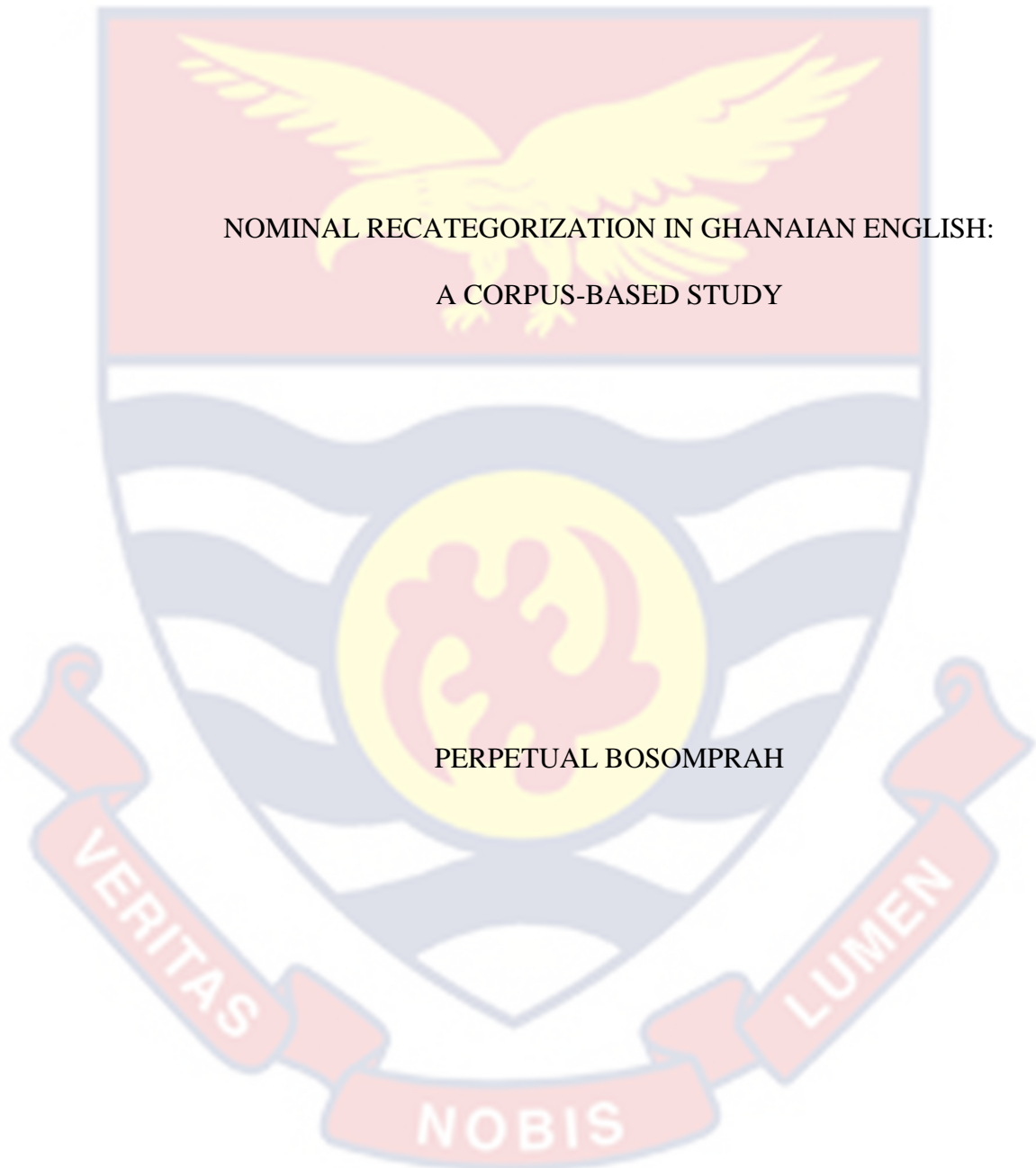UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

NOMINAL RECATEGORIZATION IN GHANAIAN ENGLISH:

A CORPUS-BASED STUDY

PERPETUAL BOSOMPRAH

2023

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

NOMINAL RECATEGORIZATION IN GHANAIAN ENGLISH:

A CORPUS-BASED STUDY

BY

PERPETUAL BOSOMPRAH

Thesis submitted to the Department of English of the Faculty of Arts,

College of Humanities and Legal Studies, University of Cape Coast in partial

fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Master of Philosophy degree in

English Language.

JULY 2023

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree at this university or elsewhere.
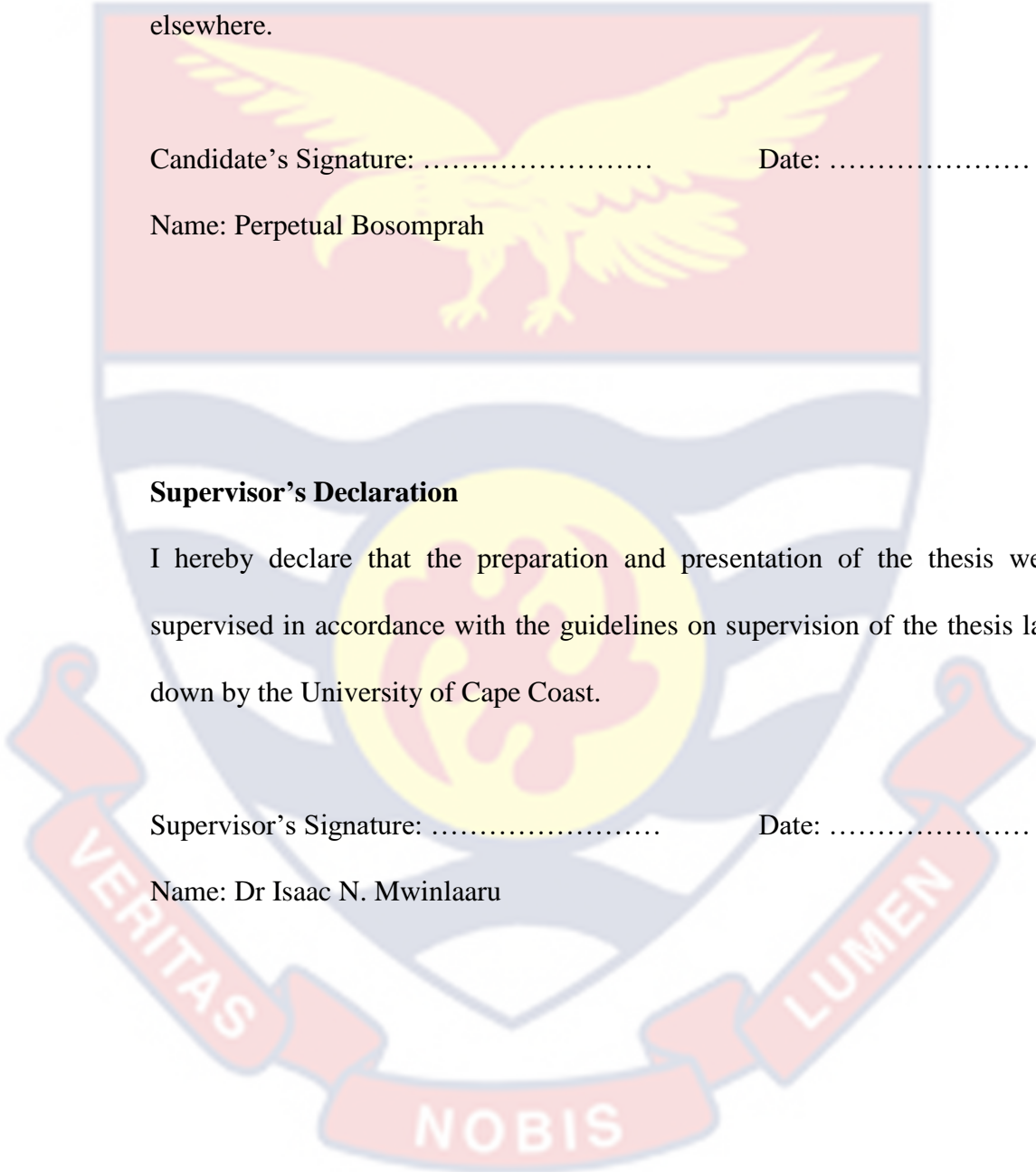
Candidate's Signature: …………………… Date: …………………

Name: Perpetual Bosomprah

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of the thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Signature: …………………… Date: …………………

Name: Dr Isaac N. Mwinlaaru

ii

ABSTRACT

The pluralization of the English language has led to several world Englishes. Following extensive debates on the existence of Ghanaian English since the 1970s, relatively recent research has proceeded to describe aspects of its phonology, vocabulary, and grammar. The present study investigates nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English using corpus data from International Corpus English (ICE)-Ghana. The study adopts a two-pronged theoretical framework, comprising Braj Kachru's (1995) Three Concentric Circles and Edgar Schneider's (2007) Dynamic Models. The study is qualitative, using a corpus-based approach. From the analysis, three findings were revealed. Firstly, nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English undergoes three processes: from mass to count nouns, count to mass nouns, and dual to count or collective nouns. These recategorizations are marked by the addition and/or omission of linguistic items and semantic implicatures. Secondly, the morphosyntactic indicators in the recategorization process consist of adding the plural inflection morpheme (-s) to originally mass nouns, modification by quantifiers and determiners, and using partitive constructions. Nominal recategorization is common among educated Ghanaians, possibly highlighting the transcendence of the variety from homes to educational contexts (Afful, 2006; Ngula, 2015). On some of the implications offered, the study restricts the generalization of the theories used to all contexts. Additionally, the dominance of nominal recategorization in written discourse reflects some developments in standardizing GhE. Further research on sociolinguistic factors characterizing recategorized forms was proposed as one of the recommendations.

KEYWORDS

Corpus-Based

Englishes

Ghanaian English

Nominal Recategorization

Written Discourse

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, my heartfelt gratitude goes to Jehovah for his undeserved kindness, mercy and abundance grace through the academic milestone. A sincere appreciation to my supervisor, Dr. Isaac N. Mwinlaaru for his humility, Patience, guidance and suggestions for this work to see day light. I could not have left Prof.L.K. Owusu-Ansah (Department of English, Cape Coast) for his inspiration for this work. To my family, I say thank you, especially my mother, Yaa Dufie. My unreserved thanks to Mr. Clement Asuo-Tandoh for his support in diverse ways.

Finally, my sincere thanks to Calvis Wonder for painstakingly helping me put pieces of information together and I thank myself for the effort I put in to complete this work.
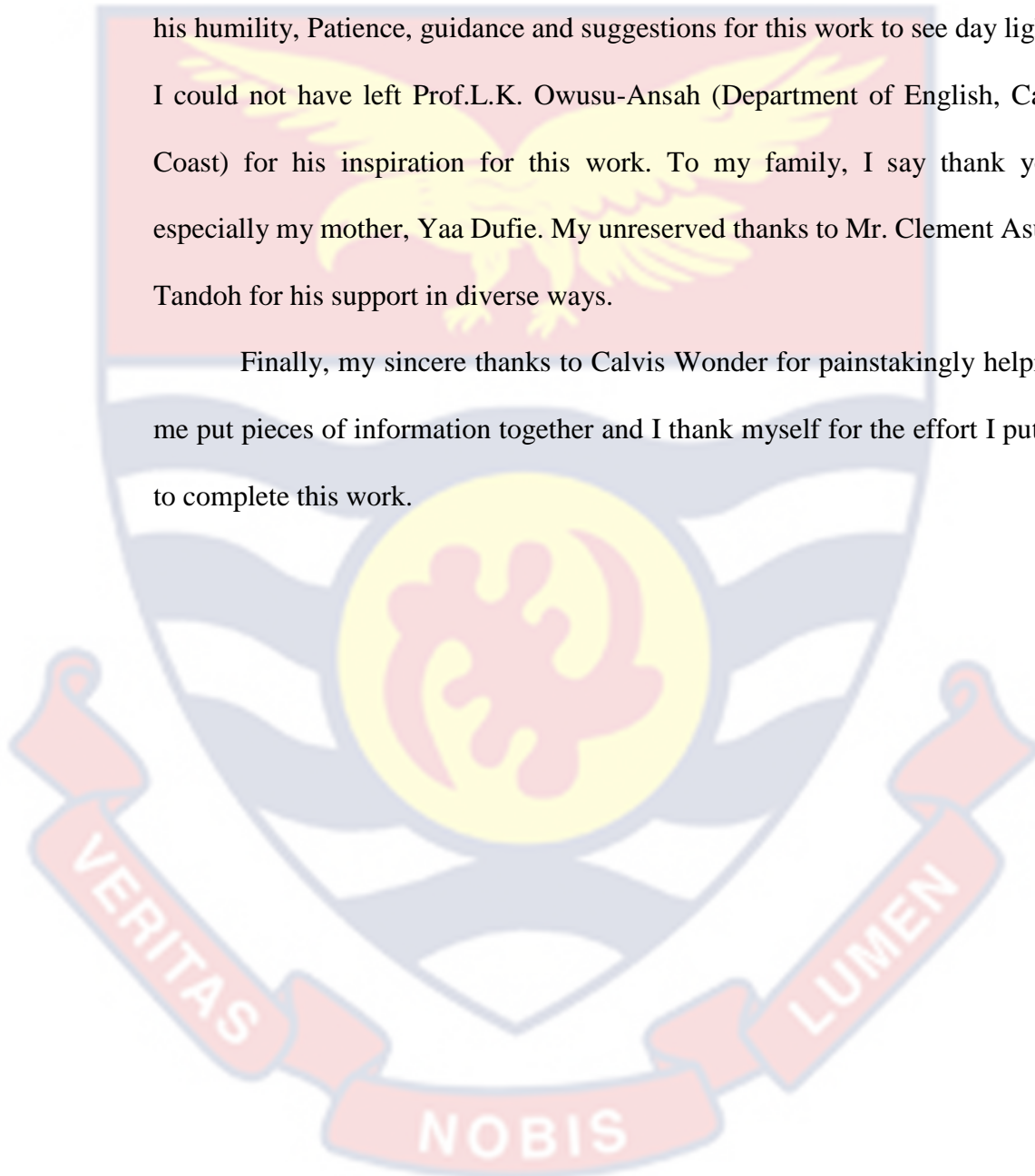
DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my family.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, IMPLICATION AND

RECOMMENDATION

LIST OF TABLES

x

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This study aims to explore nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English using corpus-based research. This will contribute to understanding the lexical distinctiveness of the Ghanaian English variety. This chapter contextualizes the study. It presents the background to the study, statement of the problem, research questions, significance of the study, and the organization of the study.

Background to the Study

According to Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008), English has become plural to the point where using the plural "Englishes" emphasizes the language's diversity today and the fact that there is no longer a single source of authority, prominence, and normativity. The term 'Englishes' refers to separate linguistic and literary identities. "'Englishes' symbolizes variation in form and function, use in linguistically and culturally distinct contexts, and a range of variety in literary creativity. Above all, the term stresses the *WE-ness* among the users of English, as opposed to *us* vs. *them* (native and non-native)" (Kachru 1996: 135). This pluralization has led to Kachru's (1985) term "World Englishes" (WE). Worldwide, especially in the Caribbean, parts of Africa, and several territories in Asia, the name "WE" has evolved to denote localised varieties of English. According to Bolton and Kachru (2006a), the history of the spread of English in many regions of the world is well documented. This indicates that through the behaviours mentioned above, the English language's original owners lost control of their language's reputation and ownership.

1

As a result of the information that globalisation has spread, all countries are aware of the necessity to train their inhabitants in ways that would ensure their welfare and supremacy in the world, claim Kachru and Smith (2008). They must be competent in multi-national corporations, global trade, diplomacy, and scientific and technological fields if they want to compete. This diffusion, I believe, calls for innovation in the language used for communicative purposes in the speech community. Communication across WEs is considered unproblematic regarding communicative competence (Berns, 2009) and intelligibility (Smith & Nelson, 2006). Semantically, there may be discrepancies in the connotations or denotations of nominal lexicons between native and non-native speakers.

According to Kachru and Smith (2009), there are two facets to the influence of English worldwide. First, English has been assimilated and nativized in many linguistic, cultural, and geographic contexts. Second, global languages have changed noticeably due to interaction and convergence with English. These academics asserted in 1985 that, whether in its standard form or its regional forms, the language now belongs to people who speak it as their first language and those who speak it as a second language. In this regard, we can understand that the English language has been acculturated, for instance, in West Africa, the Philippines, South Asia, and East Africa. As a result, the context determines the intelligibility of the language used. The more familiar native or non-native speakers are with a variation of English, the more likely they will understand and be understood by members of that speech community, according to Nelson, Proshina, and Davis (2020). The three dimensions of intelligibility—intelligibility (word/utterance recognition), comprehensibility

2

(word/utterance   meaning),   and   interpretability   (meaning   behind word/utterance)—have all been discussed. The speech community currently determines the level of intelligibility when the English language is nativized or acculturated.

English has been institutionalized in many parts of the world as a lingua franca. As emphatically stated in Schneider's work, "English is a language which is currently growing roots in a great many countries and communities around the world, being appropriated by local speakers, and in that process, it is diversifying and developing new dialects—process" (Schneider, 2003:233). In nations where English is widely used as a second language, frequently as an official language in a wide range of international contexts, such as Nigeria and India, non-native English variations have emerged. There are many ways to look at the globalisation of the English language, and there already have been. On the one hand, English is the most widely spoken language in the world and the primary language used for international communication. As such, it serves as a vital, if not indispensable, tool for the global economy, diplomacy, sciences, media, and interpersonal interactions that cross linguistic boundaries. On the other hand, it has been said that the English language is a "killer language" that has eradicated numerous indigenous languages, dialects, and cultures worldwide (Schneider, 2003:233). In this instance, the globalisation of English has been seen from two angles, emphasising its effects on society rather than its structural characteristics.

Expressions used by non-native English speakers have fresh, culturally relevant, and socially acceptable meanings. These are examples of bilinguals using English structure and functions creatively in their new setting. English

3

experienced acculturation as a result of the necessity to compete with formerly dominant indigenous languages' local linguistic markers. Language innovations, originality, and developing literary traditions in English in these nations were immediately welcomed due to Africa and South Asia's linguistic and cultural diversity. In terms of linguistic structure, English has become more regionalized. Both in oral and written form, it serves a variety of purposes. Kachru (2005:12) makes a case for the "functional nativeness" of speakers of New Englishes, which is characterised in terms of the range and depth of English use, in addition to the norm-developing status of non-native speakers. In contrast to depth, which measures how deeply ingrained English is in society in terms of its sociolinguistic status and the amount to which it is employed to represent the local identities of its users, range relates to the functional domains in which English is utilised.

According to Mahama (2012), the indigenization of English occurred and is still occurring due to linguistic contact with Ghanaian languages. This has resulted in what is described as *Ghanaian English*. Ngula (2014) asserts that Ghanaian English (GhE) has received attention as a variety of English in the debate on World Englishes, but some of its recognizable features have been overlooked. Ghanaians have identified themselves to have a variety of the English language. The existence of 50 local languages in Ghana has influenced the English language to have relevance to a context of speech or situation lexically. According to Wiredu (2012), when English is adopted in a non-native environment, it assumes changes in all aspects – sound patterns, grammatical structures, lexical forms, and semantic concepts, among others. He further states that the language then realizes a multicultural identity that reflects the society

4

within which it functions. I believe it is, therefore, evident that semantic shifts have occurred in the meaning of native lexicons.

With regard to Ghanaian English as a distinct variety, there is diverse research evidence as to whether Ghanaian English is not a unique variety or deviation from the standard native English (Nkansah, 2016; Ngula, 2012. According to Sey (1973) and Ahulu (1994), contrary to the popular belief that Ghanaian English is not a distinct variety of the English language, the purported distinctive features of the so-called GhE are, in fact, indicators of a lack of proficiency in the use of English rather than authentic innovations of Ghanaian English as a variety. Researchers such as Ngula (2011), Adika (2012), and Owusu-Ansah (2012), on the other hand, believe that GhE is an emergent Ghanaian standard variant of English that is distinct from the original English language. The understanding of Ghanaian English as a variety has not been globally entrenched compared to other varieties due to the lack of sufficient corpora and empirical evidence to back the position. Ngula and Nartey (2016) argued that corpora-based studies on the Ghanaian variety of English are vital to the global establishment of the Ghanaian variety of English.

Corpora-based studies can provide quantitative evidence that establishes the lexical, syntactical, and other features of Ghanaian English as a variety of English (Ngula & Nartey, 2016). Given this, the lexical items of the language could be a unit of analysis to ascertain how the Ghanaian variety of English differs from the native one. While there is a wide range of lexical items, the nominal items appear to be the core of every major language as far as meaning making is concerned.

According to Passer (2016), nominal classification is a grammatical strategy for categorising the nouns in a language into semantic and/or morphological categories. Nominal items are often categorized into noun types by their inherent semantics, classifiers, and gender markers. With the explanations above, this study will concern itself with nominal recategorization as a legitimate innovation of Ghanaian English. Nominal recategorization is defined in the present study as a situation where a nominal item shifts from one sub-class of a noun to another sub-class, such as a shift from a mass noun to a count noun.

Brunner (2017) has discussed the need for the analysis of the noun phrase (NP) in its variations. Considering his studies, attention has to be paid to the comprehension of the NPs variations, structure, and diachronic changes in different contexts. Brunner (2014) reports the dearth of research in corpus studies on NP in World Englishes. A relatively new branch of research has sought to utilize corpus linguistics in varieties of English with grammatical studies.

Schilk and Schaub (2016) have analysed the complexity of the noun phrase across varieties of English. They opine that the noun phrase's relevance is central to several studies in varieties of English. Specific structural features found in the NP, including relative clauses, are the focus of some comparative investigations on its structure (Gisborne 2000), adjectival premodification (Hudson-Ettle & Nilsson, 2002), determiners, articles (Brato, 2018), numerals, quantifiers, and the genitive alternation. Schilk and Schaub (2016) hypothesized the complexity and variation of the NP are influenced by the syntactic function,

text type, and variety. It must be noted that their hypothesis is relevant to the present study as the three influential factors are key to the study.

