha, & Tangkiengsirisin, 2018) but they have not looked at *Daily Graphic* newspaper editorials diachronically, focusing on variations on clause combining strategies in the newspaper editorials.

The problem is that previous research has not explored how clause combining strategies in *Daily Graphic* newspaper editorials have evolved over time, leaving a gap in understanding the diachronic variations in these editorials. Researchers gain insights into the evolution of editorial writing styles in the *Daily Graphic* newspaper editorials and a deeper understanding of linguistic trends in Ghanaian media. Scholars miss the opportunity to capture historical language changes and fill a critical gap in diachronic linguistic research in Ghanaian media. This study fills this gap of clause integrations. Integration is the process of bringing together the essential components of a clause complex so that they can function as a single entity (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). In this technique, a clause complex is a series of clauses whose meanings are linked integratively with dynamism. This is a justification for the study of clause complexing in the newspaper editorials diachronically.

This study is significant because the researcher is diachronically studying clause combining strategies or variations in clause integration in newspaper editorials to see how writers have brought their ideas together. This is because there is something in integration which makes people comprehend how writers have integrated their sentences or ideas and experiences. The ideas are integrated on the grounds of how one is moving from one idea to the other in terms of the logical experience because every clause is an experience. How did the writer move from experience one to experience two? In adding the experiences, did the writer see all of them

dependently or independently? Thus, how have writers integrated their experiences both grammatically and logically?

As far as the research knows, one of the earliest studies on language change on newspaper editorial language in Ghana was done by Afful (2014) which hinged on Quirk et al.'s (1985) framework on NP complexities to investigate the NP structure in newspaper editorial language from the *Daily Graphic*. At the end of the study Afful (2014) revealed that there has been an increase and some differences in the occurrence in the usage of NP structure across the three years. This shows that the study has not looked at newspaper editorials genre in terms of variations in clause complexing. Also, Frimpong (2019, p.119) observed that “variability or change exists in terms of how much of a particular structural sentence type was realized in a particular newspaper”. This is also a motivation for this study.

Generally speaking, the literature has revealed that Systemic Functional Grammar theory is seldom considered for a diachronic study on newspaper editorials. This study looks at Ghanaian newspaper editorials diachronically, focusing on clause combining strategies in the newspaper editorials from the *Daily Graphic* since Ghana's independence, specifically, from 1957 – 2018. This is superficially the gap in the literature between these claims or assumptions which have been created in the literature.

The theoretical and methodological approaches to this study are entirely different from the earlier studies on language change in Ghana. This is the reason why this study has been primarily conducted to see whether truly there has been a change in sentence complexity in the newspaper editorials as the literature has indicated.

Again, it has been stated that the grammatical structures of a language change more slowly (Aitchison, 1991; Reaser et al., 2017, p.37). Also, according to the Register theory, there will be no significant change in language use no matter the region or period of the text (Biber and Conrad, 2009). This means the grammatical structure may take a very long time before it may change. A grammatical change has a starting point, a process of progression, and also an end that are all time-dependent (Hollmann, 2009). It is a passage through the linguistic community of a change in temporal and spatial evolution (Hróarsdóttir, 2003). In other words, the literature shows that changes over time occur in the area of vocabulary use, phonological and morphological structures. But, in the area of grammar, there is hardly any such evidence of change. For instance, Hróarsdóttir (2009) presents a comparative situation in grammatical and lexical changes and he observed that grammatical change does not occur as quickly as lexical change occurs. His work signals the fact that the grammatical change occurs more slowly. The findings of his work open a wide range of research opportunities. One wonders the specific changes that occur in all aspects of the grammar of a language. And that is what this study seeks to do. It seeks to ascertain the nature of changes at the level of the clause focusing on *Daily Graphic* newspaper editorials in Ghana from 1957 to 2018. It focuses mainly on the variation in the way writers have used complexity in the newspaper editorial in Ghana since independence.

### **1.3 The overall aim**

The overall aim is to study Ghanaian newspaper editorials diachronically, focusing on clause combining strategies in the newspaper editorials from the *Daily Graphic* since Ghana's independence, specifically, from 1957 – 2018. In specific terms, the study is interested in how clause combinations have been strategically achieved in the editorials. It is hoped that the study will reveal essential linguistic features about Ghanaian newspaper register, particularly the

changes that may have occurred during the period of the study. To achieve this goal, the following research questions were answered in this study.

#### 1.4 Research Questions

1. During the period, how have the clauses in the editorials been structurally connected?
2. During the period, how have the clauses in the editorials been logically connected?
3. During the period, are there changes in the grammatical and logical connections of the clauses in the editorials?

#### 1.5 Significance of the Study

This study contributes to research on language change in newspaper editorial study, theoretical application of clause complexing, and pedagogy. The study is significant in that it adds to the knowledge in the literature and creates awareness among both journalists and readers of the newspaper editorials to show how they brought their ideas together.

First, people have looked at newspaper editorials text in terms of power, ideology, transitivity, modality, sentence patterns etc. but this study contributes by adding another way one can understand the construction of the *Daily Graphic* editorial. The study contributes to media linguistics and composition writing in order to comprehend why most texts are very effective and efficient than others.

The claim is that there is similarity in the distribution of linguistic features (Biber & Conrad, 2009). This is due to the fact that language is used for related and multiple functions across a wide range of sociocultural contexts. This argument was clearly mentioned by Frimpong (2015) that native English speakers from various regional contexts, for example, might share

comparable linguistic characteristics since they utilize their language in all parts of their real lives. Also, grammatical structures change slowly over a period of time (Aitchison, 1991) and newspaper editorials are full of complex sentence structures (Wiredu, 2012). In this case when one observes the sample data and it confirms that there is no change, then the study has confirmed what these writers are saying. If there is a change, then the study is saying that the information in the literature does not hold true when it comes to the study of time or change in language usage in a particular field.

Second, the study will inform a theoretical application of clause complexing. Theoretically, the study will give people a bigger experience because normally when people are looking at clause complexing, they do it with a few texts or a scanty data span of say, one or two years but this work deals with data span of 62 years for clause complexing occurring diachronically and to see the relationship between choices in clause complexing and the data of historical variation. Looking at Opoku (2015), it was observed that clause complexing has been looked at in terms of single output but this study uses a large data. Therefore, it will make people see the link between clause complexing or integration of experience and the issue of language change which will guide people who are now studying language change or variation, Systemic Functional Grammar and newspaper editorial genre. This study guides people studying Systemic Functional Grammar by providing empirical data on how clause combining strategies have evolved in a specific media context, illustrating practical applications of the theory.

The emphasis of this study has been on language complexity and clause combining strategies. The study claims that sentences are packaged strategically to communicate information to readers and there are careful linguistic steps used to independently and dependently expand and project these pieces of information. This means that ideas are combined strategically to

relate to each other independently and dependently in a text through the means of expansion and projection. This is the concept of clause complexing in Systemic Functional Grammar. It is significant to use this theoretical model to explore the use of ideas in a compacted manner in newspaper editorial text to observe the changes which have occurred in this register. Also, it adds to systemic functional grammar theory in terms of its perspective. The study agrees with the proponents of systemic functional grammar that every structure in language can be interpreted in relation to its role within the social context and every linguistic choice serves a purpose.

Third, this work contributes to pedagogy in the academia. Pedagogically, the study can help writers, readers or academics to understand clause complex better because these clause complexes are made up of one or more clauses. Reading passages written in clause complexes (compound, complex or compound complex sentences) is simple for readers who are familiar with the structure of complicated sentences.

Additionally, writers or readers are expected to have an easier time identifying the main idea in a text. In terms of writing, writers who wish to stay up with the text construction while also learning more about English usage may find the comprehension of the clause complex structure beneficial. So, this study is significant because it involves an analysis of the changes in the grammatical and the logico-semantic choices made in a text and what functions these choices are meant to serve. This will probably increase writers' and readers' mindfulness of these grammatical structures and logico-semantic features which are used to expand or project issues or events in newspaper editorials. In this case, the attention of researchers would be drawn to newspaper editorials for linguistic analysis.

In this case, the results will show whether or not the assumptions postulated by the study are applicable and are worth verifying with texts from *Daily Graphic* newspaper in the light of claims that grammatical structures hardly change and specifically by register theory that there will be no change if you pick similar text from across different region or period of time when it comes to editorials from Ghana for linguistic analysis. If there is a change, then it means the theory does not apply when it comes to time. If there is no change, then it confirms what the theory is saying. This is the value and the justification of the current study.

### **1.6 The delimitation of the study**

The study analyses only the use of clause complexes that occur in the sample or data that was investigated. The entire work is therefore based on language change and the logical meaning of Systemic Functional Grammar theory. Since Systemic Functional Grammar is about choices regardless of whether arbitrary or non-arbitrary selections made by speakers or writers, the choices made by editors in respect of sentence structure and sentence information was the focus of the research. The study was restricted to the taxis and the logico-semantic relations.

### **1.7 Organization of the study**

This study is interested in the language change in compilation of experience limiting the analysis to *Daily Graphic* newspaper editorials texts. The study is organised into seven chapters. Chapter one provides the introduction to the study. It sets the background of the establishment of media discourse and how language of the media is used to persuade and present news and events. It explores different phases of the print media in Ghana and the possible changes which might have arisen with the use of different varieties of English in Ghanaian print media. The chapter sets the basis significant for presenting complex information to the public using language as a standardised form of presenting news and events. It indicates

that communication is purposeful whenever it reaches the target readers and propels them into action. To ascertain that, writers of newspaper editorials compress information in a complex and a special way to specify, clarify, expand, or extend their arguments into a complex grammatical units or structures.

Therefore, the language creates clause complexes in compiling experiences in the editorials. This shows how media, and for that matter newspaper discourse provides readers with a lot of information or materials to read. This sets the background for the study into clause complexes in the newspaper editorials. The foundation for the study has been formed in chapter one and this has provided the background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the research, research questions, and justification of the study.

Chapter two provides the relevant literature on language change over a period of time, studies in newspaper editorials and clause complexing. This made us to discuss the grammatical change which concerns itself with the contemporary editorial language or the language as it happens now. This chapter actually informs us clearly to situate the analysis of the study on how the language of editorials has changed over the period since the late 50s to current times. By this, one would be able to ascertain whether it is possible that the language of editorials has remained constantly complex over the same period of time. This will enable us to affirm or disagree with the observation made by Wiredu (2012), and Frimpong (2015) that the grammar of newspaper editorials is overwhelmingly complex. Chapter two has direct inference to research question one on how clauses are structurally distributed in the editorials of the *Daily Graphic* in compiling experiences and the changes to show whether the grammar has remained constantly complex over the years.

Chapter three discusses the theoretical framework of the study. This chapter reminds the reader about some of the grammatical theories that can be used to analyse sentences or clauses but were not used in this study. Also, the discussion hinges on the logical metafunction of systemic functional grammar theory as the springboard for the study because the theory maintains that every structure in language can be construed particularly in connection to its function within the social context. Again, the proponents argue that every linguistic choice provides a purpose in a communicative milieu.

Chapter four is basically the discussions on the methods for the compilation of the data and the methods for the data analysis in chapter five and six.

Chapter five provides the analysis of the structural distribution of clauses in the data for the study. The chapter focuses on the changes and the distributions of clause complexes and the possible reasons for the use of clause complexes in the editorials. It emphasises the pervasiveness of clause complexes and the means of linking these clause complexes. It also discusses the types of relations which are released by the clause complex structures.

Chapter six also presents the changes in the semantics of clause combination in the editorials. The emphasis has been placed on the prevalence of two logical semantic values: expansion and projection in the editorials.

Finally, chapter seven provides the summary of findings, implications, suggestions or recommendations of the study and offers a conclusion of the study.

### **1.9 Chapter Summary**

This chapter has discussed the study's background and situated it within the context of the history of the media in Ghana, especially the print media as well as the complexity in the language used in newspaper editorials. The chapter has also dealt with the research problem, the overall aim of the research, the research questions, the significance of the study, the limitations of the study, delimitation of the study and the organisation of the study.



## CHAPTER TWO

### LANGUAGE CHANGE

#### 2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature on language change with the focus of establishing a purposeful means by which one may recognize and categorize the concept of language change. The discussions have mainly concentrated on concepts and methods for classifying language change. Concepts which are significant to language such as changes in grammar and grammatical complexity over the years have also been reviewed.

#### 2.1 Language change as an expansion of human interaction process

Many statements have been made about language change. These statements point to the fact that language changes with respect to time. Over the years, there have been several attempts by linguists to reconstruct proto-language. For example, Volk (1999) observed and documented some morphological, phonological and syntactic changes over time. He demonstrated how languages have changed over time, and in a general sense explained why certain language changes have occurred at certain times.

In their views, Hickey (2010) and Bowerman et al. (2011) argue that complex and very little social factors play a significant role in determining language contact. In this case, it must be mentioned that it is more likely that a feature will be shared by languages from many language families that are geographically close to one another if feature diffusion is the primary factor affecting a feature's spread. It can also be explained by the fact that the predominant means of spread would be language contact, which would happen from a language to its geographical neighbors without consideration for family relationships (Coupe et al., 2013). That is, the

distribution of linguistic features may reflect the usage dynamics and preference of the speakers.

Croft (2000) is specifically categorical in arguing that language change occurs in utterances and texts which are produced by speakers or writers in interaction. For instance, Croft (2000, p. 87) stated that “language use is essentially a joint social act between speaker and addressee, writer and reader which results in change”. What this means is that human interactions may produce different linguistic categories over a period of time. Croft is precisely concentrating on grammatical innovation from a typological perspective. Can a new type of grammatical construction emerge in a written language in comparison to the types of constructions that already exist in the world’s spoken languages? It is believed that there is uncovered evidence that grammatical modernizations in written discourse can go well beyond ‘increased and compressed clausal integrations. What Croft (2000) has said is true because it is possible that over the years the language which was used to write newspaper editorials since the independence of Ghana will not be the same language that is/was used in say 2018.

In linguistic theory, the rate of language change has become increasingly essential due to human intellectual growth. There would never be a true pause in language, just as there can never be a true standstill in language use in human's ceaseless blazing mind. As von Humbolt (1863) (cited in Aitchison (2001, p. 37) has mentioned, it indicates a continuous progression of man’s mental growth. Languages change at varying speeds. The basic view of language change implies that the only changes of any consequence are ones with structural impacts on the language. This results in a focus on phonetic, morphological, and syntactic changes (Peterman, 2021). What this means is that over the years, it is possible that there are fluctuations

in the use of these aspects of language which was used to write newspaper editorials for so many years.

Some scholars have argued that language change occurs as a result of diffusion through social contacts. This means human interactions have resulted in the spread and changes in the elements of many languages. One of the earliest studies on language change was done by Meillet in 1905. He said that language changes and diffuses with time through social contacts. What this means is that language spreads as a result of social interactions. This was supported by Jacob Jud in 1914 who noted that language diffuses when speakers interact with other people. Meillet (1905) and Jacob (1914) both agreed that social interactions bring about language diffusion or change. This means that languages in the world spread due to social interactions. What Meillet (1905) and Jacob (1914) have said is true because contact between speakers of different languages generates new varieties or linguistic items which enable the speakers to interact easily.

The most prevalent theory of language change makes use of family trees to explain how languages are diffused or spread through social interactions over time. A significant example is the Wave Model of language change (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015). According to the wave model, every linguistic change starts somewhere in the network and then spreads or diffuses to nearby speaker groups. As the new characteristic spreads across a larger area, the language changes, hence, it can be likened to a "wave" that grows far from its source (Smith, 1996). It implies that as the language waves through the environment, new variants and diverse structures are formed. These waves are distinct from one another and therefore, cannot be seen as nested all the time.

This underlies Allasonnière-Tang et al.'s (2021) assumption that languages of diverse structures and different families tend to share common patterns if they are spoken in geographic proximity. In such a scenario, speakers of two or more languages interact and influence each other's languages, and in this interaction, more grammaticalized features tend to be more resistant to diffusion compared to features of more lexical content (Allasonnière-Tang et al., 2021). This statement suggests that grammaticalized features do not change frequently but lexicalized features change easily. According to Bloomfield (1933, p. 17), "different linguistic changes may spread or diffuse, like waves, over a speech-area, and each change may be carried out over a part of the area that does not coincide with the part covered by earlier change". These authors have only dealt with how languages spread through contacts.

Accordingly, language spread, in its narrowest sense, is "the phenomenon whereby users or the users of a language increase" (Cooper, 1982, p. vii). However, in a broader sense, Cooper (1982) defines it as "an increase, over time, in the proportion of a communication network that adopts a given language or language variety for a given communicative function" (p. 6). What Cooper is trying to say is that language spreads whenever the speakers of the language also spread.

In these discussions, the scholars have similar opinion and have attempted to explain that language change is premised by interaction between people from different backgrounds. This implies that language change occurs when people come together over a period of time. One significant similarity between these scholars is the conception that the more different people come in contact, the most possible language is to change or spread. Therefore, higher levels of grammaticalization in this interaction seem to be more resistant to dissemination than higher levels of lexical content (Allasonnière-Tang, et al., 2021). This observation is supported by

Aitchison (1991) and Reaser et al. (2017) who have argued that the grammar of a language changes gradually than other levels of language use. It is anticipated that the findings in this study will support studies of language change in a more sophisticated way, with relevance to other features of language, such as grammar.

Language change is an inevitable phenomenon influenced by various social, cultural, and technological factors. In the context of the *Daily Graphic* newspaper in Ghana, anticipated changes in clause complexity are likely to reflect broader linguistic trends observed in the country. According to Huber (2004), Ghanaian English has evolved significantly since the colonial era, incorporating elements from local languages and adapting to new communicative needs. This evolution can be seen in the increasing use of complex sentence structures that combine multiple clauses to convey more sophisticated ideas. Dako (2003) points out that the integration of local linguistic features into English has led to unique syntactic patterns, which are likely to be mirrored in the editorial practices of the *Daily Graphic*. As Ghana's media landscape becomes more diverse and dynamic, the newspaper is expected to adopt these evolving linguistic forms to remain relevant and engaging to its readership (Adjaye, 2005).

Furthermore, the influence of digital communication on language use is anticipated to impact clause complexity in the *Daily Graphic*. Huber (2008) notes that the rise of social media and digital platforms has introduced new ways of writing and expressing ideas, often characterized by more informal and interactive styles. This shift is likely to be reflected in the newspaper's language, where traditional formal structures might give way to more varied and conversational clause combinations. Dako (2002) observes that such changes are already evident in the increasing prevalence of code-switching and the blending of English with local languages in written media. As the *Daily Graphic* adapts to these trends, its editorial content is expected to

showcase more diverse and complex clause structures, aligning with the linguistic practices of its audience (Sey, 1973). This adaptation not only reflects the natural progression of language change but also underscores the newspaper's role in shaping and responding to contemporary communicative norms.

Based on this, one can say that over the years the possibility existed that the use of language in the newspaper editorial for a very long time has changed and the possible reason is that these writers have said that language diffuses or spreads over time and therefore it is likely that one may find such traces in these editorials from 1957 to 2018.

In 1921, Sapir said that language gradually expands down time, and this is due to the effects of human events. Similarly, Lyons (1968:23) stated that “time changes all things and language expands with time, there is no reason why language should escape this universal law” every word, grammatical construction, locution, tone, and accent are progressively changing arrangements shaped by the unseen and indifferent drift; language itself is a gradually shifting construction. This means that features of a language are not static because they change gradually as time passes. That is, over the years, it is possible that the language which was used in the newspaper editorial in 1957 will not be the same language that will be used in 2018.

In the course of time, Koranteng (2006: 2) extended this view that "as people come into touch with other speech communities, parts of one language are incorporated or expanded into another and vice versa". This view was broadened by Montgomery (2006) that basic differences develop as a result of the expansion of language [for instance, English] across space and time. These scholars have similar opinion on language change. To them, language changes due to expansion. This means that people with different language backgrounds come together

and affect language change. In other words, as language expands to other areas the language changes. Remarkably, despite all of this focus on the expansion of language through contacts, various people will perceive these characteristics differently depending on their social or philosophical orientation.

It is important to note that the discussions so far are directly significant to this study. These discussions are talking about language expansion over a period of time in the literature. What this means is that over the years the possibility exists that the language which was used to write the newspaper editorials in 1957 will not be the same as that which will be used in 2018. This is possible because as these studies have said, language expansion occurs and therefore, it is likely that looking at the newspaper editorial language from 1957 to 2018, this phenomenon is likely going to occur.

Another important statement about language change was made by Tawerilmang (1996) who said that some languages flourish and spread, while others die. This shows that languages are not stagnant, but they do change and even die over time. Crystal (2002, p.1) also said that the process of language death is unpredictable. Another relevant view which these scholars have added to the discussion is about language expansion and language death. These scholars are of the opinion that languages can expand and die.

However, one major difference that emerges in this argument is that Tawerilmang's (1996) view deals with language expansion and language death, but Crystal (2002) limits his view to language death. In view of this Campbell (1994, p. 1961) describes language spread and death as "the loss of a language due to slow transfer to the prevailing language in situations of

language interaction ". This means that language reduction or loss occurs in circumstances where language contacts happen.

In addition, Sapir (1921), Lyons (1968) Koranteng (2006) and Montgomery (2006) have expressed that within the social context, language expands and dies over a period of time. This means that language expands and dies depending on the environmental factors. As a result, it stands to reason that the environmental conditions that encourage migration and other activities should vary differently when aspects of a language are spread through expansion (Antunes et al., 2020). This underlies Karakaş' (2013) claim that the spread of English creates dilemmas among people and no easy solution is seen in the immediate future in regard to the expansion of English.

Based on this, it is important to say that language expands and dies because human beings are generally aware that previous and current generations used different forms and rules in their languages to communicate. Applying these two phenomena to this study, then it is possible to say that language reduction, spread and death are likely going to occur in the newspaper editorial genre for over a period of time. These studies suggest something about language spread, reduction or loss which may not have a direct link to this study, but this study is a diachronic study. Therefore, it is possible that some linguistic items have been spread, lost, died or gained in the use of language in the newspaper editorial from 1957 up to 2018.

Language change and its spread are intricately connected to the medium of writing, particularly in newspaper editorials, which often serve as a reflection of evolving linguistic norms and societal shifts. Aitchison (2001) highlights that language change is a gradual process influenced by social interactions and the need for effective communication. This is evident in newspaper

editorials, which must resonate with a diverse readership and thus adapt to contemporary language use. Trudgill (1992) emphasizes that written media play a critical role in disseminating new linguistic forms and standardizing them. For instance, the inclusion of colloquialisms and contemporary slang in editorials reflects the spoken language of the time, helping to bridge the gap between formal writing and everyday speech (Crystal, 2003). As newspapers aim to remain relevant and engaging, their editorial styles often incorporate these linguistic innovations, thereby influencing and accelerating language change.

Moreover, the influence of globalization and digital communication on language change is particularly pronounced in newspaper editorials. Pennycook (1994) argues that globalization fosters the spread of linguistic elements across cultures, leading to the hybridization of language. In the digital age, this phenomenon is amplified as newspapers increasingly integrate multimedia and online content, adopting more conversational and interactive writing styles. Graddol (2006) notes that the internet and social media have introduced new genres of writing that emphasize brevity, informality, and interactivity. This shift is reflected in the evolving structure of newspaper editorials, which now often feature shorter sentences, informal language, and direct engagement with readers (Kress, 2010). These changes not only mirror the dynamic nature of contemporary communication but also contribute to the ongoing evolution of written language in print media.

The impact of sociopolitical factors on language change is also evident in newspaper editorials. Fairclough (1995) discusses how language in the media is shaped by ideological forces and power relations. Editorials, as opinion pieces, frequently address current events and societal issues, and the language used in these contexts can reflect broader sociopolitical trends. For example, the rise of inclusive language and gender-neutral terms in editorials aligns with

societal movements towards equality and diversity (Cameron, 1995). Similarly, the adoption of politically correct language and the avoidance of potentially offensive terms demonstrate how newspapers adapt their editorial content to align with evolving social norms (Fowler, 1991). By doing so, newspapers not only mirror the changing linguistic landscape but also play a role in promoting and legitimizing new language practices within society.

## **2.2 Some definitions of language change**

In the earlier discussion of language change, the review has demonstrated how languages have changed over time, and in a general sense explained why certain language changes have occurred at certain times. The study has argued that language change occurs in utterances and texts which are produced by speakers or writers in interaction. Also, language change has become increasingly essential due to human intellectual growths. Besides, language change occurs as a result of diffusion through social contacts. Again, language expands and dies because human beings are generally aware that previous and current generations used different forms and rules in their languages to communicate. We have been using the term language change without defining it. Based on this, the study provides some classificatory definitions of language change to include modification of the features of a language, language change as deviation and the failure to use quality linguistic structures over time.

To begin with, some of the definitions of language change by scholars focus on the modification of the features of a language. One of the earliest definitions of language change was offered by Bloomfield in 1933. He defined language change as innovations which change the grammatical function of a form. This implies that language change occurs when the grammar of a language advances to different forms or categories and functions. This was later broadened by Lyons (1968) who referred to language change as modification of language forms

or grammatical features across periods. What Lyons is saying is that language change is an amendment of the features of the grammar of a language.

Both definitions are similar in the sense that they both imply that language change is a process of transforming the features and functions of a language at different points in time. For example, Stockwell (1977), Canale (1978), and Allen (2000) among others have argued that the change from OV to VO word order in the English language occurred as a means of a drift in the frequency of *extraposition*, which eventually led people to reanalyse the grammar of English as VO. This approach has been contested by Pintzuk (2002) who claims that it makes the assumption that situations of VO order that cannot be examined due to *extraposition* should, on the account, only be detected at the conclusion of the change. It is an accepted fact that the structures of a language can change indefinitely. For example, linguistic features continue to acquire new meanings and incorporated into the language. The above definition is relevant to the study because it is probable that there have been some modifications in the language use to write newspaper editorials from 1957 to 2018.

Contrary to the definitions by Bloomfield (1933) and Lyons (1968), other classificatory definitions see language change as deviation. Deviation, in its broadest sense, refers to a departure from what is usual or suitable, i.e., a departure from what is anticipated or allowable. In other words, deviation is defined as the activity of straying from an established rules or standards. According to Crystal (2003, p. 134), a sentence or other unit is considered to be deviant when it violates the rules of proper language usage and appears grammatically, phonologically, or even semantically inadequate. Therefore, any departure from the common and accepted standards of language is therefore regarded as a deviation in this sense.

In view of this, Cook (1989, p. 74) defined language change as "a deviation or a case of non-conformity to discourse structure norms and regularities". Pinker (1994) called them 'deviant and discrete combinational system' which is unique for every natural language. What this means is that both Cook (1989) and Pinker (1994) admit that language changes as a result of deviation with regards to the use of linguistic choices of a language. It is significant to add that deviation is observed through grammar, morphology, phonology, lexis and spellings.

Therefore, every language that deviates from this criterion is regarded as change (Lasnik and Sobin, 2000). What this means is that language change occurs when the use of linguistic elements departs from the standard use of the language. This is supported by Padmaja (2019, p. 226) who sees language change as "the action of departing from an established course or accepted standard". Cook (1989), Lasnik and Sobin (2000), and Padmaja (2019) are of the view that language changes as a result of departure or extension from the use of the language features which may resort to change over time.

This study supports this claim because in an attempt to depart from the standard use of a language a period of time, it may result in change in the standard use of a language. What this means is that over the years there is probability that there has been a deviation from the standard use of these linguistic features which were used to write newspaper editorials in 1957 and therefore, it will never be the same language features that will be used in 2018. This is possible because as these writers have said, language deviates from the standard use over a period of time, that is, language deviation occurs and therefore, it is likely that when one looks at newspaper editorial from 1957 to 2018, this occurrence is likely to occur.

Another definition of language change looks at the failure to use quality linguistic structures over time. For example, Korch (2001, p. 2) defines language change as a failure of linguistic qualities to be transmitted through time. The definition by Korch (2001) on language change is entirely different from the earlier definitions of language change in our discussions so far. What Korch is saying is that quality hinges on the person's level of attainment of features and use of a language such as grammar, pronunciation, fluency or accuracy.

Korch's definition is limited to the concept of quality or the standard use of language. What is special about this definition is the "recognition of standardization of language use" since quality is preferred in language use. For example, Anita (2013) notes that some students kept pronouncing /feri/ instead of /veri/ for the word 'very'. Also, some could not produce the sounds /p/, /t/ and /k/ with aspiration and differentiate between long and short vowels. Again, some learners could not overcome some pronunciation difficulties such as the substitutions of the sounds /p/ with /b/, /v. with /f/ or /i/ with /e/ (Swan & Smith, 2001). This shows that the students could not maintain the quality of sounds.

Linguistic quality involves the precision, accuracy and fluency which was attached to the use of a language. If speakers are not able to attach importance or prominence to the standard use of a language, it may result in failures in its linguistic quality. Such failures might conceivably arise within groups of adult native speakers of a language who, for whatever reason, substitute one feature for another in their usage, much like how new words are created and exchanged for old ones.

Pardo (2006) noted that even brief encounters can result in long-lasting changes to the quality of a sound. This means that there can be a permanent change to the quality of a sound when

speakers use language over a period of time. As a result, Evans and Iverson (2007) maintained that speakers and writers are able to change their dialects and writing styles throughout their lives, and contact with different accents can affect the quality, production and perception of sounds and other linguistic choices. They also contended that this process of language accommodation is complex and frequently results in lasting effects in subsequent productions. For example, according to Frimpong (2015), the production of a written text involves careful planning and editing

This means there is the need to ensure excellence in the use of language. In addition, by transitioning between the quality of formal and informal writings in the same language, speakers and writers can consciously vary how they speak or write to satisfy the communication requirements of the various contexts or registers. It is significant to note that over the years the possibility exists that there is a change or maintenance of the quality of language use in the newspaper editorial. Possibly, this is because the language use in the editorials involve precision, accuracy and fluency and therefore there is a likelihood that observing newspaper editorials from 1957 up to 2018, this linguistic phenomenon is likely going to occur.

This study adopts Bloomfield's (1933) and Lyons' (1968) definition of language change as a phenomenon whereby a language is opened to new inflections of the features of the language to suit the intension of the speaker over a period of time. This definition implies that, to use language for a communicative purpose, speakers have to modulate the linguistic features to contribute in some way to language variation.

### **2.3 Language change: internal and external factors**

Language change can basically be attributed to two factors. These are both internal and external changes. Internally, language change produces special features that affect specific aspects of a language. Externally, language change resorts to human contacts and advancements. In the subsequent sections (2.3.1 and 2.3.2), the discussion focuses on the specific cause of internal and external factors of language change.

#### **2.3.1 Internal factors of language change**

The internal changes are observed within the language such as changes in grammar, phonology, vocabulary and meaning. This underlies Kachru's (1983) claim that language changes, no matter where it occurs, affects particular internal features such as phonology (sound), lexis (words), semantic (meaning), and syntax (grammar). This means that within the features of a language, the possibility exist that changes will occur over a period of time.

Accordingly, Croft (2000, p. 45-48) stated that "these specific features of language recognize the existence of internal variations, informs us about it, and concentrates on those items where change is continuous or static when speakers come in contact". This implies that within the features of a language changes are observable. Therefore, these changes can either be constant or stagnant over a period of time. The possible reason is that it has been stated above that changes occur within the features of a language over time. In other words, the use of internal features such as phonology (sound), lexis, semantic, and syntax or grammar will likely change over time. This means that in this study, it is assumed that changes in these internal features of the language use in the newspaper editorials are possible over a period of time.

A further classificatory pattern on internal language change has to do with the increase and decrease in the use of grammatical structures of a language. According to Kachru (1983), the internal structures of a language can increase or decrease with time in a specific field. This means that a particular register may exhibit some changes in the use of some items over time. This is supported by Crystal (1985) who said that when speakers of a language move away from their environment, the grammatical structures of their language change over time. This suggests that the use of grammar to write newspaper editorials in 1957 would not be the same language that would be used in 2018. This finds confirmation in Koranteng (2006, p. 29) who also observed that “any language distant from its home endures progressive changes in its phonetic, grammatical, semantic, and pragmatic systems”.

This phenomenon is directly relevant and linked to the study of the grammar of newspaper editorials. This means that over the years, the grammatical structures which were used to write the *Daily Graphic* newspaper editorials for over 62 years may not be the same throughout. This is because these studies have argued that grammatical structures can increase or decrease and, therefore, it is expected that looking at the newspaper editorial language from the independence of Ghana up to 2018, this phenomenon is likely to occur.

Similarly, Korch (2001) and Baltin and Collins (2008) observed that language change can be identified at different levels within the language structure, such as phonology, vocabulary, syntax, and morphology (Orji and Obijiofor, 2021; Mukherjee 2007, p. 98-99). What this means is that no matter what happens, these aspects of language will change over time. These writers agree that there are changes in the structures or features of a language over time. Their argument hinges on the fact that internal structures of a language are mostly affected when the language is used in particular genre over a period of time. In support of this, it is possible to

say that phonetics and phonology, morphology, lexicon, and syntax are all susceptible to change resulting in new forms and structures of a language.

The discussion above deals with changes within the internal structures which may not have a connection to this work, but this study is a diachronic study, so it is possible to say that some grammatical structures have been changed in the *Daily Graphic* editorials since 1957. Within the ambiance of diachronic studies, internal features of a language like sound, word, grammar or meaning in a particular register may exhibit some increasing and decreasing trend over a period of time.

According to Ferdinand de Saussure, there are two different approaches to diachronic studies which include a retrospective approach that is concerned with reconstruction of ancient languages, and a forward-looking perspective that goes in the opposite direction and follows the course of time (Saussure, 1916, p. 89 and 211). That is, diachronic studies may concern itself with how ancient languages are renovated and a progressive perspective which looks at changes within the features of a language over a period of time. This study is concerned with the forward-looking perspective. Besides, though this study is interested in language change, it specifically looks at grammatical change for a specific reason. Saussure thought that grammar is resistant to change unlike sound. Again, he also mentioned that one of the objects of study in diachronic linguistics is the study of “historical phonetics and grammar in its entirety” (p.139). The study also believes that language change in all occasions has a point where it begins.

After Saussure, Sapir (1921) also renewed an interest in diachronic studies as he introduced the concept of drift in language. With this theory of drift, Sapir claimed that languages move

down in time in a current of their own making (p. 150). Sapir notes that an examination of individual speakers or writers in a language will reveal countless differences in detail, namely in choice of words, sentence structure, features such as rate of speech, tone, and stress, and differences in the pronunciation of particular vowels, consonants and combinations of the two. This is probably because as Sapir has said, specifically the choice of words, sentence structure, features such as rate of speech, tone, and stress, and differences in the pronunciation of particular vowels, consonants reveal countless differences over a period of time. It is likely that looking at the newspaper editorial language from 1957 to 2018, the difference in these countless spectacles may occur.

### **2.3.2 External factors of language change**

External factors are thought to be contact between speakers of different languages or dialects. Contact between people who speak different languages necessitates significant bilingualism; as a result, Weinreich (1953) emphasized the importance of bilingual speakers as the centre of language contact. Language change has previously been linked to a confusing array of reasons spanning nearly every area of human life, including structural, social, mental, and environmental aspects. For example, Mesthrie and Leap (2000, p. 255) stated that language change can be triggered by a multitude of causes, and no single set of factors can be used to predict the result of language contact scenarios. They categorize the primary external factors of linguistic change into four groups:

- i. economic factors like modernisation, industrialisation, and urbanisation;
- ii. demographic factors like the proportion of speakers of the dominated language compared to speakers of the dominant language;
- iii. institutional support like the use of a minority, or potentially threatened, language in education, religion, the media, and government; and

iv. social and political status.

One worthy observation is that these factors reflect the corresponding changes in the use of language over a period of time. As a result, there is a tendency in the literature to discuss them under the external factors of language. That is, the language takes on features of its new sociolinguistic environment (Kachru, 2006; Schneider, 2007) cited in Frimpong (2015).

According to Wardhaugh (2010, p. 23), from a sociolinguistic perspective, linguistic variation is frequently described as a "function of external factors, such as sex, age, style, register, and social class" (Antilla, 2002, p. 206). It means, factors other than linguistic/outside the language system, e.g., sex/gender social status may trigger/cause language change. For instance, Grosjean (1982) conducted research on monolingual immigrant families who came to the United States from various parts of the world for various reasons. The study identified the factors that influenced language change. Educational policy, American nationalism, assimilation policy, language usage, and government policy were among the key reasons. Fasold (1984) also found that migration, industrialization, and economic developments, as well as medium of teaching, political pressure, and urbanization, are all factors that lead to language change. This phenomenon is likely going to occur in the language that was used to write newspaper editorials for every long time.

External causes are linked to various influences, including migrations, colonialism, conquests, and technological advancements, as well as sociological, historical, societal, political, religious, and economic factors, all of which lead to language contact. These contacts, according to Murray (1997) and Finegan, (2007), happen specifically, when speakers develop new linguistic forms through mixing some of the grammatical structures as well as certain

linguistic components in order to communicate in new circumstances. It must be stressed that every natural language changes and the change invariably affects every level of language use in the socio-cultural and socio-political context of a speech community.

Furthermore, Michael (2015, p. 484) stated that, contextually, the change in external factors of language is driven in some two major ways. The very first instance is that the form of social groupings can influence how variants spread. Therefore, the change in language features can be observed as a process of socio-interaction that occurs when some element of communicative practice is transmitted through socially structured networks. For example, in this world, it is very common for people to differ in terms of their position, status, power, educational qualifications, owners of wealthy possessions, and capability. Therefore, people from these classes can be identified by variations or changes in their speech patterns and linguistic traits. Thus, a clear distinction could be seen in the use of grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary by these people (Rahman, 2014). That is, variations at the level of grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary arise especially when a specific language moves and picks new features.

The second one, according to Michael (2015, p. 484), is that there are some cultural and social factors that may help particular variations spread at the expense of others in specific settings, resulting in language change. For example, this is an attempt to offer a broad picture of how language interacts with its environment, or more specifically, how an actual linguistic structure is changed, and influenced by numerous elements of the human environment. What this means is that social and cultural factors like people's ideologies can result in language change. Here, the focus will be on the changes on the actual grammatical structures. However, Labov (1972, p. 2) notes that language change happens when members of a speech community accept and normalize linguistic item. Based on this, one may say that language change arises when

speakers try to admit and regularize the use of certain linguistic features such as sounds, vocabulary, syntax or grammar and semantics.

Another external factor of language change is borrowing. For instance, Aitchison (2001) conceived borrowing as one of the factors of language change. This means that speakers use loan words in order to communicate effectively and this results to variations in the use of some linguistic units. Borrowing from the language of another people is one of the most common reasons by which language needs to make a reference to objects that are unfamiliar to those who use the language. For instance, the English language did not adopt the Italian word *pizza* until the native English speakers did. Similarly, the term "glasnost," which describes a Soviet approach to transparency and candor in political life that emerged after Gorbachev's presidency and represented a concept foreign to English-speaking society, was also taken from Russian (Aitchison, 2001, p. 31). This suggests that people adopt the use of different linguistic choices from other people's language.

This suggests that people adopt the use of different linguistic choices from other people's language. This borrowing process is closely linked to features of bilingualism, such as code-switching and language interference, where bilingual speakers frequently alternate between languages and transfer elements from one language to another (Poplack, 1980). As bilingual individuals navigate their linguistic environments, they often borrow words to fill lexical gaps or express specific concepts, further illustrating the dynamic and adaptive nature of bilingualism (Weinreich, 1953; Grosjean, 1989). Thus, borrowing is not only a reflection of language change but also a fundamental feature of bilingualism, demonstrating how languages evolve through contact and interaction.

Consequently, Clyne (2003) extended this information and said that language change is the product of pre-migration and post-migration elements that connect different civilizations together. What makes the discussion relevant to this work is that the writers are talking about language borrowing which may not have a connection to this study, but this study is concerned with a diachronic study so it appears that some items have been borrowed.

Besides societal needs, the functional view of language may be altered by the users. For instance, speakers of a language may coin new words every day in order to meet their required needs in the society. This shows that the structure of a language may be affected in every situation. Mey (1993, p. 132) observed that “through the use of linguistic choices, languages change to adopt new concepts”. Ayto (1999) also extended the view by Mey (1993) and said that different new words have become widely used in English in recent decades to enhance communication. In the course of time, Sekyi-Baidoo (2019, p. 387) also widened this information and opined that “drastic positive or negative changes...can bring about corresponding changes in the use of words for naming”. What this means is that change occurs when words are used for naming.

It is important to note from the above discussion that new words are formed to meet human desires. Applying this to the use of language in the newspaper editorial, what this means is that over the years it is possible that the language used to write editorials from 1957 will reveal the use of new linguistic features that will not be the same features that will be used in say 2018. This is possible because Ayto (1999), Mey (1993), and Sekyi-Baidoo (2019) have argued that new words emerge for specific purpose of communication. This is because words have emerged in Ghanaian English due to the interplay of historical, cultural, and social influences. The colonial history introduced English, which blended with the country's numerous

indigenous languages, resulting in a unique linguistic hybrid. Local languages contributed loanwords and idioms, reflecting Ghanaian culture and experiences. Sociocultural factors, such as traditional practices, urbanization, and contemporary realities, further shaped this evolution. The media, education system, and widespread practice of code-switching between English and local languages facilitated the incorporation and innovation of new terms, making Ghanaian English a vibrant and dynamic variant of the language. What this means is that over the years this possibility existed that the language which was used to write newspaper editorials in 1957 will reveal some loaned linguistic features which will not be the same language that will be used in 2018.

#### **2.4 Grammatical change**

Most studies on grammatical change have concentrated on how much words, sounds, and grammatical structures have changed over time (Popescu & Strapparava, 2013; Cook & Stevenson, 2010). These approaches share a focus on discourse, describing how new grammatical constructions and/or functions emerge or change from natural communicative situations (Biber & Gray, 2011). It is interesting to note that certain grammatical structures of the English language have gone through some changes. For example, Leech et al. (2009) draw attention to the changes in the use of words such as the transition from *postman/postmen* to *walkman/walkmans*. This means words inflect to different forms over time. The implication is that over the years the language which was used to write editorials has changed and it will not be the same in 2018 as it were in 1957. This is possible because Leech et al. (2009) has said, words change or inflect.

Leech et al. (2009) observed a significant decline in modal verb usage, highlighting a trend where these verbs are being increasingly replaced by quasi-modal verbs. What this means is

that the use of modal verbs in English language has dropped over a period of time. These writers have dealt with how words inflect from one class to another and also how the use of verbs has declined over time. Applying this to the current study, it means that over the years the language which was used to write editorials in 1957 will probably not be the same language that will be used in 2018.

Besides, nominalization has also been observed as one of the changes in the use of English grammar over time. For example, the rising usage of nominalizations has been cited by scholars like Halliday (1979), Halliday and Martin (1993), and Banks (2008) as the most frequent and defining aspect of contemporary science prose. What this means is that the use of nominalization in science prose has increased. Also, Fang et al. (2006) note that there has been an increase and significant use of nouns and nominalization in academic writing. Another observation by Biber and Gray (2011) revealed that there has been an increasing usage of nominalizations in academic and newspaper writing but they have actually decreased in frequency in novels and drama.

Nominalization has been a preferable choice in academic writing and contemporary science prose per the observation by Halliday (1979), Halliday and Martin (1993), Fang et al. (2006), Banks (2008), and Biber and Gray (2011). Based on this, one may say that nominalization was dominant in in academic writing and contemporary science prose.

Biber and Gray (2011) note some specific patterns of change in the present-day writing which are frequent. They include decrease, difference, fall, increase, rise, and variation. They concluded that it seems likely that new grammatical uses and functions can emerge in any register- spoken or written- associated with the distinctive situational and communicative

characteristics of that register. Possibly, this is because as this one has been said by Biber and Gray (2011) that new grammatical uses and functions can emerge in any register, therefore it is likely that looking at the editorial language over 62 years, this phenomenon is likely going to occur.

The overall changes and predominance of nouns in written registers has also been observed. For instance, Biber and Gray (2011) note a substantial change and increase in the usage of nouns whereas clausal elaboration of noun phrases has remained constant in academic prose and newspaper reportage. On the other hand, Biber and Clark (2002) are of the view that there has been no significant change in the clausal complexity in academic and newspaper editorial writings, and that societal change influences realistic writing. This means that the use of noun phrases has changed but clausal elaboration has remained the same. This information is directly relevant to the study of newspaper editorials.

Furthermore, Polio (2017) claims that fluctuations in the use of grammatical structures are highly associated with written text over time. This observation is relevant since it determines increasing and decreasing trend in the use of specific linguistic structure like sentence types or clausal relations. This is because as Polio (2017) has said fluctuations exist in the use of grammatical structures, therefore there is likelihood that when one observes the editorial language from 1957 up to 2018, these manifestations are likely to occur. This underlies Lu and Ai, (2015) assumption that grammatical structures employed in a text contain some level of changes and depth.

Parkinson & Musgrave (2014) examine the changes in the different ways in which syntactic modification at the noun phrase has increased or decreased and were made complex by using

pre-modifiers (e.g. attributive adjectives) or post-modifiers (prepositional phrases). It was found that there were changes in the use of noun phrase in a written text over a period of time. Based on this it may be stated that written language is not consistently static with regards to the use of linguistic structures. That is, these structures may decrease, increase, or remain constant over a period of time. Thus, there may be overwhelming preference for a particular structure in a specific written register as the uniformity in the distributional patterns (Frimpong, 2015, p. 142)

In addition, Biber (1992) notes that changes in clause subordination is presumed to be a predominant characteristic of formal writing because the task of writing involves time to prepare and revise. For instance, Biber et al. (2011) found that changes in clause subordination is a prominent characteristic in formal academic writing. This change in formal writing takes place as writers develop along an academic path (see Lu & Ai, 2015; Lu & Chen, 2011; Biber, Gray & Poonpon, 2011). A careful quantitative study of changes in the use clause complex (non-simple sentences) would confirm a newspaper editorials preference for specific grammatical features.

What is associated with the way writers choose to maintain or change a particular linguistic structure (clause-level or phrase-level structures) over a period of time includes the communicative demands of a certain task (Ryshina-Pankova, 2015). It seems that the change in particular grammatical choice has a great impact in the way writing narratives are constructed over time. For example, Conrad and Pfeiffer (2011) and Conrad (2017) found that practicing engineers tend to use and maintain a high density of noun groups in their workplace writing when describing locations, amounts and objects. This statement is equally significant.

In support of this claim, one would say this is feasible because as Conrad and Pfeiffer (2011) and Conrad (2017) have said there is maintenance of noun groups.

That is, editors may use complex structures because they use language in all aspects to convey information. Therefore, it may be unsurprising that the confirmations and usage strategies of, say, clause complex, relative clause, nominal clause, elaboratory clause, extension clause and enhancing clause structures used to create complexity in newspaper editorial writing will not change significantly for a period of time. This assumption underlies Frimpong's (2015, p. 79) claim that "since written text involves careful planning and editing, written varieties are generally more linguistically complex over a period of time". It also underlies the observation by Biber and Gray (2011) that the relative clauses have been constantly used over time and this has been primarily restricted to formal writing style.

Another significant claim which was made by Frimpong (2015) was that "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 statement is relevant and directly linked to the study of language change. This is possible because as Frimpong has observed that variability occurs in the use of language.

## **2.5 Non-Native Varieties of English**

Non-native varieties of English, often referred to as World Englishes, have become increasingly recognized as legitimate forms of communication that reflect diverse cultural and social contexts. Kachru (1985) introduced the concept of the "three circles of English," highlighting the distinctions between inner, outer, and expanding circles of English use. This framework illustrates how non-native varieties, particularly those in the outer and expanding

circles, contribute uniquely to the evolution of English. Schneider (2007) further argues that these varieties can lead to linguistic innovations that enrich the English language as a whole, demonstrating the dynamic nature of English across global contexts.

One significant aspect of non-native English varieties is their impact on native varieties, often resulting in a blending of linguistic features. Mufwene (2001) posits that the interactions between native and non-native speakers can lead to structural changes within native varieties. For example, the incorporation of vocabulary and syntax from non-native English can lead to the development of hybrid forms, as seen in Indian English, where local linguistic influences create new expressions and structures. Similarly, Bolton (2006) highlights how Hong Kong English incorporates Cantonese lexical items and structures, showcasing the transformative influence of non-native varieties on traditional English norms.

The phenomenon of language contact plays a crucial role in this evolution, as non-native varieties introduce new phonetic and grammatical features into the language. According to Jenkins (2000), the emergence of English as a lingua franca has led to the normalization of features from non-native varieties in native contexts, challenging traditional notions of "correct" English. For instance, the intonation patterns and vowel sounds found in Nigerian English have begun to influence the way English is spoken in other regions, as speakers adapt to accommodate diverse phonetic influences. This shift highlights the fluidity of English as it adapts to the needs of its users.

Furthermore, the sociolinguistic landscape significantly shapes how non-native varieties contribute to changes in native varieties. Seidlhofer (2011) emphasizes that non-native speakers' use of English in international contexts fosters a shift in perception regarding the ownership of the language. The blending of communicative practices, as observed in Singapore

English, demonstrates how local expressions can infiltrate native varieties, leading to shifts in lexical choices and expressions. Similarly, Crystal (2003) notes that the rise of digital communication has accelerated the spread of non-native features, enabling diverse English users to influence each other more rapidly.

In the context of Ghana, English serves as a vital lingua franca, reflecting the country's complex sociolinguistic landscape. As Amfo (2015) notes, Ghanaian English has evolved to include local idioms, expressions, and phonetic features that distinguish it from other varieties. This integration of local elements not only enriches Ghanaian English but also influences perceptions of standard English within the country. Furthermore, Ofori (2018) emphasizes that the use of Ghanaian English in educational and media contexts facilitates the emergence of a unique linguistic identity, impacting how English is taught and perceived. This blending underscores the dynamic nature of English in Ghana, where local contexts drive linguistic innovation and change.

In conclusion, the literature reveals that non-native varieties of English are not merely derivatives of the native form but rather active agents of linguistic change. The interactions and innovations emerging from these varieties contribute to the rich tapestry of the English language. As demonstrated by Kachru, Mufwene, and Jenkins, the evolving landscape of English is shaped by the unique contributions of non-native speakers, reinforcing the notion that English continues to be a dynamic and evolving language shaped by its global users.

## **2.5 Language change and writing skills of newspaper editorial writers**

Recent studies in newspaper editorial writing recognize the importance of careful planning and developing professional writing skills to match practices in the newspaper industry (Conrad & Pfeiffer, 2011; Wiredu, 2012; Frimpong, 2015). Within the context of print media, effective

writing skills play a vital role in the execution of news events to the general public, in maintaining client satisfaction, and perhaps most importantly, in avoiding any potential liability (Conrad & Pfeiffer, 2011). Accordingly, in their training for the profession, students of journalism are constantly completing a variety of class assignments that require some kind of writing production. Apart from typical academic essays on print media topic, journalism student writing includes very specific writing genres: political reports, environmental report, and parliamentary report at different intervals (Conrad, 2017). This is probable because as it has been said above writers use language to describe events differently, and therefore, it is apparent that this circumstance will occur.

In the literature, linguistic analysis of newspaper editorial writing is common, but recent studies by Wiredu (2012), Afful (2014), Frimpong (2015), Opoku (2015), and Frimpong (2019) have examined several aspects of grammatical writing such as sentence structure, noun phrase structure, and clause complex. While we acknowledge the fact that each of the above aspects are relevant to understand newspaper writing, the present study is concerned with syntactic or grammatical features to extend the scope of changes in grammatical study of a specific register.

Some studies (Wiredu, 2012; Afful, 2014; Frimpong, 2015; Opoku 2015; and Frimpong, 2019), although not exclusively focused on changes in grammar in discourse, looked at the noun phrase (NP) structure and sentence structure of newspaper editorials. These studies provide a relevant methodology and analytical approaches in grammar for this study. Their concept classification of the sentence and the clause are openly relevant to this study in the sense that these provisions of the concept enable the researcher to structure clause for analysis.

This is consistent with a preliminary study by Conrad et al. (2011) who built their classification of the clause as the basic unit of analysis using prepositional phrases, and a “simpler sentence structure” (p. 5). Consider the following examples taken from Conrad’s (2017) study:

- a. simple sentence - no embedding (practitioners)<sup>2</sup>: *the existing bridge is a 9- span timber trestle bridge with a concrete deck.*
- b. complex sentence - embedding (students)<sup>3</sup>: *departures tended to have less pronounced localized peaks than arrivals, **suggesting that departures are slightly less dependent on class time, as well as may account for the varying duration of class times.***

The practitioner’s sentence in example ‘a’ above shows complexity at the phrase level as it can be seen in the underlined section. The noun phrase *bridge* is made complex by adding the pre-modifying phrase *a 9-span timber trestle* and post-modified by the prepositional phrase *with a concrete deck*. In general, practitioners’ writing did not exhibit subordination, which is consistent with previous claims that advanced writers do not rely on clause complexity (Lu & Chen, 2011). A closer look at changes in clause complexity in newspaper editorial writing would probably provide more information about the diversity and range of syntactic structures used by newspaper editorial writers. It can be seen in *b* for example, that a student’s sentence employs both subordination (in bold) and phrasal complexity (underlined).

