



“You are quite funny *paa!*”: A corpus-based study of borrowed discourse-pragmatic features in Ghanaian English

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Abstract

This study explores six borrowed discourse-pragmatic features – *koraa/kraa*, *saa*, *paa*, *yoo*, *wai/wae*, and *waa*,– which are borrowed from indigenous Ghanaian languages into Ghanaian English, in order to investigate their sources, meanings, frequencies, positioning, syntactic distribution, collocational patterns, and discourse-pragmatic functions. The data, which are obtained from the Ghanaian components of the International Corpus of English, the corpus of Global Web-based English, and News on the Web corpus are analysed within a postcolonial corpus pragmatic framework. The results show that most of the discourse-pragmatic features occur in clause-final position and are usually attached to declaratives. *Koraa/kraa*, *paa*, and *saa* function as emphasis pragmatic markers and emotive interjections, *yoo* as attention, agreement, and emphasis pragmatic markers, *waa* as an attention marker, emphasis pragmatic marker, and emotive interjection, and *wai* as a mitigation and interrogative marker. Thus, the paper highlights the contributions of indigenous Ghanaian languages to the discourse-pragmatic aspects of Ghanaian English.

Keywords corpus pragmatics · Ghanaian English · interjections · pragmatic borrowing · pragmatic markers

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Introduction

English entered Ghana from the 16th century through the activities of British (slave) traders, who later colonised the country from the 19th century. During the period, English became the language of administration, law, and education. Although Ghana gained independence in 1957, English is still the *de facto* official language, which is used in administration, education, judiciary, media, and other official domains (Huber, 2004), largely due to its multilingual context. It co-exists with over 50 indigenous languages, including Akan, Ewe and Ga, which influence its use (Huber 2012, p. 383). This has led to a variety of English that has been described as Ghanaian English (GhaE). Based on Schneider's 2003. Dynamic Model, which comprises five stages of development for postcolonial Englishes: foundation, exonormative stabilisation, nativisation, endonormative stabilisation and differentiation. The foundation stage involves marginal bilingualism among a few where there is little contact between English and the indigenous languages while the exonormative stabilisation stage occurs during the colonisation period, where lexical borrowing begins and there is increased contact between English and the indigenous languages. The nativisation stage is the most active stage that usually starts from political independence and involves lexical expansion and changing grammatical patterns while the endonormative stabilisation stage involves the acceptance of local norms, occurrence of literary creativity and codification. The last stage, which is the differentiation stage, takes place when there is linguistic independence and regional varieties emerge as L1 or L2 (Schneider, 2003, pp. 241–255). GhaE is located at the third stage, which is the nativisation stage (Collins, 2022). It is used as a second language (L2) by most Ghanaians, with only a few younger people who acquire it from home and in English-medium nursery and primary schools (Huber, 2004). Studies such as Afrifa et al. (2019) show that the English language is gradually replacing some indigenous Ghanaian languages (IGL) in homes in the urban centres in Ghana.

There has been a recent increase in corpus-based studies of GhaE, which have largely discussed phonological (Huber, 2004), lexico-semantic (e.g. Brato, 2019), morphosyntactic (e.g. Brato, 2020), and discourse-pragmatic (e.g. Thompson, 2019, Sarfo-Kantankah & Yussif, 2019) aspects. A few of the discourse-pragmatic studies have examined discourse-pragmatic features (DPFs) such as the pragmatic marker (PM) *actually* and stance markers such as *I think* and *certainly* (Gut & Unuabonah, 2019; Sarfo-Kantankah & Yussif, 2019), without investigating DPFs that are borrowed from IGL into GhaE. The only corpus-based study that appears to have examined DPFs borrowed from IGL is Thompson 2019, who explored a borrowed interjection *tweaa* in the Corpus of GhanaWeb Comments on Ghana's Election 2016. Although Amuzu, Kuwornu, and Opoku-Fofie (2018) examine some borrowed DPFs, they do so within a small-scale analysis of WhatsApp conversations, without detailed analysis of frequencies, collocational patterns and functions of these DPFs. Hence, corpus-based studies on borrowed DPFs from IGL into GhaE are rare, which limits the knowledge and understanding of borrowed DPFs in GhaE.

Scholars have noted that DPFs play important roles in signalling shared ethnic and national identities, and solidarity (de Klerk, 2006; Honkanen, 2020), and they contribute to pragmatic variation among varieties of pluricentric languages such as Eng-

lish. For example, scholars have examined borrowed DPFs such as borrowed PMs and borrowed interjections in different second-language varieties of English, such as Indian English (Lange, 2009), Singaporean English (Leimgruber, 2016), Malaysian English (Tay, Mei, Ngee, & Bee, 2016), and Nigerian English (Unuabonah & Daniel, 2020). These studies have revealed that most borrowed PMs occur mainly in the clause-final position in these varieties and are largely used to perform interpersonal functions (Leimgruber, 2016). This paper, therefore, extends current research on corpus pragmatic studies of GhaE by investigating borrowed DPFs from IGL into GhaE. This is with a view to exploring the sources, meanings and frequencies of six borrowed DPFs: *koraa/kraa*, *paa*, *saa*, *yoo*, *wai/wae*, and *waa* in GhaE; examining the spelling stability, distribution across clause types, and syntactic positioning of the borrowed DPFs in the utterances; and elucidating the collocational patterns and discourse-pragmatic functions of the borrowed DPFs in GhaE. These will ensure that there is a systematic and comprehensive analysis of the borrowed DPFs in GhaE. Although there are other borrowed DPFs in GhaE, these six were chosen because they occurred at least 10 times, after extraction and manual sorting (see methodology) in at least one of the corpora used for the present study. Examples (1) to (6) present instances of these borrowed DPFs taken from the International Corpus of English-Ghana (ICE-Gha) and the Ghanaian components of the Global Web-based English (GloWbE) corpus and News on the Web (NOW) corpus:

1. Wendy Shay should have been underground still. She's not ready **koraa**. (NOW 13).
2. We'll be in the house **saa** eat drink sleep #00:02:25 – 3# (ICE-Gha_S1A-050.txt).
3. <ICE-GH:W1C-002#51:5> You are quite funny **paa!** (ICE-Gha_W1C-002.txt)
4. # **Yoo**, let's keep the black star shining wherever we go (GloWbE 16).
5. # Stop the unnationalistic tendencies and let us progress **wai**. (NOW 44)
6. In JSS I used to fool with the boys **waa**. I fought them (GloWbE 47).

This section has presented the background to the study, with the aim and research objectives. Next, we provide information on DPFs within a postcolonial corpus pragmatic framework, followed by the methodology. Thereafter, we present and discuss the results and conclude the paper.

