AN ANALYSIS OF THE STYLISTIC FEATURES OF SELECTED INVESTIGATIVE REPORTS OF NIGERIAN PRINT MEDIA

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(PhD/IT/ESP/09/0333)

SEPTEMBER, 2014

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A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY, SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT AND INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY, MODIBBO ADAMA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY, YOLA, IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (PhD) IN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES (ESP)

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis was written by me and it is a record of my own research work. It has not been presented before in any previous application for a higher degree. All references cited have been duly acknowledged.

_____   _____

Signature of Student   Date

DEDICATION

To my daughter, Joan Yuana Ayaga, may kindness and humility be your catchphrases in life. God bless you.

APPROVAL PAGE

This thesis entitled "An Analysis of the Stylistic Features of Selected Investigative Reports of Nigeria Print Media" meets the regulations governing the award of Doctor of Philosophy of the Modibbo Adama University of Technology, Yola and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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DEAN OF POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL   Date

(Name and Signature)

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

for his healthy contribution to make this project a wonderful piece. The last but strong impact on this work came from my internal examiner, Dr. Umaru Shuaibu. I appreciate his contribution.

I cannot exactly place words to appreciate the contributions of my family. I am deeply pleased with my immediate family, my wife –Ngusuur and daughter-Yuana for learning so quick to endure with a father that keep appearing and disappearing. To my mum, in her characteristic patience, I appreciate your endurance having to tolerate my absence around you even though I am the only child. To the larger AYAGA and AGAKU families, I appreciate you all.

I am truly indebted to a list of friends who have provided both the needed inspiration and financial assistance on this project: Mr. Emma Fashe, Agber Tor Godwin, Peter Tersoo Seer, Engr. Mkuma Abiola, Bem Haanya, Sewuese Iwar, Vivien Osagie, Mary Ann Ekere, Gladstone Teneke, Pascal Njoku and a host of others whose names have not appeared here.

Many thanks to the Adamawa State Government, Yola, the Adamawa Council of the Nigerian Union of Journalists (NUJ), members of the correspondents' Chapel- my immediate colleagues for assisting in prayers and supporting me whenever I deserve help. Of special concern is Mr. Andrawus Tarfa, immediate past chairman of NUJ, Yola, David Molomo, immediate past secretary, Zare Baba present NUJ's secretary, Salisu Abubakar- current chairman, Prince Emmanuel Ande, Guardian Correspondent in Yola and lots of others.

Also, I particularly appreciate the wisdom of my good academic friends and elders who have supported me to this stage in life. To this end, I thank Dr. John Ngamsa, Dr. Emmanuel Shardama, Dr. A.S Bashir (HOD), Hasan Garba, Dr. Luka Barnabas Jauro for being wonderful academic fellows in the Department of Information Technology, MAUTECH.

ABSTRACT

This study is an analysis of the stylistic features of investigative reports in Nigerian print media. The corpus for the study was purposively selected and consisted of six investigative reports, chosen from Nigerian news magazine and Nigerian newspapers. The methodology of this work was based on Theory Triangulation which uses more than one theoretical model in the study of same phenomenon. The analysis was guided by two linguistic models which allowed it a theoretical focus. Halliday's (1984) Systemic Functional Grammar SFG model as modified by Matthiessen (2004) and Chomsky's model of Transformational Generative Grammar, TGG as modified by Tomori (1991) and Lamidi (2000) were applied. The approach to the study design was

interpretive, evaluative and descriptive. The analysis identified various lexical categories as well as different syntactic strategies used by the investigative journalist. The models helped in the discussion of distinct semantic features and rhetorical elements in the corpus. The study found out that investigative reports in Nigerian print media has a distinct language style made of multiple syntactic structures. Some of the syntactic structures discovered to form part of the investigative media discourse range from periodic, loose, compound to complex sentences. The study further found that apart from the absence in use of simple sentences, investigative reports contain local and rhetorical features of language which comprise the extensive use of hyperboles and point of view meant to compress language for emotional appeal. The study concluded that language features of investigative reports have different syntactic forms and most times shift from the standard form of English to localisms. These structures cut across the corpus and make it easy for the investigative reporter to communicate to readers and extend many ideas to achieve some depth.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Background of the Study

Investigative reporting, otherwise known as investigative journalism took its roots from the general practice of journalism which functions to inform, educate and entertain viewers, listeners and readers about timely events and developments in the society. The primary job of a journalist is to let people know what is going on in the community, the society or the world around them. Committed journalists do their work by finding facts and telling them to their readers or listeners so that they become better informed, educated, entertained and kept abreast of issues in the society. Campbell, Martin and Fabos (2005) assert that serious journalism has sought to provide information that enable the citizens to make intelligent decisions. Investigative journalism therefore, falls under serious journalism but departs from the routine form of mainstream journalism to do some distinct job for the society. Oguntayo (2007) sees investigative journalism as the investigation of the society's ugly heart and subsequently argues that it is a very technical aspect of journalism which entails digging deep into what somebody, somewhere is trying to cover up. Investigative journalists seek to find out, report and present news which people try to keep out of sight or knowledge of the public. Journalists have traditionally been responsible for keeping a watchful eye on such people whose actions or conducts are questionable.

Investigative reports focus on issues that appear to deviate from social norms. They include murders, rapes, fires, political scandals and corruption. In different societies including Nigeria, journalists are called "watch dogs of the society" and are recognized as the "fourth estate of the realm". Precisely, the journalism institution is placed after the judiciary, legislature and executive realms of most democratic governments. The journalism realm therefore, has a social responsibility to relate to the society issues and stories that would impact on it positively. Aspects of journalism are manifold. Its forms, style and practice are altogether different but the basic string uniting all the forms of journalism is the primary responsibility to disseminate mass information.

Investigative journalism is not a substantive genre of the print media journalism, in the same way as news reports, features, columns and editorials. It is only a form of journalism with a style of practice that is operated within the substantive genres of journalism. Indeed, investigative reporting should therefore, be seen as a sub-genre of the substantive genres that cut across both electronic and print media. It is however, an important subject to the print media genre the way the other forms of journalism like the development and peace news are to the genres. All the substantive genres could provide room for the airing of investigative news, but on the contrary, the news form (investigative report) cannot take prominence as a genre of the newspaper, magazine, radio or television as news reports do. An inclined reader or listener of both broadcast and print media by personal judgment points at a particular report as being investigative or otherwise which could be further based on the features of investigation in the report.

Investigative journalism, as opposed to other types of journalism, remains a hazardous activity. Most journalists, according to Oguntayo (2007), are not very interested in investigative journalism because of the professional hazards involved in its reporting. Most journalists, especially in Nigeria, prefer aspects of reporting like sports journalism, photo-journalism or at best, the practice of what Ulrich (2009) calls "Peace Journalism" and development journalism.

The media environments that host the operations of these journalistic forms potentially show peculiar differences in the use of language which corresponds to each environment. Crystal and Davy (1985) believe that the categories of items on the newspaper and everything created on it will not be homogeneous. If so, language which is the primary medium of communication in the print media will not be entirely the same. On its part, investigative report is a mechanism that increases critical awareness for journalists and editors to dig deep into what is yet unknown and very difficult to expose, therefore using language elements in an extra- ordinary sense to communicate.

Language comes to life when it functions in a given context. It is a natural phenomenon which cannot exist in isolation and must relate to a fixed scenario, with the background of speakers, actions in some event (Halliday, 1978). The role of language in context is better understood when it interacts with certain determinants.

Halliday and Hasan (1964) state that language functions in a "context of situation" which is based on the linguistic features of *Field*, *Tenor* and *Mode* of discourse. These linguistic concepts describe context of situation as a determinant of the meaning, so expressed in a text. While field of discourse is the activity and the purpose of language in fixed context, tenor shows the set of roles undertaken by the relevant participants and mode of discourse is the function of the text in the events. Further, Halliday and Hasan (1964) explain the relevance of field, mode and tenor to stylistic analysis but affirm that text is the 'thing' in stylistics. This is because text is a form of a data that all linguistic descriptions are based on. These concepts interact significantly in the construction of the meaning of a text.

It is true that the English we read in the newspaper today or hear on the radio or see on the television is not the same today as it was several hundred years ago (Syal and Jindal, 2008). It has been argued that language is a manifestation of human behaviour, which keeps changing at every instance and moment; therefore, it can neither be static nor fixed. Akmajian, Demers, Farmer and Harnish (2008) argue along this path when they claim that no human language is fixed, uniform, or unvarying; all languages show internal variations. The view further concretizes the notion that a text may be built by multiple styles and here, language will face varying directions.

Syal and Jindal (2008) observe that individuals use different varieties of a language depending upon the situation and when language functions in this way, it is called "registers". For instance, the language used by a journalist while reporting investigative issues varies considerably from the kind of language he uses while reporting sports. It is the variations of language that occur in the form of language use by journalists while reporting investigative matters that have been addressed in this research. This variation of language use can be understood better with evaluative and descriptive tools of linguistics by figuring out the grammatical coding with practical illustrations. Fakuade (2008) asserts that textual analysis could involve not only a mere description of a text but also an evaluation of the stylistic devices of the author which can even be compared with other texts and authors to achieve sound stylistic judgments. The study provides an analysis for the understanding of choices, forms and patterns of structural peculiarities of the investigative journalistic texts.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

This study focused on the stylistic analysis of selected investigative print media reports in Nigeria. Most journalists are faced with the difficulty of choosing appropriate registers to use language in context. This is because most of them practising in Nigeria use English as second language (L2). Writing in L2 is a difficult and demanding task due to the limited linguistic resources possessed by L2 speakers. This gives room for boisterous attack on media use of English language by their readers. The language of the print media in Nigeria receives low rating from linguists and other scholars who read or listen to the Nigerian media. Dada (2004) states that Media English in the country is dense and characterized by "convoluted syntax".

Adeleke (2002) observes that one would hear cacophonous linguistic concoctions deftly contrived for the enjoyment of, and further recycling by other journalists and many Nigerians. He argues that the language features of journalistic text written in English by Nigerian journalists seriously results to a shift to regional language. He says "The rules of the language are dragged to a regional language, resulting to a distinct style called Nigerian Journalistic English or the Journalese". He further maintains that the readers are "swamped by aberrant" structures that need immediate adjustment- linguistically. These factors have given rise to a number of peculiar symbols of language or better still, a kind of writing system which is associated with Nigerian press writing.

Investigative reporting is an aspect of general journalism which the entire citizenry rely on for the protection of society's democratic institutions, but this area has been ignored. This study, therefore seeks to fill this vacuum. Several researches have been carried out on different aspects of English use in Nigerian professional texts which includes some genres of print like Adeleke (2002), Fakuade , Sharndama and Abdullahi (2005), Jauro (2007, 2014), Ayaga (2010, 2014), Umaru, Hamza and Sharndama (2013) but none has gone deeper to examine the language of the media sub-genre like investigative news reports.

The difficulty of placing in context the language of the media generally by journalists, editors and readers has been shown as a problem of choice of selection, patterning, and structuring of linguistic resources to make ultimate realization of communication in effective

sense. This study has addressed these common problems as they relate to investigative writing.

1.3   Aim and Objectives of Study

The aim of this study was to examine the stylistic features of selected investigative reports of the Nigerian print media. The analysis involved a description and evaluation of the formal patterns of the texts. Matthiessen (2004) shows how the interaction among patterns of language at different strata plays significant part in the construction of meaning. The study set out the structures of language as well as appraised the distinct language elements contrived in investigative reports. The study had the following objectives:

i.   To identify the language structures used in investigative journalistic texts.
ii.   To evaluate both the formal and non-formal features of investigative journalistic texts.
iii.   To determine the extent to which the conventions of the language of reporting for the media are employed in investigative reports.

1.4   Research Questions

Given the objectives above, the study asked the following questions:

i.   What language structures are there in the investigative journalistic texts in this study?
ii.   What are the formal and non-formal linguistic features in the investigative journalistic texts under investigation?
iii.   To what extent are basic conventions of reporting for the media employed in the investigative journalistic texts?

1.5   Significance of the Study

There are enormous challenges confronting modern journalism in the area of language. This research would help editors, journalists and students of media sciences to be conscious about the resourcefulness of language in selecting the right registers for the development and management of information for their readers.

In addition to that, a survey of past linguistic researches on the Nigerian print media show that attention has been paid more on genres category of the print media rather than the forms of journalism that constitute it. This research has addressed an aspect of one of the

many forms of the media, thereby covering up this vacuum and again opening up the route for further researches in the area.

Furthermore, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has paid much attention to language use in professional domains. This study would extend the research base in ESP as well as serve as instructional and pedagogical tool for teaching and learning. In this light, it is an intended work to provide an acceptable working text to meet part of the resource requirement for ESP practitioners since there has been paucity of reading materials in the field unfolding in developing countries such as Nigeria where the concept is new. Closely related to this fact, the study will acquaint professionals in both ESP and the media with the breadth of language and social activity worthy of coverage on a specialized basis.

More importantly, this study should facilitate the effort to lend journalism in Nigeria some degree of depth. A cursory look at Nigerian journalism may reveal that there is critical dearth of investigativeness, incisiveness of analysis which could deny Nigerian journalism some relevance in the lives of its citizens, this study hopes to encourage appropriately.

Researches are essential to the development of democratic institutions. The print media, being a force that complements democratic governance in Nigeria, the government as well as its agencies, the media would find this study useful for the purpose of evolving media policies for the country. The suggestions from the study would also be helpful for media institutions for the development of their staff and general enhancement of effective communication in media use of English language.

1.6   Scope of the Study

This study was restricted to the analysis of selected investigative print media reports which were published between 2008 and 2012. The selection within this time frame was deliberate due to the latest nature of the reports. Six print media reports were selected from Nigerian news magazines and newspapers. The methodology adopted for his work was based on Theory Triangulation which uses more than one theoretical model in the study of the same phenomenon. Therefore, two models of linguistic analysis were adopted. The Halliday (1984) Systemic Functional Grammar Model, modified by Matthiessen (2004) and Chomsky's Transformational Generative Grammar, TTG, as modified by Tomori (1991) and Lamidi (2000)

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Introduction

This chapter reviewed literature that was relevant to this study. The review covered history of Nigerian print media, different forms of journalism, challenges of investigative journalism in Nigeria, style and stylistics, text, context and register, Halliday's Systemic Functional Grammar Model, Matthiessen's modified model of Hallidayan grammar, Chomsky's Transformational Generative Grammar, TGG Model, Tomori and Lamidi's modified model of the TGG, Theoretical Framework, empirical studies on stylistic features of language of the Nigerian print media and summary of the literature review.

2.2   History of Nigerian Print Media

The history of Nigerian print media can be discussed under three distinct periods: The Missionary/Pre-colonial era, the Nigerian Independence era and post Independence era. The aim of this section of the study is to identify and discuss the significant contributions of the print press to the development of Nigerian journalism.

It is on record that Christian missionaries pioneered the establishment of newspapers in Nigeria. Ajibade (2003) notes that the Christian missionaries who had come to Nigeria to convert the local population to Christianity, introduced printing press which aggressively saw their evangelical ministry occupying a centre place in Nigerian modern society. This was however, instrumental to Nigeria's independence which also led to the explosion of more media outfits by first set of Nigerian nationalists. According to Ajibade (2003), most of the post-colonial newspapers still survive till date. Apart from that, what has come as stable democracy in Nigeria has equally encouraged a proliferation of print media.

2.2.1 Nigerian Print Media in the Missionary /Pre-Colonial Era

According to Mohammed (2002), Ajibade (2003) and Bitrus (2007), the first Nigerian newspaper, *Iwe Irohin fun Awon Ara Egba ati Yoruba,* meaning (newspaper for the Egba People and Yorubas), was established in Abeokuta by Reverend Henry Townsend on December 3, 1859. The publication of the newspaper was in Yoruba language, making it the

first vernacular newspaper in Africa. Ajibade (2003) observes that the *Iwe Irohin* was added with an English edition in 1960 by Reverend Townsend. However, the contents of the papers were not entirely restricted to religion, as he broadened the newspaper's coverage to include commercial news as well as political matters of the time.

Townsend of the Church Missionary Society (CMS) had outlined the purpose of setting up the newspaper while in Britain's headquarters of the CMS. He said that his objective for setting up the paper was to get people read, that is, to beget the habit of seeking information by reading (Ajibade, 2003). This confirms that the newspaper and schools established around the time by Townsend in Abeokuta and other towns in the south west of Nigeria, helped greatly in raising the literacy level among the Yorubas.

Bitrus (2007) reviews Ajibade's (2003) with deeper explanations about the salient advantages the first newspaper in the country, the *Iwe Irohin* set for Nigeria. For him, the paper served as a gate way for Nigerian nationalism and thereafter aided up Nigerians by inculcating into them a sense of nationalism. He affirms that the *Iwe Irohin,* brought changes to the Nigerian pre-colonial society by affording few educated Nigerians the opportunity to voice out the need for self government. The newspaper was read overseas, which equally mobilized and accentuated the vocal feelings of Diaspora Nigerians towards self rule.

The foundation of the Nigerian print press as captured by Mohammed (2003) started with the establishment of two printing press, one established in Calabar, Cross River State by Reverend Hope Wadell of the Church of Scotland Mission which, according to Mohammed, was through the influence of the first printing press set up in Abeokuta by Reverend Townsend in 1859. With this development, Wadell the Evangelist equally played a significant role in the growth and development of Nigerian press. The relevance of the press which was developed by Wadell and Townsend is vividly captured by Ajibade (2003):

> Wadell's press in Calabar and that of Townsend in Abeokuta prepared the ground for the first set of newspapers in Nigeria. The two missionaries were coming from a society (Great Britain) where the press had grown in power and influence to be part of the daily lives of the people.

Wadell had set up the *Calabar Observer*, the second Nigerian newspaper and the first in the east of the Niger. According to Ajibade, Reverend Wadell later established two

additional vernacular newspapers *Unwama Efik* in 1885 and *Obupong Efik* in 1886. Apart from pure evangelical purposes, these papers equally added on their stables what Mohammed (2002), Ajibade (2003) and Bitrus (2007) refer to as commercial and political press of the time.

2.2.2   Nigerian Print Media in the Pre Independence Era

By the first half of the 19th century, elements of unhealthy rivalries among imperialist powers and Nigeria nationalists became very glaring. Again, the second half of the century witnessed intensive imperialist bickering in Nigeria between British and German colonialists on who to control the colony that was yet to be named as Nigeria (Bitrus, 2007).

However, Mohammed (2002) submits that by 1884, the British had final control of Nigeria, given the resolution of that year's Berlin Conference that partitioned Africa among the leading imperialist powers. This led to the establishment of a plethora of newspapers during the later part of the pre- independence era up to the independence time in Nigeria. According to Mohammed (2002):

> In the period, (1880-1937) a total of 58 publications with varying frequencies were issued. This figure did not include Christian missionary publications. Forty-two newspapers were purchased in Lagos, while 16 were based in the hinterland of these newspapers, only 7 were vernacular papers; the vast majority were in English language.

Despite this growth, Mohammed observes that Lagos had the concentration of the country's newspapers, a situation that has continued till date. Ajibade (2003) provides a probable reason for the growth of the Nigerian print media during the pre-independence era, blending the success of the experimentation of the missionary newspapers which provided the needed inspiration for nationalists to establish their own newspapers in the closing years of the nineteenth century. Ajibade mentions that Mr. Beele Blaize, a descendant of freed slaves who had come from Sierra-Leone to settle in Lagos in 1862, later floated the *Lagos Times* and *Gold Coast Colony Advertiser,* all were newspapers that were published in Lagos in 1880.