In an attempt to extend previous research in newspaper editorials, Frimpong (2019) conducted “Cross-dialectal similarity of registers: The case of the sentence across Ghanaian and British newspaper editorials”. In order to determine the parallels or differences in this element of

---

<sup>2</sup> Practitioners in Conrad’s study refer to the civil engineering program graduates who are practicing in the workplace.

<sup>3</sup> Students in Conrad’s study refer to learners or undergraduate students who are still studying at the university.

language use between native and nonnative versions of English, he focused on the use of sentences throughout a specialized corpus of newspaper editorials from Ghanaian and British newspapers. The study showed evidence of sentence types which are generally similarly distributed across newspaper editorials from the two sociocultural contexts, with declarative and complex sentence types being consistently dominant across the two texts (p. 104).

On the contrary, Frimpong (2019) also showed evidence that some variability exists in terms of how much of a particular structural sentence type was realized in a particular newspaper (p. 118). The most relevant results for the present study concern the fact that newspaper editorials used more complex sentence structures, and we want to find out whether truly there are changes in the use of complex sentence structures and the clause complex or clause combining strategies. Earlier research has suggested that expert writers reach a point where they change their discourse to have more phrasal complexity and reduced clauses due to the need to be precise and unambiguous. These findings are also consistent with academic writing research that has shown that phrasal complexity is more common with advanced writers.

In short, these recent studies in newspaper editorials demonstrate the importance of analyzing syntactic complexity in different proficiency levels, under the lens of complex sentences and considering the specific communicative purpose and context in which writing is used. In the case of newspaper editorials, for example, it appears that overall, clausal and sentence complexity are valued by editors. Short and simple sentences seem to be less effective because they avoid expansion, clarification and precision of news presentation. Editors, however, may be aware of the need to expand peoples experience in the nature of integration and importance of developing effective writing skills for future professional practice. Therefore, it will help people see the link between integration of experience and language change. This would guide

people in the study of clause complex and language change. This is how the study is been undertaken and how it will be significant to the Systemic Functional Grammar theory and the study in editorial genre and language change.



## CHAPTER THREE

### THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

#### LANGUAGE, GRAMMAR, SYSTEMIC AND FUNCTION

##### 3.0 Introduction

Grammatical analysis of a text hinges on two principal theories. Pinker (2014, p.192) and Hunter (2013, p. 476) think that “language war operates between these grammatical theories where researchers are introduced to different interpretations of a text which seem to impede one another”. In view of this Pinker (2014, p. 192) perceives that “it is not true that if one kind of grammarian is right, then the other one is wrong”. He argues that these grammarians are only affiliated with different ways of interpreting texts. But this is not the concern of this chapter. The chapter is concerned with selecting a major theory for the study. It is agreed that there are grammatical theories that can be used in the analysis of texts from different perspectives. In this chapter, an attempt is made to justify why Systemic Functional Grammar is the appropriate theory for the analysis in this study.

##### 3.1 Theories of grammar

Principally, there are two basic types of grammatical theories in English (Downing, 2014). These two theories arose nearly independently of one another, and each one has been effective in explaining the features of language from a specific approach. These are grammatical theories that deal with competency or proficiency in the use of language and those that deal with function in the use of language. In other words, they are prescriptive grammar and descriptive grammar. The main difference between these theories is that prescriptive grammar explains how speakers should use language whereas descriptive grammar describes how language is used.

First, the theories that deal with competency or proficiency are the prescriptive or traditional grammars. Some of these theories are Transformational Grammar or Generative Grammar (Chomsky, since 1960s) and its off-shoots-Principles-and-Parameters Framework, Government and Binding Theory, the Minimalist programme. Many of these theories can be used to analyse the ways sentences or clauses are used in a particular text or register as in, say, newspaper editorials. However, this study is not dealing with these types of grammatical theories and the reason is that the study is not looking at how competently or proficiently language has been used in the newspaper editorial register. In other words, the study is not interested in the competent or proficient use of language in the editorials of the newspaper. That is why the study is not dealing with all these theories which are used to account for competence or proficient use of language.

Second, the theories that deal with function are the descriptive grammars. Some of these functional theories include, Functional Grammar by Simon Dik and others (1983), Systemic Functional Grammar by Halliday (1994) followed by Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, 2014), Functional Discourse Grammar (Hengeveld, and Lachlan (2008), Appraisal Theory (Martin and White 2005), Grammatical Sentence Pattern (GSP) Theory (Danes, 1964), Cognitive Grammar Theory (Langacker, 1987, 1991), Robert Van Valin also created the Role and Reference Grammar developed in 1980s, Lexical Functional Grammar by Joan Bresnan and Ronald Kaplan (1970s), and many more.

Among these theories which deal with the function in the use of language, this study is interested in the logical metafunction of Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG) theory. It must be stressed that each of these grammatical theories can be useful in some way for text analysis or grammatical analysis; but this study is focused on SFG as the theory whose process of

analysis is applied in this study. However, the study does not use all the processes outlined in theory. This study uses the methods outlined in the system of *Clause Complexing* (CC). The notion of clause complexing provides a logical means of the analysis of combination of clauses. It involves a method by which SFG analyses clause combinations in specific types of sentences in a text.

### **3.2 Theoretical Framework: Systemic Functional Grammar**

Systemic Functional Grammar was largely developed by M. A. K. Halliday and his followers during the 1960s in the United Kingdom which involves a descriptive approach to language study with a focus on how language functions in relation to its usage in a particular context rather than a formal description of the properties of language.

Functional grammar is a system of language that analyses the structure of language and describes the meaning of the language use based on the structure and wording or a meaning-making resource. According to Halliday (1994, p. 17), functional grammar is a theory that organizes the structure and meaning in the use of language. It is important for analyzing the content of language by using the functional grammar theory to make the comprehensiveness in the use of language. Bloor and Bloor (2004, p. 2) claim that “the approach that is likely to be most successful is the one that recognizes structure and meaning as central features of language and that tackles grammar from this point of view”. And the grammar that analyses the structure, meaning and the purpose is functional grammar that concerns with how the language is used.

Functional grammar is very useful for describing and analyzing how the language can be used to write and speak appropriately and effectively. Halliday (1994, p. 29-30) states that “the functional description of the language involves identifying on the one hand all the various

functions that are incorporated into the grammar, and in the other hand all the different configurations by which these functions are defined—that is, all the possible structures which serve to express some meaning in the language”.

SFG is built on previous works of some influential linguists such as Bronislaw Malinowski and J.R. Firth (O’donnell, 2011). This theory holds that a language is a bundle of systems, and that at every level of language, there are options or choices available to a language user. The social function a language performs determines its structure. Because of the concern of SFG with the use of language, greater importance is placed on the choices and the functions of language (Halliday & Matthiessen, 1997).

Systemic Functional Grammar relates grammatical categories to the communicative functions which they serve. Systemic Functional Grammar views language as a resource for making meaning (Halliday, 1994). This shapes the way in which language is used for different purposes and in different situations. It tries to describe language in use and to focus on texts and their contexts. They are concerned not only with the structures of a language but also with how those language structures construct meaning.

As that outlined in SFG, human experiences do not occur in isolation or in single units but occur in clusters to form logical relations; so, it is possible to have two or more experiences described in a single sentence. So, to describe experiences as they occur in logical relations, the grammar should be able to deal with such relations. This is where the SFG approach of analyzing clause combinations is considered useful. This is the *raison d’être* for the choice of SFG, specifically clause complexing for the analysis.

The study considers SFG as very appropriate to use because according to the proponents, the basic concern is to develop analytic categories for language that capture “the relationship between language and social structure” (Halliday & Hasan, 1985, p. 10). This underlies Wiredu’s (2012, p. 80) attestation that “every structure of a language can be weighed solely in connection to its role within the social context, and every linguistic choice has a purpose in a communicative environment” This study supports the claim by Wiredu that every linguistic structure has a role to play because it may relate to one particular social context or another.

In the theory, there is a recognition of different levels of dependency in clause relations - clauses of equal status and clauses of unequal status. This is a tacit realization that ideas in a sentence are arranged in a relationship of dependency. Independent ideas or clauses are expressed in clauses of equal status within a sentence. Conversely, dependent ideas are organized in clauses of unequal status.

Also, SFG sees information or ideas that exist in clauses as logically related (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). According to Wiredu (2012), the objective of SFG analysis is to examine the grammatical choices of a text and determine what relations and functions they are expected to represent. This means that there is a relationship between ideas expressed in the clauses within a sentence that mirrors the logical nature of the ideas in the sentence.

Berry (2005, p. 2) explains SFG as a “social semiotic approach to language” which poses such questions as “what are the social functions of language? How does language fulfil those social functions?” SFG in essence investigates how people employ language in their social activities and how the social world is in turn created with language (Schmitt 2010, p. 63). SFG, thus, studies language in relation to the function it performs and considers such variables as subjects,

context of use, social relationships, and social distance as they relate to language use in their metafunctions. SFG involves an analysis of the grammatical choices made in the text and what functions these choices are meant to serve.

This implies that SFG allows for a grammatical and semantic analysis of a text in relation to the way these language choices help to express communication. The philosophy behind this approach is expressed by Schleppegrell (2012, p. 22) in the following words:

SFG describes linguistic systems and the functions they enable, revealing the ways social actors construe their experience and enact relationships and meanings. From the systemic perspective, language is seen as a network of dynamic open systems from which speakers and writers are constantly selecting as they use language, thereby maintaining or changing the systems over time through their choices.

This implies that languages can be configured as fully open complex systems and sub-systems from which one selects appropriate language forms to communicate ideas. This means that every language structure can be interpreted to relate to its functions in the social context.

### **3.3 The three metafunctions**

Halliday (1994) posits that language is meaningful and based on that he came out with three metafunctions. The philosophy behind these metafunctions is to demonstrate how language works to capture experiences of the world by describing, explaining and interpreting these experiences.

According to Halliday, metafunctions of language are organized around a small number of functional components which correspond to the purposes which underlie all language uses, and all these functions have a systemic relationship with the lexico-grammar of the language. Thus, in Functional Grammar, a language is interpreted as a system of meanings followed by forms through which the meaning can be realized. Systemic Functional Grammar is construed to explain how language is used by applying the functional components called *Metafunctions*, in which all languages are organized around three kinds of meaning. This suggests that linguistic features are simultaneously cropped into a uniform body. These metafunctions are the interpersonal, textual, and ideational (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004).

The *Interpersonal function* – this concerns how language reflects the attitude of the writer. Interpersonal function is concerned with the relationships set up between the speaker and the audience, between the speaker and his message and looks at clauses as exchanges. The interpersonal function of language is concerned with using language to engage with people, to develop and sustain relationships with them, to influence their behavior, or to communicate our own point of view on activities that happen in the world. This function enables us to participate in communicative acts with other people, by taking the roles and to express and understand feelings, attitudes and judgments.

The interpersonal meaning, according to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, p. 106), is viewed as a participatory experience which includes the relation between the speaker and the listener. Wiredu (2012) maintains that this comprises how people communicate and how they convey their sentiments toward one another; in other words, how they interact with other people. However, this metafunction is not the concern of the study because it is not looking at the

relationships that exist between the writer and the reader of a text. In other words, the study is not concerned with the interaction between the writer and the readers of a particular text.

The *Textual function* – this deals with how words and sentences are organized to make a coherent text. The textual function focuses on how a message is structured. At the clause level, it encompasses thematic structure, which consists of theme and rheme, as well as information structure. Beyond the clause, it also involves the concept of cohesion. The textual function deals with how words within a clause are structured or organised and produced into a thematic structure to reveal the linguistic information in a text (Halliday and Matthiessen, 1999, p.7-8). It indicates how texts are coherently arranged to create a texture or consistency. It also indicates how “texts are linked to each other in a discourse” (Opoku, 2015, p. 17).

The textual metafunction, according to Taboada (2004), is the metafunction in which language as a discourse is arranged to function as a full communication. Textual function is used to relate to what is said or written to the real world and to other linguistic events. This involves the use of language to organize the text itself. The textual function is about the verbal world, especially the flow of information in a text, and is concerned with clauses as messages. The theme is the point of departure for the message. It is the element the speaker selects for what he/ she is going to say as in the sentence "*Electric cars significantly reduce greenhouse gas emissions, making them a crucial element in the fight against climate change.*"

In this sentence, "Electric cars" is the theme and point of departure for the message. According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2014), the theme is the starting point that grounds what the speaker is going to say. By choosing "Electric cars" as the theme, the speaker sets the context and focus for the entire message, which is about their role in reducing greenhouse gas

emissions and combating climate change. The rest of the sentence elaborates on this theme, providing the rheme (the rest of the message) that expands on the importance and impact of electric cars in this context.

According to Halliday (1977, p. 181), the textual role of metafunction is "to create a text, to distinguish between language in the abstract and language in use." That is, language becomes relevant to its surroundings through the semantic choices of the textual component. Furthermore, the textual function is concerned with the organization of words, phrases, clauses and sentences in a text. This study does not apply the textual metafunction in the analysis since it is not interested in the thematic organization of the text structure in communication.

The *Ideational* function – this deals with how language is used to represent the world. The ideational function concerns the representation and compilation of experiences of the world. This function is used to organize, understand and express our perceptions of the world and of our own consciousness. At the level of the clause, this is conveyed by the process, the participants involved in the process and associated with circumstances if there are any. The ideational function may consist of two types of subfunctions: the experiential and the logical function (Eggins, 2004). The experiential function deals with clauses as representation whereas the logical function deals with clause combining strategies technically referred to as clause complexing in SFG.

The ideational function of language is “its content function, where human beings capture, compile and conceptualise experiences in life” (Halliday, 2007, p. 183). What this means is that the ideational metafunction helps to represent world conditions and occurrences, as well as the entities, acts, activities, or events that humans are involved to conceptualise the real

world. Halliday (1973, p. 106) opines that “the producers of a text represent their experience of real-world things in language through the ideational function”. The ideational metafunction outlines the techniques used in the text to identify the participants' experiences and/or occurrences, as well as how this representation affects the audience's environment. The ideational metafunction explores how language is used to portray the world in the text, identify the relationships and/or occurrences between the participants and how this presentation affects the world and the experience of the audience.

This actually indicates how language is employed to convey the speaker's or writer's viewpoint and experience of ‘what is going on’ in the world. People translate experience into a certain pattern every time they say or write something that makes sense, and create logical meaning in the process. It must be stressed that people’s choice of words, like their decision of how they pattern those words, contribute to specific meaning.

The experiential system (meaning) is concerned with the “things” that people can talk about to conceptualise the experiential world to themselves, including the inner world of their own consciousness (Halliday, 1971, p. 106). This system deals with how human experiences are described through the use of processes. It is applied or realized through transitivity system where human activities or experiences are captured and described. It represents clauses as representation of experiences.

The transitivity system regards the use of verbal processes to compile and describe human activities. In describing human activities, there are six processes; the material, mental, verbal, existential, relational and behavioural processes. However, this study is not interested in the experiential or transitivity system because it is not interested in the experiences that were

described in the newspaper editorial register. In other words, the study is not going to describe the activities that were compiled in the newspaper editorials. The study hinges on the clause combining strategies which are used in the newspaper editorial text. Therefore, in this study, the logical function has been selected.

### **3.4 The logical metafunction**

This study focuses on a specific aspect of Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG), particularly the logical metafunction, to analyze how clauses are combined in newspaper editorials. It investigates clause complexing, which refers to the strategic packaging of clauses to create logical relationships.

The logical metafunction examines how grammar compiles experiences and conceptualizes our world. It addresses the logical orientation of ideas through interdependency and logico-semantic relations, forming semantic connections among structural units of language, such as coordination and subordination (Halliday, 1971). This is where clause complexing plays a crucial role.

Clause complexing illustrates how language links experiences in a coherent manner. The aim of this study is to explore the strategies used in newspaper editorials and how they contribute to meaning. Logical relations among clause complexes are expressed through various grammatical constructions that enhance understanding and expand ideas.

The study is particularly interested in how grammar has evolved in newspaper editorials over the years, especially concerning clause complexity. It acknowledges that while experiences can

vary, they are logically organized and interpreted in communication. These experiences can be linked, forming logical relationships that result in clause complexes.

In SFG, logical meaning involves the resources that combine grammatical constituents into complexes, demonstrating how clauses compile experiences. Saragih (2008) notes that the logical function occurs within clause complexes, reflecting the ideational meaning derived from clause-combining techniques. This understanding can heighten awareness of grammatical structures and logico-semantic features in editorial writing. By examining the relationships between events, writers can structure information to convey equal or unequal relationships and clarify meanings (Martin, 1995; Opoku, 2015; Taylor, 1996). Writers aim to integrate ideas, providing semantic interpretations based on the type of clause complex chosen.

This study also seeks to explore how human experiences, which evolve over time, are expressed in a specific register. It aims to investigate changes in grammatical usage within the newspaper editorial context, testing the hypothesis that grammatical structures change gradually (Aitchison, 1991). Thus, this research will analyze language changes in the *Daily Graphic* newspaper editorial to understand how clause complexing and the logical metafunction shape meaning within linked clauses.

### **3.5 The clause paradigm as a bigger unit in systemic functional grammar**

In the functional grammar, there is a little existence of word paradigms. But functional grammar shows the clause paradigms as the biggest unit in language structure. Bloor and Bloor (2004, p. 8) opined that “the clause has a special place in expressing meaning because it is at this rank that we can begin to talk about how things exist, how things happen and how people

feel in the world around us”. Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, p. 88) define a clause as a unit in which meanings of three different kinds are combined. Three distinct structures, each expressing one kind of semantic organization, are mapped on to one another to produce a single wording. Therefore, the researcher wants to analyse the relations of clause complexes that reveal logico-semantics in the functional grammar.

The research gives some descriptions about the logico-semantics as the relations of clauses. Gerot and Wignel (1994, p. 82) state that a clause is the biggest grammatical component and the clause complex is two or more clauses that are connected each other within a sentence. Commonly, clauses are divided to be independent or main and dependent or subordinate clauses. Both of them have their distinct function and characteristic in grammar. Gerot and Wignell (1994, p. 83) explain that there are some types of clauses such as independent clause, dependent clause, and embedded and non-embedded clause.

Systemic Functional Grammar applies three aspects of meaning in the clause of language use. They are clause as message, clause as an exchange, and clause as a representation. And then the researcher selects the clause because the clause is a place for paradigm in functional grammar analysis.

According to Halliday and Matthiessen’s idea (2014, p. 430), the term *clause complex* refers to the grammatical and semantic unit formed when two or more clauses are linked by tactic and logico-semantic relations. The clauses are linked to one another by means of some kind of logico-semantic relation to form clause complexes representing sequences of figures (or moves) that are presented as textually related messages. This is integrating of a series of events into a subsequence of figure of narratives in general, including not only fictional stories but

also narrative passages in biographical recounts, news reports and other kinds of text where past experience is construed in terms of a time-line.

Since this study is aimed at examining clause complex in newspaper editorials, the system of clause complexing is considered an ideal tool to study the sentence types, clause types and their internal relationships or the kind of relations these clause complexes release in the newspaper editorials. The initial observation in this study is that the newspaper editorials are packed with complex sentences. In other words, complex information is packed strategically to achieve communicative functions (Frimpong, 2015; Wiredu, 2012). This approach is handled in the theory as a relationship of *taxis* – that is, whether the sentence is made up of clauses in a simple or complex relationships. In addition, there is the relationship involving the semantic content of the ideas in the sentence (Eggins, 2004, p. 255). This method enables us to see how logically connected the ideas in the clause are.

Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, p. 438) explain that “*taxis* are two clauses related as interdependent in a complex which may be treated as being of equal status and unequal status”. In other words, the *taxis system* refers to the number of ideas or clauses which are packed within a clause complex. The *taxis* structure of complexes is relational in nature; they are kind of structure that are called univariate (an iteration of the same functional relationship), to distinguish it from the multivariate (a configuration of different functional relationships) structures. In the *taxis* system, the systemic functional grammar theory recognizes two relations within a clause complex. These are paratactic and hypotactic relations.

- In the paratactic there is a relationship between two or more independent clauses within a sentence...these are referred to as clauses of equal status labelled with an ordinary number (1, 2, 3...) to indicate the number of dependent clauses in the relationship.

- Whereas in the hypotactic clause, the relationship between this clause and that clause is one of dependency and that is why it is hypotactic because there is a relationship between clauses of unequal statuses labelled with Greek letters ( $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ ) to represent the number of dependent relations within a clause complex. This is where integration is achieved.

Meanwhile, Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, p. 438) state there is a wide range of different logico-semantic relations, any of which may hold between a primary and a secondary member of a clause. There are two fundamental relationships such as expansion (it relates phenomena as being of the same order of experience) which consists of elaboration (=), extension (+), enhancement (x) and projection (it relates phenomena of one order of experience (the processes of saying and thinking) to phenomena of a higher order (semiotic phenomena-what people say and think) which consist of locution (‘’) and idea (‘’) as in:

- a. "The professor believes that critical thinking skills are essential for academic success."

In this sentence, "The professor believes" serves as the locution within the projected clause complex. It introduces the mental clause indicating the professor's belief or opinion about critical thinking skills and their importance for academic success.

- b. The professor says that critical thinking skills are essential for academic success.

In this example, "The professor says" serves as the idea within the projected clause complex. It introduces the verbal clause indicating the professor's opinion about critical thinking skills and their importance for academic success.

Halliday (1994) states that expansion involves three types of meanings where the secondary clause enlarges the primary clause by one of three ways. Thompson (1996, p. 200) observed that in expansion, ‘one clause develops on the meaning of another in various ways’. Later,

Mardianto, and Suhadi, (2018) extended this view and said that expansion indicates the relationships between two clauses in a clause complex where the secondary clause expands the primary one. This is where there is a development of a clause from one idea to another to come out with different meanings. In this case, the clause patterns in the sentence become larger or more extensive. The writer enlarges or broadens the information to create some kind of logical meanings.

These two systems enable us to see how the writers rank information in different ways and in terms of their relative significance (Wiredu, 2012). What this means is that ideas of differing importance are linked to each other in a coordinated or subordinated manner. A confirmation of this statement is provided by Frimpong (2015) on the issue of the hierarchical relationship one finds in coordinated and subordinated clauses. This informs people that if one considers the information sense in different clauses, one can identify the degrees of integration or dependency as contained in a clause complex. In SFG, then, information ranking is considered important (Adjei & Opoku, 2017). The position in this study is that rank orders ideas into a useful and a complex structure which logically provides meaningful relationships in the text.

This section on the theory ends that the full details of the specific steps that the study takes in analyzing the sentences in the texts would be discussed in the next chapter, as the work discusses the methodology on how the variables will be measured.

### **3.5 Relating Systemic Functional Grammar and Traditional Grammar theory**

This study is more concerned in the relationship between the clause and the sentence. The study uses SFG framework that says that the grammatical categories end on the clause so the sentence is an abstract thing. From this approach, the sentence does not exist because it is a place holder

since it is not able to describe both written and spoken text. So, what the proponents of SFG talk about is a clause. Therefore, when clauses are combined, they have clause complexes, and when clauses are combined within groups then, they have rank shifting etc (Downing & Locke, 2006; Nguyễn, 2013). They argue further that the clause complex typically involves two processes of clause combination: these are paratactic process and hypotactic process (Frimpong, 2015). This shows that systemic functional grammar develops a number of approaches about the clause.

Thus, the SFG theory describes a clause as the highest grammatical unit on the rank scale. So, when you are analysing clause complex, the theory does not use the term sentence. The theory talks about the combination of clauses as clause complex which involve taxis; paratactic or hypotactic relations and logico-semantic relations. So, when you are looking at clauses in the fact that they are paratactic or hypotactic, what are the strategies writers use in achieving the hypotactic relationship? The hypotactic relation affects the relation between one clause information and the other. The way to achieve the hypotactic relation is to make one clause become deficient or dependent and those relations involve the use of infinitival clause, verbless clause, nominal clause, adverbial clause etc. These are basic terms which the SFG did not consider.

The SFG talks about paratactic to include the use of two or more independent clause relations and hypotactic to include the use of one independent and one or more dependent relations. Halliday did not talk about the use of these terms like infinitival, verbless, nominal, adverbial, but to move from one clause to another involves a deeper relation because going from hypotactic to paratactic is a basic taxis relationship but the deeper ones are also from infinitival,

nominal, adverbial, that-clauses etc. which are also deeper levels of grammatical use. These structures are released by the hypotactic clauses.

However, arguments exist which treat sentences as super clauses forming a hierarchical relationship with its subordinate clause(s) whereas clauses in coordination share a relationship of equivalence (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985, Frimpong, 2015).

This awareness calls for explicitness and elaboration in the use of terms in this study. In the face of this, it will be unsurprising that complex sentences, compound sentences that-clause, wh-clauses, infinitival, nominal, adverbial etc., for example, will be additional terms from the traditional grammarian perspective to enhance the analysis in this work. They are essentially talking about the same thing with regards to the taxis relations. They correspond to integration or dependency relations. So, in this study, when the researcher talks about sentence, complex sentences, compound sentences that-clause, wh-clauses, infinitival, nominal, adverbial etc, then he means dependency in the SFG theory or approach.

### **3.7 Chapter summary**

Chapter three has been dedicated to the theoretical framework underpinning the study. It has established that systemic functional grammar theory characterizes language through function, semantic, contextual as well as semiotic reflections. The argument put forward indicates that systemic functional grammar theory suggests that one can interpret the structures of a language based on the relation and the role they play in the social context. Therefore, the analysis here involves the linguistic choices which were referred to in a text as the role that these decisions were made to fulfill. The study is situated on this theoretical framework because it is believed that language is used to compile experience from one dimension into a different and complex

classificatory process. Therefore, linguistic choices which are made in newspaper editorial texts are carefully made to impact specific considerations in the social context.

In this chapter, it has been explained that grammar and for that matter meaning is influenced by some logical considerations. The systemic functional grammar theory enables us to construe grammar at the clausal strand for determinations of the analysis of texts so that one can make a conceivable, a levelheaded and a useful application about complexity of any text in English language or any language.

The argument suggests that people can analyse a text at the level of the clause, according to the three strands of meaning purposeful oriented in the theory. As it has been discussed in the study about the three metafunctions (ideational, interpersonal, and textual), it is the ideational which is closely linked to this study. The ideational classificatory strategy comprises the logical and experiential, and for the purpose of our study it is the logical which allows us to classify and link experiences and that is why there is the concept of clause complexing. This is where the study has established that the information senses in the clause complexes are classified into equivalent and non-equivalent classificatory processes which then lead to the semantic of clause complexes. This actually provides the relations of parataxis/paratactic (coordination) and hypotaxis/hypotactic (subordination) and logico-semantic in the grammar.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 4.0 Introduction

This chapter explains the research methodologies and procedures that the researcher used to conduct the study. The data for the study covers the editorials from the *Daily Graphic* newspaper in Ghana which were published from 1957 to 2018. The chapter clearly spells out the research design, the source of data, data collection procedure, sampling technique and sample size. The present chapter provides the analytical frame used for the discussion and interpretation of the data.

#### 4.1 Research Design

This study is quantitative because the sentences were counted and then the analysis was done based on the figures which were obtained from the data. The reason is that the researcher wanted to know the frequency of occurrence as indices of how often a particular type of sentence is used and the possible changes which have occurred over a period of time. Thus, the study provides frequency counts and what the frequency counts have determined.

Hittleman and Simon, (1997, p. 31) opined that “quantitative researchers measure variables on a sample of subjects and express the relationship between variables using effect statistics such as correlations, relative frequencies, or differences between means; their focus is to a large extent on the testing of theory”. The quantitative method assists researchers in presenting statistics and data in tables and other visuals to enhance understanding (Biber, 2003; Kwegyir-Afful, 2015). This is because quantitative analysis provides firm count and results to the outcome of the study (Glasow, 2005). What this means is that quantitative analysis gives the exact details from the analysed data. Therefore, the specific type of quantitative approach used

in this study is the descriptive. Nenty (2009) opined that a descriptive study is governed by the following rules: subjects are generally measured once; the intention is to only establish associations between variables; and, the study may include a sample population of hundreds or thousands of subjects to ensure that a valid estimate of a generalized relationship between variables has been obtained. The reason is that the descriptive approach provides a systematic collection of information that requires careful selection of the editions of newspaper editorials from 1957 to 2018 and careful measurement of the frequency and the distribution of the linguistic variables in the texts.

#### **4.2 The Source of Data**

The *Daily Graphic* was chosen as the data source for this study for a variety of reasons. There are several newspapers in Ghana, both public and private newspapers. However, the researcher selected the *Daily Graphic* which had survived since independence. As per the report from the National Media Commission (NMC), 135 newspapers have been registered with the NMC since 2018 (GeoPoll, 2021). The state-owned *Daily Graphic* is the earliest and the most widespread newspaper amongst the other major national newspapers.

Another justification is that this newspaper is held in high esteem among Ghanaians and has a comfortable and a substantial audience or readership. It has been in the media space for over 60 years in disseminating information in Ghana, which makes it an excellent pick for anyone looking for decent information in the country to read on a daily basis. It is important to note that the choice of the *Daily Graphic* would support this study because of the paper's existence for so many years. In Ghana, the *Daily Graphic*, for instance, has undergone semantic widening or extension, hence the average Ghanaian may specifically refer to this paper as *Graphic*

(Zadok, 2020). As a result, many newspaper researches in Ghana seem to start with this newspaper (Abrafi, 2010; Logogye, 2012; Wiredu, 2012; Frimpong, 2015, Opoku, 2015, etc.).

The decision to use this newspaper was based on the fact it that has existed since the 1950s up to date. It has also offered a regular news package for over 60 years in Ghana. This newspaper has survived many democratic and military regimes since the independence of Ghana. This means that it would be convenient to select information from 1957 to 2018 for a study of the changes which have occurred in the choices in grammar in a particular newspaper editorial genre as far as complexity is concerned. Therefore, this newspaper serves as a data for a diachronic study.

Besides, the consistency, expertise, and quality of news delivery by the reporters and editors or journalists of the newspaper have empowered the people of Ghana with knowledge of national issues and have also informed the choice of the *Daily Graphic* for this study. It is assumed that the language used in this newspaper is more formal and standard. This implies that there is accuracy and precision in the use of language to present information.

Again, the *Daily Graphic* has consistently provided editorials in order to shape or influence opinions of the readers. A study of newspaper editorials by Sinclair (1995) cited in Wiredu (2012, p. 75) says an editorial is a piece in a newspaper that expresses the newspaper's opinion on a topic or news item of public significance.

Also, there are a lot of linguistic expressions which are structurally used to present information. This study is undertaken to see the changes in the use of clause complex types in the *Daily Graphic* newspaper editorials. This is because some studies (Wiredu, 2012; Frimpong, 2015,

Opoku, 2015; & Opoku 2015) have found the complex sentence to be dominant in editorial genre in the *Daily Graphic* editorials. The *Daily Graphic* has gone through different phases of newspaper production in Ghana since 1950s up to date. This study is also looking for the changes which have occurred in the newspaper editorial language used over a period of time and it is believed that the *Daily Graphic* spans for over 70 years. This also informed the selection of the *Daily Graphic* for this study.

### **4.3. Sampling Technique and Sample Size**

It was assumed that newspaper editorial texts were largely similar and that selection would be open to any writing that met the criteria for the selection of data. However, in order that one would have a fair representation from across the 12 months of the year, each year for the period of 1957 to 2018 was stratified into 3 trios (three divisions). This resulted to the 36 texts per newspaper and the 2232 texts for the entire data. The stratified purposive sampling technique was used for this study. The benefit of stratified sampling is that it makes it easier to identify and describe "characteristics that are similar or different across the strata or subgroups" insofar as its distinctive narrowing of viewpoint permits a thorough longitudinal analysis (Teddlie & Yu, 2007: 90).

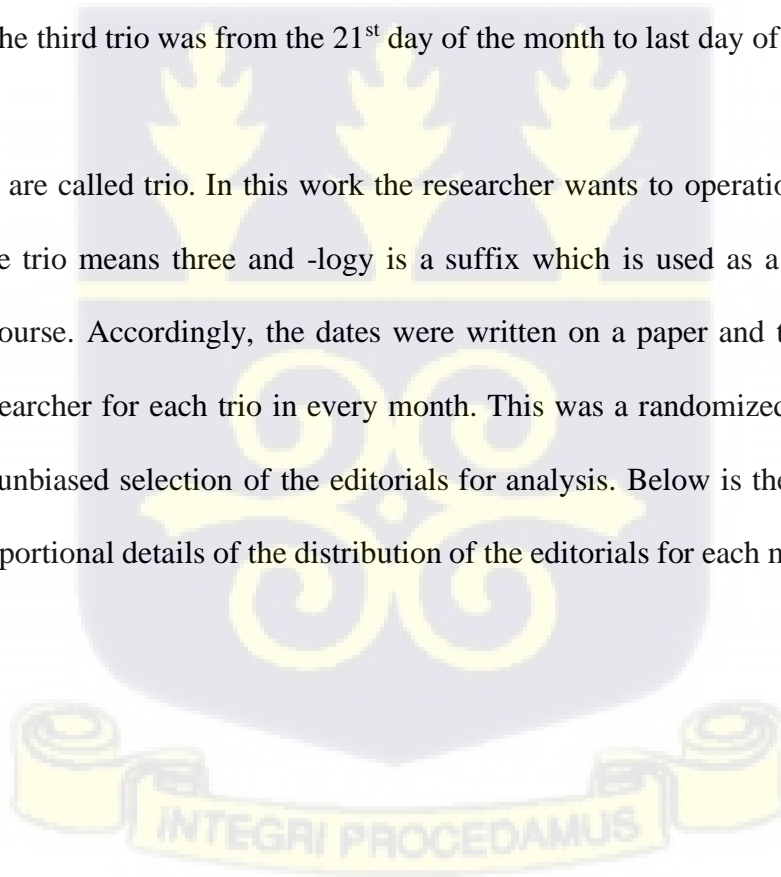
### **4.5 Data building and processing**

There were, in fact, several editorial texts produced during the period of study by the *Daily Graphic* newspaper. The study did not cluster the years because it was observed that the clustering was going to reduce the ability to detect differences. Frimpong (2015, p. 99) in determining how many political editorials were selected in his work, determined the number of editorials produced per month by each of the four newspapers. He argued that each of the four newspapers investigated produced at least 24 editorials some of which qualified as

political editorials. This meant that for each of the newspapers studied by Frimpong (2015), there were at least 288 editorial texts produced within one year. It was out of these 288 per each of the four newspapers that Frimpong selected 36 texts making 144 political editorial texts. Applying this methodology in this study, texts were selected for each year from 1957 to 2018 – a period of 62 years. In each year, 3 editorials were selected from every month. This means that for each year, the researcher selected 36 editorials. This helped to stratify the study period from 1957 – 2018 into three trio in every month (Davies et al. 2018; Codiroli, 2018). The list below is how the months were triangulated:

- a. the first trio was from the 1<sup>st</sup> day of the month to 10<sup>th</sup> day of the month
- b. the second trio was from the 11<sup>th</sup> day of the month to 20<sup>th</sup> day of the month and
- c. the third trio was from the 21<sup>st</sup> day of the month to last day of the month

These divisions are called trio. In this work the researcher wants to operationally call it trio-logy table. Here trio means three and -logy is a suffix which is used as a combining form denoting a discourse. Accordingly, the dates were written on a paper and the selection was done by the researcher for each trio in every month. This was a randomized sampling and it allowed for an unbiased selection of the editorials for analysis. Below is the trio-logy which presents the proportional details of the distribution of the editorials for each month of the year.



**Table 4.1: Trio-logy**

<b>Trio</b>	<b>Trio-logy table</b>		
	<b>Distribution of the Editorials across the Trios</b>		
	<b>Editorials for each Trio per month</b>	<b>Editorials for each trio per year</b>	<b>Editorials for each trio for 62 years</b>
<b>First Trio (1st – 10th of the month)</b>	1	12	744
<b>Second Trio (11th – 20th of the month)</b>	1	12	744
<b>Third Trio (21st – last day of the month)</b>	1	12	744
<b>Total</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>2,232</b>

Since the sample population was too large (from 1957 – 2018), it was not possible to study the entire population (Connor & Wesolowski, 2004). Accordingly, a smaller sample was taken using a stratified random sampling technique. Three (3) editions of newspaper editorials were selected from each month in every year. Therefore, the thirty-six (36) editions selected each year were multiplied by 62 years which equaled to 2,232 newspaper editorials from the African Studies Library and the Balme Library, University of Ghana, Legon.

The selected texts were scanned using Optical Character Recognition (OCR) scanners at the digital section of the Balme Library, University of Ghana, Legon, in order to digitize them for easy analysis. The corpus was thoroughly studied and minor editing was made on the scanned texts to get the clauses properly aligned. After capturing the texts in a digital form, the corpus was stored under appropriate text file format and text filing names. These files were saved as plain text with the appropriate file names in a folder on a laptop ready for the intended analysis. The published editions were in the public domain so there was no need to obtain permission from the Graphic Communication Group Limited before the texts could be gathered for the corpus building.

#### 4.6 Coding of data

One essential component of quantitative research is coding which helps to facilitate the organization and interpretation of the data (Frimpong, 2015). Coding is explained by Benaquisto (2008) as the inductive process of searching for concepts, ideas, themes, and categories that help the researcher to organize and interpret data. The task in this study was to code the clause complexes in the data in order to help the “sorting and retrieval of data” (Benaquisto, 2008, p. 86). Thus, the coding principles employed in this study were those that facilitated both the retrieval of data and easy identification of the original categories coded. In this light, quantitative analysis is seen as a research method for the objective interpretation of the content of text data through systematic (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). The name of *Daily Graphic* Editorial was coded as *EDT*. For the grammatical features, names of categories were blended except in situations where a specific category could be confused with another.

There are seven steps outlined by Kaid (1989) that should be taken into consideration when one analyses a text. These are:

- a. formulating research questions
- b. selecting the sample to be analysed
- c. defining the categories to be applied
- d. outlining the coding process
- e. implementing the coding process
- f. determining trustworthiness or credibility and
- g. analysing the results of the coding process.

Mohammadi et al. (2021) observed that central to doing text analysis is coding, which refers to the process of putting tags, lines, names or labels against the pieces of data. The point of

assigning such codes is to attach meaning to these pieces of data (Boeije, 2002). The use of coding helps to reduce the data into sizeable and meaningful units. The task of this study was to code the linguistic variables explored and employ the codes in tagging the data. One other function of coding is to enable us sort and retrieve the data (Benaquisto et al., 2008).

#### **4.7 Measurement of statistical tests**

Simple statistical frequency and Arithmetic was used because the study aims to see if there are changes in the use of clause complexes. SPSS version 20 was used in the data entry and the entire analysis of data. So, based on that the researcher provided the analysis and interpretation of the data. Tables and line graphs were used to show the dimensions and the results. The researcher also used a manual quantitative grammatical analysis to support the computational findings. Here, features were assigned to the clauses in the texts and this allowed the researcher to distinguish one clause from another. The researcher used Arithmetic mean to establish the average number of clause complex used per an editorial i.e.,  $\frac{\text{total number of clause complex}}{\text{total number of editorials}}$

#### **4.8 Data Analysis Procedure**

The study adopted a multi-staged data analysis procedure in processing the data for analysis. This encompassed linguistic analytical tools such as the *Textalyser*. The interdisciplinary aspect of the study, i.e., linguistics, and media studies, informed the choice of a multi-staged approach for the analysis. The data was analysed based on the research questions to confirm the findings. To determine the taxis (i.e., parataxis and hypotaxis) and logico-semantic (i.e., expansion and projection) the composition of the editorials in the newspapers, the study considered the taxis types of clause complexes in the selected newspaper editorials in Ghana. The study used frequency count to find the percentile distributions of the sentences in order to provide answers to the research questions. The frequency distribution of the kind of

experiences compiled in the print media and the occurrence of each process type and their corresponding percentages were tabulated. So, based on this tabulation, the researcher provided the analysis and interpretation of the data. Tables and line graphs were used to present results. The first level of analysis of the data involved examining the distribution of clause simplex and clause complex types in the data. The second level of analysis was to look at the types of clause complex. This is where the taxis system operates. The constituent of taxis comprises parataxis and hypotaxis.

The third level of analysis was to look at the semantic aspects of the clause complexes. This involved how the clauses were joined through expansion and projection processes. In all these processes, the researcher was interested in the possible changes in language use in the editorials during the period of study. Simple frequency counts were made in order to assess the prevalence of the complex types because the study aims to see if there are changes in the use of clause complexes. The following table lists the linguistic elements that were particularly targeted and analysed in the data.

**Table 4.2: List of linguistic elements**

<b>Taxis/Interdependency Relations</b>		<b>Logico-Semantic Relations</b>	
<b>Parataxis</b>	<b>Hypotaxis</b>	<b>Expansion</b>	<b>Projection</b>
Clauses of equal statuses or relations (compound sentences/clauses)	Clauses of unequal relations (complex, compound complex sentences)	Elaboration Extension Enhancement	Idea Locution

In measuring the ranking clauses in a clause complex within a text, two approaches were done. First, the researcher counted the clause complexes within the data manually to ascertain the overall number of clauses within a clause complex in each editorial. Second, the clause complexes were tested using an online free software utility called *Textalyser* (<http://textalyser.net>) and clause complexity frequency used for the distribution of categories

across a set of two or more texts (Nation and Heatly, 1994). The *Textalyser* was used because it counts the number of words, characters, clause, sentences and syllables. Additionally, the study used Microsoft Word (MS Word) as well to do the counting of the clauses to achieve more reliability. The researcher also employed undergraduate students of English from Catholic University, Fiapre-Sunyani, and Valley View University, Techiman-Campus counted manually to confirm the results given by the *Textalyser* and Microsoft Word (MS Word) count.

The researcher put marks in front of the clauses and closed them at the end of the clause to indicate a paratactic, hypotactic, expansion or projection relations. He then, assigned features to the text and did a search to identify the number of categories within the clause complex relations.

#### **4.9 Validity**

To ensure validity of the results from the analysis, the data was rigorously edited in terms of re-sorting and regrouping of the clause complex processes. It was envisaged that the process of categorization would become very cumbersome in the course of data handling but in such situations, the researcher consulted members of an online mailing list platform which has an assemblage of experts from the Systemic Functional Linguistics community (the Sysfunc) for verification of clauses which were very difficult to classify. This was done to ensure that the results from the analysis were not skewed.

#### **4.10 Summary of chapter**

This chapter has discussed the methods by which the data for the study was compiled. The concepts that guided the selection, of classification of the 2,232 newspaper editorial texts from the *Daily Graphic* newspaper of Ghana were examined. This chapter has outlined the methods

upon which compilation of the data of this study was based. This has involved the principles guiding the selection of the 2,232 newspaper editorial texts from a Ghanaian newspaper. The chapter has equally established methods for analyzing the data. These include quantitative principles of frequency counting underpinning the distribution of attested sentence and clause patterns. What this chapter has accomplished essentially is paving the way for data analysis and interpretation in Chapters Five and Six.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### CLAUSE INTERDEPENDENCY IN THE EDITORIALS

#### 5.0 Introduction

The chapter is developed to investigate the frequency and distributional patterns of the sentences in the newspaper editorials to identify if the grammatical structures of the *Daily Graphic* newspaper editorial genre have changed or remained constant from the period 1957 up to the period 2018. In this chapter, there is a focus on the structural types of clause complexes in the newspaper editorials and the change which has occurred in the period under study. The study holds the assumption that human experiences do not occur in isolation but are tied together. So, it is possible that if one is looking at experiences, one can have three or four or even more experiences which are all linked together to express an idea. The logical metafunction of Systemic Functional Grammar theory works on this notion that it is the process of clause complexing which enables the theory to account for this combination of ideas.

This chapter is geared towards answering Research Questions 1 and 3. That is, in what ways have the clauses in the editorials structurally been connected during the period of study? What are the changes in the grammatical and logical connections of the clauses in the editorials during the period of study?

#### 5.1 Clause distributions and taxis relations in the editorials

Sentences have been observed to be the highest unit of punctuation in English grammar. For instance, Eggins (2004, p. 255) mentioned that “while the sentence is an orthographic unit of written language, the clause complex is a grammatical and semantic unit, and it is a unit that occurs in both spoken and written language.” Later, Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, p. 436) stated that “The sentence is the highest unit of punctuation on the graphological rank scale and

has evolved in the writing system to represent the clause complex as the most extensive domain of grammatical structure.... We will use the term **sentence** to refer only to this highest-ranking graphological unit of punctuation". From these two descriptions, a sentence is marked by a capital letter at the beginning and ends with a punctuation sign at the end. The term "sentence" refers to a prosodic unit where the capitalization and punctuation rules of orthography can help to identify a sentence. However, the logical component defines complex units and construes language as the expression of certain very logical relations (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 310). When a number of clauses are linked together grammatically, we talk of clause complex (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 8). This section shall now investigate how clauses are linked to one another by means of some kind of taxis relation to form clause complex. This study is of the view that the patterns of distribution of the clause complex types offered in the next section are relevant when they are precisely positioned within a specific register.

This underlies Halliday and Matthiessen's (2014, p. 534) claim that "the use of such constructions is important in the creation of written discourse; one of the central use of clause complexity with embedded projections is in the representation of arguments, as in newspaper reports and scientific discourse." For the purpose of this study, it has been argued that clause complexity in the newspaper editorials writing is achieved through the use of multiple clause structures. The section below presents the particular patterns of distribution of the clause types in the text.

### **5.1.1 Clause simplex and clause complex**

By "structural sentence types", this study refers to the number of clauses or ideas which are grammatically packed or compressed within a single clause. A clause could either be clause simplex or clause complex in the writing of newspaper editorials. If the clause has one idea, it

is called *Clause Simplex*. On the other hand, if the clause contains two or more clauses, it is referred to as *Clause Complex*. The study presents below some examples of clause simplex structures used in the newspaper editorials for the study:

- 1) *The new Pension Law made provision for a first, second and optional third tier. [DGE/03/09/2018]*
- 2) *It was to accumulate funds through retirement. [DGE/03/09/2018]*
- 3) *The “Daily Graphic” supports this decision. [DGE/01/22/1958]*
- 4) *Cases of dishonesty are prevalent among school boys. [DGE/01/21/1957]*
- 5) *In Ghana, most of these people have made Ghana their homes. [DGE/01/03/1972]*

Each of the examples above contains only one clause which is referred to as clause simplex. But, the interest of the study is in clauses with more than one idea, here, the study is not going to concern itself with such one-clause structures. Rather, the study is concentrating on clauses in which there are two or more relations - at least one independent relation and one or more dependent relations. This is what in this study, the researcher considers as clause complex per the description by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, p. 8).

As Eggins (2004) explains it, *clause complex* is a term used to describe the grammatical and semantic unit formed by combining two or more clauses that are linked together. Therefore, a clause complex involves how ideas have been structurally combined, integrated or packaged within a single clause. The following are examples of clause complexes from the data under study:

6. */// 1 <sup>initiating clause</sup> A number of traffic lights have been installed at some inter-sections in Accra in recent times //2 <sup>continuing clause</sup> and, therefore, provision should be made to install traffic lights at these inter-sections. ///* [DGE/01/20/1993]

7. */// $\alpha$  primary clause Countries which were once very prosperous are today pale shadows of themselves | $\beta$  secondary clause because the citizens took the peace and stability in those countries for granted. ///* [DGE/01/18/2013]
8. */// $\alpha$  primary clause We also commend the team of volunteers | $\beta$  secondary clause who have dedicated their services to supporting Dr. Abdulai's work since 1989. ///* [DGE/01/20/2012]

Each of the examples above has more than one clause because it contains different clausal relations or integration. Therefore, the interest of the study is in these constructions with more than one clause, so this study examines two or more clause constructions. In other words, the study concerns two or more relations structurally combined- at least one independent relation and one or more dependent relations. Table 5.1 below, accordingly, provides information on clause simplex and clause complex categories in the newspaper editorials year by year for the 62-year period.

**Table 5.1: The distribution of clause simplex and clause complex in the editorials year by year**

Years	Number of Simplex		Number of Complex	
	No.	%	No.	%
1957	14	2.2	621	97.8
1958	32	5.0	627	95.0
1959	18	2.8	641	97.2
1960	27	4.3	614	95.7
1961	32	5.1	594	94.9
1962	25	3.9	615	96.1
1963	26	4.0	627	96.0
1964	31	4.9	623	95.1
1965	26	4.0	636	96.0
1966	19	3.0	644	97.0
1967	29	4.3	641	95.7
1968	37	5.6	624	94.4
1969	33	5.0	637	95.0
1970	19	3.0	643	97.0

<b>1971</b>	43	6.6	630	93.4
<b>1972</b>	29	4.4	636	95.6
<b>1973</b>	39	6.0	629	94.0
<b>1974</b>	39	6.0	631	94.0
<b>1975</b>	43	6.8	620	93.2
<b>1976</b>	31	4.8	638	95.2
<b>1977</b>	27	4.0	641	96.0
<b>1978</b>	41	6.5	615	93.5
<b>1979</b>	34	5.4	631	94.6
<b>1980</b>	37	5.8	620	94.2
<b>1981</b>	43	6.8	622	93.2
<b>1982</b>	12	1.9	646	98.1
<b>1983</b>	25	3.9	637	96.1
<b>1984</b>	36	5.7	632	94.3
<b>1985</b>	15	2.4	645	97.6
<b>1986</b>	19	3.0	649	97.0
<b>1987</b>	27	4.3	635	95.7
<b>1988</b>	37	5.8	624	94.2
<b>1989</b>	33	5.2	635	94.8
<b>1990</b>	41	6.5	622	93.5
<b>1991</b>	23	3.6	647	96.4
<b>1992</b>	31	4.9	637	95.1
<b>1993</b>	37	5.8	625	94.2
<b>1994</b>	34	5.4	632	94.6
<b>1995</b>	19	3.0	644	97.0
<b>1996</b>	21	3.3	640	96.7
<b>1997</b>	39	6.0	632	94.0
<b>1998</b>	29	4.6	636	95.4
<b>1999</b>	15	2.4	642	97.6
<b>2000</b>	38	6.0	621	94.0
<b>2001</b>	36	5.7	624	94.3
<b>2002</b>	32	5.0	633	95.0
<b>2003</b>	25	3.9	644	96.1
<b>2004</b>	12	1.9	653	98.1
<b>2005</b>	27	4.0	642	96.0
<b>2006</b>	17	2.7	646	97.3
<b>2007</b>	31	4.9	624	95.1
<b>2008</b>	31	4.9	633	95.1
<b>2009</b>	31	4.9	639	95.1
<b>2010</b>	28	4.4	631	95.6
<b>2011</b>	25	3.9	635	96.1
<b>2012</b>	23	3.6	641	96.4
<b>2013</b>	17	2.7	646	97.3
<b>2014</b>	21	3.3	644	96.7
<b>2015</b>	19	3.0	648	97.0
<b>2016</b>	17	2.6	651	97.4
<b>2017</b>	13	2.0	653	98.0
<b>2018</b>	13	2.0	645	98.0

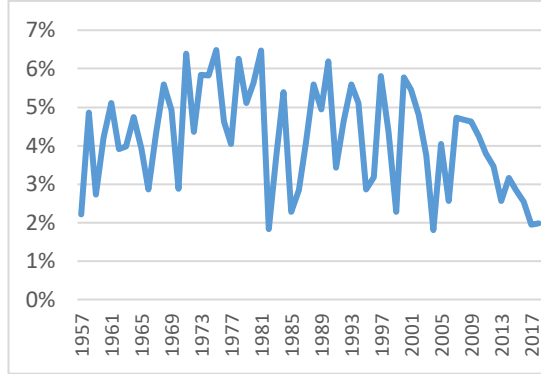
From Table 5.1 above, the findings indicate that, over the period under study, the editorials are overwhelmingly complex. The range for clause complex was between 93.2% and 98.3 %. And the corresponding clause simplex ranged between 1.9% and 6.8%. Indeed, the average percentage point for the complex structures throughout the whole 62-year period is 94.19%. Statistically, the average for the entire clause complex is 17.6 ie  $\frac{\text{total number of clause complex}}{\text{total number of editorials}}$   $= \frac{39,313}{2232} = 17.6$  with an average range of 0.5. This implies that nearly 17 clause complexes are used per editorial. That is, editorials are made more of clause complex. More so, the range which is 0.5 indicates clearly that there was no significant difference.

Therefore, in overall terms, the language of the newspaper editorial genre has not changed markedly over the years. That is, from 1957 (97.8%) to 2018 (98.0), there is no significant change in the fact that the language of the newspaper editorial genre is overwhelmingly complex. This implies that the non-simplex types of clauses are dominant in newspaper editorial.