Discourse-pragmatic features and postcolonial corpus pragmatics

DPFs are linguistic items that perform diverse kinds of interpersonal and/or textual functions in interactions, and whose use is mainly motivated by their functionality (Pichler, 2016, p. 3). Thus, DPFs cover different kinds of linguistic markers such as PMs (e.g. *really*, *indeed*), interjections (e.g. *oh*, *ah*), general extenders (e.g. *and stuff*, *or so*), quotatives (e.g. *like*, *goes*), vocatives (e.g. *madam*, *honey*), and intensifiers (e.g. *fairly*, *completely*) (Pichler 2016). This term is selected because some of the borrowed DPFs studied in this paper can function both as PMs and as interjections.

PMs are syntactically optional linguistic items such as *you know*, *I think*, and *maybe*, which signal the relation of an utterance to the co-text and/or context of an

interaction (Buyse, 2012). They do not contribute significantly to the basic propositional meaning of an utterance but are relevant to the interpretation of that utterance (Fraser, 1996). PMs are generally multifunctional, as they may have “one or several core meanings from which new functions can be created in the interaction” (Aijmer, 2013, p. 12). Interjections, on the other hand, are defined as syntactically independent, context-bound, and meaningful semi-automatic exclamations which provide insight into a speaker’s emotional and mental state and assist in the management of discourse (Norrick, 2015; Stange, 2016, p. 20; Unuabonah, 2020). PMs and interjections can perform textual and interpersonal functions (see Brinton, 1996; Aijmer, 2013 on PMs, Norrick 2015; Stange, 2016 on interjections). The textual functions cover the signalling of elaboration and contrast, introducing turns, and repairing utterances. On the other hand, interpersonal functions cover the calling of attention and the indication of emotion, emphasis, epistemic and evaluative meanings (see Aijmer, 2013; Norrick, 2015).

Generally, DPFs have been examined from various approaches: the discourse-coherence (Lenk, 1998), the grammatical-pragmatic (Fraser, 1996), the cognitive-pragmatic (Blakemore, 2002), and the variational pragmatic (Aijmer, 2013) approaches. In this study, we adopt a postcolonial corpus pragmatic approach, which is a blend of the postcolonial pragmatic framework with the corpus pragmatic approach. Generally, postcolonial pragmatics, as proposed by Anchimbe and Janney (2011), seeks to provide a framework for the study of pragmatics in communities that have in one way or the other been influenced by Western colonisation, and Ghana is one such community. The postcolonial pragmatic framework has become necessary because according to Anchimbe and Janney (2011) the postcolonial speech communities present characteristics that differ from Western monolingual communities which previously have been the focus of pragmatic studies. They posit that due to colonial influences, postcolonial communities “are characterized by extreme ethnic, cultural, and lingual diversity and by social, economic, and political inequities and tensions exacerbated by their colonial histories,” (Anchimbe & Janney, 2011, p. 1451). They go on to argue that analysing multilingual discourse from the perspective of monolingual discourse-based theories poses a challenge. The strength of the application of the postcolonial pragmatic approach to studies in pragmatics is that it provides a framework for pragmatic studies beyond mono-cultural communities and draws the researcher’s attention to other speech communities that have unique characteristics. In this study, we blend the postcolonial pragmatic framework with the corpus pragmatic approach because it enables the analysis of large quantities of data from corpora, which contain naturally occurring language data from different domains. As Rühlemann and Aijmer 2015 posit, corpus pragmatics deals with the investigation of different pragmatic phenomena such as speech acts and PMs using computer corpora, and which involves both horizontal (qualitative) and vertical (quantitative) analysis. Thus, in this study, we explore DPFs which have been borrowed from IGL into GhaE due to the contact between English and IGL in Ghana, using computer corpora.

We also combine the framework with the concept of pragmatic borrowing, which explores the process and results of borrowing discourse-pragmatic features such as PMs, interjections, expletives, and tags from a source language into a recipient language (Andersen, 2014). The concept addresses spelling adaptation, scope, collocation

tions, positions, distribution, semantic stability, and pragmatic multifunctionality of discourse-pragmatic features (Balteiro, 2018). This concept has been applied to other African varieties of English such as *shikena* and *ke* in Nigerian English (Unuabonah, 2020, 2021), *ag* and *mos* in South African English (Unuabonah, 2022), *si* and *sijui* in Kenyan English (Muro & Unuabonah, 2022), and *ati* and *sasa* in Tanzanian English (Unuabonah & Muro, 2022). Some of the studies show that borrowed PMs tend to occur more in clause-final position in Nigerian English (e.g. Unuabonah, 2021), while borrowed PMs tend to occur more in clause-initial position in Kenyan and Tanzanian Englishes (Muro & Unuabonah, 2022; Unuabonah & Muro, 2022). In addition, most borrowed PMs in Nigerian English (e.g. Unuabonah, 2021) tend to perform interpersonal functions while those in the East African varieties (e.g. Isingoma, 2016) perform both textual and interpersonal functions. Thus, in this study, we explore the origin, spelling adaptation, syntactic distribution, position, collocational patterns, and discourse-pragmatic functions of borrowed DPFs such as *kora* and *saa*, which have been borrowed from IGL into GhaE by GhaE users.

Methodology

The data for this paper involve utterances that contain one of the six DPFs – *kora*/*kraa*, *paa*, *saa*, *yoo*, *waa*, and *wai/wae* – which are borrowed from IGL into GhaE, and which were extracted from ICE-Gha (Huber & Dako, 2013) and the Ghanaian components of GloWbE (Davies, 2013a) and NOW (Davies, 2013b). ICE-Gha is not fully completed, but the version used in this study comprises 982,495 words of spoken (526,639) and written (455,856) educated GhaE usage, which includes conversations, news reports, and academic writings, amongst others. The Ghanaian component of GloWbE contains 38,768,231 words, collected from different Ghanaian websites and pages, such as discussion forums, blogs, and online newspapers. The Ghanaian component of NOW comprises 102,994,276¹ words, obtained from different Ghanaian online newspapers and magazines. The three corpora were chosen because they were readily available and have been used for successive studies on GhaE as well as in comparative studies involving GhaE and other world Englishes (e.g. Brato, 2020; Callies, 2017). While ICE-Gha comprises offline usage of GhaE, the Ghanaian components of GloWbE and NOW involve online usage of GhaE. Moreover, ICE-Gha is a relatively small corpus and thus, may not yield some low frequency items. Thus, these items were searched for in GloWbE and NOW, which are larger corpora (Davies, 2019). The combination of ICE, GloWbE, and NOW corpora in the study of linguistic features is one that has been encouraged among corpus analysts since the three corpora provide typical sites of language usage and the different corpora complement one another (Hansen, 2018). Moreover, such a combination has been used elsewhere (e.g. Latić & Wolf, 2017; Kirk, 2022). The corpora are also useful data since they provide researchers access to the wider context of the utterances (Davies & Fuchs, 2015).