Another newspaper of the era which popularized editorial writing in Nigerian journalism was the *Lagos Weekly Record*, published between 1891 and 1930. Its existence for 40 years is considered as the longest for any Nigerian newspaper of the pre-independence era

(Okoye, 2003). Mr. Panye Jackson, was the founder of the newspaper, and according to Okoye, he foresaw Nigeria as the potential arrowhead of the struggle for the restoration of the dignity of the blackman, despite he was of Liberian origin. Okoye (2003) presents four cardinal contributions of the *Lagos Weekly Record* before its demise in 1930:

i. It supported the anti-slavery and Aborigines Rights Protection Society.
ii. It supported the advocacies of the pioneer nationalists such as Dr. Blyden and Herbert Macaulay, for good government and respect for the rights of the blackman in the colony of Lagos and the protectorates of Northern and Southern Nigeria.
iii. It supported the breaking away of the African Church from the established European Missions.
iv. It attacked the controversial land acquisition law as well as the Lagos water rate regulations and anti- press laws such as the Newspaper Ordinance of 1909.

From the account of the newspaper as shown by Okoye, the colonial administration dealt devastating blows on the newspaper, which finally died in 1930 (Okoye 2003). He says this about the paper: "it is the oldest and most courageous newspaper of its time". Mohammed (2002) traces the death of the *Weekly Record* to the intense rivalry that tore Yoruba-land apart and the unfavourable laws with stiff financial requirements for establishing newspapers in Nigeria by the colonial government.

Other newspapers that operated with great attack on the colonial authority were the *Nigerian Pioneer* and *West African Pilot*. While the former was established by a successful Lagos Lawyer, Sir Kitoyi Ajasa, the latter was founded by Nnamdi Azikiwe in 1937. Azikiwe, according to Mohammed (2003) returned from the United States of America (USA) at the age of 33 years, having successfully trained as a political scientist at the Lincoln University and as a journalist at Columbia University. For the *Pioneer*, he explains that the paper was founded based on the persuasions of the then Governor Egerton to get Ajasa to start a newspaper that would both voice the opinions of the whites and blacks.

Okoye (2003) identifies the basic contribution of the *West African Pilot* in its speed at revolutionalizing Nigerian journalism. Chief Obafemi Awolowo, a core nationalist had this to say in Okoye (2003) about Azikiwe's paper:

As there was no effective vehicle for the vigorous ventilation of suppressed grievances, a journalistic vacuum was thus created which Dr. Azikiwe very cleverly exploited and usefully filled when he returned to the country in 1937 to establish the West African Pilot, which, whatever its literary defects, was a fire-eating paper of the highest order.

Of all the pre-independence newspapers published in Nigeria, Okoye (2003) affirms that *The Pilot* put an enduring legacy of creating consciousness in Nigerian youths by educating and enlightening them about the state of affairs of the nation. Mohammed (2003) seem to collaborate the view of Okoye about the newspaper, but states that differently the paper was very successful and a strong moulder of public opinion against Nigeria's commitment to the second World War, 1939-1945.

In Northern Nigeria, as explained by Mohammed (2003) the colonial government took strides to establish in 1939, the *Gaskiya Tafi Kwabo*, (meaning truth is far above money). The vernacular newspaper, according to him, was the mouth-piece of the colonial administration in the region. Apart from that, according to Sanni (1991), as reflected in Mohammed (2003), the regional administration set up the Gaskiya Corporation to promote the printing and publication of vernacular reading on a large scale. In 1954, the English version of *Gaskiya Tafi Kwabo* named *The Citizen* was founded. However, the name of The *Citizen,* was later changed to *New Nigerian Newspaper* in 1966. Mohammed observes that the new name was given by Ahmadu Bello, the Sardauna of Sokoto and Premier of the Northern Region in 1966, after Nigeria had gained its independence.

According to Ajibade (2003) the growth and development of Nigerian press in the pre-independence era which actually saw to Nigeria attaining self-government in 1960 was characterized by three features:

i.   Most of the newspapers that came up under this era were established by descendants of freed slaves who had come from Sierra Leone to settle in Nigeria, most of whom were businessmen and professionals.

ii. Lagos became the operational base of Nigerian newspapers of the time and majority of Nigerian newspapers till date are published from Lagos as headquarters.

iii.   The newspapers of the era started strong nationalist sentiments characterized by pungent criticism of British colonial policies and vociferous demand for self-rule, which later earned Nigeria's independence.

2.2.3   Nigeria Print Media in Post-Colonial Era

We have noted that the mass media during the pre-independence era in Nigeria were established by individuals and colonial administration. The individuals, most of whom were nationalists, needed the mass media primarily to articulate, promote and defend justice, right to self determination, culminating into political independence for the country. The colonial administration on the other hand needed the mass media to promote and defend its bourgeois imperialist values.

One significant feature of the print media of the post-independence era was that, most of the newspapers were against colonial rule, and that continued till the post colonial period. Shortly after that, the papers however changed their attention from preaching the spirit of nationalism to Nigerians to that of regional politics. Both the independence and post independence Nigeria witnessed the establishment newspapers by Nigerians who needed to articulate the politics of self-rule. *The Tribune* group of newspapers, founded in 1951, by Chief Obafemi Awolowo was sustained to post-independence time. Newspapers like the *Gaskiya Tafi Kwabo*, *West African Pilot* saw Nigeria through, up to post independence time. However, the foundation of the independent Nigeria introduced a new press, which witnessed the establishment of newspapers like *New Nigerian* in 1966, a renamed version of *The Citizen* of 1948. *The Daily Times*, founded in 1926 did not make significant impact in contributing to the political struggles and developments of the time. This situation, according to Okoye (2003) continued till 1977 when the paper joined others in making much impact on the life of Nigerians.

Mohammed (2002) argues that most newspapers of the post independence era were indirectly related to the three political parties, established after independence. He explains further that such newspapers were only interested in the acquisition of power by their founders. According to him, the *Tribune,* lend its support to *Action Group* and its leader, Chief Obafemi Awolowo, who was also the founder of the newspaper, the *West Africa pilot* supported the *National Congress of Nigeria and Cameroun* (NCNC) with its leader, Dr

Nnamdi Azikiwe. While The *New Nigerian*, established by Alhaji Ahmadu Bello, served the interest of the Northern *People's Congress* (NPC). The media of this era clearly and practically operated on regional as well as on tribal and religious basis. Mohammed (2003) believes that the newspapers were established by these gladiators to compete for political power. For the *New Nigerian Newspaper*, Okoye (2003) writes:

> It was said that some of those editorial on New Nigerian were drafted by the cream of the conservative northern intelligentsia in government and the academia which had the following features: They were fiercely pro-north and pro-Islam, they were regarded as the collective viewpoint of the core north, hence they usually went unchallenged by the northern establishment and intellectuals. They were taken seriously by government and other decision –makers within and outside the country.

Similarly, *The New York Times, as* cited in Mohammed (2002) comments on the alliance between AG and NCNC:

> In the populous Eastern Region, whose political powers are aligned with the opposition Action Group in the West, key councils adopted ordinances banning papers that stayed neutral or actively backed by western governments in return to power. These groups include: The Federal Government owned *Morning Post*, the Western Government-owned *Daily Times*, Nigeria's most widely read paper. The net effect of the ordinances has been to block the entrance of these papers into Eastern Region by either air or road. In retaliation, city councils in the west made it crime not to only read pro-opposition *Pilot*, *Telegraph*, and *Daily Times* but also to tune into Eastern Radio. If caught, errant newspaper readers and radio listeners were subject to a year's imprisonment. East has imposed no such penalties. But purple uniform thugs set up road blocks, search cars for the "wrong" papers and beat the occupants who possessed them.

From this, the New *York Times*, portrays the Nigerian print media of that time, to be reporting along regional, religious and on ethnic line.

2.2.4 Nigerian Print Media in the Military Era

The political party 'war' of the first republic degenerated alarmingly and by 15th January 1966, the military took over the government from the civilians. As characteristic with all military coups the world over, the military government of General J.T.U Aguiyi-Ironsi had upon inception in January 1966, banned all political activities, dissolved the political parties and suspended the constitution (Mohammed, 2002).

Yakubu Gowon's administration, which followed after the violent overthrow of Ironsi's government in July, 1966, according to Mohammed (2002) retained the above named measures taken by his predecessor and with the degeneration of the political situation into a civil war; the military had persecuted all democratic institutions including the mass media.

The mass media, especially Nigerian newspapers were expected to pay attention to national reconciliation, rehabilitation and reconstruction when the civil war ended in 1970. Mohammed shows that: "instances of slight deviation by journalists and media organizations from the course were instantly handled by battle-ready soldiers, taking the laws into their hands".

A remarkable development was witnessed in the media around and after the civil war. Bitrus (2007) writes that in his effort to give the mass media a better environment for rebuilding the nation, four states under Gowon's administration were licensed to operate state owned newspapers. According to him, Nigerian print media under this period also initiated and sustained public debate on a wide range of issues including the national census of 1973, states creation, revenue allocation, a new constitution and restoration of civilian rule. He brings to light a mixed affection for journalism exhibited by the military under Gowon's era, when he explains that "not that military rule provided an ideal setting for the practice of journalism, far from it, one bizarre episode of the period was the widely published flogging of Minere Anakiri, a reporter with *Nigerian Observer*, on the orders of Diete Spiff, River State Military Governor". Bitrus argues that the flogged reporter's "offence" was that he reported threats by Rivers State teachers that they would resign if their demands were not met by the state government.

After the Gowon's administration, the Murtala –Obasanjo regime of (1975 to 1979) came on board and Bitrus further maintains that similar tendencies also characterized that regime. He reiterates this position further and acknowledges the fact that the military demanded of the mass media to give it a way to succeed in office by reporting it fairly. He also states that while the government dissolved regional bodies, its basic feature was to acquire major equity shares of some Nigerian print media in order to suppress it. According to Bitrus (2007), the federal government took over The *New Nigerian* newspaper Ltd, Kaduna and it also announced its intention to acquire 60 percent of equity shares of Daily *Times*.

Apart from this, Bitrus (2007) reports that even though, the government persistently assured Nigerians that it would steer clear from interfering with the press, there were cases of victimization characterized by changes, removal and posting out of editors from some of the powerful print media houses it acquired. The federal military government under Obasanjo did not only promulgate anti-press decrees, it also descended on the local press. Foreign journalists were also dealt with accordingly by the government (Bitrus, 2007).

Mohammed (2002) and Bitrus (2007) are of the opinion that even as the Obasanjo's government reluctantly returned power to the civilians in 1979, through the instrumentality of the vocal print media, the media decried widespread corruption under the second republic of Alhaji Shehu Shagari's administration which took over. Bitrus (2007) while referring to a speech made by President Shehu Shagari during the commissioning of the Benue State owned newspaper, *Nigerian Voice* in April 1982, stresses thus:

> Nigeria's best interests were not served by a state of journalism that bordered on recklessness. There were several instances too numerous to recount when newspapers had carried stories that were manifestations of fantasy and mischief, sometimes to the alarm or detriment of the public

Shagari's government according to Bitrus, was not comfortable with how the press portrayed its activities. It therefore, instituted litigations against newspaper houses in Nigeria. He further cites the case of the Lagos State Governor, Alhaji Lateef Jakande, who dragged *The Concord Press,* to court. He explains how *The Concord Press* owned by Chief M.K.O Abiola, was charged for libelous publication. He goes further to suspects that the Lagos court which must have been instructed by the powers that-be, however did not hesitate to order *The Concord Press* to pay damages of Twenty Five Thousand Naira (N25,000) to the plaintiff.

Nigerians witnessed another relationship between the government and the press when the military toppled the democratic regime in 1979. Many newspaper houses were set up and the first magazine to receive a national attention was also founded. Bitrus (2007) explains that the establishment of the first magazine, *The New Times Magazine*, in 1984 was based on the request of the Buhari's administration. He posits that General Buhari had no confidence in the local press, therefore, spoke with some international communities to intervene by covering Nigeria fairly. The *New Times Magazine*, according to him was published as a soviet magazine in 9 languages in 32 countries. He observes further that the debut of the *New Times* complained that "Nigeria had a 'dubious democracy' which clearly failed the test". Side by side the *New Times*, another weekly News Magazine on the stable of the *Daily Times* emerged as *News Week* (Bitrus, 2007). This era, according to him, also witnessed the importation of more foreign magazines into the country. Example of foreign magazines that entered into the country included *The London Times* and *New York Tribunal*.

Major sections of the print media which were critical about the Buhari's new military government included the *Punch*, the *Guardian*, and *Tribune*. According to Bitrus, the Nigerian press in the Buhari's military era was becoming increasingly aware and threatened by the anti-press approaches taken by the government. A good example of the disharmony between the press and Buhari's government as cited by Bitrus was the continued detention of journalists and the promulgation of unsavory decrees against the media. He observes this as follows:

> On April 4, 1984, the last straw that broke the carmel's back, Decree No. 4 was rolled out by Buhari's administration. The main features of the decree in the first place, replaced Decree 17 of 1976 which was promulgated by Obasanjo's regime. Secondly, any journalist held under the Decree shall defend himself or engage the services of a lawyer in the cause of his trail. Thirdly, no appeal shall lie down from a decision of any tribunal established under this decree.

In a letter of complaint by the Nigerian Union of Journalists (NUJ) signed by Bola Adedojah and addressed to the Chief of Staff, Supreme Headquarters, Major-General Tunde Indiagbon, Bitrus (2007) shows, the NUJ presented the following argument:

The press will not help install a dictatorship. Five of our colleagues, Mallam Haroun Adamu, the Punch Editorial Consultant, Mr. Idowu Odeyemi, editor of the Guardian Newspapers, Mr. Femi Kusa, the Editor of the Guardian and Tunde Thompson, the diplomatic correspondent of the paper are now in varying degrees of detention and deprivation of liberty.

The NUJ insisted that the military ought not to have forgotten that the freedom denied the press was freedom denied the society (Bitrus, 2007). Nevertheless, soon a counter coup overthrew the Buhari/Idiagbon military government in 1985 and General Ibrahim Babangida became the new Military Head of State. The government lasted up to 1993. Babangida in his address to the nation as presented by Mohammed (2003) said "the elite, the media and academia all have important roles to play in the process of moulding our thoughts and opinions to sustain the spirit and drive towards a new democratic order" (P.40). Mohammed opines that Babangida harboured an inordinate notion of the profound powers of the press and sometimes felt extremely suspicious of the maturity of the average Nigerian journalist to properly exploit these powers to national advantage. He identifies two sets of legislations introduced by the new military administration to control the press. They were regulatory and legislative laws through Decree No. 4 of 1984, and the Detention of Persons Decree No. 2 of 1984. The Regulatory laws, he posits were made to enhance freedom of the press while the legislative laws were restrictive. Babangida, he maintains, however, abrogated decree No. 4 of 1984 and announced the release of all political detainees as follow–up to a new measure of creating a press friendly environment.

In a different perspective, Adedigba (1998), cited in Bitrus (2007) who expresses restrain to the measures taken by Babangida administration in its relation to the media further observes that:

> One hopes that the present government does not hold the illusion that to begin in the good books of the press is synonymous with good government which is not what Nigerians need. If the Babangida's administration satisfies the social and economic needs of the people, the government will succeed even if one thousand and one mass media are hostile to it. Similarly, if government fails to perform, no amount of good press-government relationship can bail it out.

These remarks shows that the Nigerian print media assumed a critical position on the administration by reporting it without restrain. According to Bitrus (2007), the press attacked the government for sacking Governor Yohanna Madaki of the then Gongola State and the

Emir of Muri under controversial circumstances. This however, set a stage for the war between Babangida's administration and the Nigerian print press. The climax of the disagreement became higher after the brutal killing, through a parcel bomb, of the Editor-in-Chief of *Newswatch* magazine, Dele Giwa on 9th October, 1986. Subsequently, developments showed that the honeymoon between the press and the government was over.   Bitrus (2007) reviewing the anti-press situations and issues in the Babangida's administration, says the government proscribed *Newswatch* magazine for six months with retrospective effects for publishing what the government saw as a classified document. He recalls that the *Newswatch* magazine published a report submitted by the Political Bureau set up by the government to recommend the best way the transition to civil rule would be implemented.

Apart from other the press/Babangida's face off, the print media modulated the campaign for the transition to civil rule, which the latter saw as threatening to the regime. According to Bitrus (2007), the press in Babangida's regime succeeded in its war against the government and forced it to prepare a transition process to democratic order. This, however, did not happen as expected; instead, President Babangida handed over power to an interim civilian government after the cancellation of the elections in 1993. By and large, President Babangida's reproach to stifle voices of dissents could not yield desired results. Bitrus (2007) observes that the pressure had continued to mount, and as it was getting worse, he decided to handover to, the Interim National Government (ING) headed by Chief Ernest Shonekan. The ING lasted for only few months when General Sani Abacha took over through a bloodless coup. He immediately lifted of the ban on the proscription of media houses (Mohammed, 2002)

Falola (2001) and Bitrus (2007) argue that, despite the reconsideration of the new military government to reopen media houses in the country, press freedom under the regime did not improve; instead record had shown the killing of many vocal journalists, while others received varying degrees of jail terms. Bitrus discusses this vicious continuation thus:

> To General Sani Abacha and his security operatives, it was an all embracing war against journalists who dared to challenge the government. For instance, Dapo Olurunyomi, deputy editor in chief of *The News Tempo Magazine* was arrested by security agents.

Journalists from recognized newspaper media, according to Bitrus were also foisted into the alleged attempted coup on Abacha's government in 1995. The journalists that were arrested and jailed in 1995 for taking part in the coup were: Ben Charlse of *The Saturday Times Magazine*, Obi Thompson of the defunct *Classique*, Kunle Ajibade of *The News Tempo* and *Tell magazine's* George Mba. They were incarcerated and sentenced with varying degree of detention, until Sani Abacha died on 8th June, 1998. The print media had no latitude for operation under this regime as special trained personal security team of the late Sani Abacha hunted both critics and journalists who raised questions against his government.

Bitrus (2007) maintains that General Abdulsalami Abubakar who was appointed the Head of State after Abacha, approached the press differently. He explains that apart from releasing journalists and other political detainees unconditionally, Abubakar's administration allowed for more newspaper and magazine publishing houses to spring up. He is of the opinion that under this administration: " no journalist was molested, arrested or jailed for any offence because Abdulsalami wanted a peaceful, orderly and credible transition from military to civilian rule on May, 29, 1999".

2.2.5 Print Media in the 4th, 5th, 6th Republics (1999 to 2011)

One of the fallouts of democracy in Nigeria has been the proliferation of newspapers and magazines in the country. According to an online media journal, World Press, from the inception of democracy in 1999, Nigeria witnessed a growing press freedom which brought about the establishment of newspapers and magazines on a daily basis. Similarly, Science – Connect (online) graded Nigerian online newspapers tentatively to seventy (70) and further gives a reason for the growth of the country's newspapers as "freedom of expression within the prevailing limits of the country's law have been re-enacted with the ban on military rule in Nigeria"

World Press (2001) lists Nigeria's recognized and registered newspapers and magazines as thus: *Newswatch* (Independent and Liberal Weekly Magazine), *Daily Champion* (Independent),*Tribune*(Conservative), *Daily Trust* (Conservative) *eNow* (Independent), *Guardian* (Independent), *Nation* (Independent) The *News* (Weekly, magazine) *Nigerian Independent* (Independent) *Punch* (Independent), *Sun* (Tabloid) , *ThisDay* (Independent), *Vanguard* (Liberal, Independent), *Weekly Trust* (Conservative), *Tell* (Independent).

Others, under the World Press (2011) categorization are mainly state circulated newspapers and magazines: *AM News* (independent) *Abuja Mirror*, *Anchor* (Progressive) *Daily Sketch* (Government Owned), *Daily Times* (rested) *Diet* (Independent) *Mail* (Independent) *Morning Post* (Independent) *National Concord* (rested), *New Nigerian* (Government owned), *Nigerian Herald* (Independent) , *Post Express* (Independent) *President* (Monthly magazine) *Sunday Concord* (rested) *Tempo* (Independent) *This Week* (Lagos) *Today* (Weekly).