Also, it must be stated that there was a converse relation between the simplex and the complex types of clauses in the newspaper editorials. Therefore, the pattern of the distribution of clauses in the newspaper editorials assumed a zigzag pattern. This is presented in the line graph below:

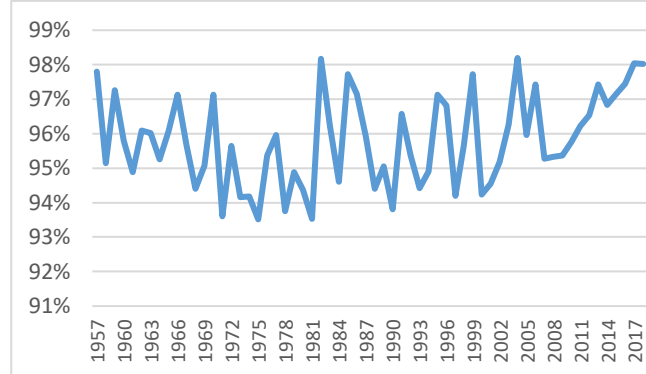


**Fig 5.1: Clause Simplex**



*Figure 5.1: Clause Simplex*

**Fig. 5.2: Clause Complex**



*Figure 5.2: Clause Complex*

From the figures above, the pattern of distribution of clause simplex and clause complex has been completely zigzag. Figures 1 and 2 show the patterns of rise and fall. That is, within the highest and the lowest points, there is no consistent pattern in the complex choices made. There is variation in terms of the depth of complexity. But, regarding the issue of a change in pattern over the years in the level of complexity, there is not much change.

It must be pointed out that, given the fact that the clause simplex types hardly occur in the editorials of the period, the study intends to concentrate only on the clause complex types in the following discussion. From Table 5.1, it was observed that the occurrence of this type of clause complex has a range between 1.9% and 6.5%, which was quite significantly low.

The figures above present the rise and fall pattern or the zigzag nature of clause simplex and clause complex types. This can be illustrated from 1957, when the figure for complex was 97.8%, it fell to 95.0% in 1958, then, it rose again to 97.0% in 1959, then it fell 1960, 1971, 1978, 1990 and in 1999 when it rose. It then went up in 2004, and dropped in 2005. It went up once again in 2006 and dropped in 2007, 2008, 2009 and in 2017, 2018 the figures went up marginally. This has been the prevailing pattern in the distribution of complex types in the editorials during the period of study.

Based on the figures presented above, the researcher can conclude that there were no significant changes in the language choices in the clause simplex and clause complex between 1957 and 2018. The average percentage figures of the information given above are illustrated below:

**Table 5.2: Clause simplex and Clause complex**

Years	Clause simplex	Clause complex
1957 – 1966	3.9%	96.1%
1967 – 1976	5.3%	94.6%
1977 – 1986	4.5%	95.5%
1987 – 1996	4.8%	95.2%
1997 – 2006	4.2%	95.8%
2007 – 2016	3.8%	96.2%
2017 – 2018	2%	98%

The average score for the simplex type from 1957 to 2018, accordingly, was 4.1%. As it can be seen from the figures above, there was a rise from the first set from 3.9% to 5.3% (between 1957 and 1976). Then, there was a fall which remained unchanged from 1977 – 2018. Also, the average score for the clause complex was 95.9%. As noticed from the above figures, there was a decline from the first set from 96.1% to 94.6% (i.e., between 1957 and 1976). Then, there was a gradual increase from 95.5% to 98%.

At this stage, it must be pointed out that the study would not discuss the picture for the clause simplex because, as it has been said earlier, the figures represent a converse picture of the clause complex types. Whatever the researcher has stated about the clause complex applies in the opposite direction to the clause simplex.

## 5.2 The clause complex

The study supports the claim by (Wiredu, 2012; Frimpong, 2015; & Opoku, 2015). They share a similar view that the newspaper editorial is complex. The results in the earlier discussions indicated that, even within the complexity, there was a rise – fall pattern in the internal distribution of clause complexes in the editorials. From 1957, the percentage score for clause complex was 97% and it fell to 95% in 1958; then it rose again to 97% in 1959, then it fell again to 95%. It fell further to 94% in 1961; then, it rose again to 96% in 1962 and remained the same in 1963. The lowest fall of 93% occurred in 1971, 1981, 1990. This was the prevailing pattern that has been established throughout the period.

In spite of the fact that there was overwhelming complexity in the choice of clause complex, there were degrees of complexity. For instance, the researcher noticed a sharp fall in 1958, 1960, 1961, 1964, 1967, 1968 and 1971. Then, it rose 1972 to 95%. It remained the same in 1973 and 1974. Then, it fell to the lowest in 1975 only to rise again in 1976. In some cases, it was observed that the variation was not as severe. For example, from 1967 up to 1981, the changes were very slight because they range from 95% to 94%; then there was a rise to 97% in 1966, then it fell to 95% from 1967 with consistent rise and fall up to 1981. So, one can see that, from 1967 coming up to 1974, it started falling then it rose a bit, then it started falling, then it rose again from 1982.

Also, there were some instances where the change was clearly noticeable. For example, from a high of 98% in 1982, it came down to 96% in 1983; then, it fell further to 94% in 1984. Suddenly, there was a rise to 97% in 1985 and it remained the same in 1986, and, then rose again in 1995, 1999, 2004, 2006, 2013, 2015, 2016, 2017 and 2018.

Again, there were some periods during which, there was no change. These can be found in the following periods: 1962 and 1963, 1979 and 1980, 1985 and 1986, 2000 and 2001, from 2008 to 2011, and, finally, 2015 and 2016.

From the findings, it was clear that there has not been any significant change as far as clause complexity was concerned in the newspaper editorial genre. As was stated earlier, the range was between 93.2% and 98.3%. The picture created overall was that there was very little significant variation in the degree of complexity for the period of almost 70 years. This implies that the sentence patterns of editorials have remained constantly complex over this period of time.

### 5.2.1 The Taxis Relations: Paratactic and Hypotactic

The *taxis system* refers to the number of ideas or clauses which are packed within a clause complex. In the *taxis* system, the systemic functional grammar theory recognizes *paratactic* and *hypotactic* patterns. The paratactic pattern involves the linkage between two or more independent clauses. These are clauses of equal statuses. On the other hand, the hypotactic pattern also involves the relation between at least one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses in a sentence. These are clauses of unequal statuses. These *taxis* relations describe the coordinating and subordinating links of clauses in the newspaper editorials. This is where one observes whether clauses in a clause complex have an equivalent or non-equivalent structure. Examples of clauses from the editorials are shown below:

9. *///1 initiating clause The roads there are in terrible conditions //2 continuing clause and there is no access to mobile telephony and the internet. /// [DGE/09/28/2018]*

10.  $\alpha$  *primary clause* *The most dangerous portions are the inter-sections at Anloga Junction and the former Amakom Roundabout,*  $\beta$  *secondary clause* *where vehicles presently criss-cross each other without any effort to ensure or der.* [DGE/06/11/1983]

From the above, (9) is an example of paratactic clause complex, whereas (10) is an example of hypotactic clause complex. In example (9) two independent clauses are combined with the use of coordinating conjunction *and* that makes up a paratactic relation. In clause complex (10) there is one independent clause and one dependent clause structure linked up with a subordinator *where* that makes up a hypotactic relation. An important observation of the newspaper editorials under study confirms the fact that the hypotactic subtypes of clause complex are the preferred forms of clause complex in the editorials. The hypotactic clause complex involves the use of complex dependent relations in the clause complexes of the newspaper editorials. This involves the use of complex subordinate structures to link ideas. Table 5.2 below, for instance, shows the pattern of distribution of the taxis types of clause complex in the newspaper editorials across the years of study.

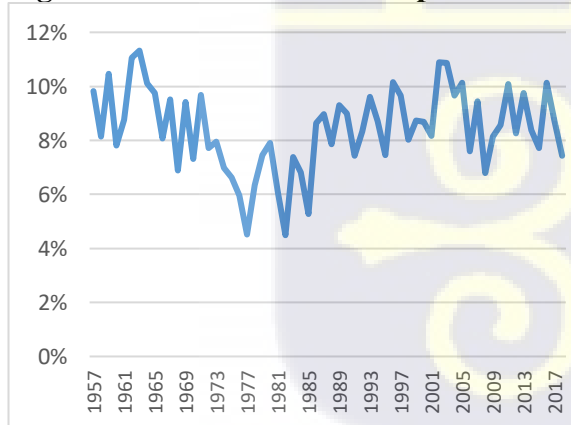
**Table 5:3 Taxis relations in the data year by year**

Years	Parataxis		Hypotaxis	
	No.	%	No.	%
1957	61	9.8	560	90.2
1958	51	8.1	576	91.9
1959	67	10.5	574	89.5
1960	48	7.8	566	92.2
1961	52	8.8	542	91.2
1962	68	11.1	547	88.9
1963	71	11.3	556	88.7
1964	63	10.1	560	89.9
1965	62	9.7	574	90.3
1966	52	8.1	592	91.9
1967	61	9.5	580	90.5
1968	43	6.9	581	93.1
1969	60	9.4	577	90.6
1970	47	7.3	596	92.7

<b>1971</b>	61	9.7	569	90.3
<b>1972</b>	49	7.7	587	92.3
<b>1973</b>	50	7.9	579	92.1
<b>1974</b>	44	7.0	587	93.0
<b>1975</b>	41	6.6	579	93.4
<b>1976</b>	38	6.0	600	94.0
<b>1977</b>	29	4.5	612	95.5
<b>1978</b>	39	6.3	576	93.7
<b>1979</b>	47	7.4	584	92.6
<b>1980</b>	49	7.9	571	92.1
<b>1981</b>	38	6.1	584	93.9
<b>1982</b>	29	4.5	617	95.5
<b>1983</b>	47	7.4	590	92.6
<b>1984</b>	43	6.8	589	93.2
<b>1985</b>	34	5.3	611	94.7
<b>1986</b>	56	8.6	593	91.4
<b>1987</b>	57	9.0	578	91.0
<b>1988</b>	49	7.9	575	92.1
<b>1989</b>	59	9.3	576	90.7
<b>1990</b>	56	9.0	566	91.0
<b>1991</b>	48	7.4	599	92.6
<b>1992</b>	53	8.3	584	91.7
<b>1993</b>	62	9.9	583	93.3
<b>1994</b>	55	8.7	577	91.3
<b>1995</b>	48	7.5	596	92.5
<b>1996</b>	65	10.2	575	89.8
<b>1997</b>	61	9.7	571	90.3
<b>1998</b>	51	8.0	585	92.0
<b>1999</b>	56	8.7	586	91.3
<b>2000</b>	54	8.7	567	91.3
<b>2001</b>	51	8.2	573	91.8
<b>2002</b>	69	10.9	564	89.1
<b>2003</b>	70	10.9	574	89.1
<b>2004</b>	63	9.6	590	90.4
<b>2005</b>	65	10.1	577	89.9
<b>2006</b>	49	7.6	597	92.4
<b>2007</b>	59	9.5	565	90.5
<b>2008</b>	43	6.8	590	93.2
<b>2009</b>	52	8.1	587	91.9
<b>2010</b>	54	8.6	577	91.4
<b>2011</b>	64	10.1	571	89.9
<b>2012</b>	53	8.3	588	91.7
<b>2013</b>	63	9.8	583	90.2
<b>2014</b>	54	8.4	590	91.6
<b>2015</b>	50	7.7	598	92.3
<b>2016</b>	66	10.1	585	89.9
<b>2017</b>	57	8.7	596	91.3
<b>2018</b>	48	7.4	597	92.6

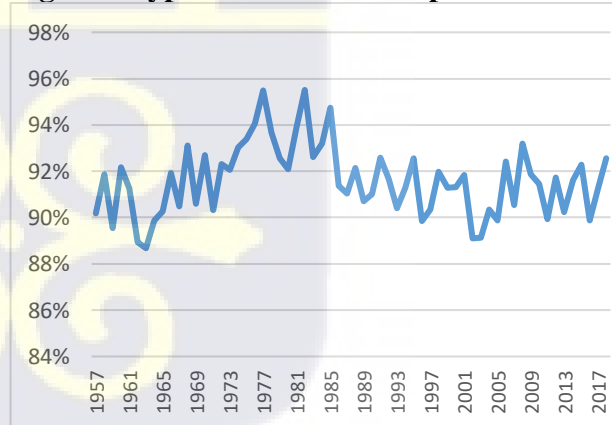
The percentage scores confirmed that the hypotactic clause complexes were used more frequently than the paratactic clause complexes during the period. The range was between 88.7% and 95.5%. This was a confirmation of what other studies have noted - that hypotactic, non-simple sentences dominate editorials (Wiredu, 2012; Frimpong, 2015; & Opoku, 2015). The results in Table 5.2 below showed that the clause complex patterns were consistently hypotactic, without any significant change in the complex nature of the clause complex structures used in the newspaper editorials throughout the period. In other words, the hypotactic clause complex has a more predominant occurrence in the newspaper editorials (year in year out) than the paratactic clause complex type - an average of 88.75% for the hypotactic clause complex occurrence as against 11.25% for the paratactic clause complex forms. There was not much notable change in the grammar of the newspaper editorials genre as far as the use of hypotactic and paratactic clause complex types of taxis relation is concerned. This scenario is presented in the graph below:

**Fig 5.3: Paratactic clause complex**



*Figure 3: Paratactic clauses complexes*

**Fig. 5.4: hypotactic clause complex**



*Figure 4: Hypotactic clause complexes*

Just as it was noted in Figures 1 & 2, one could attest that the trend showed a rise-and-fall pattern. The first 20 years (1957 – 1976), for instance, it was realized that there was no consistent pattern. There was constant fluctuation in the patterning. The percentage rise was quite frequently followed by a percentage fall. For example, from 1973 (92.3%), there was a

gradual rise of 1% each year up to 1977 (95.5%). But, from 1960 (92%), there was a gradual decline up to 1965 (90.3%). Accordingly, it was observed that the internal distribution of hypotactic clauses did not show any drastic change over the years. This scenario is captured in the averaged percentage figures below:

**Table 5.4: Paratactic and Hypotactic**

<b>Years</b>	<b>Paratactic</b>	<b>Hypotactic</b>
1957 – 1966	9.5%	90.5%
1967 – 1976	7.8%	92.2%
1977 – 1986	6.5%	93.5%
1987 – 1996	8.7%	91.3%
1997 – 2006	9.2%	90.8%
2007 – 2016	8.7%	91.3%
2017 – 2018	8.1%	91.9%

The impression this information gives is that there was a decline in the paratactic relation in the period 1957 up to the period 1986. Then, began a gradual rise from the period 1987 up to the period 2006, then there began a fall from the period 2007 up to the period 2018. Also, there was a gradual increase in the hypotactic relation from the period 1957 up to the period of 1986, then there began a gradual fall from 1987 up to the period of 2006, then there was a gradual rise from the period 2007 up to the period of 2018. This was the true reflection of the converse nature of the distribution of paratactic and hypotactic clause complexes.

At this stage, it must be pointed out that this work could not discuss the picture for the paratactic because, as it has been said earlier, their figures represent a converse picture of the hypotactic

clause complex. Whatever has been stated about the hypotactic clause applies in the opposite direction to the paratactic. For, where there was a rise in the paratactic, it signified a fall in the hypotactic.

### 5.2. 3: The patterns of hypotactic structures in the Editorials

It has been established that the hypotactic clause complex was the most dominant in the data. The term *hypotaxis* refers to a situation where there is a dependent relationship amongst clauses within a sentence (Kurniasy, 2016). According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), when clauses are related hypotactically, there is a primary clause which is dominant (independent clause) and the secondary clause which is dependent. The combination of these types of clauses brings forth complexity in a text.

The data showed that there were different levels of hypotactic clause complexity. This ranged from, at least, one to six or more dependent clauses per clause complex. The hypotactic relationship was found in the independent and dependent clause relations. First, these involve one dependent and one or more dependent clause complex relations. Second, they also involve at least, two independent and one or more dependent clause complex relations.

The following examples are one dependent and one or more dependent clause complex relations type:

11. *|||  $\alpha$  primary clause Countries which were once very prosperous are today pale shadows of themselves  $\beta$  secondary clause because the citizens took the peace and stability in those countries for granted. ||| [DGE/18/01/2013]*
12. *|||  $\alpha$  primary clause Consumers have always petitioned the Public Utilities Regulatory commission (PURC) against upward adjustments in tariffs  $\beta$  secondary clause because they*

*offer poor services, ||a secondary clause but the utility companies have always countered any such petition. ||| [DGE/21/01/2011]*

The clause complex (11) is an example of the complex sentence type, whereas (12) is an example of compound-complex type. In example (11), there are two clauses involved-one independent clause and the other is a dependent clause joined by a subordinator *because* that makes it a complex sentence. In clause complex (12) there are three clauses involved-two are independent clauses and one is a dependent clause joined by subordinator *because* and coordinator *but* respectively. It was observed that the newspaper editorials contained a lot of one independent and one or more dependent clause relations and two independent and one or more dependent clause complex relations. However, the one independent and one or more dependent clause relations was the preferred choice and this served as the pivot to the study. The table 5.5 below presents the distribution of one independent and one or more dependent clause relations and the two independent and one or more dependent clause complex relations which are the subtypes of hypotactic clause complexes.

**Table 5:5 the different types of hypotactic clauses which are dominant year by year**

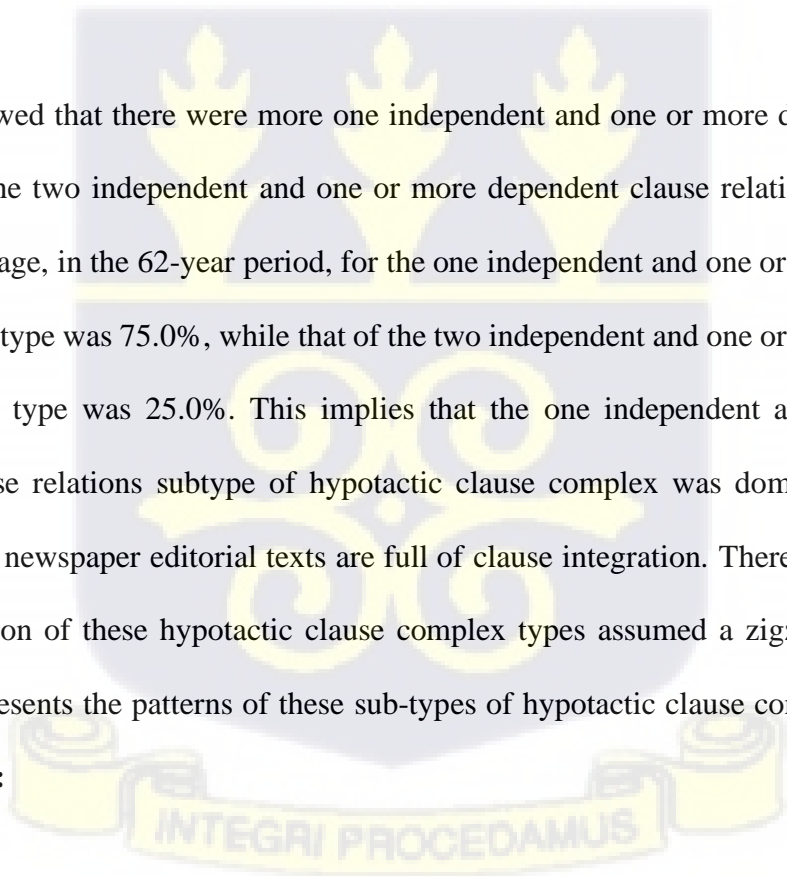
Years	Number of hypotactic clauses which are dominant year by year			
	One independent and one or more dependent clause relations		Two dependent and one or more dependent clause relations	
	No.	%	No.	%
<b>1957</b>	450	80.4	110	19.6
<b>1958</b>	476	82.6	100	17.4
<b>1959</b>	455	79.3	119	20.7
<b>1960</b>	457	80.7	109	19.3
<b>1961</b>	478	88.2	64	11.8
<b>1962</b>	435	79.5	112	20.5
<b>1963</b>	426	76.6	130	23.4
<b>1964</b>	398	71.1	162	28.9
<b>1965</b>	356	62.0	218	38.0
<b>1966</b>	452	76.4	140	23.6
<b>1967</b>	366	63.1	214	36.9

1968	458	78.8	123	21.2
1969	399	69.2	178	30.8
1970	453	76.0	143	24.0
1971	432	75.9	137	24.1
1972	413	78.8	111	21.2
1973	485	83.8	94	16.2
1974	459	78.2	128	21.8
1975	412	71.2	167	28.8
1976	467	77.8	133	22.2
1977	345	56.4	267	43.6
1978	358	62.2	218	37.8
1979	450	77.1	134	22.9
1980	389	68.1	182	31.9
1981	462	79.1	122	20.9
1982	390	63.2	227	36.8
1983	378	64.1	212	35.9
1984	452	76.7	137	23.3
1985	434	71.0	177	29.0
1986	421	71.0	172	29.0
1987	386	66.8	192	33.2
1988	453	78.8	122	21.2
1989	431	74.8	145	25.2
1990	476	84.1	90	15.9
1991	453	75.6	146	24.4
1992	440	75.3	144	24.7
1993	453	77.7	130	22.3
1994	432	74.9	145	25.1
1995	454	76.2	142	23.8
1996	387	67.3	188	32.7
1997	451	79.0	120	21.0
1998	433	74.0	152	26.0
1999	459	78.3	127	21.7
2000	437	77.1	130	22.9
2001	462	77.3	136	22.7
2002	480	82.5	102	17.5
2003	379	66.0	195	34.0
2004	380	64.4	210	35.6
2005	456	79.0	121	21.0
2006	466	78.1	131	21.9
2007	470	83.2	95	16.8
2008	464	78.6	126	21.4
2009	435	74.1	152	25.9
2010	422	73.1	155	26.9
2011	431	75.5	140	24.5
2012	461	78.4	127	21.6
2013	452	77.5	131	22.5
2014	442	74.9	148	25.1
2015	456	76.3	142	23.7
2016	471	80.5	114	19.5
2017	435	73.0	161	27.0

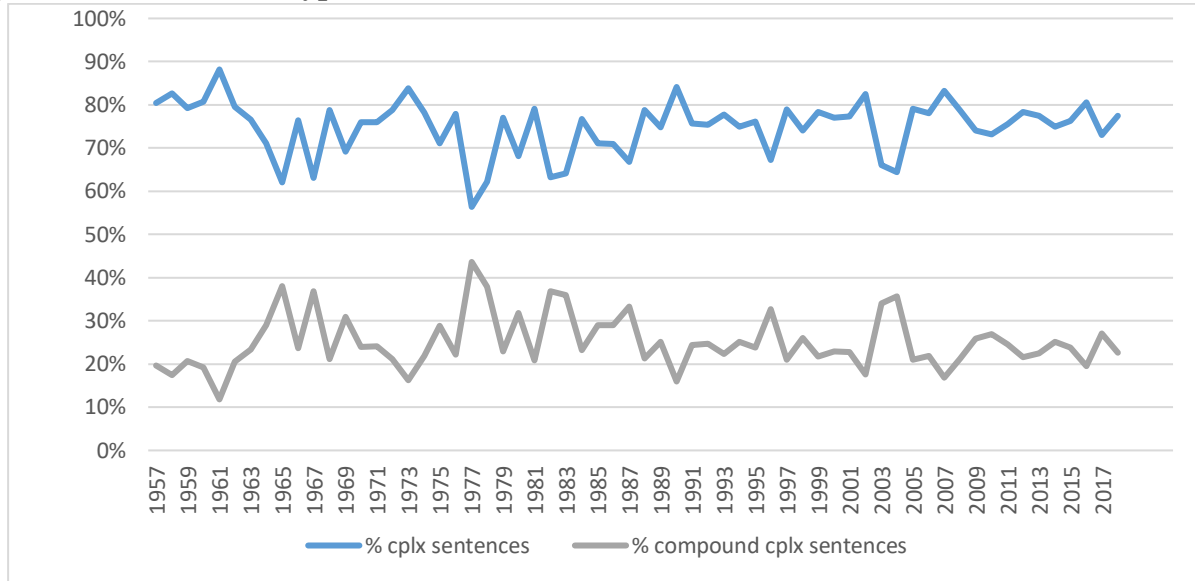
2018	462	77.4	135	22.6
------	-----	------	-----	------

The table above showed that this one independent and one or more dependent clause subtypes of the hypotactic clause complex was the most preferred hypotactic clause complex type. It was clear from Table 5 that one independent and one or more dependent clause relations is the most preferred subtype of hypotactic clause complex in the newspaper editorials. It has the overwhelming majority during the period under study. Statistically, the one independent and one or more dependent clause relations type ranges between the lowest of 56.4% in 1977 and the highest of 88.2% in 1961, whereas the two independent and one or more dependent clause relations types ranges between the lowest of 11.8% in 1961 and the highest of 43.6% in 1977.

The results showed that there were more one independent and one or more dependent clause relations than the two independent and one or more dependent clause relations. The overall average percentage, in the 62-year period, for the one independent and one or more dependent clause relations type was 75.0%, while that of the two independent and one or more dependent clause relations type was 25.0%. This implies that the one independent and one or more dependent clause relations subtype of hypotactic clause complex was dominant. This also implies that the newspaper editorial texts are full of clause integration. Therefore, the pattern of the distribution of these hypotactic clause complex types assumed a zigzag pattern. The figure below presents the patterns of these sub-types of hypotactic clause complex structures in the editorials:



**Fig. 5.5: distribution of hypotactic relations**



The figure above presents the rise and fall pattern or the zigzag nature of the one independent clause and two or more dependent relations and two independent clause and one or more dependent relations of the hypotactic clause complex. The one independent clause and two or more dependent relations experienced rise and fall pattern in the distribution. This can be illustrated from 1957, when the figure was 80.4%, it rose to 82.6% in 1958, then, it rose to 82.6% in 1958, it then fell to 79.3% in 1959. It rose again to 80.7%, in 1960, then it rose again to 88% in 1961, then it fell 1962, 1963, 1964, 1965, and in 1966 when it rose. It then went up in 1979, and dropped in 1980. It went up once again in 1990 and dropped in 1991. It dropped in 2001 and went up in 2002. This has been the prevailing pattern in the distribution of expansion in the editorials during the period of study.

Specifically, the study noted the following:

- i) in 1957, the figure for the expansion was 80.4%. And, in 2018, the figure was 77.4%. Not much difference, was observed.

ii) From 1957 to 2018, the study noted that the figures rose and fell over the ages. There were no consistent patterns of change. However, there were few instances when the study observed steep fluctuations;

a) there was a steep rise in the figures for the following periods:

between 1965 (65.0%) and 1966 (76.4%) – a difference of 11.4%

between 1967 (63.1%) and 1968 (78.8%) – a difference of 15.7%

between 1987 (66.8%) and 1988 (78.8%) – a difference of 12%

between 1996 (67.3%) and 1997 (79.0%) – a difference of 11.7%

between 2004 (64.4%) and 2005 (79.0%) – a difference of 14.6%

b) on the converse side, there was a sudden decline in the figures for the following periods:

between 1964 (71.1%) and 1965 (62.0%) – a difference of 9.1%

between 1966 (76.4%) and 1967 (63.1%) – a difference of 13.3%

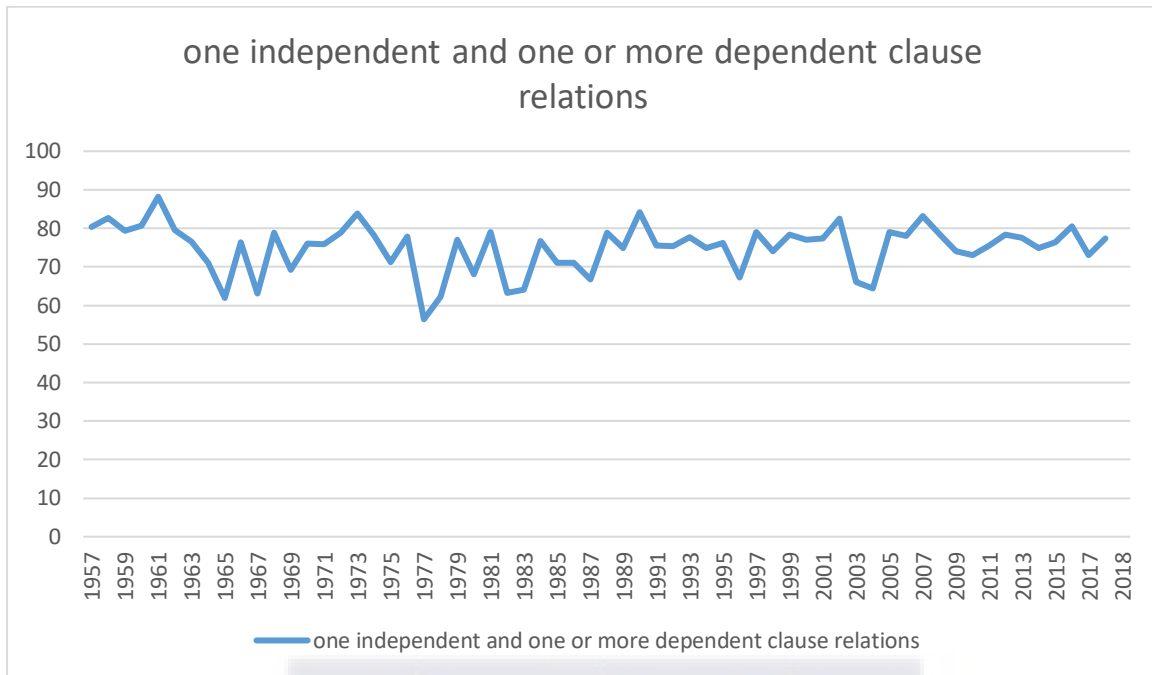
between 1968 (78.8%) and 1969 (69.2%) – a difference of 9.6%

between 1976 (77.8%) and 1977 (56.4%) – a difference of 21.4%

between 1981 (79.1%) and 1982 (63.2%) – difference of 15.9%

These were the only periods when the study noticed such relatively drastic differences. The implication from the information provided in (a & b) above was that, apart from these eleven periods when the language changed considerably, it was clear that only minor changes occurred in the overall pattern. There was not much notable change in the language of the newspaper editorials genre as far as the use of one independent clause and one or dependent clause relations of hypotactic clause complex is concerned. This scenario is presented in the graph below:

**Fig. 5.6: One independent clause and one or more dependent clause relations**



The two independent clauses and one or more dependent relations type also experienced a fall and rise in the editorials. The graph presents a criss-cross pattern of the distribution of the compound-complex sentences. The distributional pattern also revealed some internal variations across the years. This can be demonstrated from 1957, when the figure was 80.4%, was 19.6%, then it fell to 17.4% in 1958, then it rose to 20.7% in 1959, then it fell again to 19.3% in 1960. There was a high rise in 1964, then it fell in 1965, then there was another high rise 1966. Between 1967 and 1975, there was a steady rise and fall because the change was not too much. Then there was another high rise in 1976, then it fell in 1977. There was great fall in the following periods, 1962, 1973, 1989, 2002, and 2007, with varying figures. It also remained the same in the following years, 1957, 1960, and 2016. The percentage was 19%, in 1963, 1965, 1983, 1995, and 2015. However, the percentage rose to 23%, from 1969, 1970, 1990, 1991, and 2011. Again, it rose to 24%, in 1967, 1971, 1973, 1987, 1997, 1998, 2005, 2006, 2008, and 2012 it fell to 21%. This has been the prevailing pattern in the distribution of two

independent and one or more dependent clause complex relations types in the editorials during the period of study.

Specifically, the study observed the following:

iii) in 1957 period of the study, the figure for the expansion was 19.6%. And, when it ended in 2018, the figure was 22.6%. The researcher did not observe much difference.

i. in-between 1957 and 2018, the study noted that the figures rose and fell over the ages. There was no consistent pattern of change. However, there were a few instances when the study observed steep variations;

a) there was a steep rise in the figures for the following periods:

between 1961 (11.8%) and 1962 (20.5%) – a difference of 8.7%

between 1966 (23.6%) and 1967 (36.9%) – a difference of 13.3%

between 1968 (21.2%) and 1969 (30.8%) – a difference of 9.6%

between 1976 (22.2%) and 1977 (43.6%) – a difference of 21.2%

between 1979 (22.9%) and 1980 (31.9%) – a difference of 9%

between 1981 (20.9%) and 1982 (36.8%) – a difference of 15.9%

between 2002 (17.5%) and 2003 (34.0%) – a difference of 16.5%

b) on the converse side, there was a sudden decline in the figures for the following periods:

between 1960 (19.3%) and 1961 (11.8%) – a difference of 7.5%

between 1967 (36.9%) and 1968 (21.2%) – a difference of 15.7%

between 1969 (30.8%) and 1970 (24.0%) – a difference of 6.8%

between 1980 (31.9%) and 1981 (20.9%) – a difference of 11%

between 1987 (33.3%) and 1988 (21.2%) – difference of 12.1%

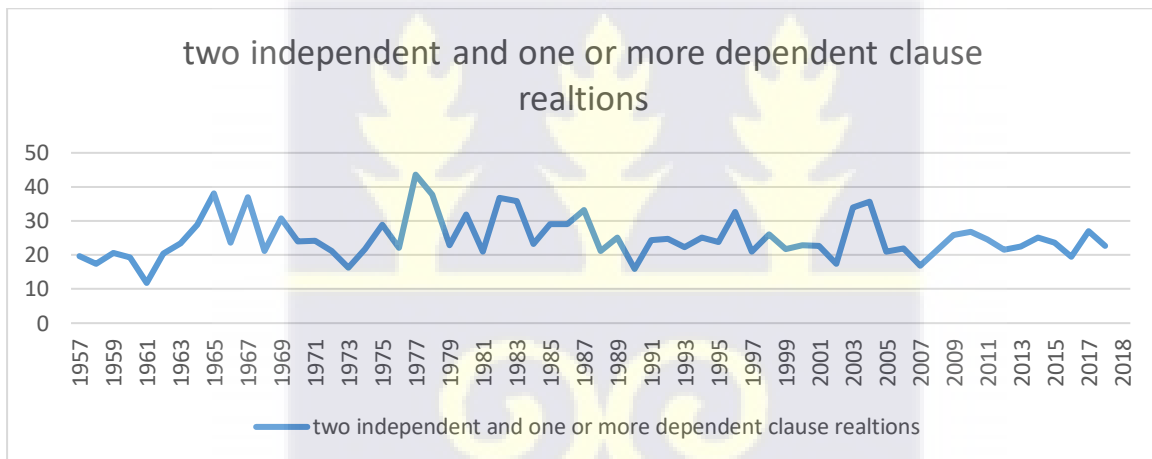
between 1989 (25.2%) and 1990 (15.9%) – difference of 9.3%

between 1996 (32.7%) and 1997 (21.0%) – difference of 11.7%

between 2004 (35.6%) and 2005 (21.0%) – difference of 14.6%.

These were the only periods when the study noticed such moderately an extreme differences. The implication from this information is that, apart from these fifteen periods when the language changed considerably, it is clear that only minor changes occurred in the overall pattern. There was not much notable change in the language of the newspaper editorials genre as far as the use of two independent and one or more dependent clause relations of hypotactic clause complex is concerned. This scenario is presented in the graph below:

**Fig. 5.7: Two independent and one or more dependent clause relations**



Looking at the figures mentioned above for one independent and one or more dependent clause relations and two independent and one or more dependent clause relations, the researcher can, therefore, conclude that there were no significant changes in the language choices in these hypotactic clause complex between 1957 and 2018. The cumulative average percentage scores for the period are presented in the following figures below:

**Table 5.6: Average for independent and dependent clause complex relations**

<b>Years</b>	<b>One independent and one or more dependent clause relations</b>	<b>Two independent and one or more dependent clause relations</b>
1957 – 1966	77.7%	22.3%
1967 – 1976	75.2%	24.7%
1977 – 1986	68.9%	31.1%
1987 – 1996	75.2%	24.9%
1997 – 2006	75.5%	24.4%
2007 – 2016	77.2%	22.8%
2017 – 2018	75.2%	24.8%

The average score for the one independent and one or more dependent clause complex types for the study period, accordingly, was 75.0%. This can be seen from the figures above, there was a fall from the first set from 77.7% to 68.9% (between 1957 and 1986). Then, there was a rise which remained stable from 1987 – 2006. Also, there was a rise from 75.5% in 1987 to 2016. Then, there was a fall from 2016 (77.2%) to a further fall in 2018 (75.2%). Also, the average score for the two independent and one or more dependent clause complex types is 25.0%. As noted from the above figures, there was a gradual rise from the first set from 22.3% to 24.7% and to 31.1% (i.e., between 1957 and 1986). A gradual decline was realized from 24.9% to 24.4% and 22.8% (between 1987 up to 2016). Then, there began a gradual rise from 2017 to 2018.

### **5. 3 Number of dependent relations in a hypotactic clause complex**

From the data, it was observed that the number of hypotactic clauses used in the newspaper editorials stretched from one dependent clause to several dependent clauses within a clause

complex. This means that the hypotactic clause complex types release a number of dependent clause relations within a single sentence. The first extract below is an example of a hypotactic clause complex with three dependent clauses (3dp):

13. *|||Since no country can be built with a weak and sick population, | $\alpha$  no investor [foreign or local] would want to put his money in a society | $\beta$  where people are left to die with the flimsy excuse | $\beta$  that there are no beds in hospitals. ||| DGE/08/14/2009*

Sometimes the clause complex can contain as many as 9 dependent clauses. The example below is a clause complex with nine dependent clauses (9dp):

14. *||| $\beta$  Even though the country is working towards a Ghana Beyond Aid agenda, | $\alpha$  it is about time nurses and doctors became aware | $\beta$  that we hold them in high esteem | $\beta$  because of the singular sensitive role they play | $\beta$  to ensure the total well-being of the populace | $\beta$  and if this is to be achieved, | $\beta$  then the health of the nation should be critically looked at | $\beta$  to ensure that it functions effectively, | $\beta$  because good health correlates with development | $\beta$  and also enhances poverty reduction. ||| [DGE/05/21/2003]*

The above examples show that the hypotactic clause complex releases several dependent clauses per clause complex. Table 5.5 below illustrates the varying numbers of dependent clauses in the editorials.

**Table 5:7. The number of clauses per clause complex**

Yrs.	Number of dependent clauses within a hypotactic clause complex																													
	1 Dep. clause		2 Dep. clause		3 Dep. clause		4 Dep. clause		5 Dep. Clause		6 Dep. clause		7 Dep. clause		8 Dep. clause		9 Dep. clause		10 Dep. clause		12 Dep. clause		14 Dep. clause		16 Dep. clause		21 Dep. clause		23 Dep. clause.	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1957	242	41.3	194	33.1	66	11.3	44	7.5	23	3.9	12	2.0	1	0.2	2	0.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
1958	234	43.0	167	30.7	65	11.9	41	7.5	20	3.7	13	2.4	2	0.4	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
1959	254	44.0	185	32.1	76	13.2	34	5.9	13	2.3	11	1.9	0	0.0	2	0.3	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
1960	244	42.6	168	29.3	74	12.9	45	7.9	21	3.7	13	2.3	2	0.3	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	3	0.5	0	0.0	0	0.0
1961	245	41.3	189	31.9	56	9.4	4	9.51	24	4.0	16	2.7	3	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.2	2	0.3	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
1962	267	43.1	178	28.8	58	9.4	43	6.9	25	4.0	44	7.1	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0
1963	234	40.8	187	32.6	58	10.1	47	8.2	24	4.2	12	2.1	4	0.7	2	0.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	2	0.3	1	0.2	0	0.0
1964	246	42.9	182	31.8	48	8.4	48	8.4	33	5.8	11	1.9	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0
1965	265	42.5	196	31.5	67	10.8	43	6.9	34	5.5	11	1.8	3	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0
1966	234	38.7	189	31.2	87	14.4	42	6.9	32	5.3	12	2.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	2	0.3	0	0.0	2	0.3	1	0.2
1967	245	39.6	188	30.4	84	13.6	45	7.3	31	5.0	13	2.1	2	0.3	3	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.2	2	0.3	2	0.3	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2
1968	234	41.4	183	32.4	56	9.9	46	8.1	27	4.8	15	2.7	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
1969	255	43.4	186	31.7	67	11.4	34	5.8	25	4.3	14	2.4	2	0.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.3	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
1970	244	43.3	190	33.7	45	8.0	40	7.1	27	4.8	13	2.3	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.4	0	0.0	0	0.0
1971	234	42.0	192	34.5	67	12.0	36	6.5	15	2.7	10	1.8	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2
1972	256	49.0	140	26.8	49	9.4	45	8.6	14	2.7	11	2.1	2	0.4	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.4	1	0.2
1973	234	43.7	178	33.3	48	9.0	42	7.9	11	2.1	12	2.2	1	0.2	3	0.6	1	0.2	2	0.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	0.6	0	0.0
1974	264	44.6	167	28.2	67	11.3	46	7.8	32	5.4	10	1.7	2	0.3	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0
1975	244	42.4	189	32.9	37	6.4	51	8.9	33	5.7	13	2.3	1	0.2	2	0.3	2	0.3	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0
1976	265	46.2	188	32.8	34	5.9	52	9.1	13	2.3	14	2.4	1	0.2	1	0.2	2	0.3	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0
1977	245	41.0	198	33.1	61	10.2	53	8.9	24	4.0	12	2.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
1978	234	41.0	193	33.8	56	9.8	45	7.9	22	3.9	13	2.3	0	0.0	3	0.5	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2
1979	256	41.5	197	31.9	78	12.6	46	7.5	21	3.4	12	1.9	1	0.2	2	0.3	2	0.3	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
1980	244	45.5	156	29.1	56	10.4	43	8.0	18	3.4	11	2.1	3	0.6	0	0.0	3	0.6	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0
1981	235	42.6	176	31.9	59	10.7	44	8.0	18	3.3	14	2.5	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	2	0.4
1982	254	43.4	178	30.4	67	11.5	45	7.7	19	3.2	15	2.6	0	0.0	3	0.5	2	0.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0
1983	240	42.8	189	33.7	54	9.6	43	7.7	20	3.6	7	1.2	2	0.4	1	0.2	2	0.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.4	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0
1984	246	41.3	190	31.9	67	11.3	41	6.9	34	5.7	11	1.8	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	3	0.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2
1985	260	44.5	167	28.6	69	11.8	40	6.8	32	5.5	9	1.5	0	0.0	2	0.3	0	0.0	2	0.3	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2
1986	245	43.3	180	31.8	56	9.9	41	7.2	22	3.9	12	2.1	4	0.7	1	0.2	0	0.0	2	0.4	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.4
1987	266	44.5	188	31.4	55	9.2	45	7.5	21	3.5	14	2.3	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	3	0.5	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2
1988	276	45.7	188	31.1	47	7.8	46	7.6	23	3.8	13	2.2	1	0.2	2	0.3	2	0.3	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	2	0.3	1	0.2	0	0.0
1989	234	40.4	198	34.2	58	10.0	47	8.1	21	3.6	10	1.7	0	0.0	1	0.2	3	0.5	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	3	0.5	1	0.2	0	0.0
1990	234	43.3	178	33.0	61	11.3	35	6.5	20	3.7	7	1.3	1	0.2	0	0.0	2	0.4	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0
1991	234	41.5	196	34.8	43	7.6	43	7.6	27	4.8	11	2.0	3	0.5	2	0.4	2	0.4	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2
1992	245	41.5	216	36.5	49	8.3	42	7.1	19	3.2	13	2.2	2	0.3	1	0.2	2	0.3	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0
1993	245	41.2	213	35.8	68	11.4	37	6.2	17	2.9	11	1.8	3	0.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
1994	265	43.7	188	31.0	89	14.7	38	6.3	16	2.6	8	1.3	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
1995	240	40.3	199	33.4	81	13.6	34	5.7	18	3.0	9	1.5	3	0.5	3	0.5	0	0.0	4	0.7	1	0.2	0	0.0	2	0.3	0	0.0	1	0.2
1996	243	45.2	156	29.0	45	8.4	39	7.2	34	6.3	13	2.4	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	2	0.4
1997	247	42.2	178	30.4	69	11.8	40	6.8	23	3.9	14	2.4	4	0.7	0	0.0	2	0.3	3	0.5	1	0.2	1	0.2	2	0.3	2	0.3	0	0.0
1998	256	37.8	265	39.1	60	8.9	52	7.7	22	3.2	15	2.2	0	0.0	1	0.1	3	0.4	1	0.1	0	0.0	1	0.1	0	0.0	1	0.1	0	0.0

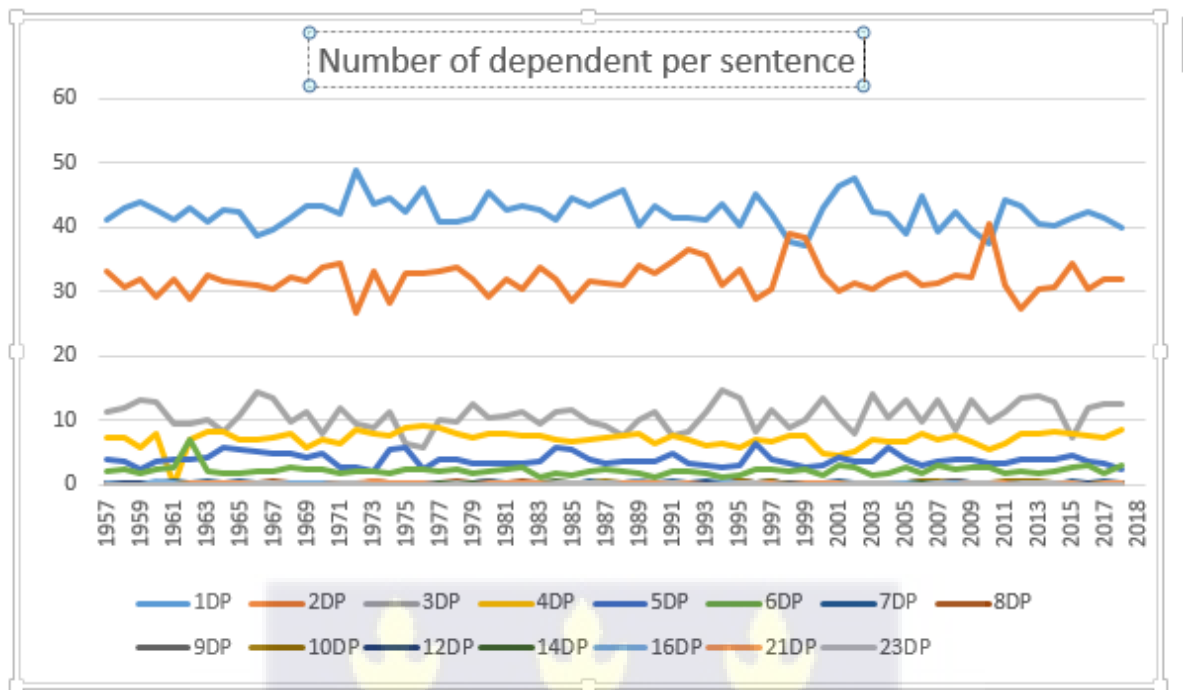
1999	248	37.2	257	38.5	67	10.0	51	7.6	19	2.8	16	2.4	0	0.0	3	0.4	2	0.3	0	0.0	1	0.1	1	0.1	0	0.0	2	0.3	0	0.0
2000	234	43.0	178	32.7	73	13.4	27	5.0	17	3.1	8	1.5	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	2	0.4	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0
2001	256	46.4	166	30.1	57	10.3	26	4.7	23	4.2	16	2.9	3	0.5	2	0.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.4	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0
2002	271	47.8	178	31.4	46	8.1	29	5.1	21	3.7	15	2.6	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	2	0.4	0	0.0	1	0.2
2003	234	42.4	167	30.3	78	14.1	39	7.1	20	3.6	8	1.4	0	0.0	2	0.4	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	2	0.4
2004	233	42.1	178	32.1	58	10.5	37	6.7	32	5.8	10	1.8	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	2	0.4	0	0.0	1	0.2
2005	223	39.1	188	33.0	76	13.3	38	6.7	22	3.9	15	2.6	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	2	0.4	1	0.2	2	0.4	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
2006	256	44.8	178	31.2	56	9.8	45	7.9	17	3.0	11	1.9	3	0.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	0.5	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
2007	234	39.4	187	31.5	78	13.1	43	7.2	22	3.7	18	3.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	2	0.3	4	0.7	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2
2008	246	42.5	188	32.5	49	8.5	44	7.6	24	4.1	14	2.4	4	0.7	3	0.5	3	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	2	0.3	0	0.0	0	0.0
2009	235	39.7	191	32.3	78	13.2	40	6.8	23	3.9	16	2.7	1	0.2	0	0.0	2	0.3	2	0.3	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2
2010	247	37.4	267	40.5	64	9.7	37	5.6	21	3.2	17	2.6	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	2	0.3
2011	266	44.2	188	31.2	69	11.5	38	6.3	20	3.3	11	1.8	2	0.3	1	0.2	2	0.3	3	0.5	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0
2012	249	43.5	156	27.3	78	13.6	45	7.9	23	4.0	12	2.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	0.5	4	0.7	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.2
2013	234	40.5	176	30.4	79	13.7	46	8.0	23	4.0	11	1.9	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	0.2	3	0.5	0	0.0	2	0.3	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2
2014	245	40.3	188	30.9	78	12.8	50	8.2	24	3.9	12	2.0	0	0.0	2	0.3	2	0.3	2	0.3	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2
2015	234	41.4	195	34.5	42	7.4	45	8.0	26	4.6	15	2.7	3	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	2	0.4	1	0.2	0	0.0
2016	234	42.3	168	30.4	67	12.1	43	7.8	20	3.6	16	2.9	1	0.2	1	0.2	2	0.4	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
2017	258	41.6	199	32.1	78	12.6	46	7.4	20	3.2	11	1.8	3	0.5	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0
2018	237	40.0	189	31.9	75	12.6	51	8.6	15	2.5	18	3.0	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.2	2	0.3	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2	1	0.2

Generally, clause complexes with just one dependent clause were dominant in the study. Clause complexes with one (1) dependent clause have the highest percentage figure of 49% in 1972 and the lowest was 37% in 1998, 1999 and 2010. This was followed by clause complex with two dependent clauses, with a highest score of 40% in 2010 and the lowest was 27% in 2012. Then, clause complex with three dependent clauses had a highest percentage of 14.7% (in 1994). Clause complex with four or more dependent clauses were statistically insignificant.



The figure below illustrates the zigzag nature of the distribution of the dependent clauses:

**Fig. 5. 8: Number of dependent clauses per clause complex**



The figure presents the rise and fall pattern of dependent relations in the hypotactic clause complex. The results for 1 dependent clause indicate that, from 41% in 1957, it rose to 43% in 1958 and then rose further to 44% in 1959 then fell to 42% in 1960. In 1972, there was a sharp rise to 49% and then it fell to 43% in 1973. There was not much change between 1974 and 2000. But, in 2001, there was a high rise to 46%, and then to 47% in 2002, then it fell again in 2003 up to 2018. Some years also recorded the same. However, in the following years - 1957, 1961, 1968, 1977, 1979, 1984, 1991, 1985, 1993, 2015 and 2017, the figures remained the same.

Then, also, in 1959, 1974, 1985, 1987 and 2011, the figures did not change. With reference to clause complexes with two dependent clauses, it was noted that the lowest was 26% in 1972 and the highest was 40% in 2010, and the same rise and fall pattern was observed. As regards clause complexes with three clauses, the figures were 11% for 1957, 1968, 1969, 1974, 1982,

1984, 1985, 1990, 1993, 1997, and 2011. Then, it moved marginally to 12% from 1960, 1971, 1979, 2016, 2017, through 2018. In 1961, 1962, 1968, 1972, 1973, 1978, 1983, 1986, 1987, 2006 and 2010, the figure declined to 9%. The same patterns occurred in clause complexes with four, five and six dependent clauses. The overall average percentage figures for clause complexes with one, two and three dependent clauses respectively for the period under study are shown below:

**Table 5.8 Average for dependent clauses in clause complex relations**

<b>Year</b>	<b>One dp</b>	<b>Two dp</b>	<b>Three dp</b>
1957 – 1966	42.7%	33.0%	10.2%
1967 – 1976	43.6%	31.7%	9.7%
1977 – 1986	42.7%	31.5%	10.8%
1987 – 1996	47.7%	33.0%	10.2%
1997 – 2006	42.3%	32.9%	11.1%
2007 – 2016	41.1%	32.2%	11.8%
2017 – 2018	40.8%	32.0%	8.0%

The average score for clause complexes with one, two and three dependent clauses respectively, was 43.0%, 32.3% and 10.3%, as this can be seen from the figures above, there was a rise from the first set for 1 dependent clause from 42.7% to 43.6% (between 1957 and 1976). Then, there was fall to 42.7% (between 1977 and 1986), then there was a rise to 47.7% (between 1987 and 1996). There was a gradual fall from 42.3% to 41.1% and 40.8% (between 1997 and 2018). The two dp clauses also declined from 33.0% to 31.5% (between 1957 and 1986), then there was a rise from 33.0% in 1987 to 1996. Then, there was a constant fall from 2007 – 2018. The three dp also declined from 1957 to 1976 (10.2% to 9.7%). There was a rise

from 1977 with the percentage of 10.8%. In 2018, a marginal fall was observed from 10.8% to 8.0%.