Brato (2018) notes phraseology (NP, in this instance) as an area where Ghanaianism abounds. His research offers a quantitative analysis based on roughly 2,800 (70 percent) of the previously reported Ghanaianisms, which can give us a preliminary understanding of how the vocabulary in GhE has grown over time and what primary word-formation processes are at play. According to the corpus data he used for the study, Ghanaian behaviour differs from other postcolonial kinds. Based on data from a collection of ICE corpora, Biermeier (2010) compared word formation in various regional dialects of English from around the world.

Statement of the Problem

The effects of culture on the use of the Standard English Language have received much attention, but the process such as recategorization underlying the change in the formation of a new variety of English, as far as I know, has not gained the interest of researchers. Research has it that the use of error analysis (Sey 1973), hybridization (Ngula, 2014), and deviation (Ahulu ,1994) are the other ways in which studies have been conducted on GhE, which may be associated with overgeneralization. However, a deeper look at nativization in the standard forms of non-native varieties reveals that many nativized elements come from the extension of processes that are likewise quite fruitful in the established variants of English rather than mistaken overgeneralization.

Non-native varieties of English have originated in countries such as Ghana and Nigeria, where Standard English is the official language, language in a broad range of domains such as commerce, media, education, politics,

7

parliament, judiciary, law, and many others (Schneider, 2003, p. 237). The types of things we aim to accomplish with language and, consequently, the kinds of things we say are influenced by or determined by socio-cultural factors. When non-native speakers communicate and use the English language uniquely, different from the conventions of the native speakers, they consciously or unconsciously preserve their identity.

For instance, Adika (2012: 1) opine that Ghanaian English as "an outer circle phenomenon, has been travelling the delicate expansionist path of innovation, adaptation, and maintenance of standards over the years." The author went on to say that the Ghanaian form of English differs in every way, including vocabulary, idiomatic usage, and sound. Likewise, Mahama (2016) discovered through his study of 464 essays in Navrongo University of Development Studies that students use words such as *gates* (royal families) and *red-red* (Gari and beans diet) to mean entirely different things from what is intended in the native language. Irrespective of this evidence, the lack of chunk corpora data on Ghanaian English is a weakness in positioning Ghanaian English as a unique variety (Ngula & Nartey, 2016). Several studies have been conducted to investigate the co-occurrence of verbs and verb phrases.

These studies have overlooked nouns as a major category where a linguistic culture's evolution occurs. Jucker (1993: 7) present that "the English noun phrase has always been treated as the lesser brother of the verb phrase. It seems to be less problematic, simpler, and more straightforward than the verb phrase, which consequently is taken to offer more exciting and more rewarding research questions" (Brunner,2017:12). To, therefore, contribute to the growing debate of seeing Ghanaian English as a deviation from the native English or as

an innovation from the native language, the current study seeks to implement the suggestion of Ngula and Nartey (2016) that corpora studies are vital in providing evidence that provides the needed ground to consolidate Ghanaian English as unique variety. This study seeks to provide qualitative corpus-based evidence on nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English.

Purpose of the Study

The study's overall goal is to identify a systemic restructuring of the noun in Ghanaian English. This would enable us to better understand the Ghanaian English phenomenon as a way of innovation. This study equally demonstrates how non-native varieties (Ghanaian context in the use of the noun) are distinct from interlanguages or approximate systems of "established" varieties of English (Platt & Weber, 1980). Regarding the linguistic contexts in which they are used and the motivations behind them, two strategies common to both nativization and second language acquisition—generalization of rules in the established varieties of English and transfer of linguistic features from other languages—illustrate crucial differences.

In 1975, the late Chinua Achebe made the following oft-quoted statement in response to the questions as to whether the English language can carry his African experience:

"I feel that the English language will be able to carry the weight of my African experience.

But it will have to be a *new English*, still in full communion with its ancestral home but altered to suit its new African surroundings" (Achebe, 1975:6).

Achebe feels that the colonial past irreversibly altered African society; hence, he writes in "African English" to represent a new voice emerging from Africa.

His goal was to write in a strange and distinct variant of English that would retain national and cultural identity in the face of inevitable cultural mixing. Throughout his literary works, he strove to establish a picture of Africa in a language that honours his own place while also acknowledging his cosmopolitan and worldwide audience.

Nearly forty years later, this remark not only defined but also introduced the term "new Englishes," which is still used in research on non-native English variations. The definition's first two elements stand out: either (a) still in touch with its ancient home or (b) modified to fit its African environment. Since then, much effort has been made to describe the forms and functions of the new English globally. Like other varieties of English, African varieties have been researched and described in detail. For example, the work of Banjo (1971) and Bamgbose (1971) has drawn attention to indexical features of Nigerian English, and Magura (1985) has played a similar role in South African English.

Research Questions

The following research questions lead the current study**:**

1. What are the kinds of nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English, and what nominal items are involved in each kind of nominal recategorization?

2. What morphosyntactic indicators show that particular nominal items are re-categorized in Ghanaian English?

3. 3 What factors influence nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English?

4. These are crucial questions since they border on validity and there has been no attempt to answer them concerning Ghanaian English or any other variety of English.

In practical terms, the dividing line between English, the local languages, and other means of communication is not always well-defined, a fact that has been recognized for a long time (Ure, 1982). For this reason, the position adopted in this research is that evidence from Ghanaian Pidgin English, code-mixing, and even borrowing from Ghanaian languages into English can be relied upon as evidence of the transformation resulting from the transplantation of the English language in the Ghanaian socio-cultural and multilingual environment. Linguistics has extensive evidence of English diversification and alterations as a natural outcome of the international spread of the English language, particularly in Asia. As a result, people express pride in their regional variety and a sense of belonging to a place by speaking English; therefore, English has become localized and indigenized to fulfil important local functions (Schneider, 2011).

According to estimates by English language specialist, David Crystal, over 350 million English speakers in Asia alone outnumber native speakers three to one (Power, 2005). For example, Honna (2016) observed how most Japanese could not use English without using some of their culture and language foundations. All this can be done without further blurring the distinction between Ghanaian languages and English.

Significance of the Study

This study offers contributions to the growing scholarship on World Englishes. The application of two of the most popularized frameworks in World Englishes research serves as a foundation to reveal findings that are generally novel in that regard. The topic under investigation adds to the existing literature on World Englishes.

11

Generally, several scholars have made valuable contributions to Ghanaian English, looking at phonological, lexical, syntactic, and attitudinal features in this variety. While these are acknowledged, the present study, which is grammatical, fills the identified gap in GhE research. More importantly, the study offers insights into how far GhE has developed over the years with regard to the discourse within which it is identified, with particular attention to the noun group.

Finally, as almost every research contributes to the existing literature in a subject area, this study adds to the research repository in varieties of English. Following the study results, the research offers that GhE is developing, and new nominal structures are formed through categorisation. Such significance instigates further research in this area as well.

Scope of the Study

The study was delimited to some selected texts from the International Corpus of English-Ghana. I selected ICE-Ghana because it is more current and relevant as it is situated in the 2000s. The study targeted a sample of Ghanaian English texts from diverse written and oral sources. Although the study was restricted to genres of the ICE-Ghana and other relevant materials, its findings reflect some of the common features of other non-native speakers in the parts of the country.

In terms of feasibility, the study was limited by resources and time. Another expected limitation of the study was inadequate reference materials on nominal recategorization as a process in forming new varieties of English in the Ghanaian context. Nonetheless, inadequate references serve as a motivational drive to do the investigation.

Organization of the Study

The study will be conducted in five chapters. Chapter one will deal with the introduction, background to the study, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions and hypotheses, the significance of the study, delimitations, and limitations. The second chapter will examine the theoretical framework, conceptual and literature review highlighting research and other writers' perspectives. Chapter three will cover the research methods, including design, population, sampling processes, data collection instrument, validity and reliability of the research instruments, data collection procedures, data processing and analysis, and ethical considerations. The results will be presented in chapter four, and the outcomes will be examined. Chapter five will focus on the study summary, major findings of the study, conclusions, recommendations, and suggestions for inquiry.

Summary of Chapter

This chapter has established the nominal recategorization as a distinct lexico-grammatical aspect of the Ghanaian variety of English that can be studied to further define the uniqueness of the Ghanaian variety of the English language. The chapter showed that though different areas of Ghanaian English, such as hybridization, fossilization, and error analysis, there is limited empirical evidence on the nominal recategorization of Ghanaian English. The study sought to investigate nominal recategorization to position Ghanaian English as a non-native English.

13

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

This aspect of the research looked at the works of scholars and researchers, which have a bearing on this research topic. This chapter positions the current research problem within the literature and gathers some similar views that aid in shaping the outcome of this study. The chapter includes theoretical as well as some conceptual definitions.

World Englishes

Language is a vital component of communication. Language is made up of words or symbols that denote things but are not those things (Pearson. 2004). In other words, language is well shared and known symbols and words among people that are used to communicate meaning. Pearson. (2004) argues that an inherent weakness in a language is the imperfect means of transmission because the thought shared through language is not always the thought received by the audience in that the decoder may miss some meanings. The arbitrariness of the meaning assigned to linguistic symbols called for an investigation to understand its rules, culture, and abstractness.

While syntax focuses on how words are put together to make phrases and sentences, the semantic part concentrates on the words themselves (Pearson, 2004). Pragmatics is the study of language in use, that is in a social context (Pearson, 2004; Riley, 2007). The pragmatic aspect of language highlights the significance of the cultural variable in constructing meaning using language. Culture shapes language, and language shapes culture (Riley, 2007). The symbiotic relationship between culture and language, according to Pearson et al

14

(2004), describes how culture produces a lens through which individuals experience the world and establish common meaning; language, on the other hand, becomes the primary means of learning about ourselves, others, and our culture. This, therefore, informs why the language that is constructed from one cultural setting differs from the same language in another cultural setting.

The varieties of world Englishes, as Kachru puts it, could be seen from the cultural and language perspective. As Whorf (1956) hypothesizes that people's perception of reality is based on their thought processes, and their thought processes are shaped by language. In this area, the variety of Englishes to be explained has the English language adapted to various cultures and thought processes.

Concepts may mean different things in different contexts and to different scholars, therefore, this work needs to explain the term World Englishes. McArthur (2002) defines "World Englishes (WEs) as a myriad of English today. According to Schneider (2003), the study of new varieties of English as a significant area of linguistic inquiry and a fresh field of English linguistics can be traced back to the release of certain ground-breaking publications in the early 1980s (Bailey & Gorlach, 1982; Kachru, 1986, 1992; Pride, 1982; Platt et al., 1984; Trudgill & Hannah, 1982; Wells, 1982)". World Englishes is a topic that was initially brought up in 1978 to study the idea of regional Englishes globally. The use of English was supported by pragmatic considerations such as appropriateness, comprehensibility, and interpretability. Scholarly journals such as *English Worldwide* (1980) and *World Englishes* (1982) have been published on this subject.

Kachru (1992:2) opines that the concept "symbolizes the functional and formal variations, divergent sociolinguistic contexts, ranges and varieties of English in creativity, and various types of acculturations in parts of the Western and non-Western world. This concept emphasizes WE-ness and not the dichotomy between *them and us* (the native and non-native users)". This pluralization represented a philosophical change away from a single, monolithic interpretation of English toward valuing and empowering the numerous Englishes spoken in different parts of the world. It was not just a simple question of language usage on the surface (Kachru,1992).

Bolton (2006) reveals three possible connotations of World Englishes. First, it refers to a broad term that comprises all the various processes of describing and analyzing English(es). Second, it refers to the new Englishes in West Africa, the Caribbean, and East Africa. It emphasizes the linguistic autonomy of their variety. Last, "global Englishes" describes a broad approach to studying the English language internationally, particularly one linked with Kachru and other academics who have studied the English world paradigm. This method is underpinned by an underlying concept that promotes open and pluralistic approaches to English linguistics across the world. It also includes many related issues, including as contact and corpus linguistics, as well as the description of national and regional variations.

By inclusion, we mean the propensity to go beyond what is certain, familiar, and well-known; to consider other theoretical and cultural perspectives and competing beliefs and viewpoints. Mesthrie (2021) states that the pluralization of English in the African context does not suppose that the African

16

languages do not have prestige or power. The languages are special in ensuring social cohesion, traditional African culture and values, and music.

Davies (2009) conceptualizes the Englishes worldwide in two terms; spread and diffusion. He maintains that spread is the use of English in different global contexts for different purposes such as education, health, or publishing. Diffusion, to him, is the sprout of the local varieties of English in the world. Nigerian and Singaporean Englishes are only a few variations this dissemination has produced. According to Joseph (2016), communication and representation are language's two main functions. The majority of representations are made orally. We use language to communicate with one another and comprehend and depict the world.

English's quick adoption as a global language of communication has undoubtedly sparked a lively but divisive discussion concerning the position of English and its variants.

The language spread began with certain British residents colonizing the Americas, Canada, and New Zealand. However, when the British moved prisoners to Australia, the language was also sent there. The language spread around the world as a result of trade, colonialism, and Christianity.

Compared to the mid-20th century, this development has significantly changed how the language is today understood. This alleged paradigm shift in the reality of English has unavoidably changed how the language is evaluated and taught. As a result of language shift and contact, scholars like Kachru (1985), Widdowson (1994), and Schneider (2003) challenged traditional notions of standardization and models by Quirk (1988) as those models tend to be related to only Inner-Circle users. The social contexts of colonial expansion have led to

17

the evolution of New Englishes: Ghanaian English, Nigerian English, Indian English and many more.

Kachru (1985), for instance, categorized World Englishes into three concentric circles (Passer, 2016). The first category refers to the native speakers who are Canadians, British, New Zealand, Australians, and Americans. Their English language variety is regarded as standard since they are native speakers. This is usually termed the traditional basis of English. The second concentric circle is called the outer circle, which includes all colonies of native speakers of the English Language, such as Ghana, Nigeria, India, and Singapore, among others. These countries speak English as a lingua franca or a second language that is used for most official communication. The outer speakers' variety of English language is not as standard as the native speakers but is better than the last concentric circle. For instance, Nigerian English varieties include pidgin and pronunciation that differs outrightly from the native speakers (Mahama, 2012).

The last concentric circle is the expanding circle, which includes countries that have adopted the English language for industrial communication purposes rather than as a second language. These countries include China, Japan, and Russia. Their use of English is characterised by performance. The English language globalisation has also allowed for the internalisation of the language to fit meaning-making in many parts of the world. This informs the need for scholars to measure the extent of variation of varieties of English languages worldwide by comparing the different varieties with native speakers. Such studies are useful in understanding the difficulties of sharing meaning

18

across cultures with different varieties of English and the best ways to address that amicably.

Theoretical Framework

This section explores the related theoretical literature by looking at the various theories that can be used to describe non-native varieties of English. The study focuses on the cross models of Kachru's (1982, 1992) three concentric circles and Schneider's (2003, 2007) language dynamic models, which are sociolinguistic approaches to the description of a non-native variety of English.

Kachru (1995) created the notions of Inner, Outer, and Expanding circles to define world Englishes based on this idea of stages of nativizing the English language. Kachru (1985:12) clarified that the concentric circles signify "the type of spread, the pattern of acquisition, and the functional domains in which the English language is used across cultures and languages." As explained earlier, the inner circle constitutes countries that enjoy the English language's ownership. Postcolonial societies form the outer circle Canagarajah (2006). These are countries where English has been nativized as a second language and for intranational functions. The Expanding Circle uses it for international purposes. The findings from Canagarajah (2006) suggest that the model provides legitimacy to the English in the Outer Circle through national identity. As language grows, Canagarajah (2006) remarked on the extension of the English language by the Outer Circle (Ghanaian English, Singaporean English, Nigerian English, and Indian English) to other regions. According to Kachru (1992), the three circles represent the sociolinguistic character of English in the modern world.

19

The Inner Circle is the smallest, consisting of only five nations with a population of 350 million people. The populations of the outer two circles, on the other hand, are much larger than those of the Inner Circle. According to McArthur (2003: 2), "India and China already account for at least half a billion users and learners of English, a total that could make the continent, in demographic terms, the heaviest'consumer' of English in the world." According to Xiaoqiong and Xianxing (2011), English speakers in the outer and Expanding Circles have their own local histories, literary traditions, pragmatic contexts, and communication norms.

Since the colonial era, the English language has come into contact with the colonized; therefore, it has been incorporated into the environment. Language, therefore, operates in the context of culture. Loewenberg (1984) opined that the massive use of the English language in colonies as a medium of instruction, official language, and media language, among others, is making the English language interact with the culture and indigenous languages of the countries, causing what Kachru called nativization. Nativization is the development of new phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic, and stylistic features that are so systematic, widespread, and accepted among their users that the "non-native" varieties (Kachru, 1981a) tend to be distinct from the "established" (Platt & Weber, I960) native speaker varieties, such as American, Canadian, British, Australian, and New Zealand English (Loewenberg, 1984:3)While some scholars consider nativization as a process toward native-like English language through fossilized societal interlanguages and approximate systems (Nemser, 1971; Selinker, 1974), other scholars such

as Kachru (1985) and Loewenberg (1984) consider nativization as the process of a distinct variety of English in its own right.

Loewenberg (1984) found that strategies such as overgeneralization of rules, transfer of first language features, and phonological transfers are among the ways nativization occurs in second language varieties of English. Kachru (1995) grouped varieties of English into inner, outer, and expanding circles. The inner circle is native speakers' variety of English, which is usually the standard English language. The Outer Circle refers to the nativized varieties of English used in different parts of the world, such as Nigeria, India, and Singapore. The Expanding Circle is where the language is used for industrial and official communication purposes and not necessarily a second language. This is practised in countries like Japan, China, and Bangladesh. According to Halliday (2014:80), the language used in context is based on the "ecological" theory of language, which holds that language is always theorised, described, and analysed within a context of meanings. A language is, therefore, understood in light of its semiotic environment.

Critique of Kachru's Three Concentric Circles

Some scholars reveal some weaknesses in Kachru's model. To start, Canagarajah (2006) reexamined the assumptions that Kachru's concentric circles presented. He revealed that the circles strategize the functional variations in English varieties, which have been the owner of the countries in the Inner Circle. Canagarajah (2006:231) further affirmed that "the model established the legitimacy of the new varieties of English in the Outer Circle, affirming their norms and usage", which has led to the pluralization of English. The most important critique put forth by the scholar related to grammar. He criticized the

21

pluralization of English through the Kachruvian model to affect a uniform grammatical system characterized by the homogeneity of the language. Given the countries modelled in the circles, each variety of English has its grammatical system, likely to be distinct from the native variety. Such is the case for Ghanaian English, given the extant studies by scholars (Brato, 2020; Nkansah, 2016; Ngula, 2014, 2012). Overall, Canagarajah (2006) flawed the terms featured to the Outer and Expanding Circles. For instance, characterizing the expanding circle as 'norm dependent' was flawed, given that some countries in the Expanding Circles are developing their own norms for the language. This is supported by Xiaoqiong and Xianxing (2011), who characterized Kachru's view of the expanding circle of learning English for international communication as a fallacy.

Jenkins (2003) asserts that the model greatly emphasizes historical and geographical factors. It does not consider how speakers identify with and utilise the language in this way. She also thinks the lines separating the circles are becoming "increasingly grey" (2003: 20). Jenkins is correct, according to Bruthiaux (2003), who also agrees that the model relies too heavily on prior instances that are no longer relevant. To address these weaknesses levelled against the model, I believe that it is outrightly useful to situate speakers of the language in the sociocultural contexts (geographical) to understand how they have acquired and used a language by tracing their relations with other speakers (historical). Practically, the model is relevant to the study of World Englishes, the nativization of English, and its acculturation in different contexts. The study fails to accurately represent English-speaking populations' diversity and dynamic nature. It is important to remember that the model is not meant to

describe all variants of English around the world but rather to depict prevalent attitudes that limit speakers' ability to communicate effectively with each other. As a result of the increased heterogeneity brought about by globalisation, it is necessary to pay attention to Englishes that may exist at both the subnational and transnational levels.

Additionally, Mollin (2006) asserts that the Three-Circle Model disregards the expansion of English internationally. It cannot explain the rise in the usage of English, particularly as a lingua franca between speakers of different first languages. International contexts increasingly use English overwhelmingly. It is the preferred language in businesses, universities, and international organisations (Katzner & Miller). Additionally, it is frequently utilised in the internet, global media, and entertainment industries. Rajadurai (2005) has strengthened this shortcoming by arguing that all users fluent in English and capable of naturally switching between international and national or regional variants to communicate most appropriately might be considered members of the Inner Circle.

The prospect of other nations migrating from one classification circle to another is also not allowed. In this sense, we can ascertain that the mobility of some countries from one classification to the other is restricted. However, I argue that if countries are mobile to move from one classification to the other, it supports the notion that one category becomes a yardstick to measure the appropriate English language use. I want to imply that mobility is restricted to ensure that each circle is exclusively distinct to develop its language without focusing on moving between the circles.

23

Kachru (1992) defends his model by arguing against fallacies levelled against his theory. He firs argues that English is only taught in the Outer and Expanding Circles for communication with native English speakers. Second, learning English serves as a means of learning about and imparting American and British ideals. This assumption has serious flaws because English has undergone indigenization to reflect regional culture and is now a key tool for influencing regional customs and cultural values. For the third and fourth, adopting native models is the goal of teaching and learning English; non-native variants of English are essentially interlanguages aspiring to native status. Fifth, native English speakers who work as teachers, academic administrators, and material developers significantly impact how English is taught worldwide, how policies are created, and how the language is disseminated. He observes that the native speakers' contribution to this is little.

Finally, it should be noted that English's diversity and variance are inevitable signs of linguistic degradation and that native English speakers in ESL programmes are responsible for limiting this decay. This fallacy relates to deviations termed as 'errors' in the literature. Kachru defends that this view does not recognise the functional appropriateness of languages in sociolinguistic contexts different from the Inner Circle. Kachru argues that this perspective ignores the functional suitability of languages in sociolinguistic situations other than the Inner Circle. According to Kachru (1996), "Englishes" refers to differences in form and function, the use of English in different cultural and linguistic settings, and a range of literary inventiveness.