Another characteristic of the print media of the 4th, 5th and 6th republics has been that apart from the independent newspapers and magazines which were published in Nigeria, there existed state owned established newspapers in almost all the 36 states of Nigeria including Abuja, the federal capital.

It is on record that while state print media are established to serve the purpose of various state governments in projecting their programmes, there has also been a wave of religious newspapers in Nigeria which are resurfacing and published for the convenience of their various audiences. Both Christian and Islamic newspapers are published in Nigeria for the purpose of preaching and evangelism. The Catholic community in Nigeria publishes the *Catholic Star.* Ajibade (2002) states that after religious newspapers acted as catalysts for the growth and development of Nigerian journalism, the religious papers fizzled out of reckoning. Despite this, there still exist religious papers in Nigeria published by church bodies. *The Weekly Nigerian Catholic Herald*, and *Today's challenge*, published by ECWA are few examples in this respect. Government institutions have come up with several newsletters and magazines for the purpose of educating and enlightening their workers and the general public on issues relating to the institutions. The Nigerian Police Force, NPF is the publisher of the *Pavilion.*

Another current development in the Nigerian print press, described as worrisome by Uzondu (2010) is the publication of what he describes as mushroom newspapers which have resonated on Nigerian newsstands as products of many unemployed Nigerians. He maintains that Benue State, apart from being the food basket of the nation, is a home of newspapers. According to him, over 50 mushroom newspapers are published in Benue State alone. The development, he asserts, is as a result of the difficulties faced by many graduate youths who

are roaming the streets without jobs. Uzondo contends that most of the newspapers have no corporate offices.

The print media under the 4th, 5th and 6th republics are extolled in terms of performance. Bitrus (2007) argues that most print media organizations still operate quality journalism that is assured on good content production. The Nigerian print media has, under the democratic government since 1999, unearthed heinous activities of politicians and have been able to bring the culprits under accountability. The media under the democratic government investigated forgery allegations against a former Speaker of the House of Representatives, Alhaji Salisu Buhari and found out that he had forged his academic qualifications and age. This however led to the resignation and consequent removal of the speaker from the Nigerian National Assembly.

The Nigerian press, according to Bitrus (2007) fought President Obasanjo who was alleged to have initiated a third term arrangement to aid him hold on to democratic power in office by altering sections of the Nigerian constitution. Due to the vibrant arguments on the newspapers and magazines against the move, the third term agenda did not materialize.

Furthermore, the print media equally raised important constitutional questions, when a vacuum was created in 2009 over President Musa Yar'adua's ill health. The press initiated and sustained the argument on the implication of the absence of the president without following constitutional stipulations. They however, succeeded when his vice, Dr. Goodluck Jonathan was eventually elevated to acting capacity as it was supposed to be. Generally, the Nigerian print press under the 4th, 5th and 6th republics has lived up to its constitutional responsibilities with little interference from the government.

2.3   Different Forms of Journalism

Journalism is no longer restricted to news form of reportage, but has, over the years recorded developments which depart from the breaking news varieties that form part of daily life. Modern developments in the field of mass media record the evolution of different types of journalism with different dimensions of practice. These forms of journalism in some instances are referred to as schools of thought. The differences between these schools are seen in their description of how journalism is ought to be. These schools of journalism have distinct approaches to how the practice of journalism should be assumed as a matter of

improving the profession. The basic issue arising among these kinds of journalism is that each has a dimension and orientation that stands away from others. It will be difficult to take all these forms of journalism into perspective. This study therefore highlights the most pronounced ones:

2.3.1   Yellow Journalism

The first kind of knowledge about the forms of journalism can be best described as yellow journalism. According to Campbell, Martin and Fabos (2005), the rise of competitive press across the world, more significantly in American journalism brought to fore, yellow journalism. According to them, yellow journalism which began in the late 1800s emphasized profit making papers that carried human interest stories, crime news and large headlines. They are of the opinion that the period of yellow journalism was generally regarded as the age of sensationalism. Campbell et al (2005) feature two major characteristics of yellow journalism as thus:

> First, were the overly dramatic or sensational-stories about crimes, celebrities, disasters, scandals, and intrigues. Second, and sometimes forgotten legacy is that yellow journalism provided the roots for investigative journalism: news reports that hunted out and exposed corruption …

Yellow journalism, according to them is journalism without morals. Mott (1941) lifted in Wikipedia (the online free encyclopedia) calls this form of journalism yellow press and defines it as journalism that presents little or no legitimate, well-researched news and instead uses eye-catching headlines to sell more newspapers. In a lone work, Campbell (2001) as reflected in Wikipedia sees yellow press newspaper as having daily multi-columns front-page headlines covering a variety of topics, but Mott (1941) as Campbell (2001) views yellow journalism, is a reporting technique which involves exaggerations of news events, scandal-mongering or sensational form of journalism with broad headlines. Mott defines yellow journalism in five ways:

i.   Scare headline in huge print, often of minor news

ii.   Lavish use of pictures, or imaginary drawings

iii.   Use of faked interviews, misleading headlines

iv.   Usually with comic strips

v.   Dramatic sympathy with the underdog against the system.

This characterization is based on the style of reporting, which Campbell (2001) sees as 'being extensively used in today's media as a pejorative to decry any journalistic style that treats news in an unprofessional or unethical fashion'. Yellow journalism has been a style of reporting much characterized with third world nations till date (Houston, 2008).

Furthermore, yellow journalism is a form of news in its own right and is relatable to other news forms like investigative reports because all news primarily contains molecules of investigation. This is why Northcliffe cited in Yusha'u (2004) argues that news is what somebody somewhere wants to suppress; all the rest is advertising.

In Nigeria, the term is used in reference to journalistic views that are devoid of facts, including scandals, inflammatory remarks on personalities, governments etc. Mott (1941) says "most yellow reporters have stayed in un- remembered graves", because, for him, this form of journalism is not reputable in the modern world.

2.3.2   Interpretive or Interpretative Journalism

Houston (2008) sets the following criteria for weighing interpretative journalism:

Interpretative journalism goes beyond the basic facts of an event or topic to provide context, analysis, and possible consequences. Interpretative journalists must have unusual familiarity with and understanding of a subject and their work involves looking for patterns, motives, and influences that explain what they are reporting.

The interpretative form of news reportage, according to him, is more than the recital of bare facts, but reporting news refreshed with background materials. Interpretative journalism could further be seen as a collection of shared knowledge which comes after the investigation of a particular topic. Houston (2008) adds that investigative reports create a platform on which the interpretative journalist could build.

As the world turns more complex, most print media have begun to re–explore the analytical function of news. The result of this re-examination has given birth to interpretative journalism, and according to Campbell et al (2005), this tries to explain key issues or events and place them in a broad historical and social context. Interpretative journalism, charges a

journalist into rethinking, remoulding and refocusing on salient issues that ordinary journalism fails to put into context. It allows a journalist room by giving a second, third and several looks into an issue. Even within the interpretative media, investigative functions of news are contained in its spirit to evaluate and reanalyze issues in broad perspective and right context. The interpretive reporter assembles the facts in an already completed investigation and gives them a more detailed look. He brings out some of the hidden issues in context by reanalyzing them in various perspectives and showing their consequences. As argue by Lord Northcliffe in Yusha'u (2004), there are elements of investigation in every news form. To him, news without ingredients of investigation is mere advertisement. One way ascertaining Yusha'u's claim is to assess the use of language in investigative journalism which this present study is designed to do.

2.3.3   Literary Form of Journalism

Sonja (2005) outlines the difference between literary journalism and other forms of journalism, when she notes that in literary journalism, the reporter would also use literary or narrative techniques that would make the story similar to a novel. She further explains that, rather than answering informational who, what, when or where, the journalist depicts moments in time and appoints the techniques of realistic fiction to portray daily life. Viklund (2009) sees this concept in broader sense but simply says that literary journalism uses fictional techniques in writing a work of nonfiction. In another way, Viklund asserts that "it is a true, well- researched, journalistically-sound story that might normally be written in a dry newspaperly manner that has been instead written with style, vivid description and narrative flow that immerses the reader in the story".

Campbell et al (2005) interpret literary journalism as a response to older approaches of journalism which were criticized and needed alternative techniques. They however, see literary journalism as a rethink and new framework of conventional journalism that promotes style. They further call literary journalism as new journalism and note that it is a form of journalism that adopts fictional story telling techniques to non fictional materials and in-depth reporting.

Literary journalism, therefore allows a flexibility of romance with literary devices for the construction of journalistic ideas. In the course of analyzing our corpus, we identified some fictional elements which form part of the investigative journalistic discourse.

2.3.4 Photojournalism

Photojournalism is a particular form of journalism that involves the collection, editing and presentation of news materials for publication or a broadcast that creates images in order to tell a news story (Wikipedia, online free encyclopedia). Photojournalism and photography are not similar in orientation. Wikipedia notes that 'the images used in photojournalism imply in a situation which is fair and accurate and depicts the tone of a situation'. While photography 'is the art of taking photographs or filming events'. It further notes that images used in this form of journalism combine with other news elements make facts relatable to the viewer or reader on a cultural level. However, it can be seen that, in most situations, not all photographs are relatable to the news form of journalism. This means images are a direct interpretation of the situation they capture.

In a recent context, Kombol (2009) writes that the advent of digital photography has come to challenge the dark room photography and this record a major breakthrough in photojournalism. He suggests that hurdles of publishing news pictures on good time to break datelines are a major advantage to photojournalism across the world. His concern is the given quality production, photojournalism has assumed. Bittner (1989) explaining the roles of photojournalism in the modern mass media say, most newspapers have built their huge readerships and reputations largely on their use of photograph.

Wikipedia further mentions the expanding roles of photojournalism and quality of news images as evident with news technologies. Here, it asserts that limitations that confronted this form of journalism in the past is been overcome by the advent of digital cameras, mobile phones and laptop computers. Photojournalism works within the same ethical approaches to objectively apply journalistic norms to convey information. That is to say, the photo journalist asks himself what to shoot, how to frame and how to edit as considerations for better news image dissemination. Photojournalism can be argued to be part of the investigative print media because of the certain photographs or pictures shot as backups to investigative reports.

2.3.5 Development Journalism

Development news is believed to have a positive impact on the lives of all or majority of people that are exposed to it (Kadiri, 2009). This belief has generated comments, both within mass communication development scholars, and scholars of other forms of journalism. While most scholars still believe that development news in Nigeria receives scanty attention, others take their argument entirely away from development journalism as a mechanism for growth of the society, but do insist that news should come in either form.

Development journalism, according to Kidiri (2009) "reflects the need of the people which may vary from country to country or from region to region, but generally include primary needs, such as food, housing and employment, secondary needs such as transportation, energy sources and electricity, tertiary needs such as cultural diversity, recognition and dignity. Development journalism here concerns the recognition of individuals and their needs". But Soola (2002) sees Development journalism as a way to "… show traumas, upheavals, problems and the progress encountered and achieved from the meaningful stage-by-stage account of projects on new bridges, schools, offices, hotels and roads and other projects". Soola's approach to development journalism hinges on accountability.

For Kidiri (2009), the term still means "goals that can be achieved through the collaboration of the media with government …" for which most scholars see development journalism as a difficult job above the realms of investigative journalism. Domatob and Hall (1983) in Kadiri supports the above view, stating that "Development journalism has a somewhat more difficult job; by spreading the message of patriotism and national unity, it hopes to create new social values and cohesive national feeling". In whole, development journalism, like most forms of journalism practically set out to use the media to inform, educate and sensitize the public on issues that will emancipate the society from difficulties and promote motions for rapid development. This form of journalism can also be found in the investigative media because the overall intention of the latter form is to expose corruption and provoke development for the majority.

2.3.6 Peace Journalism

Schrowange's (2009) view about peace journalism seems to defend the common people involved in crisis situation, and dousing rising tension related to social issues that will put society on the path of disunity. He observes thus:

> It is important to cover issues of rising tensions in a way that conflict, truth, people (not only elites) are solution oriented. Put light on all the aspects of the conflict, all involved actors, fears, needs, root causes, issues and contradictions.

The Peace journalist by the above mapping requires objectively, fair mindedness and reasons as tools for his job. Ulrich (2009) holds a similar explanation, as he maintains that peace journalism calls upon journalist to contextualize conflict they are reporting about more professionally, in a way that will build bridges rather than chaos. He believes that peace journalism strives for the ideal to reflect the world more accurately. He stressed further that peace journalism wants to complement other conventional journalistic forms with valuable contributions of ordinary citizens of the society for social change. Even further, he adds that the peace journalist tries to counter some of the current journalistic conventions to correct a skewed picture. Peace journalism thus, can be seen as a method of ameliorating organized tension rather than spreading it for sake of unity and peace. The peace journalist works in contrast with the investigative reporter who most times is seen as a whistleblower or enemy.

2.4   Investigative Reporting or Journalism

A great British newspaper publisher, Lord Northcliffe, once declared that: "news is what somebody somewhere wants to suppress; all the rest is advertising" (Yusha'u, 2004). If so, investigative reporting is part of every news report. This is because news in itself tells its readers what is not known. Better still, news is seen as an investigative work targeted at exposing certain truths and wrongs which are nurtured by the society. Investigative journalism as a very important form of print media is defined further in terms of its value and peculiar orientation. The Dutch Association for Investigative Journalism says the sub-genre is a "critical and thorough form of journalism". Being an avenue for the expression of well-dug truths and the distribution of valid information, the Dutch Association of Investigative Journalism sees it as "critical" and "thorough" in the sense that the practice overwhelmingly surpasses that of mere news reporting.

But Amaechi (2004) views investigative reporting or journalism as a genre with keen interest to bring information to readers that someone wants to keep secret from public light. This agrees with Oguntayo (2007) who also takes investigative journalism from an angle of secrecy and compression of information by those hunted. Oguntayo, like Amaechi sees investigative reporting as a technical aspect of journalism which entails digging deep into what somebody is trying to cover up. He accentuates that in the investigative process, both the reporter and respondent work at cross purposes because while one is trying to expose, the other is trying to hide.

In addition, Amaechi (2004) defines the concept as "news with difference". For what Campbell et al (2005) call watchdog journalism is to survive, investigative journalism must maintain its critical roles of in-sourcing facts to its crucial ends and paying deeper attention into the happenings of the government, business conglomerates, multinationals and areas of the society where corruption, and crime is on high rate. An investigative reporter, according to Campbell et al (2005) proceeds from where journalists see themselves as mere "gatherers" of information to "observers" and even to those that "monitor" their society's democratic institutions from being polluted. More to that, Amaechi (2004) discusses "investigative reporting as assigning itself an important role of protecting and preventing crimes in the society, saving the planet from destruction and shaping the future of the world in more ways than one". He opines that by undertaking this function, the investigative reporter becomes the keeper or custodian of public conscience. For Amaechi also, investigative reporting polices the society in the larger interest of mankind.

Understood as a genre of journalism which uses its own instruments to restrain the abuse of political and economic power, investigative reporting, according to Kelly (2000), reflected in Oguntayo (2007), painfully appraises every little detail and which the end result put no one in doubt as to the true position of things. Kelly contrives investigative reporting as a method of trouble shooting and not as gateway to crisis.

According to Agbese (2008), investigative journalism is a religious or divine assignment. He asserts that, it is the means by which the press discharges its duty to God and the people. Agbese sees investigative journalism as a "sacred public duty". From a different outlook, Agbese refers to investigative reporters as "princes and princesses in the news

media". In brief terms, he summarizes the concept as the "struggle between light and darkness". Agbese (2008) identifies a tripartite division of investigative journalism as original investigative reporting, interpretative investigative reporting and reporting on investigations. Original investigative journalism, according to him, involves reporters themselves uncovering and documenting activities that have been previously unknown to the public. By interpretative investigative reporting, he argues, involves the original enterprise skills but takes the interpretation to a different level. And the third form of the journalism genre, Agbese asserts that it develops from the discovery or leak of information from an official investigation under way or in preparation by others, usually government agencies. His categorizations are rather less presumptuous, in that, they analyze all the forms investigative of journalism and the situations under which investigative reporters do their job without unnecessarily being prescriptive.

Kyle (2011) is of the view that investigative journalism fashions itself better on the newspaper than other media. He argues that the print media presents facts and figures in writing and that gives readers the opportunity to carry out independent investigations. Kyle considers the critical roles and the resourcefulness of every media and places investigative journalism above others. To him, it is a cornerstone of a newspaper's watch dog role. He further asserts that the investigative genre of journalism exposes criminal deals between public officials and contractors and saves tax payers dollars by shedding light on government waste. Good reporting, he adds will save more lives if a reporter finds unsanitary conditions in popular restaurants or a level hospital and exposes that. Kyle's observation tallies with Agbese (2008) on the ground where he claims enterprising reporters would only show their worth by consistently showing that there are more lies and cover ups in governments than anywhere else in the world. With regards to Kyle and Agbese, accountability reporting otherwise known as investigative journalism survives where a fearless and courageous attention is being paid into the actions of government. This is also fighting the clouds of darkness in governance, which Agbese has stressed about.

The opinion of Mac Fadyen about the devotion of investigative journalism is better captured in Amaechi (2004):

When serious investigations appear, people talk about it. Many know, driven by word of mouth. Sales rise, viewing figures climb, programs acquire real credibility and more importantly still they achieve as loyal following. When news really affects people, they talk about it. It also affects the culture of the press. Editors and producers become more sophisticated practitioners, or more combative, knowing how to use media law to enable rather than put brakes on exposure, building viewers and readers by more aggressive reporting.

Mac Fadyen's analysis seeks to concretize the earlier views that point out at the advantages that the exposition of institutions' recklessness would lead to. De Burgh (2000) who calls investigative reporting as "journalism of outrage", quite touches on salient issues of modern journalism and may be associated with the greater experimentation of the dramatic life between the investigative reporter and those he seeks to expose by helping to cultivate on the ideas of other scholars. De Burgh's techniques, the experience that begins as the internalization of one's unexpressed thoughts ends up as a dialogue between him, a crook and the world. It may be argued that the views expressed here are points of intensity to the ideals of investigative journalism which holds that the genre itself is a response to society on account of what the society demands.

The basic knowledge gathered from the foregoing is the role investigative journalism plays in a democratic society where a complex network of ideas actively work to reposition the scheme of things. To this end, it is significant to understand investigative journalism as the sub-genre of the media which instead of conventional arms to battle crime, uses the deposits of knowledge gathered overtime to redefine the moments of time in the society.

2.4.1   Challenges of Investigative Reporting in Nigeria

The difficulties of practicing investigative journalism in Nigeria and most African states are enormous. Kashmira (2011) argues that investigative journalism differs from ordinary forms of journalism because it can cover issues that are waved down in mainstream journalism. For fear of uncertainties, mainstream journalism would leave out certain bits that come with a lot of challenges. She further points out that since investigative journalism is an unusual form of journalism set out to expose cover ups in the society, the moral stand point it covers results to crisis. For her, investigative journalism is inherently expensive due to the need for extensive research. Kashmira decries the appalling work conditions of journalists and likens this to the low success of investigative reporting in Africa.

Aba (2007) studies the merits of investigative reporting in Nigeria and contends that, no matter how poorly or soundly a democratic structure is contrived, it cannot thrive well without the support of investigative media. His view about the responsibility of the media in most constitutional societies has regrettable difficulties. He admits that the investigative reporter with slim resources becomes the hunted when he hunts and exposes social misdemeanors. Even more, Aba (2007) identifies the challenges of investigative journalism to include the fragile and erratic political framework which is lacking in the aspect of compelling the filing of public documents and authorized public access to such documents, inadequate journalistic skills to poor ethical standards as some of the recent challenges in Nigeria, putting investigative reporting of the board.

