



NAMIBIA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

FACULTY OF HUMAN SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION

A FORENSIC LINGUISTIC INVESTIGATION OF WITNESS STATEMENTS ON MURDER CASES AT WINDHOEK
POLICE STATION

BY

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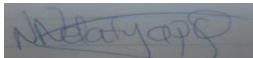
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29 June 2022

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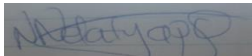
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It is Certified that the thesis titled '**A Forensic Linguistic Investigation of Witness Statements on Murder Cases at Windhoek Police Station**' submitted by **Ms. Ndamononghenda Ndalipo Ndatyapo**, based on the inquiry conducted with our help, the Master of English and Applied Linguistics degree is partially fulfilled. As a result, the thesis has not been submitted to the academic prize at any other college or university.

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A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Ndatyapo', is written over a light blue rectangular background.

Dedication

The purpose of this thesis is for my late father, Nathanael Stephanus Ndatyapo. What happened to him motivated me to do this research and it has been my strength throughout this journey. I miss you every day Dad, continue resting in peace. It is also dedicated to myself, for not giving up even when chances of giving up were there, for the determination and purpose, this is for me!

Acknowledgement

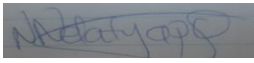
Firstly, I thank God for taking me through this academic journey, which would not have been easy without his intervention and the strength, wisdom, and knowledge he has put upon me. If it was not by his grace, this could have remained nothing but a dream.

Secondly, I want to show my sincere appreciation to myself for not giving up, for the sleepless nights and for the days of anxiety. I wish to convey my appreciation as well to my supervisors Prof Haileleul Zeleke Woldemariam and Dr Pilisano Masake, for their patience, guidance, untiring academic support they rendered throughout this journey of my research. Furthermore, I wish to endlessly acknowledge my sister Emilia Ndatyapo for assisting in making me understand the police terms and proofreading, Tresia Nghipandulwa, my two nieces Ndina, Penny and to Theofelus Shapwanale for being by my side and for believing in me since the commencement of this academic voyage.

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Retention and use of thesis

I, Ndamononghenda Ndalipo Ndatyapo, accepting the Namibia University of Science and Technology's guidelines for the preservation and use of thesis deposited in the library as a candidate for the Master of English and Applied Linguistics Degree. In accordance with these terms, I consent to having the original of my thesis deposited in the library and made available for use in research and study, under the standard guidelines established by the librarian for the custody, lending, or duplication of thesis.

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Abstract

This study presents the applications of forensic linguistics with special emphasis on the interpretation of articulated interpretation of intended meanings in written statements, discourse analysis, authorship identification, and meaning in legislation and legal texts are only a few examples. This study investigated the primary written witness statements, following the objectives of the study. The study aimed to examine the witness statements' grammatical patterns in order to assess the lexical evidence, as well as investigate discourse structures in witness statements. It used forensic linguistic as its theoretical framework using the qualitative approach as defined by Creswell (2013). An explanatory study methodology was used for this study. The sample size of 100 witness statements from 20 dockets were analysed, using the content analysis checklist.

Considering the lexical analysis as one of the study objectives, the findings of the study indicated that witnesses use words such as *cellphone face cover*, *check-up*, *disembark*, *reraxeces*, *heared*, *stoep*, *tailed*, just to mention but few, that investigators, lawyers, prosecutors, magistrates, and judges might find confusing and lead to misinterpretation, making it difficult for them to comprehend the meaning. Following the second objective of the study, which is the syntactic structure, the findings also revealed that, some witnesses have no knowledge on the murder cases they are interviewed about, which results in them giving irrelevant phrases which may prolong cases. Furthermore, the data collected indicated that, witness statements' sentences are full of grammatical errors which legal experts might not be able to get the intended meaning. Additionally, regarding the objectives of study, the discourse in witness statements showed that language structure remains a problem within witness statements, and this is because police officers and investigators are not forensic linguistics experts to write comprehensive statements. The researcher also found out that correspondence (which is the communication between the witnesses and the police) within witness statements and the relationships might lead to wrongful arrest. The study recommends that, police officers who write statements need to be fluent in English to avoid grammatical errors and direct translation and misleading information. Witness statements need to be written either in the vernacular languages of the witnesses in order for them to be able to express themselves fully and to avoid misinterpretation of intended meaning. A forensic linguist should be present to provide an unbiased assessment of the procedure. The study concluded that, the language structure is believed to play a critical role in analysing witness statements.

Keywords: Forensic linguistics, murder, witness statements, lexical analysis, sentence structures, discourse structure, language.

List of abbreviations

AC	Accused person
AFDC	Aid to Families with Dependent Children
CID	Crime Investigation Division
D/C/Insp	Detective Chief Inspector
D/Insp	Detective Inspector
D/Sgt	Detective Sergeant
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic Acid
DOC	Dockets
FL	Forensic Linguistic
SU	Suspect
SCU	Serious Crime Unit
Sgt	Sergeant
USA	United States of America
WI	Witness
W1,2,3, 4 and 5	Witness one, two, three, four and five

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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Background of the study

English continues to be the most common language used in Namibian courts, according to Harupe (2019) and police stations. Moreover, it is believed that many crimes are committed daily in Namibia, with some cases concealed or hidden by those who committed or witnessed them (Crime Statistics, 2019/20). Also, monthly crime returns are compiled manually by the Stations in the country in all 14 regions, and submitted to the Regional Crime Co-ordinators where information is taken electronically on monthly basis.

In Namibia, prominence is based primarily on the judgments of the courts themselves as a source of law. The High Court of Namibia may exercise original jurisdiction in any subject, which entitles it to serve as a court of first instance for both civil and criminal cases as well as an appeals court (Amoo, 2008). The scientific study of language is called linguistics. According to Wardhaugh (1998), many people use various linguistic choices to communicate with both their listeners and with one another. As a result, this study concentrated on examining the witness statements through the lens of forensic linguistic, the branch of linguistics that deals with legal difficulties.

Witnesses are classified in to various kinds that give proof from various points (Gehl & Plecas, 2017). Notwithstanding, in whatever investigation, the subtleties of occasions given based on testimonies are basic components of the proof accumulated. Witness accounts are useful to examiners in framing sensible grounds to aid the court in determining whether there are sufficient arriving at a choice that the accusation made against a denounced individual has been demonstrated beyond reasonable doubt.

Furthermore, according to Gehl and Plecas (2017), there are two different kinds of witnesses: one is an eyewitness and the other is a corroborating witness. An eyewitness is a person who was there when a criminal act was being committed. Corroborative witnesses, on the other hand, can only offer circumstantial proof of the crime's circumstances.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Witness testimonies have been ignored by Namibian courts and police investigators over the past few years, and judges do not fully pay attention to the language used in the witness statements to understand specific information and connect it to the cases in court (Harupe, 2019).

Word formation, sentence structure and construction, and discourse play major roles in written witness statements and should be paid attention to as Office and Court (2015) alluded. Investigators, lawyers and judges are supposed not to only focus on the spoken words from the witnesses in courtrooms, Office and Court (2015) but they also supposed to look deeper at the original documented witness statements as they carry more weight from the scene of crime than those testifying in court as witnesses may not always remember the exact incident in detail.

There is an issue that needs to be resolved, where witness statements are not thoroughly analysed in Namibian courts by experts such as forensic linguists, or those in the justice system have not acquainted themselves with the knowledge of analysing them looking at language, specifically how the words are used, the sentences construction as well as discourse (Office & Court, 2015).

Hence, this gap between the ideal and non-ideal situation tend to bring unfair judgement as there is no expert who can analyse the witness statements based on language, particularly regarding lexical, syntactic and discourse. Cases are often concluded, and criminals are set free without thorough investigation on witness statements from a forensic linguistic perspective. Additionally, Harupe (2019), alluded that there is a gap that needs to be filled as there are no studies that have been done to analyse the statements presented in court from the Namibian context.

In order to check if there are any parallels between cases and witness statements and determine what actually occurred, many investigators, prosecutors, and courts frequently do not go further into the written statements (Catoto, 2017). Often investigators, detectives, lawyers, and judges do not carefully consider the abovementioned aspects especially with witness statements on murder cases, and this becomes a huge problem.

This is a problem, as the three mentioned aspects are often not addressed when dealing with witness statements, and from a personal observation during court proceedings, often cases go unsolved or culprits get away with the crimes because of not thoroughly investigation on the witness statements and frequently not much is really considered based on what is presented in the witness statements with regards to language Harupe (2019). This study aims to contribute to the authorship identification and linguistic fingerprinting studies enhancing the excellence and relevance of the decision making systems and processes in Namibia.

1.3 Research objectives

This study's main goal is to discover how forensic linguistics can be used to interpret witness testimony. More particularly, this research is intended to:

- Evaluate the lexical evidence in witness statements,
- Examine the syntactic structures in witness statements,
- Investigate the discourse structures in witness statements.

1.4 The significance of the research

Most fundamentally, it will be useful legal advisors, judges and analysts as they make their decisions with regards to murder cases by taking a look at the lexical, sentence structure and discourse utilised in witness statements. This research is significant as it will track down different ways for examiners, investigators and judges to understand what angles to focus on while evaluating court testimony of witnesses.

It hoped to offer the imperativeness of witness statements explicitly on murder cases, as those in the equity framework do not give close consideration to subtleties relating to language in witness articulations. Witness statements are essential, as they give an outline in what state the individual who carried out the murder and the individual who is killed were, thus this study. Additionally, the review will help witnesses as well as the general public, as they are the ones who scarcely comprehend the lawful language and conversation in court with regards to witness statements.

1.5 The delimitation of the research

The study was only limited to one police station, which is Windhoek Police Station, situated in Windhoek, Khomas region. In addition, the study only focused on the witness statements in connection with murder cases. The witness statements were chosen, because they were easily accessible given that these are already documented remarks from the concluded dockets.

The study was also limited to language used in witness statements at Windhoek police station. The study did not take into account other linguistic lenses, because it solely used forensic linguistic as a theoretical

framework. Additionally, it was only applicable to witness statements on murder cases between 2015 and 2018. The research was also restricted to secondary materials that were accessible.

1.6 Limitations of the study

The main aim of this study was to look into how forensic linguistics might be used to analyse witness statements on murder cases at Windhoek Central Police Station. Even though the study reached its objectives, there were unavoidable limitations. The lack of previous research in Namibia and in Africa made it hard for the researcher to obtain data that one can identify with on forensic investigation on witness statements on murder cases. There is little or no prior research, making it difficult to correlate aspects from different phenomena.

Getting access to dockets that have data of concern was difficult, given that there was no clear distinction of case dockets as all serious crime dockets filed in the Serious Crime Office and those in POL 6 storage are mixed up. Furthermore, it was a challenge as the researcher was not given authority to search for the dockets herself, which took a bit of time as people who work with the dockets were always busy, and when they were busy, there was no access to this data. Further, given the sample size, the study was also limited to the number of 100 witness statements from only 20 dockets. Lastly, the study was constrained due to limited time. The study required more time, however, the time that was available to investigate the research problem was not sufficient.

1.7 Definition of technical terms

Forensic linguistics: According to Coulthard and Johnson (2010), it is an analysis of legal language that focuses on the written and spoken language used in judicial proceedings and as evidence.

Witness: A witness is a person who was there at the crime site or someone who was a victim there, according to McCrery (2013).

Prosecutor: This an attorney, who charges and tries, and tries cases against individuals accused of crimes. He is also a legal representative of the prosecution team (Ariani et al., 2014).

Legal language: In the courtroom and judicial system, this is the vocabulary that is typically employed by attorneys, judges, prosecutors, and magistrates (Ariani et al., 2014).

Murder: deliberately and unlawfully causing the death of another person (Snyman, 2008).

Accused: This is a person who is charged because he or she is suspected of having committed a criminal offence (Harupe, 2019).

Chapter Two

Related Literature

2.1 Introduction

The literature review beneath centers and talks about associated writing around what other researchers have said comparable to the subject under discussion. As a result, the main goal of this chapter is to assess the body of knowledge on topics that are relevant to a forensic linguistic analysis of written statements. The objectives of the research will guide this section, since (Creswell, 2014) stressed that the study's literature review should continuously address the research's goals.

2.2 Overview of forensic linguistics

In order to help investigators evaluate the key details of notes and other verbal statements made at crime scenes, and to translate any verbal quirks that may be connected to the crime, forensic linguistics makes use of linguistic science (Olsson, 2012). A Witness is an individual who has the direct information on a lawbreaker case, for example, murder, burglary, theft just to make reference to a few, that can vouch for that information during a preliminary or court proceed (Gehl & Plecas, 2017). While forensic linguistics as indicated that is the examination or study of legal language by Coulthard and Johnson (2010), focuses on the language of the legal cycle and language as proof, both in writing and orally.

Likewise, the applications of quantifiable forensic linguistics, including voice identification, translation of articulated meaning in laws and legal writings, analysis of discourse in legal contexts, interpretation of intended meaning in oral and written statements, and authorship identification, were explained by Coulthard and Johnson (2010). When it comes to witness statements, the accuracy of the legal linguistic experiment will affect the outcome of the information obtained for the study.

According to Solan (2010), in the past, the success of criminal examination and preliminary hearings depended heavily on witness declarations, confessions, and making a strong case in front of the court (McMnamin, 2002). However, the investigators ultimately insisted that everyone who was close to the victim carry their sickle to a specified location where normal flies were attracted by the smell of blood. He exposed every associate's sickle to flies in the open air. Finally, he discovered that flies had congregated on a particular sickle, providing confronting proof the killer had admitted (Solan, 2010).

Furthermore, Coulthard (2005) devised a purposeful strategy for dealing with crimes that were perpetrated around the same time. This was the time when the office of the coroner, which was formed to keep records of every criminal incident, was established in the twelfth century.

Nevertheless, in the 20th century, forensics and criminal science started an organisation that is as yet substantial today, with forensic linguistics and researchers focusing on the improvement of exploratory strategies, innovations and crime analysts focusing rather on the theories of criminality.

Forensic linguistics has become a significant apparatus in the ongoing internet error, as the ascent in the utilisation of cell phones and virtual entertainment sites like Facebook, twitter, use of mobile devices and social media sites like Facebook and Twitter, Instagram and others are increasing each day (Gibbons, 2003). Often, the internet can be excavated to scrutinise the amount and kinds of crime committed; by who as well as the nature of crimes is now part of social problems.

Currently, forensic linguist is regarded as a professional skilled in respective field, with respective requirements to professional qualification and knowledge (Solan, 2020). As a result, academics have emphasised the linguistic experts' social and legal roles in forensic linguistic capabilities (Coulthard et al., 2016), (Houtman & Suryati, 2018). Moreover, Olsson (2009) indicated, that scholars pay particular attention to the interdisciplinary nature of the subject being studied.

Olsson (2004) asserted that trials involving the disputed authorships of some of the most famous works in the world, like Shakespeare's plays and the sacred writings, led to the development of forensic linguistics. However, forensic linguistics emerged as a discipline in the late 1980s and early 1990s, according to Gibbons (2014). He added that there is a lot of research being done in China in the field of forensic linguistics, which is a global phenomena. With the publication of Levi and Walker's first book in the United States of America, a field emerged from the Anglosphere and Europe (1990). However, older publications by Philbrick (1951) and Mellinkoff (1963) were only allowed to discuss legal terminology.

Additionally, practitioners emphasised the value of precise data distribution and gathering in terms of its applied qualities (Melluzzi et al., 2020). The ability to construct information systems in the legal domain that help people use the information in documents effectively or stop the contraction and struggle in legal texts makes analysing legal texts one of the crucial tasks in understanding the meaning of legal documents.

Beyond the purview of contested authorship or plagiarism detection, forensic linguistics now encompasses: outside the confines of contested authorship or plagiarism detection, forensic linguistics

encompasses topics like forensic phonetics, forensic stylistics, language proficiency, forensic discourse analysis, linguistic origin analysis, courtroom discourse, etc. This puts forensic linguistics' knowledge of resolving or addressing difficult legal situations into concrete form where language is involved. In all these areas, professional opinions from forensic linguists are required (Sanni, 2016).

2.3 The lexical evidence in witness statements

There are two main lexical characteristics, originating from Latin and French, archaisms, and practical words. The usage of foreign terms, particularly Latin and French terminology like *actus reus*, which is the act that establishes the physical elements of a crime, is an intriguing aspect of legal language, on the other hand. Other terms include: *de jure*, which means lawfully or legally acknowledged; *stare decisis*, which refers to a case law principle requiring magistrates to adhere to past judgments known as precedents in specific instances and reserve (Katerina & Maranda, n.d).

Butt and Castle (2001) pointed out that ambiguity can arise between similar pairs of borrowed and English phrases, such as *pursuant to*, *fit or proper*, *will or testament*, and others, in these situations. Another distinguishing characteristic of legalese is the employment of archaic words, notably adverbs like *whereof*, *hereof*, *whereby*, *therein*, *thereof*, *hereinafter*, etc. Prepositions are simply one type of archaic form; there are also verbs like "*arraign*," nouns like "*surrejoinder*," and adjectives like "*previous to*," to name a few (Williams, 2011).

However, It has been made an effort to avoid using such archaic phrases, and instead to use straightforward terms that are equivalent to the synonyms. This implies that, while some of the words used in legal writings are frequently used in ordinary speech, such as "*answer*," "*assume*," "*appear*," "*case*," and "*here*," others are typically only used in legal contexts, such as "*litigation*," "*bail*," "*bankruptcy*," and so on (Asprey, 2003). (Hall et al., 2011) argue that complicated sentences and technical phrases in the register of legal documents are necessary to avoid ambiguity, and make non-linguistic context understandable in order to be clear and steer clear of the ambiguities that are common in everyday discourse.

On the other hand, Shuy (2007) noted that one of the main challenges for linguists in a courtroom is sometimes to ascertain the meaning of a contract, rather than to always improve the language of contracts. A linguist might also draw attention to the fact that legal register, which Hlope (2014) said is

occasionally the primary source of disagreement, is regularly used in writing and is difficult for non-lawyers to understand.

Intriguingly, Heydon (2019) emphasised that the precise wording can be influenced by the definitions of terminology used in witness statements. Accordingly, a word may have a variety of varying connotations depending on the situation in which it is employed. Additionally, it can differ depending on who is defining it, because they might define it incorrectly in comparison to the intended meaning. According to Shi (2008), courtroom testimony and hearings are typically given orally but ultimately recorded in writing, and spoken evidence is also converted into written transcripts.

Additionally, Ariani et al. (2014) suggested that it might occasionally be beneficial to repeat words carefully. They emphasised that the term "city" should be used consistently throughout a statute, as opposed to alternative phrases like "municipality" or "town." They claimed, that this could cause confusion and lead to lawyers assuming that the phrase was chosen on purpose and that the word "city" has a different meaning.

Peterson (2017) also noted the existence of a legal lexicon, where jargon is recognised as one of the primary characteristics that set legal language apart from other languages. He made the point that attorneys frequently employ specialised terms that people in other professions likewise use to achieve inclusion and exclusion. El-Sakran (2020) attests that one of the causes contributing to the distinction between legalese and everyday English is the ability of some words to have numerous meanings. Furthermore, Ahmed and Arcelus-Ulibarrena (2021) pointed out that there is a set amount of words that must be used to identify someone in order to satisfy the investigators.

Although they are merely arranged as terms of art with technical connotations, lawyers and judges regularly employ language that seem familiar and accessible to many individuals outside of the courtroom. Statistics show that legal writings have more content words than function terms (Gibbons, 2003). It has been noted that, many attorneys fail to carefully analyse the previously recorded witness testimonies in order to fully comprehend their clients' cases.

Although Heydon (2019) outlined the importance of witness statements in investigations, and that the definitions of terms used in witness statements can give an effect to the exact expression, Littlejohn and Mehta (2012) also contributed to how analysis in text messages helps with the crime investigations with regard to lexical structure. Littlejohn and Mehta (2012) further continue to say that, forensic linguists also

see fit to describe the sequence in which the messages were sent by connecting them with cohesive and coherent devices.

Further, Valentine and Maras (2011) also emphasised on the importance of forensics linguists that, they are mostly called in by police in order to assist them in determining how various documents are changed, and to analyse the handwriting in documents related to investigations. They went on to state that the Forensic Information System for Handwriting, often known as FISH, was used by the German Bundeskriminalamt and the US Secret Service to develop that no one has the same combination of handwriting features. Also, another feature is on the written texts, where the content and writing style differ in every individual.