¹ This is based on the frequencies provided from 2010 to 2018.

In order to address the research questions relating to the use of the DPFs, corpus searches and concordance analyses were performed in order to examine their frequencies, distribution, position, collocational patterns, and discourse-pragmatic functions. The six DPFs were searched for in ICE-Gha while in GloWbE and NOW an asterisk was added to the DPFs (e.g. *koraa**, *saa**) in order to retrieve variants that may occur in the online corpus, as online users sometimes tamper with spellings for various discourse-pragmatic purposes (Honkanen, 2020). ICE-Gha was searched using AntConc 3.4.4 (Anthony, 2015), a corpus analysis toolkit, while the Ghanaian components of GloWbE and NOW were searched using the analysis software on their websites (<https://www.english-corpora.org/glowbe/> and <https://www.english-corpora.org/now/>). The retrieved data were manually searched in order to eliminate cases in which some borrowed DPFs appeared in Ghanaian Pidgin utterances, as indicated in (7), and IGL as shown in (8). Others included cases in which the borrowed DPFs appeared in posts that were repeated by other writers or where utterances were repeated due to the repetition of the borrowed DPFs, as indicated in (9). In addition, there were cases in which the borrowed DPFs were not used as DPFs, such as where the item was a name or an address term, as in (10), where they occurred as names of things, as cited in (11), and where the borrowed DPFs had metalinguistic functions, as depicted in (12):

7. We dey craze for this phrase **waa**!!! (GloWbE 2)
8. Ma nnipa enti wo nka, **wai**; (GloWbE 12)
9. <\$A>Nana Kofi <indig>**yoo**</indig> <,,> <indig>**yoo**</indig> (ICE-Gha S1A-092.txt).
10. #**Paa** Kwesi Nduom ought to understand clearly (GloWbE 99).
11. #Kenya Airways and South Africa Airways (**SAA**) are trying to take over the lucrative West African air transport (GloWbE 10).
12. kakra' a little') and in the negative **koraa** " (not) at all ". (GloWbE 19).

After manual sorting, the number of tokens for each of the DPFs in the three corpora taken together were: *paa* (154), *koraa/kraa* (136), *wai/wae* (67), *yoo* (52), *waa* (26) and *saa* (25). Although some of the numbers of the tokens may be considered small, we believe that the numbers are sufficient in exploring the structural features and discourse-pragmatic functions of the DPFs. Moreover, previous studies (e.g. Leimgruber, 2016) have used similar numbers in investigating DPFs. As mentioned earlier, the six DPFs were chosen because they occurred at least 10 times in at least one of the corpora used, after manual sorting had been done. Although this threshold may be considered small, the threshold will help in accommodating DPFs that have been identified in GhaE interactions (Amuzu, Kuwornu & Opoku-Fofie, 2018). Moreover, this threshold has been used in previous studies (e.g. Muro & Unuabonah, 2022).

After identifying the utterances that contain the DPFs, we then examined the features of the DPFs based on their spellings, syntactic distribution, positions, collocational patterns and discourse-pragmatic functions. These features were selected to be studied in line with the concept of pragmatic borrowing (Andersen, 2014), as the features are instrumental in describing the DPFs. Moreover, this choice of features made it possible to compare the features of the DPFs in GhaE to the features of other

types of DPFs in other world Englishes. While the first author was involved in the identification of the different features (apart from functional analysis) of the DPFs in ICE-Gha and the Ghanaian component of GloWbE, the second author worked on the DPFs in the Ghanaian component of NOW. The results were exchanged and cross-checked by the authors. The second author, who is a native speaker of Akan, did the functional analysis. After the functions had been determined by the second author, the data were shared with native speakers of Akan who are also linguists to verify the functions that had been proposed by the second author. The functions were revised based on their suggestions.

Results

The absolute and normalised frequencies (per million words, pmw), of the six DPFs in ICE-Gha and the Ghanaian component of GloWbE and NOW, are presented in Table 1, with the absolute frequencies in (brackets). As Table 1 shows, the DPFs are infrequent in ICE-Gha, GloWbE and NOW but they occur with more frequency in ICE-Gha than in GloWbE and NOW, except *wai/wae*, which did not occur in ICE-Gha as a DPF. In addition, we provide an overview of the discourse-pragmatic functions of the DPFs in Table 2.

As Table 1 also shows, *koraa/kraa* has the highest frequency, followed by *saa*, *paa*, *yoo*, and *waa* in ICE-Gha, while in the two online corpora, *paa* has the highest frequency, followed by *koraa/kraa*, and *wai/wae*. In GloWbE, *yoo* has the least frequency, while in NOW, *saa* has the least frequency. In the following sub-sections, we discuss the sources, meanings, frequencies, positioning, collocational patterns, syntactic distribution, and discourse-pragmatic functions of these six DPFs.

Koraa/kraa in Ghanaian English

Koraa/kraa is borrowed from Akan, one of the major indigenous languages spoken in Ghana. According to Christaller (1933), *koraa* is a reduced form of the phrase *kwa ara*, which means *merely, quite, wholly, entirely, completely, really, even, so, or actually*. In negative sentences, it means *(not) at all* (Christaller, 1933). <Kraa> is a major variant spelling of <koraa> and both forms are used in all three corpora. While <kraa> (N=21) occurs more than <koraa> (N=10) in ICE-Gha, <koraa> (N=49) occurs more than <kraa> (N=19) in GloWbE and NOW together. Moreover,

Table 1 Normalised (and absolute) frequencies of borrowed DPFs in ICE-Gha, GloWbE-Gha and NOW-Gha

Borrowed DPFs	Frequency in ICE-Gha	Frequency in GloWbE	Frequency in NOW
<i>koraa/kraa</i>	31.6(31)	1.3 (50)	0.5(55)
<i>saa</i>	6.1(6)	0.2 (8)	0.1(11)
<i>paa</i>	5.1(5)	1.4 (56)	0.9(93)
<i>yoo</i>	5.1(5)	0.2 (8)	0.4(39)
<i>waa</i>	1(1)	0.3 (11)	0.1(14)
<i>wai/wae</i>	0(0)	0.4 (14)	0.5(53)