According to Martin (2014), Kachru's Three Circles model is still the most prominent model of English diffusion. He feels that the underlying significance of Kachru's concept comes in its rejection of the dichotomous beliefs that the English-speaking world is divided into two. The Three Circles idea presents the English language as diversified, with shared ownership, and a diversity of centres existing in each of the circles, rather than just among the Inner Circle nations, by utilizing a geographical and historical approach to demonstrate the evolution of English. Another advantage is that the model has resulted in the general notion that, linguistically, no English is greater than the other. There have been developments in the varieties of English and not necessarily the shifting of a superior model to others. This has led to many Englishes, inclusive Ghanaian English. Kachruvian studies contribute to the promotion of a pluricentric and multi-identity approach to World Englishes, preserving the reality and creativity of Outer Circle and Expanding Circle communities (Kachru, 1991). Native speakers are those who speak English as their first or primary language. Speakers from countries where English is frequently spoken as a second language are depicted on the outskirts of the circle. In the past, these countries were British colonial colonies. Finally, there are the Expanding Circles, in which English is utilized as a foreign language rather than for formal transactions.

Through this theory, the acceptance of the Ghanaian variety of English language shows the stage we are in Kachru's nativization process. Situating of Ghana in the outer circle is primarily based on Kachru's model because it explains that where the English language is used as a second language,

especially among the native speakers' colonies, those countries should be regarded as the outer circle.

Schneider's (2007) Dynamic Model

Though I have sought to argue in favour of Kachru's model to meet the shortcomings, Schneider (2003, 2007) developed the Dynamic Model, which is "the most recent attempt at systematizing World Englishes" (Schneider 2013:135) and in the history of Englishes worldwide, one of the most effective. This model is pivoted on the assumption that "there is an underlying uniform process which has driven the individual historical instantiations of Postcolonial Englishes (hereafter, PCES) growing in different localities" (Schneider, 2007:21).

Schneider's Dynamic Model of Postcolonial Englishes (2007) underpins this study. It demonstrates how histories and ecologies shape language patterns in many varieties, as well as how linguistic and social identities are maintained. Schneider (2007) hypothesized a one-directional, five-phased process for the evolution of postcolonial English. These are the foundation phase, exonormative stabilisation, nativization, endonormative stabilisation, and differentiation in chronological order. The model highlights certain concepts that are relevant to the research. First, it presents that the closer the contact or the higher the degree of bilingualism between the speech communities, the stronger the effect of contact. The two speech communities in focus are the "Settler Strand (STL)" and "Indigenous Strand (IDG)". Second, the evolution or emergence of the contact reflects speakers' ability to select from a pool of linguistic variants made available. Finally, the feature to be adopted depends on the linguistic ecologies of the contact situation. It must be noted that the phases

26

within the model are characterized by descriptions of identity construction, sociolinguistic factors, socio-political background, and linguistic effects (Nkansah, 2016).

The English language is "transplanted" (Schneider,2007) into a new (colonial) region where it is utilised in nations that do not speak it during the model's initial phase, known as the foundation stage. At this early stage of their contact, STL and IDG are distinct. STL reports any activities to the homeland since they believe they are still a part of it and are only temporary. According to Mufwene (2001), the IDG believe they are the legitimate proprietors of the region, which explains the power stratification and degree of integration versus segregation between the parties.

Contact between STL and IDG serves a utilitarian purpose. The British emigrants and their descendants continue to transmit the English language from one generation to another without any radical break in linguistic continuity (Schneider, 2007: 242). Each group continues to communicate within their confines because of language barrier communication, but as time elapses, their speech behaviour goes through modification and evolution because of dialects of English and first, contact with indigenous tongues and later with IDG strand behaviour.

Accommodation Theory successfully finds its rightful place between the two speech communities, and marginal bilingualism develops. Language-wise, there is koineization, developing pidginization, and toponymic borrowing. In a geographic territory, koineization describes the usage of a common language or dialect that has developed due to interaction, mingling, and simplification of two or more mutually intelligible varieties of the same language. Speakers

27

modify their vocabulary and pronunciation patterns to be more informational. The language then becomes standard over time, I believe. Thomason and Kaufman (1988) describes pidgin as a simplified means of linguistic communication as it is constructed impromptu or by convention between two individuals or groups that do not have a language in common.

At this point, a small portion of the native population may become multilingual in English, although there is little language contact on the part of the settlers. Because a reduced code form has emerged as a lingua franca, this stage may see the onset of lexical borrowing and incipient pidginization. Lastly, there is toponymic borrowing of place and human names. In relation to Ghana, evidence points to the 16th century as the time that the English language was transplanted in Ghana.

According to the second stage, exonormative stabilisation is defined by Ngula (2014) as the point at which the area has firmly established itself as a colony, and a sizeable population of English-speaking settlers or speakers coexists with the indigenous population. All official activities, including education, legislation, and administration, are conducted in English. The settler community is uninterested in linguistic standards; therefore, the language is characterized by learners' interlanguage. Bilingualism becomes the marked quality acquired through frequent contact with the colonizers and education. Settler's English is a norm, point of reference, or standard.

IDG now seeks to expand contact with STL to secure status through mixed marriage between STLs and IDG and Segregationally elitism others. The English –speaking settlers now adopt the indigenous language to enable an effective flow of communication; hence a new variety evolves. STL English

28

moves towards local variety; thus, a bit of local vocabulary is adopted, and there is a need for lexical borrowing because of the need to refer to local items. There is also a change in English language systems within the two speech communities, starting with the lexical forms followed by syntactic and morphological features. "Grammatical innovations", "code-switching", "code variation", receptive familiarity, second-language learning tactics, and negotiations, according to Nkansah (2016), are all effects of language contact over time. Nkansah (2016) found Ghanaian literates to be exonormative regarding the acceptance of Ghanaian lexicons in variety.

The third stage is called nativization, during which the English language is linguistically assimilated. During this phase, indigenes and settlers see themselves as fully occupying the territory. This period, according to Schneider (2014), is critical for linguistic and cultural developments. The territory's progressive journey toward political and cultural independence has resulted in more connections and a significantly narrower social difference between locals and descendants of the original settlers. Increased contact leads to the formation of structures particular to the territory's newly developing wide variety of innovation-based structures.

There is the likelihood of the settlers'-strand community being divided into conservative and innovative speakers due to the choice of linguistic usage. The tradition of complaining is another factor that defines this stage. The complaint tradition mostly addresses concerns and viewpoints over declining standards in the indigenous component. However, the willingness to accept regional forms in official contexts steadily grows. Changes take place at the levels of vocabulary, phonology, morphology, syntax, and pragmatics, and

mixed codes are also beginning to develop. Because of the choice of language usage, the settlers'-strand group may be separated into conservative and creative speakers. Another characteristic that identifies this period is the tradition of complaining. The complaint tradition mostly addresses concerns and points of view about deteriorating standards in the indigenous component. However, acceptance of regional variants in official contexts is progressively increasing. Changes occur at the levels of vocabulary, phonology, morphology, syntax, and pragmatics, and mixed codes are emerging. This stage is distinguished by considerable lexical borrowing and loan words; phonologically, a regional accent is used as a result of the transfer from indigenous languages. In morphology and syntax, structure-driven nativization occurs, resulting in the emergence of regionally distinct forms. There are also new word formation products during this phase, such as compounds, localized collocations, lexical bundles, variable prepositional usage, novel verb complementation pattern assignments to specific verbs, and different morphosyntactic behaviors of some semantically defined word groupings (Schneider, 2014).

The fourth stage of endonormative stabilisation is characterised by the growing acceptance of the English language as a means of expressing the new identity of indigenous people. There is the acceptance of a new linguistic form that has shed its stigma and is viewed favourably. The local usage of forms that deviates from colonial norms and exhibits some characteristics of indigenous strand usage is understood. Nkansah (2016) found Ghanaian speakers in her study to be endonormative in accepting grammatical features as entirely Ghanaian. Schneider (2003, 2007) limits the fourth stage of the process by mentioning some parameters, such as (1) post-independence and self-

30

dependence, most likely after Event X (historical and political), (2) territory-based membership in the newly established nation (identity construction), (3) affirmation of a local norm and a favorable attitude toward it, and literary creativity in the new English (sociolinguistics of contact/use/attitudes), and (4) stabilization, homogeneity.

The endonormatively-stabilized variety may continue to generate a variety of regional and social dialects during the last phase, differentiation. A new nation is emerging that does not identify as a full-fledged social entity but as a different subgroup with its own distinct identities. People categorise themselves according to factors like their gender, age, or race. This phase is marked by political, cultural, and linguistic self-reliance. The stability and cohesiveness result in the increasing need for room for differentiation. Linguistic evolution becomes a turning point from which something new springs: the stage of dialect birth, which represents a subgroup of the nation.

A classic example is that the Nigerian pidgin version of English is known to be at the final phase of differentiation. Ghanaian English has not yet received that recognition as a unique variety of English of its right, different from the native speakers. This study explores with corpus data the variation of Ghanaian English in terms of nominal recategorization from the native standard English language.

The model is underlined by some parameters relevant to its understanding and use. The overall process is held on the concepts and recreating of Furthermore, Schneider proposes four parameters that operate within each of the five phases, namely, (1) "extralinguistic factors" (a country's historical and political development), which influence (2) "characteristic identity constructions," which

31

influence (3) "sociolinguistic determinants of the contact setting" (language contact conditions, as well as language attitudes and use), which results in (4) "structural effects" (the development of lexical, phonological, and morphological structures) societies' identities as well as "their symbolic linguistic expressions" (Schneider 2007:28).

Studies Based on the Dynamic Model of Postcolonial Englishes

Based on Schneider's life cycle, Bolton (2006) describes the stages of Schneider's model as a life cycle, beginning with a founder event, followed by a parenting stage, and finally a period of coming-of-age "(the transplanted Englishes retain close connections to the mother varieties, which function as normative models) (where elements of the local environments are integrated into the growing English variety). Autonomy is a prerequisite for living a self-sufficient existence (the new Englishes develop their norms). Schneider (2007) explains that not all postcolonial Englishes have reached t In addition to that, Schneider postulates four parameters operating within each of the five phases, namely, (1) "extralinguistic factors" (the historical and political development of a country), which lead to (2) "characteristic identity constructions," which influences (3) "sociolinguistic determinants of the contact setting" (language contact conditions, and language attitudes and use), which results to (4) "structural effects" (the development of lexical, phonological, and grammatical characteristics) (Schneider 2007:30–35).

he same point in this life cycle".

On the other hand, Schneider (2007) makes it clear that the model represents an ideal condition and may not be capable of capturing complicated reality due to difficulties such as variance in location/time, history/contact

32

circumstances, and the linear progression of the model. Nevertheless, the theory provides a theoretical lens to understand the level of development of the Ghanaian variety of the English language. This aids in corroborating extant literature such as Nkansah (2016) Ghanaian variety of English language as unique from native speakers. Schneider's Dynamic Model has been used in a variety of situations. According to Weston (2011), Gibraltar has entered the fourth phase, in which a local version of English is prevalent and serves as an identifying function for its users. He bases his claim on census statistics, colonial archives, and writings that make identity statements.

Additionally, Buschfeld (2013) makes the case that the Turkish invasion of 1974 was an "Event X" that redirected linguistic and identity changes. She claims that Cyprus English has reversed its growth trajectory, going from ESL to EFL status, and that the Outer—Expanding Circle (or ESL-EFL) distinction is actually a continuum rather than discrete kinds.Huber (2012:218) indicates that Ghana "falls between the Nativization Phase and the Endonormative Stabilization Phase." According to Hoffman (2019), Schneider's Dynamic Model predicts that the lexicon-syntax interface will show the first signs of the formation of distinctive structural innovations during the nativization phase. Thus, Ghanaians have developed an attitudinal inclination to the English language to express their identity and use it in all aspects of governance, education, and She claims that Cyprus English has reversed its growth trajectory, going from ESL to EFL status, and that the Outer—Expanding Circle (or ESL-EFL) distinction is actually a continuum rather than discrete kinds.Huber (2012, p.218) indicates that Ghana "falls between the Nativization Phase and the Endonormative Stabilization Phase." According to Hoffman

(2019), Schneider's Dynamic Model predicts that the lexicon-syntax interface will show the first signs of the formation of distinctive structural innovations during the nativization phase.business.

Wee (2014), using the Dynamic Model, raises a question about the distinction between acrolectal and mesolectal Singapore English as well as Singlish, which serves various purposes, including serving as a sign of national identity and solidarity and contributing to the commodification of this linguistic phenomenon. Additionally, even to non-Singaporeans, Singlish is now recognised as "a cultural product that can be conveyed globally." Wee concludes that "history does not finish with Phase 5" (p. 138), necessitating a revisit and improvement of the model. Given that the model could not adequately account for some linguistic complexity in Singlish, Wee's study suggested a model change.

In addition, Martin (2014) applied the model to Philippine English. Her research sought to determine if Philippine English had advanced to the fourth phase of the model after passing the third. She contends that Philippine English, unlike many other postcolonial varieties, quickly advanced to phase 3 after providing a context of the language history in the Philippines (Nativization). She revealed the surrounding debate of the growth of their variety of English to the Endonormative Stabilization phase. Although there is still "an ambivalent attitude toward the variety," she hypothesised (p. 80), there is growing recognition that it is not a language needing improvement. She postulates that the variable represents the Philippine identity and can be used for pedagogical purposes.

Lastly, Buschfield (2014), in her study entitled "English in Cyprus and Namibia: A critical approach to taxonomies and models of World Englishes and Second Language Acquisition research," the political and sociolinguistic context of English in Cyprus and Namibia is sketched. She explains how, in the lack of a colonising power, Schneider's Model can still be used to identify these kinds as evolutionary, and she offers some critical adjustments to the model to account for the missing settler strand. English in Namibia is "growing towards variety status," "far beyond its conventional EFL role," but English in Cyprus has stagnated at Phase 3 and "is moving away from second-language variety status" (p. 189).

Schneider's theory stands out in terms of explaining the origins of a specific subset of English variations. The incorporation of nativization, differentiation and exonormative and endonormative factors speaks to pertinent issues in the postcolonial contact evolution of Englishes worldwide. The model has a flaw in that it assumes the evolution of English variations to be linear.

Critique of Schneider's Dynamic Model

Like the Kachruvian Model, Schneiders Model has some strengths and weaknesses. This portion of the study critiques the model to justify its suitability for the study.

Pung (2009) is among the scholars who critiqued Schneider's model drawing on its weakness. He reveals that the model, though a systematic one, does not provide a graphical representation of Englishes in the world. It does not cover the countries in the expanding circle. He revealed the problematic issue associated with Russia and other Scandinavian countries that were neither subject to colonialism nor neocolonialism but are the majority speakers of

35

English. Further, it does not account for proficiency in particular varieties. In account, Pung (2009) reveals that the unidimensional nature of the model restricts the branching of other varieties in terms of proficiency. This presents a complex relationship between the phases within the model, suggesting a three-dimensional model.

Likewise, Bonnici (2010) presents a narrowed view of the model. This is related to the conceptualization of the varieties of English as postcolonial. Nkansah (2016:54), in reviewing Bonnici (2010), states that the term has to be "understood from its colonial past and so the global position of English as an important worldwide language and a valuable linguistic commodity is not captured in this model". Also, Bonnici refuted the model's perspective that postcolonial Englishes have a common origin or emergence.

Ting (2011) applauded the model for its thorough explanation, comprehensiveness, and its present framework for transforming non-native breeds into autonomous breeds, despite the flaws outlined by Bonnici (2010) and Pung (2009). According to Schneider (2007), the model's limitation is that it portrays an ideal condition that would not be able to capture the complicated reality because of changes in time and space, historical changes, and many modes of contact.

Evans (2016) also expressed his concerns about the model's strength. He states that the model is well-conceived. He considers the model's effectiveness based on its function to present a primordial dataset from the historical past in the postcolonial regions. He deemed it promising. In the same vein, Angus (2008) believes that Schneider has greatly contributed to the development of postcolonial variety by acknowledging settlers and indigenous language

36

speakers. He also praised Schneider's recognition of English-speaking settlers in any region, who do not constitute a single kind of homogenous language community – the native speakers.

The Application of Kachru's Three Concentric Circles and Schneider's Dynamic Model to the Present Study

These theories are pertinent because they offer theoretical underpinnings for determining the standing of Ghanaian English. The idea investigates how deeply norm formation has permeated the political, socioeconomic, and educational spheres of Kachru's concentric circles. With a focus on educated Ghanaians, the theory is applied to Schneider's model in particular, given the evolutionary stages in the Dynamic model, to find the influential factors accounting for nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English. Secondly, the exonormative stage, which is characterised by changes in the morphosyntactic domain (Syneider, 2007), is applied to characterise the morphosyntactic indicators in the recategorized nominal structures in Ghanaian English. Thirdly, while the nativization stage has been characterised as the most important of the stages (Schneider, 2014), the researcher modifies this stage to examine the level of acceptance in the cleavage between Ghanaian English as an innovative variety. This would help to determine whether this variety is indeed at the nativization or endonormative stage, as Nkansah (2016) reported.

Table 1: Comparative Analysis of the Two Models (Cross Model)

	KACHURU'S MODEL	SCNEIDER'S MODEL
Types of spread	Historical colonies (language transplanted	Historical colonies (language transplanted)
Pattern of acquisition	Grammatical systems distinct from native varieties	Linguistics features evolve
Functional interpretation	Provides legitimacy to the English in the outer circle through national identity	Norm developing

These models upon comparative study help to enhance our understanding and provide a toolkit for investigating why the Ghanaian variety of English is shaped the way it is. These two predominant models in the field of Wold Englishes touch on the linguistic effects (code mixing, code-switching pidginisation and locally assented English) hence the need to compare and situate the study in them. A careful analysis of the socio-historical background of English in Ghana and a synthesis of the two models, I proposed a cross model for the description of nominal recategorisation in Ghanaian English.

Ghanaian English: A Brief Historical Background

During the second half of the 15th to the 17th century, the British, who came for trade purposes, introduced English to Ghana (Sey, 1973). Ghanaians were later trained as interpreters, clerks, and administrators when schools gained ground at the castles in the 18th century, and by 1788, many Ghanaian

children had been sent to Britain to gain formal education (Sey, 1973; Adjaye, 2005). Finally, English became the language of commerce, education, and government, as a lingua franca for all ethnic groups, law, government, court procedures, media, and internal and external affairs (Sey, 1973; Boadi, 1994; Sackey, 1997; Adjaye, 2005; Anderson, 2009). The missionary and the language policy in the then Gold Coast (Ghana) helped strengthen the use of the language. The castle school exclusively used English as a medium of expression and instruction. English was used in several Wesleyan mission schools. The educated Ghanaians, in most cases, served as a link between the British administrators, traders, missionaries and the uneducated Gold Coasters. Creole and pidgin also emerged and subsequently flourished to facilitate communication on a very small scale in Ghana.

Grants were given to schools founded by missions and private individuals who appropriately complied with the two educational statutes passed in 1822 and 1887. Adika (2012) indicated that to firmly ground the compulsory use of English, schools that use indigenous languages were denied access to the grants and subsidies provided by the British government. Ghanaians have as much as possible aspired to proficiency from the very beginning and now own the English language.

The use of indigenous languages as a medium of teaching in our schools has been defended on a number of grounds, but the government has not been able to give the resources required for their promotion. The colonial language policy and the subsequent post-independence government policies, according to Adika (2012), share certain parallels

Historical background on Ghanaian English: Linguistic effects

While several works (Sey, 1973; Nimako, 2008) treat the existence of Ghanaian English (hereafter, GhE), as deviation and measure the GhE against British English, and hence describe it as archaic and substandard. Lexis, grammar, semantics, and pronunciation differences are all viewed as faults in Sey's essential work. Ahulu (1994) opposes the use of GhE as a variation and views it as a departure from Target English marked more by (learner) mistakes than by genuine innovations.

However, other scholars have concentrated on developing and remarking on the existence of GhE (Nkansah, 2016; Ngula, 2014; Owusu-Ansah, 2012; Wiredu, 2012; Sarfo-Adu, 2007; Dako, 2002). Ngula (2014) stated that GhE remains a notable variety of English. This has been the case in relation to the features of the GhE has evolved to serve a range of purposes through its nativization. Ngula's (2014) study focused on the lexicons of GhE. He revealed semantic extension or shift, borrowing, and hybridization as the means of broadening the lexical resources of GhE. He provided the need to comprehensively codify the lexical resources in the GhE vocabulary. This approach can standardize the variety.

Similarly, Dako (2002, 2003) showed interest in the existence of GhE, focusing on grammar and lexicon. Dako (2003) highlighted the diversity and creativity inherent in GhE. She accounted for lexical items distinctive to GhE and its users. In her work, *Ghanaianisms: A Glossary,* she revealed that the total number of Ghanaianisms in her work ranges between 2500 and 3000, and this comprises 60% of English origin items (e.g., lorry station), 30% of Ghanaian/W. African origin (e.g., shito) and 10% hybrids are mostly created through

40

affixation and compounding (e.g., akatamansonian). She acknowledged the semiotic relationship between the vocabulary and linguistic repertoire of educated users of English in Ghana.

Using Schneider's Model, Sarfo-Adu (2007) revealed that given the emotional attachment, depth of usage, and functional ecology of English in Ghana, the language should be standardized as a variety. He added that GhE had gained prominence due to its range of use. Dako and Yitah (2012) acknowledged the existence of GhE by explaining that it is a "New English as described by Platt, Weber, and Ho (1974), a member of the Outer Circle as described by Kachru (1984), and according to Schneider's (2003:209) Dynamic Model, in the process of Nativisation".

There has been code-switching between the English and indigenous languages among Ghanaians especially Twi, which is the most widely indigenous language in Ghana (Darko, 2016). He attributes this feature of Ghanaian bilinguals to language shift, language maintenance or language death.

Experts like Poplock (1980), Nortier (1990), Singh (1995) and Winford (2003) claim that it code-switching can be a sign of decay or lack of proficiency /competency in a language, especially first/ ancestral language – first language attrition.

Another linguistic effect of nativasation in Ghana is code mixing where Halmari (2004: 115) defines it as "the mixig of two or more languages within the same conversational episode'' or "in the same discourse'' (Nunan & Carter,2001:59). Examples may include "I laugh saa'', "You are beautiful papa'' and "Oh masa! We are eating oo''.

41

Ghanaian English cannot be spoken of without mentioning the re-examining the fluctuations in language in education policies in post independent Ghana. According to Anyidoho (2018), the information from Kwamena-Poh indicates that, since 1838 that Ghana was a colony, Wesleyan Mission grounded its educational and evangelistic activities in English and the Basel (1843) and the Bremen (1847) also set up schools and they adhered to indigenous languages as medium of instruction. These indigenous language schools were denied grant because the British took over and they wanted to propagate the use of English language (Adika,2012).