Oguntayo (2007) identifies three challenges hampering investigative reporting in Nigeria and this; he says include individual problems, company barriers as well as government and public factors. In his first identification, Oguntayo sees individual problems as emanating from self defeat, lack of resourcefulness and indiscipline as factors that stand against journalists who venture into this form of reporting in Nigeria. Here, the journalist is depicted as a hurdle to his assignment. Of course, the condition of journalists toward remuneration and hazards, combined with maladministration of media organization are grouped by Oguntayo as company barriers. And issues of attack and insecurity for investigative reporters which culminate to deaths, he categorizes under government and public factors.

It is worthy of note that indeed the extensive research required of an investigative reporter who is challenged by little or no resources, however face most journalists down with a hard choice of maintaining investigative assignments. Coupled with this factor as earlier argued by Kashmira (2011), most media organizations are ready to sacrifice investigative journalism for huge patronages from government, business conglomerates through advertisement money.

Ameachi (2010) reviews this compromise even in a broader sense when he observes that "most government and powerful organizations pre-empt the media by infiltrating the newsroom and actually capturing journalists in the dictate of their nuances", the captured

(journalist) often appear on the payrolls of the captor (organizations) and the resultant effect is compromise.   Gayala in Ameachi (2010) puts the accusation lighter:

> Many newsrooms in the country where we work are not clean. Newsroom players can be drawn in many ways into traps laid by industry, business or policy makers, whether these involves threats or "buying" journalists.

The material interest of journalists in most instances determines the kind of reports to be published and not the facts already gathered about an investigation. Apart from that, despite the constitutional role placed on the media to seek and publish information, under section 39 of the Nigeria 1999 constitution, access to information is denied journalists by powerful public officials. The Nigeria Union of Journalists (NUJ) in 2000 sponsored a bill to the National Assembly, called the Freedom of Information Bill (FOI), the bill had suffered varying degrees of frustration by politically exposed individuals who feel the bill, if passed would promote investigative journalism in the country and consequently curb government excesses. The bill which was however, reluctantly passed by the national assembly in 2011 has created no enduring impact to investigative journalism, due to the unfriendly political climate in Nigeria. To further restrain the press from taking up the task of investigative reporting with seriousness, the government own media in the country suffers lack of funding, unjustifiable sacking of media staff or unnecessary transfers. The government who pays media officials is the piper that dictates the tune.

Finally, journalists have suffered insecurity brought about by harsh and unsafe political environment. It is almost impossible to practice investigative journalism in a security challenged environment.

2.5   Style in Nigeria Print Media

The print media has evolved its distinct style of writing with language features which has earned it the name, Nigerian Journalistic English (NJE). The general language of the newspaper is known as the journalese, a distinct mode of symbolization which differentiates journalism from other forms of writing. Beyond this distinction, it is found out that the content of journalistic writing is eclectic (Ayaga, 2010). This eclecticism has made it possible for linguists to identify peculiarities in the writing manners which are distinct to all genres. But the aim of all genres of journalism is to pass news or information to the mass public. The

journalese, in another way, is perceived as "a style of language thought to be typical of newspapers, full of expressions that have been used so often that they lost force". It is the typicality found in the language of print media journalism in Nigeria that this study has addressed.

Characteristically, the eclectic nature of the print media compresses language of each genre to enjoy some sense of peculiarity. Genres of the print media include, news reports, features, columns, and advertorials, but what harmonizes all these genres of journalism together has been the common motif to inform, educate and entertain. Crystal and Davy (1985) observe this difference when they state that the categories of items on the newspaper and everything created in the paper or written by a journalist will not be homogenous. Crystal and Davy, however, believe that, even within the same newspaper, there are peculiarities that stand out and could be specified in terms of language.

Adeleke (2002) explaining this peculiarity in the use of language, asserts that "Nigerian Journalistic English (NJE) may be described as having a rather distinct style of writing and reporting which is characterized by a dominant set of phrase book from which journalists only passively select lexical items and phrases-whether right or wrong, sensibly or senselessly used". Adeleke's view placed on this study the burden of understanding both the sensible and senseless use of language in Nigerian journalism, for which the research adequately addressed. Given the distinctiveness of language of journalism as it concerns all the genres of the print media, it is imperative to discuss the journalese of each genre.

The style of the news report for example, is usually restricted to what many media organizations now call the in-house style or what we initiated and called as operational paradigm. In-house styles, by media contention, are the writing elements that are created by media organizations which are based on their individual editorial policy and orientation. It is in the heart of these multiple styles of writing which have been evolved by media operators that the phenomenon of the language which is peculiar to news reporting in Nigeria should first of all be understood.

For Agbese (2008), the distinct language for journalism comprises professional and trade jargons, clichés, parables, slangs, colloquialism, proverbs, foreign words, phrases and labels that form the flowery language reporters' use and this, he observes did not start quite a

long time ago. He notes that clichés are very conspicuous features of the Nigerian news reports. He further contends that clichés are surprisingly resilient to a level that even linguistic purists, most times turn to use them in media communications. Still, according to him, "clichés are pieces of ancient wisdom that have endangered the media world from looking at new ways of saying things which unfortunately do not add style or elegance to the current media writings".

Adeleke (2002) argues that one does not need to look at Nigerian Journalistic English (NJE) through a magnifying glass before it is discovered that the English spoken or written by journalists has its own flavour and a rancid look. While Adeleke (2002) gives insight in to the choices and use of lexical items by journalists, Agbese (2008) discusses the failure of the choices that form the rancidness of the journalistic style he earlier pointed out. To Adeleke, one would hear cacophonous linguistic concoctions, deftly contrived for the enjoyment of, and further recycling by other journalists and many Nigerians. Like Clichés, Agbese opines that jargons come handy for a journalist who use prints with less knowledge of the term. The difficulty of finding a link between the use of jargons in journalistic texts and their contexts, Agbese maintains that it however places more doubt and raises questions, the manner newspapers speak.

Another dominant phase of the print media language is the contribution of slangs, proverbs and colloquial words in the journalistic style. These characteristics are common in the style of the feature and column article genres of the print media, where a free compass is allowed the journalist to make analyses and bring his personal judgment into focus. Features, according to Crystal and Davy (1985) recognizes background of stories and issues and sometimes entertain the writer's personal appeal. The feature material, according to them would be lengthier in size than news reports, but the task of writing takes the prosaic style.

The style of feature writing in the newspaper, according to Crystal and Davy (1985), is a concentrate of disparities which could be explained by reference to very different audiences envisaged by the papers. Features and newspaper reports as presented by them, share boundaries upon which the first uses detailed and analytical language for message, whereas, the other concentrates on derivatives adjectives to bring out the seriousness of a matter to lime light. This difference is further marked by Crystal and Davy (1985) when they opine that:

The "Journaleses" that can be found between pages of daily and weekly press have certain amount in common, their overall style are very different. This entails that particular news can take different modes of presentations on different newspapers.

The latitude of language of colloquialism and local terms is a cornerstone of the feature writing. Pidgin English, for instance has a stable place in feature articles of Nigerian newspapers. Columnists, equally enjoy this latitude because of the personal position on issues. The feature writing breaks out from answering the informational, who, what where, when and how to create structures of language that are analytical, prosaic and detailed. Ohaja (2005) argues that simplicity and believability are characteristics of features that cannot be compromised. While linguistic elements like adjectives, anecdotes and literary devices used for adornment, she says, are vital elements about features, Ohaja further states:

> It is said that you do not "purchase" when you can "buy" in straight news writing, but in features writing, you might decide to go beyond purchase", to "order", "obtain", "procure" or even "redeem". But you hardly "buy".

Impressive vocabulary, Ohaja asserts, is indispensable in feature writing, while the writer's descriptive and narrative language comes to act on the literary embellishment that helps to pass messages in witty and colourful ways. In feature genre, the writer, according to her is permitted to use related and informal language which could savour a story and keep the mood of the reader closely. Literary elements are of great value to it and very beneficial to feature genres that are to provoke comments from the readers. Unlike the news reports, Ohaja maintains that a feature writer uses the grammar of literature to discuss life. To her, literature itself is life. Label titles which carry fore-ground and background elements to highlight titles merely contribute to the understanding of a feature story (Ohaja, 2005). And permitting side by side the use of grounded elements in feature analysis are the actions of parody and allusions which are borrowed from popular works like the Holy Bible. Also, literary novels been alluded often in feature stories compare characters in the novels and behavior of persons discussed in the feature stories.

According to Ohaja, message rendering and development of structures are realized with the help of personification, homonyms, metonyms, epigrams which she, opines are strongly discouraged in straight news reports. There is the strong influence of pidgin in the newspaper written language. The "Waka About" column in the *Lagos Weekend* popularized

Pidgin English in Nigeria. Several pulp magazines in the country are now written in pidgin English (Agbese, 2008).

Proverbs, foreign words and phrases have received a central attention in the Nigerian print media. The proverbs used in the media, most times are translations from Nigerian local languages. The proverbs and thoughts which are based on peoples' philosophies go side by side with borrowed words in feature stories. Agbese notes that the use of technical jargons is reported in feature and news reports without breaking the hard shell they hide into. He observes that court reporters are often faced with the problem of what to do with Latin phrases that lawyers throw at one another in the courts. Features, according to Adeleke (2002) however provide a bridge between hastily written stories and carefully compiled and analyzed materials for more serious minds.

A more organized and indispensible genre of both the magazine and newspaper is the editorial piece. According to Duyile (2005), the editorial otherwise known as the leader "is the corporate opinion of the newspaper, simply written for the understanding of readers, leading them to take decisions on the issues being discussed". He further describes the editorial as an explanatory text, which presents the opinions of newspaper on any topic. Editorials of print media are aimed at winning the affection of the readers. And for such texts to become meaningful to their readers, the piece must contain reasonable molecules of persuasion.   The Editorial is marked by several distinct traits. Ate (2008) observes that for editorial to be all arresting and catchy, certain literary techniques must be employed in their introduction, content and conclusion. Among other characteristics of editorials, Ate asserts that there is simplicity of language in the general orientation of the piece, while bombastic grammar is severely discouraged. In the words of Ate (2008) language is the pillar of communication and as though the editorial audiences are mostly sophisticated in terms of education, the editorial writers most handle language to favour various audiences in the process.

Propaganda language is at the heart of writing an editorial piece. As suggested by Ukonu (2005) in Ate, propaganda most remain a rational use of argument as well as sound emotional appeal to influence behavior either for good or bad. He believes that propaganda could be useful in editorial writing if the writer may apply its technique in persuasions. In

presenting propaganda as a spice of editorial piece, Ukonu suggests that the writer should be careful not to portray bias and empty argument by blindly misrepresenting issues. Despite the usefulness of propaganda in editorial building, people consider this language technique as outright lies or diabolical communication strategy. Okonu argues that the form of propaganda that is required in editorial piece is not synonymous to lies. To him, the use of persuasions is another important style in editorial writing. Aba (2007) speaks of clarity and good sense of judgment where logical elements could be arranged in an orderly manner in order to buy the sympathy of the reader. Both Aba (2007) and Ate (2008) see persuasion as a planned and deliberate effort by the communicator to get his point of view patronized or accepted by his target audience. In their separate submissions, Aba and Ate insist that an editorial must put across a well-reasoned argument before it could worth its salt. Editorial writing in the Nigerian print media seeks to advance and maintain mentioned tradition.

In a different perspective, language of advertising is of pertinent value to a linguist. The peculiarity of the style of advertising has summoned scholarly attention over the years. Fakuade et al (2005) view advertising processes in two ways, as involving interacting processes, namely communication and persuasion. They are of the opinion that since the advertisers' specific aim is to capture attention of members of the mass audience by means of short messages, the actions are verbal than visual. As the advertiser set out to do this, Fakuade et al opines that this action appeals to emotion rather than logic. But Bolton (1960) cited in Fakuade et al (2005) see the action of the advertiser as not persuasion but deceit. The synergy of language as argued by Bolton does not necessarily function to communicate but to deceive. Fakuade et al, however add that advertising performs the function of want – creation by playing on people's emotions, prejudices and ignorance to stimulate artificial wants. A very key semantic device, used in the advertising language as identified by them is the work of repetition. Generally, advertisers pick or select colorful words that psychologically work to produce stimulating effects on his audience. The advertising genre of the print – media is important to most media managements for its financial relevance. It is equally alleged that the language of advertisement is hardly vetted for this reason. It is on the basis of the unedited language that most advertisements are queried. This view is aptly captured differently by Alozie (2010), when he states as follows:

Advertisements constitute between 28% and 35% of newspaper content, with private newspapers carrying a higher percentage. Nigerian print advertising is largely in classified or displayed forms. Rates are hard to determine due to poor collection and lack of data. Government does not intensively regulate advertising…

Very pertinent attention has been paid to the grammatical structures of journalistic texts. This discusses the knowledge of grammatical structures of the print media. Adeleke (2002) presents the lexical formation of structures in journalistic writing. He states that the problems associated with the placement of nouns in media writings has attracted scholarly attention. To him, a noun used in the print media text is more than its classical definition as name of persons, places and things. In Adeleke's example: "Abacha ruled the country with iron hand', the noun "hand" in the above sentence means more than a concrete thing. He explains that by the use of "hand", the word has been figuratively placed to mean a certain way of "ruling". He argues that by definition of noun in this context, the word can not only function as an object but qualities and even actions. The explanation of Adeleke is within the purview of distinct structures of journalistic writings which places words above their ordinary meaning.

Furthermore, the lexical choices that form journalistic structures are intended to be figurative language, but do not conform to grammatical order. Adeleke illustrates these structures as follows "the long arm of the law has caught up with some armed robbers". In Nigerian journalism, "penalties are stiff, speculations are rife" and "bandits are caught by eagle-eyed police men". The language elements contrived here are selected from local wisdom and adjectives weaved to qualify certain nouns. While some, adverbs modify or compliment verbal forms of these structures in wrong grammatical manner. Adeleke (2002) explains that readers are swamped by aberrant structures that need immediate adjustment linguistically, details for which he submits that it has become a rule in Nigerian journalism, that "people paddle their own canoe". He notices the use of expressions like "you find such a thing in every nooks and corners of Lagos" and calls that "calamitous expressions".

2.6   Style and Stylistics

Style like stylistics has several definitions and approaches. It has been generally conceived that one of the common knowledge about the concept is the way it is being used as a manner of creating text or way an author writes. But many of the secrets of style could be shown to matters of the perfect recognition of the writer's relation to reader in view of what is being said as their joint feeling about it. This is Dada's (2004) view about how style should be perceived.

Linguistic criticism and indeed innumerable frontiers of knowledge hold the concept of style in varying sense. But fundamentally, style is felt to be governed by ones points of action, processes of thought, mode of expression and methods of language use and consisting of the grammatical choices preferred by individuals when they speak or write.

Fakuade (1998) traced the etymology of the word style to the Latin "stylus". According to him, stylus in its raw Latin form means a pointed object, but clearly submits that the concept was later taken to be a pointed object used for writing (Fakuade 1998). In the medieval era, he discloses, style took a similar theoretical classification as rhetoric where he identifies it in three ways:

i.   The low (plain) style
ii.   The middle (mean) style
iii.   The elevated (grand) style

Style, according to this grouping, was distinguished according to its syntax, vocabulary and figures of speech. Given the above consideration, Fakuade (1998), further points out that style was more than just a manner of writing also a way of persuasion. He also identifies two other elements of rhetoric as "Res" and "locutio" which he says was incorporated into style. For him, "Res" belongs to "what" aspect, while "locutio" was concerned with not just the way and manner of expression but way of saying things to please the audience which further entails the "how" aspect. This, according to him is an area where a speaker or writer imposes his personality on the audience.

As earlier pointed out, modern linguistic criticism has brought about divergent views concerning the concept of style and this has grown beyond the Greek and medieval approaches to the concept. Style is being interpreted by most linguists as being individualistic,

that is, on one hand and on the other, could involve language habits of one person. When style is felt this way, we then begin to talk about Achebe's style, Soyinka's style etc. Style is often seen also as language habits shared by group of persons over a period of time, as when the gothic or medieval styles are referred to. This is a synchronic and diachronic view of Crystal and Davy (1989) which refers to style in terms of choice. Werberg posits that style consists of choosing appropriate symbolization of experience one wishes to convey his message. Style here is further perceived as a way of selecting and arranging language based on choice.

There may be a good style, bad style, gothic or old style in the same sense language is described. When a text is not properly organized in terms of its language features, a purist might turn to say such a text lacks good style. When it, however have old usages, it is said to be old style. According to Mustapha (1999), style in this sense is approached based on rules and quality. Style is therefore, a controlled and guided manner of creating text: the controlling and guiding elements being the author's social and cultural environment, his message and his audience and of course, the author himself (Fakuade, 1998). Style is the mother of stylistics, a very important branch of linguistic study.

Just like style, stylistics has no one definition. It is so because modern linguistics has made it open for linguists to approach the concept in their individual ways. The concepts are further controlled by the factors in literary criticism and modern linguistics. In the study of stylistics for example, a literary critic may feel stylistics is a branch of linguistics which takes the language of literary text as its object of study. But modern linguistics has come to challenge this age long view due to the variations of language use, maintaining that linguistic methods could be applied to the study of any text, be it literary or legal.

Fakuade (1998) may have supported the linguistic point of view when he describes stylistics as the confluence between the literary and linguistic rivers.

Mustapha (1999) observes that the literary school holds certain views about style and stylistics which are in contrast to the linguistic school. The literary school sees stylistics as it refers to the linguistic analysis of literary text and the evaluative conclusion made on such text. It is for this reason that Syal and Jindal (2008) define stylistics as the branch of linguistics which takes the language of literary text as its object of study. Leech (1969), in Mustapha (1999), agrees with the above view and describes stylistics simply as the study of

literary style and makes it more explicit, that it is the study of the use of language in literature. To the literary stylistician, however, language use, not within poetry, drama and novel are "no go areas" for them, since such texts are devoid of style. Banjo (1982) follows this line of reasoning and defines stylistics as the exhaustive study of the use of language in literary works.

But, the other major school, linguistic stylistics holds the belief that there is work for stylistician in all texts whether literary, political, scientific or legal. This notion agrees with Chapman (1982) observation of stylistics as the study of how language is adapted to meet the peculiarities of situation, attitude and relationship in specific acts. Osuji (1982) is of the view that linguistics makes a taxonomic analysis of how language works, while, according to him, stylistic analysis, on the other hand examines how linguistic devices are used to portray and reinforce the meaning of a text (Fakuade 1998). Osuji's approach has in no way defined a specific/literary area for stylistic operation and therefore supports the linguistic reasoning about stylistics. The linguistic school thus, does not discriminate on any variation in the use of language. This is why Fakuade (1998) describes both stylistic schools as two interacting animals in the same forest.

Another school which has proven to be very useful to modern linguistics is the corpus or computational stylistic school. With the advent of computer technology, the area appears as a problem solving area to general linguistics based on its electronic methods to language analysis. According to Mahlberg (2008), corpus linguistics may be seen primarily as a methodology: computer tools can count words, organize and display textual examples and generate stylistic results for variety of questions. Daramola (2001) who counts on the advantages of stylistics method adds that it can even decide authorship of a disputed text through analysis of key features in the writing of authors. The different branches of stylistics are each very vital to the field of general linguistics, while all are adequately recognized, no single one can claim monopoly of absolute effectiveness in the mode of its operation.

2.7   Text, Context, Register and Tie

Four concepts which are consistent in any study on stylistics are text, context, register and tie. These concepts work very closely to show the relationship of structures in any work.

This section of study examines these concepts in the perspective of modern and general linguistics.