Table 2 Discourse-pragmatic functions of borrowed DPFs in GhaE

DPFs	Functional category	Discourse-pragmatic function
<i>koraa/kraa</i>	minimiser,	intensifies negative sentences;
	emphasis PM,	emphasises any proposition embedded in an utterance;
	emotive interjection	conveys feelings of frustration, disappointment, anger, etc.
<i>saa</i>	emphasis PM,	emphasises the long duration of an action embedded in an utterance;
	emotive interjection;	indicates surprise, doubt, or disbelief;
	interrogative marker	seeks confirmation of a proposition
<i>paa</i>	emphasis PM,	emphasises any proposition contained in the utterance to which it is attached;
	emotive interjection	signals disbelief or displeasure
<i>yoo</i>	agreement marker,	affirms that an addresser agrees with or has heard something that has been said by someone else;
	attention marker,	draws the attention of the addressee to the upcoming proposition;
	turn initiator,	introduces a turn;
<i>wai/wae</i>	emphasis PM	emphasises imperatives
	interrogative marker,	seeks confirmation that the addressee has heard the information embedded in an utterance;
	mitigation marker	mitigates the face threat contained in an utterance
<i>waa</i>	attention marker (<i>waa</i> ₁);	draws the attention of the addressee to the upcoming proposition;
	emphasis PM (<i>waa</i> ₂);	emphasises the proposition contained in the utterance to which it is attached;
	emotive interjection (<i>waa</i> ₂);	expresses surprise;
	emphasis PM (<i>waa</i> ₃)	emphasises continuous action or excessive flow

in the two online corpora, other spelling variants are produced by replicating <a> in the two main variants, and some of these include <koraaa> (N=19) and <kraaaa> (N=13), as evidenced in different examples in this sub-section. Other replications (e.g. <koraaaa>, <koraaaaa>, <kraaaaa>) occur less than 10 times each in the online corpora. Altogether, there were 136 tokens of *koraa/kraa* (together with their replications) in the three corpora.

Koraa/kraa occurs more frequently in clause-final (N=89) than in clause-medial (N=31) and clause-initial (N=16) positions, as cited in (13), (14) and (15), respec-

tively. It also occurs more frequently with declaratives (N=106) than with interrogatives (N=24), and imperatives (N=6), as seen in (13), (14) and (16), respectively:

13. I'm going back to Blackberry<indig>**kraa**</indig> <,> #00:31:31–5# Seen some nice Blackberry <,> (ICE-Gha_S1A-092.txt).
14. What **koraa** does he show at training ground. Or is it just a special favour? (GloWbE 24)
15. # I spent some stressful day in Accra some days back, eh? Me **kraa**, I vowed to stay out of the capital for a long time (GloWbE 2).
16. so pleaseeeeeeeeeeeeeeeeeee,, remove your mouth from this issue **koraaaaaa**. (GloWbE 1)

What is noticeable is that *koraa/kraa* tends to occur in medial positions in Wh-interrogatives, as cited in (14). In addition, when *koraa/kraa* occurs in clause-initial position, it occurs immediately after personal pronouns such as *me* and *you*, which have the pragmatic functions of emphasising addresser and addressee identities, respectively (de Klerk, 2006). In (14), *koraa/kraa* can be glossed as *at all*, while in (15), it can be glossed as *even*.

Koraa/kraa only collocates with a few discourse-pragmatic features, including other DPFs such as *o* and *mpo* 'even' as seen in (17) and (18), respectively. It also collocates with personal pronouns such as *you*, which are used as address terms, and with interjections such as *lol*, as exemplified in (19) and (20), respectively:

17. They're always late but me dier, I'm not in that group **koraa** oo... "?? Comments # (GloWbE 1).
18. Ghanaians celebrated the American Thanksgiving Day here even more than Americans themselves **koraa** mpo. (GloWbE 4)
19. # I hear you stole all the money from GBC. You **koraa** you are walking free. You see why Kade people rejected you? (NOW 24)
20. I was like oh sh*t, infront of the woman, chale I shy myself **kraa**. lol. # There is always a beautiful gurl (GloWbE 19).

As indicated earlier, *koraa/kraa* can function as a minimiser, which is a type of intensifier that is used to show that a statement is not true or true to a small degree (Quirk et al., 1985). Thus, *koraa/kraa* shares similar meanings with *at all*, as exemplified in (17). Like *at all*, *koraa* typically occurs in clause- or utterance-final position. As noted in (17), the sentence is a negative sentence that contains the negator 'not', and it is in such cases that *koraa* functions as an intensifier. In (17), *koraa* is used to intensify the negative statement that the writer is not a member of the group in question.

Koraa/kraa also functions as an emphasis PM where it shares similar meanings with *indeed*, as seen in (21), and emphatic *even* (see Fuchs, Gut & Soneye, 2013 on emphatic *even* in Nigerian English), as depicted in (22).

21. This is common sense **koraa**. (GloWbE 23)
22. Even that Kotoko team **koraa** you are happy with it. Mtcheew. (GloWbE 24)

As an emphasis PM, *koraa/kraa* can be used to emphasise any proposition contained in an utterance. In (21), it is used to emphasise the statement that a particular idea is common sense, and in (22), the writer uses *koraa* to emphasise the status of the Kotoko team.

Koraa/kraa can also function as an emotive interjection, which signals the emotional state of the user (Stange, 2016). It may be used to convey emotions of disappointment in (23) and (24). It can also express emotions of anger, frustration, disgust, and exasperation, as shown in (25), (26), (27), and (28), respectively.

23. Who cares about blackstars? We are thinking of ourselves **koraa**.# (NOW 53).
24. home use everything: home use cars, home use clothing, home use toothbrushes **koraa** mpo, there is not much GES can do about this phrase. (GloWbE 13)
25. What is wrong with African leaders **koraaaaa**? (GloWbE 1)
26. The Most Stylish Men of Ghanaian Origin 2012' hasn't been easy **kraaaaa**, -there are too many stylish men of Ghanaian ancestry to choose from; (GloWbE 1)
27. What **koraa** will it take to fix the street lights? (GloWbE 26)
28. What's wrong with this man **koraa**!! (NOW 54)

In (23), the writer uses *koraa* to express his/her disappointment in the Ghanaian football team, and in (24) also, the speaker is disappointed that Ghanaians are using *home used* items in many instances and there are even *home used* toothbrushes. In (25), the writer uses *koraaaaa* to show his anger at African leaders while in (26), the writer uses *kraaaaa* to express his/her frustration at his/her inability to choose "The Most Stylish Men of Ghanaian Origin." In (27), the writer uses *koraa* to show disgust at the inability of the government to fix street lights while in (28), the speaker is exasperated with the person he/she is talking about. The speaker here wonders what exactly the problem is with the person he/she is discussing.

It is, however, not in all cases that *koraa* is used to convey negative feelings. In some cases, *koraa* conveys positive emotions, as illustrated in (29):

29. We felt very uneasy keeping you for that inordinate duration, but you were cool **koraa**. (NOW 48)

In (29), *koraa* is used to convey admiration towards the addressee who was not angry or upset despite the delay s/he experienced.