In a case where a two-year-old boy was kidnapped and murdered, Britton (1978) mentioned in his article with regard to lexical that, the ransom letter notes were compared to the signature of a man, implying that he was the one who wrote the note and hence the feasible culprit. It has been observed that faking signatures as well as handwriting style commonly is regarded as part of forensic investigation.

To add on the aforementioned, another case was discussed by O'Brien (2013), where a six-year-old girl was discovered dead in the basement by her father in his residence. In this case, the police allowed the father bringing the body upstairs, which is hence tampering the crime scene proof and compromising with it. The police's aim to be there was because there has been a discovery of a ransom note in the house, before the father discovered the body. Hence, when a forensic linguist was consulted, where he determined based on other evidence that were presented to him that, only the mother could have authored the ransom note which led to unsubstantiated assumption.

With this, it is easy to determine the lexical significance of statements where the writer has used personal pronouns like I or myself. Similar to this, one might examine the significance of the pronouns used in witness statements and relate them to the instances O'Brien (2013).

Solan and Tiersma (2005) asserted that, issues with meaning which arise from the need to the judge arguments, whose events abandoned from the core concept, but do not necessary fall completely outside the notion. Due to the fact that the prototype approach to word meaning, more closely approximates to our actual knowledge of words. There is a robust relationship between lexical switch and style transfer, as vocabulary selection is perhaps the major style marker (Sheikha & Inkpen, 2010). Hence, the duty of changing informal words to formal one in a given text could be considered as style transfer.

Whenever a problem has arisen, unambiguousness or texts' ability to be read and courts publishing written viewpoints have a tendency to permit testimony from linguists. Admittedly, one court determined that common sense prevailed over expert testimony when determining whether a regular client might understand a normal form of collection the letter that threatened the receiver with legal action Solan and Tiersma (2005).

Furthermore, it is frequently said in evidence that legal information intended for the general public are intelligible. A linguist testified in a Florida dispute that was a prelude to the 2000 presidential election that a ballot conveying a change to a county charter was unclear. *Wadhams v. Board of County Commissioners*, 501 So. 2d 120, the trial court acknowledged the testimony, with the court of appeal's support, but came to the conclusion that the majority of voters would have correctly understood the ballot (Fla. Dist. Ct. App. 1987).

In addition, it is quite sarcastic, considering the unclear words in the dictionary are harshly forbidden to the judges. In most cases however, It is possible to find a clarification that preserves the language's legal implications, and as Tiersma (2010) noted, this has been done successfully in California. Additionally, the justification or definition of unusual or frequently perplexing phrases like the avoidance of the passive, multiple negatives, or the usage of verb forms rather than their nominalisations can considerably increase the readability of many legal works.

For it to be clear and to prevent the uncertainty that exists in common speech, all legal documents must establish some form of register. For example, noun phrases should be repeated rather than pronouns, and technical terms should be noted with the exact meanings in order to decrease and avoid ambiguity, complex sentence structures (Hall, Smith & Wacaksono, 2011) and articulate expression effectively.

Hall, Smith, and Wacaksono (2011) stated that, in the majority of cases, the legal jargon is extremely difficult for its non-expert clients to understand. As a result, forensic linguists have conducted a significant quantity of studies and investigations that demonstrate that, contrary to popular opinion, only a small portion of the population has access to the legal language utilised in everyday contacts.

Furthermore, Stygall (2010) in his analysis, the lengthy, convoluted texts provide great examples of legal jargon confusing to most individuals according to his research of pension scheme papers and receipts for credit cards (Stygall, 2010). Although the literacy rate in the USA is 99 percent, only 3 to 4 percent of adults countrywide have the degree of literacy level required to comprehend the complexity of these texts, which puts the remaining population in a difficult situation.

Even though judges frequently depend on dictionaries to give them authoritative definitions of terms created in legal proceedings, forensic linguists like to incorporate the observation into their definitions and reflection of actual procedure Goddard (1996) used those words. Their justification is that the many popular and everyday terms that are employed in legal jargon have a variety of meanings, which is better known as legal homonyms.

An instance was a case examined by Stratman and Dahl (1996), of a man who was given a restraining order against him. Due to lack of understanding and knowledge on what a restraining order is and contained, he slid a letter of apology at his partner's door, but later he was alleged to have had harassed her and got in her way. However, the issue here is not that, the defendant was not aware and did not understand the legal definitions of the terminologies used, nor did he thought an innocent apology might essentially be regarded as an act of molestation or intimidating by the law.

On the other hand, Coulthard (2002) indicated that, to classify the author of a specified text as being a part of a specific community of speaking or writing practise, the uniqueness can be used forensically. His remark on how special postposed then was "I strolled to the building's rear at that time", for example is unique (Coulthard, 2002, p.77). Though uncommon in texts written by lay speakers or writers, professional speakers and writers achieve this in a trustworthy manner, it is distinctive as a professional competence.

Additionally, similar to in the webchat, there is an inescapable degree of conjunction when professionals and lay speakers connect, as lay speakers try to adapt their language choices to those of the professional. The following example, which is adapted from Coulthard & Johnson (2007), shows lawyer and witness contact from the main inquiry of two distinct witnesses, in which both the lawyer and the witnesses exhibit this grammatical trait.

The examples below show a conversation between a lawyer and witnesses A and B:

Lawyer: *And What did he say next?*

Witness A: He was able to get to my mother's house quickly because, I believe, he had been visiting another patient on the Wych Fold Estate. When he answered the door, sorry, when my mother answered the door, she asked, "What are you doing here?" (Johnson & Coulthard, 2007, p. 77). Dr. Shipman made a point of informing us of this since he believed she made the remark as a result of his being there too quickly after receiving the message.

Lawyer: Did he describe the state of your mother to them?

Witness: He claimed that she was very grey and perspiring when she answered the door. He assisted her in ascending the stairs and then took her pulse, which was extremely low. He then called an ambulance. He retrieved his bag and then went downstairs to his car. My mother had passed away by the time he got back, so he canceled the ambulance (Coulthard & Johnson, 2007).

Lawyer: Did he go on to describe what had happened after that?

Witness B: Unfortunately, she has taken a turn for the worse while I have been here, he continued. And did he then give any further explanations? Witness B: He said, And she's since passed away.

From the aforementioned examples, it is also clear that, contrary to the lawyer, who consistently uses pronouns in the first position of sentences, the witness does not. This is demonstrated by witness B who also uses the more typical pronoun construction than the lawyer did.

There are times when linguists are asked to provide evidence regarding unusual vocabulary, possibly drug code words, occurring in otherwise innocent exclamations, but Gibbons (2003) reported a much more unusual case in which he was confronted with seemingly incomprehensible phrases embedded in otherwise normal language in a tape recorded conversation.

Eades (1994) also hinted that the linguist's role might occasionally be restricted to the definition of a single term. He discussed a case where an expert testified that the Torres Strait Islanders' word *killem*, which the uninitiated mistake for an obvious equivalent, has a significantly wider semantic range than the word *kill* in standard English. However, it appears that (Eades, 1994) suggested that the word "*killem*" has a variety of connotations, including words like "*hit*," therefore the accused's use of this word when describing a struggle with a man who later died could not be interpreted as an automatic admission of murder.

Sinclair was asked to remark on an unlikely scenario regarding how the typical person may understand the word *visa*. In reality, a *visa* is a permit to request permission to enter, rather than an admission permit as it is commonly understood to be in English. Which, according to Coulthard and Johnson (2007), means that a traveler can legally be denied entry into a country even having the *visa*.

Sinclair was therefore asked for evidence that this is not the word's typical use and meaning. Judges typically use dictionaries in such situations, but Sinclair, who revolutionised dictionary production in the 1980s, built a vast database of real language, or corpus, that could be used to gather information about what the words actually mean.

Later, he came to the conclusion that the typical visitor would assume that a visa was a type of entry permit if they regularly saw English as it is represented in the corpus. Therefore, nothing in the examples given suggested that someone with a valid visa or someone who did not obtain one would be denied entry. Strong hints were made that admission with a visa was neither guaranteed nor required Coulthard and Johnson (2007).

As part of an expert report in the case of *US ex rel James and others*, Levi (1993) detailed a lexical analysis of a group of adjudicators who were given instructions on the imposition of the death penalty. How effectively would the jury instructions' wording have fulfilled its objective of plainly communicating to the jurors the legal concepts they needed to know for punishment in capital cases Levi (1993).

According to Levi, the guidelines were as follow, with much emphasis added: If you unanimously decide that there are no mitigating circumstances that are significant enough to prelude the imposition of a death penalty, then you must make a choice that calls for the death penalty, according to Levi (1993). Alternatively, if you disagree that the evidence is insufficient to warrant the imposition of a death sentence, then the decision should be returned and the death sentence may not be imposed.

2.3.1 Reliability of spoken or written statements

Ahmed and Arcelus-Ulibarrena (2021) alluded that controversies sometimes arise in relation to witness or police testimony. Frequently, one may question how oral testimony from witnesses and remarks are administered, including the judges' judgments based on unclear linguistic witness testimony for instance the veracity of the memory where the statement deprived of context.

Although witnesses sometimes give their statements at the scene of crime, or after the incident in full writing, in courts they are often asked appropriate Closed Yes-No Questions, which might not give the witness the opportunity to further explain as he or she is restricted (Catoto, 2017). The court questioned the witnesses using closed-ended yes-or-no questions, according to excerpts from his essay. Although the form and theme of the questions could only have a yes or no response, it was found that this encouraged the witnesses to give and explain more specifics of the situation when they were on the witness stand (Catoto, 2017).

For instance, when asked about what happened in TSN6, the doctor responded, "Yes," before going on to say that, because it falls within his lexicon and area of expertise, only he could help decipher the purpose for the benefit of the court (Catoto, 2017). This process was carefully intended to be appropriate since it

was able to acquire more data that would be useful and accessible to present the clear picture and, in the end, resolve the problem.

Therefore, because the witness's responses provide confirmations and are followed by their reasoning, Griffiths and Milne (2006) regarded this form of inquiry as fruitful. According to (Solan & Tiersma, 2010), the proper closed yes or no questions should be used to obtain comparative information that is not simply required to be replied in the affirmative or negative. In addition, the witness has a duty to express what happened when the accused or suspect committed the offense and to provide a thorough justification for what happened.

In this approach, both the prosecution and the defendant's attorney present an accurate image of the case. Consequently, it serves as a wonderful opportunity to provide detail on every point made by both parties. As a result of the disclosure of crucial information, the case will be solved (Solan & Tiersma, 2010).

Additionally, (Ahmed & Arcelus-Ulibarrena, 2021) mentioned that one may question the legitimacy of witnesses' statements and oral testimony, as well as judges' rulings based on vaguely defined linguistic witness testimony, such as consistency of memory, statements devoid of context and pragmatic implications, and so forth. Veracity is the sincerity of a testimony, whether it be oral or written.

When defendants feel challenged in this way, they could all of a sudden become hyper-correct, to use sociolinguistic terminology. Regardless of the assertion of a few witnesses who claim they can remember the defendant's exact comments months or even years after they occurred it is uncertain if this is ever precise (Ahmed & Arcelus-Ulibarrena, 2021).

That makes it even less prospective, for instance, when several police officers provide a suspect's words literally after a substantial time lapse. Henceforth, an inquiry often ascends: How long can someone genuinely retain verbatim what someone else says? (Danielewicz-Betz, 2012) 7-9 items are the upper limit for short-term memory, after which meaning, but not exact words may still be preserved.

Furthermore, after a few seconds, the average recall level is already between 30 and 40 percent (Clifford and Scott, 1978). Additionally, the forensic linguist casts doubt on the veracity of a statement when a specific register is used, generic language or an inconsistent register are typically utilised (Danielewicz-Betz, 2012).

A neighbour provided two different types of witness statements, each of which included two parts, reporting the incident. The first section, which was identical in all versions, provided the background

information about the witness and described the events leading up to the delivery of the statement. The real statement was contained in the second section, which was slightly different between versions. The witness described hearing loud, agitated conversations that abruptly stopped and rapid, heavy tracks coming from upstairs (Ask & Granhag, 2007).

Conversely, the only difference between the two witness accounts was how the argumentative voices were described. According to the accusatory version, Ask and Granhag (2007) the opinions were allegedly owned by two women, reinforcing the theory that the female victim was murdered by the female suspect. The voices were claimed to be those of a woman and a man in the version that resulted in acquittal, raising the possibility of an unidentified male criminal.

However, given the case vignette was created to support the premise that the female suspect was guilty, it was thought that the incriminating witness version would be consistent, and the absolving version would be incongruous with participants' prior judgment (2007).

Ask and Granhag (2007), in their article emphasise the perceiver's motive to believe or disbelieve the witness, a hitherto disregarded aspect that could bias criminal investigators' assessments of witness testimony. People treat information differently, depending on whether it is dependable or unexpected given their level of certainty about a particular topic, according to research in sociocultural psychology (Edwards & Smith, 1996).

Generally, when they have a personal stake in the belief (Ditto et al., 2003). In other words, evidence that contradicts an expected conclusion is typically rejected by people, and evidence that supports their positions is usually embraced.

Ask and Granhag (2007), under what circumstances the uneven treatment of partial reliable and preference unreliable information grasp for criminal investigators evaluating witness information are the subjects of the current research. That is, even if a witness contradicts a detective's theory, they are still more likely to be accepted as reliable and consistent than a witness who provides contradictory information.

Furthermore, empirical understanding of this prejudice has significant practical relevance, because it may have important implications for the entire legal system. For instance, if witnesses who offer exculpatory evidence are humiliated, it may result in unwarranted suffering for innocent defendants and ultimately, erroneous convictions Ask and Granhag (2007).

Additionally, bias in favor of evidence that is consistent with the hypothesis may significantly lower the diagnostic value of the proof used in court to convict a prisoner. Alternative explanations for the consistent evidence cannot be discounted if the apparently contradictory evidence is disregarded and improperly evaluated. The prosecution's case cannot therefore be established to be accurate beyond a reasonable doubt, which is necessary for a conviction (Ask & Granhag, 2007).

As highlighted by other scholars such as (Clifford and Scott, 1978) and (Edwards & Smith, 1996), Ask and Granhag (2007) It was also emphasised that criminal investigation is essentially the process of determining the what, where, how, why, and by whom of a crime. Typically, certain details must be inferred from first-hand testimonies by persons who witnessed the crucial portions of the incident. Therefore, it is thought that a key task for criminal investigators is to evaluate how accurately a witness statement represents the objective reality.

Even though the witness's contextual and observing circumstances are the same in both cases, it is anticipated based on previous motivated reasoning research that the two versions of the statement will be assessed differently. Particularly, the witness will face increased scrutiny and suspicion if their testimony conflicts investigators' assumption that the suspect is guilty rather than supporting it Ask and Granhag (2007).

According to hypothesis 1, the accusing witness will be considered more credible and trustworthy than the exonerating witness.

Furthermore, participants under time constraints are projected to be more inclined to stick with their original conviction that the suspect is guilty, because changing their minds would be costly. The unreliable witness hypothesis will therefore be met with greater skepticism, because it will be seen as more of a danger to the intended goal state (Ask & Granhag, 2007).

As a result, Hypothesis 2 Ask and Granhag (2007) anticipated the following: Differences in assessments of the witnesses who are clearing and implicating will be more noticeable when comparing the high time pressure circumstance to the low time pressure condition.

Receptiveness to future information is predicted to decline as a function of time restrictions, which is another worry related to the desire to maintain the initial belief. The impacts of the witness statement on the participant's belief in the suspect's guilt will show availability.

Evidently, numerous exploratory analyses were performed to see whether background characteristics of contributors, such as gender, age, and years of experience, were connected to any of the study's dependent variables. Ask and Granhag (2007) although such connections were normally absent, a few prominent exceptions were exposed. However, Ask and Granhag (2007) presented their findings statistically as follow:

First, judgments of how the witness's emotional response affected the veracity of her account were connected to participant gender. $t(47) = 2.10, p .05$, Hedges' $g = .62$. Female participants believed emotions had a greater positive influence than did male participants ($M = -0.47, SD = 1.53$). Second, compared to younger individuals, older participants experienced less time pressure and took longer to complete the experiment ($r = -.37, p .01$) (Ask & Granhag, 2007).

Overall, it seems that more experienced investigators had less faith in the witness. Years of experience were connected adversely with evaluations of witness dependability ($r = -.40, p.01$), credibility ($r = -.43, p.01$), and witnessing situations ($r = -.33, p.05$). According to Ask and Granhag, (2007) background factors did not materially alter the expected effects when they were included as covariates in analyses of the key dependent variables.

Examining the witness assessments revealed that, with the exception of ratings of the influence on the credibility of the witness's statement, all assessed characteristics of the witness statement were highly positively correlated with participants' pre-witness confidence in guilt ($.34 r.51; ps.05$) emotional state ($r = -.02, p = .92$)" (2007, p.14). Therefore, it shows that when judging the witness statement, participants used their pre-witness confidence as a sort of anchor Ask and Granhag (2007).

When it comes to witness reliability, as for participants' assessments of the dependability of witnesses:

$F(1, 34) = 5.98, p .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .15$, indicates a major primary result of the witness version. There was no time crunch influence ($F 1$), and the two independent variables did not significantly interact, $F(1, 34) = 1.13, p = .30$. Accordingly, evaluations varied considerably only in that the witness was thought to be significantly more trustworthy while offering evidence that was incriminating vs exonerating ($M = 5.40, SD = 1.54$) as compared to $M = 6.32, SD = 1.53$., according to (Ask & Granhag, 2007). They claim that this result supports Hypothesis 1.

Also, Catoto (2017) stated that a variety of extra-legal variables may have an unwarranted impact on assessments of witness trustworthiness. As a result, elements like emotional expression and presentation style could readily influence how onlookers perceive a witness statement.

In addition, juveniles and those with mental illnesses are not helpless population whenever they are defendants or suspects in a case, Aldridge (2010) and Ellison (2002), but also when they are witness or most significantly victims of exploitation and mistreatment. Each (Adridge, 2010) and Ellison (2002) examined how suspects or defendants interacted with their interviewers and came to the conclusion that, despite the fact that some measures are typically taken, comparison analysis is rife with linguistic strategies and questioning methods that are unfair to those whose language skills are limited by immaturity and impairment (Ellison, 2002).

The evaluation of the truth of a written or oral statement by a person who is either the suspect or witness is significant in an investigation, which has an effect in the criminal justice system, Triana and Sari (2020) added. Furthermore, they continue to say, in analysing the truth of words, one can look at techniques such as semantic analysis of the language used as well as using computers to analyse a text, find terms based on their psychological meanings and functions with no regard to linguistic features and grammatical structures.

Moreover, as Shuy (2012) indicated, the key task is to institute who said or composed something that will serve as proof, counting the number of syllables and the average word length, frequency of articles or determiners, and measure of lexical variety.

Coulthard and Johnson (2007) also indicated that on emergency calls for example, what is obvious is that, a caller should be able to provide enough information to enable the dispatch of a police officer from the moment the call taker is reviewing the caller's speak. But, in their investigation into emergency call management in England, Garner and Johnson (2006) as well emphasised on decision making as well as information gathering.

Based on their query, they established that, the call from an elderly woman during the New Year's Eve showed how the call-handler incorrectly labelled the situation as not being dangerous, but it took a lengthy interaction to confirm with certainty that Garner and Johnson (2006) were correct in saying that dispatching officers was not necessary. They observe that it can be challenging to reach callers who appear aggressive, frightened, or upset to get to a conclusion.

Furthermore, (Coulthard & Johnson, 2007) state that, communications with the emergency services can be an important component of the evidence in a criminal case, especially if the caller later turns out to be a suspect. For instance, the extract from Coulthard and Johnson (2007) in a police questioning, the suspect

(S) admitted that he was the one who called for an ambulance for his girlfriend after stabbing her during a fight as presented in the extract below:

Suspect (S): She said I'm bleeding and asked if you could call an ambulance for me since the phone was out. I'll get one for you right away. Police (P): Coulthard and Johnson respond "yes" (2007, p.74). Suspect: "I drove around the block and noticed a phone box," followed by the Police saying, "Yes." Suspect: "I walked upstairs, got my jacket, put my jacket on, went out and got in my car." The suspect said, "and made the call from there." Following that, the police state, "I think to clarify the point that the individual who called for an ambulance provided us the same name as you that made the phone call" (Coulthard & Johnson, 2007, p.75).

The police officer translates the suspects who converted the call information into an evidence detail that ties to a piece of information in the recorded conversation, where he used the same name as the suspect to explain the situation. Additionally, Coulthard and Johnson (2007) discovered that callers employ one of three methods to elicit answers from emergency callers: a plea or appeal for aid, or an explanation of the problem, with the third choice being the most common. popular.