At post-colonial independence, there has been series of educational language reforms ((PNDC,1987; GES 2001, GES ,2002, and GES,2004) from the successive governmental administrations either to modify, confirm or reject the use of English or indigenous as a medium of instruction (Anyidoho,2018).

A cursory look at lack of continuity and consistency, which has become a short fall penetrating the language-in-education policy since the inception of formal education in Ghana (Anynyidoho,2018).

The grammar of GhE has received considerable attention in the literature (Owusu-Ansah, 1994, 2012; Ngula, 2010; Nkansah, 2016). Using Schneider's (2007) "Dynamic Model of Postcolonial Englishes" and a mixed-method approach to research, Nkansah (2016) tested the acceptability of respondents in relation to the lexico-grammatical features of GhE. Her research indicated that using idioms and uncountable nouns, which record a greater level of acceptability, is an acceptable grammatical trait for Ghanaians. These functions are considered acceptable for various reasons, including their extensive use, comprehensibility, and adherence to accepted English grammatical norms.

42

Some permissible and unsuitable grammatical and lexical traits are also considered variety indices.

Owusu-Ansah (2012) based his argument in favour of GhE by unravelling the ignorance of Ghanaians about the distinctive nature of the English they use. He opines that Ghanaians use English to distinguish different contexts and forms. As a result, the register of English used by Ghanaians has expanded. Additionally, his research demonstrates that Ghanaians have formed some emotional bonds due to the emergence of internal linguistic norms. These observations add to the existence of GhE as a variety.

Ngula (2011) studied the phonology (spelling pronunciation) of GhE as an innovative feature of the variety. He drew on the work of Sey (1973) to foreground his study of pronunciation. A similar exploration was done by Owusu-Ansah (1992). Ngula (2011) associated this innovativeness with maintaining international intelligibility and retaining local identities. Huber and Brato (2008) and Adjaye (2005) have previously confirmed the phonological features of GhE as well.

In addition to Quarcoo (1994), English has developed into a Ghanaian cultural artefact that the Ghanaian people have modified for Ghanaian cultural purposes. The following is an example of how he uses Ghanaian English. In speaking, shifting the stress from the first to the second syllable in terms like "violate" and "whitewash" does not signify mispronunciation; rather, it is the Ghanaian way of saying those words.

Doade (2001) explored the elements of Ghanaian English usage in journalistic writings. In explaining nativization in the Ghanaian context, he explains that the lexical items used are completely alien to the language though the grammar may

43

be the same. This notion is frequently illustrated by the term "galamsey," which is thought to be a corruption of the phrase "collect and sell" and is used to denote an illicit surface mining operation in Ghana. Although the word is drawn from vocabulary components in Standard British English, its use in the Ghanaian context is linked to the activity's illegality and the harm done to the environment. Such implications have been espoused by Ngula (2014).

In all, the studies reviewed on GhE support the existence of this variety. The study deduces that GhE is socially and culturally conditioned in terms of lexical, grammatical, phonological and even semantic features. The features espoused by the scholars in confirming the existence of GhE reflect the socio-cultural identity of Ghana. The variety has gained functional prominence in its development in Ghana. In this regard, the current study accepts the existence of GhE as a nativized variety with among other things, grammatical features.

Nominal Studies

Primarily, morphology and syntax are two distinct but connected fields of study within grammar. According to Radford (2004, p.1), morphology is the study of how words are constructed from smaller components (referred to as morphemes), and syntax is the study of how phrases and sentences are put together using words. Pearson et al. (2004) define syntax as the way in which words are arranged to form phrases and sentences. The parts of speech help to understand the different parts that form the English grammar. These parts of speech could be regarded as the broader categorization of grammar.

According to the definition by Pullum (1994, p.478), "a category is a class or division in a general classification scheme". To have a classification scheme, we must provide each class with a unique internal structure that cannot just be

44

a list of the class's tokens. A set of principles (or conditions) followed at least in the prototypical examples must also be part of the classification process. As pointed out by Radford (2004:1-2), "words are assigned to grammatical categories (called 'parts of speech') based on their semantic properties (meaning), morphological properties (the range of different forms they have), and syntactic properties (word-order properties relating to the positions they can occupy within sentences): a set of words which belong to the same category thus have a number of semantic, morphological and syntactic properties in common."

Thompson defines grammar as the language tools at our disposal for constructing meanings (Thompson, 2014:39). Thus, the kinds of wordings available are determined by the uses we want to put them. Brinton (2010) further defines grammar as the system or structure—or rules or precepts—by which a language functions. Whether or not a speaker can express the language's rules, they all have internalised grammar (their competence). According to conventional grammar, words are grouped into grammatical categories according to their semantic, morphological, and syntactic characteristics. According to Radford (2004:33), the following examples of semantic criteria— also known as "notional" criteria—are used to classify words in conventional grammar:

1. Verbs denote actions (go, destroy, buy and eat)

2. Nouns denote entities (car, cat, hill, and John)

3. Adjectives denote states (ill, happy, and rich)

4. Adverbs denote manner (badly, slowly, painfully, and cynically)

5. Prepositions denote location (under, over, outside, in, and on)

Nominal categories (number, gender, person, case, degree and definiteness) come first in modern English's grammatical hierarchy, followed by verbal categories (tense, aspect, mood, and voice). Many words are classified into multiple grammatical categories, which presents a considerable challenge in categorising them. To give one example, the term "round" can be used in many different ways, including:

Noun: a *round* of parties.

Adjective: a *round* table.

Verb: *round* off the figures.

Preposition: come *round* the corner.

Adverb: come *round* with some fresh air.

Inflectional and derivational properties are the two morphological criteria for categorizing words.

In systemic Functional linguistics (SFL), a nominal group is a group of words representing or describing any entity construing a noun (Butler, Downing & Lavid, 2007). The focus of this work is nominal reclassification. Other grammatical theories view the nominal group as equivalent to a noun phrase. According to Crystal (2008), Nominal words have some but not all of the characteristics of nouns. To provide a clearer picture, however, nominal is a term employed in some grammatical descriptions in place of nouns.

Nouns, pronouns, adjectives, participles, and numerals are categorised using grammatical cases in language according to their conventional associated grammatical function with a particular phrase, clause, or sentence (Clackson, 2007). This definition implies that an English grammatical case shows the relationship of a noun or pronoun to other words in a sentence. Personal

pronouns have three cases in English; nominative/subjective, objective, and genitive/possessive cases.

Nominative / Subjective Case

It generally marks the subject of a verb or predicate in a sentence. The nominative case uses nouns and pronouns as subjects. It is also called the subjective case.

Subject case pronouns include I, you, she, he, it, they, we, who, whoever

Nominative case usage (Standard English):

I forgot my watch.

- Subject/nominative case: I

- Verb: forgot

She gave a bracelet to him.

- Subject/nominative case: She

- Verb: gave

Objective Case

The objective case is generally preferred by modern grammarians where it supplanted old English.

Dative and Accusative

A dative case is an English grammatical case used to mark a verb's indirect or beneficiary object. It shows a noun or pronoun's relationship to other words in a sentence. An indirect object is the recipient of a direct object. The indirect object receives the direct object.

Example: Me, us, you, them, him/her

Dative case usage (Standard English):

I gave the oranges to him.

47

- Verb: gave

- Direct object: oranges

- Indirect object in the dative case: him

He wrote the letter for her.

- Verb: gave

- Direct object: letter

- Indirect object in the dative case: her

Prepositions can take the dative case because they generally introduce indirect

objects.

The nouns and pronouns in the dative case are often objects of a preposition.

The object of a preposition is the noun or pronoun that receives the preposition,

and its object creates a prepositional phrase. For example

We built a desk for them.

- Indirect object in the dative case: them

(also, an object of the preposition)

- Preposition in the dative case: for

- Prepositional phrase: for them

Accusative Case

It is a grammatical case used to mark the direct object of a verb.

I forgot my watch.

- Verb: forgot

- Direct object: watch

Genitive Case

The genitive case is the grammatical construction used to indicate a possessive

relationship in a broad sense. This can include strict ownership or a few other

48

types of relationships to a greater or lesser analogous. Most English possessive forms are associated with personal pronouns *mine, my, yours, hers, her, his, our*, and *ours*. The possessive can be used in two main ways: Determinative/ dependent/weak and independent/ strong possessives.

1. Together with a noun as in my car, your sister, his boss, the possessive form serves a possessive determiner or possessive adjective (Biber et al 1999:270) Possessive pronouns consist traditionally of two series: Dependent/ weak and strong/ independent possessive pronouns (Quirk, 2010) for example, your, my, his, their, her, and its.

2. Possessive pronoun is also reserved for pure possessives like mine, yours, his, hers, its, and ours, which do not qualify as an explicit noun.

Recategorization can occur within a class (from one subcategory to another) or between classes. In this study, I identified how some nominal elements are recategorized in the Ghanaian context. A noun is used in the grammatical classification of words; traditionally, the term "name" is defined as "the name of a person, place, or thing," but because the terms "name" and "thing" are so nebulous (is beauty a thing, for example), linguistic analyses of this class have tended to focus on syntax and morphology's formal and functional standards. Then, nouns are words that have a particular distribution (e.g., they can follow prepositions but not, say, modals), exhibit a particular type of inflection (e.g., of the case or number), and have a particular syntactic purpose (e.g., as subject or object of a sentence). Nouns are typically divided into common and proper types, and their analysis includes consideration of their number, gender, case, and countability (Crystal, 2008 :333).

49

However, the semantic classification of words must be done with care. Let us take this instance where the word "assassination" describes an action but is a noun rather than a verb. Although it is a noun rather than an adjective, 'illness' signifies a state of being. Additionally, the term "quick" in fast food refers to how the food is produced but is a noun, not an adverb; similarly, the word "Cambridge" refers to a location but is a noun, not a preposition. The morphological criteria consider the words' inflectional and derivational characteristics for classifying words. The plural form of a noun like 'cat' is created by adding the plural inflection '–s' to create the form 'cats'. Inflectional qualities pertain to several versions of the same word. The mechanisms by which a word can be used to create a different kind of word by adding an affix are referred to as derivational qualities. For example, by adding the suffix '–ness' to the adjective 'mad', we can create the noun 'madness' (Radford, 2004:33-34). Since the words in these five categories have substantial descriptive substance, they are known as contentions (or words).

Functors (function words), on the other hand, are words that serve primarily to convey information about the grammatical function of specific forms of expression inside the sentence. Languages have both content words and functors in addition to content words. This could include details on grammatical elements like a person, number, gender, or case. By contrasting a content noun like 'table' with a functional pronoun like 'we', the distinctions between contentives and functors can be seen. (Radford, 2004:38)

When we say "table," we usually mean a piece of furniture with a flat surface raised off the ground, usually on legs. It is not difficult to construct an image of a normal table using a noun like that. To put it another way, a nominative

50

pronoun like "we" do not contain any descriptive content but rather encodes a collection of grammatical qualities (more precisely, person, number, and case) as a second-person plural nominative pronoun.

According to Radford (2004:39-40) the grammatical categories in Modern English are generally indicated through word order (the place a word occupies in a sentence) and by function words, along with a few inflections. Both formal and notional methods can be used to identify grammatical groups. The only way a language distinguishes between formal and informal usage is through inflection. According to these standards, English distinguishes between the past and the present tense (as in 'cook'/'cooked'). For the second distinction, the past, present, and future tenses are a universal set of grammatical categories and phrases. English uses inflection to communicate these qualities, while periphrasis expresses them in the future (as in will cook).

Grammar also interacts with the innovation of new lexis, given that the former is more stable. In structural nativization, however, grammar may demonstrate flexibility since forms change as new word forms emerge. Lexico-grammatical innovations may be established gradually up to the point that new and old forms are interchangeably used, which results in the variability of forms and meanings. Overall, Schneider (2004) stresses that PCEs are described by meaningful new forms of a speech community which he says cannot be accounted for since the innovations could be more related to language variation and language change issues.

To support the variety of English spoken in the Philippines, some grammatical research has been done there. Among these is Schneider's (2004) discovery that Singapore English and Philippines English (PhilE) use particle verbs more

frequently and creatively than each other, which reflects the two dialects' different evolutionary stages. Seoane and Suárez-Gómez (2013) assert that as this is also a typical American English pattern, the relatively frequent use of the non-past form to communicate present perfective meaning in PhilE is predicted. Additionally, Hundt (2006) notes that Singapore and Philippine English's concord patterns with collective nouns are similar to those of their parent Englishes—American and British, respectively—than they are to other types that some claim is becoming regional norms in the Pacific. According to Collins (2011), there-sentence agreement patterns in PhilE are comparable to those in AmE.

Studies on Varieties of English

Several corpus-based studies have been conducted in conjunction with Schneider's model. Based on ICE data, Collins (2012) examines the relative frequency of singular agreement in there-existential (e.g., there is plenty. rather than lots) in seven Postcolonial variants of English. As predicted by the Dynamic Model, Inner Circle varieties (39.9%) are more advanced than Outer Circle varieties (14.8%), and South-East Asian varieties (Singapore and Hong Kong) are more advanced than those in other regions (Kenya and India), which is consistent with the findings.

In a separate study, Werner (2013) analysed the co-occurrence of specific temporal adverbials with the present perfect (PP) and the past tense (PT) in 12 variants of English (carrying out a cluster analysis on ICE corpora data). When it comes to advanced (phase 4 or close) types, endonormativity is indicated by an increase in "PT-friendliness." While Van Rooy and Terblanche (2010) used corpus data on lexis to study if South African English has

52

progressed beyond phase 3, they also looked into the criteria of "generality, acceptability, and codification" to see if South African English has reached phase 4. (p. 407). However, they found this assumption to be mostly but not entirely true for complicated morphological forms (words that have been absorbed and accepted).

When Mukherjee and Gries (2009) looked at three different verb complementation constructions in Hong Kong English, Indian English, and Singaporean English, they found that 59 selected high-frequency verbs co-occurred with each of these constructs (ICE). In the Dynamic Model, verb-construction relationships are explicitly linked to evolutionary stages. According to the experts, New English is distinct from Standard English when it has advanced in its development.

In Albania, Rushidi (2015) studied the similarities, dissimilarities, and identities between English and Albanian compounding patterns and assessed students' mistakes while translating and classifying the given compounds according to their components. Using contrastive analysis, Rushidi (2015) revealed that the English language had 13 patterns of compounds while the Albanian language had 12 patterns of compounds. Rushidi (2015) further discovered that in terms of forms, the Albanian language has similar compound forms as English "N+ N, Aj +N, Av + N, N+V, V + V, Aj + V, Av + V, N +Aj, Aj + Aj, Av+ Aj, and Av + Av Rushidi (2015:8-9). The author found that English language form patterns of V + N, N +Av, and V+ Av = Noun were not found in the Albanian language". This contrastive analysis revealed the resemblance between the second and first languages, Albania. The study also

53

discovered that the students made errors in translating noun compound forms in English that are not present in Albania.

In another study, Rushidi and Vela (2016) conducted a contrastive analysis of nominal noun forms and patterns in English and Albanian. Rushidi and Vela (2016) analyzed a corpus of data and discovered the English language nominal forms and patterns of noun-noun, adjective-noun, adverb-noun, and verb-noun were consistently similar in the Albanian language, but the Albanian language did not have a similar pattern for verb-adverb= noun form. Using a questionnaire to assess students' knowledge of translation of English nominal forms to Albania, Rushidi and Vela (2016) discovered that students had difficulty identifying the patterns: "N+ N, Av +N, Aj+N, and V+A=N. Also, the authors found that the students committed errors in translating English compounds in Albanian with Aj + N and V+Av =N compounds."

Studies on Ghanaian English

In Ghana, Mahama (2012) explored the implication of Ghanaian English on academic writing among students in Navrongo, University of Development Studies. The author used 464 data collected from students' communication Skills and African Studies class exercises and examinations. Using the literature review and analyses of sentence construction in the selected data coupled with observations and personal interaction in English with students, Mahama (2012) discovered that Ghanaian students have no problem in comprehension when interacting with one another, but they have problems writing in standard English. Mahama (2012) also noticed that students had new nominalized words such as 'red-red', 'fufu', and 'gates' for royal families, among others, as variations of the English language that are not found in Standard English.

54

Mahama (2012) recommended the need for communication skills courses to consider including topics on comprehension, homonyms, and sentence construction.

In a study, Bobda (2000) found that Ghanaian English is far different from other West African and English-speaking African countries in terms of pronunciation of English phonemes. The author attributed this to the positive attitude, early ties with English natives, and the early school system on Gold Coast as a colony.

Adika (2012) observed that the trend of English as an outer language in Ghana is characterized by an expansionist path of innovation, adaptation, and maintenance of standards over the years. Ghanaian English is undoubtedly charting a course of being a unique variety of English. Adika (2012) added that the statistical data of the "Ghana Living Standard Survey (GLSS)" (2008) report shows that over 88% of Ghanaians are literate in English language and, at least, one local language concerning reading and writing, while only 14% are literate in only English language and 3% literate in the only local language.

Ngula and Nartey (2016) explored the place of corpus-based studies in positioning Ghanaian English as a unique variety of English language in the outer circle of world Englishes. Acknowledging the lack of corpus studies in Ghana, Ngula and Nartey (2016) foresaw the development of Ghanaian English to be dependent on the initiation of large-scale electronic corpus projects. In their view, the limited corpus rich studies on Ghanaian English make it difficult for researchers to accept Ghanaian English as a unique variety of English language. The corpus-based projects help understand the uniqueness of Ghanaian English from a large sum of data on the distinct linguistic features of

the Ghanaian variety of English. Nartey and Ngula (2016) asserted, based on McEnery et al. (2006) benefits of corpus studies are that electronic corpus studies provide a speed of processing and ease of manipulation of data; accuracy and consistency of measure, elimination of human bias, and preservation of data for future use.

Nkansah (2016) explored the extent to which Ghanaians have accepted lexical and grammatical features deemed Ghanaian English as Ghanaian English. The author administered a questionnaire containing different lexical and grammatical features considered Ghanaian varieties to 400 respondents to show their level of acceptance of the items as Ghanaian English on a five-point scale. Moreover, Nkansah (2016) was interviewed to corroborate the data of the questionnaire. In all, Nkansah (2016) discovered that participants few lexical items to be Ghanaian varieties based on the items' wide usage and consistent use as well as the participant's knowledge of standard English. Regarding the grammatical features, participants ranked idiomatic expressions and uncountable nouns as highly Ghanaian variety due to their wide use and Ghanaian origin. According to Schneider's paradigm, Nkansah (2016) concluded that Ghanaians are endonormative regarding Ghanaian lexical variations but exonormative about Ghanaian grammatical features. Nkansah's (2016) findings still establish that most Ghanaian speakers agree with the school of thought that accepts Ghanaian English as fossilized standard English instead of Standard innovative Ghanaian variety of English Language. This notion of Ghanaian English as not a variety distinct from native English could only be corrected through corpus-based (Nartey & Ngula, 2016). Nartey and Ngula (2016) opined that producing rich corpus evidence of the Ghanaian variety of

English influences its acceptance as a distinct variety. On this note, this study seeks to probe the Ghanaian variety of English language using the electronic corpus data for analysis.

Chapter Summary

The chapter looked at the history of Ghanaian English, the literature on the existence of the language, and its various perspectives. There was also a discussion of the aspects assessed in this study. Investigations have also been done into classification and recategorization in grammar. We also assessed studies on the acceptability of phonological, lexico-grammatical, and pragmatic aspects. To analyse the study, Schneider's (2007) dynamic model was employed as the theoretical foundation. Ghanaian English is a nativized form that has been made abundantly evident. Some of the models' comments were taken into consideration. The chapter also discussed works that combined corpus research and the Dynamic model. It has been determined how the current study relates to the earlier investigations.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The previous chapters have discussed the background and reviewed related literature to situate the present study on the examination subject. This chapter describes the methods and procedures for carrying out this study. The following key points are captioned under the subheadings of this chapter: study design, data source, sampling, data analysis procedure, measures for reliability, ethical consideration, and summary.

Research Design

The study employs a qualitative research design. It emphasizes a complete account of a situation or activity. Qualitative method is used because it allows the discovery of meanings that a given to events as experienced by people This makes it different from other approaches (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). The intent of using qualitative design for the study is to understand a particular socio-semiotic behaviour (Creswell, 2003) of nominal usage in Ghanaian English.

The qualitative procedures will rely on text and data obtained from the corpus, which is the electronic database and other relevant materials like news articles and journals. Unique steps are taken to analyse the naturally occurring data samples and draw on diverse inquiry strategies (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007).

Specifically, the study is placed in a corpus linguistics perspective to explore nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English. Corpus linguistic methods sit alongside and indeed, as I think, often fruitfully used in combination with other methods in linguistics. According to Lüdeling and Kytö (2008), corpus

58

linguistics (CL) is a relatively recent approach in linguistics that involves using computers and electronic corpora to empirically research language used in "real life."

The reason I chose the corpus-based methodology is that I can analyse large amount of data and tell us about things that are typically very difficult for us to think about It may also reduce human tendencies of incredibly slow and inaccurate (Sinclair,2014). Ngula (2014: 524) beautifully cites Leech's (1992) definition of the corpus as "a helluva lot of text, stored on computer corpora are rarely haphazard collections of textual material: they are generally assembled to be (informally speaking) representative of some language or text type."

Corpus-based research investigates various linguistic phenomena from the corpus, identifying "probabilities, trends, patterns, co-occurrences of elements, features or groupings of features" (Teubert & Krishnamurthy, 2007: 6) from which conclusions can be drawn about a language (Mwinlaaru & Nartey, 2019). Generally, the focus has been on the situation's local context, reviewing the word forms and how they occur. Corpus-based research has gained considerable ground in analyzing how a language's patterns are repeated to provide a functional interpretation. An examination using human introspection can readily elude patterns and applications of linguistic features that can be observed by corpus linguistics (Ngula, 2015).

Despite the highlighted strengths and relevance of corpus-based linguistics, some shortcomings cannot be overlooked. First, Hyland (2009) asserts that corpus data does not account for written meanings and the text generation and use environment. This makes the data more disintegrated and

59

conceptual. I believe this leads to discrepancies between the use of the lexical item verbally and in written form.