Saa in Ghanaian English

The PM *saa* is also borrowed from Akan *sà* and *saá*. These markers are contracted forms of the phrases *saá ara* and *sà ára*. *Sà* (low tone) shares similar meanings with *that is, so, thus, in that manner, or way*, while *saá* (high tone) means 'for a very long time' and could be used to indicate the intensity, degree, extent, or duration of an action (Christaller, 1933). These two meanings influence the meanings of *saa* in GhaE. When *saa* is used in GhaE written texts, the tone is not marked but the context and function tell the addressee which one the addresser has in mind (Wharton, 2003).

In ICE-Gha, *saa* is written as <saa> but in GloWbE and NOW, it appears as <saa> (N=6), <saaa> (N=7), and <saaaa> (N=3); NOW also has instances of <saaaaa> (N=2) and an instance where <a> is replicated 9 times, as evidenced in examples in this sub-section. *Saa* occurs more frequently in clause-final (N=19) than in clause-medial (N=6) position, as depicted in (30) and (31) respectively. *Saa* also co-occurs most often with declaratives (N=22) than with exclamatives (N=2) and interrogatives (N=1), as cited in (31), (32), and (35), respectively:

30. She's still in the banking environment <,> #00:23:22-8# <\$A>It's like you'll stay in one place<indig>**saa**</indig> <,> (ICE-Gha_S1A-092.txt).
31. Nana laughed, " I have been waiting **saaa** for him to say incompetent... it has now come. " # (NOW 32).
32. did nt u inform me earlia xx # Primary school: discovery (eii... **saa!**) JSS: curiosity (GloWbE 26).

Saa rarely collocates with other discourse-pragmatic features and does so only with interjections such as *eii* or *eih* (markers of surprise), as shown in (32) and (37), respectively.

As indicated earlier, *saa* can be used to emphasise the long duration of an action, as exemplified in (33) and (34), which makes it a borrowed emphasis PM; however, it is different from other borrowed DPFs such as *koraa*, which can emphasise any proposition contained in an utterance.

33. those people were smoking **saa**, like it's a square meal. (GloWbE 4)
34. It seems someone just recorded the thing and they play it **saa**, like music. (GloWbE 3)

In (33), *the people were smoking saa...* could mean that the people were smoking for a long time or for an extended period, but it also carries a sense of displeasure, frustration, or discomfort. So here, the speaker is not very happy about the smoking in (33). In (34), *they play it saa* gives the impression that they play it for a long time and the speaker is not comfortable with that.

Apart from emphasising the duration of an action, *saa* can be used as an interrogative marker to seek confirmation of a proposition, as depicted in (35):

35. # Miyagi, hahahahaha **saa?** you own an ipad. Congratulation on owning one lol. (GloWbE 13)

In (35), *saa* is used as an interrogative marker to confirm if the addressee owns an ipad. However, this is not a common function of *saa*, as only one example of this function was found in the data.

Saa can also function as an emotive interjection where it is used to indicate surprise, doubt, or disbelief. In this case, it can be approximated as *is that so, really, I can't believe this, you don't mean it*, and *incredible*, as shown in (32) and (36):

36. would find out later. " IDTS " was my reply. " Eih! **Saa**... " he added. " I liked his reception" I replied. He (GloWbE 27).

In (36), the writer uses *saa* to express his /her surprise at what another person has written. Interestingly, *saa* co-occurs with *eii* or *eih*, which are markers of surprise in (32) and (36), respectively.

Paa in Ghanaian English

Paa is another DPF, which has been borrowed from Akan. It comes from the Akan word *pápa* or *pápaapa*, which means *very good, well, very, really, very well or too much*. In ICE-Gha, it is written as <paa> but in GloWbE and NOW, it appears as <paa> (N=45), <paaa> (N=58), <paaaa> (N=24), <paaaaa> (N=10), <paaaaaa> (N=7), and <paaaaaaa> (N=3), as shown in different examples in this sub-section. In addition, there are two cases where <a> was replicated 8 and 16 times. *Paa* occurs more frequently in clause-final (N=116) than in clause-initial (N=25) and clause-medial (N=13) positions, as depicted in (37), (38), and (39), respectively. *Paa* also co-occurs most often with declaratives (N=122) than with interrogatives (N=16), exclamatives (N=12) and imperatives (N=4), as indicated in (37), (38), (40), and (41) respectively:

37. they will whip you **paa** (Twi language, Ghana meaning seriously) (ICE-Gha_ S1A-006.txt).
 38. Fucking you nanaakuaaddo. Aw but Rose **paa** what can u show me? Fuck off. (NOW 26)
 39. I can only wish you well, stay blessed. But I miss you **paa** every morning # (GloWbE 732).
 40. get to the top only when she let her panties and bra fall? Ghanaians **paaaaa!!!** At this my age if I let my bra fall, (NOW 20)
 41. First of all, look at how he sits on TV, judge **paaaaa**. Does he not watch amerca got talent? (GloWbE 2)

Paa does not collocate often with other discourse-pragmatic features, and does so mainly with PMs such as *but* as seen in (42), address terms such as *you* (*u*), *Ato*² and *Ghana*, as seen in (42), (43), and (44), respectively:

42. # Saba, I always agree with you but u **paa**, what are u saying? Is it necessary for everyone play 90 min? (GloWbE 211)
 43. # Ato **paaaaaaa!!!** Gbagbo is an obstinate fool (GloWbE 1).
 44. lack of self-confidence is been misconstrued as meekness and humility. Ah, Ghana **paa**, we have thrown ourselves 10 years backwards. (GloWbE 611)

What is noticeable is that *paa* usually collocates with these other items in clause-initial position and rarely in clause-final position.

² In the Ghanaian culture, *Ato* is a name given to a male child that is born on a Saturday.

In terms of its discourse-pragmatic functions, *paa* is used to emphasise the proposition contained in the utterance to which it is attached, as illustrated in (45) and (46):

45. Small boys are young, and they have followings! That beats me **paaa**! Can we Leave President Mills to Rest? (GloWbE 2)
46. Herh, this woman has got muscle **paaaaaa**! Honourable Catherine Afeku will not be distracted (NOW 4).

In (45), *paa* is used to emphasise the proposition that the situation of the young boys and their followings greatly surprises the reader, and in (46), *paa* is used to express surprise and emphasise the fact that the woman in question is a very strong person. Thus, there is a mix of emphasis and surprise in both examples.

In addition to indicating emphasis, *paa* as an emotive interjection is used to indicate disbelief or displeasure, as exemplified in (47) and (48), respectively.

47. # kelsocarter said: # ah buh this guy **paaa** is he serious in life. what was he thinking. (NOW 3)
48. get them out before they inflict more damage to this country. NDC **PAA!** WHAT A USELESS STATEMENT! # (GloWbE 89).