Additionally, they mention that conversations between the caller and the dispatcher are possible. Callers want to make stories to elicit a reaction, and call handlers must elicit answers to questions that help them fill out boxes on their computer screen, but they are not allowed to dispatch an officer until they know the caller's identify and the specific incident McCabe and Imbens-Bailey (2000).

Witnesses are often not equal. Hence, the majority of the evidence is provided by lay witnesses, or regular people who were involved in the crime, but professionals are commonly brought in including linguists or doctors. In order for the jury to be able to assess the evidence, these expert witnesses provide their evidential conclusions and explain the technical components of the evidence significance (Cotterill, 2003).

Moreover, the methods of acquiring evidence are an issue in police witness testimony. In relation to legally mandated procedures, such as warning suspects prior to interview in order to explain their rights to silence, Cotterill (2003) in relation to conducting the arrests, searching the premises, interviewing, storing and examining evidence, and providing the court with information that the evidence was lawfully collected as well as to be represented by a lawyer.

Furthermore, Coulthard and Johnson (2007) pointed out that the involvement of lay witnesses in the alleged crime is described, and the lawyers interrogate them regarding their memories of what they saw,

heard, said, and felt. For instance, she recalled being frustrated with one expert during the Simpson trial who miscalculated the level of accommodation. As a result of her oversimplification, the judges felt as though she was speaking down to them. Sadly, there is no method to let folks know that you received it Coulthard and Johnson (2007).

Coulthard and Johnson (2007) mentioned that, some readers could attempt to gain expertise in giving testimonies. So, it must be emphasised at the beginning that we are only aware of a single forensic linguist and few forensic phoneticians who work as expert witnesses, primarily a part-time vocation, if only for the moment.

Also, it can be a lonely profession, because most experts work alone, on sporadic cases, and rarely testify in court. On average, most of them handle fewer than ten cases annually, and they only appear in court once every two years. The popular forensic linguists find it rare and challenging to present evidence in person in court for this reason. There is no way to overstate how tedious cross-examination may be for people who are not as experienced with it, as Shuy (2002) pointed out. In light of this, only those with strong hearts should testify.

After serving as an expert witness for over 25 years, he claimed that he could no longer handle gagging before each witness's appearance. There are drawbacks to being an expert witness. Maley (2000) observed in a superb article looking at the linguistic features of an expert testimony, that experts tend to be uninformed of the scope of the gathering and assembling of evidence, especially if they are new and unproven.

Entirely, Heffer (2002) noted that despite the fact that experts are permitted to have speaking turns that are typically two to three times longer than those of other witnesses, they frequently leave the courtroom looking frustrated, believing that they were unable to present their case in the way they had hoped and that their testimony had been disbelieved.

Frequently, aspiring experts seek out for professional training to assist them in cross-examining witnesses more successfully, but even seasoned professionals sometimes battle with two interactions that are unique to the courtroom agreements. In situations where the experts themselves have been obliged to openly swear or confirm that they are telling the truth, the lawyer interrupts the Conversational Gricean rule of high caliber, which do not mention what you consider to be untrue, according to Heffer (2002).

Conversely, Heffer (2002) mentioned that, beginner academic experts may be led astray into believing that, because they are still in an academic setting, they may persuade the cross-examiner of the accuracy of their judgment provided they are sufficiently cogent and compelling. Of course, the lawyers are paid not to be persuaded, or at the very least, not to admit that they have been influenced.

Another agreement, which confuses the examining attorney is in some ways both the speaker and the addressor, or, as Goffman (1981) puts it, that the author of the sentiments being expressed and the words in which they are encoded. But, according to court custom, he or she serves as the court's representative and essentially conducts interrogations on its behalf.

The witness is supposed to treat the judges and the jury, if there is one, according to the literal sense of this, as an addressee resulting in looking at them and provide direct responses to them rather than to the lawyer Goffman (1981). This can be specifically challenging in some courts, since the witness cannot look directly at the judge and the jury at the same time, due to the physical arrangement of the lawyer, judge, and jury. According to Goffman (1981), the witness may not retrace your steps to point the solution to the real addressees after having twisted to observe the speaker or attorney who is posing the question.

Another example is given by Jonathan (2012), where the problematic nature of truth as illustrated below:

Frustrated with the conflicting testimony of witnesses in an English (adversarial) court, the judge eventually challenged a barrister: "Am I never gonna know the truth?" No, my Lord, just the proof (Goatly, 2007, p. 79)

As indicated in the above example, Jonathan explained that, the The victim invited the offender to her apartment, according to defense counsel, and claimed that she made a provocative remark that gave the offender the impression that she was interested in him romantically. The statement was: "I am like my cat; I go to places where I am not meant to go." (Goatly, 2007, p. 79).

This led to the judge, who had taken 14 hours pondering their conclusion, to be Trying to determine whether or not this was actually spoken, as well as figuring out the implication and whether it might be taken as a deliberate sexual metaphor, was tough and difficult to do. According to Jonathan (2012), the court continued to consider issues including, "What was her purpose in bringing a near stranger inside her flat? Does the fact that her objectives were to flirt in any way lessen her willingness to cooperate and, therefore, her guilt?

However, justice depends on the interpretation of deliberateness, but this is only possible based on circumstantial evidence, and interpreting intentions solely from linguistic cues might be dangerous. Influential pre-supposes purpose and rhetoric's goal is to influence human behavior when examined from a forensic rhetorical point of view. However, when seen from the perspective of psychology, the idea of intentional metaphor use is only minimal, because imprecation is not a choice, but rather the explanation of imprecatory behavior for a victim of Tourette's condition an impulse (Jonathan, 2012).

2.4 The syntactic structures in witness statements

According to Pinker (2014), understanding the meanings of spoken and written words depends on the word and phrase order used which is known as syntax. It also addresses the structuring of sentences using words. In other words, syntax deals with the building of sentences, hence this part will concentrate on the ways in which phrases, sentence structure, passivation, and normalization might aid in forensic linguistic analysis of earlier works.

It is often a challenge to some linguists, to exactly agree on how to define the word *sentence*. Traditionally, the term 'sentence' is defined as a grammatical particle that built up from smaller units (Evha & Devie, 2019). Similarly, (Srijono, 2010) briefly indicated that sentence talks are composed of smaller grammatical units. Additionally, (Cohen & Smith, 2007) held that sentence structure is a component of grammar, and that the grammatical order of words determines how sentences are put together. Verbal, nominal, declarative, imperative, interrogative, exclamatory, simple, complex, compound, and compound-complex sentence types can all be generated.

There are four different sentence kinds depending on the amount of clauses: simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex (Koopman, et al., 2003). In contrast, a simple phrase just contains one independent clause that makes a complete predication. There is only one independent main clause and no dependent or subordinate clauses in a simple sentence (Waters & Caplan, 1996).

According to Halliday and Webster (2004), metaphoric happens inside a sentence when the actions (for example, when verbs and adjectives) are changed into things (such as nouns), a process that is known as "nominalisation". Sentences with many verb phrases are considered as complex sentences. These complex clauses can be joined either practically (for instance, coordinate clauses) or hypothetically (e.g, subordinate clauses). Transforming verbs into nouns through nominalisation can turn a complex clause into a simple one (Halliday & Webster, 2004).

Subject and predicate are the two primary components of a sentence, and each sentence comprises of one independent clause or a main clause (Randall, 2006). Its clause is independent of the other clauses in the sentence. (Smith & Cohen, 2007) the constituent structure (also known as phrase structure) and the tree diagram are the two ways that sentence structure can be generated in syntax. As a result, the following examples show how phrases should be structured: (1) S NP + VP, (2) Adj P Adj, (3) NP NP + S. Det + N, (4) VP V + NP. V + VP. V+AdvP, and (5) Det Art.

Ultimately, sentence function is allocated depending on the number of clauses, such as the number of imperative, interrogative, declarative, and exclamatory sentences. Regarding this, Rozakis (2003) found that in addition to classifying sentences based on the amount of clauses they include, sentences can also be categorised based on their purpose. Rozakis (2003) claimed that, a simple sentence contains one subject and one verb and that its phrase might be complex on the basis of this.

Van Geldere (2013) emphasised on how sentence forms in legal situations differ from both those of Standard English and the vernacular. Additionally, the term "complex" may be used most frequently to describe legal grammar, but it actually refers to a more specific quality that includes the usage of various negatives, such as "must not," a great deal of nominalisation, and several passive structures.

Additionally, Danesi (2014) discussed syntax based on a letter that was admitted in court after a murder had been committed. When the alleged murderer's note was examined, it was discovered that the syntax was disorganised and rambling, showing the confusion and chaos the victim had inside of him.

Additionally, Coulthard and Johnson (2007) discussed a situation in which one of them provided expert testimony regarding syntactic difficulty. The reporter, however, said that a letter that was given to them describing the procedure for submitting a benefit claim was written so poorly that it really failed to inform them of their rights.

However, Coulthard and Johnson (2007) highlighted a number of syntactic components to support their conclusions, such as multiple denials, complex embedding, nominalisations, passive verbs without subjects, and challenging combination that they claimed were likely to make it difficult to comprehend the case.

Another incident is a sample of the syntactic structure taken from the letter. The problems encountered were as follow (Coulthard & Johnson, 2007):

[I]f your Aid to Families with Dependent Children (The amount of AFDC assistance you received for which you were not eligible will be deducted from your future AFDC payments or must be paid back if your AFDC is terminated and your financial support benefits are maintained at the current level and the fair hearing finds that your AFDC financial assistance reduction was correct (Levi, 1993, p.7).

They viewed (Coulthard & Johnson, 2007) the following comparable reformulation meaning that if X occurs, followed by Y, either Z will occur, or if R and Q both happened, Q had to happen (Levi, 1993). She further divided the grammatical complexity into seven phrases, six passive verbs without subjects, and several complex compound nouns, including financial aid reduction (Levi, 1993), which itself encompass nominalised verbs without explicit subjects.

Regrettably, neither the verdict in the case nor the judge's impressions of the witness's testimony were reported by Levi (1993). She was nevertheless recognised as a witness on syntactic meaning, which is not always sufficient. In fact, a judge in the United States categorically rejected Ellen Prince's admission as an expert, saying that the court should be the one to determine what a word means. It is undoubtedly more challenging when dealing with legal texts, because judges and attorneys frequently view themselves as the caretakers of the adjudicators on such meaning, according to Coulthard and Johnson (2007).

In a case reported by Stubbs (1996) in the English Appeal Court, the author talked about an expert's view and made the case that the judges' wording in the initial trial may have predisposed them to convict. The Chief Justice did not consider his testimony, because he believed that any linguistic expert should be able to determine the meaning of the language that the learned judge used while giving instructions to the jury (Stubbs, 1996).

Nevertheless, linguists are occasionally permitted to voice their professional opinions, but it would be advantageous if they were lawyers or working hand in hand with the lawyers when expressing their professional opinions as co-authors (ibid). Also, numerous ways on how to classify the phrases have been established, keeping in mind of the genuineness that the syntactic structures behind the phrases vary a lot, and thus no universal procedure can be used for all of them Stubbs (1996).

Furthermore, although other scholars have commented on the use of pronouns and their significance in criminal cases or witness statements at lexical level, Pennebaker (2011) also contributed to the rule controlling the interpretation of the sentences in language of the law, that it refers to the syntactic relationship between the position of the pronoun and the position of a potential predecessor.

Importantly, (Pennebaker, 2011)) argued that the variety of available interpretations for sentences such as *John thought he should be politer to Bill* and *he thought John should be politer to Bill* is independent of context. Moreover, Villanueva and Ranosa (2016) noticed that, it is often not usual for judges to interpret nouns. However, it is infrequent for the judges to have to theorise about how they interpret pronouns in court.

Jonathan (2013) however stated that, one can find instances where judges do theorise about the structure of language. Whilst Shuy (1993) supports Jonathan's (2013) argument that, this normally happens when a disagreement requires the court to admit one proffered interpretation and reject another, resulting in the court to feel obliged to explain why it has taken such position. In case this happens, Hollien (2001) explained that, the linguistic scrutiny might be helpful to the judges, who can be more likely better at interpreting the language than they are at talking about why it is that they infer language the way they do.

Additionally, it is believed that one of the most crucial legalese's syntactic characteristics is the length and nuance of Rylance's sentences (1994). As an alternative, this complexity results from the frequent usage of intricate syntactic constructions such subordinate clauses, conditional phrases, and passive voice. Rylance is recognised as one of the linguists who researched on the issues with long sentences, focusing on word order and repetition.

He illustrated an example of a sentence that leads: the parties acknowledge and agree that if any party of this agreement is invalid, the other terms shall remain in full force and effect if that provision is found to be void or unenforceable (Rylance, 1994).

In conjunction with the example given above, the marked italic words are to identify such structures as conditional like the words that are identifying the usage of the passive voice, the term shall rather than will, and subordinate linking words like (and). Similar to the lexical initiatives made by Asprey (2003), efforts were also undertaken to make legal writings simpler, such as the Pan English movement (Felsdenfeld, 1981) mentioned.

The movement according to him, heightened awareness among attorneys of the issue of lengthy sentences, and insisted on writing only the necessary information, and omitting words and phrases that are not necessary. However, if more words are required to maintain clarity and lengthier sentences occur as a result, one alternative is to make use of organised sentences Rylance (1994).

Legal discourse is also characterised by objective style, Williams (2004) by avoiding using personal pronouns and speaking in the passive voice. This suggests that writings should focus more on the action than the performer. Additionally, there are times when being active is vital to emphasise who or what carried out the action. As a result, the text is slightly more objective than subjective due to the lack of pronouns, which is a characteristic of formal style. The first and second persons are frequently left out, however the third person is frequently used (Williams, 2004).

Notably, Rutledge (2012) in lawful texts, it is observed that often verbs are replaced with nouns, For instance, "to be in agreement" is preferred over "to agree," "to give acknowledgement to" over "to acknowledge," "to give attention to" over "to consider," and so on. Numerous academics have suggested that since these nominalisations result in run-on sentences or lengthy paragraphs, it is preferable to eliminate them. Additionally, it is recommended that legal materials be written in the present tense and use expressions like shall Rutledge (2012). Modal verbs are hence rather prevalent in legal literature.

One could argue that the syntactic parameter is a weak amongst all the linguistic parameters in linguistic investigation, particularly in courts. Gibbons (2013) reported a case in USA where Labov and Harris proven that the employer did not compensate black steel employees for prior prejudice. They provided proof from grammatical analysis as well as readability procedures which validated the linguistic complication and difficulty of the text. However, the question was whether there was a difference in how people read the lines, with some reading them negatively to mean they would not get back pay and others reading them positively to mean they would Gibbons (2013).

Subsequently, Gibbons (2013) there was a statistically significant difference, which is used by those with preconceived notions to support the incorrect interpretation. Labov was thus able to confirm that the letter was, in fact, prejudicial, possibly intentionally or not , in favour of the company that refused to pay the back wages. This is said to be an excellent example of how meticulous linguistic testing and analysis may be used, to determine the meaning of language forms for specific individuals within a certain contextual frame. Sadly, the judge threw the case out, although she took the linguistic evidence seriously (Gibbons, 2013).

According to McCarty (2007), the major ambiguity that is inherent in all grammar is that, it poses a challenge when analysing a sentence written in a natural language, sufficient to deliver a broader reporting of unlimited text. Unlike other scholars who approached syntactical analysis from a qualitative

approach, McCarty (2007) took a statistical model. The model was created to assign a possibility to each conceivable parse tree.

Hence, the researcher used Collins' statistical parser, for the syntactic investigation of the lawful corpus. More particularly, model 3 of Collins' parser was used, which switched the counterpart differences as well as "wh-movement" as a phenomenon. She has also filed this ADA lawsuit, in which she argues that her previous employer, Policy Management System Corporation, discriminated against her, because of her disability, as an example from the corpus (McCarty, 2007).

Conversely, McCarty (2007) indicated that, the parser implemented much on the fundamental construction appeared on the periphery of a sentence. Prepositional phrase supplements had a precision of 82.29/81.51, and verb assistants other than prepositional phrase had a precision of 75.11/78.44, but coordinated conjunction performed the worst on the procedures with an exactness of only 61.47/62.20. Verb balances had a precision of 93.76/92.96 and other complements had a precision of 94.74/94.12.

Furthermore, since they could not answer the Collins' parser on sentence from judicial quantitatively, they did a qualitative analysis of their own results which had the following: the parser performed admirably on coordinated conjunctions and prepositional phrase attachments when it was applied to judicial opinions. Since legal texts were not the genre of the training set, they would not have expected the parser to perform quite as well as 88.0 percent recall and 88.3 percent accuracy on sentences from those texts, but they hypothesized that there is enough legal terminology in Wall Street Journal news articles for most of the statistical data to be available there McCarty (2007).

Moreover, A approach to automatically annotate amendatory clauses in normative documents in Italian was put out by (Gianfelice et al., 2013). A provision that modifies is one that makes changes to one or more clauses in a text, the whole text, or the relationships between the individual provisions that make up a legal system. What is more, the system's primary focus is on helping legal annotators find and classify modificatory passages.

On the other hand, the system has two procedures, bottomless using regular expressions and parsing. Whereby, the system's first stage entails extracting particular XML nodes where alterations might be present. To make the input simpler, a small amount of the captured text is rewritten (Fillmore, 1977). As a result, each sentence in the text is separated into its own paragraph.

All the employed amendments are established employing a collection of regular phrases in sentences that could use amendment. The subject and object that indicate the difficult standards in the modification are identified using the parsing information Fillmore (1977).

Unlike other online news articles, user comments on social media, and legal texts all have unique features (Truong-Son et al., 2018). But, legal phrases are typically lengthy, intricate, and structured in great detail. Legal sentences are typically divided into two key portions called "a necessary part and an effectuation part" practically, if not all instances (Truong-Son et al., 2018 p.170). The two sections are therefore employed to create legal constructions of legal needs in legal articles, and the structures are frequently provided from the demand portion to the effectuation part (Nakamura et al., 2007).

Meanwhile, the requisite as well as the effectuation portion are mostly made up of one or more rational components, such as precedence and consequences, plus topic parts Ngo et al (2013). A logical part is defined as a lower-level clause or phrase in legal language that consists of a run-on sentence. Additionally, each logical component carries a certain legal text meaning according to its category (Ngo et al., 2013).

Due to the fact that in its legal structure, a law sentence comprises of law necessary and law effectuation elements. Makoto (2009) explored an example of the structure of law sentences, where the guides of subject, condition, object, content and provision are shown correspondingly in the figure that shows the structure requisition and effectuation. He highlighted that, if a sentence is equals to one of the patterns allows each phrase to be assigned to either the conditional or subject parts of the law's required part, leaving the remaining clauses to be used in the law's effectuation section.

Similarly, Makoto (2007) added that, separating a sentence into the pre-processing phase makes the main techniques more effective and precise. In his article, (Makoto, 2007) narrated to have had investigated ordinary texts, which comprised of 84 cue phrase outlines, which were discovered out of a total of 501 sentences from 138 provisions of the National Pension Law, the municipal laws of Toyoma Pre and Chiyoda in Tokyo Pre, and they constitute a combination of the subject portion and the condition part.

He then concluded that, the subject section ends with specified particles, whilst the condition part ends with a sentence that denotes whether or not anything happened. The subject portion or condition element of each clause in a sentence might be changed according to the law's required part, if it fits one of the patterns, while the remaining clauses can be assigned to the law's effectuation portion Makoto (2007).

2.5 A discourse analysis of witness statements

Coulthard and Johnson (2007) indicated, in 1977 the release of an introduction to discourse analysis happened, where expressive linguistic has been converted. The term discourse according to Onoja and Oguche (2021) can be explained either in a small or in a bigger sense. Only spoken or written language would be included by a limited definition of conversation. Discourse, on the other hand, frequently explores a complete definition to take into account the collective ways that civilisations, including language and language-based practices, make sense of things within a specific culture or setting (Onoja & Oguche, 2021).

However, researches in forensic linguistic have mainly advanced through collaborations between experts from fields other than law discourses. They further added that, when one wish to analyse the text within context of forensic, the expert should put in mind on how it is similar and what differentiates it from the rest of the other contexts for texts, and the theories and procedures being most effective to examine it (Onoja & Oguche, 2021).

Forensic discourse, according to Onoja and Oguche (2021), is a branch of linguistic research that normally aids law enforcement organisations to combat and resolve crimes committed in the society. Making it possible with language's aid; as forensic discourse specialists assist in more than just crime-solving, but also to work vigorously in order to release mistakenly and unfair accused others of offenses they had not committed. Hence, language can be used to speak, write, add signatures as well as to be implemented as an approach that assists to crack crimes in forensic discourse.