Some considerations have been made to support using corpus-based design in a study. First, in defining what a corpus is, Sinclair and Carter (2004) state that the texts are naturally occurring. This makes the texts authentic and reliable to undertake and analyse. Utilizing naturally occurring texts allows one to base their linguistic study on examples of language use in everyday contexts. Second, the concept of representativeness is inherent in the corpus-based design. Much attention has been given to the corpus and language it represents. There must be a finite size that has a reference. The final consideration can be inferred from the definition of McEnery and Hardie (2012). They explain that it is a collection of texts that are stored electronically. As such, it becomes machine-readable. In this regard, the corpus-based study is not subject to errors and is convenient and time efficient. Lüdeling and Kytö (2008) provides that corpora can, in principle, give us three different kinds of data: (1) empirical support, (2) frequency information, and (3) meta-information.

While using corpora for empirical support, a qualitative approach, corpora also offer frequency data for words, phrases, and constructions that can be employed in quantitative research. Both computational linguistics and many areas of theoretical linguistics involve quantitative investigations, which are frequently based on a qualitative study. They highlight the similarities and variations between various speaker groups or literary genres and offer frequency information for psycholinguistic investigations. The variety of mathematical models that can be applied to the study makes this field particularly fascinating.

Additionally, a corpus may give additional information (or meta-data) on aspects such as the age or gender of the speaker/writer, text genre, time and location of the origin of the text. It is possible to make comparisons between different types of texts or different groups of speakers by using this additional information.

Data Analysis Procedure

First, I prepared a list of nominal resources that form the basis for my searches in the ICE-Ghana. The same list of linguistic forms was used for my searches in the additional data (dailies, textbooks, and articles) I gathered. To attain the linguistic data for the study, I relied heavily on previous studies (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1982; Payne, 1997; Quirk, 2010; Altenberg & Vago, 2010), where most of the nominal lexical resources had been written. The corpus was used as underlying data for the study where the linguistic phenomenon understudy is seen in the corpus with prior knowledge and expectations. The corpus was used to examine the intuition of nominal items -case in Table 2 below:

Table 2: List of Nominal Items –Case

SUBJECTIVE CASE (NOMINATIVE)	OBJECTIVE CASE (ACCUSSATIVE & DATIVE)	POSSESSIVE CASE (GENITIVE)	
I	Me	My	Mine
You	You	Our	Ours
He/ She/ It	Him/ Her/ It	Your	Yours
We	Us	His	
They	Them	Her	Hers
Who		Its	
Whoever		Their	Theirs
		S'	
		'S	

Lastly, Table 3 below shows the list of the nominal items- Numbers (Plural) used for the investigation.

Table 3: List of Nominal Items- Number

DUAL	MASS
Twin	Research
Both	Information
Couple	Water
	Sand
	Furniture
	Smoke
	Happiness
	Bread
	Dust
	Truth
	Attention
	Music
	Dirt
	Homework
	Importance
	Advice
	News
	Theory
	Literature
	Honesty
	Sleep
	Work
	Information
	Water
	Sand
	Furniture
	Smoke
	Happiness
	Bread
	Dust
	Humor
	Truth

Lastly, table 4 below shows the list of the nominal items- Numbers (Plural) used for the investigation.

Table 4: List of Nominal Items- Number (Plural)

Closed-class Quantifiers with Nouns	Summation Plural	Unmarked Plural	Zero Plural
Much Little	A pair of scissors	People Police	Sheep Cod Deer

I used the AntConc corpus analysis toolkit version 3.5.8 to run co-occurrences and concordances of each selected linguistic item. The analysis of co-occurrences (Martinez, 2012) helps to cluster the words without breaking the links with semantic analysis. After processing, I was able to identify patterns surrounding each word to be able to isolate some of these nominal characteristics. The AntConc software programme aided me in identifying the concordance representation of the number of nouns. The AntConc software was used to trace the nominal used in the corpus data. The motive behind such categorization was to appreciate how the item differs from native English and the nature of the recategorization in each case.

Data Source, Sample, and Sampling Procedure

Data for the study was gathered through the ICE Ghanaian component (where the data stems from the early 2000s), which aimed at collecting and collating English in the written and spoken form; however, the focus was mostly on the latter. Other sources include dailies, textbooks, and articles from which the same linguistic form was taken. This time frame, which exhibits "the earliest

hints of Endonormative Stabilization," should be viewed as the culmination of nativization in Ghanaian English (Huber, 2014, p.90). In Brato, the motivation for the theoretical and methodological issues with the compilation of HiCE Ghana and its comparability to ICE-Ghana are discussed in greater detail (2019a). I spoke with a senior lecturer in the Department of English at UCC, who offered me the ICE-Ghana as an electronic database, which I later placed on my computer.

The purposive sampling was used to run concordance from the ICE-Ghana based on my chosen linguistic items. These nominal items were purposefully selected to help understand the phenomenon under study (Creswell,2009). According to (Fraenkel & Wallen,1932: 89) "researchers use their judgement to select a sample that they believe, based on prior information, will provide the data they need". This corpus is a one-million-word sample of Standard Ghanaian English texts from diverse written sources. This corpus is selected because Nartey and Ngula (2016) suggested that a corpus study of 1 million words is more representative than less than a million words. I used purposive sampling for the corpora for two reasons: (1) currency and (2) prestige. The Historical Corpus of English in Ghana (HiCE Ghana), a 600,000-word corpus of Ghanaian English from 1966-1975, is a rather dated source for the data collection; therefore, I first utilised selective sampling to choose the ICE Ghana. This corpus focuses on the early stages of nativisation in Ghana. As such, the relevance did not suit the objectives of the study. Components are picked for the sample based on the researcher's judgement, which is referred to as purposeful sampling.

But the chosen corpus is contemporary for the study because it is set in the twenty-first century. Regarding the second problem, numerous languages or coding changes occurred during the 2000s. English dialects and variants have undergone revolutionary changes to accommodate the context of production. New lexicons have been added to the target language (particularly noun phrases). I should make clear that my opinion of the language's status in Ghana is completely arbitrary. This sampling approach is appropriate because I considered the goals of the study and the traits being looked at. I believe I can obtain a representative sample using sound judgement, which will enable me to save both time and money (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009).

Measures for Reliability

I took a step to ensure reliability while conducting the study. Although time-efficient and effective, Corpus-based research can sometimes be a little challenging. Whenever I had a challenge in classifying the nominals or encountered difficulty, I consulted a Senior Lecturer at the Department of English, University of Cape, who has experience in building and analyzing corpora; hence, his suggestions were incorporated in putting the work in better shape.

Ethical Considerations

The researcher ensured the credibility of the data used by ensuring that corpus data was compared to sources available in the libraries of institutions of higher education in Ghana. Moreover, the researcher ensured that the data sources' consent was sought before it was used for the project. Moreover, findings from the corpus were corroborated by other secondary texts.

Chapter Summary

This chapter generally reported the methodological and analytical procedures used in the study. In the first place, the chapter discussed the research design, where it was noted that this study adopted corpus linguistics, specifically corpus-based design as a methodology. The source of data and sampling techniques were also highlighted. Efforts were made to ensure that the findings of the research were valid. Also, the method of analysis was discussed in the chapter. Finally, the measures for reliability and ethical consideration were presented in this chapter. The next chapter reports the analysis and discussion of the study.
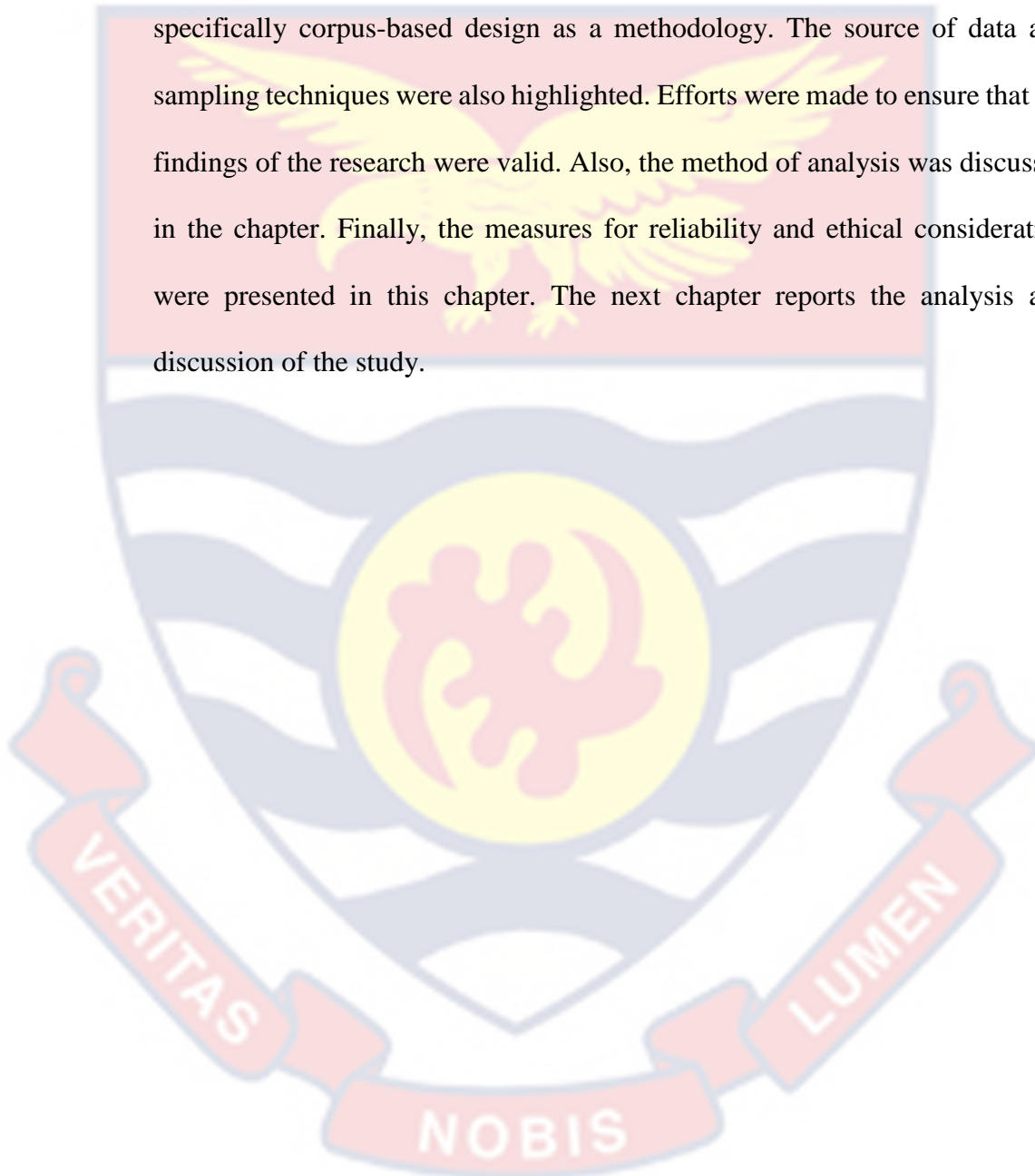
CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The previous chapter presented the methodology of the study. In this chapter, I present the data analysis and discussion, which will be categorized under the research questions. The chapter has four subsections: (1) kinds of nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English, and the nominal items involved in each kind of nominal recategorization, (2) morphosyntactic indicators of nominal recategorization, and (3) factors that influence nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English.

Research Question 1: Kinds of Nominal Recategorization in Ghanaian English

In this section, I review and discuss the information gathered concerning Research Question 1. Nouns are classified as count and uncountable (mass) nouns (Robbins, 2007). There are instances where classification is altered semantically to another class. This concerns the kinds of nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English. The kinds are grouped into three, making it easier to identify the nominal items used in nominal recategorization.

Recategorization of mass nouns to count nouns.

The first recategorization to analyse is from mass nouns to count nouns. Mass nouns are semantically associated with 'substances' which Chierchia (2010) loosely defines as conical and concrete superordinate nouns. There are three properties of mass nouns: (a) the signature property, which prevents the mass nouns from being used with numerals in a grammatical construction (Köylü, 2019); (b) the elasticity property, where the mass nouns appear to be

67

'elastic' in admitting some count noun usage with differentiating frequency; and (c) the mapping property, which allows mass nouns to be mapped onto through superordinate nouns (Chierchia, 2010). The recategorization of mass nouns is illustrated in examples 1 to 5.

1. <ICE-GH:W2B-026#6:1> No *single food* meets all your nutrient needs…

2. <ICE-GH:W2B-031#26:1>So *many software* are designed for computer use these days.

3. 2b<ICE-GH:W2B-031#11:1>Computer software are put in the computers to make them do the work for which they are designed.

4. <ICE-GH:W2B-004#16:1>A big calabash is fetched for and *small sand* put into it.

5. <S2B-045 -linda.txt>In the estimation of the University of Ghana it is also time to create a platform for scholars and public figures who have attained distinction working on and for the African continent and its *peoples* to document and transmit their experiences and insights #00:13:32-2#

6. <ICE-GH:W1C-017#160:31>thank you for your *information* to me but am now in USA study

Extracts 1 to 5 were chosen from the ICE-Ghana. In these extracts, mass nouns are recategorized to count nouns based on '-s' inflections and cardinal (e.g., *three, four, half*) and quasi-cardinal determiners (e.g., *some, small, many*). In extract (1), the nominal item in focus is 'food' which is a mass noun. Food as a mass noun represents 'uncountable' because it does call up the idea of a composite thing. Barner and Snedeker (2005) noted that mass nouns could take modifiers such as 'little' and 'much'. However, from extract (1), 'food' is modified by *single* which denotes a quantifiable substance. This recategorizes

the mass noun 'food' to a count noun. In extract (2), the item involved in the recategorization is 'software'. This is a mass noun which denotes a programmable process for electronic devices such as a computer. The identified item is recategorized into a count noun through the numeral expression of 'any' which serves as a predeterminer of the item. Making deductions from Quirk (2010), 'food' and 'software' are zero plural forms which need no quantification – neither through inflection, quantifiers nor determiners.
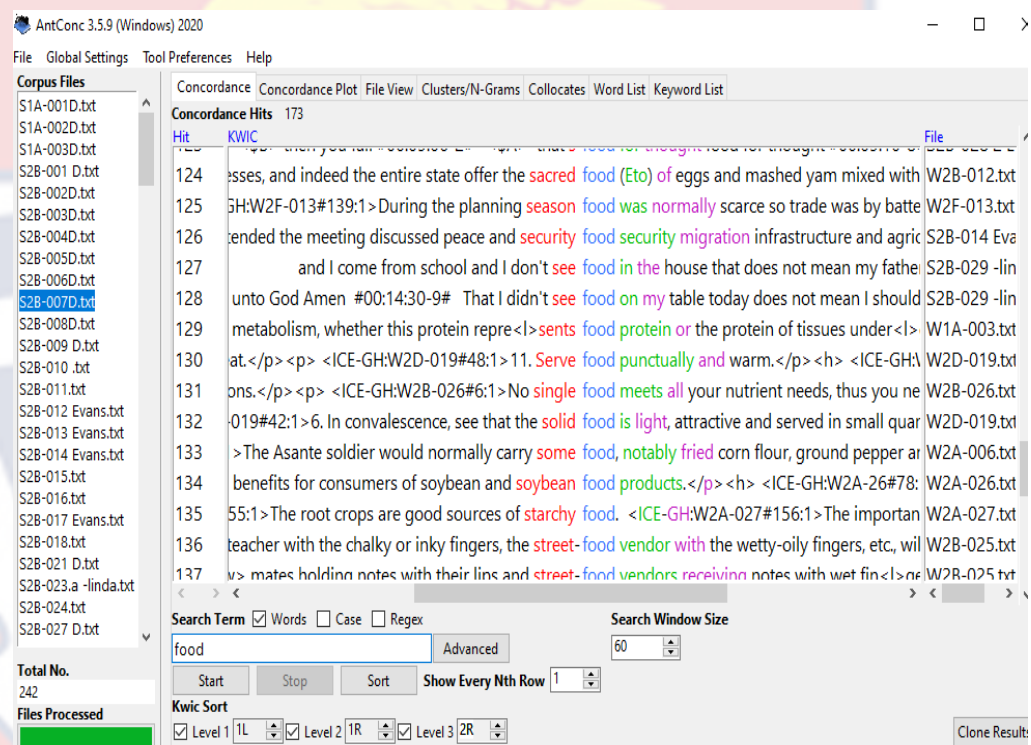
Figure 1: Concordance hit for 'food' as a mass noun

Also, in extract (3), 'sand' as a mass noun is recategorized into a count noun using the quasi-cardinal 'some.' *Sand* is an uncountable noun, but the quantifier 'some' recategorizes it as a count noun where individual entities are perceived. Using the items 'single', 'many,' and 'small' provides a classifier interpretation to the mass nominal items 'food,' 'software,' and 'sand,' respectively. About the stated universal properties of mass nouns, extract (1) to (3) are inherent in the signature property. Brato (2020) observed that in

69

Ghanaian English, there is an oversimplification of simple noun phrases. This is evident in Figure (1), where most concordance hits show just the noun 'food' without any determiner. For instance, hit 128 illustrates "That I did not see *food* on my table today…". Chierchia (2010) states that the steadiest grammatical feature of mass nouns is the marked state of their direct combination with a numeral expression, as seen in extracts (1) to (3). The direct combination with numeral expressions is 'single food,' 'many software,' and 'small sand.' From Figure 2, 'software' gave 20 hits from the concordance. The observation was that the determiners 'most' and 'many' concurred to the left.

Mass nouns have no concept of singular and plural, though, in English, they take singular verb forms.

Figure 2a: Concordance hit for software

Figure 2b: Concordance hit for software

Extract (4) concerns itself with the recategorization of an unmarked plural mass noun to a count noun. The identified mass noun in the construction is '*peoples*.' Generally, 'people' is an uncountable noun, but in the extract, 'people' has been recategorized as a countable noun through the use of a plural marker '-s' inflection. The plural marker changes the uncountable semantic interpretation of the mass noun 'people' to a count noun. In this instance, 'people' is considered in its inherent single units, which is ungrammatical. Cherchia (1998) hypothesized that mass nouns have an inherent plurality; as such, putting 'people' in a plural sense with '-s' inflection recategorizes the nominal item. Concerning the theory adopted for the study, these syntactic markings indicate an endonormative stage of evolution in the corpus data.

Similarly, extract (5) presents the plural marker '-s' inflection to the nominal item 'information.' Information is a mass or uncountable noun that denotes communicable knowledge of something. The addition of the plural marker recategorizes the item from a mass noun to a count noun. In a general sense, only count nouns can take plural markers. Further, I interpret that converting the mass noun 'information' to the count noun 'information' denotes a group of different information in the noun's mass realization. This analysis conforms with Barner and Snedeker (2005), who postulate that we cannot individuate the relationship between mass noun interpretations. From Figure 3 below, 'information' had 2 hits from the corpus search. There were no collocates.
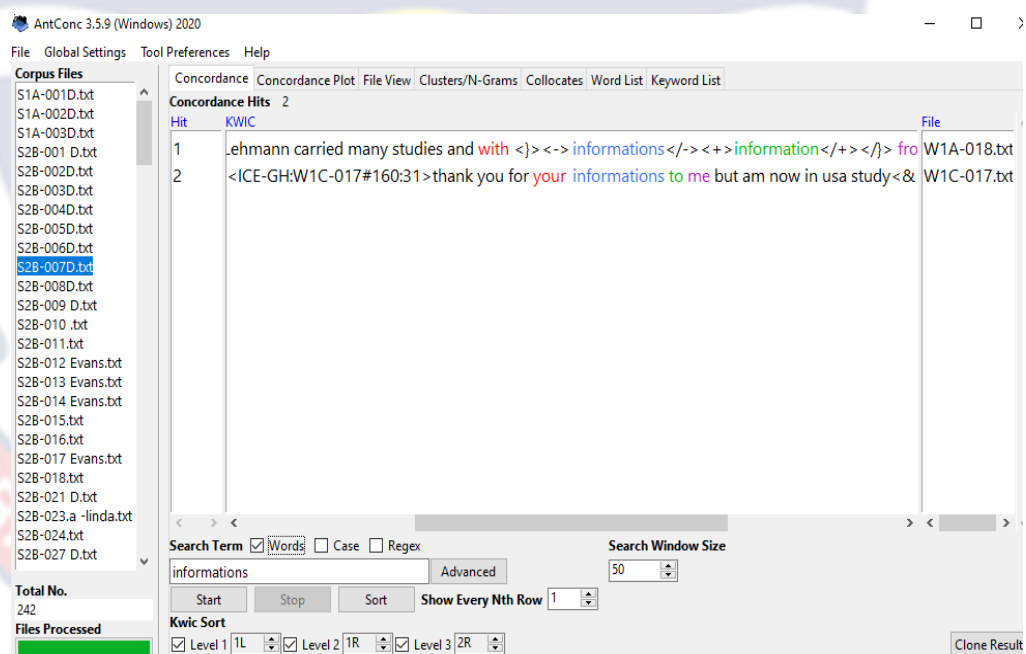

Figure 3: Concordance hit for 'information.'

Generally, plural marking is associated with the number system. Number systems can be morphosemantic or morphosyntactic, based on whether the number marking is limited to nouns or extends to other forms (Di Garbo, 2020). The plural marker '-s' is a suffix added to nouns to make them plural.