In (47), the writer uses *paa* to indicate the disbelief at the kind of life a particular person was living, and in (49), the writer employs *paa* in order to show his/her displeasure at what the NDC (National Democratic Congress, the leading opposition party in Ghana) said.

Yoo in Ghanaian English

Yoo occurs in several Ghanaian languages, including Ewe, Ga, and Akan. According to Christaller (1933), in Akan, *yoo* is a reduced form of *eye oo* or *aye yie oo*, which means *well* or *alright*. *Yoo* can thus be translated as *yes*, *alright* or *okay*. It can be glossed as *I agree with you* or *I have heard you*. Thus, *yoo* can be used to indicate agreement or affirmation of an action (N=8). It also functions as an attention marker (N=4) and as an emphasis PM (N=40), as discussed later. *Yoo* is written as <yoo> (N=39); however, in the two online corpora, the letter <o> is replicated, and *yoo* appears also as *yooo* (N=8), <yoooo> (N=2), *yooooo* (N=3), as exemplified in different examples in this sub-section.

Yoo appears more frequently in clause-final (N=41) than in clause-initial (N=6), position, as cited in (49) and (50), respectively. On some occasions, *yoo* may occur on its own as a response (N=5), as shown in (51). *Yoo* also occurs more with/or as declaratives (N=40) than with imperatives (N=12), as illustrated in (49) and (50), respectively.

49. What have I done?? Me, I don't like that oo, **yoo**!! # People never play fair. (GloWbE 2)
50. # Sharing the video, she wrote: " **Yooo** look at the so called FEMALE0 gate keepers (NOW 57).

51. when you get there try and call me I'd send you the money <,> <O>back-ground noises</O> #00:12:09–1# <\$A><indig>Yoo</indig><,># (ICE-Gha_S1A-092.txt).

As exemplified in (49) and (55), *yoo* occurs frequently with the borrowed emphasis PM *o*, which appears to be an areal feature in West African languages (Amuzu et al., 2018).

As indicated earlier, *yoo* is used to affirm that an addresser agrees with or has heard something that has been said by someone else, as shown in (52) and (53):

52. they think that Africa is like this mundane place this jungle #00:03:30–0# <\$B>where we have tails and we sleep on trees #00:03:31–4# <\$A>yoo exactly you know yoo trees and all (ICE-Gh_S1A-012.txt).
53. they call for these open markets and those kind of stuff #00:21:35–4# <\$A>yeah yeah and close markets(?) #00:21:35–6# <\$C>yoo yes # (ICE-Gh_S1A-035.txt).

Yoo co-occurs with *exactly* and *yes* in (52) and (53), respectively, and the two words both indicate agreement. The co-occurrence of two related items shows emphasis and is common in other African Englishes (Unuabonah et al., 2021). In ICE-Ghana, all the instances of *yoo* are used to signify agreement.

Yoo, like the English PM, *okay*, may also be used to draw an addressee's attention to an upcoming utterance (Fraser, 2009), and serve as a turn initiator, as cited in (50) and (54):

54. Kai!! # Yoo, so when someone tweeted " Lamboguinea ", didn't it begin another hurricane (GloWbE 19).

In (54), *yoo* does not indicate agreement with a previous speaker/writer's utterance. Rather, it draws the attention of the addressees to what s/he is about to write, and at the same time serves as a turn initiator for the addresser's utterance.

Finally, *yoo* functions as an emphasis PM where it is used to emphasise imperatives, as cited in (55) and (56):

55. but don't forget the girls you have on your personal payroll o, yoo. Just load your mobile money wallet (NOW 31).
56. there for your own selfish desires ryt.... **change oooo yoooo** # sir pls, how possible is it (GloWbE 1).

In (55), *yoo* is used to emphasise the reminder that the addressee should not forget the girls on his payroll, and in (56), *yoo* is used to emphasise the advice that the addressee should change his/her ways. In both cases, *yoo* collocates with the borrowed emphasis PM *o*, which further shows the emphasis on what the addressees are expected to do.

***Wai/wae* in Ghanaian English**

Wai/wae is another PM that is borrowed from Akan. It comes from the Akan expression *wo ate* or *w'ate*, which means *have you heard?* Thus, it shares similar meanings with English *okay* (with a rising intonation) which an addresser may use to check if the addressee understands and accepts the message of the addresser. It is mainly spelt as *wai* (N=52) or *wae* (N=9), as cited in (57) and (58), respectively. It may also appear as *waii* (N=3) or *waiii* (N=3) in the online corpora. *Wai* occurs more frequently in clause-final (N=66) than in clause-initial (N=1) position, as shown in (57) and (58), respectively. It also occurs more with imperatives (N=35) than with declaratives (N=28) and interrogatives (N=4), as seen in (57), (58), and (59), respectively:

57. So people, here it is. Please break this one for us **wai**. And let us rest this debate once and for all. (GloWbE 3)
58. pitied her that she should carry so big a burden while she fasted. Sorry **wae!!** I felt so much to blame, I don't even know why (GloWbE 2).
59. So bra Kwame, lets put this hand grenade aside for now **wai?** # (GloWbE 8).

It should be noted that *wai* in (59) and (60) takes the form of a question tag that occurs with imperatives (i.e. "let's put this hand grenade..." and "keep an eye on it"), making the mood of the utterance ambivalent between interrogatives and imperatives. Thus, *wai* can be used to seek the confirmation that an addressee has heard the information being passed across in an utterance, as exemplified in (59) and (60):

60. but if you are coming with very important things, keep an eye oon it **wai?** Na we don't trust those boys and girls at Kotoka. (NOW 16)

In (59), *wai* is used to confirm if the addressee has heard or taken note of the advice to allow a matter to rest for a while, and in (60), *wai* is employed in order to confirm if the addressee has heard the advice to be careful with his/her things when travelling. Such a request for confirmation is meant to urge the addressee to take the advice seriously.

In addition, *wai* also functions as a politeness or mitigation marker, and thus, shares similar meanings with *please*. Hence, it usually mitigates the face threat contained in an utterance, and thus functions as a downtoner. Thus, *wai* may be used to mitigate the illocutionary force of requests, advice, suggestions, warnings, and disagreements, as shown in (57), (61), (62), (63) and (64), respectively:

61. so i guess Aki-ola history shod be ur bestfriend and keep the history lesson **waii**. u need it more # (GloWbE 1).
62. take it and put it back to him in a feminine style **wai** -- he understands things. You can also treat him like a baby (NOW 53).
63. # " Madam, please set the records straight **wai**. We, Adisco boys never took your bag right? " (NOW 56).

64. it's no mistake. my dear there is nothing fishy abt this **wae**! or u want the country to call Oxford lol (GloWbE 5).