Hence, some cases such as murder or homicide sometimes until they are completely resolved, they concluded by the law implementation agencies with the assistance of forensic professionals (Onoja & Oguche, 2021). Meanwhile, in April 2021, Derek Chauvin, a former American police officer, went on trial and was found guilty of killing George Floyd in Minneapolis, Minnesota. On May 25, 2020, Chauvin brutally committed the crime by kneeling on the victim's neck for nine minutes, killing him in the process.

In that crime, the universe witnessed forensic discourse as tragedy throughout the trial. Accordingly, a significant amount of verbal and visual testimony from witnesses helped to prove that Mr. Chauvin killed the deceased by using excessive force on him. Another piece of forensic proof indicating the victim might not have died if Chauvin had listened to George Floyd and taken his knee off his neck is the famous phrase, "I can't breathe," which was heard on camera by everyone in the world.

For what it can and has accomplished thus far, forensic discourse plays a crucial role in society. Applying linguistic understanding, practices, and perceptions to the forensic framework of law, language, crime, investigation, trial, and judicial procedure is practical for assessing police reports and confessional testimonies (Onoja & Oguiche, 2021). As was previously demonstrated, forensic discourse specialists look for evidence by examining the written language of the law, interactions in legal contexts, and language itself. Additionally, according to Onoja and Oguiche, (2021) professionals in this field guarantee that anyone participating in a dispute or legal action is well-versed in the subject at hand.

Onoja and Oguiche (2021) also pointed out that, forensic discourse scrutinises actions, replies and utterances through language to aid legal experts convey their proof to resolve cases. As a result, They operate to show uncompromising evidence(s) most of the times (Onoja & Oguiche, 2021). As Johnson and Coulthard indicated that:

[W]hen we shift our focus from what legal language accomplishes to what the linguistic expert accomplishes, we can see how linguists can significantly improve the way in which evidence is presented. When linguistic expertise, including semantic, syntactic, pragmatic, discursal, phonetic, and corpus linguistic knowledge, can help the judge and jury decide a matter, an expert's opinion is requested.

Therefore, in forensic discourse, those who committed crimes are likely to downplay their connection in the crimes; however, it is the forensic discourse practitioners' duty to discover it out. Accordingly, it has gradually become beneficial for forensic discourse specialists to testify as witnesses both in civil as well as criminal trials.

The similarities between legal and other forms of literature are greater than one might initially imagine. However, the majority of the characteristics commonly associated with legalese are more broadly related to writing than they are to the language of the law. In a similar vein, new research by forensic linguists has revealed that it can be highly intriguing to listen to how judges, attorneys, and witnesses speak during court proceedings (Matilla, 2006). Aldridge (2010) also mentioned that witnesses, suspects, and the attorneys who are defending them might occasionally resist such linguistic dominance.

Maite (2013) stated, forensic linguists are aware of the importance of context in the quest for meaning in a dialogue and are recalcitrant to accept interpretations that have been warped by either the prosecution or the defense based on the context. Therefore, to be able to completely identify if any crime was actually

committed or not, individuals who deal with linguistic crimes require more in-depth knowledge in the forensic and pragmatics disciplines.

Furthermore, when it comes to discourse analysis, admissibility of witnesses' oral and written statements and also the judges' decision is based on ill-defined linguistic for instance, in terms of reliability of the witness memory, and statements deprived of contexts (University of New York, 2021). Further, Wright and Macleod (2020) added that, the it is not necessary for forensic linguistic aid provided to investigators to be equally reliable average like the one handed in as evidence.

Legal discourse, particularly during court hearings, is a major concern for many forensic linguists, according to Tiesma (1999). This is so that, both the judge and the lawyers can speak with one another during court proceedings. They continue to carry out this even when public lay members are present, which frequently requires some type of clarification or translation in an effort to communicate legal concepts in plain English (Momeni, 2011).

Gibbons and Turell (2008) also noted when ordinary individuals become involved with the legal system and don't speak the courtroom's official language, more issues arise. A translation or interpreter who is fluent in at least one legal language, and sometimes more than one, is required in this situation. Furthermore, Clarke and Kredens (2018) argued that in order for those working in the judicial system to do their duties properly and satisfactorily, they will require a functional grasp of both the relevant court system and its language.

Redlich (2007) continued by stating that certain interviewers employ persuasive techniques for psychological interrogation that frequently put innocent persons in a helpless positions, where they are forced to give false confessions. Meanwhile, kids and individuals with mental illnesses are typically vulnerable groups when they are witnesses to abuse or, more significantly, when they are suspects in a case.

Significantly, as Aldridge (2010) confidently concluded, the interaction between interviewers and suspects or defendants, despite the fact that safety precautions are usually taken. Cross-examination rife with linguistic gimmicks and interrogation tactics that are unfair to people whose language maturity is restricted by immaturity.

It's important to note that, according to Clarke (2016), there is no single type of witness, and the majority of the evidence are provided by lay witnesses and regular people who were involved in the crime. In order

for the court to assess the significance of the evidence, expert witnesses also present the judge with their demonstrative conclusions and clarify the technical components of the proof. Children who appear in as witnesses or abuse victims in court also face the cross-examination, according to Coulthard, Johnson, and Wright (2017).

The linguist's input could occasionally be limited to a word's definition. When accusatory remarks are said in a different language, the witness may be considerably more susceptible (Harupe, 2019). It is a fairly critical topic that can offer useful insights to criminal profilers, Wagner and Broekman (2010) said. The example was obtained from Sanni (2018), where a suspect may not have been involved in a crime if they use the pronoun I rather than us.

Sanni (2016) then emphasised that forensic linguists have discovered that, even when a suspect is heard saying "yes" or "uh-huh" in response to a proposal, he or she is typically not necessarily agreeing with the advice, but rather only providing feedback to show that he or she has received the statements as is customary in daily conversation Ahmed (2021).

Additionally, forensic linguists are at times required to testify on content analysis, to classify the speaker or perhaps authorship identification among others (Shuy, 2006). Based on the linguists' knowledge, they can attest about their analyses of who wrote a certain text message or note. Particularly, they do this by using two methods. The first approach is what is called testimony, which results in the specialist's idiosyncratic source outlook Maatta (2015) added.

Furthermore, Danielewicz (2012) added that, those who exercise forensic stylistics often offer their sentiments about who wrote and who did not write a document, subsequently taking into account of such stylistic features such as the format, spelling, capitalisation, punctuation, abbreviations, word choice and syntax. Another approach according to Maatta (2015) culminated in a numerical description of the intensity of the observed communication between an unknown target and an established circumstance.

Nonetheless, when it comes to testimony, whichever trial, there is a significant risk that expert witness on scientific and technological issues will perplex or deceive the fact-finders. In cases such as these, the precise wording that legal actors employ could make the difference between testimony that is truthful, and beneficial to the trier's decision and testimony that is deceptive and harmful (Neubauer, 2006).

Tanner (2021) also added that, there is a notion called expert witness, who is typically a professor, a speech or hearing scientist with extensive clinical training. He further discussed that, medical malpractice

lawsuits frequently come down to a debate between experts who provide knowledgeable opinions regarding who committed what, when, and where consequence.

Further, Tanner (2021) pointed out that, expert witness in an analytical process prepares a chronology of events illustrating the health care specialists did with reference to their role in the alleged negligence. Hence, he further gave an insight that, the expert generates the timeframe by reviewing a crucial amount of medical data as evidence, typically, many substantial crates from some diverse medical practice amenities.

Here, he explained, that all records on the subject of including as recommendations, orders, bedside assessment reports, progress notes, and other documents pertaining to the patient communication with the patient's family as well as other health care professionals. Tanner (2021) also highlighted that, these clinical records and reports serve as the main proof of your expert behaviour. Thus, the expert witness then looks into any actions or inactions that might have caused the patient's death or at least contributed to it.

Evidently, a research conducted by Dwi and Sigit (2020), whose aim was to try to mention a trial where London police was questioning the established recordings, stated that the goal of the questioning was to determine what occurred and whether a crime was committed had adequate and satisfactory evidence. However, they found out, that the main objective of the interrogators is frequently confession.

Likewise, to how it is explained in the background by other scholars, forensic linguistics is again described that it refers to how language and law interact in their many forms (Zarirruddin & Nordin, 2016). Anesa (2013) added that the use of forensic linguistics is crucial since it determines which linguists will testify in court. Thus, by using linguists, they can provide opinions that can be used as evidence, because of their expertise and professionalism.

Equally, Leahy-Harland and Bull (2017), described that, since they are being interrogated in a difficult circumstance, how interrogators establish trusting connections based on humanitarian factors. Therefore, the process of developing trust may be influenced by variables including gender, age, class, race, mother tongue, and level of mental acuity interrogation.

False confessions frequently originate from ambiguous remarks, and as (Kassin, 2014) noted, both individual and environmental factors in the questioning area can lead to the accused individual giving an unclear confession. According to Fielding (2013), forensic linguistics also examines the language used by juries, attorneys, witnesses, criminals, and litigants in civil cases. So, as Office and Court (2015) noted, forensic linguistics contains the examination of spoken and written terminology used in legal contexts.

2.5.1 Discourse analysis approaches

Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) described discourse analysis as a situation in spoken or written language, in which the form and meaning are connected, such as words, structures, and cohesiveness, and which consistently correspond to an external communication function or purpose and a specific audience.

The first tactic is that, official linguistic discourse analysis comprises of a methodical examination of a text to discover common fundamental guidelines of linguistic or unrestrained purpose behind the text (Hodges et al, 2008). For instance, in their article, they indicated how Lacson and colleagues matched human-human and machine-human discourses, to learn more about the likelihood of compressing human data using computers discussions about patients in a dialysis element into a formula that doctors could utilise to make a clinical decisions (Hodges et al, 2008).

The extensive-ranging of discourse analysis methods, the fundamentals that institute a high-quality study differ. They have argued, research on discourse analysis undergoes from revealing description of the critical method used (Hodges et al, 2008). Therefore, one need to expect pure certification of the sources of information used, as well as delineation of data together with a description of choices made with regard to collection of groups or individuals for focus groups, observational studies, or, prominently, a portrayal of the study's setting.

Nevertheless, the technique of analysis should be openly explained, containing the conventions made and methods used to program and synthesise data. Lastly, provided that illuminating and evaluating power structures is the purpose of critical discourse analysis, it is particularly essential that researchers discuss how each of their own personal socio-cultural roles may influence their viewpoints (Hodges et al, 2008).

There are numerous techniques to examine real language use since discourse analysis is multidisciplinary; there is no one best way to do it (Lazarota, 2002). Many discourse analysis methodologies, including

contextual analysis, interaction analysis, cohesion analysis, speech act analysis, and conversation analysis, are the subject of research.

Cohesion analysis by Halliday and Hasan (1976) focuses on how cohesive markers like pronouns and conjunctions help texts stay together at the word, phrase, and even sentence level. A contextual analysis can be utilised to look at how specific language varieties are employed in various settings, whether they are written or spoken, as explored by Celce-Murcia (1980).

2.5.2 Author identification

Scholars highlighted numerous possibilities to employ rigorous quantitative and qualitative analysis techniques to establish the linguistic author identification (Coulthard, 2005). What is more, the forensic linguists compared the text presented as proof which may be with respect to various texts, either written or spoken by the identified author and regulate the probability that a similar or different author is the one who produced the questioned text Coulthard (2005).

Consequently, Alhmsi (2019) also indicated that the identification of the author varies on the person's analysis of their dialect. Pertaining to forensic stylistics for instance, written and spoken resources are topic to scientific analysis for defining the dimension establishing the authorship in order to spot plagiarism, speaker identification and meaning, or analysis of the material. Discourse analysis examines the use of spoken, written, and sign language. Linguistic dialectology, on the other hand, is the methodical study of dialects based on anthropological data (Alhmsi, 2019).

Furthermore, applications like these include forensic linguistics, text, and linguistic investigations of authorship are a few examples of such uses. A court habitually calls on forensic linguists to assist in responding to inquiries like: who has written the given text, and what does the given text say (Alhmsi, 2019)? Henceforth, linguists depend on their knowledge with regard to areas of imaginative linguistics to provide an understanding of conversation as well as text analysis, phonetics, phonology, semantics, lexis, syntax, pragmatics, and answers to these kinds of issues (Coulthard, 1997).

The phonetician's task with a text is to transcribe phrases taken from audio recordings just in case when the recording is of poor quality. The example given is, the professional expert with a skilled ear as well as the help of some of the sophisticated software may hear the recording entirely different in contrast to the non-expert, who may notice something else. Henceforth, the interests of the forensic linguists are in

decoding and of the literature' interpretation (Coulthard, 1997). Moreover, a forensic text is possibly to be any spoken language text; but it is a forensic text if it is associated in legal context in one way or another.

For example, according to Olsson (2004), a forensic text can be a parking ticket, can be a will or an essay, a contract, a letter from the health department, and even a thesis (Olsson, 2004). Linguists can talk about the subject of questioned authorship from the academic angle when it comes to the linguistic analysis of authorship. It is crucial to remember that a language's native speakers have unique characteristics in the way they talk and write. They also have their own idiolect, expecting that it will be obvious in literature by using distinct and peculiar choices (Halliday 1989).

These include software forensics, document analysis, and plagiarism detection. According to MacMenamin (2002), the interaction of document analysis and linguistics can aid with issues pertaining to stylistic choices in abbreviation, punctuation, and spelling. As a result, during a scientific investigation, the questioned document's inspection depends on the document's physical proof. Another recent advance in the identification of forensic authors for software computer programming that incorporates stylistic analysis (MacMenamin, 2002).

Also, MacMenamin (2002) indicated that, it is worth to note that the rise of the internet and the widespread use of computers make it simpler to steal someone else's ideas. Therefore, plagiarism may almost be detected in any discipline, including scientific papers, source code, and artwork. Computer science teachers have employed software applications related to the detection of plagiarism to surreptitiously identify the similarities working on a project. It's noteworthy that plagiarism detection can be done in two ways: manual or helped by software (MacMenamin, 2002).

Forensic phoneticians manage speaker identification to settle argument content recordings, and these recordings are transcribed into the spoken scripts Danielewicz (2012). Furthermore, forensic discourse experts also inspect and examine contested authorship situations. Authorship attribution is the study of predicting an author's traits from the qualities of the works that author has produced (Chaski, 2013).

In addition, Michael, Stefan and Viola (2014) highlighted, speaker identification based mostly on the fundamental acoustic characteristics of a speaker's voice has had some notable results in the past. For example, in computerised field, algorithms for machine learning have successfully been trained to match speaker recordings. Previous studies indicated in the current papers are that novel in examining prosody contemporary computational methodology.

Ahmed and Arcelus-Ulibarrena (2021) commented on author identification, that to identify who the speaker is, is quite not easy. They highlighted, that one of the arguments distinction between forensic linguists is shown in the application of their field. This discrepancy relates to how accurately the speaker was identified. The judges may find it exceedingly difficult to deal with specific vocal impersonations in the sample voice of the speaker, which is provided for inquiry. Compared to the speaker's typical voice samples, there is less possibility of fortitude in this sample Arcelus-Ulibarrena (2021).

Conversely, Danielewicz-Betz (2012) if the investigators request that the court order to record a voice sample in which they repeat certain lines in a normal conversational voice, this issue can be resolved. If the voice of the perpetrator is hidden by some vocal disguise, the investigators may be given the suspect's sample either three times or in the same disguise until they are satisfied with a fair degree. There is a common benchmark for the quantity of words needed for the purpose of identification, however voice samples acquired using such explicit guidelines are typically extremely adequate in order to compare. For various agencies, it could vary by 10–20 words (Machado et al, 2019).

Based on the aforementioned, it implies that differences in the same speech made by many speakers can be identified, yet scientific theory and facts do not support this concept (University of York, 2021). A number of some perspectives that are founded on actual mistake rates. These perspectives on precise error rates are connected to expert assessments of them. Additionally, inconsistent experimental findings have an effect on these perceptions of the real error rates. It was found that when it comes to forensic applications, objective data is not given much weight or, to put it another way, is not indicative of the outcomes (Danielewicz-Betz, 2012).

Solan and Tiersman (2003), in their article gave an illustration that, officers introduced the defendant to a rape victim at a police station about seven months after the event, giving her the chance to inspect him and hear him say, "Shut up or I'll kill you" (Solan & Tiersma, p. 378). She testified at the trial that she was certain that the defendant was her attacker based on his appearance and speech.

The court emphasised on the eyewitness component of the identification and provided a framework for assessing accusations, that a suggestive identification technique violated the rights of a defendant. According to Solan and Tiersman (2003), the likelihood of false identification should be the main point of attention, because it would be a violation of the defendant's right to due process. Suggestive confrontations are not acceptable, because they raise the possibility of misidentification, and excessively expressive ones are not acceptable since the risk of misidentification is increased in a positive way.

Moreover, the court subsequently explained some criteria for assessing the possibility of identification error. They hence turned to the fundamental query, of whether or not under "entirety of the situations", the identification was dependable although the hostility process was reminiscent. According to their cases, the factors to be taken into consideration when calculating the likelihood of misidentification include the witness's chance to see the offender when the crime was committed, their level of focus, the accuracy of their prior description of the offender, their level of certainty during the confrontation, and the amount of time that passed between the offense and the conflict (Solan & Tiersman, 2003).

Using the above-mentioned criteria, (Solan & Tiersman, 2003) the identification of the defendant by the rape victim as her attacker was deemed sufficient by the court to satisfy the gathering. It was also noted that, the perpetrator's presence was reliable with a depiction she had given the police shortly after the crime happened. What is more, Solan and Tiersman (2003) indicated that, she had beforehand been shown a number of other suspects and was unsuccessfully able to single out any one of them as the rapist.

They mentioned, that this created a situation to use a two-step analysis. Primary, a judge should determine if the identification was suggestive, and if it was expressive, whether it was also reliable according to the standards outlined in Biggers. Despite the similarities between Biggers and Manson's emphasis on eyewitness recognition, it is important to keep in mind that the victim in Biggers was exposed to the defendant's voice in addition to his appearance (Solan & Tiersman, 2003).

Courts do not limit their rulings in these situations to those based only on eyewitness identification for any reason. But, no court has ruled that the two-step methodology should not be used where auditory identification is a concern, because some courts have applied Biggers and Manson to voice identification. In order to permit voice identification evidence in ear witness instances, Biggers and Manson established the constitutional standard (Solan & Tiersman, 2003).

According to Maite (2013), telephone text communications better known as SMS are alternative types of linguistic evidence that have progressively been used in the courtroom. He gave an example of Danielle Jones's case, a young woman who went missing in 2001, after her uncle received two messages from her phone were critical identifying her possible kidnapper and murderer.

Therefore, Coulthard (2008), a forensic linguist, was asked to compare those two last communications with the 65 texts the girl had sent in the three days before her abduction. However, based on a number of linguistic choices that were either uncommon or the Danielle corpus lacks, he came to the conclusion

that she might not have written them, which implied that someone else did who pretended to be her did. In this case, that someone might have been her uncle (Coulthard & Johnson, 2007).

Evidently, in the case of the four males, there was yet another opportunity for a linguist to be asked to give expert testimony imprisoned for having murdered a paper boy. Among the four males, one with the name Patrick Mollay, made an admission acknowledging to the boy's murder. However, later, he said, the cops had coerced him to plead guilty.

But, according to the police, they have a recording of the discussion before making the confession, he also confessed to an identical crime. Despite the police indicated that they recorded the whole interview with him confessing and admitting to the crime, Molloy denied, and said the confession never happened and claimed that it was manufactured by the police after the fact Maite (2013).

In the end, Coulthard was again asked to make his conclusion on the matter, (Maite, 2013) predicated on the notion of uniqueness, suggested that the same individual would select an overlapping, but different set of lexicogrammatical options when presenting the same tale at two separate periods in time, he came to this conclusion. In terms of language and sentence structure, the two texts were too close to have been created separately on two separate occasions, where one was taken from the other or both were drawn from a third source. However, Maite (2013) came to the conclusion that the written confession was in fact faked as a result of this.

On a more similar situation, was a ransom note that was investigated by (Shuy, 2001), where dialectic difference provided details nearly to the suspect's identity. Although the suspect incorporated misspellings of words such as: *dauter* rather than Shuy (2001) assumed that the note's author was trying to appear less educated than he actually was, based on the writer's exact wording of more difficult phrases like precious, diaper, and watchful.