When the plural marker is added to a non-count noun, it categorizes the noun as countable. Tsang (2017) posited that the plural morpheme '-s' could be suffixed to countable nouns but not mass nouns. He remarked that uncountable nouns should not be suffixed with a plural marker. In this regard, the addition of '-s' to 'information' explains that it is interpreted as a collection of individuated entities. Hence, '-s' becomes the morphosyntactic item that carries the recategorization of the mass noun to a count noun in this instance. Other relevant examples are 'peoples' and 'waters.'
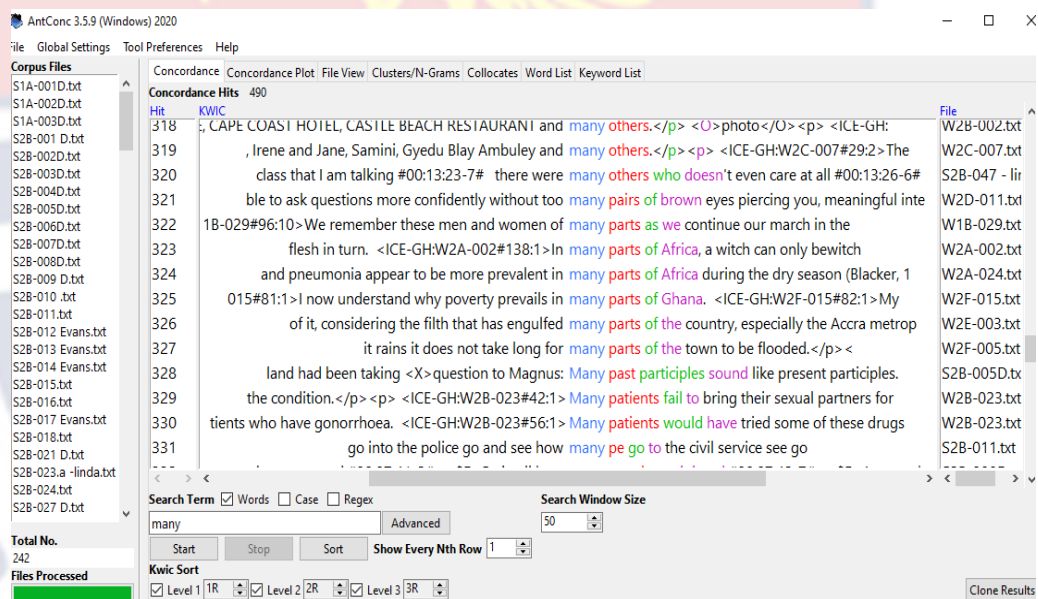

Figure 4: 'many' as a quantifier in recategorization

Syntactically, 'many' as a quantifier is associated with discrete entities whose quantities can be counted. It is used canonically in prenominal positions, as seen in extract (2). It encodes information about the measure of individual or plurality of individuals. Generally, mass nouns are not inflected for numbers in a count semanticity. However, the syntactic attachment of 'many' to the mass noun 'software' recategorizes it as a plural quantification. From Figure 4, the use of 'many' from Hit 322 to 327 reflects typical Ghanaian English

73

expressions. This is because it is more standard to use 'some' as a quantifier in grammatical expressions.

In all, the study has discussed the recategorization of mass nouns to count nouns. The identified nominal items in this kind of recategorization are 'food,' 'software,' 'sand,' and 'information.' It was revealed that the recategorizations resulted from quantity expressions and the plural marker '-s' inflection. The distinction was based on the premise that mass nouns do not provide a criterion for counting while count nouns do.

Recategorization of count nouns to mass nouns

Count nouns can be pluralized and counted without the intervention of classifiers or measure words. They do not have a homogenous reference. Tovena (2001) observes that counted nouns have discrete identities that can be counted. However, count nouns can be recategorized to semantically imply mass noun categorisation. The extracts below are examples of recategorization of count nouns to mass nouns in GhE.

1. <$E><ICE-GH:S2A-011#44:1:E> In an environment where inflation is higher than the rate of currency depreciation, there is *little incentive* to export as revenue from export sales does not cover local costs because our currency is stable.

2. <ICE-GH:W1C-023#42:5>What I want to know is, in translating, do you want me to remain as faithful to the Ga text as possible, translating mistakes that were immediately corrected and other *little comments* without which the meaning of the text will not be lost?

3. <ICE-GH:W1A-009#49:1>It was the missionary impact and colonial administration that generated *much conflict*.

74

4. <ICE-GH:W1B-021#92:12>I could not send it by attachment because I could not put it on a *pen drive*.

5. <ICE-GH:W2A-032#47:1>A data file contains data entered by the user, such as a letter, spreadsheet, or an*other document*.

The illustrated extracts from 6 to 10 provide corpus data from ICE-Ghana. The extracts are evidence of the recategorization of count nouns to mass nouns in Ghanaian English. For instance, with 'other' as a determiner in the noun phrase 'other document,' there is a morphosemantic shift in categorisation. The use of 'other' denotes a plurality in meaning to the noun it is attached to. This leads to adding the plural morpheme marker to the noun 'document.' However, the noun is unmarked plurally. This recategorizes the noun 'document' as a mass noun, given that it is inherently plural. The recategorization is evident in using and omitting some linguistic items with the identified count nouns. From extract (6), the identified nominal item in the recategorization is 'incentive.' 'Incentive' denotes discrete entities that can be individualised. As such, the noun cannot take a classifier or measure of quantity associated with mass nouns. However, the count noun 'incentive' is quantified with the quantifier 'little.' 'Little' as a quantifier is associated with the mass noun which gives a homogenous reference (Wisniewski, Lamb, & Middleton, 2003). In this regard, 'incentive' as a count noun is recategorized into a mass noun.
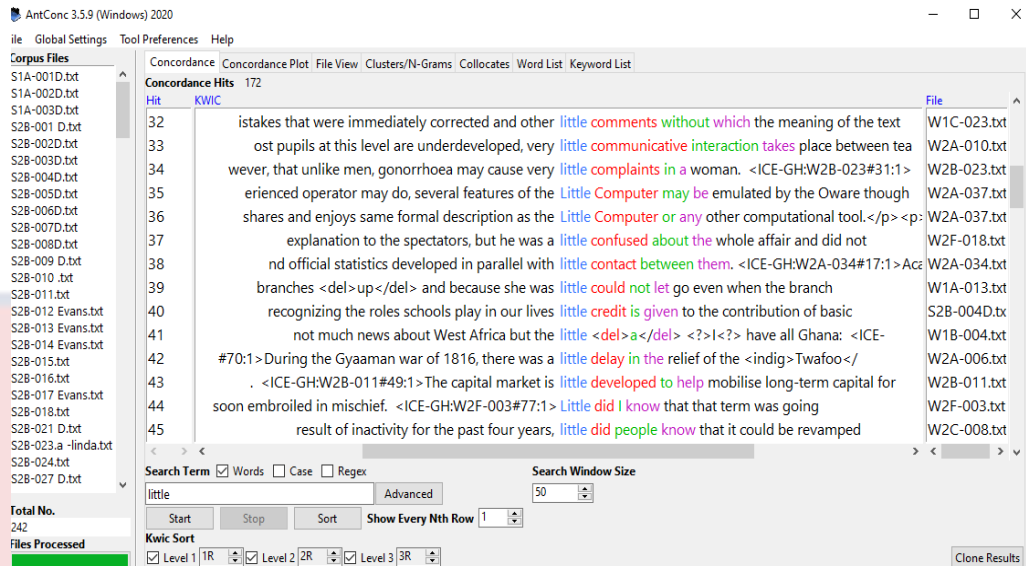
Figure 5: Concordance hit for 'little.'

In extract (7), the study shows evidence of recategorization in a tautological sense. The nominal item involved in the recategorization is the count noun 'comments.' 'Comments' denote plurality semantically through the inflection of the plural marker '-s'. It becomes tautologically recategorized as a mass noun through the indefinite quantifier 'little.' Comments as a count noun have individual entities that can be counted but modifying it with the quantifier 'little' recategorizes it to a mass noun. Wisniewski et al. (2003) note that plural count nouns can take quantifiers such as 'many' and 'few,' not 'little' and 'much.' Thus, the use of 'little' in the corpus data concurred with plural count nouns rather than mass or non-count nouns. This seems acceptable in the data, which reflects the nativization stage of Schneider's model. In Figure 6, 'students' with a 125th rank reflect the recategorization of the plural count noun to a mass noun. This is read as 'little students'; semantically, it could imply young or insignificant students. Similar explanations could be applied to 'supervision.' Such representations are presented in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Collocates for 'little' in recategorization process.

'little' as a syntactic indicator must be analysed in relation to the question of size. It is a non-numeral quantifier expressing quantity without specifying a non-count noun's exact quantity. The use of 'little' in the noun phrase 'little comments' restricts the operation of the countability of units in the 'comments.' Comment as a noun can take numeral quantifiers such as one comment, two comments, and thirty comments. However, 'little comments' change the meaning derived from the nominal item. Semantically, 'little comments' provides a negative meaning. Also, with 'little incentive,' there is the recategorization of the noun 'incentive' to a quantifiable category. This categorises the count noun to a mass noun. I now proceed to discuss the use of 'much' in the data. 'Much' is used to refer to non-discrete entities. In this regard, when 'much' is used, the meaning it carries does not locate individual entities inherent in the nominal item. 'Much' is a partitive construct that "provides a means of imposing countability on non-count nouns" (Quirk, 1973, p. 69). As such, 'much' in 'much conflict' recategorizes 'conflict' as a count category. As

77

a parameterized determiner (Romero, 2015), 'much' is a syntactic indicator for the recategorization of non-count nouns.

In addition, extract (8) presents a similar recategorization in terms of using the quantifier 'much' associated with mass nouns. The nominal item which is affected by the recategorization process is 'conflict'. Generally, conflict connotes a phenomenon. However, in an actual sense, conflict can be itemised to signal the individual elements. In this perspective, 'conflict' as a count noun cannot take on the quantifier 'much' associated with mass nouns. As this is documented in the extract, there is a recategorization of the count noun 'conflict' to a mass noun. With extract (9), the identified nominal item involved in the recategorization process is 'pen drive'. 'Pen drive' is a compound count noun. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) highlight that count nouns take determiners. In extract (9), the highlighted nominal item does not take any determiner to show its countable nature. The zero realisation of a determiner on a count noun recategorizes it to a mass noun.

Finally, in extract (10), the identified nominal item involved in the recategorization of a count noun to a mass noun is 'document'. 'Document' is a count noun. Semantically, it denotes a book or paper that conveys information. The plural form of this count noun is 'documents'. In the extract, the grammatical item 'other' added to the 'document' brings in the recategorization. I find it that the 'other' as a determiner, which implies plurality, is used as a mass quantifier to classify the count noun 'document' in a mass sense. The alternative construction to reverse the recategorization is 'other documents'. The next kind of recategorization to be considered in the analysis is from dual nouns to mass nouns.

78

Recategorization of dual nouns to count nouns or collective nouns

Dual nouns are nouns that imply two entities. They refer to dual meanings. That is, when a noun appears in dual form, it is interpreted as referring to two entities. Illustrations are provided with extracts (11) to (14).

1. <ICE-GH:S1A-003#83:1:A> Which of course is not very strange because I've heard *a couple of people* saying things like there's nothing like marital rape in Ghana in the law.

2. <ICE-GH:W2B-031#109:1>When the power button is first pressed after the computer has been plugged into the main electricity supply, *a couple of lights* will flicker on.

3. <ICE-GH:W2B-036#105:1>Having dealt with *a couple of input devices*, we will now come to the output devices.
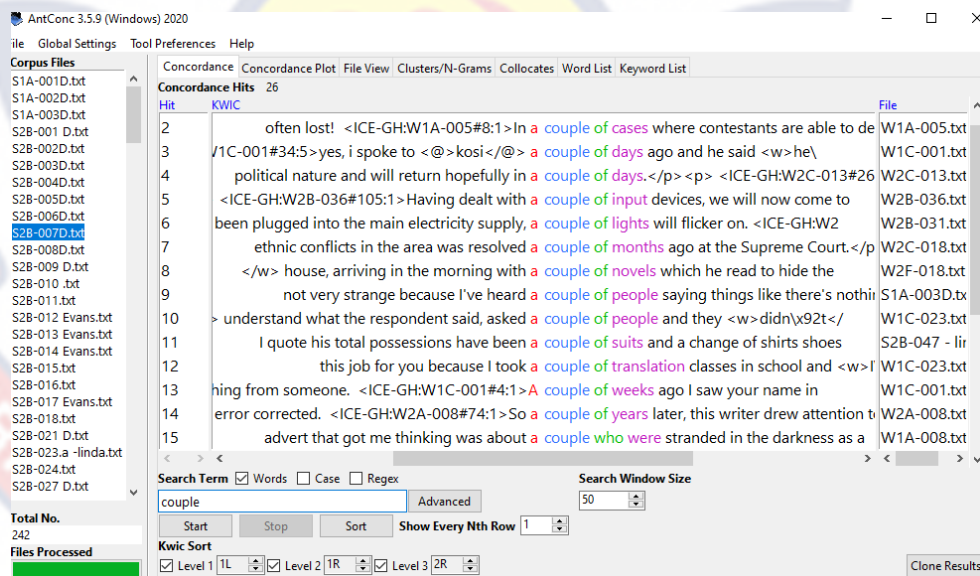

Figure 7: Frequency occurrence for recategorization from dual to mass or collective noun

Extracts (11) to (14) provide evidence of the recategorization of dual nouns to count nouns or mass nouns. From the corpus data, the use of couple had twenty-six (26) hits. No other dual noun was identified. In illustration (11), the dual

79

noun *couple* in the noun phrase structure recategorizes it as a mass noun. This is because 'people' is usually used implicitly for masses or plural for 'persons.' In an actual sense, the mass meaning of 'people' influences the dual meaning of 'couple' to reflect a larger populace. In this regard, a couple is recategorized from a dual noun to a mass noun. Example (12) presents the recategorization of the dual noun 'couple' to a count noun. This is a result of a semantic extension of the count noun 'lights.' 'Lights' denote countable meaning. The semantic implication of 'lights' does not limit the interpretation to dual meaning, which recategorizes the 'couple' in the noun phrase to count nouns beyond two entities.

Similarly, in extract (13), there is a recategorization of 'couple' to count nouns through the plural meaning of 'input devices' in the noun phrase. Notably, input devices are numerous; however, considering the context of use, the meaning implied is more than two entities. "Examples of input devices are keyboard, mouse, scanner, touch screen, joystick, and light pen". Generally, the use of 'couple' would imply the learning of only two existing input devices. Nonetheless, the dual meaning of 'couple' is extended to imply more than two, bringing recategorization. Regarding NPs, the noun functioning as head generally determines the number (Huddleston, 1984), herein as 'input devices. In extract (14), the noun phrase 'the couple' is used collectively as a single unit. The 'couple' in this extract denotes a married man and woman. We individuate the entities to get two individuals. However, the context of use is notionally influenced, which offers the notional agreement between the dual meaning and the singular lexical verb in the grammatical construction. Couples are used collectively to be a set in the singular whereby the attention is shifted towards

the individual members by the syntactic construction of discord. In this regard, the lexical factor of meaning outweighs the syntactic factor. In all, the nominal item identified as involved in the recategorization of dual nouns is 'couple.'

In (11) to (13), the dual noun 'couple' is used as a quantifier followed by a prepositional phrase. The phrase comprises the preposition and a noun phrase structure containing the count or mass noun. This quantifies the 'couple' as a mass or count noun. In a couple of people, the limit of the dual meaning in 'couple is extended to take a mass connotation. For a couple of input devices, the recategorization affects the dual noun to refer to discrete entities which can be counted. In extract (14), 'the couple' is a dual noun phrase recategorized as a singular noun that conditions agreement with the verb. As a syntactic indicator, the determiner 'the' pronounces the definiteness of the nominal item 'couple.'

In summary, this section examined the kinds of nominal recategorization in GhE and the nominal items involved in such recategorization. It was revealed that there are three kinds of nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English: mass to count noun, count to a mass noun, and dual noun to count or mass noun recategorization. The nominal items involved were identified and discussed. The next discussion focuses on research question two.

Research Question 2: Morphosyntactic Indicators of Recategorized Nominal items

The count and mass noun distinction in English is seemingly dichotomous (Muromatsu, 2003), and this dichotomy is reflected and can be examined from the semantic (i.e., the referents denoted by count and mass nouns) and morphosyntactic (i.e., grammatical characteristics of count and mass

nouns) perspectives. I focus on morphosyntactic characteristics. The syntactic indicators identified in the study are (1) inflection ('-s'), (2) modification with quantifiers (e.g., 'single,' 'many,' 'small,' 'little,' 'much,' 'other') and (3) 'partitive constructions. The most common syntactic indicators are quantifiers. Quantifiers are words that are used to characterize entities based on internal thresholds. Rett (2017) examines the semantics of 'many,' 'much,' 'few,' and 'little.' I consider their morphosyntactic properties in relation to their semantic implication to nominal items.

First, the section discusses plural morph '-s' inflection as a syntactic indicator in nominal recategorization. Blevins (2006) states that the morph that marks noun plurals, represented orthographically by -s, is the common grammatical means of marking plurality. Plunkett and Juola (1999) state that a single system models the production of plural forms of English nouns. Kim, Marcus, Prince, and Prasada (1991) observe that the meaning of the lexical word can influence the plural inflection of the noun. With every noun produced in a sentence, it can be observed that there is a countability or plural marking rule applied. Milton (2001) and Tsang (2017) note plural marking as a salient feature for nouns. A notable means for plural marking is through the '-s' inflection. While Rothstein (2010) finds the use of '-s' for plural marking conceptually and contextually motivated, Corbett (2010) found this inflection to be simply misleading given that it has other semantic realisations. Rothstein (2010) provides that the plural morph 's' can be suffixed to countable nouns but not uncountable ones. The extracts (15) to (21) illustrate the use of -s inflection for nominal re-categorisation.

15.   <ICE-GH:W2B-016#52:1>The Twi and Fante, Mole-Dagbon, Ga-Adangbe and Ewe *peoples* came to Ghana at this time.

16.   S2B-049.txt most of the recur *researches* were ethnographic where the researchers stay within the same community and observe learners and teachers in both monolingual and bilingual classrooms #00:19:06-6#

17.   <ICE-GH:W1A-004#80:5>These are the *evidences* that show that the audience of the text are women.

18.   <ICE-GH:W2B-011#114:2>Interest rates also affect the economic decisions of households and/or businesses, such as whether to put surplus money in the bank to invest it in new *equipment* for production.

Extracts (15) to (21) are evidence to discuss the plural morph '-s' inflection in nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English. In extracts (15), (16), (17), and (18), there is plural inflection marking on the italicised nouns: 'peoples,' 'researches,' 'evidences,' and 'equipment.' These nouns are mass or uncountable nouns that inherently have plural connotations; however, in the GhE corpus data, there are additions of '-s' to show countability. This recategorizes the nouns from mass nouns to countable nouns in Ghanaian English. According to Nkansah (2016), studies on GhE and its grammatical characteristics are frequently explained in plural morphemes with uncountable nouns. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) identified 'research' as a non-count noun; however, extract (117) has been recategorized as a count noun in Ghanaian English. This contradicts the assertion that the plural marker cannot be added to uncountable nouns. In extract (15), the co-text that precedes the recategorized nominal item can be explained as being instigated by overgeneralizing grammatical rules. Given that the constituent ethnic backgrounds are seen as

83

singular subjects, the agreement with the 'peoples' is semantically an unmarked plural noun. With extract (21), the recategorization is seen with the nominal item 'equipment.' Allan (1980), in testing textual environments for countability of nouns, revealed that 'equipment' had a 0% score meaning it is uncountable. It does not apply to non-native variety, in this case, GhE, where such countability conditions are rare.

Furthermore, quantifiers, partitive constructions (a couple of), and determiners count as syntactic indicators of nominal recategorization. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) identified six kinds of determiners with reference to the co-occurrence with mass and count nouns. These kinds differ from what the scholars termed closed-system premodifiers, encompassing predeterminers, quantifiers, and ordinals. Quirk (2010) presents cardinal numerals (e.g., one, two, there) and ordinal numerals (e.g., twice, thrice) to occur with plural count nouns and mass nouns to denote amount or number. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) exemplified 'many,' 'few,' and 'several' to concur with plural count nouns while 'much' and 'little' for mass nouns. These are the two closed systems of quantifiers. Gillion (1992) joined the debate by indicating that cardinal and quasi-cardinal numerals modify only count nouns. He observes that "'little' and 'much' modify mass nouns, never count nouns, whereas 'few' and 'many' modify count nouns, never mass nouns" (p. 597). With respect to mass nouns, there can be recategorization of the nominal items, provided that the item is located in a partitive construction. Instances are provided in the extracts below to illustrate the use of numerals and quantifiers in recategorization.

19.   <ICE-GH:W2C-008#5:1>FORMER FIRST Lady, Nana Konadu Agyemang Rawlings, who is also the president of the 31 December

84

<w>Women\x92s</w> Movement, has charged that because Ghanaians are not aware of the quantity of cash in the system, the Kufuor administration is bound to siphon *much of the new currencies* to their advantage in preparation for the 2008 general election.

20.   <ICE-GH:W2A-020#75:1>*Bits and pieces of* ideas or facts are given to them without necessarily looking at specific subject areas.

21.   <ICE-GH:W1B-002#72:5>Many of ~~the~~ my friends will come they are: <@>Grace</@>, <@>Clash</@>, <@>Alec</@>, <@>Everett</@> and many more and *some artist* will be there.

22.   <ICE-GH:W2D-008#30:1>b) Develops *an information* base on each of these programmes and functional areas.

From extract (22), the quantifier 'much' concurs in the partitive construction with the head count noun 'currencies.' This recategorizes the 'currency' entity as a count noun to a mass noun. In extract (23), two of-phrases conjoined in a partitive construction for dual meaning noun 'ideas.' According to Quirk and Greenbaum (1973), the expression of quantity and thus countability may be achieved through certain general partitive nouns such as 'piece,' 'bit,' and 'item.' In the case of the exemplified extract, the countability of the mass noun 'idea' has been recategorized, given that cardinal or numeral quantifiers do not precede the 'bits' and 'pieces' to highlight plurality. 'Ideas' grammatically would pass for a native language expression; however, the addition of 'bits' and 'pieces' alters the semantic implication of the noun. Also, with extract (24), the count noun headword 'artist' is recategorized as a mass noun because it is quantified with 'some.' Despite this, the headword is in the singular form. Finally, 'a piece of information is a recategorized nominal item in extract (25).

The use of the indefinite article 'an' restricts the inherent plurality of the headword, which gives a singular morphology. Nkansah (2016) presented that in GhE, there is the dominant use of indefinite articles 'a' or 'an' with mass nouns. Gillion (1992) also reveals that mass nouns with a singular morphology do not accept the indefinite article. Sey (1973) links this observation to textbooks' confusing nature of mass nouns.

In all, this research question sought to identify the morphosyntactic indicators that are associated with nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English. The analysis of the corpus data revealed that there are plural inflections, quantifiers, determiners, and partitive constructions associated with nominal recategorization in GhE.