In (57), the writer uses *wai* to downtone the illocutionary force of the request that the addressee should explain a particular situation, while in (61), the writer uses *wai* to mitigate the illocutionary force of the advice that the addressee should not forget what has happened in the past. In (62), the writer employs *wai* in order to mitigate the suggestion that the addressee should present a matter to her partner in a feminine way, while in (63), the writer uses *wai* to downtone the warning that the addressee should correct the wrong impression of information she had about the Adisco boys. In (64), the writer uses *wai* to mitigate the fact that she disagrees with the addressee's proposition that there is something fishy about a matter. Moreover, *wai* as a face-threat mitigator can collocate with other threat mitigators such as *sorry*, *let's*, and *please*, as shown in (58), (59) and (63), respectively. The co-occurrence of similar mitigation markers is meant to foreground the level of politeness in the utterance, which has also been found in other West African English varieties (e.g. Unuabonah & Oladipupo, 2021; Unuabonah et al., 2021).

Waa in GhaE

Waa in GhaE is sourced from two different IGL, Akan and Ga. These provides three types of *waa*: *waa*₁ (N=4), *waa*₂ (N=10), and *waa*₃ (N=12). *Waa*₁ is an attention marker, *waa*₂ is an emphasis PM that can emphasise any proposition contained in an utterance as well as an emotive interjection that conveys surprise, while *waa*₃ is a borrowed emphasis PM that specifically emphasises a continuous action or excessive flow. The three types of *waa* are discussed one after the other.

*Waa*₁ comes from Akan, and it is a reduced form of *wo ara* or *wada*, which means *even you or you yourself*. Thus, *waa*₁ simply means *you yourself*, as depicted in (65) and (66):

65. **Waa** look at what Avorka was saying when the thing is written in black and white (GloWbE 1).
 66. # **Waa** see wat u guys are writing.... this site is a joke Smh Sledge (NOW 38).

In (65), it appears the speaker is a bit surprised by the words of Avorka, which seem to contradict the available evidence and is, therefore, inviting the listener to pay attention to the entire situation. Thus, *waa*₁ functions as an attention marker, which is meant to draw the attention of the addressee to the upcoming proposition. *Waa*₁ tends to co-occur with verbs of perception such as *look*, *listen*, *hear*, and *see*, which are also attention getters (Brinton, 2008). It only occurs in clause-initial position, just immediately before the verb of perception with which it co-occurs; it occurs only in imperative clauses, as shown in (65) and (66). In (65), *waa*₁ co-occurs with *look*, and it is used to draw the attention of the addressees to what they have written, which is unacceptable to the addresser.

*Waa*₂ comes from Ga and it is the equivalent of the Akan word *paa*, which means, *very good*, *well*, *very*, *really*, *very much*, or *too much*. Out of the three, only *waa*₂

appeared in GhaE utterances in ICE-Gha. *Waa*₂ typically occurs clause-finally as seen in (67) and (68); however, on one occasion it occurred on its own, as cited in (69). *Waa*₂ co-occurs more with declaratives (N=8) than with exclamatives (N=1), as illustrated in (67) and (68), respectively; it can also occur as an exclamation on its own (N=1), as depicted in (69).

67. # hmmm.... osie, i agree with u **waaaa**... like seriously, suppose english shldn't our official language, then wat language (GloWbE 1).
68. GFA! Ofun goalkeeper -----we dn't need him in the team --this guy shaa **waaaaa**! (NOW 14)
69. # the SRC don't have money #00:14:05-7# <\$B> <->**waa**<-> SRC dues in your fees <->how much<-> how much did you pay <->how what<-> how much is allocated to SRC (ICE-Gha_S1A-031.txt).

As seen in (67) and (68), *waa*₂ is used to emphasise the proposition embedded in the utterance to which it is attached. Thus, in (67), the writer emphasises that s/he really agrees with the addressee, while in (68), the writer emphasises his surprise at a guy that s/he and others do not need in a team. As seen also in (67) and (68), the <a> in *waa* may be replicated in order to show emphasis or the intensity of emotions which is conveyed in the utterance in which it occurs. In (69) where *waa*₂ is used independently, *waa*₂ is used to indicate surprise and question the veracity of the statement of the previous speaker that the SRC does not have money. Thus, with *waa*₂, like with *paa*, the function of emphasising any proposition in an utterance may sometimes be mixed with the indication of surprise.

*Waa*₃ is also from Akan but in this case, *waa* is repeated two or three times in order to emphasise a continuous action or excessive flow. Thus, it occurs as *waa waa* or *waa waa waa*, as depicted in (70) and (71), respectively:

70. not happy that his NPP is no longer in power for him to be benefitting **waa waaa** from state largesse hence his disdainful conduct towards President Atta Mills (NOW 77).
71. Were we not in this country when Kuffuor was receiving kickbacks **waa waa waa**. What did Nana Addo say then. (GloWbE 9)

*Waa*₃ mainly occurs with declaratives (N=11) and appears rarely with interrogatives (N=1), as illustrated in (70) and (71) respectively. It also appears in clause-medial (N=5), and clause-final (N=7) positions, as depicted in (70) and (71), respectively. On few occasions, the <a> in *waa*₃ may also be replicated in order to show emphasis, as seen in (70) and (72).

72. fresh wads of cash and diplomatic passports are flowing **waa! waaa!! waaaa!!!** (NOW 21)

As shown in most of these examples, *waa*₃ is used when emphasising a continuous action such as the continuous action of illegally collecting government funds.

Discussion

This paper sought to explore the sources, meanings, frequencies, spelling variants, distribution across clause types, position, collocational patterns, and discourse-pragmatic functions of six pragmatic markers in Ghanaian English, *koraa*, *paa*, *saa*, *yoo*, *waa*, and *wai*. In the following sub-sections, the implications of the results for GhaE and other world Englishes in general are discussed.

Sources, meanings, frequencies and spelling stability of the DPFs in GhaE

In terms of the sources, the findings show that *koraa*, *paa*, *saa*, and *wai* are borrowed from Akan, *waa* with its different meanings is borrowed from Akan and Ga while *yoo* occurs in several IGL. These findings confirm the dominance of Akan DPFs over DPFs borrowed from other IGL (Amuzu et al., 2018). This dominance may be connected to the fact that Akan is the most widely spoken IGL used by both Akan L1 and L2 speakers in Ghana (Adika, 2012), followed by Ga and Ewe. As evidenced in the results, most of the DPFs have multiple meanings, which English PMs cannot completely capture (see also Isingoma, 2016 on DPFs in Ugandan English). This in itself encourages the continuous use of these DPFs in GhaE.