#### 5.4 Types of hypotactic signals

There was the need to examine the types of subordinators which were used to introduce the dependent clauses. The study observed that there were different subordinating conjunctions which were used to introduce dependent clauses.

**Table 5.9: Types of subordinators**

<b>Time: temporal</b>	<b>Concession/ comparison</b>	<b>Cause/Reason</b>	<b>Condition</b>	<b>Place: spatial</b>
<i>after, as soon as, as long as, before, once, still, until, when, whenever, while, then</i>	<i>Although, as though, even though, just as, though, whereas, in contrast to</i>	<i>As, because, in order that, since, so that</i>	<i>even if, if, in case, provided that, unless</i>	<i>where, wherever, whereas</i>

Comparing the percentage scores of subordinators year by year, the results indicate that there was a change in the internal distribution of the use of subordinators in the editorials. Table 5.4 below presents the different patterns of change which were used to achieve hypotactic relations.

**Table 5:10 Types of subordinators used to achieve hypotactic relations**

<b>Types of subordinators in hypotactic relations</b>										
<b>Years</b>	<b>Time: temporal</b>		<b>Concession/ comparison</b>		<b>Cause/Reason</b>		<b>Condition</b>		<b>Place: spatial</b>	
	<b>No.</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>No.</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>No.</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>No.</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>No.</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>1957</b>	286	27.6	201	19.4	265	25.5	181	17.4	105	10.1
<b>1958</b>	237	24.6	224	23.3	276	28.7	126	13.1	99	10.3
<b>1959</b>	278	27.8	189	18.9	278	27.8	176	17.6	78	7.8
<b>1960</b>	267	26.7	190	19.0	299	29.9	156	15.6	87	8.7
<b>1961</b>	289	29.3	158	16.0	290	29.4	165	16.7	84	8.5
<b>1962</b>	234	23.5	246	24.7	247	24.8	176	17.7	93	9.3
<b>1963</b>	255	23.9	237	22.2	287	26.9	188	17.6	101	9.5
<b>1964</b>	267	29.3	189	20.8	266	29.2	134	14.7	54	5.9
<b>1965</b>	256	25.4	197	19.5	265	26.3	167	16.6	124	12.3

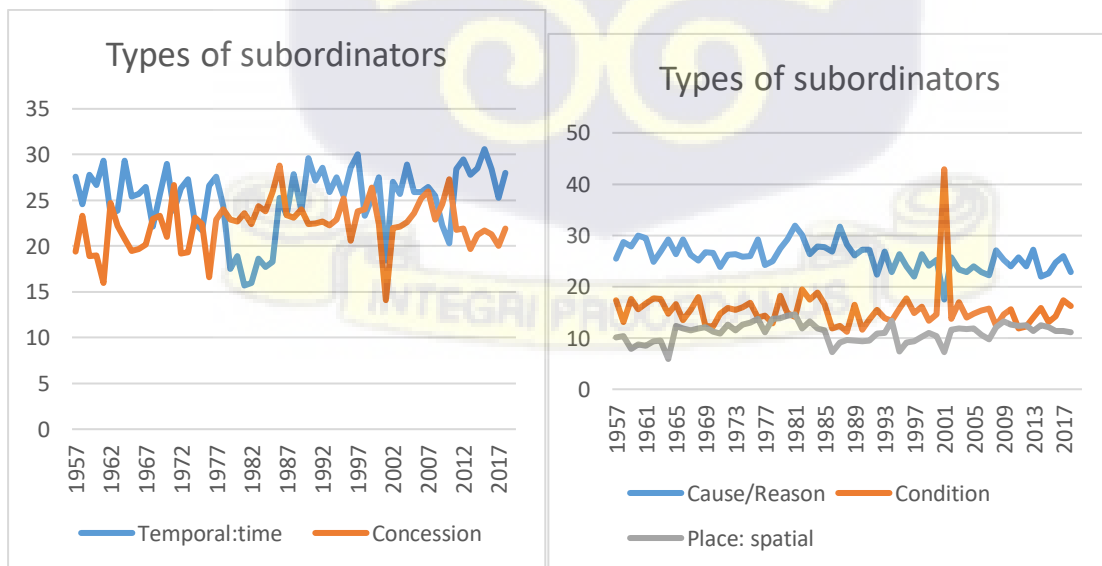
<b>1966</b>	234	25.7	179	19.7	265	29.2	123	13.5	108	11.9
<b>1967</b>	267	26.5	203	20.2	264	26.2	156	15.5	116	11.5
<b>1968</b>	235	22.1	245	23.0	267	25.1	191	18.0	125	11.8
<b>1969</b>	257	25.6	234	23.3	268	26.7	123	12.3	121	12.1
<b>1970</b>	289	29.0	209	21.0	265	26.6	121	12.2	111	11.2
<b>1971</b>	234	23.9	262	26.7	234	23.9	144	14.7	107	10.9
<b>1972</b>	256	26.3	187	19.2	255	26.2	154	15.8	123	12.6
<b>1973</b>	267	27.3	189	19.3	258	26.4	152	15.5	112	11.5
<b>1974</b>	234	22.5	241	23.1	269	25.8	167	16.0	131	12.6
<b>1975</b>	222	21.7	230	22.4	267	26.0	173	16.9	133	13.0
<b>1976</b>	234	26.6	146	16.6	257	29.2	123	14.0	121	13.7
<b>1977</b>	278	27.6	231	22.9	244	24.2	144	14.3	112	11.1
<b>1978</b>	237	24.4	233	24.0	243	25.0	125	12.9	133	13.7
<b>1979</b>	156	17.5	204	22.9	245	27.5	162	18.2	124	13.9
<b>1980</b>	173	18.9	208	22.7	267	29.2	135	14.8	132	14.4
<b>1981</b>	142	15.7	213	23.6	288	31.9	127	14.1	132	14.6
<b>1982</b>	154	16.0	216	22.4	290	30.1	188	19.5	115	11.9
<b>1983</b>	165	18.6	217	24.4	234	26.3	156	17.5	117	13.2
<b>1984</b>	162	17.7	218	23.8	256	27.9	172	18.8	109	11.9
<b>1985</b>	163	18.3	231	25.9	247	27.7	148	16.6	103	11.5
<b>1986</b>	234	25.3	266	28.8	249	26.9	109	11.8	67	7.2
<b>1987</b>	213	23.4	213	23.4	288	31.7	112	12.3	83	9.1
<b>1988</b>	267	27.9	221	23.1	270	28.2	107	11.2	92	9.6
<b>1989</b>	243	23.9	244	24.0	265	26.1	167	16.5	96	9.5
<b>1990</b>	276	29.6	209	22.4	254	27.2	108	11.6	87	9.3
<b>1991</b>	245	27.2	203	22.5	245	27.2	123	13.6	86	9.5
<b>1992</b>	266	28.6	211	22.7	208	22.4	144	15.5	101	10.9
<b>1993</b>	234	25.9	202	22.3	243	26.9	126	13.9	100	11.0
<b>1994</b>	254	27.5	211	22.9	211	22.9	123	13.3	123	13.3
<b>1995</b>	234	25.5	231	25.2	241	26.3	144	15.7	67	7.3
<b>1996</b>	278	28.6	200	20.6	234	24.0	172	17.7	89	9.1
<b>1997</b>	293	30.0	233	23.8	215	22.0	145	14.8	92	9.4
<b>1998</b>	234	23.3	241	24.0	266	26.4	162	16.1	103	10.2
<b>1999</b>	254	25.2	266	26.4	243	24.1	134	13.3	111	11.0
<b>2000</b>	232	27.5	189	22.4	213	25.2	123	14.6	87	10.3
<b>2001</b>	233	18.4	178	14.1	221	17.5	543	42.9	91	7.2
<b>2002</b>	244	27.0	199	22.0	233	25.7	124	13.7	105	11.6
<b>2003</b>	236	25.7	203	22.1	214	23.3	156	17.0	108	11.8
<b>2004</b>	276	28.9	216	22.6	218	22.8	134	14.0	112	11.7
<b>2005</b>	236	25.9	215	23.6	219	24.0	134	14.7	108	11.8
<b>2006</b>	274	25.9	266	25.2	241	22.8	163	15.4	112	10.6
<b>2007</b>	282	26.5	277	26.0	236	22.2	167	15.7	103	9.7
<b>2008</b>	225	25.5	202	22.9	239	27.1	109	12.4	107	12.1
<b>2009</b>	187	22.3	207	24.6	212	25.2	123	14.6	111	13.2
<b>2010</b>	198	20.3	266	27.3	234	24.0	152	15.6	123	12.6
<b>2011</b>	278	28.4	213	21.8	251	25.7	115	11.8	121	12.4
<b>2012</b>	288	29.5	214	21.9	234	24.0	119	12.2	122	12.5
<b>2013</b>	267	27.8	189	19.7	261	27.2	134	14.0	109	11.4
<b>2014</b>	277	28.5	206	21.2	214	22.0	153	15.8	121	12.5
<b>2015</b>	288	30.6	204	21.7	213	22.6	123	13.1	114	12.1

<b>2016</b>	290	28.4	217	21.3	252	24.7	145	14.2	116	11.4
<b>2017</b>	237	25.3	187	20.0	244	26.0	162	17.3	107	11.4
<b>2018</b>	267	28.0	209	21.9	217	22.8	154	16.2	106	11.1

It was observed that the *cause* subordinator was overwhelmingly used in the editorials. This was followed by the *Time: temporal* relation, then the *concession* relation, the next was the *condition* relation and the last was the *place: spatial* relation.

From the table, it is observed that the subordinators for *cause* relation over the period were overwhelmingly used in the editorials. The lowest was 17% in 2001 and the highest was 31% in 1981 and 1987. This was followed by the *temporal* relation. The lowest was 15% in 1981 and the highest was 30% in 1997, 2015. The third one was the *concession* which recorded the lowest of 14% and the highest of 28%. The *condition* relation followed with the lowest of 11% in 1986, 1988, 1990, and 2011. The least subordinator which was used in the editorials under the period of study was the *spatial* relation. The lowest was 5% in 1964 and the highest was 13% in 1975, 1976, 1978, 1979, 1983, 1994 and 2010.

**Fig. 5. 9: Types of subordinators**



The graphs above represent the rise-fall patterns in the distribution of the subordinators. The range in the rise-and-fall patterns of the distribution of the subordinator relations was not wide. It must be mentioned, however, that there was an inexplicable steep spike in the conditional type in 2001(from 14.1 in 2000 to 49%). Similarly, there was a sharp drop in the concessive type from 22.4% in 2000 to 14.1% in 2001. The overall average percentage scores for the period were:

**Table 5.11 Average for types of subordinators**

<b>Years</b>	<b>Temporal</b>	<b>Concession</b>	<b>Reason</b>	<b>Condition</b>	<b>Spatial</b>
1957 – 1966	26.3%	22.4%	30.4%	16.6%	10.6%
1967 – 1976	27.9%	21.3%	26.2%	15.1%	12.1%
1977 – 1986	20.0%	24.2%	27.8%	16.0%	12.5%
1987 – 1996	26.8%	22.9%	24.0%	14.1%	9.9%
1997 – 2006	25.8%	22.7%	21.4%	17.7%	10.6%
2007 – 2016	26.8%	22.8%	24.5%	13.9%	12.0%
2017 – 2018	26.7%	21.0%	24.4%	16.8%	11.2%

### **5.5 Types of dependent clauses which are released by hypotactic clause complex**

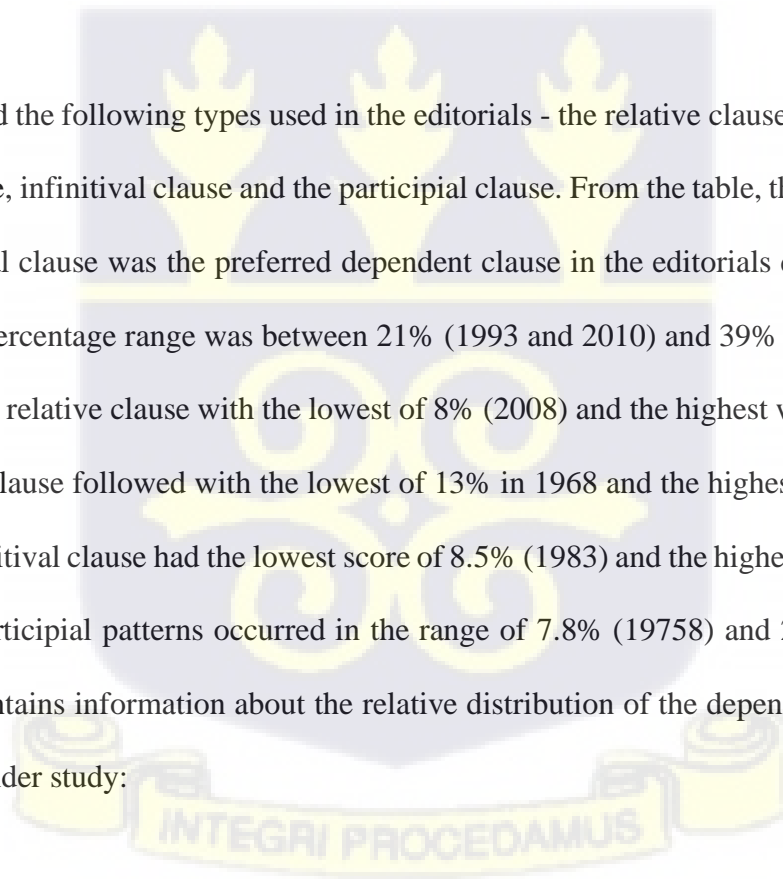
This section provides an analysis of the types of dependent clauses within a hypotactic complex in the editorials during the period of study. The table below presents information about the types of dependent clauses in the editorials:

Table 5.12: Types of dependent clauses

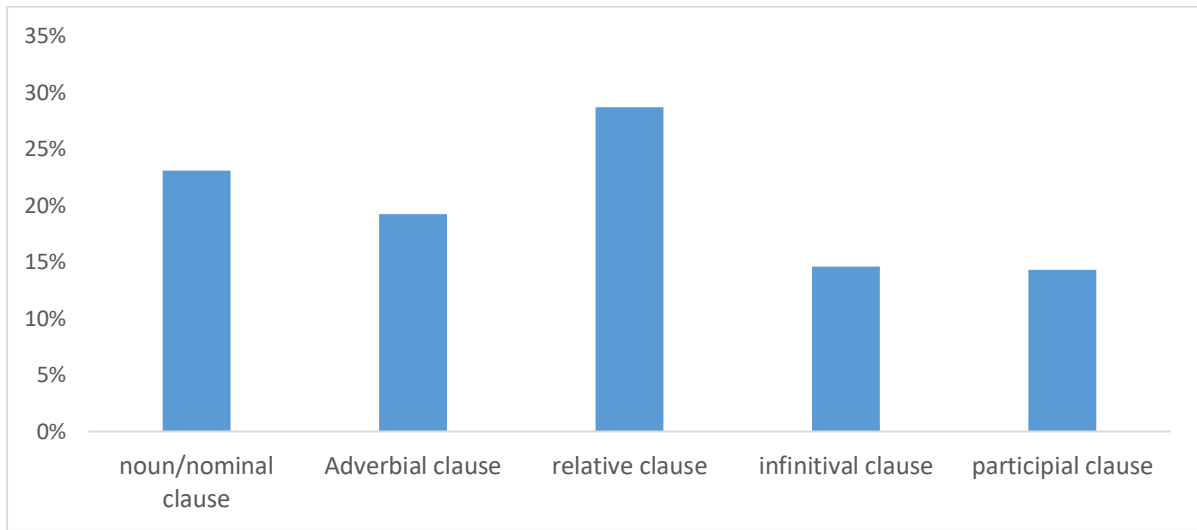
Years	Types of dependent clauses									
	Relative clause		Adverbial clause		Nominal clause		Infinitival clause		Participial clause	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1957	145	22.6	104	16.2	203	31.7	88	13.7	101	15.8
1958	166	28.8	98	17.0	189	32.8	79	13.7	45	7.8
1959	176	25.4	105	15.1	234	33.7	90	13.0	89	12.8
1960	143	27.1	99	18.8	145	27.5	91	17.3	49	9.3
1961	174	28.3	104	16.9	147	23.9	101	16.4	88	14.3
1962	123	21.4	123	21.4	148	25.7	102	17.7	79	13.7
1963	124	20.5	98	16.2	234	38.7	89	14.7	59	9.8
1964	125	22.2	103	18.3	167	29.7	78	13.9	90	16.0
1965	177	27.0	109	16.6	178	27.1	96	14.6	96	14.6
1966	167	27.0	112	18.1	168	27.2	95	15.4	76	12.3
1967	187	26.4	104	14.7	244	34.5	94	13.3	78	11.0
1968	183	27.2	88	13.1	231	34.4	91	13.5	79	11.8
1969	123	21.0	112	19.1	206	35.2	78	13.3	67	11.4
1970	143	22.5	101	15.9	237	37.3	66	10.4	88	13.9
1971	133	24.0	101	18.2	166	30.0	77	13.9	77	13.9
1972	132	25.5	105	20.3	123	23.7	89	17.2	69	13.3
1973	121	19.5	103	16.6	235	38.0	67	10.8	93	15.0
1974	135	20.2	124	18.5	243	36.3	69	10.3	98	14.6
1975	132	21.9	112	18.5	177	29.3	95	15.7	88	14.6
1976	117	19.9	101	17.2	233	39.6	59	10.0	78	13.3
1977	115	22.6	103	20.2	144	28.3	68	13.4	79	15.5
1978	202	29.7	104	15.3	207	30.5	77	11.3	89	13.1
1979	201	29.0	124	17.9	211	30.5	89	12.9	67	9.7
1980	119	22.8	105	20.1	145	27.7	85	16.3	69	13.2
1981	100	19.8	122	24.1	137	27.1	79	15.6	68	13.4
1982	108	21.5	105	20.9	123	24.5	100	19.9	66	13.1
1983	145	26.8	106	19.6	166	30.6	46	8.5	79	14.6
1984	130	20.1	123	19.0	217	33.5	79	12.2	98	15.1
1985	109	18.4	123	20.8	203	34.3	98	16.6	58	9.8
1986	245	31.9	133	17.3	211	27.4	101	13.1	79	10.3
1987	168	25.9	132	20.3	202	31.1	67	10.3	80	12.3
1988	166	25.2	124	18.8	201	30.5	89	13.5	78	11.9
1989	105	16.8	134	21.5	210	33.7	86	13.8	89	14.3
1990	126	21.0	152	25.3	155	25.8	78	13.0	90	15.0
1991	112	18.6	144	24.0	166	27.6	94	15.6	85	14.1
1992	102	16.5	124	20.0	203	32.8	96	15.5	94	15.2
1993	115	22.5	114	22.3	111	21.7	94	18.4	78	15.2
1994	104	19.8	112	21.4	145	27.7	96	18.3	67	12.8
1995	134	22.8	113	19.3	149	25.4	102	17.4	89	15.2
1996	126	24.8	90	17.7	133	26.1	68	13.4	92	18.1
1997	101	17.3	109	18.6	206	35.2	91	15.6	78	13.3
1998	113	18.7	106	17.6	204	33.8	90	14.9	90	14.9
1999	145	27.6	103	19.6	127	24.2	59	11.2	91	17.3

<b>2000</b>	123	24.2	103	20.2	137	26.9	67	13.2	79	15.5
<b>2001</b>	110	21.4	102	19.8	144	28.0	89	17.3	70	13.6
<b>2002</b>	136	24.9	101	18.5	135	24.7	85	15.6	89	16.3
<b>2003</b>	140	23.8	112	19.0	178	30.2	79	13.4	80	13.6
<b>2004</b>	149	25.9	106	18.4	133	23.1	100	17.4	88	15.3
<b>2005</b>	125	23.8	121	23.0	145	27.6	60	11.4	75	14.3
<b>2006</b>	216	33.9	104	16.3	149	23.4	79	12.4	89	14.0
<b>2007</b>	109	19.7	102	18.5	156	28.3	89	16.1	96	17.4
<b>2008</b>	37	8.3	98	22.0	136	30.6	76	17.1	98	22.0
<b>2009</b>	148	26.5	88	15.8	125	22.4	97	17.4	100	17.9
<b>2010</b>	119	22.7	103	19.6	113	21.5	101	19.2	89	17.0
<b>2011</b>	110	19.5	99	17.6	213	37.8	48	8.5	94	16.7
<b>2012</b>	123	21.5	101	17.7	179	31.3	69	12.1	99	17.3
<b>2013</b>	102	21.2	106	22.0	108	22.4	88	18.3	78	16.2
<b>2014</b>	108	17.9	107	17.8	212	35.2	86	14.3	89	14.8
<b>2015</b>	113	22.6	102	20.4	114	22.8	94	18.8	78	15.6
<b>2016</b>	111	21.4	101	19.5	115	22.2	93	17.9	99	19.1
<b>2017</b>	103	20.8	100	20.2	113	22.8	90	18.2	89	18.0
<b>2018</b>	103	19.8	98	18.9	134	25.8	95	18.4	89	17.1

The study found the following types used in the editorials - the relative clause, nominal clause, adverbial clause, infinitival clause and the participial clause. From the table, the results showed that the nominal clause was the preferred dependent clause in the editorials during the period of study. The percentage range was between 21% (1993 and 2010) and 39% (1976). This was followed by the relative clause with the lowest of 8% (2008) and the highest was 33% in 2006. The adverbial clause followed with the lowest of 13% in 1968 and the highest (25.3%) was in 1990. The infinitival clause had the lowest score of 8.5% (1983) and the highest score of 19.9% (1982). The participial patterns occurred in the range of 7.8% (19758) and 22% (2008). The chart below contains information about the relative distribution of the dependent clause types in the period under study:

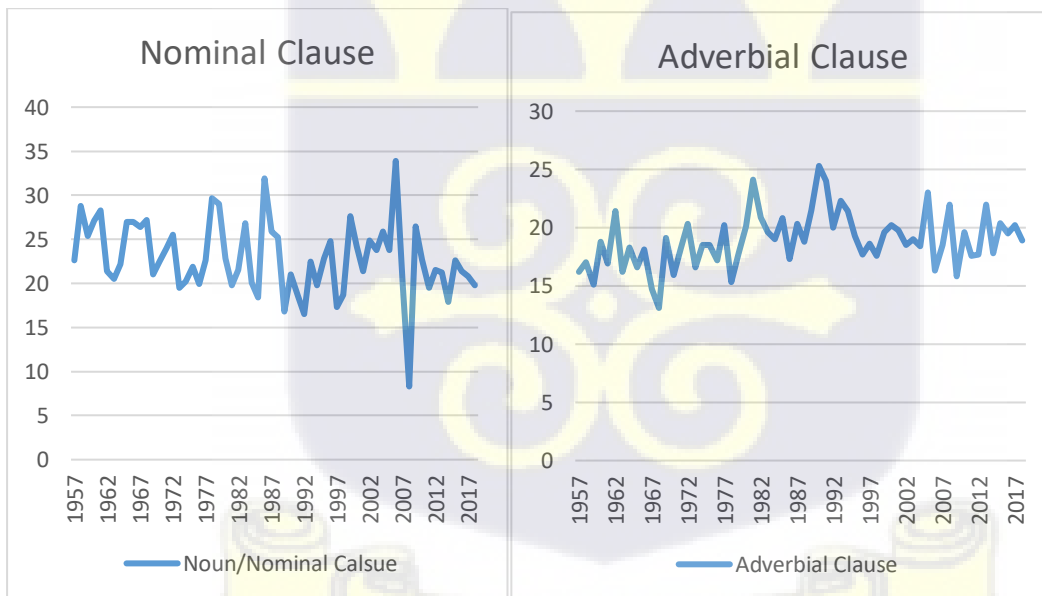


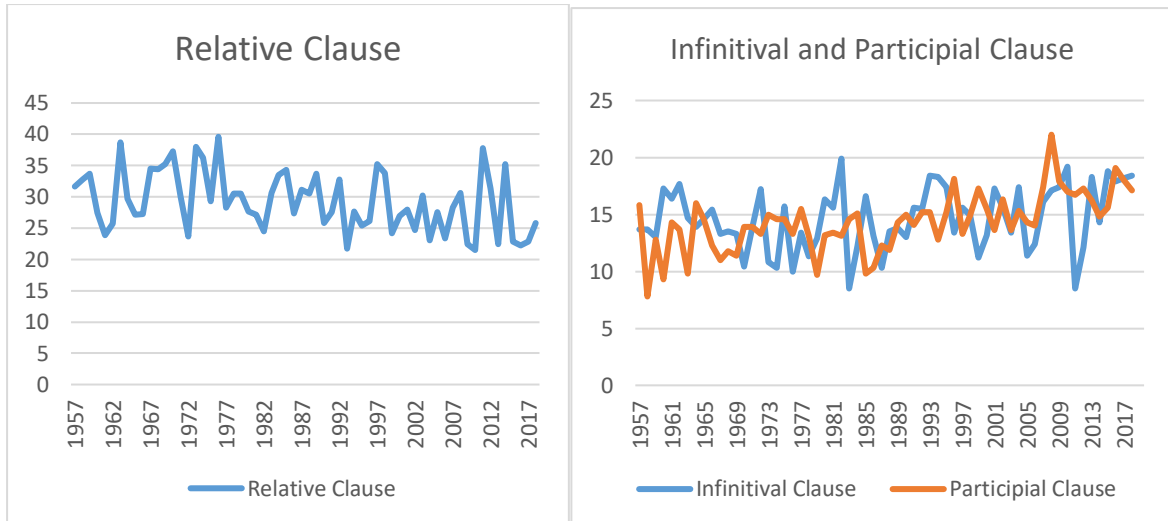
**Fig. 5. 10: Distribution of the dependent clause types**



Looking at their internal distributions, the study noticed the same rise-fall patterns over the years.

**Fig. 5. 11: Nominal, Adverbial, Relative, Infinitival and Participial Clauses**





From these diagrams, the following observations were noted:

- a) in the diagram for the Nominal clauses, there was a steep decline from 2006 (33.9%) to 8.3% (2009).
- b) from then, there was a bounce back to 26.5% in 2009; and there was a gradual decline to 19.8% in 2018.
- c) in the diagram for the infinitival clauses, there was a sharp decline from 19.9% (1982) to 8.5% (1983)
- d) there was another sharp decline 19.2% (2010) to 8.5% (2011)

Apart from these observations, there was really not much notable change in the clause patterns from one year to another. The average percentage scores for the distribution of the dependent clause types are:

**Table 5.13: Average for the dependent clause types of hypotactic clause complex**

	Nominal	Adverbial	Relative	Infinitival	Participial
1957 – 1966	25.0%	17.5%	27.1%	15.1%	12.6%
1967 – 1976	21.8%	17.2%	30.9%	11.8%	13.2%
1977 – 1986	24.3%	19.5%	19.4%	14.4%	12.8%

1987 – 1996	21.4%	21.1%	28.2%	14.8%	14.4%
1997 – 2006	24.2%	19.1%	27.7%	21.2%	14.9%
2007 – 2016	20.1%	19.1%	27.5%	16.0%	15.7%
2017 – 2018	20.3%	19.6%	24.3%	18.3%	17.6%

In sum, it has been observed that the relative clause was used predominantly throughout the years. This was followed by the nominal clause, then the adverbial clause, infinitival clause and, finally, the participial clause. The evidence points to the fact that there were slight variations year-by-year in the internal distribution of these dependent clauses in the editorials. This has resulted in the rise-fall patterns which has been noted in the study. However, it was difficult to conclude that there have been absolute changes in the use of these types of dependent clause during the period.

## 5.6 Summary of chapter

Chapter five has been a discussion on research question one: In what ways have the clauses in the editorials structurally connected during the period of study? In this chapter, the study has discussed in detail the taxis relations in the newspaper editorials. It has established that the newspaper editorial is indeed very complex and the complexity comes as result of the number of predominance of clause complex structures. Among the clause complex structures, the hypotactic complex was the preferred choice in the newspaper editorials. There were no major shifts in clause structure over the period.

It was, also, observed that the number of dependent clauses in a hypotactic clause varies from one, a sentence which contains one dependent clause to an instance of a sentence with twenty-three (23) dependent clause – an indication that the complex structures occurred across and did not diminish over the years. The chapter also established that the hypotactic clause complex

releases the complex and the compound-complex types. Among them, the complex type was the preferred choice in the newspaper editorials. The dependent clauses which were released by the complex and the compound complex sentences; the nominal clause, the adverbial clause, the relative, the infinitival clause and the participial clause were all observed to be rise-and-fall. With regards to the distribution of the taxis types, same pattern of a rise-and-fall was observed under the period of study. This means that there was no consistent pattern of change in this aspect of language use in the newspaper editorial genre.



## CHAPTER SIX

### LOGICO-SEMANTIC DISTRIBUTION OF CLAUSES

#### 6.0 Introduction

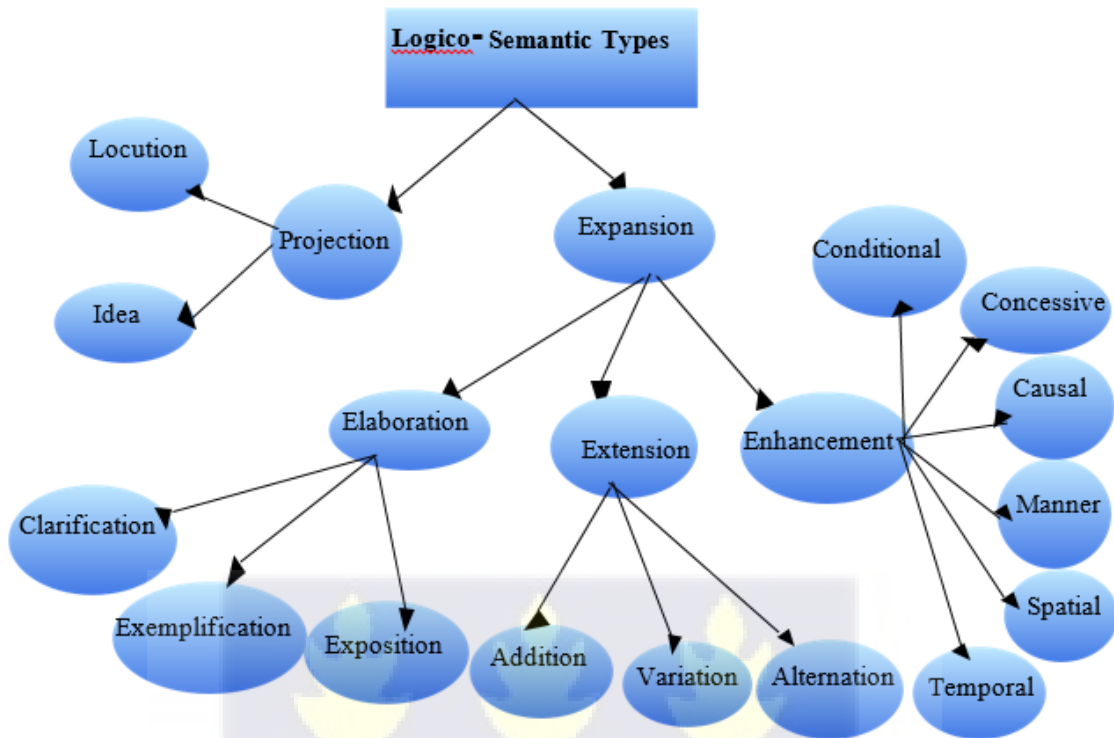
This chapter deals with the logico-semantic distribution of clause complex in the editorials. It discusses the logical meanings which arise from the combination of clauses within sentences. The idea was that the clause complexes were developed or linked to each other in several ways to give us several types of meanings.

#### 6.1 The Logic-semantic relations

The SFG theory advocates a number of integrations between clauses and the level of integration between two or more clauses mirrors a degree of semantic interpretation. This means that the theory construes how clauses which are integrated in a sentence can lead to different meanings of sentences. When independent and dependent clauses are combined differently in a sentence, they create different logical or meaning relations. In the view of Eggins (2004), the logico-semantic system enables us to define what semantic relationships exist in the interconnected clauses.

Halliday (2004, p.376-377) observed that there were two types of logico-semantic relations: *expansion* and *projection*. Each of these types had additional subtypes. Figure 6.1 below illustrates the logico-semantic processes associated with the two semantic relations of expansion and projection:

Figure 6.1 logico-semantic types



*The Logico-semantic model by the researcher*

Table 6.1 below provides the figures regarding the projection and expansion processes in the language of the editorials during the period under study. From the data, it was observed that the types of the logico-semantic relations were used. The table below represents these logico-semantic types.

**Table 6:1 Logico-semantic relationships in the editorials**

Years	Types of logico-semantic relations			
	Projection		Expansion	
	No.	%	No.	%
1957	102	16.4	519	83.6
1958	83	13.2	544	86.8
1959	65	10.1	576	89.9
1960	45	7.3	569	92.7
1961	73	12.3	521	87.7
1962	83	13.5	532	86.5

1963	79	12.6	548	87.4
1964	78	12.5	545	87.5
1965	175	27.5	461	72.5
1966	104	16.1	540	83.9
1967	116	18.1	525	81.9
1968	89	14.3	535	85.7
1969	107	16.8	530	83.2
1970	143	22.2	500	77.8
1971	104	16.5	526	83.5
1972	112	17.6	524	82.4
1973	118	18.8	511	81.2
1974	179	28.4	452	71.6
1975	80	12.9	540	87.1
1976	160	25.1	478	74.9
1977	157	24.5	484	75.5
1978	203	33.0	412	67.0
1979	154	24.4	477	75.6
1980	158	25.5	462	74.5
1981	151	24.3	471	75.7
1982	98	15.2	548	84.8
1983	106	16.6	531	83.4
1984	116	18.4	516	81.6
1985	168	26.0	477	74.0
1986	153	23.6	496	76.4
1987	157	24.7	478	75.3
1988	122	19.6	502	80.4
1989	147	23.1	488	76.9
1990	111	17.8	511	82.2
1991	152	23.5	495	76.5
1992	112	17.6	525	82.4
1993	161	25.0	484	75.0
1994	219	34.7	413	65.3
1995	85	13.2	559	86.8
1996	159	24.8	481	75.2
1997	162	25.6	470	74.4
1998	180	28.3	456	71.7
1999	233	36.3	409	63.7
2000	114	18.4	507	81.6
2001	189	30.3	435	69.7
2002	168	26.5	465	73.5
2003	143	22.2	501	77.8
2004	152	21.7	550	78.3
2005	163	25.4	479	74.6
2006	107	16.6	539	83.4
2007	122	19.6	502	80.4
2008	153	24.2	480	75.8
2009	181	28.3	458	71.7
2010	125	19.8	506	80.2
2011	134	21.1	501	78.9
2012	187	29.2	454	70.8

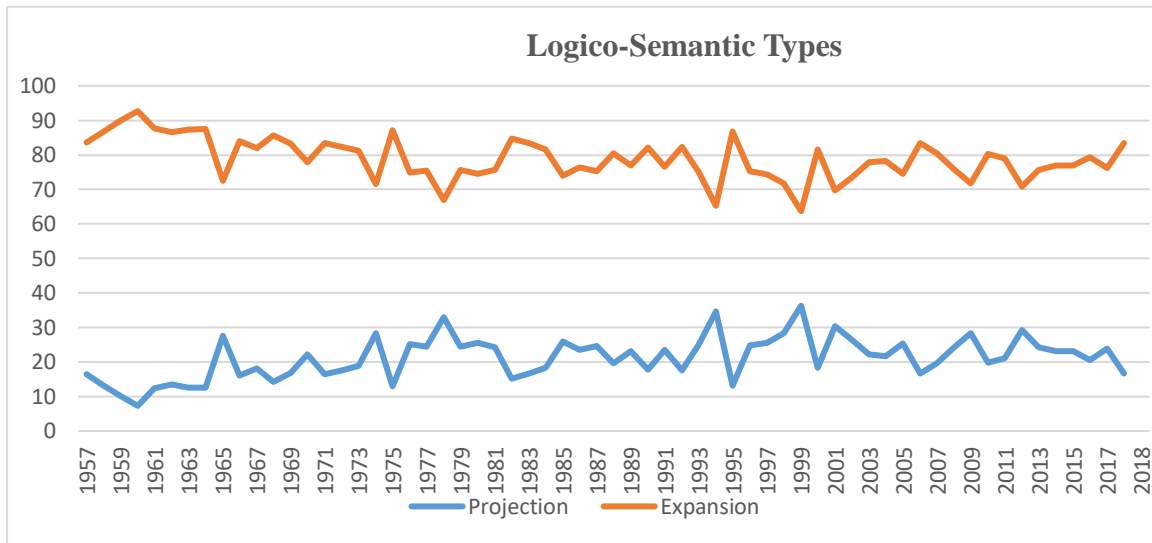
<b>2013</b>	157	24.3	489	75.7
<b>2014</b>	149	23.1	495	76.9
<b>2015</b>	150	23.1	498	76.9
<b>2016</b>	130	20.6	501	79.4
<b>2017</b>	144	23.8	460	76.2
<b>2018</b>	107	16.6	538	83.4

It was clear from table 6.1 that expansion was the most preferred logico-semantic type of clause complex in the editorials. It has the overwhelming majority during the period under study. This was a confirmation of what Opoku (2015, p. 65) has found in another study - that the expansion subtypes were used more frequently than projection subtypes in newspaper editorials. The expansion ranges between the lowest of 63.7% (1999) and the highest of 92.7% (1960), whereas the projection type ranges between the lowest of 7.3% (1960) and the highest of 36.3% (1999). The results showed that there were more expansion processes than the projection processes. The overall average percentage in the 62-year period, for the expansion process was 78.1%, while that of the projection period was 21.9%. This implies that the expansion subtype was dominant.

Also, it must be mentioned that there was a converse relation between projection and expansion types. Thus, where expansion rises, then projection falls, and where expansion falls, projection rises. Therefore, the pattern of the distribution of the logico-semantic types assumed a zigzag pattern. This is presented in the graph below:



**Fig 6.2a: Logico-semantic types: Projection and Expansion**



The figure above presents the rise and fall pattern or the zigzag nature of the logico-semantic types. This can be illustrated from 1957 when the figure was 83.6%, it rose to 86.8% in 1958, then it rose again in 1959, 1960, 1970, 1971, and in 1987 it fell. It then went up in 1990, and dropped in 1991. It went up once again in 2000 and dropped in 2001. This has been the prevailing pattern in the distribution of expansion in the editorials during the period of study.

Specifically, the study notes the following:

- iv) 1957 was the beginning of the study period, the figure for the expansion was 83.6% and it ended in 2018 the figure was 83.4%. Not much difference, was observed
- v) in-between 1957 and 2018, it was noted that the figures rise and fall over the ages. The study observed no consistent pattern of change. However, there were a few instances when some steep fluctuations were observed
- c) there was a steep rise in the figures for the following periods:
  - between 1974 (71.6%) and 1975 (87.1%) – a difference of 15.5%
  - between 1981 (75.7%) and 1982 (84.8%) – a difference of 9.1%
  - between 1994 (65.3%) and 1995 (86.8%) – a difference of 21.5%

between 1999 (63.7%) and 2000 (81.6%) – a difference of 17.9%

d) on the converse side, there was a sudden decline in the figures for the following periods:

between 1964 (87.5%) and 1965 (72.5%) – a difference of 15%

between 1973 (81.2%) and 1974 (71.6%) – a difference of 9.6%

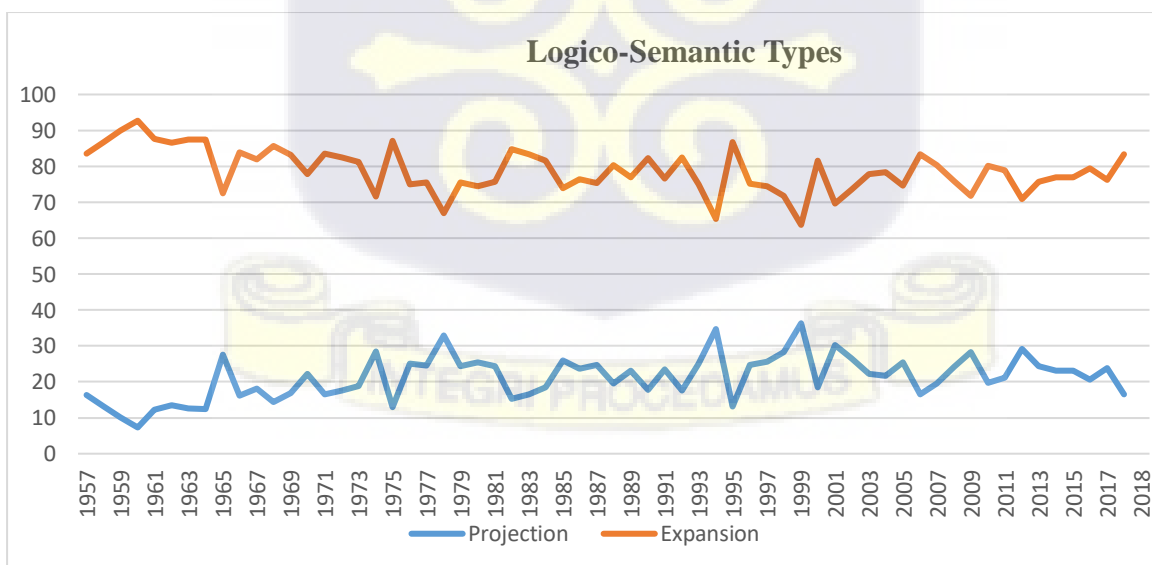
between 1977 (75.5%) and 1978 (67%) – a difference of 8.5%

between 1993 (75%) and 1994 (65.3%) – a difference of 9.7%

between 2000 (81.6%) and 2001 (69.7%) – difference of 11.9%

These were the only periods when the study noticed such relatively drastic differences. The implication from this information was that, apart from these nine periods when the language changed considerably, it was clear only minor changes occurred in the overall pattern. There was not much notable change in the language of the newspaper editorial genre as far as the use of expansion and projection types of logic-semantic is concerned. This scenario is presented in the graph below:

**Figure 6.2b: Projection and Expansion**



One can, therefore, conclude that there were not significant changes in the language choices in the expansion processes between 1957 and 2018. The average percentage figures are illustrated below:

**Table 6.2: Average for Logico-semantic relations**

<b>Years</b>	<b>Projection</b>	<b>Expansion</b>
1957 – 1966	14.2%	85.8%
1967 – 1976	19.1%	80.9%
1977 – 1986	23.2%	76.8%
1987 – 1996	28.2%	71.8%
1997 – 2006	25.2%	74.8%
2007 – 2016	23.4%	76.6%
2017 – 2018	20.2%	79.8%

The impression this information gives us is that there was a decline in the expansion processes in the period 1957 up to the period 1996. Then, there began a gradual rise from 1997 – 2018. At this stage, it must be pointed out that this work will not discuss the picture for the projection process because, as it has been said earlier, the figures represent a converse picture of the expansion processes. Whatever has been stated about the expansion applies in the opposite direction to the projection process. For, where there was a rise in the expansion, it signified a fall in the projection. Where there was a fall in the expansion, there is a consequent rise in the projection.

## 6.2 The types of Expansion in the editorials

Expansion releases three subtypes; enhancement, elaboration and extension. It was observed that there were changes in the internal distribution of these subtypes of expansion in the editorials during the study. This is presented in table 6.2 below:

**Table 6:3 Types of expansion in the editorials year by year**

Years	Types of Expansion					
	Enhancement		Elaboration		Extension	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1957	225	43.4	141	27.1	153	29.5
1958	276	50.7	117	21.5	151	27.8
1959	264	45.1	207	35.3	115	19.6
1960	318	55.9	95	16.7	156	27.4
1961	289	56.0	87	16.9	140	27.1
1962	288	54.1	133	25.0	111	20.9
1963	246	44.9	187	34.1	115	21.0
1964	337	57.8	116	19.9	130	22.3
1965	284	58.1	98	20.0	107	21.9
1966	311	54.6	160	28.1	99	17.4
1967	293	55.2	122	23.0	116	21.8
1968	302	55.4	114	20.9	129	23.7
1969	284	53.6	127	24.0	119	22.5
1970	276	55.2	105	21.0	119	23.8
1971	276	52.5	138	26.2	112	21.3
1972	291	55.5	128	24.4	105	20.0
1973	270	52.8	136	26.6	105	20.5
1974	250	55.3	116	25.7	86	19.0
1975	307	56.9	137	25.4	96	17.8
1976	249	52.1	114	23.8	115	24.1
1977	269	55.6	108	22.3	107	22.1
1978	179	43.4	103	25.0	130	31.6
1979	270	56.6	110	23.1	97	20.3
1980	247	53.5	92	19.9	123	26.6
1981	244	51.8	115	24.4	112	23.8
1982	303	55.3	145	26.5	100	18.2
1983	284	53.5	123	23.2	124	23.4
1984	294	57.0	105	20.3	117	22.7
1985	255	53.5	121	25.4	101	21.2
1986	230	46.4	127	25.6	139	28.0
1987	254	52.7	109	22.6	119	24.7
1988	268	51.6	132	25.4	119	22.9
1989	275	56.9	101	20.9	107	22.2
1990	294	55.8	103	19.5	130	24.7
1991	257	53.9	121	25.4	99	20.8

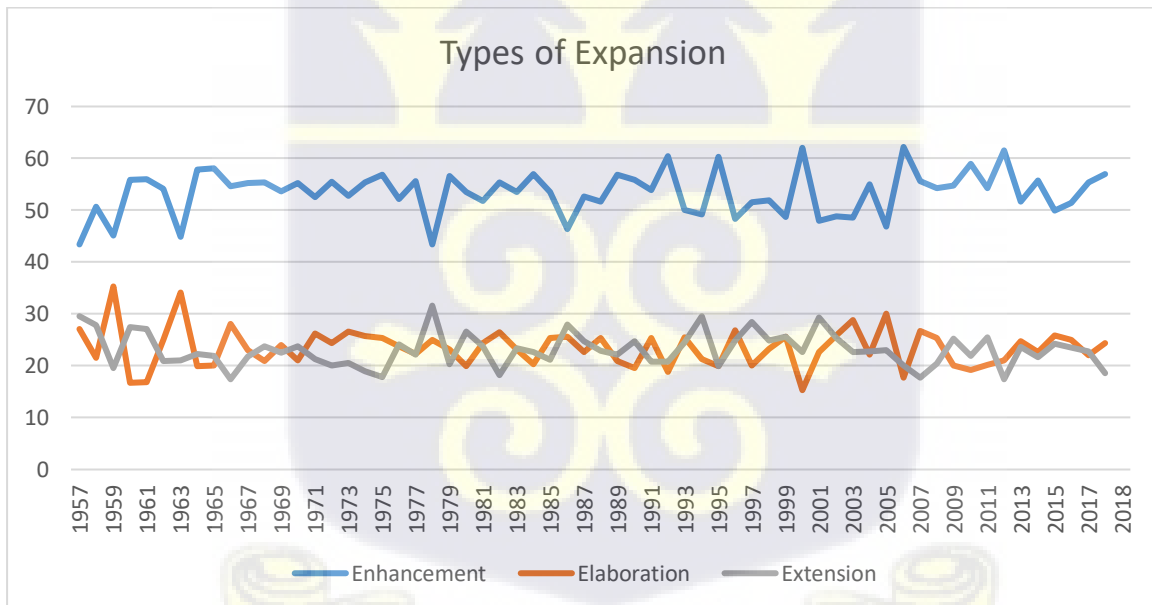
<b>1992</b>	337	60.4	105	18.8	116	20.8
<b>1993</b>	263	50.0	134	25.5	129	24.5
<b>1994</b>	203	49.2	88	21.3	122	29.5
<b>1995</b>	337	60.3	111	19.9	111	19.9
<b>1996</b>	223	48.3	124	26.8	115	24.9
<b>1997</b>	236	51.5	92	20.1	130	28.4
<b>1998</b>	223	51.9	100	23.3	107	24.9
<b>1999</b>	188	48.7	99	25.6	99	25.6
<b>2000</b>	317	62.0	78	15.3	116	22.7
<b>2001</b>	211	48.0	100	22.7	129	29.3
<b>2002</b>	229	48.8	121	25.8	119	25.4
<b>2003</b>	256	48.6	152	28.8	119	22.6
<b>2004</b>	270	55.0	109	22.2	112	22.8
<b>2005</b>	214	46.9	137	30.0	105	23.0
<b>2006</b>	326	62.2	93	17.7	105	20.0
<b>2007</b>	271	55.6	130	26.7	86	17.7
<b>2008</b>	255	54.3	119	25.3	96	20.4
<b>2009</b>	250	54.8	91	20.0	115	25.2
<b>2010</b>	288	58.9	94	19.2	107	21.9
<b>2011</b>	276	54.2	103	20.2	130	25.5
<b>2012</b>	342	61.5	117	21.0	97	17.4
<b>2013</b>	269	51.6	129	24.8	123	23.6
<b>2014</b>	257	55.7	104	22.6	100	21.7
<b>2015</b>	255	49.9	132	25.8	124	24.3
<b>2016</b>	273	51.4	133	25.0	125	23.5
<b>2017</b>	284	55.3	113	22.0	117	22.8
<b>2018</b>	309	57.0	132	24.4	101	18.6

It was observed from Table 6.3 that the three subtypes of expansion were used in the editorials during the period of study. From the percentage score, it is worth noting that enhancement is the most preferred subtype of expansion in the editorials during the period of study, followed by elaboration and lastly extension. A substantiation of this information is found in Opoku (2015) that the highest frequency is enhancement, followed by elaboration and extension clause complexes in the editorials respectively. The enhancement ranges between the lowest of 43.4% (1957 and 1978) and the highest of 62.2% (2006), whereas the elaboration type ranges between the lowest of 15.3% (2000) and the highest of 35.3% (1959), while extension which was the least ranges between the lowest of 17.4% (1966, 2012) and the highest of 29.5 (1957, 1994). The results showed that there were more enhancement features than the elaboration and

extension features. The overall average percentage, in the 62-year period, for the enhancement subtype of expansion was 53.5%, while that of the elaboration was 23.5% whereas extension was 23.0%. This implies that the enhancement subtype was dominant.

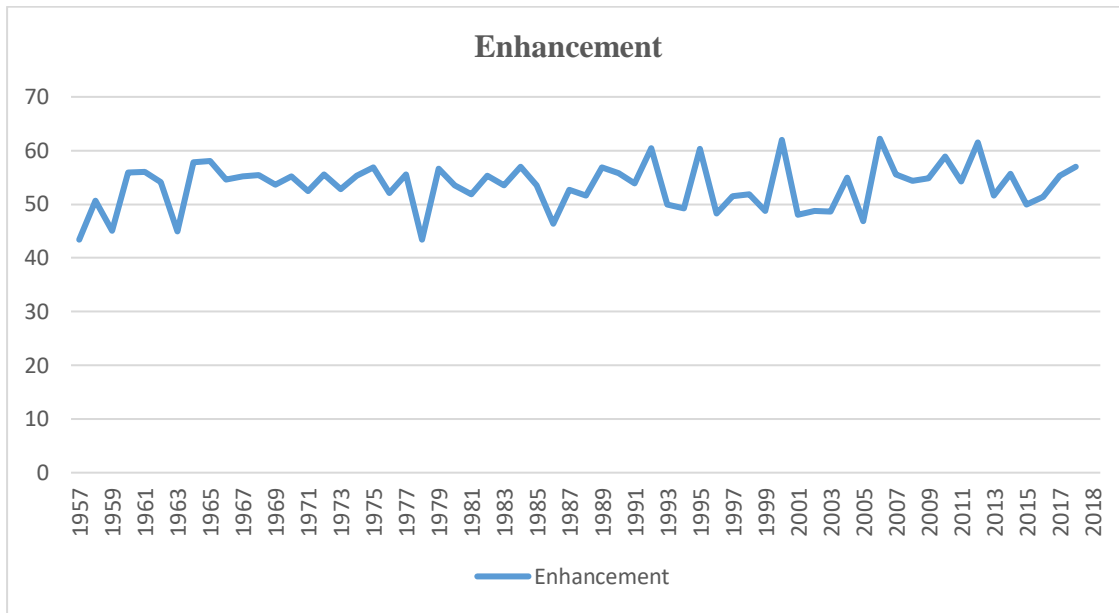
Besides, it must be stated that there was a reverse relation between enhancement, elaboration and extension subtypes of expansion. However, it was found that there were changes in the internal distribution of the subtypes of expansion. Thus, where enhancement rises, then elaboration or extension falls, and where elaboration or extension falls, enhance rises. Therefore, the pattern of the distribution of the expansion subtypes of logico-semantic assumed a zigzag pattern. At this stage, the study shall discuss the patterns of the subtypes of expansion: enhancement, elaboration and extension. This is presented in the graph below:

**Figure 6.3 types of expansion**



The figure above presents the rise and fall pattern or the zigzag nature of the expansion subtypes of logico-semantic relations. The enhancement subtype of expansion presents a rise and fall pattern. This is presented in the figure below:

**Fig. 6.4: Enhancement**



The figure above presents the rise and fall pattern or the zigzag nature of enhancement one of the subtypes of expansion. This can be demonstrated from 1957, when the figure for enhancement was 43.4%, it rose to 50.7% in 1958, it fell in 1959, then it rose again in 1960, 1970, 1971, and the figures fell again in 1986. It then went up in 1992 and dropped in 1993. It went up once again in 1995 and dropped in 1996.