Research Question 3: Factors Influencing Nominal Recategorization in Ghanaian English

Research Question 3 concerns the factors that influence nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English. He traces the origin of English in Ghana to the 16th century, following contact with the Europeans. After this contact, there have been several factors that have influenced the presence of English in Ghana. The nativization of the English language in Ghana has been influenced by socio-economic and political factors. The term 'uneducated' or 'educated' Ghanaian English' has been used in the literature (e.g., Huber, 1999; Ngula, 2014) to reflect the socio-economic influence on Ghanaian English as a variety of world Englishes. Drawing on the corpus data, the study presents some factors that influence nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English. This is done by considering the mode of discourse of texts in the corpus (i.e., written or spoken).

86

The first observation from the corpus is that most of the recategorization were in the written register. The term register is defined here as a variety of language according to specific contexts, considering communicative purposes (Biber & Conrad, 2001). Most nominal recategorized items were associated with textbooks, academic prose, news reports, demonstrations, and editorials. Relatively, nominal recategorization was highly characteristic of the written register. The AntConc corpus analysis toolkit version 3.5.8 after running the concordance showed most of the recategorised linguistic items were in the editorials which is a written register. Editorials occupy one of the most accessible platforms, especially to educated members of society (Frimpong, 2015). Thus, the finding here reveals the salience of Ghanaian English forms among the educated Ghanaians. Arguably, it can be claimed that GhE is developing a reclassification in word classes. For instance, 'single food,' 'many software,' and 'your information found in the data were all in the written component of the ICE-Ghana. Such recategorizations were also found in educational registers.

Thus, the recategorization of nouns, such as the addition of plural inflections to originally mass nouns, is an emerging distinctive linguistic characteristic of Ghanaian English. Dako (2003) accounted for Ghanaianisms in English mainly through affixations evident in the analysis. However, Nimako (2008) found such forms to be different from the native variety. It is important to remark that the contextual occurrence of the data was in educated settings. This is connected to language use (Nkansah, 2016).

The second factor suggested by the corpus of GhE reveals that an influence of nominal recategorization is the overextension of grammatical rules to certain

nominal items. Since there is no continuous relationship between count and non-count nouns, Sey (1973) attributed this occurrence to the ambiguous and fragmentary character of the presentation of uncountable nouns in textbooks. It is also essential for the reclassification to consider the ambiguity surrounding the distinction between count and mass nouns (Sey, 1973). According to Nkansah (2016), the literature on GhE shows that its grammatical characteristics are typically defined using plural morphemes with uncountable nouns and articles. Huber (2012) also highlighted the use of plural marking on nouns with mass nature and provided situations of use based on linguistic complexity, which corresponds to the present study.
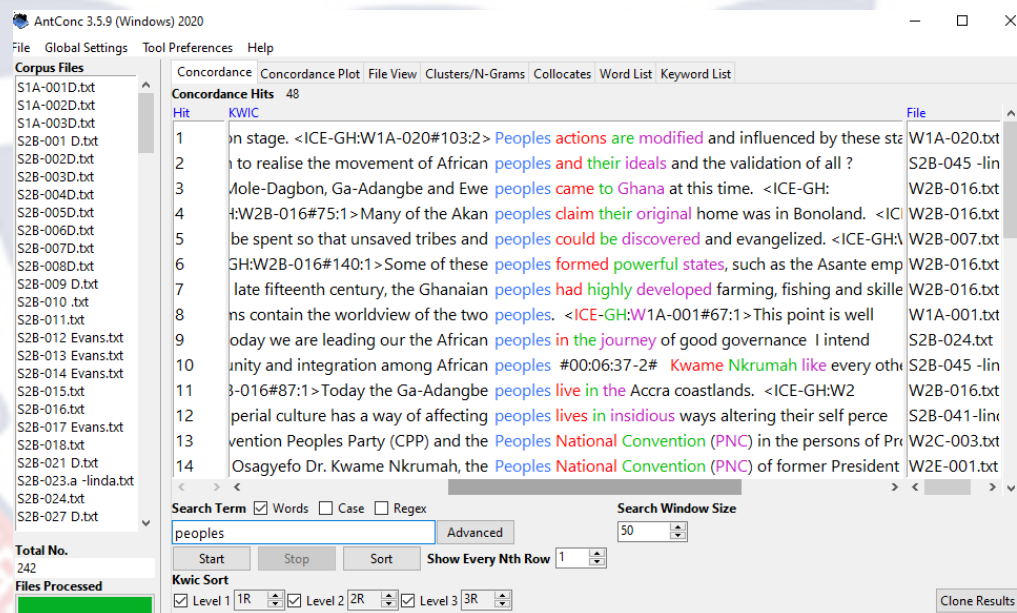
Figure 8: Concordance for unmarked plural item 'people'

In Figure 8, the recategorization of the nominal item 'people' is pertinent across spoken and written corpus data. Evidently, the process is influenced by political, socio-economic, and cultural factors. The cultural factors accounting for this recategorization spans from the transfer of the local language plural marking to the English language. Politically, the plural marking is used to show a collective sense of belonging. A relevant grammatical characteristic for this

recategorization is the absence of punctuation where necessary. Examples are provided in 26-29.

23.   <ICE-GH:W2B-016#75:1>Many of the Akan peoples claim their original home was in Bonoland.

24.   <ICE-GH:W2B-016#140:1>Some of these peoples formed powerful states, such as the Asante empire.

25.   <ICE-GH:W1A-020#103:2>Peoples actions are modified and influenced by these stages.

26.   <ICE-GH:W2C-003#90:6>The question remains whether there is indeed someone among the Candidates presented by the various political parties, the National Democratic Congress (NDC), New Patriotic Party (NPP), Convention Peoples Party (CPP), and the Peoples National Convention (PNC)…

From the above extracts, it is evident that there is recategorization of the unmarked plural mass noun 'people' to count nouns. This has been identified particularly in political domains where political leaders use "peoples" to show a kind of association and unity in diversity.

Furthermore, the study reveals that nominal recategorization in GhE is influenced by formality and acceptability. As it has been found that such recategorization is common in written data, the study confirms that formal contexts tend to trigger nominal recategorization.

Figure 9: Concordance for 'waters' on intelligibility factors

With intelligibility in Ghanaian English, popular usage does not correspond to its acceptance. However, given the textual context of use (written), it creates formality for the register. Generally, 'water' is a mass noun that does not take plural inflections. For instance, in the use of 'stagnant waters' in Hit 2, the study can confirm possible recategorization. Given the concordance for the search term, it is confirmed that intelligibility exists between people based on understanding given the situational characteristics rather than between varieties of English. As indicated in the data, it can be deduced that persons involved in the written discourse will understand the semanticity of the nominal item following the words it occurs with.

Social stigma and status both have an impact on acceptability. Socially stigmatised language traits are not tolerated, whereas socially prestigious language traits connected to high-status speakers are. In light of this, it is revealed that the linguistic, cultural, and personality (Chang, 2008) factors influence the nominal recategorization. These examples do not align with what Sey (1973) and Dako (2003) explain in their works. Relevantly, Ghanaian

90

English has been identified to be preserved through homes (Agyekum, 2009; Anderson & Ansah, 2015); however, the data reflects the permeability rate of this variety to educational contexts.

In addition, the nominal recategorizations are outrightly affected by the negative attitude expressed towards the Ghanaian variety of English. Anderson (2009) considers this a factor that has generated error analysis on such productions in the variety. These unfavourable beliefs have contributed to the low social acceptance of GhE among academics and speakers. Given the contextual texts provided, the study is supported by the claim of Anderson (2009) that the difference between an error and an innovation in Ghanaian English has to be formalized. She further asserts the need for innovativeness in relation to grammar, local acceptability, and common understanding among educated Ghanaians. This confirms the socio-economic influence or sociolinguistic background of the nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English.

Finally, 'Ghanaianism' tend to be a factor in the influence of nominal recategorization on words such as 'peoples' and 'water' where there are plural forms in Akan. Following the co-existence of English with more than fifty Ghanaian languages (Ngula & Nartey, 2014), users of Ghanaian English tend to transfer some linguistic features of the local language to English. Boadi (1997) revealed the variations in Ghanaian English and 'Ghanaianisms' given the different levels of professional qualification and educational background. This provides a sociolinguistic factor as an influence for nominal recategorization. In any case, Sarfo-Adu (2007) and Ngula (2014) hinted the role of Ghanaian languages, mainly the Akan, on the GhE. Such sociolinguistic features shape

the lexical composition of GhE. Nkansah (2016) remarked that GhE has a few characteristics unique to the English speaker from Ghana. The L1 of Ghanaians has a significant influence on their characteristics.

Conclusion

This chapter has analysed and discussed the data in line the research questions as stated in Chapter 1 of the study. The analysis of the study was carried out based on the research questions. It was revealed that there are three main kinds of nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English, and such recategorizations are associated with some morphosyntactic indicators. Some factors were revealed to be influential in causing nominal recategorization.

92
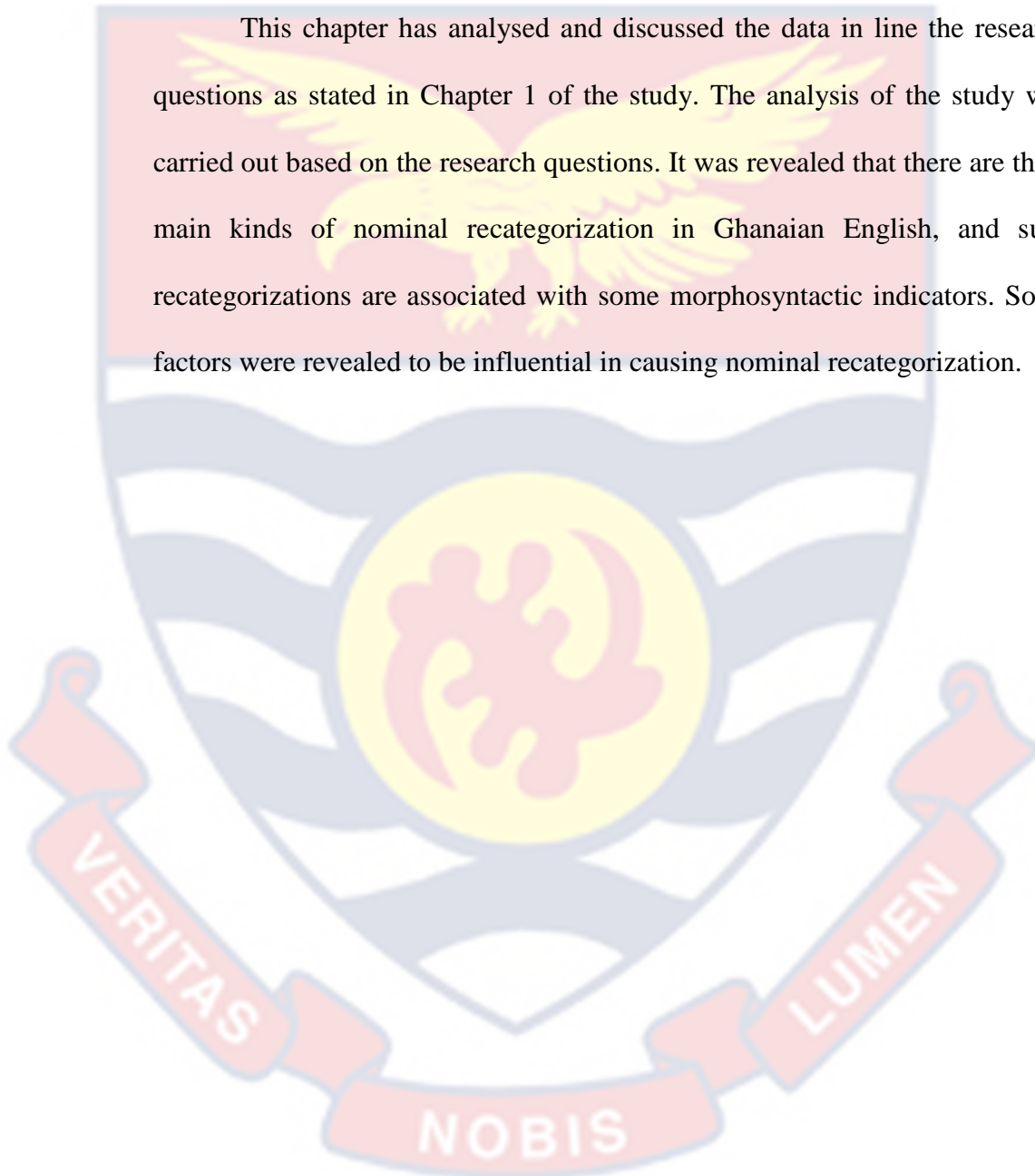
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, IMPLICATION AND RECOMMENDATION

Introduction

This chapter concludes the study. The first section provides the summary of the study spanning from the background of the study to the methodology adopted for the study. The next part presents the study's key findings concerning the research questions. I discuss the implications of the study in this chapter as well. Finally, recommendations for further research are provided.

Summary of the Study

The study examined nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English. This followed the dearth of literature and added to empirical evidence of GhE. The study was guided by three research questions: (1) what are the kinds of nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English, and what nominal items are involved in each kind of nominal recategorization, (2) what morphosyntactic indicators show that particular nominal items are recategorized, and (3) what factors influence nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English. The study used a corpus-based approach to analyse data from ICE-Ghana. The study used two main theories: Kachru's (1982, 1992) three concentric circles and Schneider's (2003, 2007) language dynamic model. These were supported by previous grammatical studies on Ghanaian English (Huber, 2020, 2012; Ansah, 2012, Sarfo-Adu, 2007).

Key Findings

The study was guided by three research questions: (1) what are the kinds of nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English, and what nominal items are involved in each kind of nominal recategorization, (2) what morphosyntactic

indicators show that particular nominal items are recategorized, and (3) what factors influence nominal recategorization in Ghanaian English.

Kinds of Nominal Recategorization and Nominal Items Involved

The nominal recategorization process was categorized into three main processes: mass to count nouns, count to mass nouns, and dual nouns to count or mass nouns. The corpus analysis revealed that mass nouns are usually recategorized given that they are elastic (Chierchia, 2010). Mass nouns are inherently plural; the recategorization of mass nouns hinged on plural inflections and particular quantifiers with mass nouns. Notable examples include 'peoples,' 'food,' 'many software,' and 'information.'

Regarding the recategorization of count nouns to mass nouns, similar observations were made as well. The discreteness of the count nouns was recategorized through the addition and omission of some linguistic items. There were semantic implications reflected in the recategorized nominal group. Using some linguistic items such as 'little' restricted the countability of counted nouns. This was supported by the study of Wisniewski et al. (2003) and Quirk and Greenbaum (1973). Finally, there was recategorization of dual nouns to mass and count nouns. Dual nouns, which indicate two entities, were used in contexts that showed that they were recategorized. This is particularly related to the noun phrase a couple. Such recategorization relates to the semantic extension of dual meanings to count and mass nouns. In some situations, such as a couple of people, the dual meaning of 'couple' affects the plural nature of the noun 'people.' This is because the couple determines the number feature of the noun phrase (Huddleston, 1984).

Morphosyntactic Indicators of Particular Recategorized Nominal Items

The primary goal of this inquiry was to identify morphosyntactic or grammatical characteristics realised in the process of nominal recategorization. The analysis revealed that the most frequent morphosyntactic indicators in nominal recategorized items were plural inflection (-s), quantifiers and determiners, numerals and partitive constructions. Amongst these, the morph '-s' was frequent. While plural marking is common in nouns (Tsang, 2017), it was found that the use of the marker '-s' was contextually modelled in its usage. There were cases where it was added to mass nouns (such as *informations* and *equipments*). This was also noted by Nkansah (2016), who described that plural morphemes are usually used with mass nouns in GhE.

Additionally, the partitive construction and quantifiers were evident as indicators in nominal recategorization. Examples of such indicators include *single, half, one, few, little, several* and *many*. These indicators were used contextually to serve the purpose of the communication. 'Little' is used to modify mass nouns (Gillion, 1992), as indicated in the recategorization of count nouns to mass nouns. Another significant finding corroborates Nkansah's (2016) study. This relates to the frequent use of articles in association with mass nouns. These findings are important to characterizing GhE and other world varieties of English.

Factors Influencing Nominal Recategorization in Ghanaian English

This research question is particularly interesting. This is because it draws strongly on the existing scholarship (Brato, 2020; Nkansah, 2016; Ngula, 2014) on Ghanaian English. The analysis of this research question aims to identify specific registers or socio-economic contexts that are characterised by

95

nominal recategorization. It was found that most of the recategorization was in written registers (such as demonstrations, textbooks, and editorials). The study found that editorials, as a written register, had more recategorized nouns. This was associated with educated Ghanaians. This means that the various affixations in GhE (Dako, 2003) resulting in the recategorization are contextually conditioned among educated Ghanaians.

Again, the study found that the nominal recategorization resulted from the generalization of grammatical rules in the noun system. This affects the differentiation between count, mass, and dual nouns. Additionally, formality factored into the process of recategorization. This follows that educated Ghanaians who engaged in written discourse, mainly editorials as indicated, understand the lexical and semantic implications of the recategorized nouns. Finally, the analysis revealed that Ghanaian English has transcended from home to educational contexts, supported by Afful (2006) and Ngula (2015). However, this finding meets the negative attitude expressed towards GhE, affecting its acceptability. This reveals that GhE is at the second stage Schneider's model in terms of grammar but is generally positioned at the endonormative stabilization stage. As the nominal recategorizations were evidenced in written discourses, the study attributed such processes to the co-existence of English with the various Ghanaian languages such as Akan, Ga, and Dagaare.

Implications of the Study

Deducing the outcome, the study presents some implications. First, the study has implications for the theories used. While Schneider's Dynamic Model is applicable in post-colonial and non-native contexts, educated Ghanaians do not expect a required expression at the stages of the model. This relates to the

negative attitudes towards the GhE variety, which affects its acceptability. This restricts the generalization of the model to all post-colonial contexts. For Kachru's Three Concentric Circle Model, GhE is a developed variety that is distinct. That is, it is not historically associated with the native variety forms, for example, *information*. Some linguistic features do not conform to the homogeneity of grammatical systems. Also, as nominal recategorization was common among educated Ghanaians, Kachru's models are deficient to account for the users and their identity (Jenkins, 2003).

Again, as the study revealed the nominal recategorization to be frequent in written discourse, it reflects the developments in GhE over the past years. When this becomes constant, it can lead to the standardization of Ghanaian English. Nkansah (2016) provided such implications beginning at the lexical level. The study adds that when Ghanaian English is standardized, it will lead to the general acceptance of the variety. This will eradicate the negative attitudes some Ghanaians express towards the variety.

Finally, the study implies that systematic measures should be levelled toward developing GhE. This will add to its recognition globally. Specifically, the development of the GhE will facilitate further explorations into the socio-cultural factors realised in the variety. Given that the nominal recategorization was partly accounted for through the overgeneralization of grammatical rules, some distinctions can be set in the development stages of the variety.

Recommendations for Further Research

The following suggestions for further research are offered based on the findings. First, the study recommends that a further investigation be made to explore the attitudes expressed towards using the recategorized nouns identified

97

in the study. This will ascertain that the negative attitudes are not generalizable to all linguistic items in GhE.

Second, the study recommends that a similar investigation can be done by looking at other parts of speech such as verbs. Such exploration will add to the scholarship on GhE. This will foreground the acceptability of the GhE variety of World Englishes.

Third, while this study is replicable, a different study can primarily focus on other sociolinguistic factors such as age, occupation, gender and cultural background that characterize the use of certain recategorized forms. Such a study can provide empirical evidence to specify the factors related to nominal recategorization.

Finally, this study used a corpus-based approach to facilitate the analysis. Further studies can use quantitative approaches to provide statistical data concerning recategorizations in GhE. The focus of such investigation can consider the frequency of occurrence of nouns recategorized through the plural inflection.

Chapter Summary

This chapter closed the entire study. It focused on the study summary from Chapter One to Chapter Three, summarized the key findings from the analysis in Chapter Four, and gave implications. The findings made some recommendations for further studies to contribute to the scholarship on GhE.

98

REFERENCES

Achebe, C. (1975). The novelist as teacher. *Morning yet on creation day*, 42-45.

Adika, G. S. K. (2012). English in Ghana: Growth, tensions, and trends. *International Journal of Language, Translation and Intercultural Communication*, 1(1), 151-166.

Adjaye, S. (2005). *Ghanaian English pronunciation*. London: Edwin Mellen.

Afful, J. B. A. (2006). Address terms among university students in Ghana: A case study. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, *6*(1), 76-91.

Agyekum, K. (2009). Language shift: A case study of Ghana. *Sociolinguistic Studies*, *3*(3), 381-403.

Ahulu, S. (1994). How Ghanaian is Ghanaian English? *English Today*, 10(2), 25-29.

Allan, K. (1980). Nouns and countability. *Language*, 541-567.

Altenberg, E. P., & Vago, R. M. (2010). *English grammar: Understanding the basics*. Cambridge Cambridge University Press.

and the global in an emerging postcolonial variety. Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of California, Davis.

Anderson, J. A. (2009). Codifying Ghanaian English: Problems and prospects. In T. Hoffmann & L. Siebers (Eds.), *World Englishes-Problems, properties and prospects* (pp.19-36). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Anderson, J. A., & Ansah, G. N. (2015). A sociolinguistic mosaic of West Africa: Challenges and prospects. In *Globalising sociolinguistics* (pp. 74-85). London: Routledge.

Baily, R. W., & Görlach, M. ` (1982). English as a world language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Baker, P., Gabrielatos, C., Khosravinik, M., Krzyżanowski, M., McEnery, T., & Wodak, R. (2008). A useful methodological synergy? Combining critical discourse analysis and corpus linguistics to examine discourses of refugees and asylum seekers in the UK press. *Discourse & society*, *19*(3), 273-306.

Bamgbose, A. (1971). The English language in Nigeria. *The English language in West Africa.* London: Longman, *35*, 48-64.

Bamiro, E. O. (1997). Lexical innovation in Ghanaian English: Some examples from recent fiction. *American Speech*, *72*(1), 105-112.

Banjo, A. (1971). Towards a definition of standard Nigerian spoken English. In *Actes du 8th Congress de la Societe Linguiste de l'Afrique Occidentale* (pp. 165-175).

Barner, D., & Snedeker, J. (2005). Quantity judgments and individuation: Evidence that mass nouns count. *Cognition*, *97*(1), 41-66.