In relation to frequency, the results show that the DPFs have very low frequencies when compared with English DPFs³ (e.g. *really*, *actually*, *oh*, *ah*), especially as these DPFs are largely limited to informal contexts such as conversations, phone calls, blogs, and reader comments. The low frequency of DPFs in GhaE also correlates with the low frequency of DPFs in other African varieties (Unuabonah & Oladipupo, 2021; Unuabonah & Muro, 2022; Unuabonah & Mtembu, 2023). Nonetheless, the frequency of DPFs in GhaE is lower than the frequency of DPFs in other African varieties (Unuabonah & Oladipupo, 2021; Unuabonah, 2022). This may reflect the Schneiderian stage in which GhaE (Schneider, 2003) is located, as scholars such as Collins (2022) opines that GhaE is still at the nativisation stage when other varieties such as South African English and Nigerian English are already showing strong and weak signs of entering the endonormative stabilisation stage, respectively. Furthermore, the higher relative frequencies of the DPFs in ICE-Gha, compared to their frequencies in the Ghanaian components of GloWbE and NOW, also affirm previous findings that speakers used more DPFs in offline contexts since interactants are aware that they are interacting with people who are from the same country as theirs. In online situations, interactants adjust their use of indigenous items since other online users might come from different countries (Loureiro-Porto, 2017; Unuabonah et al., 2021).

With regard to spelling stability, all the DPFs except *wai/wae* are subject to the replication of the final vowels as seen in *koraaa*, *kraaaa*, *saaa*, *paaaa*, *waii*, and *yoooooo*. As already indicated in the results section, these reduplications reflect a high degree of emphasis on the propositions in the utterances to which the DPFs are attached (see also, Amuzu et al., 2018). Thus, these replications are restricted to DPFs

³ For example in the Ghanaian component of GloWbE, the frequencies of *really*, *actually*, *oh* and *ah* are 17,870, 8163, 2461 and 313, respectively.

that function as emphasis PMs. For example, *waa*₁, which is used to draw the attention of the addressee to an upcoming utterance, is not lengthened while *waa*₂, which functions as a borrowed emphasis PM, is lengthened. As revealed in previous studies on other African varieties, final vowels of emphasis DPFs are also replicated in order to show a high degree of emphasis (see Unuabonah, 2021 on Nigerian English).

Syntactic positioning, syntactic distribution, collocational patterns and pragmatic functions of the DPFs in GhaE

As regards syntactic positioning, the findings show that all the DPFs occur more frequently in clause-final position except *waa*₁, which prefers clause-initial position. The preferred positioning may be linked to the discourse-pragmatic functions of the DPFs. Apart from *waa*₁, the other DPFs mainly perform emphasising functions and the clause-final position is the preferred position for emphasis markers, as evidenced also in other West African varieties of English (Unuabonah & Oladipupo, 2018; 2021). In a wider context, the clause-final position is also the preferred position for many other DPFs that occur in other New Englishes such as Indian English and Singapore English (Lange, 2009; Leimgruber, 2016). The positioning of *waa*₁ in clause-initial position is also tied to its function of drawing the attention of the addressee to the upcoming utterance, as seen also in other attention markers in English and other indigenous African languages (Fraser, 2009; Unuabonah, 2021). Moreover, in cases where *yoo* functions as an attention marker, it occurs in clause-initial position.

Regarding syntactic distribution across clause types, almost all the DPFs occur more frequently with declaratives except *wai/wae* and *waa*₁, which occur more frequently with imperatives. *Wai/wae*'s frequent occurrence with imperatives may be tied to its mitigation function, where it is used to mitigate requests, orders, advice, and suggestions, which employ the imperative clause structure. The preference for other clause types apart from declaratives is also shared with some other DPFs in other West African English varieties (Unuabonah, 2021). In terms of the DPFs' collocational patterns with other discourse-pragmatic features, the results reveal that many of the DPFs do not collocate frequently with other DPFs, unlike those found in other African varieties (Unuabonah, 2021; Unuabonah, 2022). *Yoo* is an exception as it usually co-occurs with the borrowed PM *o* in clause-final position. It is also interesting that some of the DPFs co-occur with similar DPFs from English. Such co-occurrence is a reflection of the linguistic nature of some indigenous African languages where words are repeated (e.g. Will, 2022) or similar items co-occur in order to emphasise the force of a message. Similar cases occur in other varieties such as Nigerian English (Unuabonah, 2021) and South African English (Unuabonah, 2022).

In terms of the functions of the DPFs, almost all the DPFs function as emphasis DPFs, with some (e.g. *kora* and *saa*) functioning also as emotive interjections. While some (e.g. *kora* and *paa*) are used to emphasise any kind of utterance, some like *saa* and *yoo* emphasise the long duration of actions and imperatives, respectively. This may indicate why these DPFs are borrowed since there are no specific DPFs that are used to emphasise long duration of actions or imperatives in English. This explains why different emphasis DPFs are borrowed from IGL since they are specific to different contexts. Furthermore, DPFs such as *yoo* and *waa* also function at atten-

tion markers, in addition to their emphasising functions. It is only *wai* that serves as a mitigation DPF, but then, it also has some emphasising functions, which show the multifunctionality of some of these DPFs. The seeming preference for borrowing emphasis DPFs from IGL into GhaE also correlates with the borrowing of emphasis DPFs into other West African varieties such as Nigerian English (Jowitt, 2019; Honkanen, 2020). Already, the borrowed PM *o*, which is an emphasis PM, is borrowed from different indigenous West African languages into West African English varieties (Amuzu et al., 2018). This indicates that there is a penchant for loaning emphasis DPFs from indigenous languages into West African Englishes, which points to shared linguistic behaviour among users of West African English varieties and may contribute to some extent to the existence of a West African English variety (Chiluwa, 2013; Gut & Unuabonah, 2019).

Conclusion

In all, this study foregrounds the contributions of IGL to GhaE and contributes to our insight of these DPFs in GhaE. The borrowed DPFs, which are features of postcolonial Englishes such as GhaE, contribute to the distinctive nature of GhaE and set it apart from other world Englishes. Moreover, they confirm the ongoing nativisation process in GhaE. Furthermore, the study reveals shared linguistic similarities with other West African English varieties, and adds to the growing body of studies on GhaE and the New Englishes. Notwithstanding, this study has limited itself to the investigation of three Ghanaian corpora without exploring how sociolinguistic variables such as age and gender could affect the use of these DPFs in GhaE. Thus, future studies may investigate the impact of these variables on the use of these DPFs in GhaE. Moreover, there is still the need to examine other DPFs in GhaE, in order to have a fuller understanding of these features. Future studies may also compare and contrast some of these features with DPFs in other West African English varieties such as Gambian English and Sierra Leonean English.

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Data availability Part of the data used for this study can be obtained from <https://www.english-corpora.org/glowbe/> and <https://www.english-corpora.org/now/>

Declarations

Conflict of Interest There is no conflict of interest over this paper.

Ethical Approval Ethical Approval is not applicable to this study since human/animal participation was not required for this study.

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