It was observed for instance, that the lowest was 43.4% in 1957 and 1978 and the highest was 62% in 2000 and 2006. From the graph, it was observed for instance, that the difference was not wide. For example, between 1960 and 1962, 1964 and 1977, 1979 and 1985, 1979 and 1985, 1987 and 1991, 1997 and 1998, 2008 and 2011, 2013 and 2014, 2016 and 2018, the change was consistently flat so the difference was not too much.

There were times when a sharp fall was observed in the pattern of distribution. For example, there was a sharp fall in 1959, 1963, 1978, 1986, and 2005. The variation was gradually low between 1997 and 1999, 2001 and 2003. Also, the change was increasingly high between 1959

and 1961, 1960 1977, 1979 and 1985. There was a great rise in 1964, 1979, 1984, 1992, 1995, 2000, 2004, 2006, and 2012. The change was the same 1960, 1967, and 1968, 1970, 1972, 1974, 1977, 1982, 1990, 2004, 2007, 2014, and 2017 at 55%. It was also the same 53% in 1969, 1980, 1983, 1985, and 1991. This has been the prevailing pattern in the distribution of enhancement in the editorials during the period of study.

Precisely then, the study observed the following:

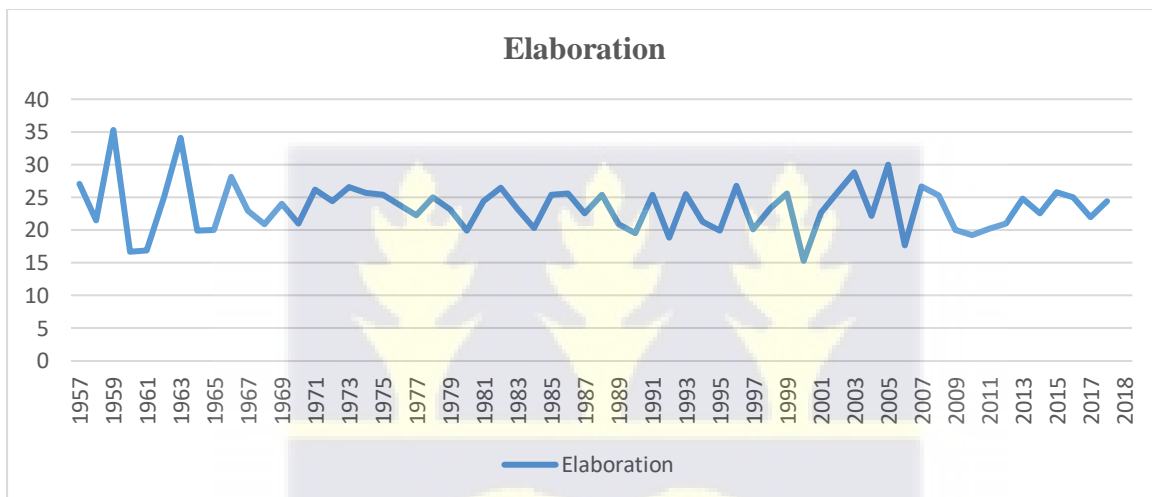
- i. 1957, was the beginning of the study period, the figure for the enhancement was 43.4%. When it ended in 2018, the figure was 57.0%. It was observed that the difference was not too much.
- ii. between the periods of 1957 and 2018, it was noted that the figures rose and fell over the ages. There was no consistent pattern of change. However, there were a few instances when one observed some sharp variations:
  - a) there is a steep rise in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1957 (43.4%) and 1958 (50.7%) – a difference of 7.3%
    - between 1963 (44.9%) and 1964 (57.8%) – a difference of 12.9%
    - between 1978 (43.4%) and 1979 (56.6%) – a difference of 13.2%
    - between 1994 (49.2%) and 1995 (60.3%) – a difference of 11.1%
    - between 1999 (48.7%) and 2000 (62.0%) – difference of 13.3%
    - between 2005 (46.9%) and 2006(62.2%) – difference of 15.3%
  - b) on the converse side, there was a sudden drop in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1958 (50.7%) and 1959 (45.1%) – a difference of 5.6%
    - between 1962 (54.1%) and 1963 (44.9%) – a difference of 9.2%
    - between 1977 (55.6% and 1978 (43.6%) – a difference of 12.2%

between 1986 (53.5%) and 1986 (46.4%) – a difference of 7.1%

between 2000 (62.0%) and 2001 to 2003 (48.0%) – a difference of 14%

Also, the results have shown that elaboration was the second highest type of expansion in the editorials. The pattern of distribution was also observed to be rising and falling across the years from 1957 to 2018. This is presented in the figure below:

**Fig. 6.5: Elaboration**



The figure above presents the rise and fall patterns or the zigzag nature of elaboration, one of the subtypes of expansion. This can be illustrated from 1957, when the figure was 27.1%, it fell to 21.5% in 1958. It rose to 35.3% in 1959 and fell in 1960 and 1961. In 1978, it rose and fell again in 1979. It also rose again 1985 and in 1992 it fell, then in 1993 it rose again. This was actually the consistent pattern in all the subsequent years up to 2018.

It was also observed that in most of the cases the variation is not much. For example, between 1965 and 1999 the variation was not too much though it rose and fell. It ranges between 18% and 26%. This means that the variation did not show much difference even though the pattern was constantly rise and fall. But there were instances where the variation was very sharp with

a vast difference. For example, there was a huge variation between 1959 and 1967, 1999 and 2006. These years recorded a drastic change over the period of study.

There were instances where the change remained a bit constant for two or three years. Again, there were instances where the difference was not wide. For example, in 1960 and 1961, the variation was the same at 16%. It was also the same in 1964, 1980, 1990, 1995, and 2010 at 19%. Further, it was also the same in 1962, 1974, 1975, 1978, 1985, 1986, 1988, 1991, 1993, 1999, 2002, 2008, 2015 and 2016 at 25%. This shows that the change can be the same but with varying figures across years. Some times it was the same for two successive years as in 1960 and 1961, 1985 and 1986. Sometimes too it was the same at different intervals as in 1965, 1968, 1984, 1989, 1997, 2009, and 2011. So one may not be able to say categorically that there has been a change or not because the pattern was not consistent all. This has been the prevalent pattern in the distribution of elaboration in the editorials during the period of study.

Specifically, then, the study notes the following:

- i. in 1957, which was the beginning of the study period, the figure for the elaboration was 27.1%. And, when it ended in 2018, the figure was 22.7 %. This implies that there was not much difference.
- ii. in-between these two periods, the study notes that the figures rise and fall over the ages. There was no consistent pattern of change. However, there were a few instances when the study observed steep fluctuations;
  - a) there was a steep rise in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1958 (21.5%) and 1959 (35.3%) – a difference of 13.8%
    - between 1961 (16.9%) and 1962 (25.0%) – a difference of 8.1%
    - between 1995 (19.9%) and 1996 (26.8) – a difference of 6.9%
    - between 2000 (15.3%) and 2001 (22.7%) – a difference of 7.4%

between 2004 (22.2%) and 2001 (30.0%) – a difference of 7.8%

b) on the converse side, there was a sudden decline in the figures for the following periods:

between 1959 (35.3%) and 1965 (16.7%) – a difference of 18.6%

between 1963 (34.1%) and 1964 (19.9%) – a difference of 14.2%

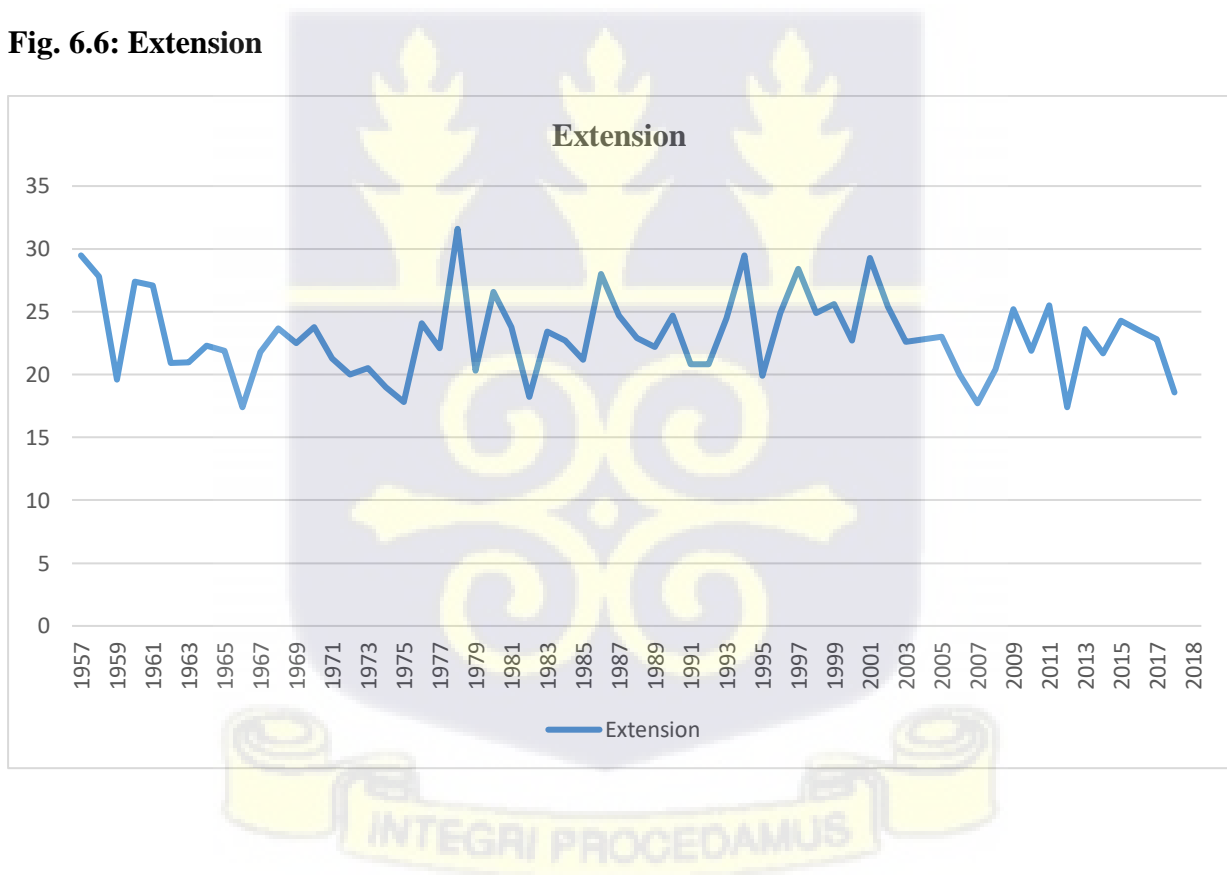
between 1991 (25.4%) and 1992 (18.8%) – a difference of 6.6%

between 1999 (25.6%) and 2000 (15.3%) – a difference of 10.3%

between 2005 (30.0%) and 2006 (17.7%) – difference of 12.3%.

The extension subtype also presented the rise and fall pattern. This is presented in the figure below:

**Fig. 6.6: Extension**



The figure above presents the rise and fall pattern or the zigzag nature of the extension type. This can be exemplified from 1957, when the figure was 29.5%, it fell to 27.8% in 1958, then it fell again in 1959, and in 1960 and 1961 when it rose 27.4% and 27.1 respectively. It then went up in 1978, and dropped in 1982. It went up once again in 2001 and dropped in 2002. In

some of the periods the change was constantly decreasing. For example, there was a consistent falling from 1961 to 1967, then it rose a bit in 1968, then it started falling from 1969 to 1977, then between 1986 and 1991 there was a constant falling, then it also fell constantly between 1996 and 1999, then 2001 to 2008. The change was high between 1957 and 1958, then in 1978 and 1979, 1993 and 1994, then in 2001. It was also noticed that there was a sharp fall in 1960, 1980, 1982, 1985, and 2012. The change was also the same in some of the years. For example, it was the same in 1962, 1972 and 1973, 1979, 1991 and 1992, and 2006. The information suggests that there was not a consistent pattern of change because it went down for a year or two, then it went up for two or three years. So, there was no consistent pattern and therefore one cannot really say that there was a change per se. This was basically the typical pattern in the distribution of extension subtypes in the editorials across all the years from 1957 up to 2018.

The study observed the following:

- i. in 1957, the figure for the expansion was 29.5%. And in 2018, the figure was 18.6%. One notices that there is not much difference in the distribution of extension year by year.
- ii. between the periods of 1957 and 2018, the study noted that the figures rose and fell over the ages. There was no consistent pattern of change. However, there were few instances of steep fluctuations;
  - a) there was a steep rise in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1959 (19.6%) and 1960 (27.4%) – a difference of 7.8%
    - between 1975 (17.8%) and 1976 (24.1%) – a difference of 6.3%
    - between 1977 (22.1%) and 1978 (31.6%) – a difference of 9.5%
    - between 2012 (17.4%) and 2013 (23.6%) – a difference of 6.2%

b) on the converse side, there was a sudden decline in the figures for the following periods:

between 1958 (27.8%) and 1959 (19.6%) – a difference of 8.2%

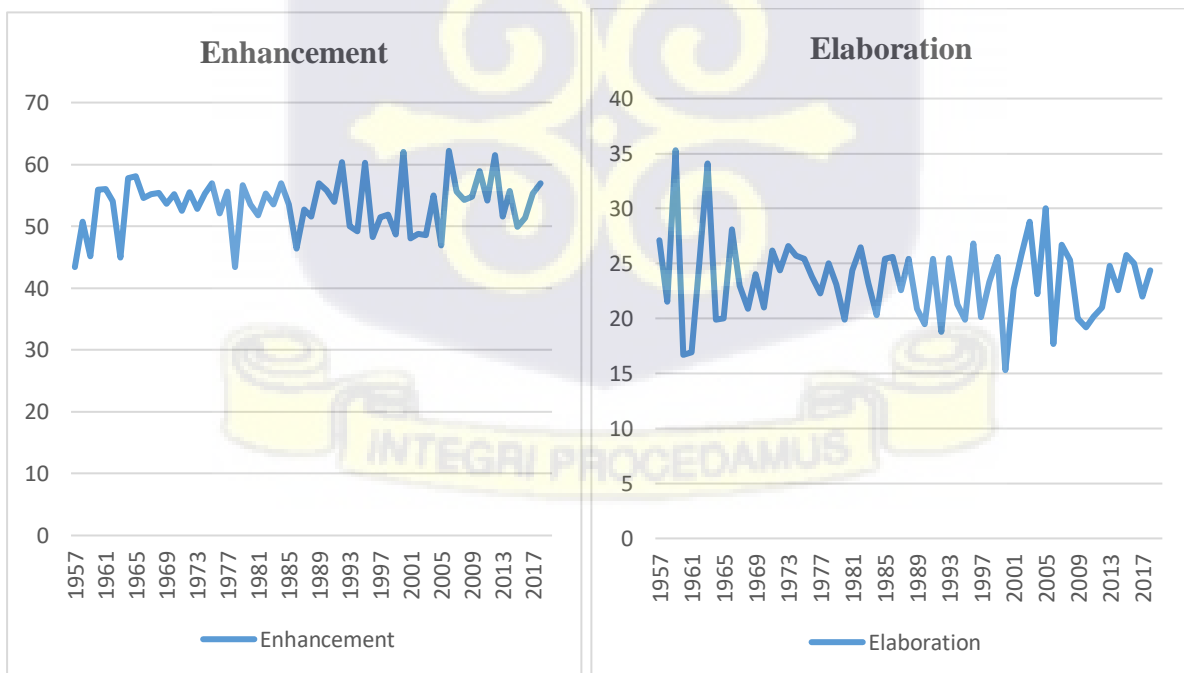
between 1961 (27.1%) and 1962 (20.2%) – a difference of 6.9%

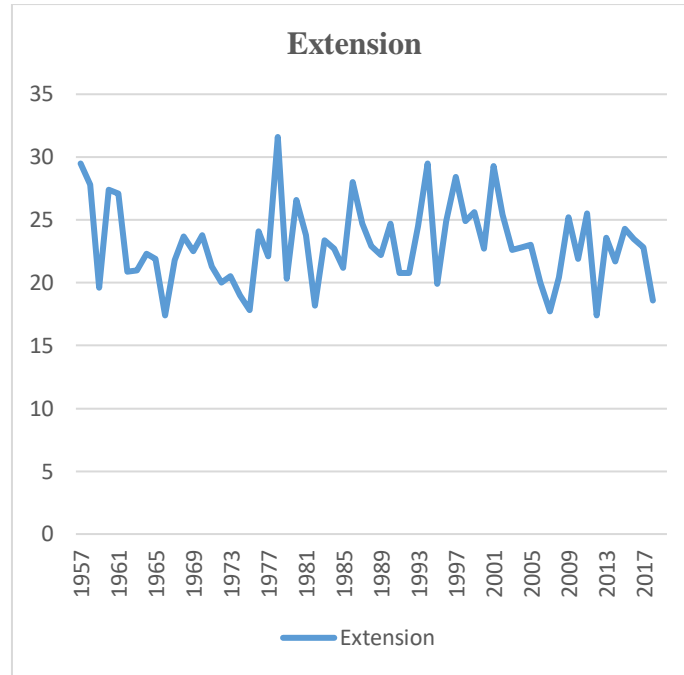
between 1978 (31.1%) and 1979 (20.3%) – a difference of 10.8%

between 1994 (29.5%) and 1995 (19.9%) – a difference of 9.6%

between 2011(25.5%) and 2012 (17.4%) – difference of 8.1%

These were the only periods when one notices such relatively extreme differences. The implication one gets from this information was that, apart from these nine periods when the language changed considerably, it was clear only minor changes occurred in the overall pattern. There was not much notable change in the language of the newspaper editorials genre as far as the use of enhancement, elaboration and extension subtypes of expansion of logic-semantic type is concerned. This situation is presented in the graphs below:





It can therefore be concluded that there were not significant changes in the language choices in the expansion subtypes: enhancement, elaboration and projection between 1957 and 2018. This, one can see in the average percentage figures illustrated below:

**Table 6.4: Average for types of Expansion**

Years	Enhancement	Elaboration	Extension
1957 – 1966	52.0%	24.4%	23.4%
1967 – 1976	54.4%	24.1%	21.4%
1977 – 1986	52.6%	23.5%	23.7%
1987 – 1996	53.9%	22.5%	23.4%
1997 – 2006	52.3%	23.1%	24.4%
2007 – 2016	54.7%	23.0%	22.1%
2017 – 2018	56.1%	23.2%	20.7%

The impression this information gives us is that there was an increase in the enhancement processes in the period 1957 up to the period 1976. Then, there began a gradual fall from 1977

– 1986, then from 1987 up to 1996 there was a gradual rise, then from 1997 up to 2006 there was a gradual decline. From 2007 up to 2018, the enhancement process started rising again. The elaboration process was constant from the period 1957 up to the 1976, then there began a gradual decrease from the 1977 up to 2018. Also, the extension process began to decline from the 1966 up to the period 1977. And there began a gradual rise from the period 1986 up to the period 2006. Then, there began a gradual fall from the 2007 up to the period 2018. At this stage, our attention shall be focused on the patterns of enhancement, elaboration, and extension.

### **6.3 The patterns of enhancement in the editorials**

Enhancement is concerned with the connection between two or more clause patterns which are circumstantially related in a sentence. In other words, enhancement clauses provide circumstantial or adverbial information of relevance to the primary clause which is given in the secondary clause. As indicated by Opoku (2015), enhancement provides explanation on the circumstances of the clause, such as place, time, cause etc. Here, there is the primary clause and subsidiary clause(s) which enhance the meaning of the first (primary) clause. Yuliasuti, (2017) broadens this information that enhancement provides new information to another clause by using circumstance such as temporal, causal, spatial and conditional. In the case of enhancement process, one clause adds another clause to expand the meaning using circumstantial elements.

The circumstantial information is coded as a new clause rather than within a clause such as temporal, conditional, causal, concessive, spatial or manner (Noviandari (2019). It is signalled through a multiplication (x) mark. In this study, it has been established that enhancement, one of the subtypes of expansion dominates the newspaper editorials. Below are examples of enhancement subtype from the data:

15. |||  $\alpha$  *The disclosure is more worrying* |  $x\beta$  *because the tests were conducted on electrical cables, switches, bulbs and extension boards,* |  $x\beta$  *all of which are basic home devices.*

||| [DGE/09/05/2018]

16. |||  $x\beta$  *Before the conflicts related to politics reared their ugly heads,* |||  $\alpha$  *Ghanaians had to contend with land and chieftaincy disputes.* ||| [DGE/01/18/2013]

From the above, (15 & 16) are examples of enhancement clause complex. In example (15) there is one independent (primary clause) clause and two dependent clauses (secondary clause) with the use of subordinator *because* to begin the dependent by enhancing the independent clause to indicate reason. Also, in sentence (16) there is one primary clause and one secondary clause with the use of a subordinator *before* begin the dependent clause to indicate time. The enhancement clause complex involves the use of dependent relations to enhance adverbial relations in the clause complex of the newspaper editorials. A careful study of the newspaper editorials under study confirms the fact that the enhancement subtypes were the preferred forms of clause complex in the editorials. It was observed that the enhancement which is one of the subtypes of expansion also releases different patterns of information or meaning. These are circumstantial ideas which provide new sets of information to serve as adjuncts. These types of enhancement include temporal, spatial, manner, concessive, and conditional. It was observed that there were changes in the distribution of these types of enhancement. Table 6:4 below provides the relative pattern of distribution of enhancement and changes during the period of study.

**Table 6:5 Patterns of Enhancement year by year**

Years	Types of Enhancement											
	Temporal		Spatial		Manner		Causal		Concessive		Conditional	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1957	76	33.8	34	15.1	12	5.3	36	16.0	45	20.0	22	9.8
1958	36	13.0	54	19.6	43	15.6	38	13.8	22	8.0	83	30.1
1959	26	10.2	55	21.7	33	13.0	62	24.4	59	23.2	19	7.5
1960	43	13.5	22	6.9	98	30.8	71	22.3	35	11.0	49	15.4
1961	44	15.2	56	19.4	83	28.7	50	17.3	33	11.4	23	8.0
1962	74	25.7	24	8.3	37	12.8	38	13.2	49	17.0	66	22.9
1963	82	33.3	29	11.8	38	15.4	33	13.4	42	17.1	22	8.9
1964	76	25.4	48	16.1	67	22.4	31	10.4	49	16.4	28	9.4
1965	62	24.2	33	12.9	55	21.5	26	10.2	31	12.1	49	19.1
1966	44	14.1	37	11.9	74	23.8	26	8.4	51	16.4	79	25.4
1967	44	15.0	33	11.3	88	30.0	63	21.5	43	14.7	22	7.5
1968	40	13.2	39	12.9	51	16.9	63	20.9	27	8.9	82	27.2
1969	28	9.9	37	13.0	49	17.3	36	12.7	81	28.5	53	18.7
1970	28	10.1	66	23.9	44	15.9	50	18.1	27	9.8	61	22.1
1971	40	14.5	33	12.0	53	19.2	23	8.3	41	14.9	86	31.2
1972	46	15.8	81	27.8	32	11.0	28	9.6	61	21.0	43	14.8
1973	29	10.7	54	20.0	38	14.1	32	11.9	77	28.5	40	14.8
1974	51	20.4	40	16.0	29	11.6	65	26.0	42	16.8	23	9.2
1975	62	20.2	27	8.8	45	14.7	60	19.5	40	13.0	73	23.8
1976	50	20.1	33	13.3	41	16.5	39	15.7	70	28.1	16	6.4
1977	38	14.1	53	19.7	49	18.2	40	14.9	49	18.2	40	14.9
1978	40	22.3	29	16.2	43	24.0	20	11.2	28	15.6	19	10.6
1979	63	23.3	19	7.0	46	17.0	30	11.1	68	25.2	44	16.3
1980	61	24.7	27	10.9	42	17.0	33	13.4	25	10.1	59	23.9
1981	23	9.4	38	15.6	57	23.4	25	10.2	71	29.1	30	12.3
1982	63	20.8	31	10.2	29	9.6	70	23.1	44	14.5	66	21.8
1983	41	14.4	33	11.6	77	27.1	65	22.9	43	15.1	25	8.8
1984	40	13.6	28	9.5	38	12.9	49	16.7	72	24.5	67	22.8
1985	50	19.6	38	14.9	34	13.3	71	27.8	29	11.4	33	12.9
1986	35	15.2	22	9.6	39	17.0	41	17.8	33	14.3	60	26.1
1987	87	34.3	25	9.8	33	13.0	29	11.4	30	11.8	50	19.7
1988	50	18.7	22	8.2	38	14.2	44	16.4	31	11.6	83	31.0
1989	30	10.9	32	11.6	46	16.7	83	30.2	39	14.2	45	16.4
1990	44	15.0	35	11.9	22	7.5	85	28.9	42	14.3	66	22.4
1991	36	14.0	71	27.6	50	19.5	31	12.1	25	9.7	44	17.1
1992	51	15.1	46	13.6	63	18.7	25	7.4	69	20.5	83	24.6
1993	33	12.5	19	7.2	55	20.9	51	19.4	39	14.8	66	25.1
1994	35	17.2	40	19.7	39	19.2	30	14.8	41	20.2	18	8.9
1995	44	13.1	58	17.2	60	17.8	68	20.2	77	22.8	30	8.9
1996	33	14.8	52	23.3	28	12.6	44	19.7	30	13.5	36	16.1
1997	44	18.6	30	12.7	63	26.7	36	15.3	25	10.6	38	16.1
1998	30	13.5	44	19.7	36	16.1	28	12.6	39	17.5	46	20.6
1999	19	10.1	26	13.8	43	22.9	22	11.7	45	23.9	33	17.6
2000	40	12.6	56	17.7	29	9.1	44	13.9	50	15.8	98	30.9
2001	28	13.3	33	15.6	41	19.4	52	24.6	39	18.5	18	8.5

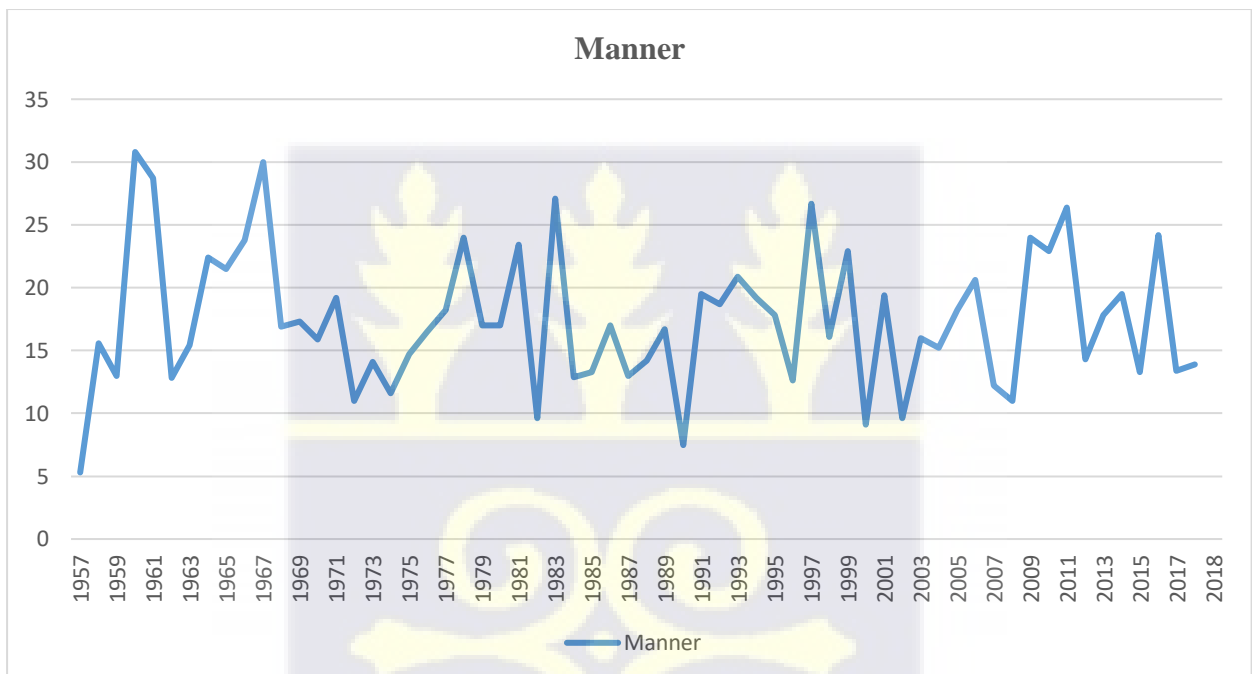
<b>2002</b>	39	17.0	45	19.7	22	9.6	40	17.5	35	15.3	48	21.0
<b>2003</b>	50	19.5	39	15.2	41	16.0	29	11.3	66	25.8	31	12.1
<b>2004</b>	46	17.0	66	24.4	41	15.2	28	10.4	39	14.4	50	18.5
<b>2005</b>	22	10.3	46	21.5	39	18.2	29	13.6	31	14.5	47	22.0
<b>2006</b>	33	10.1	46	14.1	67	20.6	50	15.3	53	16.3	77	23.6
<b>2007</b>	56	20.7	43	15.9	33	12.2	61	22.5	29	10.7	49	18.1
<b>2008</b>	55	21.6	30	11.8	28	11.0	22	8.6	71	27.8	49	19.2
<b>2009</b>	30	12.0	35	14.0	60	24.0	39	15.6	40	16.0	46	18.4
<b>2010</b>	38	13.2	36	12.5	66	22.9	42	14.6	65	22.6	41	14.2
<b>2011</b>	49	17.8	62	22.5	73	26.4	33	12.0	29	10.5	30	10.9
<b>2012</b>	66	24.9	36	13.6	38	14.3	50	18.9	45	17.0	30	11.3
<b>2013</b>	44	13.1	58	17.2	60	17.8	68	20.2	77	22.8	30	8.9
<b>2014</b>	36	14.0	71	27.6	50	19.5	31	12.1	25	9.7	44	17.1
<b>2015</b>	50	19.6	38	14.9	34	13.3	71	27.8	29	11.4	33	12.9
<b>2016</b>	41	15.0	23	8.4	66	24.2	57	20.9	49	17.9	37	13.6
<b>2017</b>	60	21.1	45	15.8	38	13.4	29	10.2	40	14.1	72	25.4
<b>2018</b>	50	16.2	25	8.1	43	13.9	77	24.9	59	19.1	55	17.8

From table 6.4 above, it was noticed that the following subtypes of enhancement; manner, conditional, temporal, concessive, causal, and spatial were used in the text. The manner subtype was the most preferred logico-semantic type of clause complex in the editorials. It ranged between the lowest of 5.3% (1957) and the highest of 30.8% (1960), the next type was conditional which ranged between the lowest of 6.4% (1976) and the highest of 31.2% (1971), then the temporal which ranges between the lowest of 9.4% (1981) and the highest of 33.8% (1957), then the concessive which ranged between the lowest of 8.0% (1958) and the highest of 29.1% (1981), then the causal which ranged between the lowest of 7.4% (1992) and the highest of 28.9% (1990), whereas spatial ranged between the lowest of 6.9% (1960) and the highest of 27.8% (1972).

The results showed that there were more manner processes followed by the conditional, the temporal, the concession, the causal and lastly the spatial processes. These were the overall average percentage, in the 62-year period, for the manner 17.5%, conditional 17.3%, temporal 17.0%, concessive 16.8%, causal 16.4%, and spatial 15.1%. Though the manner subtype was dominant, the differences was not too much.

The enhancement clause of manner relation was used to signal information about how events happened in the texts under study. A manner relationship determines how every experience is presented. For example, the use of *beautifully*, *generously*, *happily*, *neatly*, *patiently*, *softly*, *hardly or harshly*, *quickly*, or *well* were described in the texts. The manner subtype has been viewed as the most preferred subtype of enhancement in the editorials during the period of study. The pattern of distribution has been all zigzag. This is presented in the figure below:

**Fig. 6.7: Manner subtype of enhancement**



The figure above presents the rise and fall pattern or the zigzag nature of the enhancement subtype of manner. This can be illustrated from 1957, when the figure was 5.3%, it rose high to 15.6% in 1958, fell again in 1959, then there was a steep rise in 1960. In 1961 it fell, then fell sharply in 1962 and 1968. It rose in 1969 and fell in 1984. In 1985 it rose and fell in 2000. It rose again in 2001.

It was also observed for instance, that it was high in some years and there was sharp rising in some of the years too. For example, there was a sharp rising in 1958, then there was another great rising in 1960 and 1961, then it fell sharply in 1962. Between 1964 and 1967, there was a great rising, then it went high again in 1978, 1981, 1983, between 1991 and 1994. It was high, it was also high in 1997, 1999, 2006, between 2009 and 2011 it was high, in 2014 and 2016 it was also high. The variation was also low in some of the years. For instance, it was very low in 1957, 1962, 1972, 1975, 1979 and 1980, between 1982 and 1988. There was a sharp fall in 1962, 1969, 1990, 2000, 2002, 2008, 2012, then it fell low in 2017 and 2018.

There were some years where the change was the same figures. For example, in 1959, 1985, 1987, and 2015, also in 1958, 1963, 1970, and 2004. This has been the prevailing pattern in the distribution of expansion in the editorials during the period of study.

More specifically, the study notes the following:

- i. 1957 was the beginning of the study period, the figure for the expansion was 5.3%. It ended in 2018 and there was a drastic increase of figure from 5.3% to 13.9%. It was observed that the difference was not all that wide looking at the years.
- ii. in-between these two periods, the researcher noticed that the figures rose and fell over the ages. There was no consistent pattern of change. However, there were a few instances when the study observed steep fluctuations;
  - a) there was a steep rise in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1958 (5.3%) and 1958 (15.6%) – a difference of 10.3%
    - between 1959 (13%) and 1960 (30.8%) – a difference of 17.8%
    - between 1966 (23.8%) and 1967 (30%) – a difference of 17%
    - between 1982 (9.6%) and 1983 (27.1%) – a difference of 17.5%
    - between 1996 (12.6%) and 1997 (26.7%) – a difference of 14.1%

between 2001 (9.1%) and 2002 (19.4%) – a difference of 10.3%

between 2008 (11%) and 2009 (24%) – a difference of 13%

between 2015 (13.3%) and 2016 (24.2%) – a difference of 10.9%

b) on the converse side, there was a sudden decline in the figures for the following periods:

between 1961 (28.7%) and 1962 (12.8%) – a difference of 15.9%

between 1967 (30%) and 1968 (16.9%) – a difference of 13.1%

between 1981 (23.4%) and 1982 (9.6%) – a difference of 13.8%

between 1983 (27.1%) and 1984 (12.9%) – a difference of 14.2%

between 1989 (16.7%) and 1990 (7.5%) – difference of 9.2%

between 1997 (26.7%) and 1998 (16.1%) – a difference of 10.6%

between 1999 (22.9%) and 2000 (9.1%) – a difference of 13.8%

between 2001 (19.4%) and 2002 (9.6%) – a difference of 9.8%

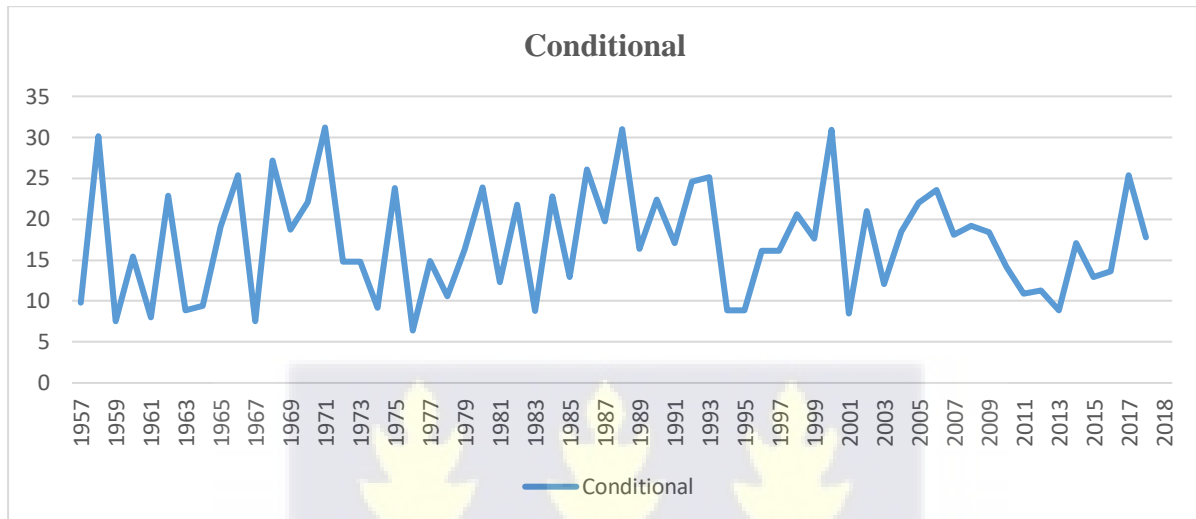
between 2006 (20.6%) and 2007 (12.2%) – a difference of 8.4%

These were the only periods when the researcher noticed such relatively drastic differences. This implies that apart from these seventeen periods when the language changed considerably, it was clear only minor changes occurred in the overall pattern. There was not much notable change in the language of the newspaper editorial genre as far as the use of manner type of enhancement is concerned. This scenario is presented in the graph below:

Furthermore, the enhancing clause complex of expansion release conditional information in the text. The enhancement conditional clause states a circumstance and the outcome of that situation happening. This implies that conditional clause of enhancement provides information

that initiates something to happen only when something else occurs. The conditional subtype was the second preferred subtype of enhancement in the editorials. The pattern of usage was also observed to be rising and falling from 1957 to 2018. This is presented in the graph below:

**Fig. 6.8: Conditional subtype of enhancement**



The figure above presents the rise and fall pattern or the zigzag nature of the conditional subtype of enhancement. This can be illustrated from 1957, when the figure was 9.8%, then it rose sharply in 1958, fell in 1959, rose in 1960, and fell in 1961. The variation was observed to be very high and very low in some of the years. For example, there was a high rise in 1958, then it fell sharply in 1959, rose high again 1962. Also, there was a great fall in 1962, it remained a bit constant between 1963 and 1964. It went up sharply between 1965 and 1966. There was a great fall in 1967, rose sharply in 1968. Between 1969 and 1970, it was steadily high, then it fell sharply in 1973. There was a high rising in 1975 but it fell sharply in 1976. The period between 1977 and 1988 experienced a sharp rise and fall. There was also a high rising in 1989, then in 1990 there was a great fall, then it became very low in 1994 and 1995. It started rising from 1996 and there was a high rising in 2000. Then there was a great fall in 2001, it went high in 2002 and fell a bit low in 2003. It became decreasingly low from 2005 up to 2013, when it went high in 2017 and fell sharply in 2018.

Judging from the analysis discussed above, the researcher is of the view that the difference in the figures was very wide with regards to the use of conditional subtype of enhancement. This is supported by the information presented on the graph. This has been the dominant pattern in the distribution of the conditional subtype of enhancement in the editorials during the period of study.

More specifically, the study noted the following:

- i. in 1957, when the beginning of the study period, the figure for the conditional subtype was 9.8%, it ended in 2018, the figure was 17.8%. Not much difference was observed.
- ii. in-between these two periods, the study noted that the figures rose and fell over the ages. There was no consistent pattern of change. However, there were a few instances when the study observed steep fluctuations;
  - a) there was a steep rise in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1957 (9.8%) and 1958 (30.1%) – a difference of 20.3%
    - between 1959 (7.5%) and 1960 (15.4%) – a difference of 7.9%
    - between 1961 (8.0%) and 1962 (22.9%) – a difference of 14.9%
    - between 1964 (9.4%) and 1965 (19.1%) – a difference of 9.7%
    - between 1967 (7.5%) and 1968 (27.2%) – a difference of 19.7%
    - between 1970 (22.1%) and 1971 (31.2%) – a difference of 9.1%
    - between 1974 (9.2%) and 1975 (23.8%) – a difference of 14.6%
    - between 1981 (12.3%) and 1982 (21.8%) – a difference of 9.5%
    - between 1983 (8.8%) and 1984 (22.8%) – a difference of 14%
    - between 1985 (12.9%) and 1986 (26.1%) – a difference of 13.2%
    - between 1987 (19.7%) and 1988 (31.0%) – a difference of 11.3%
    - between 1999 (17.6%) and 2000 (30.9%) – a difference of 13.3%

between 2001 (8.5%) and 2002 (21.0%) – a difference of 12.5%

between 2016 (13.6%) and 2017 (25.4%) – a difference of 11.8%.

b) on the converse side, there was a sudden decline in the figures for the following periods:

between 1958 (30.1%) and 1959 (7.5%) – a difference of 22.6%

between 1960 (15.4%) and 1961 (8.0%) – a difference of 7.4%

between 1962 (22.9%) and 1963 (8.9%) – a difference of 14%

between 1966 (25.4%) and 1967 (7.5%) – a difference of 17.9%

between 1968 (27.2%) and 1969 (18.7%) – difference of 8.5%

between 1971 (31.2%) and 1972 (14.8%) – difference of 16.4%

between 1975 (23.8%) and 1976 (6.4%) – difference of 17.4%

between 1980 (23.9%) and 1981 (12.3%) – difference of 11.6%

between 1982 (21.8%) and 1983 (8.8%) – difference of 13%

between 1984 (22.8%) and 1985 (12.9%) – difference of 9.9%

between 1988 (31.1%) and 1989 (16.4%) – difference of 14.7%

between 1993 (25.1%) and 1994 (8.9%) – difference of 16.2%

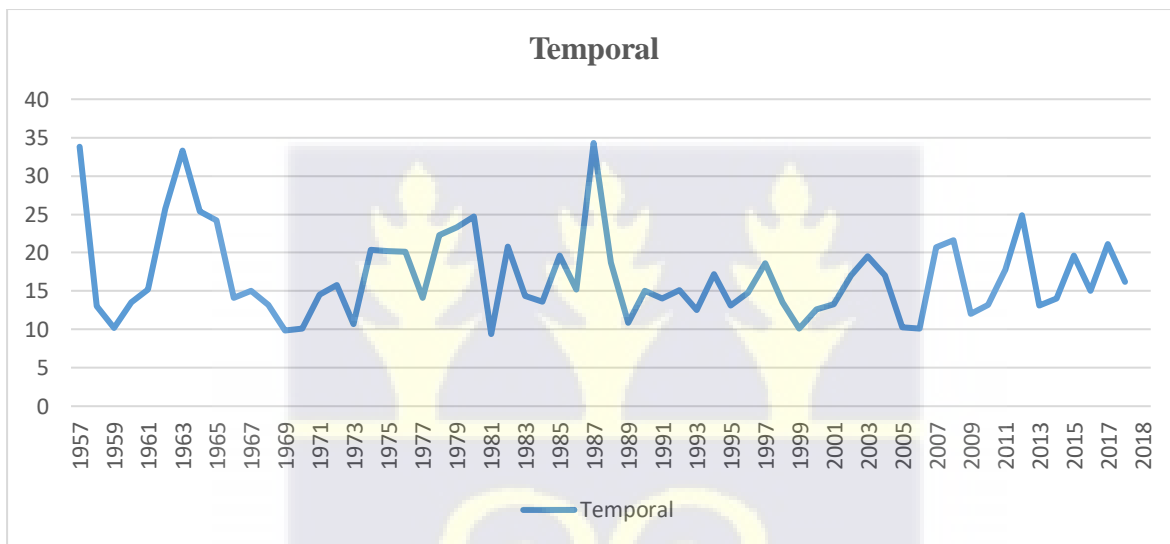
between 2000 (30.9%) and 2001 (8.5%) – difference of 22.4%

between 2002 (21.0%) and 2003 (12.1%) – difference of 8.9%

These were the only periods when the study noticed such relatively drastic differences. The implication from this observation was that, apart from these twenty-eight periods when the language changed considerably, it was clear only minor changes occurred in the overall pattern. There was not much notable change in the language of the newspaper editorials genre as far as the use of conditional subtype of enhancement is concerned.

The temporal relationship indicated time expression and sequence of events mentioned in the editorial texts to form a bigger grammatical and semantic unit. The link between the clauses in the clause complex was marked by time. Here, a temporal expression in the clause was used to indicate the notice of time, date, duration, or frequency. The temporal subtype has been observed to be the third preferred subtype of enhancement in the editorials. The temporal subtype of enhancement was observed to be rising and falling over the years. This is presented in the graph below:

**Fig. 6.9: Temporal subtype of enhancement**



The figure above presents the rise and fall pattern or the zigzag nature of the temporal subtype of enhancement process. This can be illustrated from 1957, when the figure was 33.8%. It fell sharply to 13.0% in 1958, then fell again in 1959. The figures rose in 1960, 1961, 1963, 1964, and 1965. In 1977 it fell and rose 1978. Another significant observation from the period was that it fell in 1989 and 1999, respectively, then rose in 2000.

Also, there were times where the change was very low. For example, there was a great fall in 1959, between 1969 and 1971, 1981, 1989, 1999, between 2005 and 2006. There were times

where the variation was high. For instance, there was a sharp rising in 1963, then it rose significantly in 1980 and 1987. The figures fell sharply in 1989.

There were periods where the variation was not too much. For example, between 1967 and 1971, 1989 and 1997 the change was not wide. The change was also the same year by year. For example, in 1966, 1971, 1977, 1983, 1991, 1996, and 2014, it was the same. This was actually the information that was attested by the figures but it was difficult to say that there has been a significant change due to the way the graph has been zigzaggedly patterned. This has been the prevailing pattern in the distribution of temporal subtype of enhancement process in the editorials during the period of study.

Precisely, the study notes the following:

- i. 1957 was the beginning of the study period, the figure for temporal subtype of enhancement process was 33.8%. This ended in 2018, the figure was 16.2%. There was not much difference.
- ii. in-between these two periods, the study observed that the figures rose and fell over the ages. There was no consistent pattern of change. However, there were a few instances when the study observed some sharp variations;
  - a) there was a steep rise in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1973 (10.7%) and 1974 (20.4%) – a difference of 9.7%
    - between 1977 (14.1%) and 1978 (22.3%) – a difference of 8.2%
    - between 1981 (9.4% and 1982 (20.8%) – a difference of 11.4%
    - between 1986 (15.2%) and 1987 (34.3%) – a difference of 19.1%
    - between 2006 (10.1%) and 2007 (20.7%) – a difference of 10.6%

b) on the converse side, there was a sudden decline in the figures for the following periods:

between 1957 (33.8%) and 1958 (13.0%) – a difference of 20.8%

between 1980 (24.7%) and 1981 (9.4%) – a difference of 15.3%

between 1982 (20.8%) and 1983 (14.4%) – a difference of 6.4%

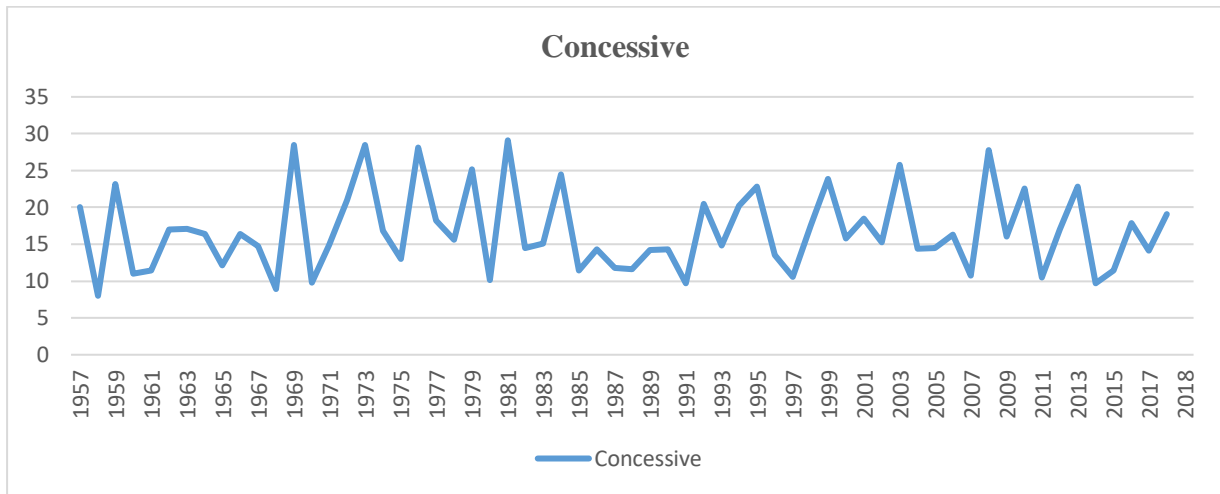
between 1987 (34.3%) and 1988 (18.7%) – a difference of 15.6%

between 2008 (21.6%) and 2009 (12.0%) – difference of 9.6%

These were the only periods when the study observed such relatively drastic variations. What this means is that, apart from these ten periods when the language changed considerably, it was clear that only minor changes occurred in the overall pattern. There was not much extraordinary change in the language of the newspaper editorials genre as far as the use of temporal subtype of enhancement is concerned.

In the concessive relation of enhancement, the writer presents yielding information between the dominant clauses and the dependent clause. In enhancement clause of concessive, the writer provides an idea that suggests the opposite of the major idea in the sentence. What this means is that one clause is used to relate to another clause in a modifying way. The concessive clause of enhancement is marked by conjunctive signals such as *although*, *even though*, *though* etc to express information. The concessive subtype was observed to be the fourth preferred choice of the enhancement subtype. It rises and falls across the years so it is difficult to say clearly that indeed there was a significant change due to the downward and upward pattern of the graph below:

**Fig. 6.10: Concessive subtype of enhancement**



The figure above presents the rise and fall pattern or the zigzag nature of the concessive subtype of enhancement. There were changes or differences in the figures across the years and this was confirmed by the graph. There were times where the change was very high, very low, or constantly the same. This can be illustrated from 1957, when the figure was 20.0%, it fell to 8.0% in 1958, then it rose again to 23.2% in 1959, and in 1960. In 1961, it fell. It then went up in 1962 and 1963, and dropped in 1968.

Another close observation from the study was that there was a high rise 1969. There was a great fall in 1970. The figures went high between 1971 and 1973. The researcher noticed another great fall between 1974 and 1975. The figures went high between 1976 and 1977. Interestingly, between 1978 and 1979 it was low, then it fell greatly in 1980. There was a high rise in 1981.

There was also a change from 1985 to 1991 but the difference was not wide. Then it went up suddenly in 1992, then it fell and rose a bit between 1993 and 1996. There was a great fall in 1997. The figures went up sharply in 1999 and fell a bit low between 2000 and 2002. In 2003,

there was a sharp rise and a sharp fall in 2004, then it remained marginally low between 2005 and 2007. Again, a high rise was recorded in 2008, then it fell sharply in 2009. It went high in 2011, fell greatly in 2015 and the figures rose from 2016. This has been the prevailing pattern in the distribution of concessive subtype of enhancement in the editorials during the period of study.