Berns, M. (2009). English as lingua franca and English in Europe. *World Englishes*, *28*(2), 192-199.

Biber, D., & Conrad, S. (2001). Register variation: A corpus approach. In D. Tannen, H. E. Hamilton & D. Schiffrin (Eds.), *The handbook of discourse analysis*, (pp 175-196). New Jersey: Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., Finegan, E., & Quirk, R. (1999). *Longman grammar of spoken and written English* (2). London: Longman.

Biermeier, T. (2010). Word-formation in New Englishes–A corpus-based analysis. *English and American Studies in German*,.29(1):143-146

Blevins, J. P. (2006). Word-based morphology. *Journal of Linguistics*, *42*(3), 531-573.

Boadi, L. A. (1997). Education and the role of English in Ghana. In J. Spencer (ed.). *The English Language in West Africa* (pp. 49-65). London: Longman Group.

Boadi, L. K. A. (1994). *Linguistic barriers to communication in the modern World: The JB Danquah Memorial Lectures Twenty-seventh Series*. Ghana Academy of Arts and Sciences.

Bobda, A. S. (2000). The uniqueness of Ghanaian English pronunciation in West Africa. *Studies in the Linguistic Sciences*, *30*(2), 23-45.

Bogdan, R. & Biklen, S. (2007). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theories and method*s. (5th e.d.) Boston. MA: Pearson Education Inc.

Bolívar, A. (1996). The discourse of British newspaper editorials. *LABSA Journal*, *1*(1), 75-79.

Bolton, K. (2006). *Chinese Englishes: A sociolinguistic history*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bolton, K., & Kachru, B. B. (Eds). (2006). *World Englishes: Critical concepts in linguistics* (Vol. 2). London: Routledge.

Bonnici, L. M. (2010). Variation in Maltese English: The interplay of the local and the global in emerging postcolonial variety. Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of California.

Brato, T. (2018). 'Outdooring' the historical corpus of english in Ghana: Insights from the compilation of a historical corpus of New English. *English Today*, *34*(2), 25-34.

Brato, T. (2019). The historical corpus of English in Ghana (HiCE Ghana). *Corpus Linguistics and African Englishes*, *88*, 119-131.

Brato, T. (2020). Noun phrase complexity in Ghanaian English. *World Englishes*, *39*(3), 377-393.

Brinton, L. J. (2010). *Pragmatic markers in English: Grammaticalization and discourse functions*. Walter de Gruyter.

Brunner, T. (2014). Structural nativization, typology and complexity: Noun phrase structures in British, Kenyan and Singaporean English. *English Language & Linguistics*, *18*(1), 23-48.

Brunner, T. (2017). 5. The English NP—structure and variation. In *Simplicity and typological effects in the emergence of New Englishes* (pp. 108-148). Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.

Bruthiaux, P. (2003). Squaring the circles: Issues in modeling English worldwide. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *13*(2), 159-178.

Buschfeld, S. (2013). *English in Cyprus or Cyprus English*. *An empirical investigation of variety status*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Butler, C. S., Downing, R. H., & Lavid, J. (2007). Global and local attention in task-oriented conversation: An empirical investigation. *Functional Perspectives on Grammar and Discourse*, 11(4) 313-326.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2006). The place of world Englishes in composition: Pluralization continued. In M. Powell (Ed.), *College Composition and Communication*, 586-619.

Chierchia, G. (1998). Plurality of mass nouns and the notion of "semantic parameter". In S. Rothstein (Ed.), *Events and grammar*, 53-103.

Chierchia, G. (2010). Mass nouns, vagueness and semantic variation. *Synthese*, *174*(1), 99-149.

Clackson, J. (2007). *Indo-European linguistics: An introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Collins, P. (2011). Variable agreement in the existential-there construction in Philippine English. *Studies of Philippine English: Exploring the Philippine component of the International Corpus of English*, 175-186.

Collins, P. (2012). Singular agreement in there-existentials: An intervarietal corpus-based study. *English World-Wide*, *33*(1), 53-68.

Corbett, G. G. (2010). Canonical derivational morphology. *Word Structure*, *3*(2), 141-155.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Crystal, D. (2008). Towards a philosophy of language management. *Latin American Journal of Content & Language Integrated Learning*, *1*(1), 43-53.

Dako, K. (2002). Code-switching and lexical borrowing: Which is what in Ghanaian English? *English Today*, *18*(3), 48-54.

Dako, K. (2003). Ghanaianisms: A glossary. Accra: Ghana Universities Press.

Dako, K., & Yitah, H. (2012). Pidgin, 'broken' English and Othering in Ghanaian literature. *Legon Journal of the Humanities*, *1*, 202-230.

Davies, A. (2009). Assessing world Englishes. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *29*, 80-89.

Di Garbo, F. (2020). Plural marking on noun-associated forms. *STUF-Language Typology and Universals*, *73*(3), 363-401.

Doade, D. L. (2001). *Elements of Ghanaian English usage in the writings of selected Ghanaian Journalists*. Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Ghana.

Evans, S. (2016). *The English language in Hong Kong*. London: Palgrave.

Fraenkel, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (2009). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (7th Edn.). New York: McGraw-Hill Companies.

Frimpong, G. K. (2015). *A Comparative Register Analysis of Editorials from Ghanaian and British Newspapers*, Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Ghana.

Gaertner, L., Sedikides, C., & Chang, K. (2008). On pancultural self-enhancement: Well-adjusted Taiwanese self-enhance on personally valued traits. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *39*(4), 463-477.

Ghomeshi, J. (2003). Plural marking, indefiniteness, and the noun phrase. *Studia Linguistica*, *57*(2), 47-74.

Gillon, B. S. (1992). Towards a common semantics for English count and mass nouns. *Linguistics and Philosophy*, *15*(6), 597-639.

Gisborne, N. (2000). Relative clauses in Hong Kong English. *World Englishes*, *19*(3), 357-371.

Halliday, M. A. (2014). *Corpus studies and probabilistic grammar*. London: Routledge.

Hoffmann, T. (2019). *English comparative correlatives: Diachronic and synchronic variation at the lexicon-syntax interface*. Cambridge University Press.

Halmari, H. (2004). Developing advanced literacy in first and second languages: Meaning with power. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 26(3), 476-477.

Honna, N. (2016). *English as a multicultural language in Asia and its pedagogical implications*: A case study of Japan's ELT. *Intercultural Communication Studies*, 25(1), 66-77.

Huber, M. (1999). *Ghanaian Pidgin English in its West African context: A sociohistorical and structural analysis* (Vol. 24). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Huber, M. (2012). Syntactic and variational complexity in British and Ghanaian English: Relative clauses formation in the written parts of the International Corpus of English. In B. Kortmann & B. Szmrecsanyi (Eds.), *Linguistic complexity: Second language acquisition, indigenization, contact,* 218-242.

Huber, M., & Brato, T. (2008). *The emergence of social varieties in Ghanaian English*. Justus-Liebig: Universität Giessen.

Huddleston, R. (1984). *Introduction to the grammar of English*. Cambridge University Press.

Huddleston, R., & Pullum, G. K. (2002). Adjectives and adverbs. *The Cambridge grammar of the English language*, 525-595.

Hudson-Ettle, D., & Nilsson, T. (2002). Orality and noun phrase structure in registers of British and Kenya English. *ICAME Journal*, *26*, 33-62.

Hundt, M. (2006). The committee has/have decided... On concord patterns with collective nouns in inner-and outer-circle varieties of English. *Journal of English Linguistics*, *34*(3), 206-232.

Hyland, K. (2009). *Academic discourse: English in a global context*. New York: A&C Black.

Jenkins, J. (2003). *World Englishes: A resource book for students*. New York: Psychology Press.

Joseph, J. E. (2016). Historical perspectives on language and identity. In *the Routledge handbook of language and identity*, (pp. 45-59). Abington: Routledge.

Jucker, A. H. (1993). The discourse marker "well": A relevance-theoretical account. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *19*(5), 435-452.

Kachru, B. B. (1981). The pragmatics of non-native varieties of English. In *English for cross-cultural communication* (pp. 15-39). London: Palgrave Macmillan UK.

Kachru, B. B. (1982). The bilingual's linguistic repertoire. In B. Hartford, A. Valdman & C.R. Foster (Eds.), *Issues in international bilingual education*, 25-52

Kachru, B. B. (1985). The bilinguals' creativity. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *6*, 20-33.

Kachru, B. B. (1986). *The alchemy of English: The spread, functions, and models of non-native Englishes*. Illinois: University of Illinois Press.

Kachru, B. B. (1991). Liberation linguistics and the Quirk concern. *English Today*, *7*(1), 3-13.

Kachru, B. B. (1992). World Englishes: Approaches, issues and resources. *Language Teaching*, *25*(1), 1-14.

Kachru, B. B. (1996). World Englishes: Agony and ecstasy. *Journal of Aesthetic Education*, *30*(2), 135-155.

Kachru, B. B. (2005). *Asian Englishes: Beyond the canon* (Vol. 1). Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.

Kachru, Y. (1995). Contrastive rhetoric in world Englishes. *English Today*, *11*(1), 21-31.

Kachru, Y., & Smith, L. E. (2008). *Cultures, contexts, and world Englishes*. London: Routledge.

Kachru, Y., & Smith, L. E. (2009). The Karmic cycle of world Englishes: Some futuristic constructs. *World Englishes*, *28*(1), 1-14.

Katzner, K., & Miller, K. (2002). *The languages of the world*. London: Routledge.

Kennedy, G. (2014). *An introduction to corpus linguistics*. London: Routledge.

Kim, J. J., Marcus, G. F., Pinker, S., Hollander, M., & Coppola, M. (1991). Sensitivity of children's inflection to grammatical structure. *Journal of Child Language*, *21*(1), 173-209.

Köylü, Y. (2019). Mass/Count Noun distinction in L2 English. In *Selected Proceedings of the 2017 Second Language Research Forum*, 104-116.

Krishnamurthy, R., & Teubert, W. (2007). *Corpus linguistics*. London: Routledge.

Leech, G. N. (1992). 100 million words of English: The British National Corpus

(BNC). 어학연구, *28*(1), 1-13.

Loewenberg, P. (1984). *History of bourgeois perception*. Chicago: University

of Chicago Press.

Lüdeling, A., & Kytö, M. (2008). *Corpus linguistics: An international

handbook*, (Vol.1). Walter de Gruyter.

Magura, B. J. (1985). Southern African Black English. *World Englishes*, *4*(2),

251-256.

Mahama, E. S. (2012). Ghanaian English and its implications for academic

writing: A case study of English on the Navrongo Campus of University

for Development Studies, Ghana'. *Research on Humanities and Social

Sciences*, *2*(11), 56-63.

Martin, J. R. (2014). Evolving systemic functional linguistics: Beyond the

clause. *Functional Linguistics*, *1*(1), 1-24.

Martínez, I. M. P. (2012). The quotative system in Spanish and English youth

talk. A contrastive corpus-based study. *Miscelánea: A Journal of

English and American Studies*, (49), 95-114.

McArthur, T. (2002). *The Oxford guide to world English*. Oxford: Oxford

University Press.

McArthur, T. (2003). World English, Euro-English, Nordic English? *English

Today*, *19*(1), 54-58.

McEnery, T., & Hardie, A. (2013). The history of corpus linguistics. *The Oxford

handbook of the history of linguistics*, 727-745.

McEnery, T., McEnery, A., Xiao, R., & Tono, Y. (2006). *Corpus-based

language studies: An advanced resource book*. Taylor & Francis.

Mesthrie, R. (2021). Colony, post-colony and world Englishes in the South African context. *World Englishes*, *40*(1), 12-23.

Mesthrie, R., & Bhatt, R. M. (2008). *World Englishes: The study of new linguistic varieties*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Meyer, C. F. (2002). *English corpus linguistics: An introduction. Studies in English Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Milton, J. 2001. *Elements of a written interlanguage: A computational and corpus-based study of institutional influences on the acquisition of English by Hong Kong Chinese students*. Language Centre Research Reports. Available at http://hdl.handle.net/1783.1/1055.

Ministry of Education, Ghana. (2004). White paper on the report of the education reform review committee. Accra: Government of Ghana.

Mollin, S. (2006). English as a Lingua Franca: A new variety in the new Expanding Circle? *Nordic Journal of English Studies*, *5*(2), 41-57.

Laycock, H. (2005). Mass nouns, count nouns and non-count nouns. In A. Barber (Ed.), *Encyclopaedia of language and linguistics.* Elsevier.

Mufwene, S. S. (2001). *The ecology of language evolution*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mukherjee, J., & Gries, S. T. (2009). Collostructional nativisation in New Englishes: Verb-construction associations in the International Corpus of English. *English World-Wide*, *30*(1), 27-51.

Nartey, M., & Mwinlaaru, I. N. (2019). Towards a decade of synergising corpus linguistics and critical discourse analysis: A meta-analysis *Corpora*, *14*(2), 203-235.

Nelson, C. L., Proshina, Z. G., & Davis, D. R. (2020). *The handbook of world Englishes*. (2nd ed.) John Wiley & Sons.

Nemser, W. (1971). *Approximative systems of foreign language learners.* Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C.

Ngula, R. S. & Nartey, M. (2014). Language corpora: The case for Ghanaian English. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature, 20*(3), 79-92.

Ngula, R. S. & Nartey, M. (2016). Language corpora: The case for Ghanaian English. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature*, *5*(8).

Ngula, R. S. (2011). Ghanaian English: Spelling Pronunciation in Focus. *Language in India*, *11*(2), 256-278.

Ngula, R. S. (2012). Owning the other tongue: Evidence from the semantics of modal verbs in Ghanaian English.In D. F. Edu-Buandoh & A. B. Appartaim (Eds.), *Between language and literature: A festschrift for Professor Kofi Edu Yankson* (pp. 39-55). Cape Coast: University Printing Press.

Ngula, R. S. (2014). Hybridized lexical innovations in Ghanaian English. *Nordic Journal of African Studies*, *23*(3), 21-21.

Ngula, R. S. (2015). *Epistemic modality in social science research articles written by Ghanaian authors: A corpus-based study of disciplinary and native vs. non-native variations*, Doctoral dissertation, Lancaster University.

Nimako, A. (2008). *Mind your language: Educated Ghanaian English*. Tema: Ronna Publishers.

Nkansah, N. B. (2016). *Acceptability of lexico-grammatical features of Ghanaian English*, Unpublished master's dissertation, University of Cape Coast.

Nortier, J. (1990). Dutch and Moroccan Arabic in contact: code switching among Moroccans in the Netherlands. Amsterdam: University of Amsterdam.

Nunan, D. & Carter, R. (2001). The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Owusu-Ansah, L. K. (1992). *Variation according to context in a second language: A study into the effects of formality on the English used by Ghanaian university students*, Doctoral dissertation, University of Edinburgh.

Owusu-Ansah, L. K. (1994). Modality in Ghanaian and American personal letters. *World Englishes*, *13*(3), 341-349.

Owusu-Ansah, L. K. (2012). Three proofs of the existence of Ghanaian English. In D. F. Edu-Buandoh & A. B. Appartaim (Eds.), *Between Language and Literature: A Festschrift for Professor Kofi Edu Yankson*, pp.1-19. Cape Coast: University Printing Press.

Passer, M. B. (2016). *The typology and diachrony of nominal classification*. Netherland: Netherlands Graduate School of Linguistics.

Payne, T. E. (1997). *Describing morphosyntax: A guide for field linguists*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Pearson, P. D. (2004). The reading wars. *Educational Policy*, *18*(1), 216-252.

Pelletier, F. J., & Schubert, L. K. (2003). Mass expressions. *Handbook of philosophical logic*, 249-335.

Platt, J. T., & Weber, H. (1980). *English in Singapore and Malaysia: Status, features, functions*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Platt, J. T., Weber, H., & Ho, M. L. (1984). *The New Englishes*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Plunkett, K., & Juola, P. (1999). A connectionist model of English past tense and plural morphology. *Cognitive Science*, *23*(4), 463-490.

Power, C. (2005). *Not the Queen's English*. Newsweek. Retrieved from https//www.newsweek.com/not-queens-english-114797.

Pride, J. B. (1982). *New Englishes*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Pullum, G. K. (1994). The morpholexical nature of English to-contraction. *Language*, 79-102.

Pung, C. S. (2009). *Beyond the Three Circles: A new model for world Englishes,* master's dissertation, National University of Singapore.

Quarcoo, E. (1994). The English language as a modern Ghanaian artifact. *Journal of Black Studies*, *24*(3), 329-343.

Quirk, R. (2010). *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*. Pearson Education India.

Quirk, R., & Greenbaum, L. (1982). *A university grammar of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Quirk, R., & Greenbaum, S. (1973). *A concise grammar of contemporary English*. Harcourt: Harcourt School.

Radford, A. (2004). *English syntax: An introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rajadurai, J. (2005). Revisiting the concentric circles: Conceptual and sociolinguistic considerations. *Asian EFL Journal*, *7*(4), 111-130.

Rett, J. (2017). The semantics of attitude markers and other illocutionary content. *Handout for the 6th Cornell Workshop on Linguistics and Philosophy* (pp. 1-10). Michigan: Michigan University Press.

Riley, P. (2007). *Language, culture and identity: An ethnolinguistic perspective*. New York: A&C Black.

Robbins, L. M. (2007). *Grammar and style at your fingertips*. New York: Penguin.

Rothstein, S. (2010). Counting and the mass/count distinction. *Journal of Semantics*, *27*(3), 343-397.

Rushidi, J., & Vela, V. (2016). Contrastive analysis of English nominal compounds and their correspondents in Albanian language: A Case Study with ESP Law Students. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *232*, 728-735.

Sackey, J. A. (1997). The English language in Ghana: A historical perspective. In M. E. Kropp Dakubu (ed). *English in Ghana*, (pp.126-139). Accra: GESA.

Sarfo-Adu, K. (2007). *Meaning change in non-native Englishes: A study of semantic and lexical variations in Ghanaian English*. Unpublished M.Phil thesis. University of Cape Coast.

Schilk, M., & Schaub, S. (2016). Noun phrase complexity across varieties of English: Focus on syntactic function and text type. *English World-Wide*, *37*(1), 58-85.

Schneider, E. W. (2003). Evolutionary patterns of New Englishes and the special case of Malaysian English. *Asian Englishes*, *6*(2), 44-63.

Schneider, E. W. (2007). *Postcolonial English: Varieties around the world*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Schneider, E. W. (2011). *English around the world: An introduction*. Retrieved from https//ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/Portsmouth-ebooks.

Schneider, E. W. (2013). English as a contact language: The 'New Englishes'. *English as a Contact Language*, 131-148.

Schneider, E. W. (2014). New reflections on the evolutionary dynamics of world Englishes. *World Englishes*, *33*(1), 9-32.

Schwandt, T. A. (2001). Dictionary of qualitative inquiry. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Selinker, L. S. (1974). Interlanguage. In J. C. Richards (Ed.), *Error analysis: Perspectives on second language acquisition* (pp. 31-54). London: Longman.

Seoane, E., & Suárez-Gómez, C. (2013). The expression of the perfect in East and South-East Asian Englishes. *English World-Wide*, *34*(1), 1-25.

Sey, K. A. (1973). *Ghanaian English: An exploratory survey*. Basingstoke: Macmillan.

Sinclair, J. M. (2014). Corpus evidence in language description. In A. Wichmann & S. Fligelstone (Eds.), *Teaching and language corpora* (pp. 27-39). London: Routledge.

Sinclair, J., & Carter, R. (2004). *Trust the text: Language, corpus and discourse*. London: Routledge.

Smith, L. E., & Nelson, C. L. (2019). World Englishes and issues of intelligibility. In B. B. Kachru, Y. Kachru & C. L. Nelson (eds) *The*

Handbook of World Englishes, (pp. 430-446). M A: Blackwell Publishing LTD.

Teubert, W., & Krishnamurthy, R. (2007). *Corpus linguistics: Critical concepts in linguistics*. Routledge.

Thomason, S. G., & Kaufman, T. (1988). *Language contact, creolization, and genetic Linguistics*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Thompson, G. (2014). *Introducing functional grammar*. London: Routledge.

Tovena, L. (2001). Between mass and count. *Proceedings of WCCFL* (Vol. 1, pp. 565-578). New York: Cascadilla Press.

Trudgill, P., & Hannah, J. (1982). *International English: A guide to varieties of standard English*. London: Edward Arnold.

Tsang, A. (2017). Judgement of countability and plural marking in English by native and non-native English speakers. *Language Awareness*, *26*(4), 343-359.

Ure, J. (1982). Approaches to the study of register range. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, *35*, 5–23.

Van Rooy, B., & Terblanche, L. (2010). Complexity in word-formation processes in new varieties of South African English. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, *28*(4), 357-374.

Wee, L. (2014). The evolution of Singlish: beyond phase 5? In S. Buschfeld, T. Hoffmann & A. Kautzsch (Eds.), *The evolution of Englishes: The dynamic model and beyond* (pp. 126-141). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.

Wells, J. C. (1982). *Accents of English: Volume 3: Beyond the British Isles* (Vol. 3). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Werner, V. (2013). Temporal adverbials and the present perfect/past tense alternation. *English World-Wide*, *34*(2), 202-240.

Weston, D. (2011). Gibraltar's position in the Dynamic Model of Postcolonial English. *English World-Wide*, *32*(3), 338-367.

Whorf, B. L. (1956). *Language, thought, and reality. Selected writings of Benjamin Lee Whorf*. Massachusetts: MIT Press.

Widdowson, H. G. (1994). The ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly*, *28*(2), 377-389.

Winford, D. (2000). *An introduction to contact linguistics*. Blackwell Publishing.

Wiredu, J. F. (2012). Pronominal reference in Ghanaian English: A study of a selected group of students. In D. F. Edu-Buandoh & A. B. Appartaim (Eds.), *Between language and literature: A festschrift for Professor Kofi Edu Yankson* (pp. 20-38). Cape Coast: University Printing Press.

Wisniewski, E., Lamb, C., & Middleton, E. (2003). On the conceptual basis for the count and mass noun distinction. *Language and Cognitive Processes*, *18*(5-6), 583-624.

Xiaoqiong, B. H., & Xianxing, J. (2011). Kachru's three concentric circles and English teaching fallacies in EFL and ESL contexts. *Changing English*, *18*(2), 219-228.