2.7.1   Text

The modern usage of the word text, especially in linguistics, means a piece of language that is written or spoken that can make sense in any given context. For many linguists, the term text refers to a continuous piece of writing either an extract from any part of any written or printed material or the precise wording of anything written or printed (Daramola, 2001). Text provides concerns for the systematic and objective study of language, pointing out specific characteristics of language as well as the universal aspects of language.

Text, according to Halliday and Hasan (1985), is a language that is functional. By functional, they mean a piece of language that is doing some job in a particular context, which matters less if it is spoken or written. Neither does it matter if it is another medium of expression in which man is engaged and use to establish meaning. As long as such a medium of expression may be represented in symbolic forms as words and sentences, a text, they maintain, is a semantic unit in the sense in which they describe it.

Matthiessen (2004) contends that the term text refers to any instance of language in any medium that makes sense to someone who knows the language. Text, to him is symbolic, so far the speaker and the listener understand the symbolic codes. Halliday and Hasan (1976) provide a useful knowledge about the place of text in stylistics, describing the term in the following manner:

> A text is not just a string of sentences. In order words, it is not simply a large grammatical unit, something of the same kind a sentence but differing from it in size, a sort of super sentence. A text is best though of not as a grammatical unit of different kind: a semantic unit, the unity of meaning in context, texture that express the fact it relates as a whole to the environment in which it is placed.

In their opinion, the concept of text, as a product of language, is not realized by distinct or isolated sentences, rather with numerous and varying number of sentences which tie together to form a coherent stretch of language which hangs together and which communicates with meaning in given context. Halliday and Hasan (1976), further see a text as

a passage, spoken or written and of whatever length that forms a unified whole. A text, for many could mean any simple discourse with an apparent meaning and a uniform orientation.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) explaining the internal expectations within a text, assert that a text has structure in the same way that a sentence is structured. To further show the difference, they posit that unlike the sentence, the structure of a text is governed by formal linguistic rules. The rules provide linguists and stylisticians with tools to point to the strength or weakness of text.

They further believe that, the evidence capable of determining whether a set of sentences qualify or do not qualify as text depends on the relationships which exist within and between the sentences which make up a text. Those relationships, they call them "texture". On his part, Daramola (2001) establishes two characteristics of a text as being a product and as being process. As a product, he argues, it could be an output that can be constructed and recorded in a systematic way for further assessment and examination. And as a process, he says, it involves continuously as a semantic choice through a network of meaning potentials within a given context. In very simplistic terms, Matthiessen (2004) states that a text is form of data used for linguistic analysis and that which all description of grammar is based on.

Very important in understanding a text is cohesion. Halliday and Hasan (1985) while explaining the internal components that constitute a text, assert that cohesion makes it possible for a text to hang together in order to establish between what goes before and what comes next in a text. These internal expectations, mentioned by Halliday and Hasan include the concepts of context, Register and Tie.

2.7.2 Context, Register and Tie

Context of situation is discussed here in three dimensions and according to Halliday (1991), a text possesses three key features- Field, Tenor and Mode-that could be considered if the meaning of a text within its social context or environment is to be determined. The underlying knowledge that these concepts show and how they work together for the construction of meaning in a text is of paramount interest to this study. Halliday (1991) gives the meaning of Field of Discourse in terms of what is going on within a text- the actions in the text. Bell (1991) rather than "field" calls it "domain" and adds that it guides the knowledge of

doings in the text. Tenor of Discourse, according to Halliday involves the participants in a discourse and the relationship between people taking part in the social activity upon which the text is based. The third classification of text, according to Halliday is the Mode of Discourse which implies the medium of communication. For most linguists, the medium could either be spoken or written text. The mode of discourse can be severally referred to as either channel of communication or a gate way for a speech. The three concepts set a step for the understanding of *Register*: Field as a subject matter, Tenor as apportioning social roles and Mode as medium.

Field, according to Olusegun and Adebayo (2008), is a complex act in some ordered configuration which the text is playing some part. This, they say include the subject matter as one aspect of what is going on. Under this dimension, field can be specific with vocabularies exclusively reduced to suit an environment or a "context", while the exclusive vocabularies are "registers". Lexical differences are the most obvious features of language which identify the field, but many grammatical differences are also characteristically associated with different register. (Olusegun and Adebayo, 2008). For instance, the kind of registers typically associated with context of command, are imperatives.

According to Olusegun and Adebayo, mode is another dimension of language in use whose registers account for the effect on our linguistic choice of medium in which language is transmitted and received. This means the role that the text is playing in a situation (context) at hand. Mode refers to the particular status that is assigned to the text within a situation. And tenor, according to Olusegun and Adebayo, relates to who is taking part in the social action. The tenor of discourse will determine choices in the interpersonal system of mood and intensity.

Syal and Jindal (2008) simply define register as language according to situation. When language works in a fixed context, its use could be differentiated from among various other situations. For instance, the English used by a reporter for sports news can vary considerably from the one the same reporter uses while writing investigative news. In a similar light, the kind of language a man uses while communicating with his wife at home will not be the same with the type he uses in office. The context of use of language with the wife requires informal registers while that with colleagues in office requires official registers. This conforms to

Folwer (1966) definition of register as a set of contextual features bringing about a characteristic use of formal features. Register in a text signals a relationship of a particular situation, for which the speaker and listener are inclined to. Syal and Jindal specify five main characteristics of register as:

> One, they are variations of use. Two, a single speaker may use a number of registers in different situations. Three, register is determined by the situation in which a speaker is. Four, register is conditioned by the context and need of a speaker. Five, register shows what you are doing.

Fakuade (1998) discusses register as a theory and subsequently opines that "what the theory of register does is to attempt to uncover the general principles, which govern this variation, so that we can begin to understand what situational factors determine what linguistic features". The theory for elements of language is based on situation speakers finds themselves. Register as a concept is determined by context.

Cohesion exists in different ways within a text. And very importantly to the sense cohesion works is the concept of Tie. Fakuade (1998) argues that a tie makes it possible to analyze a text in terms of its cohesive properties, and give a systematic action of its patterns of texture. The concept is said to further show the relationship between cohesion and the organization of written text in sentences and paragraphs.

2.8   Hallidayan Systemic Functional Model

The leading proponent of Systemic Functional Linguistics is M.A.K Halliday. Systemic linguistics belongs to the prague tradition of linguistics, which combines structuralism with functionalism. Halliday in his reviewed work, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* (1984) postulates that language can be studied by its structure and its functions. Structuralism implies an appreciation of the diversity of functions fulfilled by language and a theoretical recognition that the structure of language is largely determined by the characteristic functions of its diverse form.

The core areas of Halliday's theory are based on *Behaviour*, *Function* and *Situation.* The theory views language as a form of functional behaviour related to the social setting. The theory is also interested in relating the internal organization of language and the various kinds

of patterns a language exhibits. That is, from the functions of the language, the social situation of the language, to how the patterning varies in different social settings.

Systemic Functional Linguistics' postulation recognizes three (3) primary levels of language; *Substance*, *Form* and *Situation*. Substance, as an aspect of the theory hinges on the actual stream of sounds that a person hears or the structures of writing that the reader sees. From the linguistic point of view, 'substance' denotes the phonic sounds – k/ l/m/z/u: and the graphic symbols – a,b,c,d. It also pays attention to variations in accent.

'Form' in the theory, according to Atolagbe (2001) is classified into complimentary sub-levels of lexis and grammar. He explains that lexis is the study of vocabularies and patterns of co-occurrences between them (simple, complex, compound or collocations), while grammar studies the actual structures within the paragraphs and discourse. He added that 'situation' which is the third category, constitutes the background to a text under analysis. *Context of situation* in which language is used, and the ways in which one type of situation may differ from another, is of great concern to the theory. Halliday (1984) identifies three situations: what is actually taking place, who is taking part, and what part the language is playing. These three variables put together, determine the range within which meanings and forms are selected and used for their expression. The three variables, in other words determine the 'register'. Halliday (1984) provides further, the following elements that determine the context:

i.   The Field of Discourse
ii.   The Mode of Discourse
iii.   The Tenor of Discourse

The *Field of Discourse,* according to Halliday relates to the subject- matter which entails what is actually taking place in the text while *Mode of discourse* specifies the medium of a text as basically written or spoken. To him, *Tenor of Discourse* denotes the degree of formality and familiarity of the discourse – who is taking part. These types of situation account for 'register'. Register, according to Halliday, is a theory that describes that the language people speak or write varies according to the situation in which they use it. In a separate submission, Halliday (1978) asserts that what the theory of register does is to uncover the general principles which govern this variation, so that we can begin to understand what situational factors determine what linguistic features. This theory has helped in

identifying in the corpus for analysis, the elements of language which are employed by the investigator based on situational factors.

2.8.1   Matthiessen's Modified Theory of Hallidayan Grammar

In his work, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* (2004), Matthiessen retains the title of Halliday's (1984) latest model of systemic linguistics with deeper explanations. Before systemic linguistics, Halliday in 1961 expounded his *Scale and Category* grammar where he raised some preliminary theoretical issues for the understanding of his later revised models. In the principles of the systemic functional grammar, the theory identifies classes and functions of a text. It emphasizes the motif of using grammar to analyze text by introducing the fundamentals of theoretical concepts that make up the 'architecture' of a language. (Matthiessen 2004).

According to him, the theory has been rewritten in order to make complex aspects of transitivity more accessible and provide more support for text analysis. The revised theory involves lesson on the relationship between the clause, complex and the theoretical – relational organization of text. It has been expanded to include discussion of instantial patterns in general, in text and the presentation of the subsystem of cohesion.

Matthiessen discusses how grammar makes meaning in written and spoken text, by illustrating the distinctive contributions made by different options within a given system. He deals with the relationship with discourse semantic and grammar. He gives the following as the core tenets of the revised theory:

i.   **Text and Grammar**
     Here, he describes and explains the meaning – making resources of modern English, recognizing that contexts for analysis of text are numerous - educational, social, historical, literacy, legal and political. Therefore, the relationship of these contexts and grammar has been expunged by the theory.

ii.   **Grammar and Corpus**
     Here, Matthiessen conceives corpus as a tool for the study of grammar. He argues that a systemic functional analysis of clauses and semantic analysis of form in the

corpus of both computerized and written language can be seen in their organization.

iii. **Classes and Functions**

Here, he postulates that a model of a system of language can be instantiated based on observation. The relationship between what is observed and the categories created explain how language works. Classes, he says is a set of items that are in some respect alike, while he sees function as interpretation of grammatical structure in terms of overall meaning.

iv. **Theme and Rheme**

Matthiessen discusses theme as the label for function in clauses. He asserts that the theme is the element which serves as a point of departure of the message and it locates the clause within its context. The remainder of the message, the part in which the theme is developed, is called the Rheme.

v. **Given and New**

He postulates that the way a structure is realized is essentially 'natural' (non – arbitrary) in two respects (i) the new is marked by prominence, (ii) the 'given' typically proceeds the 'new'.

vi. **Cohesion and Discourse**

Matthiessen argues that a lexico grammatical system in textual meta-function is known as the system of cohesion. Referring to Halliday (1976), he asserts that there are semantic and contextual resources for creating and interpreting text. He says there are four ways which cohesion is achieved in English: (i) Conjunction, (ii) Reference, (iii) Ellipsis, (iv) Lexical Organization. He provides analytical procedures for arriving at these forms of cohesion in the theory. Therefore, some aspects of this theory guided this study in the analysis of the corpus.

2.9 Chomskyan Transformational Generative Grammar Model (TGG)

Chomsky's *Syntactic Theory*, known as the Transformational General Grammar (TGG) is developed around, 'native speaker's intuitive knowledge of language' with specific

reference to English language. In his work, *Syntactic Structures*, 1957, Chomsky determined the basic principle of a successful grammar and brought rules in three phases:

i.   Phrase structure rules

ii.   Transformational rules

iii.   Morpho-phonemic rules

Noam Chomsky likened linguistics to mathematics and tried to formalize structures in terms of rules. He represented the rules in a tree diagram. He says the *phrase structure rules* are set of finite rewritten rules which are generated by internal string of an infinite number of sentences which could also be represented in a tree diagram. For example, a sentence is made up of Noun Phrase (NP) plus Verb Phrase (VP). The noun phrase represents the subject of a sentence in traditional and systemic grammars and verb phrase represents the predicator or other elements of a sentence. They are further classified as:

```
S    -      NP
NP   -      (det)  +    N
VP   -      aux    +    MV
aux  -      T      +    (md)  + (perf)     +     (prog)
```

The *transformation rules* derived from a close observation of the terminal strings. For instance, according to him, the phonic and graphic substance actually forms the phrase structure rules. They involve transformations of surface structures to their underlying forms. For example, passive transformation – the rules that change active voice to passive voice can be seen as:

Surface structure -   sentence

Kernel -   (Sub)

Passive -   (ed)

Affix - (past)

Agent Deletion

The negative transformations are rules that change positive utterance to their negative forms:

I saw Terfa ⟶ I didn't see (+ tense) Terfa

Positive   negative

According to Chomsky, these rules explain to us the implicit similarities of utterances/sentences that relate to the surface level. They also help to predict and generate an infinite set of surface structures from their underlying deep structures.

The interrogative transformation rules changes a statement to a question

Terfa came home ⟶ <u>Did</u> he come home?

Statement   Question

The *Morpho-phonemic rules* are applied after all other transformations. They convert a string of morphemes into string of phonemes to realize the spoken form of the utterance. The rules tell for instance how to place tones in sentences or how to realize the past tense morphemic of English such as /t/, /d/, /ʌ/

Jump   jumped /t/, /dz ʌ mpt/

Play   played /d/, /pleid/

Need   needed /d/, /nidid/

The transformational generative grammar rules are specified by Noam Chomsky for a language, using native speaker's intuitive knowledge to productively describe and specify what are grammatically acceptable in that specific language.

2.9.1   Tomori (1991) and Lamidi (2000) on Chomsky's TGG

Tomori (1991) provides an explanatory approach to Chomkyan grammar and accepts the reality of accuracy and complexity of the form of grammar. He notes that Chomky's work seeks to explain the rules governing structural changes and the formation of utterances which he further puts it more explicit. In *the Phrase Structure Rules*, for instance, Tomori states that the grammar analyses utterances in terms of its syntactic constituents and gives example of "John saw the boy". He argues that the statement does not say anything about the previous history of derivation of the string, *John saw the boy.* He argues further, neither does the rules specify what governs the choice *saw,* as oppose to see, and what rules govern placing *John,* before *saw* and *saw* before *the* and before *boy*. What the rule tries to do, according to him is

to describe the present state of string without saying anything about how it is derived. He shows the instruction formulas for the phrase structure as rewrite rules:

Sentence- NP+VP

NP-T+N

VP-Verb+NP

T-the

N-John, man

Verb-saw, hit, took

In the rules of transformation, Tomori identifies five different ways transformation can occur in Chomkyan Grammar. The first rule, he shows is the rule for conjunction, here he presented in the following example:

I.   the scene of the movie was in Chicago

II. the scene of the play was in Chicago

To bring the two sentences into one, Tomori argues that, the co-joining rule must be applied and therefore: (III) the scene of the movie and of the play was in Chicago.

The second transformation rule is the transformation of correct form of verb in a sentence. Tomori presents two examples: *A man hits the ball., The man has been reading a book.,* where he argues that the verbal segmentations are in agreement with their antecedents, without which they would have been ill-formed sentences. Thirdly, Tomori submits that the transformational rule governing the derivation of passive forms from active forms is agent deletion. In his examples: *John admires sincerity. Sincerity is admired by John.,* sees attention lifted from John to Sincerity in the initiation of tense (ed) and aux (verb) is. The fourth transformation rule is the description of how negatives are derived. In his two examples: *They can come* and They *Can't come,* there has been initiation of a negative *not,* to generate another sentence. The last example shows the formation of interrogative or question rules. This is a rule for forming questions from statements to generate other sentences. For

example: *They arrived* and Did *they arrive*? Tomori explains that all the transformation rules help in the analysis of text based on the rules governing how the structures are generated which further gives a native speaker the ability to form and understand sentences in his native language.

Apart from this rewritten revision of Chomkyan Grammar by Tomori, Lamidi (2000) also writes, noting that the most revolutionary aspect of Chomkyan linguistics was the distinction made for the first time, between surface and deep structures as components of an utterance. He states that the syntactic component of the grammar is central, while the semantic and phonological components are interpretive. According to him, the semantic component interprets the deep structure were the phrase structure rules are specified while the phonological component interprets the surface structure where the transformational rules are specified. Lamidi (2008) argues further that the deep structure provides inputs to the surface structure on one hand and the semantic component on the other.

2.10   Empirical Review of Studies on Stylistic Features of Nigerian Print Media

This section of study is a review of empirical studies on the stylistic features of Nigerian print media texts. The review covers Jauro, Teneke, Ishaya and Ikper (2014), whose work is on the evaluation of discourse markers in Nigerian newspapers. The section further reviews Umaru, Hamza and Sharndama (2013), who took a look at stylistic devices in the columnists' use of English language in Nigerian newspapers and Ayaga (2014) who studied fictional elements in Funke Egbemode's newspaper column, *Intimate Affairs.* A stylistic analysis of Nigerian Bottling Company (NBC) advertisements by Fakuade, Oluwakemi, Sharndama and Abdullahi (2005) was also reviewed.

Jauro et al (2014), investigated the use of discourse markers and they adopted a descriptive design to analyze their corpus, selected from Nigerian newspaper texts. A purposive sampling method was used in the collection of their data. The methodology adopted in their study was Schiffrin's (1987) discourse markers of connectives and Fraser's (1990, 1993) model for the evaluation of discourse markers. The analysis of the corpus was based on eclectic approach to linguistic analysis and revealed that additive, adversative, casual and temporal discourse markers were used in the texts. Their analysis further revealed that discourse markers in the corpus enhanced the cohesive link between the units of talk in the

text. They however, concluded that the Nigerian newspapers use additive, adversative, casual and temporal connective devices to communicate to the audience. Their findings further confirm the claims made in this study that one of the pertinent strategies for communicating information in Nigerian print media text is the use of connectives which are deployed to build up discourse and extend ideas.

Umaru, Hamza and Sharndama (2013) study was based on the syntactic features and cohesive devices in the columnists' use of English Language in Nigerian newspapers. They purposively selected five texts in the Nigerian newspapers for the analysis of syntactic and cohesive use of language. As an evaluation of naturally occurring language data, they adopted a descriptive and discursive design to their study. Apart from syntactic investigation of the language properties, their objectives were to analyze phrases and clause relations used by the columnists in treating the theme of discourse in the print media. Other objectives were to identify sentence types and account for how they help in relating information to readers.

They adopted Leech and Short (1985) checklist which is based on the analysis of literary texts that can as well be applicable to non literary texts. The checklist consists of four categories which include, lexical category, grammatical category, figures of speech and context/ cohesion. They also adopted Crystal and Davy (1969) whose linguistic levels of analysis encourages focusing on graphitic and graphology, phonetics and phonology on one hand, on the other, vocabulary, grammar and syntax. These models helped them in the analysis of variation of language use.

Umaru et al (2013) found out that the columnist engages different syntactic measures in the communicating of ideas to readers. At the syntactic level, they indentified use of propositional phrases, dependent and independent clauses. They also identified simple, complex, compound sentence structures in the columnists' discourse. In their efforts to further analyze language in the columnist work, cohesive relations were identified. In addition, they identified cohesion as one of the internal cues writers use in creating the desired meanings. They confirm the use of multiple syntactic forms in the Nigerian print media discourse and conclude that columnists use simple vocabulary which has also been explicated in this work.

Funke Egbemode's *Intimate Affairs* is a column presently in the Nigerian *Sun Newspaper*. Ayaga (2014) studied the narrative rhetorical strategies of the texts. The study

examined the literary symbolizations that occur in the work of a non-fiction which Nigerian newspapers form part. An eclectic approach to linguistic analysis was adopted in examining the fictional sequencing of language of the texts in line with Crystal and Davy (1985) checklist for the identification and subsequent analysis of literary language.