But, what actually assisted to identify the note's author, was the unusual use of *devil strip*, a term Maite (2013) signifying the little strip of grass between the sidewalk and the barrier, which is only present in the Akron, Ohio, area. It was interesting to note that, because there was only one educated man from that region on the suspect list, it did not take the police long to uncover more evidence that further implicated him (Shuy, 2001).

It's worth noting, that the first attempt to resolve authorship issues by editing anticipated specific linguistic uniformities was made by de Morgan in a letter dated 1851, that he replied a request from a

biblical expert to formulate a method determining on the genuineness of a sequences typically attributed to St. Paul, of letters De Morgan conjectured, that the writer's distinctive and essentially constant average word length would sustain translation, and be measured only in terms of letters per word (Coulthard & Johnson, 2007).

Without first being checked for consistency on texts whose authorship was already known, an authorship attribution method was useful for doubtful writings Coulthard and Johnson (2007). Nevertheless, it should also be pointed out that about 180 authorship markers assessed, word length was one of just 11 to pass Grant's (2005) rigorous consistency checks.

Yule (1938), normally using the length of the sentence as a gauge, differentiate well, whilst a study that compared this amount to one of the lexical production was reported by (Winter & Woolls, 1996) as a result of Honoré's research on the value of vocabulary choice (1979). Likewise, every marker was among the things Grant had given his approval to.

Furthermore, the two structures which Winter and Woolls (1996) selected theoretically substantial, are the typical sentence length as well as lexical fruitfulness, and they are interesting since, unlike the length of the word, they are below the commonly sub mindful authority of the author. Moreover, having been recommended that, one purpose in the beginning borderline to serve as an interface point.

The reader permits time for the author to elucidate a possible argumentative point:

As I hoped that by doing so at that time, you would respond after I used a full stop to indicate that I had reached some sort of conclusion, and decide whether to accept or reject what I had written or to reserve judgment until I had added more. The amount of information a writer chooses to include in a sentence is up to them. A similar choice is whether to have a long sentence followed by a short one, as I just did. Of course, I could have just as easily made the short sentence a linked clause of the previous, already excessively long sentence Coulthard and Johnson (2007).

Consequently, the length of the sentence is a sensible candidate for a stylistic indicator modification.

Additionally, Coulthard and Johnson(2007) the pace is a moment element which is directly controlled by the author. Similar to some speakers, who speak more quickly as opposed to others, also conceal information more quickly and occasionally in a more interesting way. The more quickly a writer switches between topics, the more quickly new vocabulary will be established, because new content inevitably involves new terminology.

This singularity can be overstated by sophisticated deviation, which is the choice to lexicalise, whilst engaging on the same subject as well as to substitute context-specific synonyms, such as system for category (Coulthard & Johnson, 2007). This indicates that, for the data on style, writers might diverge considerably in terms of the quantity of new words they introduce throughout roughly equivalent lengths of a document (Coulthard & Johnson, 2007).

In his early research on terminology choice, Honoré (1979) made the assumption that a key indicator of a text's vocabulary density would be the number of hapax legomena, terms that a writer uses just once. He developed the formula shown below to quantify its richness: N is the total number of words in the text, V_1 is the total number of sentences, and $100 \log N / (1 - V_1 / V)$ number of hapaxes, and V is the total vocabulary in terms of categories.

However, what Honoré (1979) failed to see was that he was combining the dimensions of lexical and grammatical elements, often known as open and closed sets in linguistics. The difficulty with doing this is that, there are no many grammatical terms in the language, therefore they get used a lot. For instance, the, of, and, and, and, a make up an average of 14% of written texts, making them the four most common grammatical constructions. As a result, bigger texts have a lesser percentage of grammatical words that are only used once.

To better correctly compare texts of different sizes, Winter and Woolls (1996) chose to measure solely the lexical richness rather than the richness of the total vocabulary. As a result, they changed V_1 in Honoré's formula to Lexical V_1 .

Furthermore, in a computerisation era, using corpora in different kinds of forensic linguistic analysis is increasingly attracting public place (Cotterill, 2010). Hence, there are specific ranges like authorship in the context of corpus linguistics viewed as the future for identifying and excluding potential writers (Cotterill, 2010). Whereas as it relates to forensic linguistics, the notion of exhausting legal corpora for analysis casework, where texts are involved is a comparatively novel and innovative concept. However, it is a methodology which originates from previously published work on biblical and Shakespearean authorship, both of which have drawn on corpora with a wide range of diverse elements.

Nevertheless, for forensic linguistics, authorship as well as plagiarism are the major concerns, and corpora can be a useful tool for investigation (O'Keeffe et al., 2007) confirmed. It is thus worth to note that vocabulary, similar to how forensic linguists sometimes refer to it as a tool or resource, corpus linguistics

is referred to as an instrument, because no method of analysis, corpus or otherwise, can ensure the identification or exclusion of authors (O'Keeffe et al., 2007).

Like many scholars affirm to the types of texts that can commonly be analysed in forensic linguistic. Similarly, Cotterill (2010) indicated a variety of text types, including frequently found in forensic linguistic casework as follow:

- Threat letters, suicide notes, and extortion letters are just a few examples.
- Bomb and terrorist threats
- Demands for ransom
- E-mails
- SMS messages
- Police reports and witness accounts
- Texts with plagiarism

Cotterill, (2010) further alluded, that Corpora, even if either broad or narrow, they have the prospective to be used at any phase of judicial actions. Whilst linguists may be used during the investigation stage to give their remarks on documents in question at the evidence gathering stage. Hence Olsson (2004) mentioned that: Linguists are frequently requested by attorneys during the appeals process, because there may be some disagreement over the wording, a new reading of a forensic text, such as a suicide note or ransom note, which may be inaccurate that the defendant has been convicted due to the authorship of a statement, a confession made to police, or other factors other circumstances.

Cotterill (2010) however pointed out, that there are several of restrictions which presently hamper the forensic applications of corpus linguistics. Some of these result from their accessibility of technology to the linguists to both gather and analyse the data. But, in the due course as the software and technology evolve, this may be resolved. Another restriction relates is also theoretically more of a major issue to the text themselves. There are several difficulties for the analyst with each of the text formats discussed above (Cottrell, 2010).

What is more, the length of the text is believed to be the first concerns. Generally according to (Cotterill, 2010), all are characteristically few writings that are longer than one or a few pages in length, and most are brief. For instance, texts like emails and text messages, which often have fewer than 10 words, create

an investigational challenge for the expert. It is difficult to establish authorship when it comes to identifying or excluding potential authors, because there is less language to work with (Cotterill, 2010).

Additionally, the first text which comes in mind and activates the necessity for a forensic linguist, is commonly a questioned text Cotterill (2010), that can be, a piece of writing often from an unidentified source. In a case like this, the linguist may request access to the text in order to gather information about its sociolinguistic or other distinguishing characteristics. This becomes a restriction on the linguist's input if the text in issue is isolated, without any additional supplemental texts, such as sequences of threat letters, or if there are no candidate authors, because there is just one text to be studied, corpus linguistics cannot make a very useful contribution (Cotterill, 2010).

Furthermore, in cases where the number of texts is in high quantity, or there are more participant authors, then an in-depth analysis can be carried out. Hence, the forensic linguist is regularly given a corpus of texts, which may be dissimilar in their respective genres, production dates as well as contexts of writing (Cotterill, 2010). Even with such variables as method of production, handwritten texts in contrast with word processed texts, for illustration may have an effect to the linguistic variety used and opportunities to revise the text and create updated variations.

Police then searched the suspects' personal belongings and laptops texts such as diaries, personal and professional letters, mobile cellphone messages and e-mails may be given to the forensic linguist for proportional analysis using the text in question. What the police aim to achieve by doing this is to link the text in question, for instance an explosive threat, with the candidate author who is in custody (Cotterill, 2010). In an illustration from the chapter, Cotterill (2010) gave a case usually believed to be the biggest and the USA's outbreak, which at the time posed the greatest threat from terrorism, involved an Al-Qaeda terrorist conspiracy that led to the conviction of eight people mostly on the basis of authorship analysis.

However, a significant global terrorism plan which involved the main targets in the UK and US was rescued, together with plans for extensive explosions, chemical and biological warfare, and perhaps thousands of casualties. The forensic linguists' team, however was faced with a challenge of identifying the author(s) of this essay, to prove a conspiracy allegation beyond reasonable doubt (Cotterill, 2010). As a result, it was necessary to examine each of the eight people who were arrested.

With only 72 hours left until the suspects had to be charged or released, the job was ultimately chosen in the most demanding circumstance. The team of forensic linguists was bombarded with recently discovered and recovered texts during that time, many of which were fragmentary and in hard copy form, making corpus analysis difficult, because the texts had not yet been digitised. As a result, the complete analysis, which lasted for more than two years and contained tons of documents, was finally given in digitised form and was suitable for corpus-assisted analysis (Cotterill, 2010).

2.5.3 Fingerprinting

Whenever it applied to forensic authorship according to research, the metaphor of the linguistic fingerprint is detrimental, if not outright false, because it conjures up images of the establishment of sizable databases with representative linguistic samples or summaries of assessments of millions of dialects, against which a particular text might be coordinated and evaluated (Shuy, 2001).

In actuality, (Shuy, 2001) like an operation is impractical and will continue to be so for the foreseeable future, if not impossible. Each physical fingerprint sample is distinct and complete, providing all the data necessary to identify a person. On the other hand, even a very big linguistic sample can only reveal extremely limited information concerning the subject.

2.5.4 Linguistic evidence in discourse

Linguistic evidence under discourse, is regarded to any type of text which might be anything verbal, written, or signed that can be used as evidence in court or during a criminal investigation (Maite, 2013). She further added that, it may include ransom notes and emergency calls, unspecified letters or phone calls, letters urging suicide, texts, and confessions just to mention a few. Although the greatest forensic linguists are well-known for providing expert witness testimony, that could be author identification. However, they as well address additional linguistic offenses, such as terrorisations, collusion and bribes among others.

In order to help with the investigation of witness statements, the study will focus primarily on discourse analysis employing cohesion analysis and contextual analysis. Discourse analysis will be employed as one of the study's goals, because the outcomes may easily be seen. Additionally, no prior knowledge of statistics is required to comprehend the results.

Conversely, (Galyashina, 2018) alluded that, In Russian science, forensic linguistics was explained as the use of linguistic science to forensics (Galyashina, 2018). According to (Galyashina, 2018) methodology that expected the improvement of an exceptional cross-disciplinary technique of language analysis, which is known as forensic speech examination was articulated. Thus, knowledgeable linguists have become tremendously needed by Russian law implementation authorities.

With regard to the above (Galyashina, 2018) police officers, lawyers, attorneys, and judges have attempted to utilize linguistic evidence as a form of magic to solve issues involving language factual proof. However, linguistic specialists who were new to the field of law eagerly rushed to take forensic text test Galyashina (2018). This led to several errors in the findings of linguist experts, misled the judges, and aroused public disapproval as well as getting unappealing descriptions of irrational assumptions in the media.

Furthermore, judges conveyed views, that linguistic evidence tend to be too personal, which depends on the professional linguist's history, opinions, and political and cultural perspectives. Furthermore, it is clear that forensic expertise is unrelated to naivety or subjective readings of a text. Further, she investigated how current public practice demonstrates that, a forensic linguist's opinion is frequently assessed fairly methodically, taking into account the opinion's perceived content as well as the expert's talents, educational background, certifications, and professional skills (Galyashina, 2018).

Without a doubt, she indicated that despite the criticism on forensic linguists, the profession of an expert linguist has grown an extraordinary admiration in Russia in recent times, because of the high demand in the market for professional services (Galyashina, 2018). Since then, forensic linguistics has become more prevalent in legal proceedings, although it is still challenging to establish a connection between the areas of expertise of linguists and criminalists (forensic experts). Forensic linguistic analysis has very distinct obligations. Due to this, no two cases are exactly comparable, and neither are two forensic linguistic analyses or testimony.

On the basis of theoretical and methodological considerations that summarise the outcomes of forensic text analysis within the expert's specific area of expertise in linguistics, such as: lexical or grammatical ambiguity, morphological, lexical, phraseological, pragmatic meaning, narrative analysis of disputed statements, etc., the majority of cases can be resolved using typical methodological approaches (Galyashina, 2018).

A forensic linguist with some professional expertise would be the last to assert that forensic linguistics are identical to established philological study of texts or to applied linguistic techniques. Numerous indications suggest that the new application field also calls for a more in-depth theoretical analysis, a broader range of methodological tools, a much deeper level of critical reflection is limitation, and, in particular, an entirely new dimension of the inter- and multi-disciplinary perspectives from which the data and results of FL-analysis are to be viewed and interpreted, and which, I would not hesitate to state, constitute the essence of FL" (Galyashina, 2018 p. 26–27).

The development of forensic linguistic expertise in Russia is currently at a distinct stage, addressing contemporary challenges and community demands (Galyashina, 2018). Not just in the demand for linguistic expertise, but also in achieving objective and trustworthy judgments that do not totally depend on systematic schools or the personal biases of a person acting as the forensic linguistic expert.

Galyashina (2018) further indicated that, the aim of the role of the forensic linguist in a courtroom proceeding is to support the investigator by serving as the detail finder, and to base all factual and legal decisions on strong scientific grounds. Therefore, a forensic linguist can serve as a consultant to jurists, revealing the common or unique meaning of the language of law.

However, the analysis of the experimental data revealed that the linguistic approaches taken by forensic linguists to explain expert tasks vary from one expert report to the next. The percentages of introspection (95%), summarisation (76%), recounting (87%), paraphrase (93%) and synonymic transformation (88 percent) associative investigation (98 percent) content evaluation (84 percent) conceptual examination (69 percent) and the creation of complicated single texts from multiple texts (both 99%) were linguistic techniques that the majority of reviewers in both groups found to be unsatisfactory Galyashina (2018). The primary justification offered by reviewers is that the methods described above adapt the crucial semantic properties of the text as a subject of forensic analysis.

Shuy (2010), a pioneer in the field of forensic linguistics, categorised defamation as discourse evidence in language crimes. He talked about a defamation case including the employment of a forensic linguist, a woman's defamation claims were made against an assistant sheriff and a local television station, respectively. In a three-part television newscast series, she claimed that this station had slandered her. She believed that she was being accused of killing her spouse.

In contrast, despite the deputy sheriff's claim that she was the prime suspect, the authorities She had not been charged with this murder, and investigators were perplexed by that case. The deputy sheriff repeatedly concluded that the woman was the only suspect after watching these programs. One can take into account that he used (the) here as opposed to (a). Furthermore, he added, I think we have a lot of the explanations, but there isn't enough proof to state that she did it without a doubt. Additionally, his reasoning is only an allegation, but it strongly suggests why she committed it (Shuy, 2010).

However, the deputy sheriff's comment on the case, which read as follows: the suspect strolled right for that residence, into the bedroom, up the stairs, and fired the victim in the right place while his slumber, did more damage to the defense (Shuy, 2010). He had said at first that the only suspect was the woman. He now said that the suspect killed the man by shooting him.

Moreover, Shuy (2010) possessing the conviction it is one thing that the woman was the only suspect, but blatantly proving such that a particular suspect was the murderer is evidence of a fact, not an opinion. She was accused of doing it specifically. In this case, the forensic linguist's duties included clarifying discourse referencing.

Coulthard and Johnson (2007) indicated that there is a diverse of crimes conducted solely through language, like conspiracy, frightening, defamation, corruption and solicitation among others. Meanwhile, they highlighted the major difference between these and other kinds of the crimes involving the use of linguistic evidence. Essentially, one does not have to harm the individual, offer a bribe and have the wife murdered, or have sex with a prostitute. To qualify as a hazard, offer, or solicitation, language alone must be used. (Shuy, 1993).

Fraser (1998) further added, that in these situations, determining who actually committed the offenses is frequently more important than determining who wrote them. Additionally, because these offenses include fundamental speech acts, it is important to consider not only what has been spoken (elocutionary act), but also what has been meant (illocutionary act), and the effect it has on the listener (perlocutionary act). For instance, despite the fact that a threat, a warning, or a promise may have the same effect on the listener, it could only be a well-planned threat if there is bullying or terrorism involved (Fraser, 1998).

Furthermore, in a contrast table provided by Shuy (1993) between threatening, warning, and advising, the information presented in the table shows that, when uttering a threat for instance, often the speakers are in complete control, where it is produced from their point of view and why they are in charge of the result.

Similarly, Solan and Tiersma (2005) talked about the case of Hoffman, a young man who wrote to Ronnie, listen Chump! to Rorald Reugan. Resign, or your brains will be blown out!

The agent's identity was obscured by the use of the passive voice rather than the active I will blow your brains out, which raised the idea that this was a prophecy or warning and that someone else may have had assassinate him. Furthermore, it cannot be considered a threat if the speaker has no control over the outcome in that scenario. The judges, however, disagreed and sentenced Hoffman to four years in prison for endangering the presidency (Solan & Tiersma, 2005).

Conversely, Shuy (1993) developed the concept of conversational contamination, which is a principal in determining whether someone committed a crime of language. For instance, it is crucial to consider who brought up the topic and how the other person reacted to it in a conversation where solicitation or conspiracy had taken place. For instance, approving the plan by offering additional details on how it should be carried out differs significantly from saying "uh-huh" or remaining quiet for instance.

In his article, Shuy (1993) utilised the case of a Japanese engineer, who was charged with agreeing to purchase confidential company information from an undercover FBI agent. When their discussion was analysed, it became clear that he always responded with "uh-huh," but he never went into detail about the strategy. In the end, Shuy (1993) came to the conclusion that the phrase "uh-huh" was not a marker to indicate that the addressee had understood or agreed with the new information that the FBI agent had just delivered.

Evidently, another scenario is a case where a man by the name Lawrence Gerenstein was charged with plotting to kill his wife and soliciting her death (Solan & Tiersma, 2005). Even if he didn't directly ask the other man to murder his wife, he nonetheless implicated himself by talking about the many weapons that may be used in the crime.

Despite the fact that common forensic identification techniques like fingerprinting and DNA analysis have accuracy rates close to 95%, according to Maite (2013), a variety of factors, including author identification, can have a big impact on the consistency of forensic linguistics. Despite the fact that the cases may be examined and that the majority of the linguistic evidence is sufficient to support an identification or omission hypothesis, the linguist is not always fortunate enough to come across a word or other piece of evidence that can help them reach a specific conclusion.

Hence, this could make many language studies suspect and, in turn, prevent them from being used as evidence in court. Moreover, (Maite, 2013) relying solely on audio recordings without considering body language or perhaps believing eyewitness versions of what was said, might results in evidence to be considered inaccurate or excluded in court, he concluded.

In addition, Cotterill, (2010) discussed that forensic linguists have access to enormous English corpora that are extremely helpful in a variety of case types. This can take the form of an analytical function where the linguist is requested to remark on textual elements like dialect, idiom, or even regional patterns that might help police officers identify and track down a prospective offender. Additionally, corpora may be used to show common meaning, such as the difference between a legal meaning and a layperson's fundamental understanding of a phrase commonly employed in civil disputes involving disputed text unambiguity.

These could include writings like patient information pamphlets enclosed in pharmaceutical packaging, instructions, and warnings. These messages can cause annoyance if not completely followed, and at worst they may even result in harm or even death (Cotterill, 2010). Furthermore, Cotterill (2010) noted that access to large corpora might be important when analysing texts of this kind, because it enables the linguist to assess their understanding of the usage of such terms in everyday speech. As a result, they can be understood by both parties without having to undertake a substantial survey, which is frequently time- and resource-intensive.

Jan Svartvik (1968), who looked into the case of Timothy Evans, the lodger of serial killer John Christie, regarded it as one of the earliest instances when the usage of corpora really predates the creation of massive computerised corpora and the area of corpus linguistics itself. Evans was wrongfully detained after his small daughter was killed, and he was hung in 1950 (Marston 2007). Evans, however, was later freed after Christie's own conviction and execution for the subsequent murder of Evans' wife.

Evidently, Svartvik (1968) proved through the use of a self-made mini-corpus that, certain segments of remarks allegedly made by Evans and utilised as a confession at his trial did not fit the grammatical elegance of the other sections of those statements. Thus, the verdict of the trial might have been different if this evidence had been submitted to court. Coulthard and his colleagues investigated Derek Bentley's reopened case thirty years later. Bentley, a young person with learning disabilities, was found guilty of killing a police officer during a botched heist, given a death sentence, and hanged. The primary piece of evidence against Bentley was a statement that was allegedly made after his arrest but was never shown to be so (Marston, 2007).

Conversely, Bentley argued that the statement was actually a complicated document, that included not only his own words, but also those of the police, who he said inserted accusatory passages to his statement (Cotterill, 2010). According to Bentley, one or more dishonest police officers wrote the material and probably the passages that implicated him in the crime, according to Goffman's (1981) analysis. However, Coulthard (2000) extensively detailed Bentley's assertion and explored the elements that seemed to corroborate it.