Specifically, the study notes the following:

- i. 1957 marked the beginning of the study period, the figure for the concessive subtype of enhancement was 20.0%. When it ended in 2018, the figure was 19.1%. Not much difference was recorded.
- ii. in-between these two periods, the study found that the figures rose and fell over the ages. There was no consistent pattern of change. However, there were few instances when the study detected sudden variations;
  - a) there was a steep rise in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1958 (8.0%) and 1959 (23.2%) – a difference of %
    - between 1968 (8.9%) and 1969 (28.5%) – a difference of 19.6%
    - between 1975 (13.0% and 1976 (28.1%) – a difference of 15.1%
    - between 1978 (15.6%) and 1979 (25.2%) – a difference of 9.6%
    - between 1980 (10.1%) and 1981 (29.1%) – a difference of 19%
    - between 1983 (15.1%) and 1984 (24.5%) – a difference of 9.4%
    - between 1991 (9.7%) and 1992 (20.5%) – a difference of 10.8%
    - between 2002 (15.3%) and 2003 (25.8%) – a difference of 10.5%
    - between 2007 (10.7%) and 2008 (27.8%) – a difference of 17.1%

b) on the reverse side, there was a sudden decline in the figures for the following periods:

between 1957 (20.0%) and 1958 (8.0%) – a difference of 12%

between 1959 (23.2%) and 1960 (11.0%) – a difference of 12.2%

between 1969 (28.5%) and 1970 (9.8%) – a difference of 18.7%

between 1973 (28.5%) and 1974 (16.8%) – a difference of 11.7%

between 1976 (28.1%) and 1977 (15.6%) – a difference of 12.5%

between 1979 (25.2%) and 1980 (10.1%) – a difference of 15.1%

between 1981 (29.1%) and 1982 (14.5%) – a difference of 14.5%

between 1984 (24.5%) and 1985 (11.4%) – a difference of 13.1%

between 1995 (22.8%) and 1996 (13.5%) – a difference of 9.3%

between 1999 (23.9%) and 2000(15.8%) – a difference of 8.1%

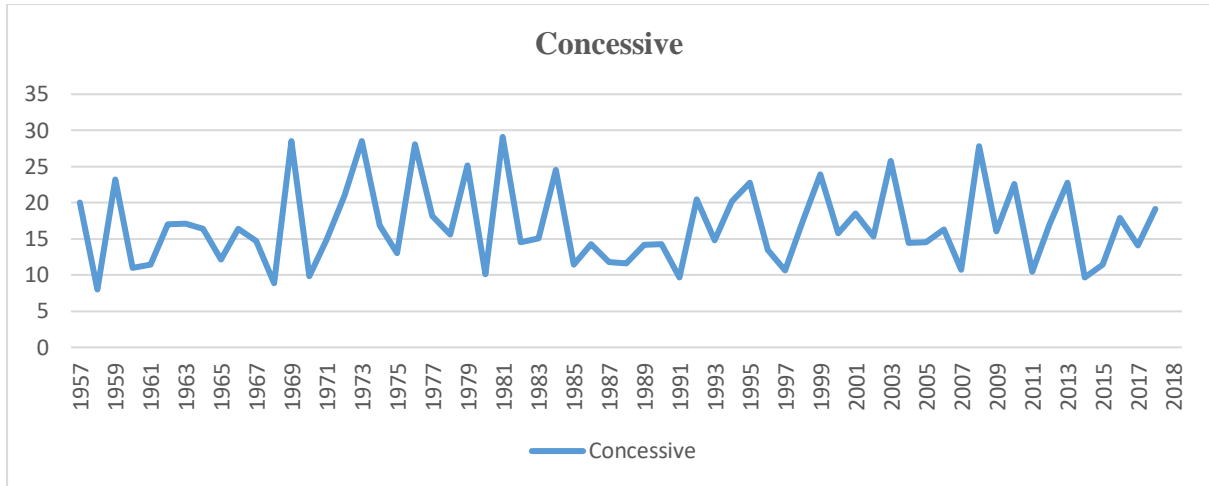
between 2003 (25.8%) and 2004 (14.4%) – difference of 11.4%

between 2008 (27.8%) and 2009 (16.0%) – difference of 11.8%

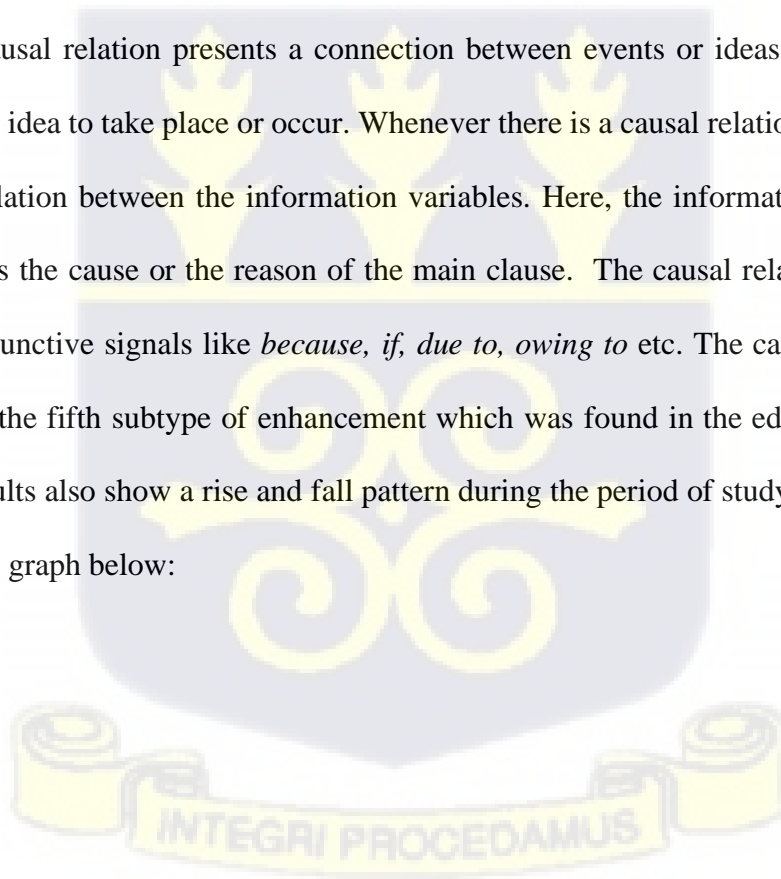
between 2010 (22.6%) and 2011 (10.5%) – difference of 12.1%

between 2013 (22.8%) and 2014 (9.7%) – difference of 13.1%

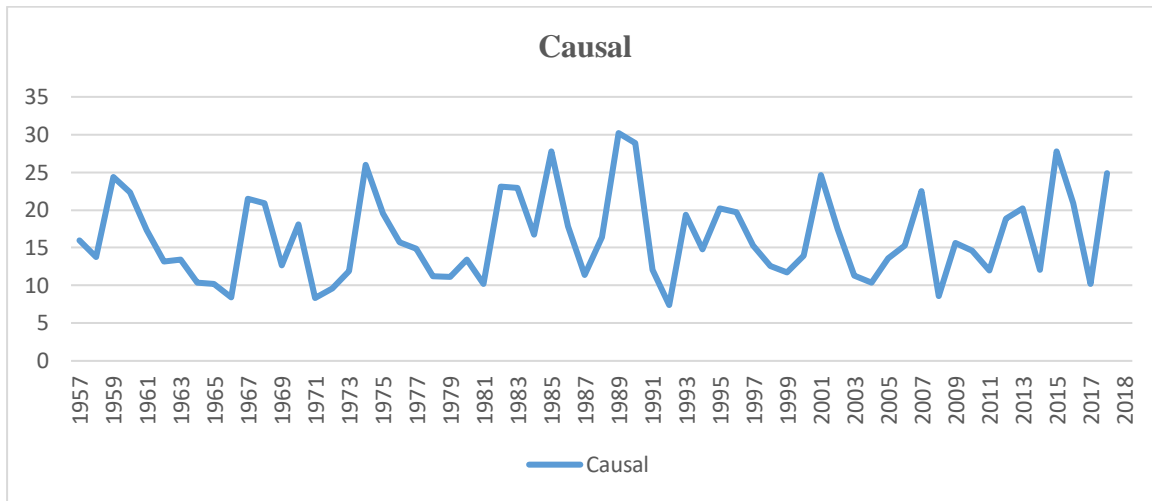
These were the only periods when the study saw such fairly extreme differences. The implication from this information was that, apart from these twenty-four periods when the language changed substantially, it was clear only minor changes occurred in the overall pattern. There was not much notable change in the language of the newspaper editorials genre as far as the use of concessive subtype of enhancement is concerned. This scenario is presented in the graph below:



The causal relation is also another pattern of enhancement which was found in the text. A causal relation between ideas exists if the manifestation of the first idea causes the other. In other words, causal relation presents a connection between events or ideas, where one idea causes the other idea to take place or occur. Whenever there is a causal relation between ideas, there is a correlation between the information variables. Here, the information in the causal clause expresses the cause or the reason of the main clause. The causal relation is explicitly marked by conjunctive signals like *because, if, due to, owing to* etc. The causal subtype was observed to be the fifth subtype of enhancement which was found in the editorial during the period. The results also show a rise and fall pattern during the period of study. The figures are presented in the graph below:



**Fig. 6.11: Causal subtype of enhancement**



The figure above presents the rise and fall pattern or the zigzag nature of the causal subtype of enhancement. This can be illustrated from 1957, when the figure was 16.0%, it fell to 13.8% in 1958, and then, there was a high rise in 1959. Between 1960 and 1966, it fell considerably. There was a high rising in 1967 and 1968. It fell a bit low in 1969, then it went up a bit high in 1970 and fell sharply in 1971. The figures rose again in 1972 and in 1975. From 1976, it started decreasing and it became very low in 1981. Figures once again went very high in 1982 and fell a bit from 1983 to 1984. Then it went very high 1985.

There was a great fall in 1988, it went up very high in 1989, from 1990 to 1992, there was a great fall, but the figures rose in 1993. It fell considerably and remained a bit constant with small difference from 1994 to 1999. Then it rose again between 2000 and 2002, the figures fell sharply in 2008. From 2009, it started rising steadily and it went very high in 2015, then it dropped sharply in 2017 and rose again in 2018.

This is precisely the pattern with regards to the use of the causal subtype of enhancement during the period. The change is actually perceived as highly fall and rising and that makes slightly to

say that there has been a change or not due to the way the researcher has presented the figures in an undecided nature. This has been the prevailing pattern in the distribution of expansion in the editorials during the period of study.

Specifically, then, the study notes the following:

- i. at the beginning of the study from 1957, the figure for the causal subtype of enhancement was 16.0%, and ended in 2018 with 24.9%. The study did not observe too much difference.
- ii. in-between these two periods, the study found that the figures rose and fell over the ages. There was no consistent pattern of change. However, there were a few instances when the study observed steep fluctuations;
  - a) there was a steep rise in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1958 (13.8%) and 1959 (24.4%) – a difference of 10.6%
    - between 1966 (8.4%) and 1967 (21.5%) – a difference of 13.1%
    - between 1973 (11.9% and 1974 (26.6%) – a difference of 14.7%
    - between 1981 (10.2%) and 1982 (23.1%) – a difference of 12.9%
    - between 1984 (16.7%) and 1985 (27.8%) – a difference of 11.1%
    - between 1988 (16.4%) and 1989 (30.2%) – a difference of 13.8%
    - between 1992 (7.4%) and 1993 (19.4%) – a difference of 12%
    - between 1994 (14.8%) and 1995 (20.2%) – a difference of 5.4%
    - between 2000 (13.9%) and 2001 (24.9%) – a difference of 11%
    - between 2017 (10.2%) and 2018 (24.9%) – a difference of 14.7%.
  - b) on the reverse side, there was a sudden decline in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1970 (18.1%) and 1971 (8.3%) – a difference of 9.8%

between 1985 (27.8%) and 1986 (17.8%) – a difference of 15.7%

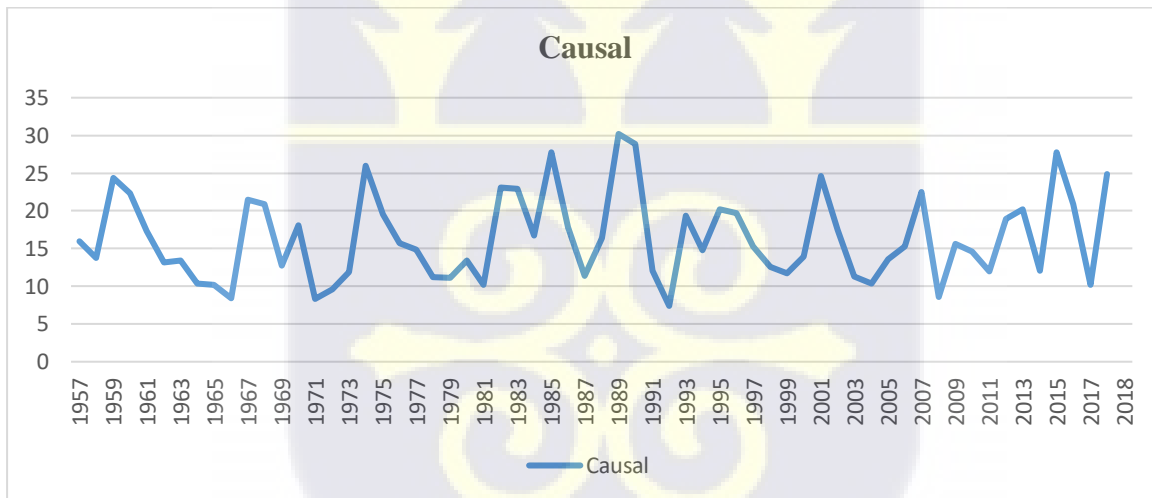
between 1990 (28.9%) and 1991 (12.1%) – a difference of 16.8%

between 2007 (22.5%) and 2008 (8.6%) – a difference of 13.9%

between 2013 (20.2%) and 2014 (12.1%) – difference of 8.1%

between 2016 (20.9%) and 2017 (10.2%) – difference of 10.7%

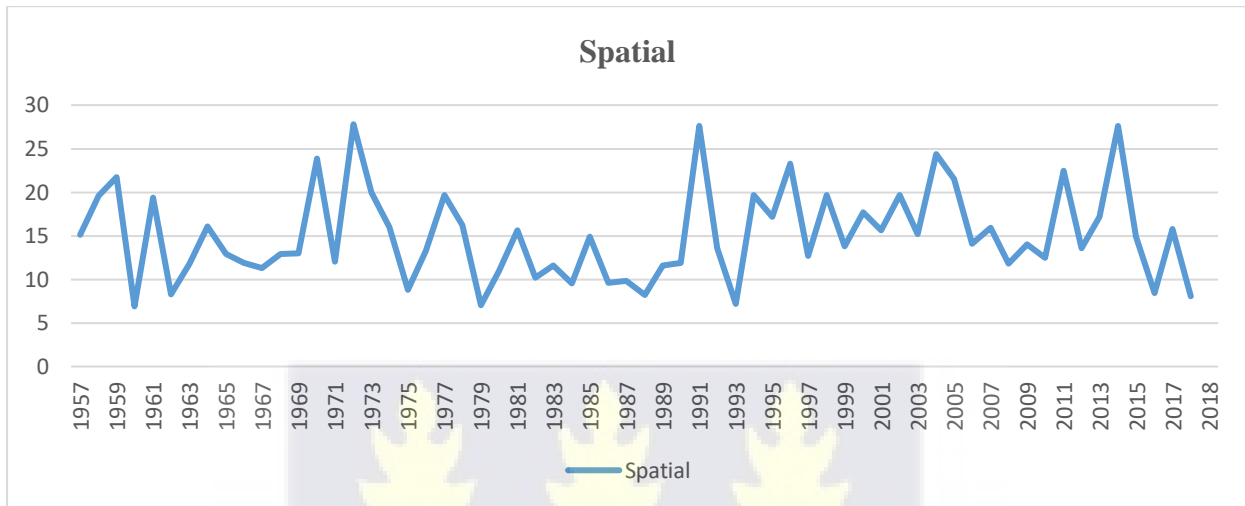
These were the only periods when the study noticed such relatively drastic differences. Looking at the figures above, the researcher is of the view that apart from these sixteen periods when the language changed considerably, it was clear only minor changes occurred in the overall pattern. There was not much notable change in the language of the newspaper editorials genre as far as the use of causal subtype of enhancement is concerned. This scenario is presented in the graph below:



Again, spatial relation was used to signal information about place in the texts under study. A spatial relationship determines how every experience is placed in time in relation to any point of reference. Here the information provided in the enhancement clause complex deals with where the event of the clause complex happens or where the action takes place. The writer used that to talk about the place which the event occurred and the relations between the entities

involved. The least subtype of enhancement in the editorial is the spatial subtype. In spite of the fact that the spatial subtype is consistently the least preferred subtype in the editorials, it was observed that it also rose and fell as indicated in the graph below:

**Fig. 6.12: Spatial subtype of enhancement**



The figure above presents the rise and fall pattern or the zigzag nature of the logico-semantic types. This can be illustrated from 1957, when the figure was 15.1%, then it rose to 19.6% in 1958, then it rose again in 1959 to 21%, then it fell sharply in 1960, then it rose high in 1961. In 1962 it went down, then in 1962 and 1963 it went up again. Between 1964 to 1968 it started falling but the difference was not too wide. Then came 1971 when there was a high rise. The figures dropped sharply from 1972 to 1975, then it went up in 1977.

It was also observed that there was a great difference between 1969, 1977 because the changes were drastic as compared to the changes from 1979 through 1989. There was another drastic change between 1989 and 1995 as compared to the change in 1996 and 2013. Another drastic fall was recorded in 2017. So, there was a change from 1959 to 2018 but it was not consistent

at all because of the manner in which the figures rose and fell. This has been the prevailing pattern in the distribution of expansion in the editorials during the period of study.

This is specifically presented in the following:

- i. at the beginning of the study 1957, the figure for the spatial was 15.1%. When it ended in 2018, the figure was 8.1%. Therefore, no significant difference was observed
- ii. in-between these two periods, the observed that the figures rose and fell over the ages. There was no consistent pattern of change. However, there were a few instances when the study observed deep fluctuations;
  - a) the figures rose steeply for the following periods:
    - between 1960 (6.9%) and 1961 (19.4%) – a difference of 12.5%
    - between 1969 (13.0%) and 1970 (23.9%) – a difference of 10.9%
    - between 1971 (12.0%) and 1972 (27.8%) – a difference of 15.8%
    - between 1990 (11.9%) and 1991 (27.6%) – a difference of 15.7%
    - between 1993 (7.2%) and 1994 (19.7%) – a difference of 12.5%
    - between 2003 (15.2%) and 2004 (24.4%) – a difference of 9.2%
    - between 2010 (12.5%) and 2011 (22.5%) – a difference of 10%
    - between 2013 (17.2%) and 2014 (27.6%) – a difference of 10.4%
    - between 2016 (8.4%) and 2017 (15.8%) – a difference of 7.4%
  - b) on the converse side, there was a sudden decline in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1959 (21.7%) and 1960 (6.9%) – a difference of 14.8%
    - between 1961 (19.4%) and 1962 (8.3%) – a difference of 11.1%
    - between 1970 (23.9%) and 1971 (12.0%) – a difference of 11.9%

between 1974 (16.0%) and 1975 (8.8%) – a difference of 7.2%

between 1991 (27.6%) and 1992 (13.6%) – a difference of 14%

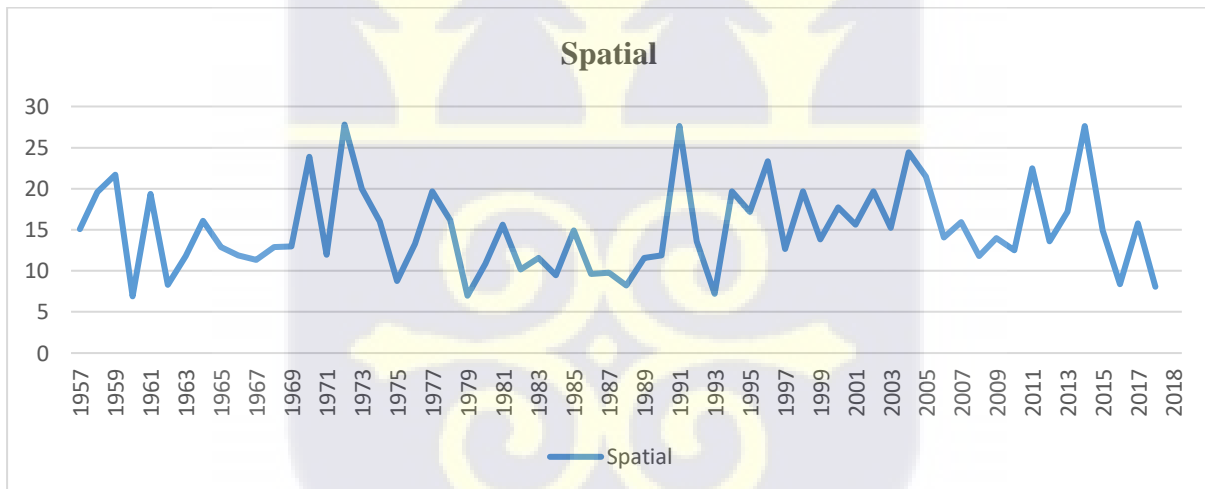
between 1996 (23.3%) and 1997 (12.7%) – a difference of 10.6%

between 2005 (21.5%) and 2006 (14.1%) – difference of 7.4%

between 2011 (22.5%) and 2012 (13.6%) – difference of 8.9%

between 2014 (27.6%) and 2015 (14.9%) – difference of 12.7%

These were the only periods when the study noticed such relatively drastic differences. What this means is that, apart from these eighteen periods when the language changed considerably, it is clear only minor changes occurred in the overall pattern. There was not much noteworthy change in the language of the newspaper editorials genre as far as the use of spatial subtype of enhancement is concerned. This scenario is presented in the graph below:



The pattern of the subtypes of enhancement indicates that during the years under study, the patterns of enhancement subtypes have some slight inconsistency. What this means is that it appears there is no consistent pattern with respect to the use of enhancement. For instance, while temporal was used predominantly in 1957, against the other patterns, in 1958 it shifted

to conditional and further shifted to causal in 1959 and then to manner in 1960 and finally to spatial in 1972.

From this, it could be seen that the use of enhancement subtypes is highly unstable throughout the years. This was demonstrated by the result from the frequency and the percentage scores presented above indicate that there was little constancy of variance year by year during the period of study. Therefore, researcher is of the view that there was no significant change in the language choices in the use of enhancement subtypes in the newspaper editorials between 1957 and 2018. This can be seen in the average percentage figures illustrated below:

**Table 6.6: Average for Subtypes of Enhancement**

Years	manner	conditional	temporal	concessive	causal	spatial
1957 – 1966	18.9 %	15.6%	20.8%	15.2%	14.9%	14.3%
1967 – 1976	16.7%	17.5%	14.9%	18.4%	16.4%	15.9%
1977 – 1986	17.9%	17.0%	17.7%	17.8%	16.9%	12.5%
1987 – 1996	16.0%	19.0%	16.5%	15.3%	18.0%	15.0%
1997 – 2006	17.3 %	19.0%	14.2%	17.2%	14.6%	17.4%
2007 – 2016	18.5%	14.6%	17.1%	16.6%	17.3%	15.8%
2017 – 2018	13.6%	21.6%	18.9%	16.6%	17.5%	11.9%

The impression this information presents to us is that there was a decline in the manner processes in the period 1957 up to the period 19676, then there began a gradual rise from 1977 up to the period of 1986. There was another decline in figures from 1987 up to the period of 1996. There was another gradual rise from 1997 up to the period of 2016. From 2017 up to 2018 saw another gradual decline as far as the manner subtype of enhancement is concerned.

The conditional subtype of enhancement also showed a gradual increase from the period of 1957 up to the period of 2006, then there was a gradual decline from the period of 2007 up to the period of 2016. Then, there began a gradual rise from 1997 – 2018.

The temporal subtype of enhancement also declined from the period of 1967 up to the period of 1976, then there was a gradual rise from the period of 1977 up to the period of 1986. There was another decline from 1987 up to 2006. Then there began another gradual increase from the period of 2007 up to the period of 2018.

The concessive subtype also rose from the period of 1957 up to the period of 1976. Then there began a gradual decline from the period of 1977 up to the period of 1996. Then it rose from the period of 1997 up to the period of 2006. The figures became considerably stable from 2007 up to 2018.

There was a gradual increase in the causal subtype of enhancement from the period of 1957 up to the period of 1996, then there was a gradual fall from 1997 up to the period of 2006. The result showed a considerable rise from the period 2007 up to the period 2018.

There was a decline in the spatial subtype of enhancement from the period of 1957 up to the period of 1966, then it rose from 1967 up to the period of 1976, the figures declined from 1977 up to 1986, then it rose again from 1987 up to the period of 2006. There was a gradual decline from the period of 2007 up to the period of 2018.

#### 6.4 The patterns of elaboration in the editorials

Elaboration is another subtype of expansion. Elaboration provides detailed information (relationship of restatement); saying the same thing over again, either by direct repetition, or by rewording it, clarifying it, or giving an example. This is a relationship of adding more information to existing, relatively simple information to create a more complex, emergent whole. It involves developing an idea by incorporating details, commenting, or exemplifying to amplify the original simple idea. Halliday (2004, p. 396) defines elaboration as a type of expansion in which one clause elaborates the meaning of another clause by further specifying, describing or exemplifying it. This was broadened by Eggins (2004) that elaboration provides detailed information where the secondary clause(s) provide more information to the information in the primary clause.

In elaboration, the clauses in the clause complex elaborate on the meaning of the other clause by restating or adding a descriptive attribute or comments to the primary clause. In other words, the secondary clause does not present new information (Jomaa, & Bidin, 2019). The codification used for this type of relation is the equal (=) sign. The words which typically precede elaborated clauses include *namely, i.e., e.g.,* Elaboratory clauses are the secondary clauses that clarify or comment on the first clause. These secondary clauses can be finite or non-finite and they occur in coordinating and subordinating relationship with the first clause with the use of words such as *frankly, for instance, for example, to serve as an example, in order words* etc. An example of elaboratory clause complex in the editorial texts is presented below:

|||<sup>1</sup>*Initiating clause* The disclosure is more worrying |=<sup>2</sup>*continuing clause* for example, the tests were conducted on electrical cables, switches, bulbs and extension boards, |=<sup>3</sup>*continuing clause* all of which are basic home devices. ||| [DGE/09/05/2018]

The above example is an elaboratory clause complex. There are three independent clauses involved. The continuing clauses elaborate the initiating clause through exemplification but no new information is presented from the continuing clauses. Elaboration is one means of developing ideas where a writer gives information in different ways. It must be stressed that in elaborating clauses, the initiating clause does not attract new information from the secondary clause. The secondary clause just adds or offers details, specifics, clarifications, facts, opinions, or examples to the primary clause.

#### 6.4.1 Types of elaboration

It was also observed from the data that the elaborating clause complex releases different patterns by clarifying, exemplifying, upgrading or highlighting the information. As a result, the elaboratory clause complex releases different subtypes of elaboration. It was observed that there were changes in the internal distribution of these types of elaboratory clause complexes. Table 6.7 below attests the pattern of distribution and the changes which were observed using these subtypes of elaboratory clause complexes in the editorials during the period of study.

**Table 6:7 Patterns of elaboration year by year**

Years	Types of Elaboration					
	Exemplification		Clarification		Exposition	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1957	8	5.7	67	47.5	45	31.9
1958	8	6.8	63	53.8	28	23.9
1959	9	4.3	98	47.3	77	37.2
1960	6	6.3	30	31.6	43	45.3
1961	12	13.8	26	29.9	32	36.8
1962	15	11.3	64	48.1	33	24.8
1963	12	6.4	65	34.8	85	45.5
1964	11	9.5	38	32.8	44	37.9
1965	13	13.3	23	23.5	42	42.9
1966	7	4.4	73	45.6	65	40.6
1967	10	8.2	39	32.0	47	38.5
1968	12	10.5	22	19.3	63	55.3
1969	11	8.7	63	49.6	29	22.8
1970	5	4.8	46	43.8	38	36.2
1971	8	5.8	62	44.9	41	29.7

<b>1972</b>	9	7.0	37	28.9	65	50.8
<b>1973</b>	7	5.1	50	36.8	61	44.9
<b>1974</b>	5	4.3	41	35.3	52	44.8
<b>1975</b>	6	4.4	61	44.5	55	40.1
<b>1976</b>	4	3.5	55	48.2	43	37.7
<b>1977</b>	5	4.6	48	44.4	42	38.9
<b>1978</b>	5	4.9	38	36.9	45	43.7
<b>1979</b>	7	6.4	35	31.8	51	46.4
<b>1980</b>	5	5.4	33	35.9	40	43.5
<b>1981</b>	6	5.2	40	34.8	56	48.7
<b>1982</b>	5	3.4	83	57.2	50	34.5
<b>1983</b>	6	4.9	46	37.4	53	43.1
<b>1984</b>	6	5.7	39	37.1	42	40.0
<b>1985</b>	7	5.8	61	50.4	44	36.4
<b>1986</b>	9	7.1	51	40.2	52	40.9
<b>1987</b>	5	4.6	36	33.0	41	37.6
<b>1988</b>	5	3.8	49	37.1	62	47.0
<b>1989</b>	12	11.9	40	39.6	35	34.7
<b>1990</b>	9	8.7	33	32.0	41	39.8
<b>1991</b>	11	9.1	66	54.5	29	24.0
<b>1992</b>	10	9.5	35	33.3	42	40.0
<b>1993</b>	17	12.7	60	44.8	41	30.6
<b>1994</b>	11	12.5	28	31.8	36	40.9
<b>1995</b>	15	13.5	35	31.5	45	40.5
<b>1996</b>	5	4.0	69	55.6	33	26.6
<b>1997</b>	12	13.0	35	38.0	26	28.3
<b>1998</b>	6	6.0	45	45.0	36	36.0
<b>1999</b>	12	12.1	32	32.3	41	41.4
<b>2000</b>	13	16.7	20	25.6	31	39.7
<b>2001</b>	8	8.0	30	30.0	45	45.0
<b>2002</b>	10	8.3	66	54.5	31	25.6
<b>2003</b>	13	8.6	78	51.3	35	23.0
<b>2004</b>	9	8.3	39	35.8	43	39.4
<b>2005</b>	9	6.6	71	51.8	40	29.2
<b>2006</b>	7	7.5	33	35.5	40	43.0
<b>2007</b>	6	4.6	58	44.6	45	34.6
<b>2008</b>	9	7.6	62	52.1	35	29.4
<b>2009</b>	7	7.7	28	30.8	36	39.6
<b>2010</b>	15	16.0	39	41.5	30	31.9
<b>2011</b>	7	6.8	41	39.8	30	29.1
<b>2012</b>	5	4.1	31	25.6	65	53.7
<b>2013</b>	10	7.8	55	42.6	45	34.9
<b>2014</b>	4	3.8	33	31.7	46	44.2
<b>2015</b>	5	3.8	43	32.6	66	50.0
<b>2016</b>	16	12.0	60	45.1	38	28.6
<b>2017</b>	6	5.3	56	49.6	30	26.5
<b>2018</b>	5	3.8	65	49.2	42	31.8

The 6.7 above presents the patterns of the subtypes of elaboration which were observed in texts during the period of study. The subtypes of elaboration which were used in the data include clarification, exemplification and exposition. It is clear from table that clarification was the most preferred subtype of elaboration in the editorials. Clarification has the overwhelming majority during the period under study. It ranged between the lowest of 19.3% (1968) to the highest of 57.2% (1982). This was followed by exposition which ranged between the lowest of 22.8% (1969) and the highest of 55.3% (1968). Exemplification was the least choice of elaboration subtype in the data which ranged between the lowest of 3.4% (1982) and the highest of 16.7% (2000). It was noticed, for instance, that there were changes in the internal distribution of these subtypes of elaboration in the text.

Clarification can also be referred to as restatement. In clarification or restatement, the content of the information was elaborated through explanation, amplification, reaffirmation, reiteration, confirmation, repetition, endorsement, or reassertion of the idea. The secondary clause restates the content of the first clause or the primary clause from the other point of view. In this case, the secondary clause restates or clarifies the substance or meaning of the primary clause by providing some explanatory or illustrative comments or interpretations. The following punctuation marks are basically used to introduce the secondary clause (:), (;), (-), or words like *in fact*, *actually*, *in other words*, *that is*, *indeed*, *at least*, etc.

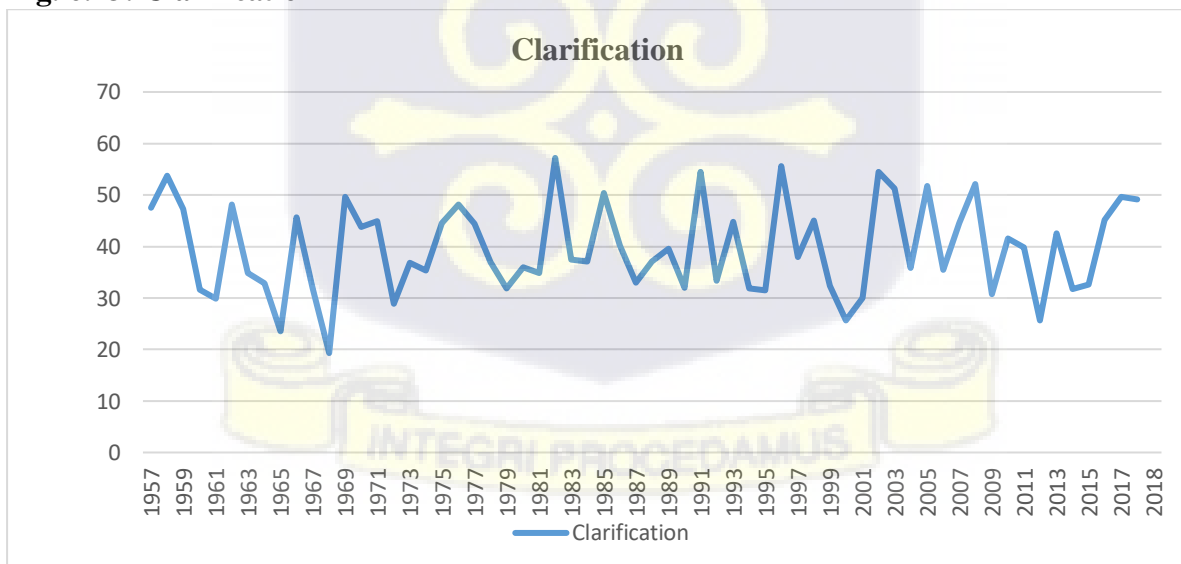
17. *|||1<sup>initiating clause</sup> We surely cannot retreat in the fight against illegal mining, ||=2<sup>continuing clause</sup> **in fact** we need to sustain and defeat it once and for all. ||| [DGE/04/11/1976]*

18. *|||1<sup>initiating clause</sup> Real and proper development takes place within a cultural context ||=2<sup>continuing clause</sup> **in other words** we should thus cherish our time-tested values and never follow others blindly, only to regret someday. ||| [DGE/04/10/1982]*

Here, the writer is restating the same thing in different ways or forms. Actually, the secondary clauses elaborate the information by incorporating additional meaning to the primary clause; so there is perceived continuous flow of ideas to clarify or restate the already mentioned information. There are numerous ways of using exemplification to organize a text. Many writers require countless examples to satisfactorily describe their major thought in a text. Some writers may only use one key example and analyse every aspect of its corresponding elements to illustrate or exemplify their argument comprehensively.

It was noticed that there were changes in the patterns of distribution of clarification subtype of elaboration across the data. The pattern of change has been zigzagged throughout the editorial text. It rose and fell across the years beginning from 1957 to 2018. This information is supported by the line graph below which has been provided for the clarification.

**Fig. 6.13: Clarification**



The information on the graph attested to the fact that the change was not significant because of the zigzag nature of the distribution of this subtype. The figure above presents the rise and fall pattern or the zigzag nature of clarification subtype of elaboration. This can be illustrated from 1957, when the figure was 47.5%, it rose to 53.8% in 1958, then it fell again in 1959, 1960, and 1961, and in 1987 when it rose. It then went up in 1991, and dropped in 1992. It went up once again in 2002, 2003 and dropped in 2004. The change was drastically high between 1957 and 1959, 1981 and 1983 compared with 1987 and 1991.

There were also periods where the change was not much but with little difference. For example, between 1972 and 1973, 1978 and 1984, 1987 and 1990, the difference was not wide. There were periods where the change was too much. For example, the change was very wide between 1957 and 1969, 1981 and 1987, 2001 and 2011. There were also periods where the change was respectively the same year by year for two or three years. For example, in 1983 and 1984, 1994 and 1995, it was the same. There were also periods where the change was the same but with different year intervals. For example, in 1957 and 1958, in 1960, 1979 and 2014, figures were the same. This has been the prevailing pattern in the distribution of clarification subtype of elaboration process in the editorials during the period of study.

Specifically, then, the study noted the following:

- i. at the beginning of the study in 1957, the figure for the clarification was 47.5% but 49.2% was recorded in 2018 when it ended. The percentages showed that there was not much difference.
- ii. in-between these two periods, the study noted that the figures rose and fell over the ages. This means there was no consistent pattern of change. However, there were a few instances when the study witnessed some deep variations;

a) there was a steep rise in the figures for the following periods:

between 1965 (23.5%) and 1966 (45.6%) – a difference of 22.1%

between 1968 (19.3%) and 1967 (49.6%) – a difference of 30.3%

between 1981 (34.8%) and 1982 (57.2%) – a difference of 22.4%

between 1984 (37.1%) and 1985 (50.0%) – a difference of 12.9%

between 1990 (32.0%) and 1991 (54.5%) – a difference of 22.5%

between 1996 (31.5%) and 1996 (55.6%) – a difference of 24.1%

between 2001 (30.0%) and 2002 (54.5%) – a difference of 24.5%

between 2009 (30.8%) and 2010 (41.5%) – a difference of 10.7%

between 2012 (25.6%) and 2013 (42.6%) – a difference of 17%

b) on the converse side, there was a sudden decline in the figures for the following periods:

between 1966 (45.6%) and 1967 (32.0%) – a difference of 13.6%

between 1967 (32.0%) and 1968 (19.3%) – a difference of 12.7%

between 1971 (44.9%) and 1972 (28.4%) – a difference of 16.5%

between 1982 (57.2%) and 1983 (37.4%) – a difference of 19.8%

between 1991 (54.5%) and 1992 (33.3%) – difference of 21.2%

between 1996 (55.6%) and 1997 (38.0%) – difference of 17.6%

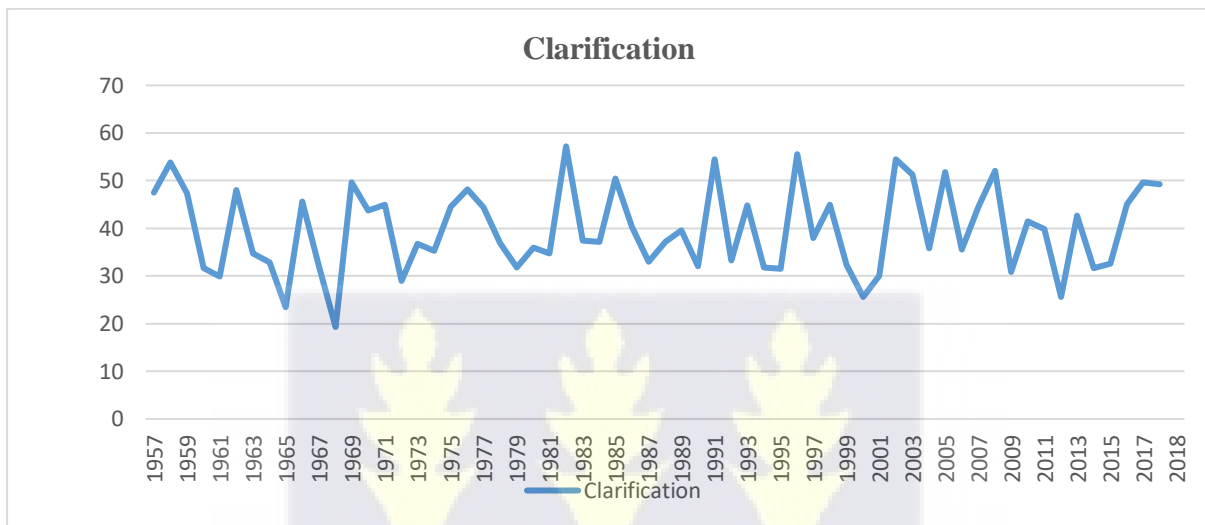
between 2003 (51.3%) and 2004 (35.5%) – difference of 15.8%

between 2008 (52.1%) and 2009 (30.8%) – difference of 21.3%

between 2011 (39.8%) and 2012 (25.6%) – difference of 14.2%

between 2013 (42.6%) and 2014 (31.7%) – difference of 10.9%

These were the only periods when the study noticed such relatively drastic differences. The differences in percentages showed that apart from these nineteen periods when the language changed substantially, it was clear only minor changes occurred in the overall pattern. There was not much prominent change in the language of the newspaper editorials genre as far as the use of clarification subtype of elaboration is concerned. This scenario is presented in the graph below:



Exposition or upgrading was noticed to be the second subtype of elaboratory clause complex in the data during the period of study. This subtype of clause clarifies the meaning of the first by presenting a stronger argument on the point made in the first clause. This means that the secondary clause restates the primary clause through strengthening or reinforcing the content of the clause complex. Upgrades commonly comprise elaborations to preceding clauses in terms of new ideas or information. Upgrading is very significant to keep ideas simplified and well informed with new factual evidence and offer substitutability as the writer elaborates the clause. The content of the upgraded clauses can be reinforced by means of punctuation (,), (;), or conjunctive expressions as *or, rather, in other words, that is to say, in fact, indeed*, etc. The following examples indicate upgrading or exposition

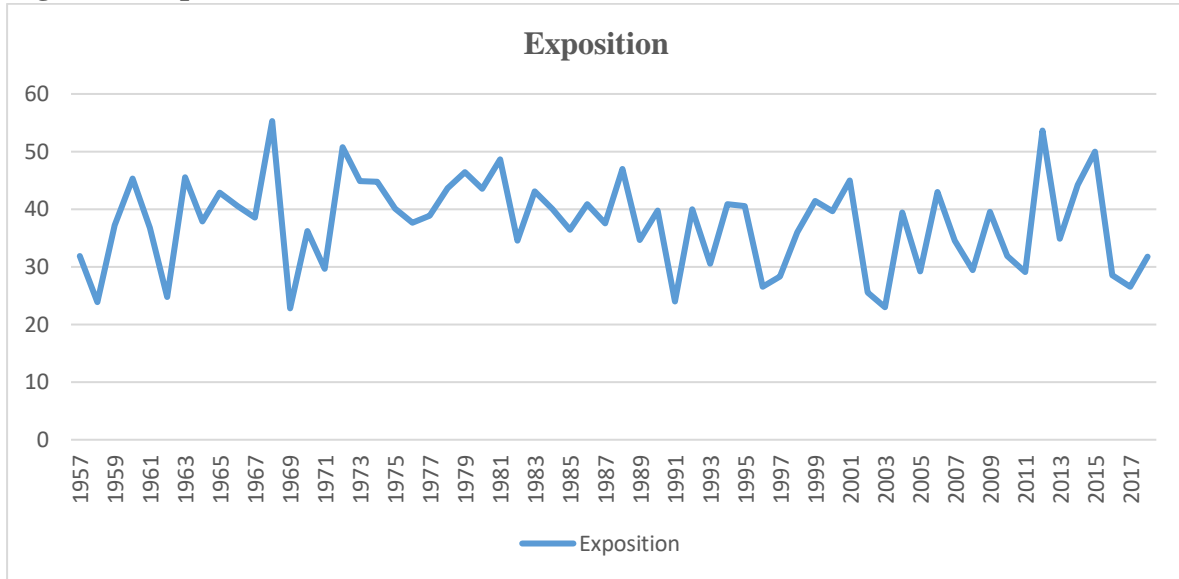
19. *1* **initiating clause** *We call on the media, civil society organisations* *2* **continuing clause** *and, indeed, all residents of the country to join the crusade to rid Ghana of filth.* *3*  
[DGE/02/03/1975]

20. *1* **initiating clause** *Armed robbers have behaved like beasts* *2* **continuing clause** *that is to say they have killed, maimed, aped and left harrowing memories on their attackers.* *3*  
[DGE/05/15/1992]

The examples above are elaboratory clause complexes through upgrading or exposition. The continuing clauses elaborate the initiating clauses by providing additional information. The idea is that the continuing clauses are linked to the initiating clause and they are linked because the information which the writers want to give is to provide a comprehensive account, identification, specification and explanation of an idea in each case (Biber, 1998). It is perceived that, in these editorials, the elaborating clauses through upgrading or exposition provide an improvement or developmental information in the status of the initiating clauses that leaves the reader no doubt about which entity is actually being deliberated or discussed.

It is not shocking given the aim of packing a large amount of information into one clause complex to specify and upgrade an idea or information in this data. It fulfils the wish for expanding idea in a text by (Eggins, 1996; Westin, 2002; Thompson, 2013). Such representations, essentially, provide additional information, and can be said to contribute to the expansiveness of the ideas in the newspaper editorial text. It observed that the pattern of the distribution of expository subtype of elaboration was rise and fall. This is presented in the figure below

**Fig. 6.14: Exposition**



The figure above presents the rise and fall pattern or the zigzag nature of the exposition subtype of elaboration. This can be illustrated from 1957, when the figure was 31.9%, then it fell to 23.9% in 1958, then it rose to 37.2% in 1959. The figures rose marginally in 1960 and in 1968 it rose high, then fell in 1985.

It was also noticed that the change was very drastic in some of the years. For example, the variation was very high between 1960 and 1963, 2011 and 2015. There was a sharp rise in 1981, 1984, and a high rise in 1988 and 2012. The change was also very low in 1958, 1962, 1969, 1991, 2002 and 2017. Between 1973 and 1981, 1984 and 1988, the change was not too much.

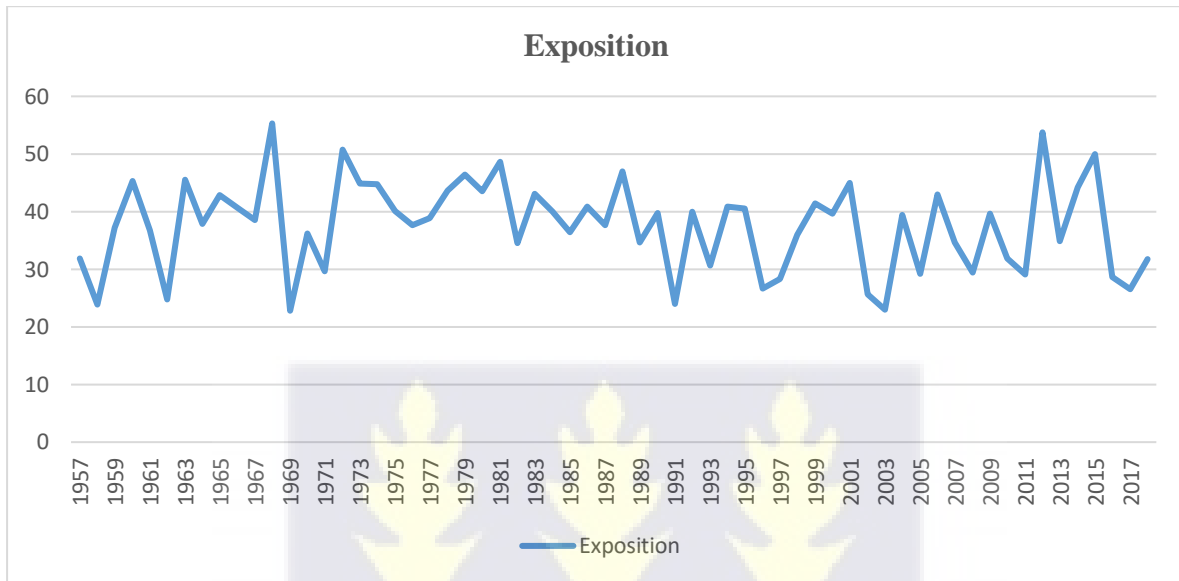
There were periods where the change was the same at different year interval. For example, it was the same in 1966, 1984, 1986, 1992, successively the same in 1994 and 1995. This was exactly the pattern per the information gathered from the data and supported by the figures

above. This has been the prevailing pattern in the distribution of expansion in the editorials during the period of study.

Exactly, the study observed the following:

- i. at the beginning of the study in 1957, the figure for the exposition subtype of elaboration was 31.9% but fell slightly to 31.8% when it ended in 2018. The percentage scores showed that there was not much difference.
- ii. in-between these two periods, the study noted that the figures rose and fell over the ages. There was no consistent pattern of change. However, there were few instances when the study observed steep fluctuations;
  - a) there was a steep rise in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1962 (24.8%) and 1963 (45.5%) – a difference of 20.7%
    - between 1967 (38.5%) and 1968 (55.5%) – a difference of 17%
    - between 1971 (29.7%) and 1972 (50.8%) – a difference of 21.1%
    - between 1991 (24.0%) and 1992 (40.0%) – a difference of 16%
    - between 2005 (29.2%) and 2006 (43.0%) – a difference of 13.8%
    - between 2011 (29.1%) and 2012 (53.7%) – a difference of 24.6%
  - b) on the converse side, there was a sudden decline in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1968 (55.3%) and 1969 (22.8%) – a difference of 32.5%
    - between 1992 (40.0%) and 1993 (30.6%) – a difference of 9.4%
    - between 1995 (40.5%) and 1996 (26.6%) – a difference of 13.9%
    - between 2001 (45.0%) and 2002 (25.6%) – a difference of 19.4%
    - between 2012 (53.7%) and 2013 (34.9%) – difference of 18.8%
    - between 2015 (50.0%) and 2016 (28.6%) – difference of 21.4%

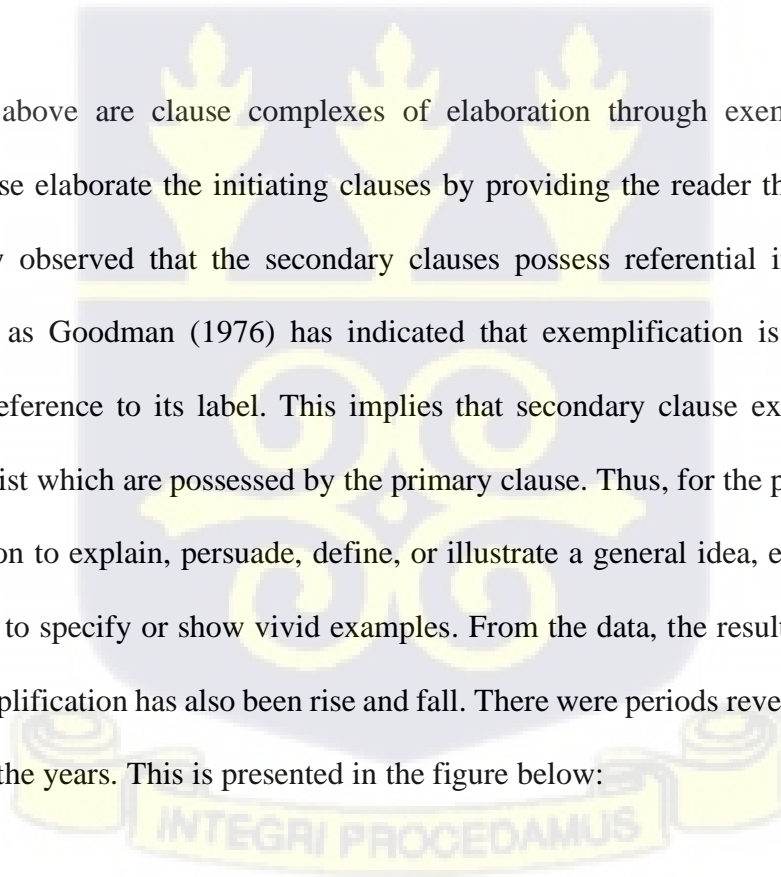
These were the only periods when the study noticed such relatively drastic differences. The result showed that, apart from these twelve periods when the language changed considerably, it was clear only minor changes occurred in the overall pattern. There was not much notable change in the language of the newspaper editorials genre as far as the use of exposition subtype of elaboration is concerned. This scenario is presented in the graph below:



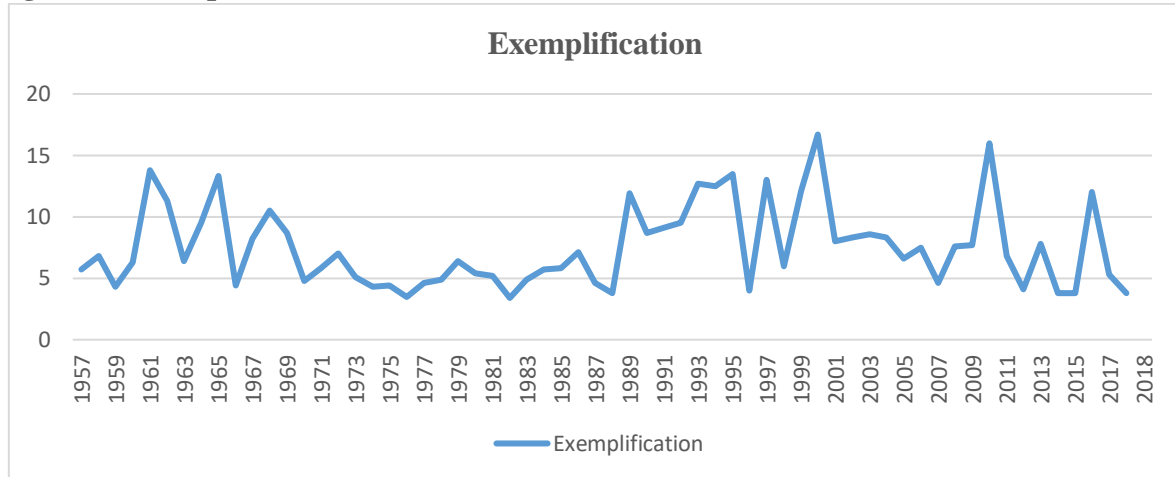
Exemplification is also another subtype of elaboration where the secondary clause advances the content of the primary clause to make it more specific or strengthening it with an example using words like *for example*, *for instance*, *in particular*, *e.g.*, *specifically*, etc. In exemplification, writers use examples to explain, influence or persuade readers. As a result, Clouse (2006) has stressed that exemplification is a pattern of essay development that uses specific instances or examples to clarify a point, to add interest, or to persuade. In this case, exemplification lends interest and information to writing and is seen as one of the most common and effective ways to develop ideas. Examples may be developed in a sentence or more, or they may be only phrases or even single words, as in the following examples:

21. *|||1<sup>initiating clause</sup> Real and proper development takes place within a cultural context  
||=2<sup>continuing clause</sup> e.g. we should thus cherish our time-tested values and never follow  
others blindly, only to regret someday. ||| [DGE/01/08/1988]*
22. *|||1<sup>initiating clause</sup> The prevailing risk factors for cholera are insanitary conditions  
||=2<sup>continuing clause</sup> for instance, lack of access to clean water. ||| [DGE/08/07/1993]*
23. *|||1<sup>initiating clause</sup> The world is endowed with vegetation, ||=2<sup>continuing clause</sup> specifically it  
provides us with birds and other forms of meat, as well as the sea, rivers, lakes 'and  
other water bodies which are full of sea food, including fish. ||| [DGE/07/10/1961]*

The examples above are clause complexes of elaboration through exemplification. The continuing clause elaborate the initiating clauses by providing the reader through examples. Here, the study observed that the secondary clauses possess referential inclination to the primary clause as Goodman (1976) has indicated that exemplification is possession of a property plus reference to its label. This implies that secondary clause exemplifies certain properties in a list which are possessed by the primary clause. Thus, for the purpose of adding more information to explain, persuade, define, or illustrate a general idea, exemplification is used by writers to specify or show vivid examples. From the data, the result showed that the pattern of exemplification has also been rise and fall. There were periods revealed some drastic changes across the years. This is presented in the figure below:



**Fig. 6.15: Exemplification**



The figure above presents the rise and fall pattern or the zigzag nature of the exemplification subtype of elaboration. This can be illustrated from 1957, when the figure was 5.7%, it rose to 6.8% in 1958, then it fell in 1959, 1983, 1984, 1985, 1986, 1987 and in 1988 when it fell. It then went up in 1993, and dropped in 1994. It went up once again in 2000 and dropped in 2001. It was also observed that there was drastic change between some of the years compared to some of the periods. For example, the change was very drastic between 1959 and 1969, 1987 and 1989, 1995 and 2001, 2009 and 2011, 2015 and 2018 compared with 1970 up to 1988.