His findings revealed that different rhetorical devices have been employed by the columnist in the communication of ideas to the readers. The devices identified included symbolisms, allusions, onomatopoeias, metaphors and similes, point of view and hyperboles. The study also found out that symbolisms were used by the columnist to make persons, places and things form a system of the events in her discourse. Also, the study found out the columnist used allusions and onomatopoeia as devices that aid communication. The study concluded that rhetorical devices function in *Intimate Affairs* as relevant as in every part of the general journalistic discourse. He noted in the conclusion that the devices are deployed to appeal to emotions.

Fakuade, Sharndama and Abdullahi (2005) studied the language features of Nigerian Bottling Company (NBC) advertisements. Advertisement is a relevant component of the Nigerian print media text which covers many pages of the daily Nigerian press. The study was corpus – based and the data collected for analysis was randomly selected from newspapers, magazines, posters and bill boards.

Their findings identified different graphological, lexical, syntactic and semantic choices as relevant communication strategies in the corpus they analyzed. At the lexical level of their analysis, they identified lexical formation of adjectives from single, double, multiple and compound types which qualify nouns. They similarly, discovered declarative sentences as common syntactic devices as well as the use ambiguous, dishonest use of language to persuade or deceive consumers. They concluded that the NBC uses language in advertising their products in the same way other manufacturers use language in advertising theirs.

2.11   Theoretical Framework

To guide this research on the stylistic features of investigative reports of selected Nigerian print media which is based on *Theory Triangulation*, two models readily used are: The Halliday's (1984) Systemic Functional Theory of language, modified by Matthiessen

(2004) and Chomsky's Transformational Generative Grammar, TGG model also modified by Tomori (1991) and Lamidi (2000) were applied. Given the background of the review of concepts and issues earlier in this chapter, the study used Halliday's (1984) model of linguistic analysis which is based on context of situation: field, mode and tenor of discourse. Halliday believes that language comes to life when it functions in a given context. It is a natural phenomenon which cannot exist in isolation and must relate to a fixed scenario, with the background of speakers, actions in some events. The role of language in context is better understood when it interacts with certain determinants. These linguistic concepts describe context of situation as a determinant of the meaning so expressed in a text. Field of discourse is the activity and the purpose of language in a fixed context, tenor shows the set of roles undertaken by the relevant participants in the discourse while the mode of discourse is the function of the text in which the events are unfolded. Further, he explains the relevance of field, mode and tenor to stylistic analysis and reaffirms that text is the "thing" in stylistics, which means, without the data presented in the body of a text for analysis, they cannot be stylistics. These concepts interact significantly in the construction of meaning of a text. This principle guided in the selection and analysis of features in the corpus based on contextual use of language.

Matthiessen's (2004) modified model which is a functionalist description of language by Halliday, aided in the explanation of the patterns of structures of the investigative text. His modified systemic functionalist model equally discusses the relationship of structures in a text.

Chomskyan Grammar, otherwise known as the Transformational Generative Grammar, TGG which is a theory in constant change aided the analysis to a greater extent. The model as extended by Lamidi (2000) helped this analysis to achieve an in-depth insight into the syntax of investigative reports of Nigerian print media.

These two theories and the modified versions which were selected appeared adequate and guided the eclectic sense of this study. The theories are competent to guide any textual analysis that seeks to evaluate formal and non formal structures of any human language. The theories also possess the linguistic tools which aided the researcher to locate language patterns and establish the distinct features of language structures in terms of meaning. For instance,

Halliday's (1984) postulations on the values of field, tenor and mode in the analysis of context of situation have broad influence on our analysis of situation types in the investigative reports. That is, it aided the interpretation of language. The syntactic choices in the text were discovered through semiotic structures of situation types. That is, the meaning of certain elements or codes of language also had influence on the organization of structures in the text. The location of these elements was made possible by Halliday's model on context, register, form and situation. The theory depicts the choice that cut across functional components of the semantic patterns of the investigative text.

Lexical differences are the most obvious features of language which identify field. The field determines the range of meaning content, while tenor relates to who is taking part in an event with particular reference to social actions in the text. Mode, determines the dimension of register which accounts for the effect on the linguistic choices of medium in which language is transmitted and received. These ideas supported the identification and analysis of language based on situation. For example, our analysis of register markers in the investigative texts was influenced by this principle.

In the functionalist perspective, Matthiessen (2004) involves the motif of grammar to analyze text, introducing fundamental theoretical concepts that make up the architecture of language axis. Very useful aspects of this reframed theory of functional grammar also guided the study to situate and anticipate events of language in the investigative text.

Finally, where Chomskyan model has served as an effective impetus for this analysis is the descriptive tools the Transformational Generative Grammar model offers for the interpretation of language. Tomori (1990) notes that modern descriptive linguistics is usually studied from the angles of grammar, comprising morphology and syntax, semantics. According to him, all the levels of linguistic analysis have been made easy with the generative grammar. This study achieved the best lessons from these models as exemplified in Chapter four of the study.

2.12 Summary of Literature Review

The literature review centers on relevant concepts in linguistics which are related to any study on stylistics. It looked at the history of Nigerian print media from pre-colonial/

missionary era to the present day practice, assessed language use and style of Nigerian media. The concepts and areas which have been covered are investigative journalism, different forms of journalism. It further focused on linguistic concepts like style and stylistics, context, text, register and tie in order to show the relevance of the concepts to this research. The review also took an assessment of views from highly rated scholars like Halliday (1984), Tomori (1991), Matthiessen (2004), Lamidi (2000) and Fakuade(2008) as well as empirical studies on Nigerian print media texts. Other concepts reviewed include, the Theory of Systemic Functional Linguistics, SFL by Halliday (1984) which is a rewritten version of his *Syntactic Structures*, 1957 and *Scale and Category*, 1961. The modified version of the systemic grammar by Matthiessen (2004) which aided the analysis of the corpus in this study has also been captured. Chomskyan theory of the Transformational Generative Grammar, TGG which has been modified by Tomori (1991) and Lamidi (2000) are both reviewed in this section. The section also contains the theoretical framework of the research.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodological framework, the study design, the method of data collection and the method of data analysis used in the study.

3.2 Methodological Framework

This study employed the technique of Triangulation as the methodology of the study. Triangulation, according to Golafshani (2003) is the combination of more than one research strategy in the study of the same phenomenon. It contributes to the completeness or confirmation of findings. Mitchell (1986), states that there are many types of triangulation in research. He explains that Theory Triangulation uses more than one lens or theoretical framework in analyzing of the same set of data. While data Triangulation consists of time, space and person triangulations. He further points out that in time triangulation; researchers collect data about a phenomenon at different points in time for analysis. To him, methods triangulation occurs at the level of design or data collection while design method triangulation uses quantitative methods.

This study was based on *Theory Triangulation*. It employed two models of analysis: the Systemic Functional Linguistics model by Halliday (1984) modified by Matthiessen (2004) and Chomskyan Transformational Grammar Model, modified by Tomori (1990) and Lamidi (2000).

3.3 Research Design

This study was corpus- based research. The design was descriptive, evaluative and interpretative as commonly used in stylistic study. The study examined the structural patterns and other linguistic features of some selected investigative Nigerian print media reports. The data was analyzed using Halliday (1984), Matthiessen, (2004) Systemic Functional Linguistic model and Chomskyan Transformational Generative Grammar model modified by Tomori (1991) and Lamidi (2000). The two theories were harmonized into a unified theory of Theory Triangulation which combines more than one model for the analysis of the same set of data.

3.4   The Corpus

The corpus for the study was drawn from investigative print media reports. The corpus consisted of six investigative reports. Four feature articles selected from Nigerian magazines and two news stories from Nigerian newspapers. The choice was based on the fact that there exist more investigative stories in the news magazines than the newspapers in the country. It was considered that the six reports which comprised feature articles and news reports were representative enough for this kind of research. The selection was purposively done by identifying only the reports that contained investigative linguistic features needed for analysis. This was because in most cases the reports lacked the features to represent the corpus.

3.5   Method of Data Collection

A purposive sampling method was used for the collection of the data. Selection of the data was made by collecting six reports from front line Nigerian news magazines and national dailies. The corpus collected was restricted to publications that fall between 2008 and 2012 in order to ensure recency. The summary of the distribution of the corpus is presented in table I.

3.6   Method of Data Analysis

The Method used in analyzing the data of this study was the theoretical models developed by Halliday (1984) modified by Matthiessen (2004) and Chomsky (1957) modified by Tomori (1990) and Lamidi (2000). Halliday's functionalist model, amplified by Matthiessen (2004), was useful and detailed. These models were considered appropriate for this study because they provide structures for the identification and analysis of sentence linkers, sentential relations in texts. They also interpret lexical and semantic features of texts.

Table 1: Summary and Details of Corpus

S/N	Print Genre	Title of Article	Author	Date of Publication	Text type
1.	Magazine (The Source)	Kashim Shettima: Fraud in High Places. (Pp 30-31)	By Segun Abifarin	Vol 31 No10 June 2012	TEXT A and Appendix I
2.	Newswatch Magazine	Obasanjo's N800 Billion Roads: Fact and Fiction (Pp 14-23)	By Mikail Mumuni	Vol. 47 No23 June 9, 2008	TEXT B and Appendix II
3.	Newswatch Magazine	A Nation's big Burden: How the Political Class Bleeds Nigeria(Pp 14-19)	By Chris Ajaero	Vol. 43 No. 26, June 27 2011	TEXT C AND Appendix III
4.	Nigerian Pilot (newspaper report)	Fake Anti-Virus on the rise (Pp 37)	By Peter Chris Ajaero	Vol. 1 No. 191, July 13, 2011	TEXT D and Appendix IV
5.	National Life (newspaper report)	How Desperate Nigerians sell Kidneys in Asia for N10m	Anonymous	Vol. 1 No. 75 July 5th 2011	TEXT E and Appendix V
6.	Magazine Desert Herald	Nigerian Biggest Oil Fraudsters; The Worst Subsidy Scam Ever	Anonymous	July-August 2012	TEXT F and Appendix VI

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1   Introduction

This chapter presents the analyses and discusses of the corpus in line with the aim and objectives of the study. The analyses and discussion centre on the structural pattern of investigative reports. It also discusses the formal and non – formal language features of the corpus with particular reference to their uniqueness.

4.2   Lexical Choices in Investigative Text

The lexical choices and their bearings in investigative reports are discussed under five sub- headings: shift, analogy, coinage, acronym and lexical transfer following Matthiessen (2004) theory which postulates the use of certain lexical elements in the analysis and interpretation of situation.

i.   Shift

According to Olusegun and Adebayo (2008), shift occurs when a lexical item is either narrowed, broadened or its complete meaning is shifted from Standard English. Table 2 gives examples of some words from the extract in which shift occurred.

A look at the lexical items indentified in the table shows that investigative reports in Nigerian print media contain complete meaning shift from Standard English. Items like 'inflation', 'masquerading', 'conduit' and 'drain' have been broadened to add meaning in their various contexts which results to a shift. Item 6 and 7 'ballooned' and "space-travel' are also broadened to create an expanded image of the context under which the words are used. These features are used in the Nigerian media to broaden the scope of issues so that readers could sympathize with the writers' point of view.

ii.   Coinages

Coinages are also called neologisms. They are new words or phrases formed to describe new experiences, feelings, thoughts, patterns, modes of life, culture and customs. Investigative reports make use of coinages to convey messages. This is shown in Table 3.

Table 2: Examples of Lexical Shift

S/N	Standard English Words	Standard English Meaning	Meaning in Nigeria
1.	Inflation and inflating	Steady rise in prices resulting in a loss of the value of money.	(Inflation of Contracts, budgets) The item 'inflation' in the Nigerian context used as criminal 'increase' of contract sum (TEXT C)
2.	Milking	Liquid secreted by female mammals to feed their young ones	(milking the Economy) the item 'Milking' has been broadened to mean feeding on the economy (TEXT C)
3.	Masquerading	- Disguise - party at which guests wear a disguise	An impostor, a person who pretends to be someone else (TEXT A)
4.	Conduit	Pipe for water or other fluid	A channel for stealing (TEXT A)
5.	Drain	To draw off, liquid gradually or to empty by drawing off liquid or to exhaust or use up gradually.	'drain' the treasury, meaning to criminally empty the treasury (TEXT C)
6.	Ballooned	A rubber airbag used as a toy	Criminal increase (TEXT C)
7.	Space-travel	A journey made into the space	Criminal increase (TEXT F)

Table 3: Examples of Neologisms

S/N	Neologisms	Texts
1.	Fake AV	(TEXT D)
2.	Arm- twisting	(TEXT C)
3.	Mouth – watering	(TEXT E)
4.	Pay-rolls	(TEXT C)
5.	Institutionalized corruption	(TEXT C)
6.	Fictional- Vessels	(TEXT F)
7.	Emergency Millionaires	(TEXT E)
8.	Get – rich – quick	
9.	Hard – earned	(TEXT E)
10.	Security – central	(TEXT D)
11.	Snail – Speed	(TEXT B)
12	Corridor boy	(TEXT A)
13	Big boys	(TEXT B)

The language in Table 3 shows English words in a second language situation as used by investigative reporters. They therefore, carry the elements associated with specialized reporting in Nigeria. They display how compound nouns, single nouns and adjectival phrases are used to create new senses in linguistics. In example I, FAKE-AV describes fake antivirus devices, purposely manufactured to swindle the buyers. Words like pay roll, and phrases like 'Institutionalized corruption', 'fictional – vessels', 'Emergency Millionaire', 'get – rich – quick', 'Hard – earned' and 'security central' are all lexical items, created by the investigative journalists, do not only introduce a new sense of meaning in language but also deviate from the standard form. The limited linguistic resources possessed by L2 speakers are responsible for such phenomenon. They tend to discover new words to aid them in communicating in a given environment.

iii.   Abbreviations (abr) and Acronyms(acr)

Acronyms are formed either by abbreviations or through the initial letters of a given utterance. An acronym can be used without full stop after each of the component letters. These forms of usage appear in good number in the investigative journalistic text. The investigator simply requires them to compress information as seen in Table 4.

It be inferred from the table that Acronyms are used by journalists to create summary of events they discuss. Even within the Nigerian environment where these usages emanate from, they have become so popular that people hardly describe their experiences in full. Therefore, acronyms have gained stronger power and popularity in the Nigerian media texts. The media make an extensive use of them to achieve economy in writing.

Table 4: Examples of Abbreviations and Acronyms

S/N	Abr/Acr	WORDS
1	CCC	Consolidated Construction Company (abr) (TEXT B)
2	FERMA	Federal Road Maintenance Agency (acr) (TEXT B)
3	SSAs	Senior Special Assistants (abr) (TEXT C)
4	RMAFC	Revenue Mobilization, Allocation and Fiscal Commission, (abr) (TEXT C)
5	PPPRA	Petroleum Products Pricing and Regulatory Agency (abr) (TEXT)
6	FCT	Federal Capital Territory (abr) (TEXT B)
7	CAN	Christian Association of Nigeria (acr) (TEXT C)
8	INTERPOL	International Police (acr) (TEXT B)

iv.   **Analogy**

Analogy, according to Ebest, Ared, Brusaw and Oliu (1999), is a comparison between similar but unrelated objects or concepts to clarify, or emphasis particular qualities of one of them. They suggest that analogies could be brief or extended, depending on writer's purpose. Olusegun and Adebayo (2008) add that analogy is a formation of new lexical items based on partial syntactic resemblance of an already existing one in English. Examples of such forms are found in the corpus analyzed in the study such as:

In addition, FakeAV uses enormous range of convincing names to add to the illusion of legitimacy, such as: Anti Spy, ware pro, Antivirus plus soft, Antivirus plus Xp, internet security 2010, malware Defense, Security Tool, Win web security, XP Anti Virus, Digital protector, XP defender, clean up Anti Virus etc.(TEXT D).

Here, the writer compares FakeAV with series of other similar but unrelated concepts. The ability to bring all the concepts together exposes or gives readers the knowledge to identify fake anti-virus devices no matter the name or form they take.

Another example of lexical analogy is found in TEXT B such as "*Like Julius Berger, CCC also attributed the snail speed with which it is working to lack of funding*" Here, Julius Berger and CCC share the problem of lack of funding. Analogy here signifies that both CCC and Julius Berger are not related in structure but share common problem. Analogies are used in investigative texts not just to clarify but to emphasize qualities of items.

v.   **Lexical Transfer**

Transfer, according to Olusegun and Adebayo (2008), refers to mother tongue interference. Examples of lexical transfer are seen in TEXT B where it says:

"Site engineers explained that they were waiting for the rain so as to observe the effectiveness of the sand filling before tarring the Stretch".

The underlined word '*stretch*' semantically means *road*. Different Nigerian communities refer to road in varying senses, while some use the word 'road' to literarily connote length, path, route, etc, others use it to mean other things. This is another example of the use of English in a second language situation.

Another example of lexical transfer can be identified in Text A, 'he *branched on* his way home to hide the loots'. The word 'branched' means 'stop over'. It is a lexical transfer used to suggest that the actor did not go straight to his destination but rather had to stop over to some other places. Again Text A contains another important example of lexical transfer as seen in the sentence, "Shettima was said to have been *probed* for his *involvement* in *activities* of Saipem Unit". The words 'probed'; 'involvement' and 'activities' could carry other meanings. 'Probed' could mean 'investigated' whereas 'activities' used as semantic euphemism could mean 'crimes'. These words are used to bring issues closer in contexts. It could be inferred that the writer used lexical transfer among other things to express his emotion on the issues he was discussing.

The sentence in Text E provides further example of lexical transfer used in investigative journalism. "The *appetite* for quick money continues to flourish…" The word 'appetite' literarily indicates taste, desire or feeling to eat. However, the investigative writer used it metaphorically to compare the feeling people experience when they want to eat with the lust people have for money. The word 'appetite' therefore is used here not just to exaggerate but also to evoke an aesthetic feeling in readers.

vii.   Use of Adjectives

The investigative journalists make use of adjectives to create special meanings in the mind of the readers which signal different proportions of meaning. Adjectives describe nouns or pronouns and are frequently and extensively used by investigative journalists to create images and ideas in the minds of their readers. This can be illustrated in the following examples:

Examples**:**   1.   The <u>Distraught</u> family was stunned (TEXT E)

2.   For supplying <u>phantom</u> products to Nigeria (TEXT C)

3.   Some companies, not wanting to create <u>fictional</u> vessels (TEXT F)

4.   The CCC was doing some <u>skeletal</u> work near Okija (TEXT B)

5.   Julius Berger has not done <u>Substantial</u> work (TEXT B)

6.   The company has received an <u>interim</u> certificate for the work so far done. (TEXT B)

Adjectives are used in these sentences not just to qualify or modify the nouns but also to create in the mind of the readers some impressions about them. For example, the use of 'distraught' to describe the family may create a different impression in the mind of the readers about the family. So also is the use of 'phantom' to modify products. The use of adjectives to describe issues, events and situations is a common feature that illustrates how investigative journalists write.