Additionally, several textual fragments were identified that seemed to support the following: it was unlikely that Bentley had written the statement's language, and crucially, the text's register was more revealing than a layperson's, more closely resembling policespeak (Fox, 1993). In addition, phraseological constructions that were more revealing of police language than that of a layperson were found, as well as oddly particular lexical items with references to a shelter arrangement on the roof and a brickwork entrance to the door that Bentley would hardly have produced given his low level of spoken competence.

Moreover, in the statement, the leading feature which triggered the attention was the simple word *then*. According to Coulthard (2000), in the Bentley case, the word *then* appears eleven times in a statement of 582 words. Interestingly, in usual narratives. It may not be noteworthy that this specific word is so common, putting into account that an individual unfolding events may use *then* to describe a sequence of events. The substantial factor was the syntactic environment of the word. In most of the occurrences, *then* happened in the middle of subject and verb, as illustrated in the following extracts extracted from the statement:

Then, I boarded a bus for Croydon. After that, Chris leaped over, and I followed. I then followed Chris as he ascended a drainpipe to the roof. I was then forced down the steps by the policeman Cotterill, 2010).

Even if, the weight of the evidence requires the expert witness linguist to offer evidence that is based on more than just instinct and familiarity of language use, even if linguists and laypeople alike are skilled at spotting these kinds of uncommon qualities. Fox (1993) developed two brief parallel, yet contrastive corpora as a result, using a method known as corpus assisted analysis of register (CAAR) (Coulthard & Johnson, 2007). The phrase that acknowledges the necessity of human interaction with the text, which often guides any corpus inquiry and highlights areas of concern to be pursued inside corpora. A witness statement from the Bentley case was included in one subcorpus, while a police officer statement was included in the other.

When compared to civilian witnesses, Bentley's usage of the temporal word, computed at one every fifty-three words, indicates that his statement was much more frequently used than that of the police. Coulthard (2000) employed the verbal sub-corpus of the COBUILD Bank of English to further evaluate his claim. The word was subsequently determined to appear generally 1 times in every 500 words, in both clause-initial and clause-medial uses, placing it more reasonably with witness accounts than *policespeak*. Perhaps, the thread *then I* was discovered to occur in the COBUILD spoken data ten times more frequently than *I then* did, occurring just once every 165,000 words as compared to 1 in 194 in Bentley's unverified claim. Coulthard's concluding remarks on:

The phrase *I then* does seem to be a common phrase in a police officer's (written) register. More often than not, it is the standard policeman's register structure of Subject + Verb followed by "then" (which appears 26 times in the statements of the... policemen and 7 times in Bentley's own account) (Coulthard, 2000).

Similarly, as discussed by Onoja and Oguiche (2021), experts in forensic discourse play a significant role in the creation of written reports and the delivery of oral evidence in court (Onoja & Oguiche, 2021). The application of language techniques to legal interrogations is merely one of the operational factors, that distinguish forensics as a science in this subject. Therefore, this field's applications include authorship, voice identification (using forensic phonetics), clarification of transmitted meaning in laws and legal literature, investigation of discourse in legal contexts, and the interpretation of anticipated meaning in oral as well as written texts in written statements like confessions (Onoja & Oguiche, 2021).

In their article, Onoja and Oguiche (2021) put forward Forensic discourse specialists are crucial to the production of written reports and the presentation of oral testimony in court (Onoja & Oguiche, 2021). One of the operational features that set forensics apart as a science in this field is the use of language techniques in legal interrogations. Authorship, voice identification (using forensic phonetics), elucidation of transmitted meaning in laws and legal literature, examination of conversation in legal situations, and the interpretation of anticipated meaning in oral as well as written texts are therefore some uses of this area. Below is a scenario:

Mr Ron: Your voice is so sullen and withdrawn. Anything the matter? Mr Jack: To start with, I am not okay. I am going to do something really terrible soon. Mr Ron: What do you mean? Wait a minute... how is Susie? (line cuts and hours later the media houses are agog with the news of the death of Susie (Onoja & Oguiche, 2021).

In the above scenario, experts in forensic discourse analysis will examine this exchange along with other pieces of information to unquestionably show that Mr. Jack murdered Susie. Experts will now have to textualise the dialogue, while taking into account the tone, tenor, mood, context, and even intentions. Due to its emphasis on outcomes and supporting evidence, forensic discourse is a highly fascinating field (Onoja & Oguche, 2021) explained.

Equally, in Soyinka (1964), he delivered genuine information for the investigation of forensic speech. The play's script, which could be viewed as a parody on religious rascality and falsehood, exposes Prophet Jeroboam's dishonest tendencies. Jeroboam claimed to be a prophet of God, but he actually used religion to trick his trusting and innocent followers. He was successful in convincing Chume during their conversation, for instance, that he speaks with God every time. This is likely done in order to keep Chume and his other followers loyal to him, as evidenced by his statement that the son of God had appeared to him once more this morning while dressed exactly as when he named you as his heir. He then called me his knight and put his scorching sword on my shoulder (Soyinka, 1964).

One among others, analysing the language is one method that forensic discourse attempts to uncover and capture wrongdoing in society (Onoja & Oguche, 2021). However, one may argue further that, in contrast to this experience, the language of Prophet Jeroboam, as it appears in Wole Soyinka's *The Trials of Brother Jero* (1964), is shrouded in deceit, hypocrisy, and vice. This presumption holds that Prophet Jeroboam deceives his gullible followers by using his rhetoric's superiority. One could understand how the prophet is subtly pursued by the example given from his conversation with the Member of Parliament, who primarily appeared to recognise Jeroboam's dishonest tendencies, as presumed from his reply to Jero, asking him to go and exercise his illegalities on a different person of greater trustworthiness.

Though, it is even more interesting to observe how Jero succeeds in misleading the same Member of Parliament after being accused by him, he was able to trick people thanks to his oratory skills (Onoja & Oguche, 2021). As a result, the Member of Parliament was mesmerised by Jero's seductive remarks, which employ religion to manipulate this gullible politician, as demonstrated therefore:

Brother, we had already met. I observed this nation descended into conflict. In the name of achieving peace via power, I witnessed the mustering of men. Great men of the land were waiting for your decision at a desk in a spacious chamber decorated in gold. Foreign emissaries relied on your word, and I noticed the words "Minister for War" on the door leading to your office. It is a powerful position. What about you, though? Are you really deserving? Must I ask the Lord to take

this shawl off your shoulders and place it on a more godly man after I have examined your soul, as the Lord has commanded me to do? (Soyinka,1964, p.40).

2.5.5 Courtroom discourse and questioning

Catoto (2017) alluded that, as a judicial institution, the court upholds its commitment to providing equitable justice for all members of the community. Judges, lawyers, and other participants in hearings and proceedings should therefore be prepared and have reflective knowledge and analyses of the material being presented. Also, Harupe (2019) indicated that, courtroom discourse is observed as a tool of power, of collective prominence in modern societies. In her study, she highlighted that, forensic linguistic analysis is used to add to an understanding of current societal authenticity in the courtroom (Harupe, 2019).

Based on Atkinson and Drew (1979) definition, a courtroom is a venue where lawful trials are conducted. as well as a place where crimes are judged. They further emphasised that, courtroom communication is a verbal exchange, which differs from talks in casual chat in numerous ways. Additionally, according to Farinde (2008), courtroom discourse is a branch of the legal community and is an institutional discourse where authority is universal. Furthermore, courtroom interaction has been studied from some diverse viewpoints, where it has been examined grammatically from the interrogation classification of inquiry types of yes or no questions.

Numerous linguistic perspectives have been examined while examining courtroom discourse. The question types that are most common in conversations in courtrooms have been used to analyse it grammatically. However, Berk-Seligson (1999) concentrated on the categorisation of question kinds, including truth questions, prosodic questions, and Yes/No questions. On the other hand, Gibbons (2003) conducted a study on the speech characteristics, such as hedges, unwillingness, uncertainty, and usage of time taken, that cause speakers to appear less strong.

He went on to say that, unreliable witnesses have some of these characteristics, particularly hedges and hesitations. They also take longer to recount their evidence, and are constantly given encouragement by the defense and prosecution. The discourse that takes place in a courtroom represents an asymmetrical institutional discourse in which the dominant participants, such as attorneys, are more likely to control the conversation, while the weaker participants, typically defendants and witnesses, are less persuasive and have little to no influence Gibbons (2003).

Additionally, language is used to argue cases in court as well as to communicate between law enforcement officials, witnesses and suspects in written laws and legal papers. Additionally, there have been innumerable studies on interactions between police officers and suspects before, during, and after the arrest, as well as on defenseless groups serving as witnesses or defendants and flawed legal systems clarification Grice (1989).

Notably, several researchers have analysed the jury instructions' complex language and how poor comprehension might have devastating repercussions. The majority of the panel members may have misunderstood the basic legal arguments that were essential to apply in the case at hand. According to Levi, a forensic linguist, who described a death penalty case that occurred in the USA, Saxtone (1998). Levi was asked to provide an expert testimony in this case.

In the same vein, it was noted that, 40 percent of the judges still believed that a defendant being charged with a crime after the trial was a good indication that they had committed the crime, even though 97 percent of them professed to comprehend the instructions provided to them before the trial (Saxtone, 1998).

Police officers in interviews or attorneys in courts are frequently in charge of the legal goals, and agendas in talk are aware of the constraints on the meaning of specific words or phrases, like "intend" or "admit". Whereas, lay members do not understand them in the same way and could be characterised as being at the mercy of these goals. These features of contact also contribute to the uneven connections between institutional members, who frequently hold the upper hand, and lay members, who frequently hold the less powerful position (Saxtone, 1998). Additionally, a prosecution witness, such as a police officer, will first be questioned by his own friendly counsel, Coulthard and Johnson (2007). The defense attorney may have second thoughts after being cross-examined by the prosecution attorney.

Similarly, a witness for the defense, such as the defendant, is initially questioned by the defense's sympathetic attorney, followed by a cross-examination by the prosecution, and finally a re-interview by the defense. As a result, the argumentative trial system used in the majority of the English-speaking world is composed of a conversation between two opposing parties. Heffer (2005) emphasised that, with the exception of lay witnesses and the defendant, all contributors' discourse is heavily constrained by rules and conventions that are a routine part of their jobs.

Heffer (2005) found that, throughout a single question-and-answer exchange between a defense attorney and a witness, at least four major speech participants, each with a different speaking role and participation

status, continue to communicate online. A right that the judge, but not the witness or the jury, shares with the examination counsel, is the right to ask a question. The judge listens and may interject at any time, whereas the witness is appreciative to speak (Heffer, 2005).

The jury is permitted to ask questions indirectly, by leaving written notes for the judge, but they must refrain from speaking during deliberations. However, when the clerk and recorder are taking notes and the public and the media are present, they do not have the right to talk or even whisper (Heffer, 2005).

Another method linguists might assist in cases, is by suggesting ways that the police should use less frightening language when interacting with people Shuy (1997). In this manner, the authorities may avoid invalidating confessions or testimony as a result of improper questioning. The linguist's job would be to set up specialised training for interviewers, detectives, lawyers, etc. In instances involving minors and persons with communication disorders, so they can assess and recognise the language qualities of a suspect and take appropriate action.

Empirically, based on the Nigerian legal system, it is rooted in the English and Wales legal systems. The only difference in Nigeria is that, the judge determines whether the accused is guilty or not, as well as the accused's punishment. However, in England and Wales, the cases are solely under the supervision of the supreme court judge, and the adjudicators determine whether the suspect is guilty or not (Atkinson & Drew, 1979).

Additionally, according to Farinde et al. (2015), attorneys effectively control the conversation in the courtroom by ending their use of declarative questions with a lowering tone. The combination of falling inflection with declarative interrogations, according to their argument, demonstrates the influence and control of attorneys over the witnesses. Lawyers can effectively convey their suggestions to the witnesses by employing declarative inquiries with a lowering modulation. Therefore, the use of dropping intonation on declarative questions implies that the lawyers in Nigerian courtroom language were using intimidation, control, persuasion, and expressiveness (Farinde et al, 2015).

Meanwhile, in the Nigerian courtroom proceedings, Farinde (2008) stressed the evidence the witness may be redirected if certain facts that are initially disclosed to the court during scrutiny in chief and later refuted during further cross-examination. After the prosecution has finished presenting its case, the defense may, if it chooses, call a witness of its own to offer a different interpretation of the evidence. However, the Nigerian courts are organised hierarchically according to the seriousness of the cases they have jurisdiction over.

Sanni (2016) mentioned that, as the subject of the cross-examination, they are in the spotlight of the public and whose reputation extends beyond the courtroom. This has the tendency to tarnish and enhance their public image. He emphasised further that, the only language specialists qualified to identify examples of face-threatening activities and provide solutions for their blending are forensic linguists. Age and social standing should not be a criteria for administering justice, because everyone has a right to be free from verbal abuse, including during cross-examination in court.

In his article, he presented the first case which was overwhelmed with illustrations of a danger to the eyewitness who belonged to the minority's position. (Sanni, 2016) secondly, was a case of a person of higher prestige who was as well a lawyer, and changes were made to the expression danger, which raised the issue of whether age, status, and profession are benchmarks for judicial cross-examination courtesy.

The writing beneath are examples that show some of the extracts taken from the Nigerian cross-examination process, as highlighted by (Hale, 1997):

CASE A Now, Mrs. X, pay attentively to my inquiry; now respond to the question I will ask you,"reads text 1. How do they toss it away if you say they threw the PCs out when they arrived Sanni (2016).

According to Hale (1997), the discourse marker "now" occurring at the original position of this sentence construction preambles divergence. Consuming this incompatible item in its original sentence structure suggests that, the cross-examination attorney use his or her rage to invalidate the witness' evidence. An instruction structure is the thing that is listening to my enquiry. It aims to elicit a response from the witness.

This discord discourse marker has now appeared twice in the authoritative sentence structure, "now answer the question I will ask you" (Sanni, 2016, p.7), advocate the protest of an unbalanced supremacy dealings among the two contributors. In other words, the lawyer is entirely aware of his advanced control. The questioning construction, how do they throw it out, slightly carries the dissimilarity and hidden aggression of the cross-examining lawyer to the evidence of the witness.

The second extract reads as follow:

Your employer and you are attempting to reap what you have not sown Sanni (2016).

The above extract according to him, is a noticeable and evident demonstration of opposition by the interrogating lawyer, who deliberately established his sentimental and disapproving evaluative nature concerning the witness and her boss. Therefore, he explicitly declared that the witness and her boss are

dishonest beings, who engage in dishonest behavior. Furthermore, Sanni (2016) pointed out that such expressions are insults to the witness's desirable and upbeat features. The witness might want to reply by offering to shield her exposed, in danger face in front of the audience.

In the third extract: *Conniving with the computer repairman are the witness, you, and the claimant (Sanni, 2016).*

Here, the lexeme 'connive' summarises the hypercritical posture of the cross-examining a lawyer is also known as disrespect to the witness's face, because he pronounced the witness and the applicant as speculators who covertly and deceitfully strategise contrary to someone to their own benefit.

In a different instance, Sanni (2016), the subsequent cross-examination proceeding is a clear distinction from the standard practice of court cross-examination, in which the cross-examining attorney displayed a minor predominance relative to the person who is being cross-examined. Additionally, the attorney uses polite expressions like "with all due respect, sir," a syntactic construction that acknowledges the witness's superior standing. Chief is a sociocultural deictic term used to honor and show respect to a man in a position of authority.

Additionally, by using these courteous formulations, it is implied that the attorney is conscientious and cognizant of any potential face-saving action with the witness. The witness, a lawyer by profession, altered the direction of the questioning. However, the witness's negative side is slightly enhanced by the cross-examination attorney. By stating the phrase structure, Sanni (2016) also subtly added in a face-saving gesture of his own positive face. We are not arguing, which is a tactic used to bring their differences together. However, the cross-examining attorney typically ends the case when the court does not intervene.

Empirically, for instance, in Nigerian courtroom cross-examination, the credibility of the testimony and evidence presented to a court of law is crucial to ensure that each party receives justice and not unbiased verdicts (Sanni, 2016). This clarifies why lawyers creatively take part in oral cross-examination of witness testimony, in order to give their clients a stronger voice in every court decision.

On the other hand, processes of cross-examination are intended at penetrating witnesses' claims gaps and assuring the decision of the presiding judge to favour the attorney. As the outcome of this, Sanni (2016) cross investigation is constantly threatening in the face, where lawyers persuasively prove their power since they know that they exert unrestricted power, whilst the witness has none unless when his lawyer intrudes.

Due to legal professionals verbally abuse witnesses by being rude, harsh, deploying ridicule, using mocking tones on the face provoking witnessing, and occasionally pointing blaming fingers to the witness. Hence, these behaviours from time to time have emotional effects on the witness, who sometimes feel endangered as well as intimidated. Many a times, an expressive explosion might happen, (Sanni, 2016) due to the adversarial nature of the Nigerian legal system, which entails a struggle between opposing parties, winning is the primary goal and the truth is secondary.

The aforementioned goes on to substantiate the location of face-intimidating cross-examination in Sanni (2016)'s explanation of the necessity of forensic linguists' engagement in this judicial process. A similar situation occurs when witnesses are required to provide polar responses to inquiries that could otherwise drag them through the mud. Glacial questions may be helpful, but they may also be destructive, because a cross-examination lawyer's goal is frequently to disprove every testimony of the witnesses, not to provide justifications for each time the questions call for opposing viewpoints.

However, Damaseb (2017) in his article mentioned that, in application proceedings, the parties' affidavits filed in the case with relation to their individual cases contain the proof. As a result, after the hearing, the judge, who will ultimately render the decision, sits with the affidavits and pays no attention to what the sincere and truthful witnesses said throughout their testimony and during cross-examination.

But, that is easier said than done, he narrated. Before one truly sits down to write a ruling, there is an imperative initial issue that is regularly ignored which is paying attention to the fact finding. The court's verdict is based on the facts it has found established in the case. It is, therefore, not helpful to involve in a discourse on judgment writing without deliberating on that crucial process which heads the actual writing of the making a decision Damaseb (2017).

2.6 Research gap

According to Creswell (2014), a research gap is one that hasn't been addressed by any of the previous studies. Although there have been a few forensic linguistics studies in Namibia, the most of them have concentrated on social media, threat messages, and theft and burglar. Literature and research on language used in witness statements in murder trials are scarce, particularly in the Namibian context.

This component has been overlooked, where attorneys and judges fail to completely engage by concentrating on the location and manner of words, the syntactical structure, as well as the discourse in witness statements, experts can make choices in murder cases based on evidence from witnesses that has been documented.

2.7 Theoretical framework

This study supports Olsson's (2008) assertion that, forensic linguistics is the marriage of linguistic expertise and the legal dialect. As a result, there is a connection between linguistic and legal concerns.

In the same vein, Olsson (2008) substantiated that forensic linguistics began from identifying the authors in the uncertain documents. Henceforward, to analyse the blow, linguists will be called in to analyse the person's handwriting, how the language was used, the choice of words, the syntactic analysis and so on. This will assist them to crack the anonymity of the documents particularly on identifying the authors, for instance when examining suicide notes. Additionally, it listed the words and sentences that police officers used, such as when they arrest the suspects. The Miranda Doctrine must therefore, be read in situations when it refers to words and phrases used in a courtroom. The accused is given a reading of his legal rights. In most situations involving documents and the like, forensic linguistics makes use of language's crucial function (Olsson, 2008).

Forensic linguistics is the study of language used in legal proceedings and as evidence, both verbally and in writing, according to Coulthard and Johnson (2010). Applications of forensic linguistics also include the interpretation of articulated meaning in laws and legal works, authorship identification, and voice recognition. They also include the interpretation of intended meaning in spoken and written statements, as well as discourse analysis in legal contexts.

A theory of forensic linguistics was used in the study. By using a theory that uses language in the framework of criminal and civil law to apply scientific knowledge, Sajedi, Sajedi, and Ariani (2014) defined forensic linguistic theory. They added, that a focus of forensic linguists is comprehending the written law's language, its complexity, its history, and how language is used in forensic operations.

Additionally, this lens focuses on examining the entire legal process, from the moment of arrest through charge, interview, and trial stages, as well as the sentencing phase through multiple fields, including linguistics, psychology, law, sociology, and anthropology, were launched early on by forensic linguistic research. It also covered work done in Europe, Australia, and America and covered topics like forensic phonetics, handwriting analysis, and the linguist's role as an expert witness in court (Coulthard & Johnson, 2007).