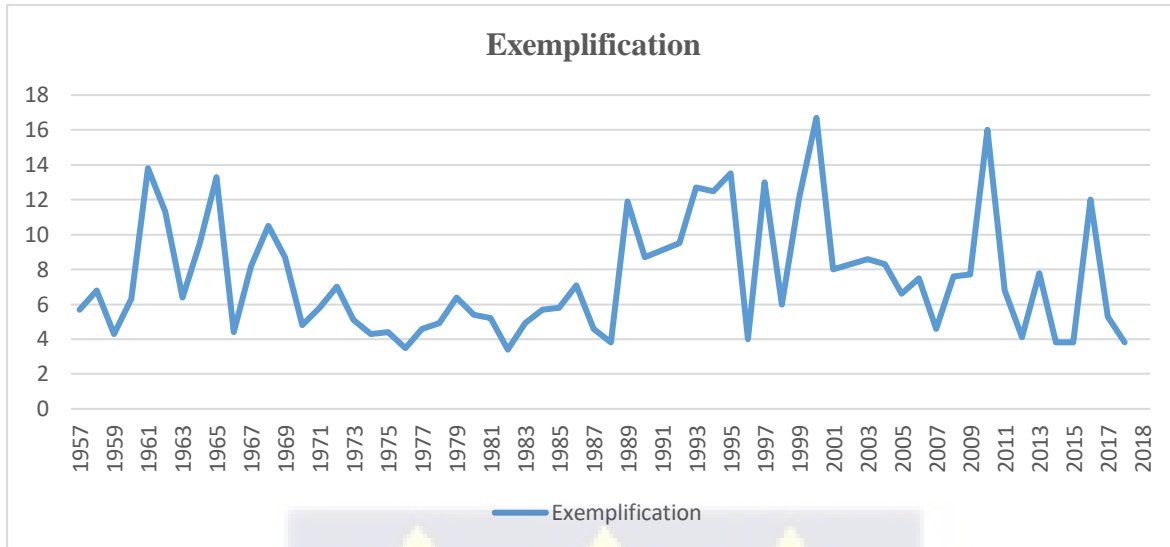
Also, there were times where change was very high. For instance, it rose very high in 1961, 1964 and 1965, then it went very high again in 1990, then it became constantly high between 1993 and 1995, then it fell in 1996, it rose again in 1997 and it fell in 1998, then there was a sharp rise between 1999 and 2001, then there was another high rise in 2010. There were times where the variation was constantly low. For example, between 1970 and 1988, 2001 and 2007 the change was constantly low but the difference was not too wide. There was a period where there was a great fall. For example, there was a great fall in 1959, 1966, 1970, 1988, 1988, 1996, 2002, 2012 and 2018. This has been the prevailing pattern in the distribution of expansion in the editorials during the period of study.

Specifically, the study noted the following:

- i. From 1957 the study period, the figure for the expansion was 5.7%, when it ended in 2018, the figure was 3.8%. Not much difference was recorded.
- ii. in-between these two periods, the study noted that the figures rose and fell over the ages. There was no consistent pattern of change. However, there were a few instances when the study observed steep fluctuations:
  - a) there was a steep rise in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1960 (6.3%) and 1961 (13.8%) – a difference of 7.5%
    - between 1988 (6.3%) and 1989 (11.9%) – a difference of 5.6%
    - between 1996 (4.0%) and 1997 (13.0%) – a difference of 9%
    - between 1998 (6.0%) and 1999 (12.1%) – a difference of 6.1%
    - between 2009 (7.7%) and 2010 (16.0%) – a difference of 8.3%
    - between 2015 (3.8%) and 2016 (12.0%) – a difference of 8.2%
  - b) on the opposite side, there was a sudden decline in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1965 (13.3%) and 1966 (4.4%) – a difference of 8.9%
    - between 1995 (13.5%) and 1996 (4.0%) – a difference of 9.5%
    - between 1997 (13.0%) and 1998 (6.0%) – a difference of 7%
    - between 2000 (16.7%) and 2001 (8.0%) – difference of 8.7%
    - between 2010 (16.0%) and 2011 (6.8%) – difference of 9.2%
    - between 2016 (12.0%) and 2017 (5.3%) – difference of 6.7%

These were the only periods when the study notices such relatively drastic differences. The implication is that, apart from these nine periods when the language changed considerably, it

is clear only minor changes occurred in the overall pattern. There was not much notable change in the language of the newspaper editorials genre as far as the use of exemplification subtype of elaboration is concerned. This scenario is presented in the graph below:



One can, therefore, conclude that there were not significant changes in the language choices in the elaboration subtypes between 1957 and 2018. This, one can see in the average percentage figures illustrated below:

**Table 6.8: Average subtypes of Elaboration**

	Clarification	Exposition	Exemplification
1957 – 1966	39.4%	36.6%	8.1%
1967 – 1976	38.3%	40.0%	6.2%
1977 – 1986	40.6%	41.6%	5.3%
1987 – 1996	39.3%	36.1%	9.0%
1997 – 2006	39.9%	35.0%	9.5%
2007 – 2016	38.6%	37.6%	7.4%
2017 – 2018	49.4%	29.1%	4.5%

The impression this information presents us is that there was an increase in the clarification subtype from 1957 up to 1986. Then, there began a gradual decline from 1997 to 2016. Then, there was a gradual rise from 2017 to 2018. The exposition subtype also presents an increase from 1957 up to the period 1986, and another gradual decline from 1987 up to the period 2006. Again, there was a gradual rise from the period 2007 up to the period 2016. Then, from 2017 to 2018 there was another gradual rise. The exemplification subtype also saw a gradual decline from 1957 up to the period of 1986. Then, it experienced another rise from the period of 1987 up to the period of 2006. Again, there was another decline from 2007 up to the period of 2018.

### **6.5 Patterns of Extension**

Extension is another subtype of expansion. It was observed that extension was the least choice of expansion subtype in the editorials during the period of study. Extension is adding something new (relationship of addition or variation), giving an exception to it, or offering an alternative (Opoku, 2015). Extension, unlike elaboration does not restate but gives us different information to the first clause. Here, one may refer to extension as the expansion of the primary clause through addition, subtraction, variation and alternation. Here, there is a continuation of new idea from the primary clause to the secondary clause. Given this fact, the new idea can add positive or supportive information to the meaning of the primary clause. Also, the new idea can degenerate or debunk the information in the primary clause. Again, the new idea can provide a substitute to the existing information.

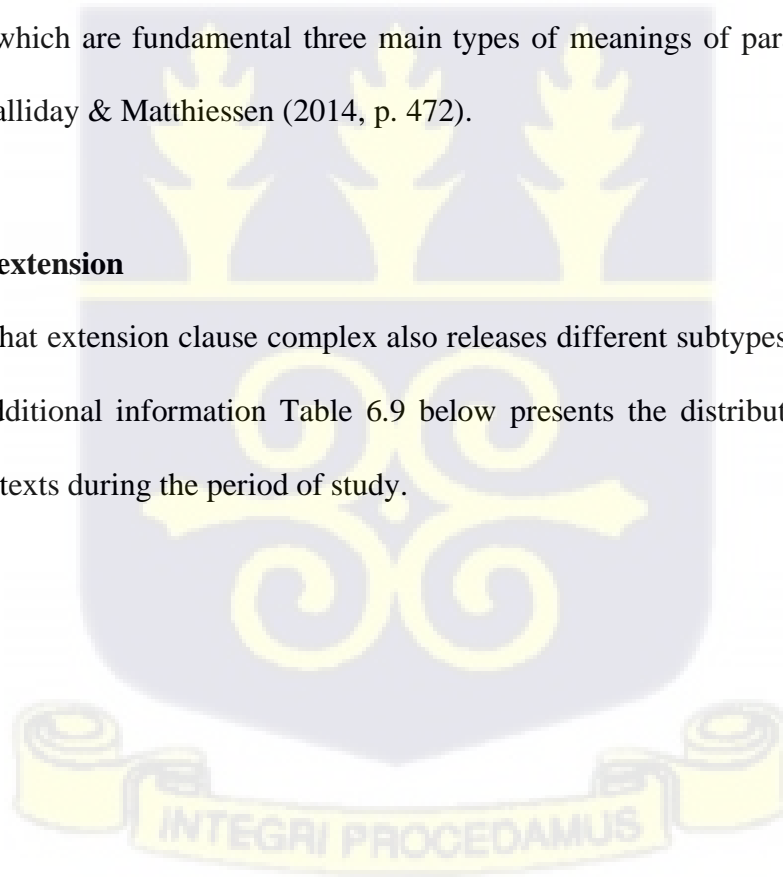
The extension clause complexes occur marginally in this variability. A possible reason may be the fact that typically extension type of expansion may be a sign for providing an injection or inoculation and essentially adding something new to the clause complex. In other words, these

clause complexes are paratactically or hypotactically stretched or continued from the primary clause by adding something new in the communication process (Biber, 1988; Martin, 1992).

This has been expatiated and affirmed by Saragih (2008, p. 469) that in extension one clause expands another by extending beyond it; adding some new element, giving an exception to it, or offering an alternative. In extension, the first clause or information is different and the second information is also different. Within the extending clause complex, the meaning of the primary clause is paratactically and hypotactically extended by the secondary clause by means of adding something new to it (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 469). Here, the connection between the extending clauses occurs through the use of coordinating conjunctions such as *and, but, yet, or, nor* etc. This reproduces the meanings of *addition, variation (replacement), or alternation* which are fundamental three main types of meanings of paratactic extending relationship (Halliday & Matthiessen (2014, p. 472).

### 6.5.1 Types of extension

It was noticed that extension clause complex also releases different subtypes. These subtypes also provide additional information Table 6.9 below presents the distribution of extension subtypes in the texts during the period of study.



**Table 6:9 Patterns of extension year by year**

<b>Patterns of Extension</b>						
<b>Years</b>	<b>Variation</b>		<b>Addition</b>		<b>Alternation</b>	
	<b>No.</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>No.</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>No.</b>	<b>%</b>
1957	12	9.0	88	66.2	33	24.8
1958	8	6.0	86	64.2	40	29.9
1959	9	10.1	49	55.1	31	34.8
1960	7	5.1	68	49.6	62	45.3
1961	6	4.9	48	39.0	69	56.1
1962	8	9.2	42	48.3	37	42.5
1963	10	11.0	44	48.4	37	40.7
1964	14	12.2	62	53.9	39	33.9
1965	11	12.4	19	21.3	59	66.3
1966	11	13.8	40	50.0	29	36.3
1967	7	7.1	26	26.5	65	66.3
1968	6	5.4	46	41.4	59	53.2
1969	4	4.1	44	44.9	50	51.0
1970	5	5.1	53	54.1	40	40.8
1971	7	7.5	59	63.4	27	29.0
1972	6	6.8	29	33.0	53	60.2
1973	9	10.1	29	32.6	51	57.3
1974	6	8.5	29	40.8	36	50.7
1975	7	8.4	40	48.2	36	43.4
1976	5	5.1	62	63.3	31	31.6
1977	5	5.0	52	51.5	44	43.6
1978	9	7.5	50	41.7	61	50.8
1979	6	7.5	46	57.5	28	35.0
1980	9	8.8	55	53.9	38	37.3
1981	8	7.9	32	31.7	61	60.4
1982	5	5.7	34	38.6	49	55.7
1983	9	8.2	61	55.5	40	36.4
1984	7	6.7	33	31.4	65	61.9
1985	5	5.7	39	44.3	44	50.0
1986	7	6.1	60	52.6	47	41.2
1987	4	4.1	44	44.9	50	51.0
1988	5	5.1	53	54.1	40	40.8
1989	5	5.0	52	51.5	44	43.6
1990	9	7.5	50	41.7	61	50.8
1991	11	13.8	40	50.0	29	36.3
1992	7	7.1	26	26.5	65	66.3
1993	6	5.4	46	41.4	59	53.2
1994	8	8.1	61	61.6	30	30.3
1995	8	9.2	42	48.3	37	42.5
1996	10	11.0	44	48.4	37	40.7
1997	14	12.2	62	53.9	39	33.9
1998	11	12.4	19	21.3	59	66.3
1999	11	13.8	40	50.0	29	36.3
2000	7	7.1	26	26.5	65	66.3
2001	6	5.4	46	41.4	59	53.2
2002	4	4.1	44	44.9	50	51.0

<b>2003</b>	5	5.1	53	54.1	40	40.8
<b>2004</b>	7	7.5	59	63.4	27	29.0
<b>2005</b>	6	6.8	29	33.0	53	60.2
<b>2006</b>	9	10.1	29	32.6	51	57.3
<b>2007</b>	6	8.5	29	40.8	36	50.7
<b>2008</b>	7	8.4	40	48.2	36	43.4
<b>2009</b>	5	5.1	62	63.3	31	31.6
<b>2010</b>	5	5.0	52	51.5	44	43.6
<b>2011</b>	9	7.5	50	41.7	61	50.8
<b>2012</b>	6	7.5	46	57.5	28	35.0
<b>2013</b>	9	8.8	55	53.9	38	37.3
<b>2014</b>	8	7.9	32	31.7	61	60.4
<b>2015</b>	5	5.7	34	38.6	49	55.7
<b>2016</b>	9	8.2	61	55.5	40	36.4
<b>2017</b>	7	6.7	33	31.4	65	61.9
<b>2018</b>	5	5.7	39	44.3	44	50.0

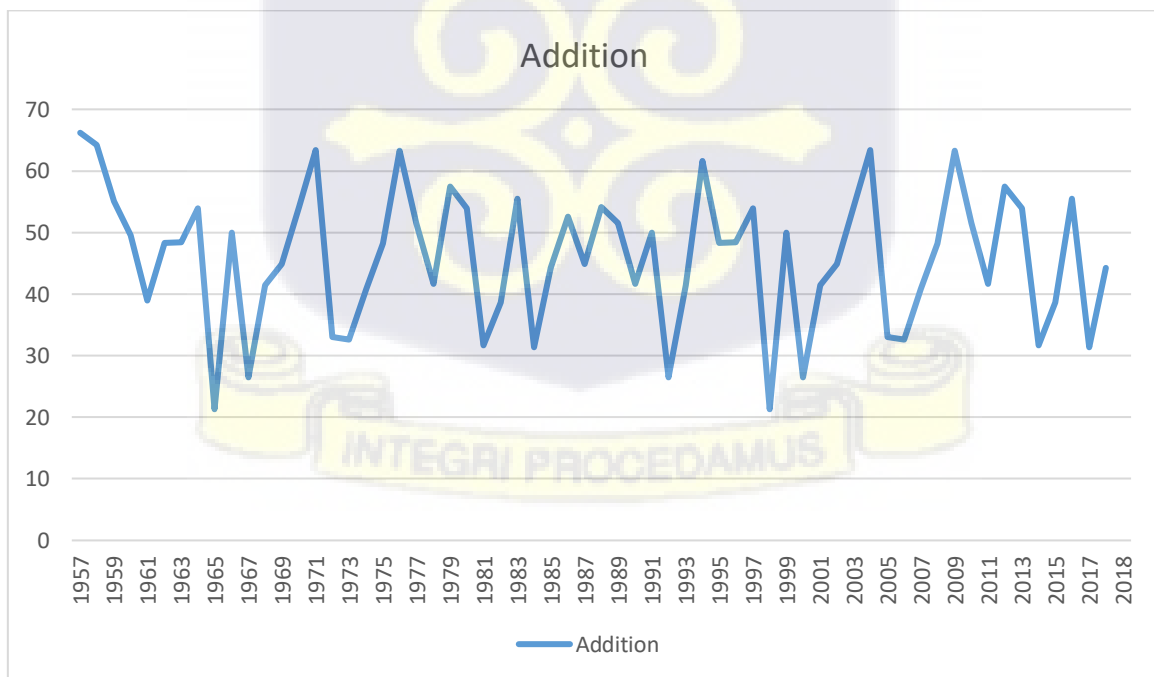
Table 6.9 above demonstrates the use of patterns of extension in the texts during the period of study. From the table above, it was noticed that the following subtypes of extension were used. They include addition, alternation and variation subtypes. It is clear from table that addition subtype and the alternation subtype were the preferred subtypes of extension in the editorials. These were the overwhelming majority because they appear almost the same during the period under study. The Addition ranges between the lowest of 21.3% (1965 and 1998) and the highest of 66.2% in (1957) whereas the alternation subtype with the lowest of 24.8% (1957) and the highest of 56% (1965, 1967, 1992, 1998, 2000) while the variation subtype ranges between the lowest of 4.1% (1969, 1987, 2002) and the highest of 13.8% (1966, 1991, 1999). The results show that there was more addition subtype of extension processes than the alternation and variation subtypes of extension processes. The overall average percentage, in the 62-year period, for the addition subtype was 46.0%, while that of the alternation was 46.3% and variation was 7.7%. This implies that the addition and the alternation subtypes were dominant in the editorials.

In the relationship of addition, one clause adds to the meaning of another clause through extension. An example of addition subtype in the text is presented below:

///*1*<sup>initiating clause</sup> *We have to keep death off our roads* ||=2<sup>continuing clause</sup> *and it must not be done long after disaster had struck.* ///*[DGE/23/01/1993]*

The example above is an extension clause of addition. The continuing clauses adds to the meaning of the initiating clause by providing additional information. The idea is that the continuing clause is associated to the initiating clause and they are related because the information which the writer wants to give is to provide all-inclusive reason, identification, specification and explanation of an idea in each case (Biber, 1998). It was observed that there were changes in the internal organisation of the addition subtype of extension. Therefore, the pattern of the distribution of the addition subtype assumed a zigzag pattern. This is presented in the graph below:

**Fig. 6.16: Addition**



The figure above presents the rise and fall pattern or the zigzag nature of the addition subtype. This can be illustrated from 1957, when the figure was 66.2%, it fell from 1958 up to 1963, then it rose again in 1964, and in 1965 when it fell. It then went up in 1976, and dropped in 1977. It went up once again in 2004 and dropped in 2005. There were times where the change was very low. For example, the change was very low in 1985, 1992, and 1998. There was a sharp fall between 1963 and 1965, 1970 and 1972, 1997 and 1999, 2003 and 2005. The change was also very high in 1957 and 1958, 1964, 1971, 1976, 1989, 1994, and 2004. The change was also the same in the following years. For example, in 1957 and 1958, it was the same, in 1972, 1973, 2005 and 2006, it was the same. There were periods where the variation was not wide as in 1959 and 1963, 1984 and 1990. This has been the prevailing pattern in the distribution of addition subtype of extension in the editorials during the period of study.

This is specifically noted below:

- i. at the beginning of the study in 1957, the figure for the addition was 66.2%. And, when it ended in 2018, the figure was 44.3%. Not much difference, was observed.
- ii. in-between these two periods, the study noted that the figures rise and fall over the ages. There was no consistent pattern of change. However, there were a few instances when the study observed steep fluctuations;
  - a) there was a steep rise in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1965 (21.3%) and 1966 (50.0%) – a difference of 28.7%
    - between 1967 (26.5%) and 1968 (41.4%) – a difference of 14.9%
    - between 1982 (38.6%) and 1983 (55.5%) – a difference of 16.9%
    - between 1992 (26.5%) and 1993 (41.4%) – a difference of 14.9%
    - between 1998 (21.3%) and 1999 (50.0%) – a difference of 28.7%
    - between 2000 (26.5%) and 2001(41.4%) – a difference of 14.9%

between 2008 (48.2%) and 2009(63.3%) – a difference of 15.1%

between 2015 (38.6%) and 2016(55.5%) – a difference of 16.9%

b) on the converse side, there was a sudden decline in the figures for the following periods:

between 1964 (53.9%) and 1965 (21.3%) – a difference of 32.6%

between 1966 (50.0%) and 1967(26.5%) – a difference of 23.5%

between 1971 (63.4%) and 1972 (33.0%) – a difference of 30.4%

between 1980 (53.9%) and 1981 (31.7%) – a difference of 22.2%

between 1983 (55.5%) and 1984 (31.4%) – a difference of 24.1%

between 1991 (50.0%) and 1992 (26.5%) – a difference of 23.5%

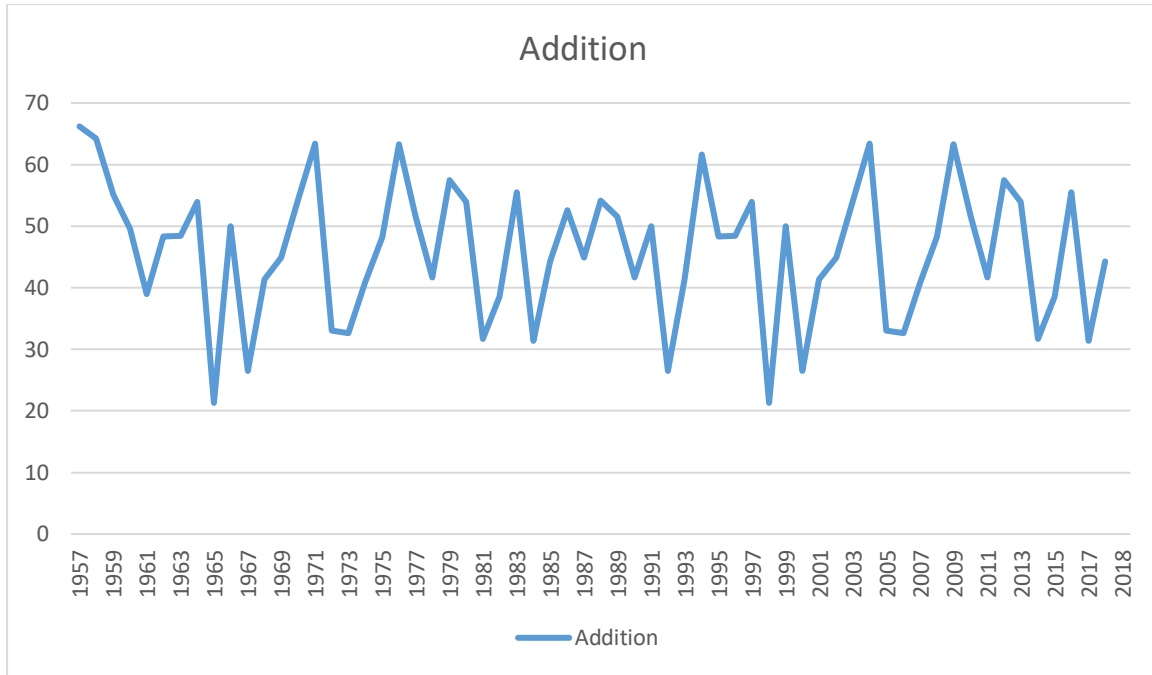
between 1997 (53.9%) and 1998 (21.3%) – a difference of 32.6%

between 1999 (50.0%) and 2000 (26.5%) – a difference of 23.5%

between 2004 (63.4%) and 2005 (33.0%) – a difference of 30.4%

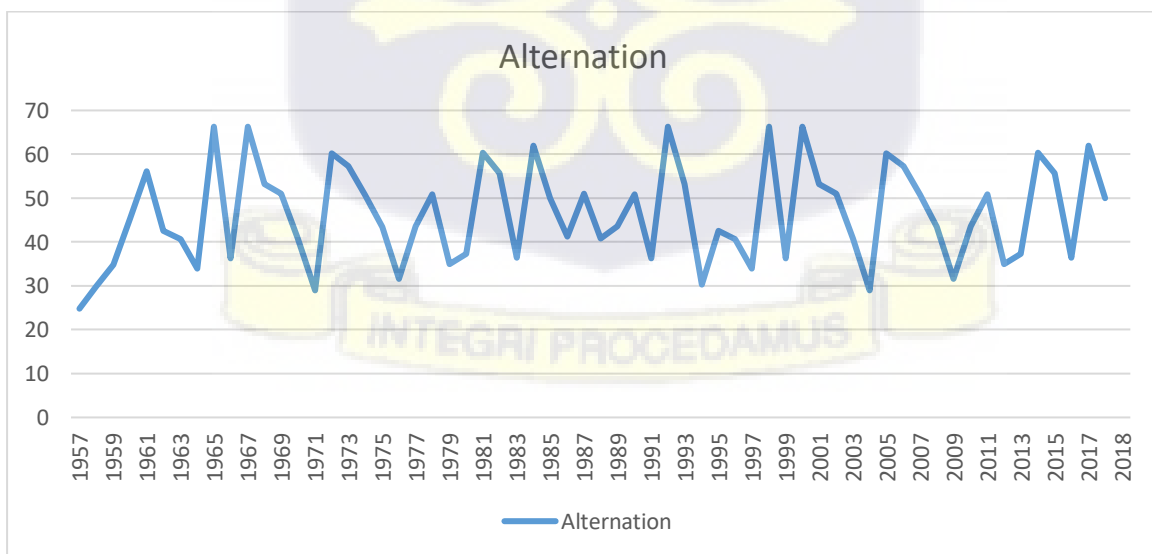
between 2016 (55.5%) and 2017 (31.4%) – a difference of 24.1%

These were the only periods when the study noticed such relatively drastic differences. What this implies is that, apart from these eighteen periods when the language changed considerably, it is clear only minor changes occurred in the overall pattern. There was not much notable change in the language of the newspaper editorials genre as far as the use of addition subtype of extension is concerned. This scenario is presented in the graph below:



In alternation, one clause is a substitute to the other. The pattern of the distribution was also rise and fall from 1957 up to 2018. The most typical conjunctive signals in this type are *or*, *conversely*, *alternatively*, *on the other hand* etc (Opoku, 2015). The pattern of the distribution of the alternation subtype also assumed a zigzag pattern. This is presented in the graph below:

**Fig.6. 17: Alternation**



The figure above presents the rise and fall pattern or the zigzag nature of the alternation subtype of extension. This can be illustrated from 1957, when the figure was 24.8%, then there began a gradual rise from 1958 (29.9%), 1959 (34.8%), 1960 (45.3%) up to 1961 (56.1). It also fell in 1962, 1963, 1964, and in 1965 when it rose again. It then went up in 1990, and dropped in 1991. It went up once again in 2000 and dropped in 2001. This has been the prevailing pattern in the distribution of alternation subtype of extension in the editorials during the period of study.

Specifically, then, the study noted the following:

- i. at the beginning of the study in 1957, the figure for the alternation subtype was 24.8%. And, when it ended in 2018, the figure was 50.8%. Not much difference was observed.
- ii. in-between these two periods, the study noted that the figures rose and fell over the ages. There was no consistent pattern of change. However, there were a few instances when the study observed steep fluctuations;
  - a) there was a steep rise in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1964 (33.9%) and 1965 (66.3%) – a difference of 32.4%
    - between 1966 (36.3%) and 1967 (66.3%) – a difference of 30%
    - between 1971 (29.0) % and 1972 (60.2%) – a difference of 31.2%
    - between 1979 (37.0%) and 1980 (60.4%) – a difference of 23.4%
    - between 1983 (36.4%) and 1984 (61.9%) – a difference of 25.5%
    - between 1991 (36.3%) and 1992 (66.3%) – a difference of 30%
    - between 1994 (30.3%) and 1995 (42.5%) – a difference of 12.2%
    - between 1997 (33.9%) and 1998 (66.3%) – a difference of 32.4%
    - between 1999 (36.3%) and 2000 (66.3%) – a difference of 30%
    - between 2004 (29.0%) and 2005 (60.2%) – a difference of 31.2%

between 2013 (37.3%) and 2014 (60.4%) – a difference of 23.1%

between 2016 (36.4%) and 2017(61.9%) – a difference of 25.5%

b) on the converse side, there was a sudden decline in the figures for the following periods:

between 1965 (66.3%) and 1966 (36.3%) – a difference of 30%

between 1970 (40.8%) and 1971 (29.0%) – a difference of 11.8%

between 1975 (43.4%) and 1976 (31.6%) – a difference of 11.8%

between 1978 (50.8%) and 1979 (35.0%) – a difference of 15.8%

between 1982 (55.7%) and 1983 (36.4%) – a difference of 19.3%

between 1990 (50.8%) and 1991 (36.3%) – a difference of 14.5%

between 1993 (53.2%) and 1994 (30.3%) – a difference of 35.9%

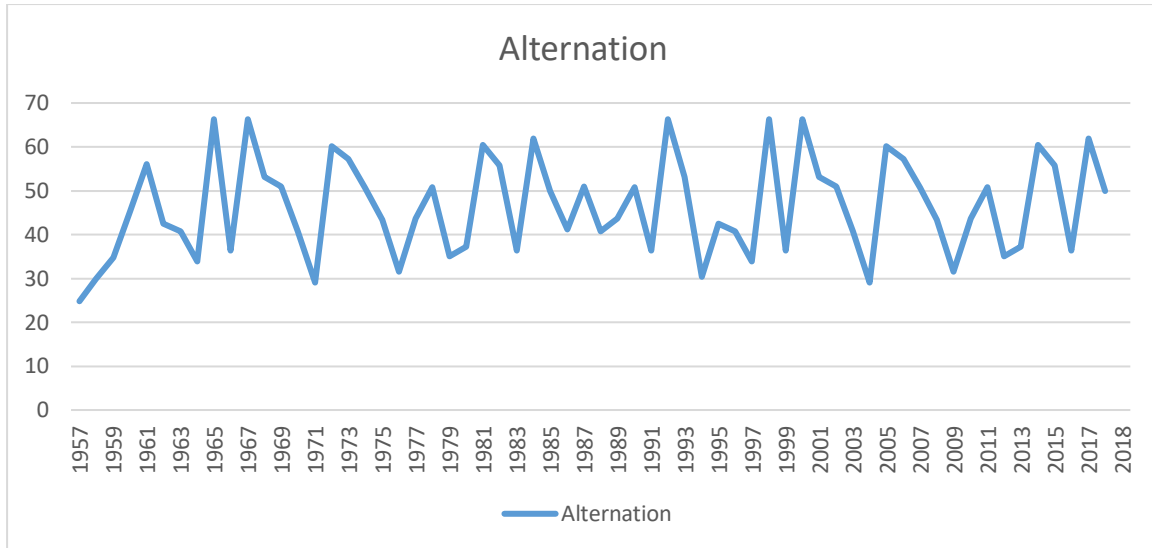
between 1998 (66.3%) and 1999 (36.3%) – a difference of 30%

between 2003 (40.8%) and 2004 (29.0%) – difference of 11.8%

between 2011 (50.8%) and 2012 (35.0%) – difference of 15.8%

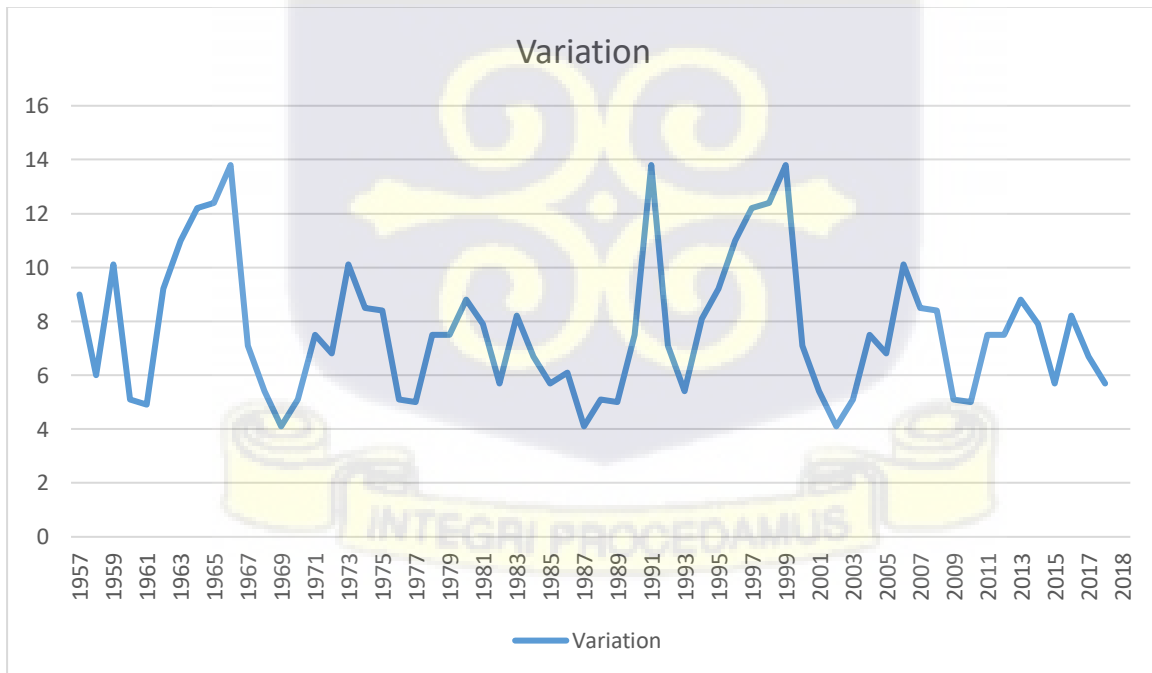
between 2015 (55.7%) and 2016 (36.4%) – difference of 19.3%

These were the only periods when the study noticed such relatively drastic differences. This implies that, apart from these twenty-three periods when the language changed considerably, it is clear only minor changes occurred in the overall pattern. There was not much notable change in the language of the newspaper editorials genre as far as the use of alternation subtype of extension is concerned. This scenario is presented in the graph below:



Variation occurs where one clause changes the meaning of another by contrast or by qualification (Opoku, 2015). It has been observed that the variation subtype of extension is the least preferred choice but the pattern displays rise and fall. This means that the pattern is not consistent across the years. This is presented in the graph below:

**Fig.6.18: Variation**



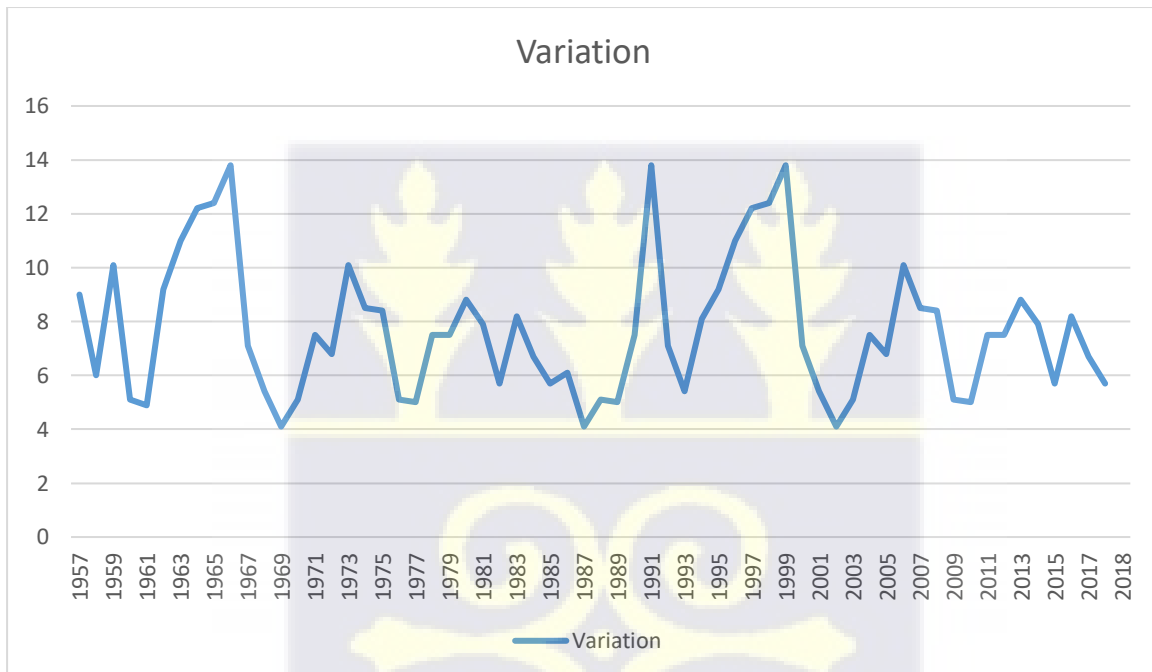
The figure above presents the rise and fall pattern or the zigzag nature of the variation subtype of extension. This can be illustrated from 1957, when the figure was 9.0%, it fell to 6.0% in 1958, it went up 1959 and dropped in 1960 and 1961, then in 1962 and 1964 it went up sharply, then in 1967 it went down sharply up to 1969, in 1989 it went up sharply, then in 1994 it went down sharply. There were instances where the variation is not much. For example, between 1969 and 1989 the change was not too broad as compared with 1961 and 1969, 1989 and 1993. There were areas where there was some sharp change. For example, there were some sharp changes between 1961 and 1969, 1989 and 1993, 1995 and 2001. The change was the same in 1965 and 1966, 1998 and 1999. This has been the prevailing pattern in the distribution of variation subtype of extension in the editorials during the period of study.

Specifically, then, the study notes the following:

- i. when the study began in 1957, the figure for the expansion was 9.0%. And, when it ended in 2018, the figure was 5.7%. This means the difference was not much.
- ii. in-between these two periods, the study noted that the figures rose and fell over the ages. There was no consistent pattern of change. However, there were a few instances when the study observed some slight fluctuations;
  - a) there was a slight rise in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1961 (4.9%) and 1962 (9.2%) – a difference of 4.3%
    - between 1990 (7.5%) and 1991 (13.8%) – a difference of 6.3%
    - between 2005 (6.8%) and 2006 (10.1%) – a difference of 3.3%
  - b) on the converse side, there was a sudden decline in the figures for the following periods:
    - between 1959 (10.1%) and 1960 (5.1%) – a difference of 5%
    - between 1966 (13.8%) and 1967 (7.1%) – a difference of 6.7%
    - between 1991 (13.8%) and 1992 (7.1%) – a difference of 6.7%

between 1999 (13.8%) and 2000 (7.1%) – a difference of 6.7%

These were the only periods when the study noticed such relatively drastic differences. The implication one gets from this information is that, apart from these seven periods when the language changed considerably, it is clear only minor changes occurred in the overall pattern. There was not much notable change in the language of the newspaper editorials genre as far as the use of variation subtype of extension is concerned. This scenario is presented in the graph below:



One can, therefore, conclude that there were not significant changes in the language choices in the extension subtypes between 1957 and 2018. This, one can be seen in the average percentage figures illustrated below:

**Table 6.10: Average for patterns of Extension**

<b>Years</b>	<b>Addition</b>	<b>Alternation</b>	<b>Variation</b>
1957 – 1966	49.6%	41.6%	9.5%
1967 – 1976	44.8%	48.4%	7.4%
1977 – 1986	45.9%	47.2%	6.5%
1987 – 1996	46.8%	45.6%	8.7%
1997 – 2006	42.1%	49.4%	9.5%
2007 – 2016	48.3%	44.5%	8.7%
2017 – 2018	37.9%	55.9%	8.5%

The impression this information gives us is that there was a decline in the addition processes in the period 1957 up to the period 1976. Then, there began a gradual rise from 1977 – 1996, then from 1997 up to 2006 there was a gradual fall, then from 2007 up to 2016 there was a gradual rise. Then, there began a gradual rise from 2017 – 2018. The alternation process rose from 1957 up to 1976, then there began a gradual decline from the 1977 up to 1996. Then from 1997 up to 2006, there began a gradual increase, then, it began to rise again from 2007 up to 2018. Also, the variation process of extension began to decline from the 1957 up to the period 1986. There began a gradual rise from the period 1987 up to the period 2006. Also, a gradual fall was recorded from 2007 up to 2018.

### **6.6 Summary of chapter**

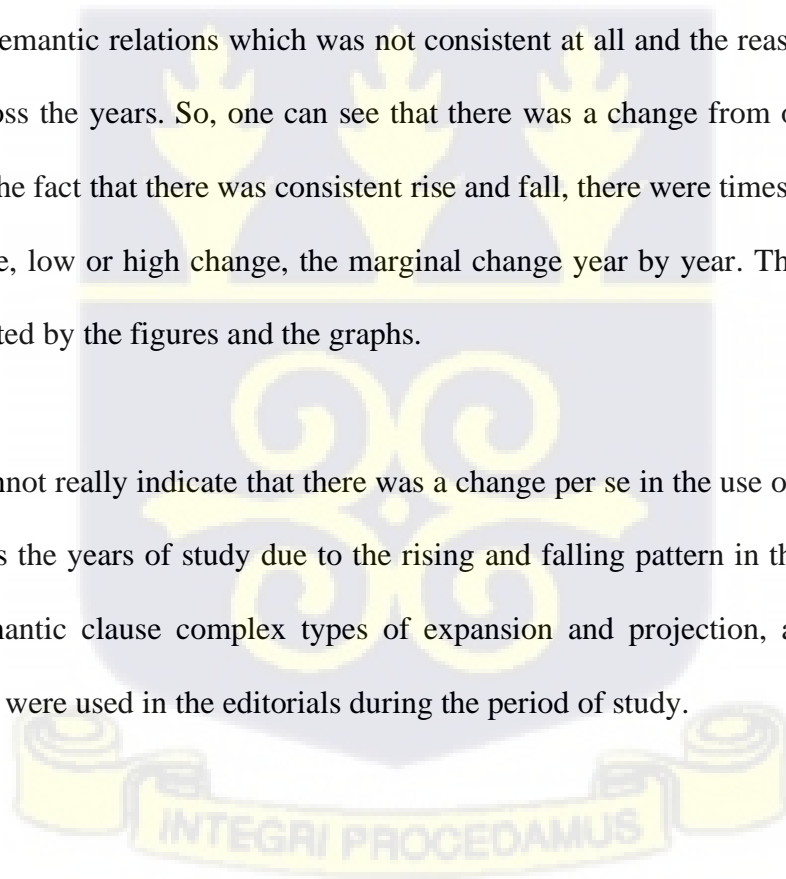
In this chapter, the concern of the study has been on the features of logico-semantic relations in the editorials as they responded to the goal in this study, whether there is a change or not. The study has established that expansion has overwhelmingly been used in the editorials than the projection but there was a converse relationship between expansion and projection. They are in a complementary distribution so when expansion rises, then projection falls. So the

interpretation has proven that consistently, the pattern of distribution of these logico-semantic clause complex types have all been rising and falling across the years in the editorials from 1957 up to 2018.

Also, with regards to the use of the subtypes of expansion, enhancement was noticed as the preferred subtypes in the editorials, followed by elaboration and the least one was extension. Each of these subtypes of expansion were noted to have different subtypes with a consistent pattern of rising and falling.

It was also noted that within this pattern, there was an internal pattern of change within the types of logic-semantic relations which was not consistent at all and the reason is that it rises and it falls across the years. So, one can see that there was a change from one period to the other. Despite the fact that there was consistent rise and fall, there were times where there was a drastic change, low or high change, the marginal change year by year. This information is actually supported by the figures and the graphs.

Finally, one cannot really indicate that there was a change per se in the use of language in the editorials across the years of study due to the rising and falling pattern in the distribution of these logic-semantic clause complex types of expansion and projection, as well as their subtypes which were used in the editorials during the period of study.



## CHAPTER SEVEN

### CONCLUSION

#### 7.0 Introduction

This chapter ends the study and provides a summary of the findings of the study in answer to the research questions for the study to see whether truly there has been a change in the language used in the newspaper editorials texts. The chapter also provides some implications and recommendations for further research. Specifically, the study was done to see whether there has been any change in the grammar of the *Daily Graphic* newspaper editorials in Ghana between 1957 and 2018.

#### 7.1 Summary of the study

The study was undertaken to test the assumption that, compared to other areas of language use, grammar hardly ever changes and that if it does, it is not really significant. To test this assumption, the study looked at the clause complex level of grammar of the language of newspaper editorials in Ghana. In this study, then, the study considered the grammar at the sentence level, using Halliday's clause complexing approach. Accordingly, this study was grounded in logico-semantic metafunction of which is a subtype of the ideational metafunction of Systemic Functional Grammar of Halliday and Matthiessen (2004 & 2014).

In this study, three main questions were answered:

1. During the period, how have the clauses in the editorials been structurally connected?
2. During the period, how have the clauses in the editorials been logically connected?
3. During the period, are there changes in the grammatical and logical connections of the clauses in the editorials?

The main goal of the study was to find out if the language of the editorials has changed significantly between 1957 and 2018.

### 7.1.1 Findings

#### **During the period, how have the clauses in the editorials been structurally connected?**

In answering the Research Question 1, the analysis was done based on the following subdivisions:

##### **a) The clause combination – clause simplex vs clause complex**

As regards this subdivision, it was noted that the overwhelming choice is the clause complex (rather than the clause simplex) in the newspaper editorials. This can be seen in the average percentages for the clause complexes for the period under study:

**Table 7.1: Averages for clause simplexes and clause complexes**

<b>Years</b>	<b>Clause simplex</b>	<b>Clause complex</b>
1957 – 1966	12.9%	87.1%
1967 – 1976	5.2%	94.8%
1977– 1986	4.5%	95.5%
1987 – 1996	13.8%	86.2%
1997 – 2006	4.2%	95.8%
2007 –2016	3.8%	96.2%
2017 – 2018	2%	98.0%

As has been discussed already, there was really not much significant change in the clause complex choices made in the newspaper editorials. In the table above, one can see that the language over the period did not exhibit much change over the 62-year period. The figures

above show the rise-and-fall nature of the data that has been discussed earlier, most of the figures for clause complex hovering between the highest percentage of 98% (2017 - 2018) and the lowest percentage of 86.2% (1987-1996). The same rise-and-fall pattern occurred throughout.

**b) The *taxis* relations – parataxis vs hypotaxis**

The hypotactic clause complex was overwhelmingly higher than the paratactic clause complex in all the editorials which were sampled for the analysis. This shows that the hypotactic was dominant as far as the *taxis* relation in the editorial is concerned. Thus, the hypotactic subtype of the hypotactic clause complex was the most preferred clause complex type. As was indicated by the figures in Table 5.2, the average scores for the hypotactic clauses were:

**Table 7.2: Average for Paratactic and Hypotactic**

Years	Paratactic	Hypotactic
1957 – 1966	9.5%	90.5%
1967 – 1976	7.8%	92.2%
1977 – 1986	6.5%	93.5%
1987 – 1996	8.4%	91.6%
1997 – 2006	9.2%	90.8%
2007 – 2016	8.7%	91.3%
2017 – 2018	8%	92.0%

There were no major shifts in clause complex structure over the period (See Figs 1 & 2). Indeed, the overall average score throughout the period was 91.7% - well within the range of the highest score of 95.5% (1977) and 88.7% (1963 & 1982). It was, also, noticed that the pattern was

rising and falling across the periods so it was not consistent across the year. It was, also, noticed that the number of dependent clauses (dpc) in a hypotactic clause complex varies from one one dependent clause (1dpc) in a clause complex to an instance of twenty-three (23) dependent clause (23dpc) in a clause complex– an indication that the complex structures occurred across and did not diminish over the 62 years.

**c) Patterns of hypotactic structure**

Here, it must be mentioned that it was only the hypotactic clause complex types which were of significant interest. This is because, if one checks Table 5.5, one will notice that the complex type dominates all others.

Just as it has earlier been noted, the same pattern of a rise-and-fall is observed. This can be seen in the average scores for hypotactic structures as follows:

**Table 7.3: Average for Hypotactic relations**

<b>Years</b>	<b>One independent/ one or more dependent relations</b>	<b>Two independent/ one or more dependent relations</b>
1957 – 1966	77.7%	22.3%
1967 – 1976	75.3%	24.7%
1977 – 1986	68.9%	31.1%
1987 – 1996	75.2%	24.8%
1997 – 2006	75.6%	24.4%
2007 – 2016	77.2%	22.8%
2017 – 2018	75.2%	24.8%

The overall average score for hypotactic relations for the whole period under study was 75.0% - which was not significantly different from the scores in the table above. One can, therefore, see that the pattern of irregular occurrences is continued. There was no consistent pattern of change in this aspect of language use in the newspaper editorial genre.

**d) Types of subordinator clause**

The distributional pattern was also observed to be rise-and-fall. There was no consistent pattern of change during the period under study. The average scores for the whole periods were:

**Table: 7.4: Average for subordinators**

Years	Reason	Time	Concession	Condition	Place
1957 – 1966	27.8	26.4	20.4	16.1	9.4
1967 – 1976	26.2	25.2	21.5	15.1	12.1
1977 – 1986	27.7	20.0	24.1	15.9	12.3
1987 – 1996	26.3	26.8	22.9	14.1	9.9
1997 – 2006	24.0	26.6	23.6	14.8	11.2
2007 – 2016	24.5	26.8	22.2	13.9	12.0
2017 – 2018	24.4	26.7	21.0	16.8	11.3

In this section, also, it was found that there was no consistent pattern of change in the language of the editorials. The already observed rise-fall-rise-fall patterns occurred, as shown in Table 5.8. For example, if one takes the scores for the *Time* clauses, it was noted that from 1957 – 1966, there was a fall in 1967 – 1976; then, a further fall in 1977 – 1986. Then, a rise in 1987 – 1996, and a fall in 1997 – 2006, only to be followed by a rise in (2007 – 2016) and a final

fall in 2017 – 2018. Thus, as it has been already said, there was no consistent pattern of change in the grammar used in the editorial discourse.

**e) Types of dependent clause**

It is clear from Table 5.8 that there were no consistent changing patterns in the use of the types of dependent clauses. The figures rose and fell without much significant change. This zigzag pattern of the language choices was further evidenced here. For these types of clauses, the average scores were:

**Table 7.5: Average for dependent clause relations**

	<b>Nominal</b>	<b>Adverbial</b>	<b>Relative</b>	<b>Infinitival</b>	<b>Participial</b>
1957 – 1966	25.0%	17.5%	27.1%	15.1%	12.6%
1967 – 1976	21.8%	17.2%	30.9%	11.8%	13.2%
1977 – 1986	24.3%	19.5%	19.4%	14.4%	12.8%
1987 – 1996	21.4%	21.1%	28.2%	14.8%	14.4%
1997 – 2006	24.2%	19.1%	27.7%	21.2%	14.9%
2007 – 2016	20.1%	19.1%	27.5%	16.0%	15.7%
2017 – 2018	20.3%	19.6%	24.3%	18.3%	17.6%

Using these scores as illustration, it was noticed that there was no consistent pattern. For example, as regards the Nominal clauses, one sees that there is an initial fall from 25.0% to 21.8%. Then, there is a rise to 24.2% and a fall down to 20.1% and a slight rise to 20.3%. The same could be said of the other types of clauses. So, the most consistent form of the language behaviour in these editorials is the rise-fall-rise-fall-rise for the different dependent clause types.

### 7.2.2 Research Question 2

#### During the period, how have the clauses in the editorials been logically connected?

This question sought to find answers to the logico-semantic or meaning relations which exist between the clause complexes in the editorials. These are the two types of logico-semantic relations - *expansion* and *projection*. If clauses of equal status (*paratactic*) are used, the relation and the meaning is different from clauses of unequal status (*hypotactic*).