4.3   Register Markers

Registers are terminologies that are linked semantically to a particular field of discourse. Halliday (1976) argues that types of linguistic situations differ from one another and situations determine the range within which meanings are selected and the forms which are used for their expression. He explains further that the language we speak or write varies according to the type of situation we are involved in. So, the situational use of language determines the register to use. Investigative reports have their registers as can be illustrated in the following sentences:

I.   Security <u>investigation</u> in Abuja and Kaduna…(TEXT A)

II.   Newswatch<u> investigation</u> at the Federal Ministry of transport…(TEXT B)

III.   Recent <u>investigations</u> by Newswatch <u>revealed</u> that…(TEXT B)

IV.   As shocking as the <u>revelation</u> might appear…(TEXT E)

V.   Nigerian Pilot<u> checks revealed</u>…(TEXT D)

VI.   <u>Investigations</u> have revealed that between 1999 and 2010…(TEXT C)

VII.   Another method <u>discovered</u> by (TEXT F)

VIII. An engineer from Dantata and Sawoe who wish <u>anonymity</u>…(TEXT B)

IX.   But <u>a source</u> in the company said it was watching…(TEXT B)

X.   Top officials of the ministry who craved <u>anonymity</u> said a total…(TEXT B)

Looking at these sentences, it will be observed that the texts analysed in the study contained registers that indicate that they are investigative in nature. In all the sentences, one register or the other exist which show how writers choose words that can convey the message

they have. For example, the word 'investigation' occurs in text A,B and C which shows to readers that the reports they read do not only contain information but they are also facts that are investigated and verified.

Similarly, in text B, C, D and E, words such as 'revelation', 'revealed' are featured, which is another illustration of how the corpus used registers that are investigative in reporting issues, events and situations. Also, words such as 'discovered', 'anonymity', 'source' etc as seen in the sentences from the corpus, suggest the use of registers that are peculiar to investigative language.

4.4   Graphological Features

Graphology deals with the writing system of a language – the orthography of language, punctuation, paragraphing, spacing, capitalization and italicization and so on. In the investigative journalistic texts, graphological features are commonly used. These can be seen in the following:

I.   Spacing

Some sentences and words are marked typographically by spacing to allow the readers pause and ponder on the message conveyed. Space division is a psycholinguistic device which removes readers' boredom caused by long and unbroken sentences. However, space division is used in the investigative texts to create compound nouns and describe experiences in larger state. Critical examples of this exist in the corpus analyzed as are demonstrated in the following:

Example 1   In his official report for the month of April on the Kaura Namoda – Shinkafi – Sabon – Birni road (TEXT B) (A compound noun is formed here as a link to signify a route also as a direction on what has been said).

Example 2   But the middle – aged man is no seer (TEXT B)

Example 3   Is an effective licensed Anti – Virus License with   world – class anti – malware protection (TEXT D)

In these extracts, it can be seen that the writers used space division as a means of forming compound nouns. 'Kaura Namoda-Shikafi-Sabon-Birni road' and 'Middle-aged man' are compound nouns formed by the writer using space division. In the same vein, 'anti-virus license' in text D, is another instance of forming compound nouns using space division by investigative report writers.

II.   **Capitalization and Lettering**

For special effects, these features have been introduced in the investigative text, not only as proper nouns but their derivatives. Capitalizations are used in form of acronyms used as SERAP (Socio – Economic and Financial Crimes Commission) FERMA (Federal Roads Maintenance Agency) and PRONACO (pro – National Conference Organization) all these acronyms are used in TEXT B.

Again, graphitic symbols are used in the investigative reports of the captions. Captions or leads are summarized information given by the writer before the body of the issue. Although the letters are in lower cases but have been enlarged above the normal letters in the content.

1. **A Nation's Big Burden** (TEXT C)
2. **Obasanjo's ₦800 Billion Roads** (TEXT B)
3. **Fake Anti – virus on the Rise** (TEXT D)

Apart from the arresting words in the captions, the information is graphologically expanded above the realm of the normal letters. This is done with the intention to arrest the attention of readers. Capitalizations are also used when the convention requires the use of lower cases as seen in Text A:

"Such shipments include vessels HAKUFU (25, 236. 35 MT), NOR IMABARI (25, 000 MT), LUBNA (21, 998. 135MT), ASKAT (15, 760 MT)"

According to the writer, the vessels are fake shipping lines used in shipping Nigeria's oil which never existed. The nouns are in bold faces to achieve clarity and familiarity.

III.   **Numericalization**

One frequent item in the language feature of investigative text is the use of numerals. These items are figures either representing money, dates or addresses – some of the examples are here below:

Example 1,   "Shettima was accused of deceiving Insured Aircraft Title Service, an Oklahoma, US based company on aircraft deal and was sued under case number **OJ – 2009 – 5905** in the USA TEXT A.

The underlined figure serves as complementary details about the noun - Shettima. Numeral thus provides additional information for explicatory purposes. Other examples in TEXT A:

According to Political, Public and Judicial Office Holders (salaries and allowances) Act (amendment) Bill 2008, the Annual Basic Salary of the president of Nigeria is **₦3, 514, 705. 00** while that of vice president is **₦3, 031, 572. 50.** On the other hand, the chief Justice of Nigeria earns **₦3, 363, 970. 50** while the Justice of Supreme Court earns **₦2, 477, 110. 00** (TEXTC).

The figures underlined in the quoted extract above give details of the salaries of the President, Vice President and Senior Judicial officers. The normal lettering in the report is lower cases but the salaries are given in numerical figures. The writer has preference for this kind of lettering for three reasons:

i.   Since news magazines do not encourage large literature, the numerals usefully compress information and by reducing same into figures it saves space.

ii.   It is the editorial policy of some news magazines to enter such information in figures.

iii.   Monetary figures encourage the passage of information faster than when they are entered in words.

But from the linguistic point of view, numerals as used in the investigative journalistic texts are engaged for special effects, they are meaning potentials given in summarized sense for easy attention and comprehension.

IV.   **Use of Parenthesis**

Brackets are punctuation devices, either of two marks for enclosing parenthetical words. These elements appear too often in the investigative journalistic text. These are some of the cases in use:

Example 1.   A greater part of the first section of Abuja – Lokoja – Okene (Obajana junction) remains largely undone (TEXT B).

Example 2.   Atedo Peterside, Chairman of Stanbic/IBTC Bank PLC, said Nigeria's Federal Government Revenue (Estimated at only N3. 35 trillion in 2011) are two small and its recurrent expenditures (N3. 33 trillion in 2011) are too high (TEXT C).

Example 3.   To get details of fraudulent transactions involving ships, a review team (set up by the committee) made up of experienced bank auditors … (TEXT F)

Parenthesis, from the foregoing, functions in different directions. The enclosed expressions are made to aid readers' understanding but are not essential for meaning. In example 1, The phrase 'Obajana Junction' gives readers an understanding about the subject of the sentence; it is however, a subject complement. In example two, the parenthetic words: "N3.33 trillion in 2011" simply throw light on the plural noun 'revenues' while in sentence 3, the enclosed words function as adjectival phrase which throws more light on the phrase 'a review team'

Basically, elements like spacing, capitalization, numeral and parenthesis which we have specifically analyzed above specially function in the investigative journalistic texts as foreground elements. Short (1996) asserts that foregrounding, partly produced as a result of deviation from both linguistic and non – linguistic norms of various kinds. Foreground elements, as appeared in the foregoing analysis, seem to fulfill what Akmajian, Demers, Farmer and Harnish (2008) contend, as a creative strategy of language which explains its dynamic or non – static character.

4.5   Syntactic Structures in Investigative Reports

This section discusses the syntactic features of the corpus. In the corpus, different forms of structures have been identified and they range from complex, compound, periodic, loose, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory structures.

4.5.1   Compound Sentence Structure

A compound sentence consists of two or more coordinated simple sentences. In other words, compound sentences are made up of either two or more sentences which are co – joined by a conjunctive element. Fakuade (2003) opines that each of the co-joined simple structure is independent of the other. Below are some examples:

Example 1.   Will Shettima be swept away from the corridor <u>and</u> prosecuted for his crimes? (TEXT A)

Example 2.   The irony however is that the vessel, MT ZEN Star does not exist <u>and</u> no fuel was imported (TEXT F).

Example 3.   This is a major trunk road in this country <u>and</u> I cannot understand how it has been allowed to degenerate (TEXT B).

In the first example, two simple sentences are co-joined. The first simple sentence 'Will Shettima be swept away from the corridor?' is linked by an additive conjunct 'and' to the next simple sentence 'Will Shettima be prosecuted for his crimes'. In example 2, the first simple sentence is 'the Irony however is that the vessel, MT Zhen star, does not exist' and this sentence has been joined to 'No fuel was imported' with the help of an additive conjunct 'and'.

In the third example, two simple sentences are coordinated by additive conjunction 'and'. The sentences are: (1) 'this is a major trunk road in this country' (2) 'I cannot understand how it has been allowed to degenerate'. In the investigative reports, the journalist makes use of these additive conjuncts where almost all the subjects of the sentences are not similar, indicating that it is a deliberate device to build up discourse.

4.5.2. Complex Sentence Structures

According to Fakuade (2003), a complex sentence has a main clause which is supported by one or two subordinate or dependent clauses. The main or independent clause contains the major information for which the dependent clause or clauses depend on for meaning. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973), in explaining this relation, state that the subordination is a non-symmetrical relation, holding between two clauses in such a way that one is a constituent or part of the other. These examples are provided below:

Examples   1.   It was this dead and defunct vessel <u>that</u> Nasaman claimed delivered its petrol (TEXT F).

2.   The driver took them for policemen <u>because</u> the spot had for long been a police check point in the day time (TEXT B).

3.   Theophilus Danjuma, a retired lieutenant General and former defense minister, recently spoke the minds of many Nigerians <u>who</u> have grown increasingly concerned about the state of finances (TEXT C).

4.   The oil was brought into Nigeria by the vessel, MT Delphina EX MT Overseas Limar, <u>which</u> arrived at offshore Cotonou, Benin Republic (TEXT F).

Clauses in a complex sentence do not share equal prominence (Fakuade 2003). In all the sentences above, there is a main clause which is important than other clauses. In the first sentence: "that Nasaman claimed delivered its petrol" is the main clause subordinated by "it was this dead and defunct vessel". Fakuade (2003) argues that the main clause can appear in any position in a sentence. It could begin, or be in the middle or end a sentence. For the second example: "the driver took them for policemen" is the independent or main clause and this has been subordinated by "because the spot had been for long time a police check point in the day time'. The main clause in Sentence three is "Theophilus Danjuma, retired lieutenant General and former Minister, recently spoke the minds of Nigerians' which is made complex by a relative clause "who have grown increasingly concerned about the state of finances". Example 4 equally has subordinate clauses introduced by relative clauses as indicated above. The investigative journalist deliberately or unconsciously brings these sentences into life to

aid his theme which requires vividness that cannot be conveniently conveyed by the use of simple sentence structures. Leech and Short (1991) have indicated exactly how the complex sentence works and this is similar to the investigative print media. This kind of sentence gives, withholds information, subordinates those of equal weight, and ties into a neat package as many suggestions, modifiers, and asides as the mind can attend to in one stretch.

4.5.3   Periodic Sentence Structures

The periodic sentence structure has major constituent at the end while the anticipatory constituent begins the sentence. The periodic sentence structure is the opposite of a loose sentence structure. Ebest et al (1999) also calls the periodic sentence the 'climactic sentence' and subsequently submits that in this sentence, the main idea is delayed until the end while the subordinate ideas or modifiers come first. The corpus for the study has such structures in profound use. Examples are given below:

Sentence 1   Even so, many Nigerians are angry and consequently, have suggested that the job of a federal legislator should be part time (TEXT C).

Sentence 2   Bennelt Elendu, the traditional ruler of Ohiaocha autonomous community in Abia State, said it was disheartening that a road contract which was awarded six years ago had barely reached 22 percent completion (TEXT B).

Sentence 3   Nick Udam Abul, a staff of Nigerian Breweries Plc who resides at Mararaban Rido, expressed shock that the company could be allowed to spend so much time without finishing a project, that is of much importance to the state as well as commuters from all over the world (TEXT B).

Sentence 4   In addition, several shipments of fertilizers, meant for farmers at a subsidized cost, were allegedly diverted to lucrative black market through manipulation of supply records (TEXT A).

SENTENCE 1:

1. | Even so | Anticipatory constituent

2. | Many Nigerians are angry and | Anticipatory constituent

3 | Have suggested that | Anticipatory constituent

4 | The job of a federal legislator should be part time | Major constituent

SENTENCE 2:

1. | Bennelt Elendu | Anticipatory constituent

2. | The traditional ruler of Ohiacha autonomous community in Abia State | Anticipatory constituent

3. | Said it was disheartening | Anticipatory constituent

4. | That a road contract which was awarded six years ago had barely reached 22 percent completion | Main

SENTENCE 3:

1. | Nick Udam Abul | Anticipatory constituent

2. | A staff of Nigerian Breweries PLC | Anticipatory constituent

3. | Who resides at Mararaban Rido | Anticipatory Constituent

4. | Expressed shock that the company could be allowed to spend so much time without finishing a project that is of so much importance to the state as well as commuter from all over the world | Major Constituent

SENTENCE 4:

1. | In addition | Anticipatory

2. | Several shipments of fertilizers | Anticipatory

3. | Meant for farmers at a subsidized cost | Anticipatory

4. | Were allegedly diverted to lucrative black market through manipulation of supply records | Major

Periodic sentences in the investigative reports are used both as a strategy for suspense and a way to make readers get attached to the text until the end. When main ideas in the reports are delayed, the expressions are meaningless till the reader reads to the end. The reporter keeps readers in suspense with these structures, so that they could always rush ahead to know.

4.5.4 Loose Sentence Structures

A loose sentence structure begins a sentence with the major constituent and ends with an anticipatory constituent. Adekunle (1991) explains that, in this utterance, you make the audience know the main idea before getting to the end of the whole construction. He argues that, in this kind of sentence, the main intention is to give information rather than tell a story or create suspense. Investigative reporters make use of these expressions in combination with the opposite periodic structures as can be seen below:

Sentence 1   Security investigation in Abuja and Kaduna have revealed that Shettima incorporated several companies in Nigeria including Barbedos ventures Limited, Sky Limit International Limited and Engine oil Services (TEXT A).

Sentence 2   The slowest pace of work on the dualization project appears to be on the fourth section being handled by Gitto (TEXT B).

Sentence 3   He is unhappy that a greater chunk of recurrent expenditure is spent on travels of public officials and things that are irrelevant or contribute nothing to the quality of lives of Nigerians (TEXT C).

Sentence 1:

1. Major Constituent

> Security investigation in Abuja and Kaduna have revealed that Shettima incorporated several companies in Nigeria

2. Anticipatory

> Including Barbedos Ventures Limited

3. Anticipatory

> Sky limit international limited and Engine oil services

Sentence 2:

1. Major Constituent

> The slowest pace of work on the dualization project appears to be on the fourth section

2. Anticipatory

> Being handled by Gitto

Sentence 3:

Major Constituent

> He is unhappy

Anticipatory

> That a greater chunk of recurrent expenditure is spent on travels of public officials

Anticipatory	Things that are irrelevant or contribute nothing to the quality of lives of Nigerians.

By making readers know the main ideas before the supporting ones in the investigative reports, it could be a sure way of introducing variety of structures to continuously keep readers in suspense and save them from being bored. Several constructions have been identified, which include the periodic structure, and by making use of loose or cumulative structures in the reports, the reporter engages multiple construction strategy as a way to add elegance to the stories and wholly spice up the reports. Loose sentences do not keep readers in suspense but open up main ideas as sentences begin.

4.5.5 Declaratives

A declarative sentence here is described based on meaning and not on structure. Declarative sentences convey information or make factual statements. In our corpus, the statements run across the investigative reports of the Nigerian print media. Here are some of these statements:

Sentence 1   The president refused to sign the bill into law (TEXT C).

Sentence 2   I am not sure (TEXT B).

Sentence 3   From this transaction alone, Brilla got a subsidy payment of N1 billion (TEXT F).

Sentence 4   The road is simply impassible (TEXT B).

Given the extensive use of larger structures in the investigative reports, declarative sentences are sometimes invented by the reporter to ease comprehension which becomes a communicative strategy to pass information in a simple and understandable manner.

4.5.6   Conditional Statements

Conditional Statements make proposition as condition for another thing, it issues a ground to fulfill certain expectation in order to resolve another thing. Conditional sentences have been used in great sense in our corpus as shown in the following examples:

Sentence I   *If they can do this, their names would be written in gold* (TEXT C).

Sentence II   If and when roads construction probe comes up, it will be doing so on the heels of similar ones (TEXT B).

Sentence III   If the payment is made, the person's card details are simply collected and could be used by criminals or sold on the black market (TEXT D).

The linguistic effects of conditional statements in the investigative reports function mainly to resolve certain expectations. Here conditions are provided to resolve certain conditions which are signaled by the conjunction "if". The reporter makes use of these conditional statements to unite both the "given" and the "new" in a single structure. It also function in the text as hypothetical constructions to deepen the argument and extend the possible application of the instances raised in the reports.

4.5.7   Appositives

Ebest et al (1999) define an appositive as a noun or word group functioning as a noun (a noun phrase) that renames another noun or word group. In other words, Fakuade (2003) opines that if a phrase stands in apposition to a noun or a noun substitute, they refer to same person or thing and are placed one after the other without being joined by a conjunction. In our corpus of our analysis, appositives are used severally. Some of these examples are as follows:

Sentence I   Anthony Anenih, Former Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the ruling People Democratic Party, PDP was the minister of works during Obasanjo's first tenure between May 1999 to May 2003 (TEXT B).

Sentence II   Nick Udam Abul, a staff of the Nigerian Breweries PLC who resides at Mararaban Rido, expressed shock (TEXT B).

Sentence III	Itse Sagay, Professor of Law, is not happy with the legislators for appropriating large sums of money to themselves (TEXTC).
Sentence IV	Anthony Cardinal Okogie, Catholic Arch Bishop of Lagos, suggested that the remuneration of public office holders be drastically art down… (TEXT C).

In sentence 1, the appositive is "Former Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the PDP" renames "Anthony Anenih". Also, a similar tendency occurs in sentence 2, "a staff of the Nigerian Breweries PLC who resides at Mararaba Rido" renames "Nick Udam Abul". More so, "Professor of Law" stands in opposition to "Iste Osagay" in the third sentence and finally," Catholic Arch Bishop of Lagos" is an appositive to " Anthony Cardinal Okogie". The wider Nigeria media enjoys the use of appositions not just to introduce news makers in varying sense, but in most cases to colour up their personalities for some gains. Appositions in the investigative reports do not function very different from this claim. All the items identified as examples either sing praises to elevate personalities or provide detailed information about them. On the contrary, appositives seek to define and expand the meanings of the nouns in order to reveal their specific relevance to the case being investigated since veracity in the case of investigative journalism is based on authority and believability.

4.5.8   Expletives

An expletive is an expression that occupies the position of some other word, phrase or clause without adding to the sense. The common expletives here in the corpus are 'this' ' it' and 'there' as shown in the following sentences:

Sentence I	**It** is estimated that the political profligacy cost the FG 76% percent of its yearly expenditure (TEXT C).
Sentence II	**It** was originally designed to provide an access way from the northern parts of the country who do not want to pass through Kaduna (TEXT B).
Sentence III	**It** was a grand deceit, never seen in Nigerian history (TEXT F).

Sentence IV	**It** will be naive that we can recover the whole amount (TEXT F).
Sentence V	**This** explains why the country is not developing as it ought to despite the huge revenue accruing to it annually from oil wealth (TEXT C).
Sentence VI	**There** are numerous senior special advisers, Senior Special Assistants, SSAs, Special Advisers and Special assistants (TEXTC).
Sentence VII	**There** were no visible signs of activity last week (TEXT B).

In the sentence structures 1-4, the pronoun 'it' occupies the position of the subject but do not act as the subject of those sentences. A subject of sentence stands in the traditional SPA position as a 'doer' of some action, while the verb expresses the action. 'This' also occupies the subject position, in sentence 5, 'there' occupies subject position in sentence 6, but all are not the real subjects in those sentences neither do they act in such capacities. In explicit sense, expletives are introduced in the investigative reports to bring external ideas which have some bearing on the information given in the sentence. The examples in the corpus show that investigative reporters fall back to some of this existing information to support their recent claims. In example I, "It is estimated…" the question is, who estimated that". Expletives have no clear cut strength to substitute subject position, but do that for the information ahead. It could be argued that due to the controversial nature of some of the investigative reports, there is need for anonymity of certain information. It is for this reason that expletives are used.