According to Coulthard and Johnson, the principles or practices used in the discipline of forensics to produce evidence vary in their degree of dependability (2010). The following procedures will be briefly described in this section:

It looks at whether a specific person is the real author or the one who actually spoke those words. This can be determined by analysing their idiolect or specific use patterns in language, which may include words, pronunciation, collocation, syntax, and spelling.

According to McMnamin's illustration (2002), this process looks into spoken or written materials or often both and uses scientific analysis to determine its content, meaning, speaker identification, and in order to spot plagiarism, authorship. Dialectical analysis deals with analysing any semiotic event, whether it be written, spoken, sign language-based, or any other, according to Coulthard (1992). It searches for underlying meaning in written or spoken words.

This hypothesis will apply to the study, because, as Gao (2010) noted in his work, language used in police interviews with witnesses and suspects is of interest to forensic linguists, as well as in the language of attorneys and witnesses in examination in chief, cross examination, and reexamination. The study employed it to examine the terminology used in witness statements. This hypothesis will apply to the study because, as Gao (2010) noted in his work, forensic linguists are interested in the language of police interviews with witnesses and suspects as well as in the language of attorneys and witnesses in examination in chief, cross examination, and reexamination. The study employed it to examine the terminology used in witness statements.

Additionally, McMnamin (2002) it is utilised to distinguish discourse analysis when examining the written language of witness testimonies, closely aligned with the theory's beliefs. This theory has been used, because the study's methodology involved examining witness statements that were supported by documentation. McMnamin (2002) noted that the relationship between linguistics and document analysis offers beneficial double coverage of grammatical, acronymic, and stylistic cues.

2.8 Chapter summary

In conclusion, the aforementioned part examined a literature review overview. It focused on concerns raised by other researchers in connection to the present research. Additionally, it included a quick explanation of the term forensic linguistics, and a brief history of the field. Additionally, under each subject, concerns regarding what forensic linguists look at in criminal and judicial cases have been brought up. The literature review under discussion directly addresses the study's goals.

It also looked at the research gap and how this study will fill the identified gap. In detail, the aforementioned section discussed the theoretical framework that is suitable for this study and its relevance, which is forensic linguistics and also gave an overview on the tenets of forensic linguistics. The chapter also discussed in detail how the gap will be filled by using the content analysis checklist and answer to the goals of the research. The next chapter is on the methodology, research design and approach employed for this study as well as the sampling and sample size and ethical issues with regard to this research.

Chapter Three

Research Methods and Procedures

3.1 Introduction

In relation to the current study, the previous chapter provided a thorough survey of forensic linguistics-based literature. The technique and research design that were used to gather the data for this study are described in this chapter.

3.2 Research Approach

This research used a qualitative approach using content analysis, intended to evaluate the content and the importance of the current study. Creswell (2009) stressed that, qualitative research intricate the comprehensive gathering plus an exhaustive exploration of the documents (Bowen, 2009). These are essential for the philosophical as well as the extensive data for the study, which required more words and could not be expressed in numbers like a quantitative approach (Hancock et al, 2009).

Correspondingly, Yin (2011), agreed that this approach use a diverse of sources As Ary et al., (2013) pointed out, information can be obtained from numerous sources, including written materials. The researcher needs to be knowledgeable about the subject under study. This ensures that the findings and analyses will be presented clearly and within the framework of the current investigation.

According to Schwandt (2007), the study used a qualitative research strategy, which is an advanced and developing research methodology. Another way to express it is as a general idea with roots in several academic disciplines, especially anthropology, sociology, and philosophy. Nowadays, it is used in almost every field of social research, including applied linguistics (Schwandt, 2007).

Additionally, Creswell (2014) claimed that qualitative research places a strong emphasis on giving participants the freedom to tell their stories, while also minimising the power imbalance between the researcher and the participant. In essence, qualitative research involves observation, case studies, and interviews, to name a few. The study employed a qualitative research methodology, because its goal is to decrease the power dynamics that often exist between a researcher and study participants, encourage people to relate their stories and cry out for help (Creswell, 2013). The goal of qualitative research is to understand the world through the perspectives of its participants and reveal the importance of their experiences.

Additionally, Heigham and Croker (2009) noted that qualitative research does not always aim to generalise findings to other contexts and instead focuses primarily on understanding the specific and the distinctive. Cohen (2011) emphasised the lack of qualitative data gathering and the need for analysis methods that are more organised and deductive in nature than content analysis.

3.3 Research design

The investigation used an explanatory research methodology (Creswell, 2014). Explanations for observed occurrences, issues, or behaviors are sought through research. It looks for solutions to why- and how-type queries. By pointing up unintentional contributing causes and effects of the targeted occurrences, it further strives to tie the study findings together.

The research design is considered as an explanatory when the goal of the study is to explain a novel world that has not been investigated before. The research focuses mostly on causes or the "why" behind certain phenomena (Creswell, 2014). Given that there have been no prior research on this subject in the context of Namibia, an explanatory design is appropriate for this study. Therefore, it provided additional guidance for subsequent study and generates new ideas and the formulation of tentative theories.

3.4 Research paradigm

According to Guba (1990), a research paradigm is a framework that helps researchers make sense of various factors in order to address an actual problem. Additionally, a collection of beliefs that serve as a basis for action to express the dedication to values, approaches, and perspectives within a particular discipline, such as perhaps forensic linguistics. One of the four elements of the research paradigm used in this study is interpretivism.

Rehman and Alharthi explain (2016), this study used the interpretivism paradigm, which means the approach analyses how society is dynamic and changing, and is aware that different people may view the same event in different ways, shaped by the individual's historical and social perspective Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011). This paradigm is useful in this study, as the researcher interpreted different witness statements using the content analysis check list. It gave the researcher a point of view and the theoretical framework selected, decided which methods to employ for the research endeavour.

3.5 Research setting

The study setting is Windhoek Central Police Station, which is located in Windhoek, Khomas region, Namibia. Windhoek Central Police Station is placed in Namibia's capital city's centre. The study concentrated on the murder cases that were successfully resolved between 2015 and 2018.

3.6 Study population, sampling, and sample size

The group under examination consisted of murder case dockets which were reported and finalised between the periods from 2015 and 2018 at Windhoek Central Police Station. During this period, there were two hundred and forty-two (242) murder cases reported in Khomas region (Crime Statistics 2019/20). A sample of 20 murder case dockets were selected from the case population using a purposive sampling technique.

From each docket, five (5) witness statements were selected which brought a total sample of 100 witness statements. The sample of 20 projected murder case dockets are appropriate, taking into account, the qualitative principle that entry into usable data is only required once, any further subsequent of similar data is irrelevant (Creswell, 2014). This principle is anchored under the saturation rule (Creswell, 2014). Themes, based on research objectives, were developed from the witness statements contained in the sample (murder case dockets).

The witness statements were salvaged from the already closed dockets at the Windhoek Central Police Station. It concentrated on several murder instances that were accessible at the time the data was collected. Adding on, due to the fact that there is no fixed length on witness statements, some of them contained too little information to get enough relevant information. The researcher chose lexical, syntactic, and discourse elements in witness statements.

3.7 Research instrument

3.7.1 Content analysis checklist

The research tool for the study was a checklist for content analysis. This is because the data were created using statements that were already documented. According to Maree (2010), content analysis is a rigorous technique to qualitative analysis that categorises and summarises the content message. He went on to explain content analysis, which is a phrase for a research method used to create interpretive and repeatable textual texts.

Neuman (2011) further emphasised, that content analysis is thought to have several flaws, specifically its failure to offer a singular understanding of a particular text. The researcher in the current study, however, deduced the witness statements. While content analysis has been criticised for offering only one interpretation of a single text, it also has the advantage of allowing researchers to see how people from various backgrounds interpret and receive messages (Mushonga, 2018). These are already-written documents based on the experiences of the witnesses and the crimes they saw.

A content analysis checklist has been suggested by eminent academics being among the strategies for gathering data in qualitative research. According to Leech and Short (2007), a checklist serves as the foundation for research analysis. The study's questions and aspects were based on its research aims, which addressed the objectives at the lexical, syntactical, and discourse levels. Therefore, the checklist was utilised to address the concerns that the researcher was interested in learning more about from the witness statements, as well as to close the gap and deal with the study's problem statement.

3.7.2 Data analysis

Data analysis as it is understood by Creswell (2014), entails examining and providing interpretations for the information acquired following data collected. The data were analysed using the content analysis checklist based on the themes that were discovered in the witness statements that were chosen to address the study's objectives.

The researcher adhered to the five processes of content analysis, which are to identify and gather data, choose coding categories, code the material, assess validity and reliability, and then analyse and report the findings. The researcher used the non-verbal methods to collect the data, as part of identifying and collecting the data, by looking at the words, sentences and the concepts in witness statements. For the data collection, the data ranged from the written witness statements. Due to the sensitivity of the topic and cases analysed, letters have been used instead of the names mentioned in the witness statements analysed, such as AAA, PPP, WW, HH, TTT, and so on.

The researcher then analysed and explained the themes from the checklist, that were categorised into lexical, syntactic, and discourse levels. The data are then analysed using verbalisation techniques to show how the chosen witness statements employ language. Alternatively, syntax is concerned with how sentences are put together, which is why this section concentrated on how phrases are used, sentence structure, and passivation. Normalisation can also be useful in forensic linguistic investigations based on previous literature. Additionally, the researcher looked into how well forensic linguistics worked as a lens for analysing witness accounts in the chosen murder cases.

3.8 Ethical considerations

Given the nature and sensitivity of the research, the researcher has gotten the authorisation from Namibia University of Science and Technology to go gather the data and ensure that everyone's identities are anonymised. Similarly, the researcher has got permission from the office of the Inspector General of the Namibian Police to Force to carry out the research at Windhoek Central Police Station. The data collected was only shared with the supervisors and no other unauthorised person had access to them (Daymon& Holloway, 2010).

Due to the sensitivity of the topic, identities of characters involved in each criminal case were concealed; their real names were changed and decoded to pseudonyms (Silverman, 2013). The researcher ensured that data were maintained in conformity with the institution's ethical standards (Polkinghorne, 2005). To make sure the identities of the participants, accused, and witnesses in the analysed cases are not disclosed, there were no copies made of the witness statements (Daymon& Holloway, 2010).

3.9 Chapter summary

The aforementioned chapter the researcher presented the research method, research approach and study design. It also explored on the research setting, study population, sampling and sample size. The study used a qualitative method in gathering and analysing data. It has as well provided details about the content analysis checklist as the research instrument that has been used to gather data. Finally, the chapter briefly deliberated on the ethical issues that the study severely practiced research morals for ethical considerations. The following chapter is on the major findings and discussion and presents them qualitatively.

Chapter four

Major Findings and Discussions

4.1 Introduction

This section confers the findings and discussions of the study, as generated from the one hundred (100) witness statements extracted from twenty (20) closed case dockets, following the objectives of the study and themes in the content analysis checklist. The data discussed in this chapter were generated from witness statements from different concluded murder cases using a qualitative research design, as adopted by Creswell (2013) following a forensic linguistics theory, which comprised of different form of murder, either with firearms, knives and other methods. These statements have no fixed length, some were about one and half, two, three, five or seven pages respectively for individual witnesses.

The word “suspect” is used to refer to a person who has been accused of committing a crime, but not yet formally charged and appeared in court, whilst the term accused refers to a person who is formally charged, appeared in court but not yet found guilty in the court of law. Normally, in Namibia, the suspects are often detained at the police holding cells at the stations or sometimes out on bail. Also, the accused are kept at the police holding cells because they are still trial waiting.

4.2 The lexical content analysis in witness statements

Harupe (2019) indicated that words have significant parts as well as ideologies that govern their structure and functions in sentences. First, users can combine distinct word pieces and already existing words to form new ones. The following data are presented as generated following the themes in the content analysis checklist to analyse lexical features, among the witness statements from each docket.

4.2.1 Words repeated in the witness statements

As far as lexical analysis is concerned, repetition of words may sometimes be useful, as they may carry a central idea especially in crime investigation (Ariani et al., 2014). Based on the data collected, the following words or phrases were repeated either twice, three times or more within each witness statement, or in different witness statements that have been analysed. By repeating certain words, it shows authenticity of the statements, as it shows that the witness has been at the crime scene. This is, because if someone was not in attendance at the crime scene, he or she is likely to make mistakes or not able to repeat the same word over and over again, lies can easily be detected in their statements. Through

the repetition of words such as *firearm*, *Hyundai*, *cellphones* and others presented below as extracted from the witness statements, has the authentic of the witness statements analysed, as witnesses emphasised which the investigators and other legal experts can rely on during their investigations.

Extracted from DOC 1, the below were repeated:

The word **Hyundai** is repeated four times in W1's statement, *the Hyundai stopped in the street, the fourth person took out the firearm and fired to the Hyundai, I recognised the Hyundai belongs to...I walked to my house while the Hyundai vehicle door was left there....* This is giving emphasis because, the deceased was shot whilst in the *Hyundai vehicle*, hence the repetition of the word. From W4 the word **cellphone** is repeated three times: *...told me that he was selling a cellphone and he showed me the cellphone..., I noticed that the cellphone a Nokia 1100 was looking old. The screen face cover of the cellphone was also old.* The aim of repeating the word *cellphone* in W4 is simply because, she was questioned with regards to the **cellphone**, which is believed to have been used by the accused persons and which may assist in tracing the accused whereabouts.

DOC 3, the following were repetition of words and phrases were extracted from the witness statements:

W12 the phrase **leave the house** is repeated three times, whilst the words **beaten**, **bleeding**, **kill** and **firearm**, **leave**, **threat**, **laying** are repeated in almost every paragraph, this is to show how abusive the husband to the deceased was before he finally decided to kill her (the wife) with a pistol. Some of the examples of these words are repeated as follow:

[S]he was beaten by her husband..., she was bleeding as a cause of assault, bleeding from the nose, he told the wife to tell me to leave the house or else he will kill her, If I do not leave the house, he was going to kill the victim (deceased) and me, otherwise he was coming to kill us, threatened her with the firearm, ...confiscated the suspect's firearm..., the firearm was handed back to him (suspect/accused), had left the firearm with him..., to bring the firearm with him....

With close reference to the above illustrations of repetitions given, it clearly shows that the accused has had the intention of killing or murdering his wife for a long time, as indicated by the witness who was staying with them at the time of all these physical and emotional abuse. The word *firearm* is countlessly repeated as it was the weapon used to commit the crime. Hence, prosecutors, judges, lawyers and investigators can clearly get a clearly picture that the accused had the intention of committing the murder.

In DOC 4, the following word has been repeated twice: **Disembark** as in *I disembark the vehicle.... We disembark to the crime scene*. By repeating this word, the witness clearly wishes to draw attention to the investigator of the action he took upon receiving the report. The use of the word **disembark** could show that the speaker was not at the crime scene when the incident happened, but went there after.

Data collected from DOC 5 present that the following words and phrases were repeated as seen in the extract: *at our residence* is repeated twice in W21, this can be to show the witness's geographical location at the time when the police officers came to question them. The word **bicycle** is also repeated six times in W4:

They were having a bicycle with them. I told him that I know a friend of mine who is looking for a bicycle.... On our arrival there we found my friend there. He was interested in buying the bicycle And he have a look at the bicycle.... I did not know how much they sold the bicycle. I did not know where the bicycle came from. In this case, the bicycle is one of the key aspects in the investigation process, as it belonged to the deceased. The suspect (at the time) and later accused, murdered the man and fled with his (deceased's) bicycle. Hence, the repetition of the word bicycle, as it will lead the investigation to where the accused is.

W32 in DOC 7, although this witness did not mention anything related to the case in question, the word **homestead** is seen repeated four times in his one and half page statement, with basically also just giving emphasis and highlight on where he was found when the police officers came to question him. *I am residing at our homestead in Okaku.... At about 15h00, I was at our homestead.... I found my cousin at the homestead.... I was told that he arrived at the homestead....* This indicates to the lawyer, judge or investigator who is going to study the case, which this person was at his homestead which might lead to one concluding that he has nothing to do with the case.

The following repeated phrases are extracted from W35, DOC 7: *We were also informed that the vehicle belongs to a tourist.... We were also informed that the male tourist was shot and killed and his body was dumped somewhere.... We informed the investigation team upon arrival.* The key word in these phrases is the word **informed**, which indicates that the witness was not there during the turmoil, but rather she also got secondary information from those people who were found at the scene.

The following were repeated in DOC 8: The word **cell** and **paraffin** have been repeated in W37 as in *I was in our cell an unknown suspect was brought in our cell. I heard the accused asking the caller if there is paraffin oil in the house. The accused told the caller to go and buy paraffin at the service station.* The word **cell** indicates where the witness was when he heard of this information from the accused, whilst the word

paraffin is also repeated as it was the tool that was used to get rid of the evidence that might implicate the accused. Also, the following has been repeated in W39 and W40 statements *I do not know the deceased's boyfriend*. The referred deceased's boyfriend in this case is the murderer, and it seems he was not really known by the deceased's family member.

Picked from DOC 9, the following are examples where the word **firearm** is repeated for ten times in W41:

*[L]LL gave SSS the **firearm** and he remained.... LLL and SSS went their way with the **firearm**.... TTT came at our house and asked me to go borrow a **firearm** from the guys as he wanted to go work with the **firearm**. We requested LLL to borrow us his **firearm**.... LLL escorted TTT and I to the road after he had already hand the **firearm** to TTT. After three days TTT gave me the same **firearm** to take it back to LLL. I did not find the chance to take the **firearm** back to LLL as I heard they were arrested.... I was later also arrested and the police recovered the **firearm** I was given to take it back.... I was therefore not in possession of the **firearm** in question on the day I was arrested and I was not involved in the offences committed as per this case.*

Based on the above extracts taken from W41 statement, the continuous use of the word **firearm** is simply due to the fact that the murder case in question was committed with the said firearm, thus the witness explained how the **firearm** ended up with him.

More similarly, W42 repeated the words gun and pillow case two times: *Then TTT placed such a **gun** in a cushion's **pillowcase**.... And he wrapped the **gun** into that **pillowcase***. The reason behind the repetition of this could be that, the same **gun** referred to as firearm in W41, is the central theme in the case as it is what the murderer used to kill the deceased, and the word **pillowcase** is because, it is where it was placed or yet hidden by the suspect.

W43, similarly to W42 the word **firearm** has been repeated seven times yet again. *I later received information that QQQ has been seen with a **firearm**.... The friend gave me the **firearm**.... The friend gave me the **firearm**. The friend KKK kept the **firearm** hidden in his place. WWW told me he was given the **firearm** by QQQ... QQQ gave him the **firearm** after he slept there.... So I took the **firearm** to D/Sgt BBB. Therefore, I lay the charge of possession of **firearm**.*

The following data collected show repetitions taken from DOC 13, W48. In this statement, the word observed and browses (bruises) are repeated as in the extract below, with observed repeated five times and bruises two times:

*I then **observed** a female body laying (lying) in the grass.... I **observed** that it was a deceased in a yellow miniskirt. I then **observed** two black sandals.... I **observed** a white panty in the grass; I have also **observed** that the deceased body had browses (**bruises**) in the face and neck.* By using the word **observed**, the witness is trying to make sense and describe in what condition the deceased was and what the witness has seen in the surroundings of where the lifeless body was laying. *Due to the fact that the deceased's body has browses (**bruises**), or blue skin in the face and neck this made me believe that her death has been caused by another person.* The word **bruise** is symbolic, which describe the state of the deceased's skin, which can help in preliminary investigation to be concluded that the deceased was physically assaulted. It also shows that the victim raped the deceased forcefully, and probably strangled her to death afterward.

Taken from Doc 17 and 18, the following were repeated: The word shot is repeated in DOC 17, W84 as in *I heard that someone was **shot** dead. I was not present when the deceased was **shot**.* This witness repeated the word shot as the deceased died due to that shot probably, thus the repetition of the word. The witness also indicated that, he was not present when the incident happened, however he only heard. From DOC 18: *We were at the bar when KKK took his **gun** and started to shoot and **shot** the deceased. The deceased was not part of the argument, but the KKK just **shot** him with the **gun**.* Also, the word **gun** is repeated as this is the weapon that was used to commit this unfortunate crime.

4.2.2 Words choice

The table below indicates the list of words choice (diction) from all the analysed witness statements. The data collected show that, the witnesses used different synonyms in their statements, which may result in wrong interpretation to people who are not familiar with such diction. The word diction is referred to the person's choice and how they use those words as well as expression in speaking or writing (Oxford dictionary).