The findings in this section will be summarised under the following sub-titles:

##### a) *projection vs expansion processes*

It was noted that, throughout the 62-year period, the process of *expansion* was, overwhelmingly more frequently used in the editorials than the *projection* process. There was no occasion when the process of *projection* became dominant. In this sense, then, one can say there was no change as far as the choices in these aspects of language use is concerned. That is, the *expansion* process remained consistently high. On the other hand, the *projection* process remained uniformly low. There was a converse relationship between *projection* and *expansion* types. This means that where *expansion* rises, then *projection* falls, and where *expansion* falls, *projection* rises. These points raised above are supported by the following figures:

**Table 7.6: Average for Projection and Expansion**

Years	Projection	Expansion
1957 – 1966	14.2%	85.8%
1967 – 1976	19.1%	80.9%
1977 – 1986	23.2%	76.8%
1987 – 1996	28.2%	71.8%
1997 – 2006	25.2%	74.8%

2007 – 2016	23.4%	76.6%
2017 – 2018	20.2%	79.8%

When it comes to the internal distribution within the expansion or the projection, the fluctuations – the zig-zag patterns already discussed elsewhere – become noticeable. As stated earlier, there was a converse relationship between the projection and the expansion processes. So, what was stated for the expansion process was the exact opposite of the projection process. Based on these figures, then one can say there was no change throughout the period, since the expansion process was dominant.

b) *elaboration vs extension vs enhancement*

In summarizing these expansion types, the table below illustrates the figures for the period:

**Table 7.7: Average for elaboration, extension and enhancement**

	<b>Enhancement</b>	<b>Elaboration</b>	<b>Extension</b>
1957 – 1966	52.0%	24.4%	23.4%
1967 – 1976	54.4%	24.1%	21.4%
1977 – 1986	52.6%	23.5%	23.7%
1987 – 1996	53.9%	22.5%	23.4%
1997 – 2006	52.3%	23.1%	24.4%
2007 – 2016	54.7%	23.0%	22.1%
2017 – 2018	56.1%	23.2%	20.7%

The first observation to point out is the fact that the enhancement process dominates throughout the years. In this case, the study concludes that there has been no change in the status of enhancement as the pressed process in the language used in the newspaper editorial genre.

As regards the processes of extension and elaboration, they keep to their respective positions of second and third, after enhancement.

The overall average scores for the 62-year period are:

Enhancement	53.7
Elaboration	23.4%
Extension	22.7%

On the whole, the study concludes that there was very little language change in these aspects of the logico-semantic analysis. However, this study must reiterate the point that, though the overall picture presented a much more apparent uniform language forms in the editorials, the internal distribution of the figures showed that there were minor internal fluctuations – signifying internal shifts or variations in grammar in discourse and language use.

### **7.3 Implications of the Study**

This study has contributed to grammatical studies on changes in clause complexity in newspaper editorial. It has also contributed to theoretical application of clause complexing, pedagogy in academic teaching and learning of clause combination strategies.

The findings of the study have a lot of positive effects for grammatical studies or analysis of clause complexes in *Daily Graphic* newspaper editorials in Ghana. This study has informed us about grammar in discourse. The study has informed us about how integration or ideas are brought together in a text.

The implication is that integration makes readers comprehend how writers have integrated their sentences or ideas in a text. The ideas are integrated on the grounds of how a writer moves from one idea to the other in terms of the logical process. This is because every clause is an

experience and indicates how a writer moves from experience one to experience two and more. In adding these experiences, the impact is that the grammar presents these experiences as independently or dependently related.

The choice of these linguistic elements indicates what the most important part (the independent clause) or the minor part (dependent clause) of a clause is. So, the effect is that it makes every part of the clause equally important, thereby emphasising the interdependency in the ideas expressed in the clauses.

Another implication is that clause complexing allows for information ranking in the grammar of English language. Also, the use of these clause complex types supports the observation that a writer strives to pack much information within a sentence in order to achieve precision and avoid ambiguity in the compilation and description of events or experiences.

This is how writers have structurally and logically integrated their experiences. Therefore, what this study has done is to analyse or expand people's experience in the nature of integration so it has added a deeper experience with integration and dependency in grammar.

People have looked at newspaper editorials in terms of power, sentence patterns, complex sentence, subordination, stylistics, discourse analysis but this study has contributed by adding another way readers can understand the construction of the grammar of the *Daily Graphic* newspaper editorial text. This work has added to the study of newspaper editorial text because it has made people to understand that it is not just a matter of the linguistic choices but how these linguistic choices will talk about the working with the human mind in capturing and conceptualizing experience.

The study has also confirmed that clauses in the newspaper editorials are logically connected. It has confirmed that indeed the use of grammatical features in a specific register is structurally complex. It has also confirmed that since the usage pattern is rise-and-fall, then the language of the editorials has not changed significantly between 1957 and 2018.

Methodologically, this study has formulated a trio-logy technique for the selection of editorial texts for a diachronic study. This methodological trend is possibly the first attempt in the application of diachronic study apart from Afful (2014) whose study into newspaper editorials in Ghana is diachronic-based. The triumph of this study is a means to invite Ghanaian linguists to embrace this trio-logy approach.

The theoretical stand of the study also presents an innovative contribution to clause complexing process in systemic functional grammar in Ghanaian linguistics. It has given people a bigger experience because normally when people are looking at clause complexing, they do it with some few texts (Opoku, 2015) but this work has studied clause complexing occurring diachronically and to see the relationship between choices in clause complexing and the data of historical variation. It was observed that clause complexing has been looked at in terms of single genre or at least three out puts (Opoku, 2015, Adjei and Opoku, 2017). On the contrary, this study has used a large data and therefore it has made us see now the link between clause complexing or integration of experience and the issue of language change which will guide people who are now studying language change. This is how the study was undertaken and how it has been significant to systemic functional grammar and the study in editorial genre and language change.

It was argued earlier in this study that the *Daily Graphic* newspaper has survived many democratic and military regimes since the independence of Ghana. This assumption has a number of implications. First, the trajectory of the rise-and-fall of the taxis and the logico-semantic processes was equally distributed in both democratic and military regimes and did not change the way the writers or the journalist presented and packaged their information in the newspaper editorials. Though a considerable number of editors have been changed, particularly in post-independence era, following a series of democratic and military coups, there was maintenance of the rise-and-fall pattern of the taxis and logico-semantic process during the period of study. So, looking at the rise-fall-rise-fall-rise pattern of the distribution of clause complex structures and the logico-semantic relations, one can see that these writers were not restricted in their writing of editorials and that complexity has actually been the complete fashion of the newspaper editorial.

Again, there was the maintenance of complexity because the editors were not suppressed in the use of these complex grammatical features in the news presentation in both democratic and military dispensations. The implication is that when the editors want to write, they are not restricted to the use of complexity in the newspaper editorials. This is probably going to show the cause of expanding on issues or information for the discursal effect of clause complexing. It has also taught us journalism and presentation of information and also the choices that are made in grammar that affect complexity.

There are variations in the way writers use clause complexity in the newspaper editorial. This means that there are some variations and maintenance of some of the taxis and logico-semantic features since independence; military and democratic regimes which would almost look like freedom of writing or suppression of writing of news events. This is to get some

effect/implication perhaps from native factors, nativisation factors, education factors, proficiency factors, democracy, military, or as the country is becoming more educated things are becoming more complex.

#### **7.4 Limitations of the study**

The present study has accumulated several limitations. For instance, the means selected to determine the clause complexes, though covering a huge strand of linguistic gradation, in essence cannot be complete. It was very cumbersome to determine the logico-semantic relations. Again, it was a bit difficult to determine the number of clauses in some of the clause complexes. Sometimes where the textalyser identifies for example four clauses in a nexus, the manual counting will also give five or six in that same nexus and vice versa.

Here the researcher selected the text purposively. In other words, the researcher in his selection of data considered documents he thought would be relevant to the study.

Another limitation to this study was that, it was confined to the written document and, even that, limited to some editions of the editorials of one newspaper but not all the editorials of the newspapers in general. The researcher believes it would have been interesting to have compared these editorials of newspapers in Ghana, however, because of space constraints, funds, time and the main aim of the researcher the study could not do that.

Of a theoretical limitation is the approach in clause complexing analysis. As may be observed throughout this study, reference has been made to the taxis and logico-semantic in so many instances. This means that clause complex investigation of the nature undertaken in this study requires the clause complexing model in SFG as an integral theoretical framework for explanation and analysis.

Besides, the linguistic categories for this study were limited to the clause complex, one may wonder what the choices would be among lexical choices and phrases across a similar data. Additionally, new approaches to clause categorization were adopted, particularly regarding the clause complex. One wonders what the observation would have been if the traditional classification among restrictive, nonrestrictive and sentential types were maintained.

Engaging with several other interconnectedness structures and exploring how they apply to editorial texts would introduce accuracy to the clause complex study. Another limitation is the fact that the current study did not compare different newspaper editorials within the broad category of public and private newspaper editorial texts in Ghana. It could be possible that different newspaper editorials may vary or change extensively across decades over the years in terms of clause complex in compiling information or experience even within the public newspaper publication.

Besides, selecting 2232 editorial texts for over 62 years is very difficult and needs a lot of time and space. Consequently, the editorials which were compiled for the analysis of this study is relatively huge. The results could have been different if the same process were applied or compared to a small or different newspaper editorials. The results would have been different if the study had compared for example, legal texts with editorials texts.

The methodological process has also given a further light into the future research in newspaper editorials. The Ghanaian Universities should embark on a project to digitize all the newspapers, especially the editorials into pdf/word document for easy retrieval of these materials in the libraries. The machines are available, for instance, Balme Library has a scan machine to scan

the editions each day for easy access because most of the newspapers were obsolete and had torn so it was difficult to find some of the editions. The researcher's suggestion to make them digitize the editorials has provided the library a source of scanned materials for research.

Besides, the study investigated the clause complexes in the editorials. Other grammatical structures such as transitivity, phrases or groups, lexical density could have equally been explored in the editorials.

The study of clause complexing is a functional classificatory concept of grammatical analysis. This provides a different analytical framework of analysing clauses in grammar. Theoretically, the concept has given a further light to the study of grammar and has provided a different result.

### **7.5 Conclusion**

According to Wiredu (2012) and Frimpong (2015), a prominent feature associated with editorial language is its complexity. And, elsewhere in this study, it was observed that

there is the unintended impression that editorial language does not change but remains static over time. This suggests that complex use of language has been part of editorial language for all these years. (See page 17 of this study)

The obvious question that arises may be stated as follows: is it the case that the editorial language has not changed significantly over the years in the area of its complex language use? From the results of this analysis, the answer is: "No. It has not changed." According to Aitchison (1991) and Reaser et al. (2017), there is a long-held assumption that the grammar of a language changes more slowly than other levels of language use. The results of these texts in this study largely support their view.

In discussing the Register Theory, Biber and Conrad (2009) observe that, if you pick texts from the field, there will be no significant change in language use, no matter the region the texts may be originating from or the period when the texts are produced. In other words, the texts will largely use similar language patterns. This view, it is believed, has been confirmed by the results of the analysis.

It must be stated that the interpretation in this study has geared towards whether there is a change or there is no change. So, rather than looking at the features of editorials over the years, the study did not look at the features per se, but it looked at the features as they respond to the goal of this study, is there a change or there is no change. This means that the interpretation which has been provided in this study has proven that there has been a change. It was noted that indeed consistently, the editorial is overwhelmingly complex, but it was noticed that within the complex, there is a change or variation. There is a converse relationship, where the complex rises, the simplex falls, where the paratactic rises, the hypotactic falls, where the expansion rises, the projection falls etc.

It was noted that there was a fall, there was a rise, low or high variation, there was a sharp or great variation, and there was little variation. Where there was a decline in a specific type, there is a corresponding increase on the other type. It goes down, then it goes up, it changes a bit, then there is a drastic change or great or sharp change, then it remains the same sometimes year by year; two or three years, sometimes at different years and that was the pattern which was actually noticed. So, despite the fact that the pattern is rising and falling, it was noted that there are levels or degrees of them.

It must be concluded that there was no consistent distribution about the pattern. Thus, it is difficult to actually say that the language has changed or has not changed because of the zigzag nature of the language use. It appears as if there is no specific pattern and it is supported by the figures and the diagrams (line graphs) in the analysis in chapters five and six. In conclusion, the three issues which motivated this study have been, generally, confirmed by this study.

### **7.6 Recommendations for further study**

The study of clause complexing in the editorials has resulted in a lot of recommendations. This study was only restricted to the aspect of clause using the systemic functional grammar theory. Thus, it only analysed the system of clause complexes and the changes in the levels of complexity in the use of grammar in the editorials of the *Daily Graphic* newspaper in Ghana. The public and private newspapers can be compared to see the grammatical changes which have occurred in the compilation of experience. However, the researcher makes the following suggestions for other researchers to undertake the transitivity analysis, mood or interpersonal analysis, as well as nominal, verbal, adverbial group/phrase analysis, vocabulary, sentence patterns, the choice of clauses etc. The obvious reason is that the editorials contain processes of *happening, doing, being, saying, commanding, suggestion, praising, or thinking*. Again, the editorials contain a lot of lexical words which appeal to newspaper reportage to a specific readership in terms of register.



### References

- Abrafi, A. A. (2010). *Theme and Thematic Progression in the Daily Graphic – A Study of the Editorial and the Lead Story*; PhD, University of Education, Winneba Dept. of English Education; Unpublished.
- Adedeji, A. O. (2015). Analysis of use of English and indigenous languages by the press in selected African countries. *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review (OMAN Chapter)*, 4(8), 35.
- Adjaye, J. K. (2005). Language, identity, and politics in Ghana: The linguistic landscape of Accra. *International Journal of Sociology of Language*, 2005(175-176), 157-178.
- Adjei, A. A. (2020). Style in the Print Media: Perspectives from the Editorials of a Ghanaian Newspaper. *Namibian Journal for Research, Science and Technology*, 2(1), 63-76.
- Adjei, A. A., & Opoku, K. (2017). The expansion relations of clause complexing (CC) in the editorials of the daily graphic. *Journal of Literature, Languages and Linguistics*, 30, 12-26. Vol.30, ISSN 2422-8435. Retrieved on 30<sup>th</sup> March, 20220 on [www.iiste.org](http://www.iiste.org)
- Afful, M. I. (2014). A Diachronic study of the NP structure in Ghanaian Newspaper Editorials. *Journal of Advances in Linguistics*. Vol. 5, No. 1. ISSN 2348-3024. Retrieved on 20<sup>th</sup> March 2020 on [www.cirjal.com](http://www.cirjal.com).
- Aitchison, J. (2001). *Language change: Progress or decay?* (3rd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Aitchison, J. (1991). *Language change: Progress or decay?* Cambridge university press.
- Ali, M., & Sheeraz, M. (2018). Diachronic variations in Pakistani English newspaper editorials: A case study. *NUML Journal of Critical Inquiry*, 16(2), 1-20.
- Allasonnière-Tang, M., Lundgren, O., Robbers, M., Cronhamn, S., Larsson, F., Her, O. S., ... & Carling, G. (2021). Expansion by migration and diffusion by contact is a source to

- the global diversity of linguistic nominal categorization systems. *Humanities and Social Sciences Communications*, 8(1), 1-6.
- Allen, G. (2000). Language, power, and consciousness. *AUTHOR Anderson, Charles M., Ed.; MacCurdy, Marian M., Ed. TITLE Writing and Healing: Toward an Informed Practice. Refiguring*, 259.
- Amfo, N. (2015). *Ghanaian English: A variety of English in a multilingual context*. In J. W. T. Y. P. (Ed.), *World Englishes: New directions in linguistic research* (pp. 193-214). Cambridge University Press.
- Amissah, E. K. (2017). *The Representation of Ruling and Opposition Parties in State-owned Newspapers in Contemporary Ghana*. diplom. de.
- Amoakohene, B. (2018). Generic structure potential of the editorial sections of selected Ghanaian newspapers. *Language Discourse & Society*, 6(1), 11.
- Anita, L. (2013). *An Analysis of Code Mixing used in Banners at University of Muhammadiyah Malang* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Muhammadiyah Malang).
- Anokwa, K. (1997). Press performance under civilian and military regimes in Ghana: A reassessment of past and present knowledge. *Press freedom and communication in Africa*, 3-28.
- Ansah, P. A.V., (1993) "Kwame Nkrumah and the Mass Media", in *the Life and Work of Kwame Nkrumah*, NJ, Africa World Press,
- Ansu-Kyeremeh, K. (1998). Perspectives on indigenous communication in Africa. School of Communication Studies, University of Ghana.
- Antaki, C. (1994). *Explaining and arguing: The social organization of accounts*. Sage.
- Antilla, A. (2002). *Variation and phonological theory*. In J.K. Chambers, P. Trudgill, and N. Schilling-Estes (eds), *The Handbook of Language Variation and Change*, 206–243. Oxford: Blackwell.

- Antunes, P., Nakamura, F. Y., Nunes, C., Costa, J. A., Esco, M. R., & Travassos, B. (2020). Heart rate variability changes from traditional vs. ultra-short-term recordings in relation to preseason training load and performance in futsal players. *The Journal of Strength & Conditioning Research*, 34(10), 2974-2981.
- Anyidoho, P. (2016). Ethnography of print and broadcast media in Ghana. *Imperial Journal of Interdisciplinary Research*, 2(7), 104-114.
- Asante, C. E. (1996) *The Press in Ghana: Problems and Prospects*. University Press of America, New York.
- Assibey, G. B., Prempeh, B., & Dorborson, N. (2021). Advertising in Ghana: A Retrospective Account of Message Execution Tactics. *ADRRRI Journal of Arts and Social Sciences*, 18(3 (6) October-December), 137-162.
- Ayto, J. (1999). Lexical evolution and learners' dictionaries. *The perfect Learners' Dictionary*, 151-159.
- Bakuuro, J., & Diedong, A. L. (2021). A Critical Discourse Analysis of Language in Ghanaian Newspaper Editorials. *Athens Journal of Mass Media & Communications*, 7(1).
- Baltin, M., & Collins, C. (Eds.). (2008). *The handbook of contemporary syntactic theory*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Banks, T. (2008). Foreign Language Learning Difficulties and Teaching Strategies. *Online Submission*.
- Barton, M. E. (1994). *Input and interaction in language acquisition*. Cambridge University Press.
- Bell, E. (2018). *The end of journalism as we know it*. Columbia Journalism Review.
- Benaquisto, L., & Given, L. (2008). The SAGE encyclopedia of qualitative research methods. *Given L, ed, 413*.

- Berry, R. (2005). Making the most of metalanguage. *Language awareness*, 14(1), 3-20.
- Biber, D. (1988). *Linguistic features: algorithms and functions in Variation across speech and writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Biber, D. (1992). On the complexity of discourse complexity: A multidimensional analysis. *Discourse Processes*, 15(2), 133-163.
- Biber, D. (1995). *Dimensions of register variation: A cross-linguistic comparison*. Cambridge University Press.
- Biber, D. (2003). Variation among university spoken and written registers: A new multi-dimensional analysis. In *Corpus analysis* (pp. 47-70). Brill.
- Biber, D. and Conrad, S. (2009). *Register, Genre and Style*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Biber, D., & Clark, V. (2002). Historical shifts in modification patterns with complex noun phrase structures. *Teresa Fanego, Maria L pez—Couso and Javier Perez—Guerra (eds.). English Historical Morphology. Selected Papers from, 11*, 43-66.
- Biber, D., & Conrad, S. (2019). *Register, genre, and style*. Cambridge University Press.
- Biber, D., & Gray, B. (2011). Grammatical change in the noun phrase: The influence of written language use. *English Language & Linguistics*, 15(2), 223-250.
- Biber, D., & Gray, B. (2016). *Grammatical complexity in academic English: Linguistic change in writing*. Cambridge University Press.
- Biber, D., Conrad, S., & Reppen, R. (1998). *Corpus Linguistics: Investigating Language Structure and Use*. New York: Cambridge University Press.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511804489>
- Biber, D., Gray, B., & Poonpon, K. (2011). Should we use characteristics of conversation to measure grammatical complexity in L2 writing development? *Tesol Quarterly*, 45(1), 5-35.

- Biber, D., Nekrasova, T., & Horn, B. (2011). The effectiveness of feedback for L1-English and L2-writing development: A meta-analysis. *ETS Research Report Series, 2011*(1), i-99.
- Blanco, M. P. (2020). Evidential adjectives in English and Spanish journalistic opinion discourse. *Journal of Pragmatics, 170*, 112-124.
- Bloomfield, L. (1933). *Language*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winson.
- Bloor, T., & Bloor, M. (2004). *The Functional Analysis of English*. London: Hodder Arnold.  
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203774854>
- Boeije, H. (2002). A purposeful approach to the constant comparative method in the analysis of qualitative interviews. *Quality and quantity, 36*(4), 391-409.
- Bolívar, A. (2002). The structure of newspaper editorials. In *Advances in written text analysis* (pp. 290-308). Routledge.
- Bolton, K. (2006). *World Englishes: A Resource Book for Students*. Routledge.
- Bowern C., Epps P., Gray., Hill J., Hunley K., McConvell P., & Zentz J. (2011). Does lateral transmission obscure inheritance in hunter-gatherer languages? *PLoS ONE 6*(9): e25195.
- Buitkienė, J. (2008). Hedging in newspaper discourse. *Žmogus ir žodis, 10*(3), 11-15.
- Cameron, D. (1995). *Verbal hygiene*. Routledge.
- Campbell, L., & Muntzel, M. (1994). Language death. *The encyclopedia of language and linguistics, 4*, 1960-1968.
- Canale, M. (1978). *Word order Change in OE: Base Re-analysis in Generative Grammar*. Ph.D. dissertation, McGill University.
- Chester, J., & Montgomery, K. C. (2019). The digital commercialisation of US politics—2020 and beyond. *Internet Policy Review, 8*(4), 1-23.
- Chomsky, N. (1960). *The morphophonemics of English*. MIT Press.

- Clouse, A. (2006). *The social history of a national collection: Anthropology, repatriation and the politics of identity*. The University of Arizona.
- Clyne, M. (2003). Towards a more language-centred approach to plurilingualism. *Multilingual Matters*, 43-55.
- Codioli McMaster, N. (2018). *Stratification into field of study in Higher Education* (Doctoral dissertation, UCL (University College London)).
- Connor, S. M., & Wesolowski, K. (2004). Newspaper framing of fatal motor vehicle crashes in four Midwestern cities in the United States, 1999–2000. *Injury Prevention*, 10(3), 149-153.
- Conrad, M., Recio, G., & Jacobs, A. M. (2011). The time course of emotion effects in first and second language processing: A cross-cultural ERP study with German–Spanish bilinguals. *Frontiers in psychology*, 2, 351.
- Conrad, S. (2017). A comparison of practitioner and student writing in civil engineering. *Journal of Engineering Education*, 106(2), 191-217.
- Conrad, S., & Pfeiffer, T. J. (2011). Preliminary analysis of student and workplace writing in civil engineering. In *2011 ASEE Annual Conference & Exposition* (pp. 22-1169).
- Cook, E. D. (1989). Is phonology going haywire in dying languages? Phonological variations in Chipewyan and Sarcee. *Language in society*, 18(2), 235-255.
- Cook, P., & Stevenson, S. (2010, May). Automatically identifying changes in the semantic orientation of words. In *Proceedings of the Seventh International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC'10)*.
- Cooper, R. L. (1982). *Language spread: Studies in diffusion and social change*. Indiana University Press, Bloomington, Ind., US.

- Coupé, C., Mufwene, S. S., & Pellegrino, F. (2013). Complexity in language: A multifaceted phenomenon. *Complexity in language: Developmental and evolutionary perspectives*, 1-29.
- Croft, W. (2000). *Explaining language change: An evolutionary approach*. Pearson Education.
- Crystal, D. (1985). How many millions? The statistics of English today. *English Today*, 1(1), 7-9.
- Crystal, D. (2002). *Language death*. Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a global language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, D., & Crystal, H. (2000). *Words on words: Quotations about language and languages*. University of Chicago Press.
- Daily Graphic* newspaper in Ghana which were published from 1957 to 2018
- Dako, K. (2002). Pidgin, English, and the languages of Ghana: A case study. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 23(6), 486-498.
- Dako, K. (2003). *Ghanaianisms: A glossary of the informal speech and usage of English in Ghana*. Ghana Universities Press.
- Daneš, F. (1964). "A Three Level Approach to Syntax," in František Daneš (ed.), *Travaux de Linguistique de Prague*. Vol. 1. Tuscaloosa: University of Alabama Press, 225-40.
- Davies, N. M., Dickson, M., Davey Smith, G., Windmeijer, F., & van den Berg, G. J. (2018). The effect of education on adult mortality, health, and income: triangulating across genetic and policy reforms. *BioRxiv*, 250068.
- de Saussure, F. (1916) *Course de linguistique generale*, London: Duckworth.
- Dik, S. C. (Ed.). (1983). *Advances in functional grammar* (Vol. 11, p. 415). Foris Publications.
- Downing, A. (2014). *English grammar: A university course*. Routledge.

- Downing, A. and Locke, P. (2006). *English Grammar. A University Course* Second edition: London and New York: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.
- Egins, S. (1996). *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics*. London: Continuum
- Egins, S. (2004) *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics (2nd Edition)*, London, New York: Continuum.
- Eribo, F., & Jong-Ebot, W. (Eds.). (1997). *Press freedom and communication in Africa*. Africa World Press.
- Evans, B. G., & Iverson, P. (2007). Plasticity in vowel perception and production: A study of accent change in young adults. *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, 121(6), 3814-3826.
- Fairclough, N. (1995). *Media discourse*. Edward Arnold.
- Fang, Z., Schleppegrell, M. J., & Cox, B. E. (2006). Understanding the language demands of schooling: Nouns in academic registers. *Journal of literacy research*, 38(3), 247-273.
- Fasold, R. (1984). *The Sociolinguistics of Society*. Oxford: Blackwells.
- Finnegan, A. (2007). Extending the “knowledge advantage”: creating learning chains. *The Learning Organization*, Cambridge University Press.
- Fowler, R. (1991). *Language in the news: Discourse and ideology in the press*. Routledge.
- Frimpong, G. K. (2015) *A Comparative Register Analysis of Editorials from Ghanaian and British Newspapers*. University of Ghana, Legon, Department of English. Accra: Unpublished PhD Thesis. Retrived on 15<sup>th</sup> November, 2019. From <http://ugspace.ug.edu.gh>.
- Frimpong, G. K. (2017). Subordination across Ghanaian and British newspaper editorials: a register perspective. *Ghana Journal of Linguistics*, 6(1), 72-115.
- Frimpong, G. K. (2019). Cross-dialectal similarity of registers: The case of the sentence across Ghanaian and British newspaper editorials. In *SKASE Journal of Theoretical*

- Linguistics [online]. 2019, vol. 16, no. 2[cit. 2019-06-24]. Available on web page [http://www.skase.sk/Volumes/JTL40/pdf\\_doc/06.pdf](http://www.skase.sk/Volumes/JTL40/pdf_doc/06.pdf). ISSN 1336-782X.
- GeoPoll (2021). Media Consumption – Daily Reach. Available upon request. <https://www.geopoll.com/blog/ghana-media-measurement-report-top-tv-radio-print-outlets-2021/>
- Gerard, A. S., (1981) *African Language Literatures: An Introduction to Literary History of Sub-Saharan African*, Washington, Three Continents Press.
- Gerot, L. and Wignell. P. (1994). *Making Sense of Functional Grammar*. Sydney: Gerd Stabler.
- Goner, Mike. 2009. Type of Text for Senior High School. <http://typeoftext.blogspot.com/2009/01/analyticaexposition.html>
- Ghana Mass Media, Press, TV, Radio, Newspaper forum, Oct 8, 2019
- Ghana: Act No. 29 of 1960, Criminal Offences Act [Ghana]*, 12 January 1960, available at: <https://www.refworld.org/docid/44bf823a4.html> [accessed.
- Glasow, P. A. (2005). *Fundamentals of survey research methodology*. Retrieved January, 18, 2021.
- Glenn, C., & Gray, L. (2016). *The Writer's Harbrace Handbook, 2016 MLA Update*. Nelson Education.
- Goodman, B. (1976). *The PLANES System: Natural Language Access to a Large Data Base*. ILLINOIS UNIV AT URBANA COORDINATED SCIENCE LAB.
- Graddol, D. (2006). English next: Why global English may mean the end of 'English as a foreign language'. British Council.
- Greenberg, J. H. (1995). The Diachronic typological approach. *Approaches to language typology*, 145-66.
- Grosjean, F. (1982). *Life with two languages: An introduction to bilingualism*. Harvard University Press.

- Grosjean, F. (1989). Neurolinguists, beware! The bilingual is not two monolinguals in one person. *Brain and Language*, 36(1), 3-15.
- Halliday, M. & Hasan, H. R., (1976). *Cohesion in English*. P20.
- Halliday, M. A. (1971). Language in a social perspective. *Educational Review*, 23(3), 165-188.
- Halliday, M. A. K (1978). *Language as Social Semiotics*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K (1985). *Spoken and Written Language*. Geelong. *Victoria: Deakin University Press*.
- Halliday, M. A. K (2004). *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Arnold Publishers.
- Halliday, M. A. K. & Matthiessen, C. M. (1999). The system of TRANSITIVITY: an exploratory study of text-based profiles. *Functions of language*, 6(1), 1-51.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1973). *Explorations in the functions of language*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1989). *Spoken and written language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (2007). *Language and Education: Volume 9*. A&C Black.
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Matthiessen, C. M. I. (2004). *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Routledge.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1977). "Ideas about Language" Occasional Papers I. Applied Linguistics Association of Australia. Pp. 32-55
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1979). *Modes of meaning and modes of expression: Types of grammatical structure and their determination by different semantic functions*. In D.J. Allerton, E. Carney, & D. Holdcroft (Eds.), *Function and context in linguistic analysis: Essays offered to William Haas* (pp. 57-79). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1985). *Introduction to functional grammar*. London: Arnold.

- Halliday, M.A.K. and J.R. Martin, (1993). *Writing science: Literacy and discursive power*. London: Falmer Press.
- Halliday, M.A.K. and Matthiessen, C.M.I.M. (2014) *Halliday's introduction to functional grammar* (4th edition). London: Routledge.
- Halliday, M.A.K., & Hasan, R. (1985). *Language, context and text: Aspects of language in a social-semiotic perspective*. Geelong, Victoria, Australia: Deakin University.
- Hasty, J. (2005). *The press and political culture in Ghana*. Indiana University Press.
- He, Q. (2013). Textual metaphor from the non-finite clausal perspective. *Open Journal of Modern Linguistics*, 3(4), 308-313.
- Heath, C. W., (2001) "Regional Radio: a Response by the Ghana Broadcasting Corporation to Democratization and Competition", *Canadian Journal of Communication*, 26, 1, 2001, pp. 89-106.
- Hengeveld, K. & Lachlan M. J. (2008). *Functional Discourse Grammar: A Typologically-Based Theory of Language Structure*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. ISBN 978-0-19-927811-4.
- Hickey, R. (2010). Language change. *Variation and Change. Pragmatics perspectives*, 171-202.
- Hittleman, D. R., & Simon, A. J. (1997). *Interpreting educational research: An introduction for consumers of research*. Prentice-Hall, Inc., One Lake St., Upper Saddle River, NJ 07458.
- Hollmann, W. B. (2009). *Semantic change* (p. 301). na.
- Hróarsdóttir, Þ. (2003). Language change and language acquisition. *Nordlyd*, 31(1).
- Hróarsdóttir, Þ. (2009). OV languages: expressions of cues. *Information structure and language change: New Approaches to Word Order Variation in Germanic*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter, 67-90.

- Hsieh, H. F., & Shannon, S. E. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative health research, 15*(9), 1277-1288.
- Huber, M. (2004). Ghanaian English: Phonology. In B. Kortmann & E. W. Schneider (Eds.), *A handbook of varieties of English: A multimedia reference tool* (Vol. 1, pp. 843-865). Mouton de Gruyter.
- Huber, M. (2008). Ghanaian English: Morphology and syntax. In B. Kortmann & E. W. Schneider (Eds.), *A handbook of varieties of English: A multimedia reference tool* (Vol. 2, pp. 866-884). Mouton de Gruyter.
- Hunter, D. (2013). 'Context as Solution. A step too far?' *ELT Journal, Volume 67/4* Oct pp 475-481.
- Indriyani, R., & Said, M. (2022). EXPLORING COMPLEX SENTENCES AND METPHORS IN ONLINE NEWS ARTICLES ABOUT COVID-19 IN ASIA TIMES. *INFERENCE: Journal of English Language Teaching, 5*(2), 121-132.
- Ileri, K., & Ochieng, J. (2020). Politicians in Newspaper News: Who Attracts Coverage in Kenyan Politics. *The International Journal of Press/Politics, 25*(4), 675-691.
- Jacob, J., (1914) *Language change and linguistic reconstruction*. Review of Bartoli, 1906, ASNS 121, 1909, 425-435. Heidelberg, Chicago.
- Jenkins, J. (2000). *The Phonology of English as an International Language: New Models, New Norms, New Attitudes*. Oxford University Press.
- Jomaa, N. J., & Bidin, S. J. (2019). Reporting and quoting: Functional analyses of logico-semantic relations of clause complex citations. *3L, Language, Linguistics, Literature, 25*(1).
- Jones-Quartey, K. A. B. (1975). *History, politics and early press in Ghana: The fictions and the facts*. Accra, Ghana: Jones-Quartey.

- Kachru, B. B. (1983). Models of new Englishes. *Progress in language planning*, 145-170.
- Kachru, B. B. (1985). Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: The English language in the outer circle. In R. Quirk & H. G. Widdowson (Eds.), *English in the World: Teaching and Learning the Language and Literatures* (pp. 11-30). Cambridge University Press.
- Kachru, B. B. (2006). *Hindi* (Vol. 12). John Benjamins Publishing.
- Kafewo, S. A. (2006). Giving voice: Instigating debate on issues of citizenship, participation and accountability. *Journal of Philosophy and Culture*, 3(1), 174-197.
- Kaid, L. L. (1989). *Content analysis*. In P. Emmert & L. L. Barker (Eds.), *Measurement of communication behavior* (pp. 197-217). New York: Longman
- Kaplan, R. M. (1970). *The mind system: A grammar-rule language*. RAND CORP SANTA MONICA CALIF.
- Kaplan, R. M., & Bresnan, J. (1970). Formal system for grammatical representation. *Formal issues in lexical-functional grammar*, (47), 29.
- Karakaş, A. (2013). The expansion of the English language across Turkey: Threat or opportunity. *Mediterranean Journal of Humanities*, 3(2), 159-171.
- Koranteng, L. A. (2006). Ghanaian English: A description of its sound system and phonological features. PhD Thesis, Accra, University of Ghana.
- Kress, G. (2010). *Multimodality: A social semiotic approach to contemporary communication*. Routledge.
- Kroch, A. S. (2001). *Syntactic change*. In Mark Baltin & Chris Collins, eds. *Handbook of Syntax*, Blackwell.
- Kuehnhenrich, D. (2012). *Entwicklung oder Profit? Die staatliche und private Presse in Ghana*. ibidem-Verlag.

- Kurniasy, D. (2016). Hypotactic Structure in English. *JL3T (Journal of Linguistics, Literature and Language Teaching)*, 2(2), 1-18.
- Kurt, S. (2007). The Rhetoric of Pravda Editorials. A Diachronic Study of a Political Genre. (Acta Universitatis Stockholmiensis. Stockholm Slavic Studies 33).
- Kwegyir-Afful, E. (2015). Effects of occupational health and safety assessment series standard and organizational learning on core competencies building.
- Labov, W. (1972). *Sociolinguistic patterns*. U. Pennsylvania Press.
- Langacker, R. W. (1987). *Foundations of Cognitive Grammar. Vol. I: Theoretical Prerequisites*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.
- Langacker, R. W. (1991). *Foundations of Cognitive Grammar. Vol. 2. Descriptive Application*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.
- Lasnik, H., & Sobin, N. (2000). The who/whom puzzle: On the preservation of an archaic feature. *Natural Language & Linguistic Theory*, 18(2), 343-371.
- Leech, G. Hundt, M. Mair, C. and Smith, N. (2009) Change in Contemporary English: A Grammatical Study. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. xxx+341.
- Lieberson, S. (1982). Forces affecting language spread: Some basic propositions. *Language spread: Studies in diffusion and social change*, 37-62.
- Lippmann, W. (1922). *Public opinion*. Harcourt, Brace and Company.
- Logogye, C. (2012). *Modality In the Print Media: A Study of Editorials of Some Ghanaian Newspapers*, UEW, Ghana, Unpublished.
- Lu, X., & Ai, H. (2015). Syntactic complexity in college-level English writing: Differences among writers with diverse L1 backgrounds. *Journal of second language writing*, 29, 16-27.
- Lu, X., & Chen, G. M. (2011). Language change and value orientations in Chinese culture.

- Lyons, J. (1968). *Introduction to theoretical linguistics* (Vol. 510). Cambridge University Press.
- Manu, J. G. (2020). Presupposition in Ghanaian and British Newspaper editorials. *Ghana Journal of Linguistics*, 9(1), 18-45.
- Mardianto, L., & Suhadi, J. (2018). The Adequacy of the Theory of Logical Function Applied to Some Clauses in Chinua Achebe's Novel *Things Fall Apart*. *KnE Social Sciences*, 435-451.
- Martin, J. H. (1985). Knowledge acquisition through natural language dialogue. *The engineering of knowledge-based systems*, 582-586.
- Martin, J. R., & White, P. R. R. (2005). *The Language of Evaluation*. New York: Palgrave.
- Martin, J.R. (1992). *English Text: System and Structure*, Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Martin, P. W. (1995). Whiter the Indigenous Languages of Brunei Darussalam? *Oceanic Linguistics*, 27-43.
- McLuhan, M. (1965). *Understanding media: The extensions of man*. McGraw-Hill.
- Meillet, A. (1905). Les nominatifs sanskrits en-*ṭ*. *Indogermanische Forschungen*, 18(1), 417-421.
- Mesthrie, R., & Leap W.L. (2000). *Language contact 1: Maintenance, shift and death*. In *Introducing sociolinguistics*, eds. R. Mesthrie, J. Swann, A. Deumert, and W.J. Leap, 248-278. Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Mey, J. L. (1993) *Pragmatics: An Introduction* Oxford: Blackwell, xii + 357 pp. ISBN 0 631 18691 3
- Michael, L. (2015). Southern Tupí-Guaraní Languages: Combining classification with areal linguistics. In *Paper at the 18th Annual Workshop on American Indigenous Languages, Santa Barbara*.

- Mohammadi, M., Shayegan, M. J., & Latifi, N. (2021). Web Content Extraction by Weighing the Fundamental Contextual Rules. In *2021 7th International Conference on Signal Processing and Intelligent Systems (ICSPIS)* (pp. 01-08). IEEE.
- Montgomery, M. (2006). *An Introduction to Language and Society* London and New York: Routledge
- Moravec, V., Macková, V., Sido, J., & Ekštejn, K. (2020). THE ROBOTIC REPORTER IN THE CZECH NEWS AGENCY: AUTOMATED JOURNALISM AND AUGMENTATION IN THE NEWSROOM. *Communication Today*, 11(1).
- Mufwene, S. S. (2001). The ecology of language evolution. *The Evolution of Englishes: The Dynamic Model and the Future of English*, 33-53.
- Mukherjee, J. (2007). Steady states in the evolution of New Englishes: Present-day Indian English as an equilibrium. *Journal of English Linguistics*, 35(2), 157-187.
- Murray, R.W. (1997). *Historical Linguistics: The Study of Language Change*. John Benjamins Publishing.
- Nation, I. S. P., & Heatley, A. (1994). Range: A program for the analysis of vocabulary in texts [software]. Retrieved from <http://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/staff/paul-nation/nation.aspx>
- Nenty, H. J. (2009). Writing a quantitative research thesis. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, 1(1), 19-32.
- Nguyễn, T. M. T. (2013). The notion of clause complex in systemic functional linguistics. *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies*, 29(4).
- Ningsih, L. F. Y. (2020). DISCOURSE ANALYSIS ON TERRORISM-RELATED ARTICLES IN INDONESIAN ENGLISH-LANGUAGE NEWSPAPER EDITORIALS. *Humanitatis: Journal of Language and Literature*, 6(2), 215-230.
- Nkrumah, K., (1965) *The African Journalist*, Dar es Salaam, The Tanzania Publishers.

- Noviandari, N. S. (2019). *Logico Semantic Relation Analysis of Clause Complex Based on SFL in CNN News* (Doctoral dissertation, IAIN Ponorogo).
- Nyaungwa, M., & Garman, A. (2019). Speaking to power through newspaper editorials in Zimbabwe. *Journal of African Media Studies*, 11(1), 51-64.
- O'Donnell, M. (2011). Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics for Discourse Analysis. *Language, Function and Cognition*, pp. 1-
- Ofori, A. (2018). *Language and identity in Ghanaian English*. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 17(1), 24-38.
- Opoku, K. (2015). *The Study of Clause Complexing in the editorials of the Daily Graphic*, UEW, Ghana, Unpublished.
- Orji, D. M., & Obijiofor, C. (2021). A Diachronic Study of Language Use as an Instrument of Language Change. *International Scholars Journal of Arts and Social Science Research*, 4(2), 273-284.
- Orwell, G. (1938). *Politics and the English language*. Horizon.
- Padmaja, K. (2019). Deviation of English in Modern Usage. *Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow Volume 19: 6 June 2019 ISSN 1930-2940*, 225.
- Pardo, J. S. (2006). On phonetic convergence during conversational interaction. *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, 119(4), 2382-2393.
- Parkinson, J., & Musgrave, J. (2014). Development of noun phrase complexity in the writing of English for Academic Purposes students. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 14, 48-59.
- Pavlik, J. (2001). *Journalism and new media*. Columbia University Press.
- Pennycook, A. (1994). *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. Longman.
- Perloff, R. M. (2021). *The dynamics of political communication: Media and politics in a digital age*. Routledge.

- Peterman, K. A. M. (2021). *Continue Playing: Examining Language Change in Discourse About Binge-watching on Twitter* (Doctoral dissertation, Colorado State University).
- Pettersson, R. (2006). Research in information design. *Journal of Visual Literacy*, 26(1), 77-88.
- Pew Research Center. (2020). *Social media and the news*. Pew Research Center.
- Pinker, S. (1994). How could a child use verb syntax to learn verb semantics? *Lingua*, 92, 377-410.
- Pinker, S. (2014). *The Sense of Style. The Thinking Person's Guide to Writing in the 21st Century*, London: Penguin Group.
- Pintzuk, S. (2002). Morphological case and word order in Old English. *Language Sciences*, 24(3-4), 381-395.
- Polio, C. (2017). Second language writing development: A research agenda. *Language Teaching*, 50(2), 261-275.
- Pomerantz, A. M. (1984). Giving a source or basis: The practice in conversation of telling 'how I know'. *Journal of pragmatics*, 8(5-6), 607-625.
- Popescu, O., & Strapparava, C. (2013, October). Behind the Times: Detecting Epoch Changes using Large Corpora. In *IJCNLP* (pp. 347-355).
- Poplack, S. (1980). Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish y termino en español: Toward a typology of code-switching. *Linguistics*, 18(7-8), 581-618.
- Postman, N. (1976). *Amusing ourselves to death: Public discourse in the age of show business*. Viking Penguin.
- Quirk, R, Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. (1985). *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. London: Longman.

- Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G. N., & Svartvik, J. (1972). *A grammar of contemporary English*. London: Longman.
- Rahman, A. (2014). *The influence of social classes on language variations: a study on the people of Dhaka city* (Doctoral dissertation, BRAC University).
- Reaser, J., Adger, C. T., Wolfram, W., & Christian, D. (2017). *Dialects at school: Educating linguistically diverse students*. Routledge.
- Ryshina-Pankova, M. (2015). A meaning-based approach to the study of complexity in L2 writing: The case of grammatical metaphor. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 29, 51-63.
- Sapir, E. (1921). *Language: An introduction to the study of speech*. Harcourt, Brace.
- Saragih, A. (2008). *Introducing Systemic Functional Grammar*. Medan: English Department Faculty of Languages and Arts the State University of Medan.
- Schleppegrell, M. J. (2012). Systemic Functional Linguistics. *The Routledge Handbook of Discourse Analysis*, ed. by James Gee and Michael Handford, 21-34. London & New York: Routledge.
- Schmitt, N. (2010). *Researching vocabulary: A vocabulary research manual*. Springer.
- Schneider, E. W. (2007). *Postcolonial English: Varieties Around the World*. Cambridge University Press.
- Schneider, K. P. (2007). Genre matters: Textual and contextual constraints on contemporary English speech behaviour. *Anglia* 125(1): 59–83.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2011). *Understanding English as a lingua franca*. Oxford University Press.
- Sekyi-Baidoo, Y. (2019). English ‘non-name’ address forms in the non-native sociolinguistic context: The case study of the Akan of Ghana. *Sociolinguistic Studies*, 13(2-4), 379-397.
- Sey, K. A. (1973). *Ghanaian English: An exploratory survey*. Macmillan.

Shaw, D. (2006). Remaking the front page. *American Journalism Review*, 28(3), 24.

Shirky, C. (1999). *Here comes everybody: The power of organizing without organizations*.

Penguin Books.

Sinclair, J. (ed). (1995). *Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary*. London: Harper Collins.

Smith, J. A. (1996). Beyond the divide between cognition and discourse: Using interpretative phenomenological analysis in health psychology. *Psychology & Health*, 11(2), 261–271. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08870449608400256>

Stockwell, R. P. (1977). Bloomington. *IN: Indiana University Publications*.

Sunardi, P. D. A. (2015) Tactic system and Logico-Semantic Relations of Clause Complexes in Asean free Area (AFTA) Agreement. English Study Program Faculty of Humanities Dian Nuswantoro University Semarang.

Swan, M., & Smith, B. (2001). *Learner English: A teacher's guide to interference and other problems* (Vol. 1). Cambridge University Press.

Taboada, M. T. (2004). *Building Coherence and Cohesion: Task-Oriented Dialogue In English And Spanish*. USA: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Tawerilmang, T. (1996). National language policy in the federatedstates of Micronesia: A conceptual framework. *Palikir, Pohnpei: FSM National Department of Education*.

Taylor, A. (1996). *Verb movement in Old and Middle English: Dialect variation and language contact*. Department of Linguistics, University of Pennsylvania [Host].

Teddle, C., & Yu, F. (2007). Mixed methods sampling: A typology with examples. *Journal of mixed methods research*, 1(1), 77-100.

Temin, J., & Smith, D. A. (2002). Media matters: Evaluating the role of the media in Ghana's 2000 elections. *African affairs*, 101(405), 585-605.

Textalyser (<http://textalyser.net>)

- The 1992 constitution of *the Republic of Ghana* [Ghana], 7 January 1993, available at: <https://www.refworld.org/docid/3ae6b5850.html> [accessed 17 February 2022]
- Thompson, G. (1996). *Introducing Functional Grammar*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- Thompson, G. (2013). *Introducing functional grammar*. Routledge.
- Trudgill, P. (1992). *Introducing language and society*. Penguin Books.
- Van Eemeren, F. H., & Grootendorst, R. (1992). Relevance reviewed: The case of argumentum ad hominem. *Argumentation*, 6(2), 141-159.
- Van Valin, R. D. (1980). Role and reference grammar. In *Current approaches to syntax* (pp. 329-352). Brill.
- Vathanalaoha, K., & Tangkiengsirisin, S. (2018). Transitivity analysis of rhetorical moves in dental research article abstracts: Thai and international journals. *Humanities, Arts and Social Sciences Studies*, 18(3), 639-662.
- Volk, K. M. (1999). *Understanding Language Change: Phonetics, Phonology and Child Language Acquisition*. TEXAS UNIV AT AUSTIN.
- Von Humboldt, A. (1863). *Cosmos*, Vol V (English translation by EC Otté and WS Dallas).
- Wardhaugh, R. (2010). How to read historical linguistics. In *How to Read Historical Mathematics*. Princeton University Press.
- Wardhaugh, R., & Fuller, J. M. (2015). *Language, Gender and Sexuality*. *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics. Seventh Edition*. Chichester, West Sussex, UK & Malden, MA, USA: Wiley Blackwell, 311-338.
- Wegman, C. (1994). Factual argumentation in private opinions: Effects of rhetorical context and involvement. *Text-Interdisciplinary Journal for the Study of Discourse*, 14(2), 287-312.
- Weinreich, U. (1953). *Languages in contact: Findings and problems*. Mouton.

- Weinreich, U. (1953). The Russification of Soviet minority languages. *Probs. Communism*, 2, 46.
- Westin, I. (2002). *Language Change in English Newspaper Editorials*. Amsterdam: Rodopi
- Westin, I., & Geisler, C. (2002). A multi-dimensional study of diachronic variation in British newspaper editorials. *ICAME journal*, 26, 133-152.
- Wiredu J. F. (2016). The Complex Sentence in Legal English: A Study of Law Reports. *Journal of Literature, Languages and Linguistics: ISSN 2422-8435 An International Peer-reviewed Journal*, Vol.22. [www.iiste.org](http://www.iiste.org)
- Wiredu, J. F. (2012). A Grammar of Newspaper Editorial language: the Complex Sentence. *Legon Journal of Humanities*, 23, 75 – 96.
- Yankson, I. K., Browne, E. N., Tagbor, H., Donkor, P., Quansah, R., Asare, G. E., ... & Ebel, B. E. (2010). Reporting on road traffic injury: content analysis of injuries and prevention opportunities in Ghanaian newspapers. *Injury prevention*, 16(3), 194-197.
- Young, R. E., Becker, A. L. and Pike, K. L. (1970) *"Rhetoric: Discovery and Change."* Harcourt,
- Yuliastuti, R. (2017). *Clause Complex Analysis in the 1945 Constitution of the State of The Republic Of Indonesia* (Doctoral Dissertation, Dian Nuswantoro University).
- Zadok-Boneh, M. (2020). *Teachers Under Stress: Jewish and Arab Teachers During the Covid-19 Pandemic Crisis* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Haifa (Israel)).



**APPENDIX 1: EXTRACTS FROM THE NEWSPAPER EDITORIALS**

***Smplex***

- a. *The new Pension Law made provision for a first, second and optional third tier. [DGE/03/09/2018]*
- b. *Again, it was to accumulate funds through retirement contributions for domestic capital market development. [DGE/03/09/2018]*
- c. *The “Daily Graphic” supports this decision. [DGE/01/22/1958]*
- d. *Cases of dishonesty are prevalent among school boys. [DGE/01/21/1957]*
- e. *In Ghana, most of these people have made Ghana their homes. [DGE/01/03/1972]*

***Complex***

- a. *||| 1 <sup>initiating clause</sup> A number of traffic lights have been installed at some inter-sections in Accra in recent times ||2 <sup>continuing clause</sup> and, therefore, provision should be made to install traffic lights at these inter-sections. ||| [DGE/01/20/1993]*
- b. *|||  $\alpha$  <sup>primary clause</sup> Countries [[which were once very prosperous]] are today pale shadows of themselves || $\beta$  <sup>secondary clause</sup> because the citizens took the peace and stability in those countries for granted. ||| [DGE/01/18/2013]*
- c. *|||  $\alpha$  <sup>primary clause</sup> We also commend the team of volunteers || $\beta$  <sup>secondary clause</sup> who have dedicated their services to supporting Dr. Abdulai’s work since 1989. ||| [DGE/01/20/2012]*

***Paratactic vs hypotactic***

- a. *||| 1 <sup>initiating clause</sup> The roads there are in terrible conditions ||2 <sup>continuing clause</sup> and there is no access to mobile telephony and the internet. ||| [DGE/09/28/2018]*
- b. *|||  $\alpha$  <sup>primary clause</sup> The most dangerous portions are the inter-sections at Anloga Junction and the former Amakom Roundabout, || $\beta$  <sup>secondary clause</sup> where vehicles presently criss-cross each other without any effort to ensure order. ||| [DGE/06/11/1983]*

**Types of dependent clauses**

- a. *|||  $\alpha$  primary clause Countries which were once very prosperous are today pale shadows of themselves | $\beta$  secondary clause because the citizens took the peace and stability in those countries for granted. ||| [DGE/18/01/2013]*
- b. *|||  $\alpha$  primary clause Consumers have always petitioned the Public Utilities Regulatory commission (PURC) against upward adjustments in tariffs | $\beta$  secondary clause because they offer poor services, || $\alpha$  secondary clause but the utility companies have always countered any such petition. ||| [DGE/21/01/2011]*

**Hypotactic clauses**

- a. *|||Since no country can be built with a weak and sick population, | $\alpha$  no investor [foreign or local] would want to put his money in a society | $\beta$  where people are left to die with the flimsy excuse | $\beta$  that there are no beds in hospitals. ||| DGE/08/14/2009]*
- b. *||| $\beta$  Even though the country is working towards a Ghana Beyond Aid agenda, | $\alpha$  it is about time nurses and doctors became aware | $\beta$  that we hold them in high esteem because of the singular sensitive role | $\alpha$  they play to ensure the total well-being of the populace | $\beta$  and if this is to be achieved, | $\beta$  then the health of the nation should be critically looked at | $\beta$  to ensure that it functions effectively, | $\beta$  because good health correlates with development | $\beta$  and also enhances poverty reduction. ||| [DGE/05/21/2003]*