4.5.9   Passivization

The use of passive constructions in the investigative journalistic text is seen as a common feature of the corpus. The tool is not only used to provide emphasis alone, but to also bring to the head of the sentence, the thing acted upon, rather than the thing doing the action. The analysis of the corpus reveals that such constructions are in common use:

Sentence I	The contract <u>was</u> awarded to Julius Berger at the sum of N14 billion (TEXT B).

Sentence II The 58, 000 metric tones of petrol contained in the vessel <u>was</u> owned by two companies (TEXT F).

In the first sentence above, prominence is given to 'the contract' and the fact that it 'was awarded to Julius Berger at the sum of N14 billion" the active subject of the active variant has been deleted. The relevance of the subject however is shifted to what is acted upon 'object'. Therefore, 'who' awarded the contract is not preferred. In passivization rule of the Transformational Generative Grammar, if the subject of the active sentence is one or someone, it can be deleted after passivization, by applying the Agent deletion rule.

Similar but a slight difference appears in the case of sentence II. Here emphasis is placed on 'the 58, 000 metric tonnes of petrol contained in the vessel' and the present owners. The importance of the real subject' the two companies' is here down played. Therefore, the case of both the former and the initial owners is latent but with an active verb, the doer of the action is the subject of the sentence as we can observe: Two companies owe the 58, 000 metric tonnes of petrol contained in the vessel. As earlier pointed out, the passivization tool in the investigative reports is not only used to provide emphasis, but to also give prominence to certain elements. Just like the case of expletives, the nature of some of the controversial reports covered by journalists require anonymity of certain information, therefore, the use of passive constructions hide identities of the subjects.

4.5.10 Infinitization

The infinitives function pertinently in the construction of textual meaning in the investigative journalistic text. An infinitive is the plain, or uninflected, form of a verb (go, run, fall, talk, dress, shout) and is generally preceded by the word 'to' which in this case, is not a preposition but rather the sign of an infinitive. Some textual examples are provided below:

Sentence I In other words, government contracts are just avenues <u>to milking</u> the economy (TEXT C).

Sentence II … Nigerians who have grown increasingly concerned about the state of huge public finances, particularly the huge amount the nation spends <u>to keep</u> government running (TEXT C).

Sentence III	He explained that effort of construction firm <u>to move</u> fast on the job, were being frustrated by bureaucratic bottlenecks at the ministry (TEXT B).
Sentence IV	Some other companies, not wanting <u>to create</u> fictional vessels, decided <u>to space- travel</u> existing ones (TEXT F).

In sentence one, the infinitive 'to milking' is used to qualify the compound noun 'government contracts', while the infinitive 'to keep' describes the verb 'spends' in sentence two. For sentence three, the infinitive 'to move' qualifies the plural noun 'efforts'. The last sentence has two infinitives, 'to create' and 'to space – travel' both function as objects of verbs 'wanting' and decided' respectively.

4.5.11   Negativization

Syntactic negations are expressions that appear in a negative sense. They can be statements, ideas, doctrines, contradictions or rebuttals. Some of these syntactic elements are used in the investigative text of the Nigerian print media, as we can see below:

Sentence I	But these allocations appear **not to be** the legislator's major avenue of income (TEXT C)
Sentence II	This explains why the country is **not** developing as it ought to (TEXT C).
Sentence III	The degeneration of the Shagamu Benin express way, in spite of the huge amount of money spent during Obasanjo's presidency is **not** an isolated case (TEXT B).
Sentence IV	Some other companies**, not** wanting to create fictional vessels, decided to space – travel existing ones (TEXT F).
Sentence V	While two previous methods – yahoo and yahoo plus may **not** have involved loss of perpetrators own lives, the new act, National Life findings revealed is taking the lives of the practitioners(TEXT E).

In sentence one, the Negative tense "not to be" established a truth. It functions here to establish a condition of truth. While in sentence two and three negatives function to give reasons for certain actions or occurrences. 'Not' wanting in sentence four is also a negation

which has been introduced to state a reason for an action. The negation, in sentence five, "may not have,' is syntactically introduced to compare two issues. Negations in the investigative reports, as analyzed, function to realize reasons for some actions, compare information as well as state simple truths for certain actions. Negations, in investigative writing also contradict other prevailing or established information an investigative journalist seeks to floor by putting language in pessimistic sense.

4.5.12   Fronting of Grammatical Elements

Fronting is an important syntactic feature in the work of an investigative reporter. Fronting is carried out to achieve both giving certain information prominence and also emphasizing relevant details. These are some of the examples:

Sentence I   Refusing to accept that it was over and out, arising from the measly income that was trickling in, die-hards, as Nigerians are acknowledged, invented yet another conduit (TEXT E).

Sentence II   Under the new act, voodoo priests and priestesses are hired to prepare charms (TEXT E).

Sentence III   Reacting to the development, which seems to be on the rise, a medic who attended to the deceased … (TEXT E).

Sentence IV   Owning to the great demand for kidneys in most western and Asian countries, a supply can hardly be met (TEXT E).

Sentence V   Contrary to the company's claim, MT Hellenic blue had been dead and unused (TEXT F).

Sentence VI   Newswatch investigation shows that, government contracts are bought (TEXT B)

Sentence VII   Others are entertainments, 30 percent of basic salary N828, 081. 83, personal assistants, 25 percent, N621, 061. 37, vehicles maintenance allowance 75 percent (TEXT C).

Fronting is one of the greatest keys that link ideas together in investigative reports. Apart from linking up longer details across paragraphs they are introduced for prominence. They also give clues ahead of a major submission as can be deduced from the corpus.

4.5.13   Relativization

The formation of a relative clause in a sentence is referred to as relativization (Fakuade 2003).A verb following a relative pronoun, such as 'who', 'which', or 'that', agrees in number with the noun to which the relative pronoun refers (its antecedents) (Ebest at al, 1999). When a relative pronoun is used to introduce a clause in the process of subordination, the resultant clause is referred to as a relative clause. These forms of construction appear prominently in the investigative text:

Sentence I   Several months earlier, Nasaman made N750million from the subsidy fund, <u>when</u> it claimed it received 7,500 metric tones of petrol from a vessel, MT Overseas Limar (TEXT F).

Sentence II   Top of the companies involved in this falsification is A – Z petroleum, **<u>which</u>** got N2.3 billion from four of such deals (TEXT A).

Sentence III   The Company has received an interim certificate for the work so far done, certifying payment of N2.5 billion, <u>which</u> represents 60 percent of the total contract sum (TEXT B).

Sentence IV   The Fake AV will typically pretend to scan the computer and find non – existent threats; sometimes creating files give of junk <u>that</u> will then be detected (TEXT D).

Sentence V   Whenever the Ministers are travelling out of the country on official assignments, they go with a retinue of advisers <u>who </u>are paid outrageous duty tour allowances and estacodes like their bosses (TEXT C).

In the above examples, 5 relative pronouns have been identified in the five sentences which have been introduced to join their antecedents. In the investigative reports, relative pronouns do not just function to join the clauses to their antecedents, it is another syntactic device used for putting more flesh on what goes before the pronouns are introduced. As

earlier stated, the investigative reporter makes use of variety of constructions which aid in moulding multiple ideas into a single unit.

4.5.14   Textual Cohesive Strategies in Investigative Reports

The grammar of a language contains rules for sentence connection by using devices (Syal and Jindal, 2008). This, however examines the cohesive strategies which occur in the corpus for stylistic analysis. Halliday and Hasan (1970) identify five different cohesive strategies which help in understanding how structures hang together. These are **Reference**, *Substitution*, *Ellipsis*, *Conjunction* and *lexical* cohesion. The famous cohesive strategies identified in the investigative journalistic texts are the conjunction and substitution devices. This could be observed as follows:

i.   Additive Conjuncts

Here connection indicates that which adds to that which is given in the earlier sentence. For example, 'and' indicates addition, so do the phrases 'also', 'further', 'besides', 'in addition' etc.

Sentence I   The implication is that the cost of servicing the large government bureaucracy <u>plus</u> inefficient <u>and</u> wasteful maintenance spending <u>as well as</u> the jumbo pay of federal lawmaker consumes virtually all the revenues (TEXT C)

Sentence II   <u>But</u> the huge burden of governance is not just through legitimate remunerations of political office holders <u>but</u> what they are earning illegitimately (TEXT C).

Sentence III   <u>In addition,</u> several shipments of fertilizers, meant for farmers at a subsidized rate, were allegedly diverted (TEXT A).

Three additive conjuncts have been identified. In sentence one 'plus' functions both as an additive and as preposition. 'And', and 'as well as' become a bridge in between different elements of the sentence, making the sentence a compound – complex structure. Sentence two holds an adversative conjunct 'but' which begins the sentence and towards the sentence end. This indicates opposition to the earlier statements.

In sentence three, the additive conjunct 'in addition' is used to show that some issues were raised before the connection of the preceding issue. Additive conjuncts work primarily in the investigative reports to pull together separate chunks of information into a unified whole as a measure of showing readers the relationship which exists among separate elements. This kind cohesive is seen as a general exposition that cut across all the Nigerian media.

ii.   Place, Lexical and Time Relators

There are words that denote both time and place relationship to connect sentences. Time relationship between sentences can be signaled by adjectives and adverbials, which refer to events having occurred in succession and thus establish a link between sentences. The patterns of these usages are in the corpus as follows:

Example I   He had estimated that he should be at his park by 5p.m. That however, was not to be as he ran into a traffic gird lock which kept him on the road till 9: pm (TEXT B).

An examination of the above two sentences shows that, in the structure, different cohesive strategies is present. First, we can observe strings of lexical cohesion in pronouns 'He' (two times) 'His' (one time) 'him' (one time,) all referring to one person in the first part of the sentence. Apart from this 'that' used in the second part of the structure anaphorically refers to the whole first sentence. 'He had estimated that he should be at his park by 5:00 pm". In another sense, there is a contrastive time relation between '5pm and 9pm as intended by the personal pronoun 'He'. 'This' in the second sentence of the structure is a relative pronoun that functions as a connector. 'By' in the first sentence is a preposition, indicating time. Cohesive ties in this particular structure are interwoven. They are used in multiple dimensions to maintain the unity of the structure. It is of particular note that, the investigative reporter brings these constructions into focus in order to avoid unnecessary repetition of names, places and time.

Example II   Each of the phases is being handled by a different contractor and supervised by the field (TEXT B).

Similarly, in the above sentence, different cohesive ties are employed. We have the preposition 'by' (two times), and 'and' (one time). Apart from connecting different clauses to

form a single whole of the various elements, some words are connected into phrases. The verbs 'supervised' and 'handled' have a distinct semantic relation, both function as transitive verbs which passes action to their objects.

Example III   Mbam admitted that the commission fixed the salaries for lawmakers <u>in line</u> with <u>what </u>is obtainable <u>elsewhere</u> in the world (TEXT C).

Just like the previous sentence analyzed, sentence III equally employs different cohesive strategies in a single sentence structure. The plural noun 'salaries' has its antecedent as 'what' in the given sentence. The expressions "salaries of lawmakers" and "what is obtainable elsewhere", share same semantic prominence. More so, the phrase 'in line with' indicates or points at 'elsewhere' making a relation out this inference.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), cohesion is part of the system of language expressed partly through grammar and partly through vocabulary. Our analysis of these cohesive patterns reveals that the investigative journalist employs these ties unconsciously and the mode of expression which results to the speaker's competence (vocabulary) also promotes these ties. Cohesion in the investigative journalistic text occurs through a syntactic style which is unique to it. The investigative reporter speaks in compound, complex and multiple structures. The ability to maintain a unity of these structures results in cohesion.

4.6   Rhetorical Devices

This section identifies and discusses some of the rhetorical devices employed by the investigative journalistic writer and also relates them to meaning in the class they belong. This accounts for how meanings are made using literary elements of language which depicts life, experience and issues of the moment.

4.6.1 Hyperboles

Hyperboles are not literal truth but used for emphasis. They are over statements meant to capture certain effects. The statements are often exaggerated to draw a sense of seriousness in the narratives. Hyperboles are in good use in our corpus.

Example 1   <u>Nigeria has never seen anything like it.</u> This story explains how unscrupulous marketers fleeced the nation of N382 billions without <u>supplying a drop of petrol</u> (TEXT F).

The above statement has been over blown to a large extent. The sentence: "Nigeria has never seen anything like it" categorizes this particular corrupt act as the worse Nigerians have ever experienced. In truth, worse cases of swindling have been recorded in the country, but the writer's choice of those words is to give a feeling of revulsion in the readers to sympathize with his point. The phrase "without supplying a drop of petrol" has equally been exaggerated because actually fuel was supplied but was less than the quantity paid for:

> But the <u>huge burden</u> of governance   is not just through legitimate remunerations of political office holders but what they are earning illegitimately through inflation of contracts and sundry allowances (TEXT C).

The juxtaposition of the related adjectives 'huge' and 'burden' is skillfully employed in hyperbolic sense. The oxymoron develops into a hyperbole to create a different rhetorical effect which bears on the fact that governance is simply tough and goes without challenges. Many Nigerian media use hyperbole as a device to extend the image of what is actually at stake in order to achieve the sympathy of readers.

4.6.2   Point of View

After investigation and consequent submission of facts and figures into a report, the investigative journalist in most cases gives an interpretation of this investigation. This is where his point of view comes into focus. A writer's interpretation and connection to the written work is called point of view. To indicate point of view as suggested by Ebest et al (1999), the writer's use of personal pronouns in the first, second or third persons could be prevalent. The first person is used to show that the writer is involved, either as a spectator or as a doer. The pronoun "I" is replicated. The second person indicates direction, instruction, or advice. The pronoun "you" is used in this sense. The third person indicates that the narrator is writing about other people or describing a phenomenon. Pronouns like "they", "it" are usually in context. The investigative writer handles point of view in the following sense:

Example I   It is estimated that the political profligacy costs the federal government 70 percent of its yearly expenditure, leaving just a paltry 30 percent to fund capital projects (TEXT C).

Example II   But the huge burden of governance is not just through legitimate remunerations of political office holders but what they are earning illegitimately (TEXT C).

Example III   Akanemeya tried to play smart by telling them that he had no valuables (TEXT B).

Example IV   In spite of Rawfert cautious approach to business opportunities arising from web portals in Nigeria, it fell into Shettima's ingenious scam (TEXT A).

Investigative reporters, going by their primary assignment, gather facts from investigations and give them interpretations in order to convey their message appropriately so as to win the sympathy of readers. The extracts 1 to 4 show that, point of view is an important device employed by the writers in communicating ideas to the readers. In fact, use of point of view, dominated the corpus as highlighted in the sentences. All the statements in the extracts either interpret corruption or add-up to the issues being discussed in the corpus. The predominant use of third person pronoun 'it,' they', 'them' show that the reporter carries out the interpretation of his investigation based on his views about them.

4.7   Summary of Findings

This study investigated the structural patterning, formal linguistic forms as well as general linguistic features in investigative reports of the Nigerian print media. To achieve this, Hallidayan model of systemic functional Grammar and Chomskyan Transformational Generative Grammar guided the study. The functional linguistic theories of Halliday, modified by Mathiessen (2004) were also used in identifying syntactic and textual components of the corpus analyzed.

The analysis of the corpus revealed that some lexical items such as coinages, abbreviations, acronyms, analogies and lexical transfer were used commonly by the writers.

Semantic features such as spacing, capitalization and numeral, parenthetic words, graphology and register markers were also identified in the investigative reports examined..

At the syntactic level of our investigation, certain syntactic strategies were discovered to form part of the investigative journalistic discourse. They ranged from compound, complex to hypotactic structures. Other syntactic strategies discovered were the use of periodic and loose sentence structures, declaratives, conditional statements, appositives, expletives, passivization, infinitization, negativization, linguistic fronting and relativization. Many syntactic strategies have been employed by the investigative journalists for the construction of meaning in the text. An investigation of the cohesive components of the structures revealed that, apart from the use of additive conjuncts to achieve coherence, there was sense in the use of place, lexical and time relators to give unity to the discourse. One of the pertinent discoveries made was that the use of simple sentence structures in the investigative text was rarely found. Therefore, cohesive devices played prominent role in handling the larger structures which developed the corpus.

Thus, an analysis of the syntactic structures of the corpus revealed that the investigative journalist writes in a unique language style, using complex linguistic structures in their discourse. This is unlike the ordinary reporter who confronts issues directly without giving much detail to it in order to achieve explicitness. The syntactic organization of the investigative reports is not ordinary because different linguistic structures are involved.

The study further identified and discussed the rhetorical devices employed by the investigative reporter. The analysis discovered that the investigative reporters use the literary journalistic tradition in their reports. This is shown in their use of hyperboles and point of view to illustrate their points.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

This work analyzed stylistic features present in some selected investigative print media reports in Nigeria. The aim of the work was to analyze the structural patterns, use of formal and informal language and evaluate other linguistic features in the corpus used in the study. The corpus analyzed consisted of six investigative reports purposively selected from Nigerian news magazines and Nigerian newspapers.

The methodology used in the study the principle of *Theory Triangulation* which allows the combination of more than one theoretical model to analyze a given set of data. The methodological framework was based on Halliday's (1984) model of Systemic Functional Linguistics, SFL which was further modified by Matthiessen (2004) and the model of Chomky's Transformational Generative Grammar, TGG as modified by Tomori (1991) and Lamidi (2008).The two theories were integrated to analyze the corpus of the study.

The result of the study indicated that multiple syntactic strategies were employed by the investigative writers in the corpus. Syntactic structures such as compound, complex, loose, periodic, declarative, conditional structures were commonly used by the writers. Others features identified in the corpus included fronting, appositive, expletive, passivization, negativization and relativization etc. At the lexico-semantic level, the study revealed that the investigative writer employed lexical features such as shift, coinage, acronym, analogy and lexical transfer to communicate to the readers. Different graphological features and rhetorical devices were also commonly seen in the corpus analyzed.

5.2   Conclusion

The following conclusions are arrived at from the findings of this research:

1   That investigative report writer deliberately employed the use of linguistic devices such as coinages, lexical shift and lexical transfer whenever they write. This enabled them to create new constructions and structures suitable for them

to communicate with their readers. The new structures and construction they form deviate in some instances from standard form of English usage.

2   That investigative report writer commonly use literary and rhetorical devices in reporting events, issues and situations not only to clearly convey their messages to the readers but also to appeal to their emotions and sustain their interest.

3   That the investigative report writers are dynamic in the use of syntactic structures. This is because more than ten structures are identified in their writings.

5.3   Recommendations

The following recommendations are made based on the forgoing findings:

1.   That investigative journalistic English must break away from the use of localisms, neologisms and conform to the Standard English varieties in order to encourage and aid communication and comprehension.

2.   That the use of simple sentence structures be imbibed in investigative writing to ease reading and comprehension.

3.   That extensive use of rhetorical elements impairs simple communication and must be discouraged in investigative journalism.

4.   That linguistic hyperbole adulterates the strength of journalism which is based on facts which therefore, must not form part.

5.4 Contribution to Knowledge

1. The vast fields of journalism entails that they cannot be an adequate account of language of journalism. What could be possible is giving account of language of the subfields of journalism. The study is a contribution of an account of language of a sub-field of journalism- the investigative media.

2. The study exposes the knowledge that the Nigerian investigative media uses elevated syntactic structures for reporting to readers while simple communicative structures are absent to aid comprehension. This trait is killing the relevance of journalism on the minds of readers.

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