Heydon (2019) hinted that the precise expression can be affected by the definitions of terminology used in witness testimony. The authenticity in the choice of words can be a challenge, as presented in the table below is in relation to the study's goals aligning with the data collected, as the authors used different synonyms that might confuse the legal experts. It will also indicate that the authors of the statements are exposed to different vocabulary.

Synonyms words used	Extracts from the statements	Possible synonym words that could have been used

Firearm/ pistol and fired	The fourth person took out the firearm and fired to the Hyundai.	Gun and Shot The witness could also have chosen only to use either firearm, or pistol.
Guys	Guys do you want die	Men/people
Face cover	The cellphone face cover was broken as well as the screen face of the cellphone.	Instead the witness could have just used the noun cellphone screen , because literary the cellphone does not have a face, this is personified.
Obtain	I obtain statements from the witnesses who were present at the scene	The verb take I take the statements from the witnesses who were present at the scene.
Disembark	I disembark the vehicle	Move
Firearm and rifle	He took the riffle. He told us he shot him with the firearm	Could have just stuck to one instead, as this might cause confusion to ordinary people who are not linguists. Could have used the word gun too, as this is the term that most of ordinary people are exposed to.
Traced	My boyfriend was then traced with the bicycle....	Found e.g. my boyfriend was found with the bicycle.
Check-up	I asked him whether he managed to take his car for road check-up .	Road worthy , cars do not go for road check-ups as they are not humans, but they go for road worthy testing, where they are tested if they are fit to operate on the road.
Murdered and killed	I did not know who murdered the lady, but after few days I saw a picture of a lady who is allegedly killed by the accused.	Could have stick to one word to avoid misunderstandings

<i>Shack, home, house and Pistol, firearm , gun</i>	Mentioned in different witness statements but multiple times within them	The use of these nouns can cause confusion in analysing cases. Although they share the same meanings, witnesses need to stick to using only one word in their statements, as interpreters may think they are not referring to one thing.
<i>Dead</i>	<i>We found one of our brother who confirmed the dead of our uncle.</i>	Death <i>We found one of our brother who confirmed the death of our uncle.</i>
<i>Access</i>	<i>I was informed by the medical staff that I could get access to the victim since they were trying to rescue him.</i>	The witness could have used the verb to see , as access has multiple meanings. <i>I was informed by the medical staff that I could get to see the victim since they were trying to rescue him</i>
<i>Summoned</i>	<i>We also summoned the ambulance to come</i>	The verb called <i>We also called the ambulance to come.</i>
<i>Call and phone</i>	<i>He asked me to call the police. Dr SS asked me to phone the police.</i>	The witness could have used one word to avoid confusion.

Table 1

Based on the data presented in the table above, Heydon (2019) stressed that; depending on the context in which it is used, a word may have a variety of meanings. However, sometimes it becomes difficult to get the meaning out of such words as the investigator; lawyer or the judge might not have that linguistic knowledge, and might end up misinterpreting the intended meaning. Thus, this can affect the cracking of the cases, and misleading, thus, the hand of someone with that knowledge is highly needed such as the forensic linguist, to interpret such synonym words.

4.2.3 Words formation

The below table shows the homophones and words that have been used in the analysed dockets, that might change the meaning of the whole context of the cases. Homophones are word that sound the same but spelt differently. In keeping up with the goal of the study, the authorship of the witness statements can be seen in the table below. Also, the data collected show how the authenticity of the statements might have obstructed by looking at the words presented below.

Words used	Extract from the statements	Right words
Accompany	<i>DD was in accompany of....</i>	Company
Floppy	<i>He was wearing a floppy</i>	Hat
Affort	<i>I could not affort N\$300</i>	Afford
Tailed	<i>TT tailed the deceased and fall to the ground</i>	Tripped
Where	<i>We where at Havana side with my colleagues....</i> <i>During July 2013, we where informed that the people where arrested in connection with the death of my uncle.</i>	Were
Sin	<i>There is only the people for first aid and sin of crime....</i>	Scene
Laying	<i>I could see that there was a female person laying on the back seat and she was laying on the left hand side.</i> <i>Leaving the victim laying on the floor.</i> <i>Indeed the deceased body which was laying there next to the wall....</i>	Lying
Fone	<i>He gave us the fone</i>	Phone
Felt	<i>I then let the deceased to seat next to the wall and then he felt down on his back.</i>	Verb Fell
Lift	<i>At about 15h00 I lift our homestead.</i>	Verb Left

<i>Ghetto</i>	<i>I stood behind the next ghetto....</i>	Shack Ghetto is a slang word which means a shack.
<i>Stoop</i>	<i>I observed a male person was lying on the stoop in a pool of blood.</i>	Concrete slab
<i>Does</i>	<i>The suspect narrated that he maybe shoot him does why he came at the station</i>	That is why
<i>Stoep</i>	<i>The vehicle was stopped on top of the stoep in front of the door...</i>	Pavement
<i>Bakkie</i>	<i>We drove to the Khomas Hochland where I noticed on our arrival there an over-turned double cab Toyota bakkie with GP registration number</i>	Canopy
<i>May, heard, reraxeces</i>	<i>I was together with may friends ZZZ, XXX and two of them they was new friend of me, but two of them I don't know the are name we was only reraxeces. I was heared that boys they shooting.</i>	My, Relax, heard

Table 2

Data collected indicate that, some of the words used in the statements do not even exist in the English language, which is the language that is used to make police declaration or statements, such as **affort**, **fone**, **stoep**, **reraxeces**, **heared** and the words laying instead of lying has been repeated many times in different witness statements, which shows that the authors are not familiar with the two words, hence they kept on committing the same error unconsciously.

The orthography of many words is a problem, as many authors fail to spell words correctly. Likewise, Tiersma (2010) alluded, there is a need to give to call in forensic linguist to explain or define uncommon or rather confusing terms such as the use of verb forms instead of their nominalisations as indicated in the above table. The terminologies used in witness statements can also change the whole meaning as presented in the table above. As Coulthard (2002) indicated in his article, by looking at the words used from the table, it's evident that the authors of the analysed witness statements belong to non-English speaking communities by looking at their way of writing, however, the uniqueness can be used forensically.

4.3 Syntactic content analysis in witness statements

According to Pinker (2014), the study of word and phrase order, which enables speakers or listeners to understand the meanings of spoken and written words, is known as syntax. It also covers how sentences are put together using word order. In other words, syntax relates to the creation of sentences, sentence structure, passivation, normalisation and so on. Following the content analysis checklist, the researcher analysed various sentences in the witness statements and the data collected are discussed and presented below.

4.3.1 The relevance of certain phrases towards the cases

There are sometimes phrases in witness statements that do not necessarily add any value or importance to the cases, and some add great significance to the cases in question. During the data collection, the researcher focused more on the phrases and sentences that do not carry any relevance to the cases. The use of irrelevant words or phrases in witness statements may impede comprehension towards the legal personnel which might lead to prosecutors, judges, lawyers and investigators to not fully understand why witnesses used them. This can also affect the authenticity of the statement as presented in the examples from the examples extracted from the statements. For instance, if a witness was not present at the scene, or has no knowledge on the case he/she is being interviewed, they would likely be untruthfulness in their statements.

A witness is someone who may attest to their knowledge during a trial or court proceedings and who is an eyewitness and has information of a criminal offense, such murder or theft, or robbery, to name a few. Hence, the relevant information from witnesses are as much important to be considered.

DOC 1 is of a case of a 26 years old male, who was shot dead through a windscreen. The following phrases were extracted from DOC 1 (W1):

W1 narrated *“about 19h00 but I did not check the watch I was walking. The suspect turned to the right direction where the Herero speaking persons of Soweto resides.”* These phrases show no vibrant significance to the case, as they have no link to the murder case in question. They pose no major event that may help in solving the case as he did not specify what happened next, whether the suspects went in those houses, the phrases rather only spoke of what the witness was doing that hindered him from checking on his watch. Also, the underlined phrase in the second example carries no significance as it did

not mention anything about people who committed the murder nor about what happened to the deceased.

Furthermore, more irrelevant phrases are seen in W3 (DOC 1), according to the statement that this witness gave, most of them carry no importance towards the case in question. Following is the extract from the witness statement:

“AA stays at the house where my girlfriend PP and her sister GG use to stay, but now my girlfriend stays with me.”

This witness gave more irrelevant phrases that have nothing to do with the murder case in question. All he gave was information about a cellphone that he bought, and how police officers questioned him about the cellphone he bought from DD and sold it to FF. Similarly, W4 of DOC 1 also just narrated about the cellphone, and not anything about the murder or those who committed it:

“TT told me that she was selling a cellphone and she showed me the cellphone. I noticed that the cellphone a Nokia 1100 was looking old. The face cover was broken as well as the screen face of the cellphone.”

Based on the examples given above, she only gave the entire description of the cellphone, but she did not mention how the cellphone is linked to the murder, hence most of the aspects in her witness statement are not adding any value to the case.

The researcher also picked up some phrases from W5 in the DOC 1 that do not add relevance to the murder case. The below extract has no useful information which relates to the case, but rather how the deceased and his friends were drinking and having a good time before the unfortunate incidence. The extract below illustrates some of the phrases taken from the W5's statement to back up this claim:

“We waited for some girls there at the bar according to SS. The other guys were having a bottle of tequila and asked me to get lemons from my lemon tree. I consented to their request and they took lemons from my tree. I did not drink alcohol there and I only bought chips and eat.”

Just like in DOC 1, there are also irrelevant phrases that the researcher found in the witness statements that were analysed in DOC 2. This is a case of a young male who was shot dead, after he tried to grab a cellphone from a man. The following phrases are abstract taken from W6 (DOC 2) which do not have useful information when it comes to the case:

“In the morning, I went to visit my sister RR staying at Grysblock. She could not give me the box of the phone because the house where she stays was burnt including the cellphone box”. This information shows no link to the murder crime that was committed.

Proceeding to W7, the following phrase shows no significance to the case, it does not have the place where the incident happened, or how the whole ordeal happened: *“I do not have my phone that moment because my phone was off. He told he went to buy a food”.*

From DOC 3, is a case of female who was murdered by her husband, and the husband first pretended that the wife shot herself. Nothing much has been observed from the first witness, in terms of relevance, this witness only gave information with regard to how the body was brought in the mortuary. W11 (DOC 3) gave relevant information in as far as this case is concerned, because she gave concrete information on how and what condition the body was upon arrival in the mortuary, and the examinations that were done on the body.

However, W13’s (DOC 3) statement, the following extract is taken which shows the irrelevance towards the case: *“I was having a headache I walked inside and asked the person who was at the reception as to how do they consult the patients”.* The witness could have just mentioned what he witnessed with regard to the case in question; he continued to say *“after, she informed me that they deal with private patients not people who are on the government medical aid”.* These phrases do not add value to the case, thus the witness supposed just to go straight to the point on what he witnessed at the hospital when the suspect (now accused) came with the dead body in his car as he later mentioned in his statement.

Moreover, from (DOC 3) W14 and W15 also articulated some irrelevant phrases in their statements, *“A man came in running with his hands on his heads. The man was taken to the toilet by the police”.* The first example could be relevant if there was an additional information that links it to the incident, perhaps to symbolise that **the hands on the head** could be the result of fear and shock but, the witness did not give more detail in this sentence. Also, in the second example, the witness did not indicate why the man was taken to the toilet by the police; the reason behind it is not mentioned.

Taken from DOC 4, is a case of a man who was murdered by three men. W16 and W18 narrated *“we ended up at a house in Soweto which belongs to a certain Mr ZZ.” In the meantime, while we were on our way, my friend gave the driver an N\$30.00”.* In these examples, the witnesses did not indicate how this information is linked to the case, such as whether the culprit or the deceased reside in this Mr ZZ’s house. Also, concrete evidence is not provided as to how the N\$30.00 is linked to the case in question, as it was

paid to the taxi driver (deceased) as taxi fare while on their way to the rugby stadium where they later murdered him.

Furthermore, W20 (DOC 4) did not give much information with regard to the case. *“We came back home, then he went out leaving me at home. At about 17h00 I received a text from an unknown number where by I did not know the owner”*. This witness failed to mention what the text message said, and how it can be of use in cracking this case, hence it is not relevant to the case.

From DOC 5, the following phrases were taken from the witness statements that were analysed, which illustrated their irrelevance towards the murder case of a man who was stabbed with a knife on the throat.

W21 gave no valuable information to help with the investigation in the murder. Instead, she narrated just how her boyfriend wanted to buy the bicycle and how he bought. *My boyfriend asked about the prices and BB said it is N\$ 300. My boyfriend then told him that he only have N\$ 200 and BB said it is ok. He said he send someone a bicycle but he short N\$ 100.*

The above phrases cannot be used or relied on in court by the prosecutors, judges, lawyers and investigators, forensically, one cannot generate anything that has to do with the case out of them. The witness portrays no knowledge in as far as the case in question is concerned, hence she is in no position to give relevant information to assist with the investigation, as she lacks understanding of how the bicycle is linked to murder.

Data collected from DOC 6, as well indicate that there are phrases and sentences used which have no relevance to the murder case of a male, who was shot with a pistol in the chest. In a statement of seven pages, W26 kept on repeating himself on aspects that have nothing much to do with the case. Some of the examples extracted from the statement are as follow:

[I] heard the report that Inspector TTT was reporting a shooting incident to the radio control. I heard that members of SCU were needed to Eureka service station and conduct investigation. I immediately phoned Inspector TTT who confirmed to me that there were people in her office who came to report that a person was shot.

The witness could have just gone straight to the point upon arrival at the scene of crime, since that is where the fundamental evidence pertaining to the investigations lies. Instead, he first narrated how he was called in the radio and informed about the shooting, in about three pages, he mentioned nothing connected to the incident yet. From the researcher’s angle of attack, this information is not necessary to

solving the case, but rather what happened prior to the departure of W26 to the scene of crime. Having a long witness statement with only little information relevant to the case might bore the judges and lawyers, whereby the time they get to the pages with relevant information, they will already be tired which might lead to unfairness of judgement in the trial.

Additionally, from W28, W29 and W40 statements (DOC 6), the following were picked up that carry no weight towards the case: *I found my colleagues who worked night shift. After about five minutes I came outside and saw the deceased and another man walking in the street. I was sitting at the reception.* The aforementioned are not relevant and somehow contradicting. A witness that said, ...**saw the deceased and another man walking in the street**, this is not having the whole information relevant to the case, as the witness did not indicate as to how the word *deceased* which is referring to the person who is dead can be walking, the verb **walking** is contradicting in the phrase.

It carries no relevance as he did not explain in detail as to what he was talking about, thus causing confusion and misinterpretation. Likewise, the last example illustrates no evidential information as to how her sitting at the reception adds value to the investigation or case if she did not mention the link between it to the murder case. This can simply be seen as void and might waste the judge's time.

Case from DOC 7, is of a male who was shot by three men. W32 in this case, has zero knowledge of what happened, as the incident happened in Windhoek central part of the country, whilst he stays in the northern part of the country, many kilometers away from where the incident happened, for example *at about 15:00 I left our **homestead** in **Okaku**.* Hence, the one-page statement that he gave has no information that is linked to the case.

Moreover, W35 (DOC 7) stated something that has no relationship with the case under discussion: *I was picked up by my colleagues at home. They told me that we have to go to work. I put on my uniform and drove with sergeant AAA.* This information is completely irrelevant and the witness failed to go straight to the point or to give more detailed information, without having to go around the circle on how she put on her uniform and how she was told to go to work, as this information will not be used in court, because it is not giving a hint to the investigation. From a forensic perspective, this does not add an importance to the case.

The below illustrations were extracted from the witness statements from DOC 8 (docket eight), which is a case of a lady who was murdered by her ex-boyfriend:

He further told me that he was driving back to Windhoek, W36 narrated. Further, W37 who was a suspect locked up in the same cells with the suspect in the murder case of DOC 8, as well showed in the beginning of his five and half page statement that he had no knowledge of what was going on, nor has he had any information pertaining to the case as he narrated: I was in our cell when an unknown suspect was brought in our cell. I was not having any knowledge as to why the referred suspect was arrested.

However, as the events unfold through his narration, we see some relevant phrases that will help solve the case.

[H]e (the accused) thereafter received a call from a number that I suspect to be the same number that he sends a text too. During their conversation with the caller that he told me that is his brother. I heard the accused asking the caller whether there is paraffin oil in the house. He later instructed the caller that he must take money and go to the service station to buy the paraffin. The accused thereafter told the referred brother (caller) that he must burn off all the items that he previously told him to place into the drum and he must make sure that nothing had remained.

The above extract can make one wonder why the accused wanted things to be burnt. This is useful, as investigators can get clues as to what the accused is trying to hide. This could be the evidence to the crime that he committed and he wants to get rid of it in order for him not to be implicated. He wants them burnt so that when the investigating team goes to his place, there is nothing suspicious, hence this is suspicious and relevant to the case and it will help with the investigation process.

Taken from DOC 9, W42 and W44, the following phrases add no importance to the murder case of a male, who was shot with a firearm in the head. *There is a young man known as EEE, who has a girlfriend known as DD.* The abovementioned phrase adds no value, the witness did not indicate how this certain girlfriend can be of help in the investigation of the case. *One male Oshiwambo speaking person found me there and told me that he had a cellphone he wants to sell.* This too only gave the cellphone's description of the Samsung E250 that he bought from a stranger, but nothing on how useful the cellphone is to the case in question.

From DOC 11 and DOC 12, the following phrases portray no relevance towards the cases. *He (the accused) hailed from homestead of late OOO (his father),* one witness from DOC 11 narrated. This proclamation has nothing to do with the case, as the witness indicated only that, the suspect hailed from his father's house in the northern part of the country, however the witness failed to inform how this information is relevant and how it can help the prosecutors, lawyers, judges and investigators.

In DOC 12, the following phrases were extracted from two different witness statements:

[I] did not go outside and I did not see the body, when I came in the house I did not deactivate the alarm of the house. I heard that he was sick and was taken to the hospital. When he came home I asked him what was wrong with him to be admitted in the hospital and he said he does not know.

Illustrated in the first instance, shows no knowledge whatsoever towards the case, throughout her statement of one and half page, she kept speaking of how the alarm of their house was deactivated and how she called those who are responsible to fix it. Although the man was shot behind their house, she has no knowledge as she did not go to the scene, nor has she seen the culprits, thus, her statement has nothing significant that can be used or give any hint in the case. The second example is from the wife of the deceased, the information above does not link to the case, as that was before the man got killed. It would be of relevance only if the man died while in the hospital, but in this case, this was after months before the man was murdered.

Subsequently, from a murder case of a male (DOC 16) who was shot dead in the head, the following phrases have no relevance to the case. *They were in the small white car. I told MM that but I had a court to attend at Outapi (northern region) and whether I will be finishing on time. I realised that I was not going to make it to attend the court at Outapi on the same day.* These are extracts taken from DOC 16, W80, who was with the people who committed the murder. However, upon arrival where the incident happened, he had to leave as he was not in agreement with what the friends wanted to do.

Data collected from DOC 20, the researcher managed to get the following phrases from the witness statements, that do not have any link concerning the case, hence they carry no importance towards the case. It is a murder case, of a male who was murdered with what is believed to be an unknown sharp objects according to the preliminary report.

[I] opened my shebeen as usual and I stay there until at evening. I received a phone call, and I was in the wall while people were searching for the deceased W96. In the morning when I came, I found the deceased already at the bar as he is the owner. I received a call from my husband telling me that LL passed away (a different person), I was shocked and very sad W97.

How the shebeen opened has no relevance in as much as the case is concerned, since the incident did not happen there, nor was the deceased there the moment it was opened. Also, W97 gave information of another death that is not the one of murder and of a total different person, which she heard before even the murder incident happened.

W98 (DOC 20) in his statement, spoke nothing about the incident, although he was at the shebeen on the day of the incident, he left before the deceased came, hence it seems he did not see the deceased, nor had he known any information regarding to the case. His whole statement adds no value to the case, e.g *that time when the taxi driver opened the pot, I also stood and buy meat and I asked my friend if he also wanted meat. Than we left to the shebeen.* Overall, there was no need for the police to get this witness's statement.

Also, there are phrases taken from W99 and W100 (DOC 20) which portray no importance towards the case, although he was with the deceased thirty minutes before his death. *We **then went** with YY whom I work with. We went to look for a charge (not with the deceased) as I wanted **to charge** my phone. At about 19h05 I went at Ms RRR's shebeen in order to get a recharge.* These will not assist in the investigation as there is nothing that shows the connection between the phrases and the criminal act in question, the authenticity in the words used show no relevance, hence prosecutors, magistrate, judges, lawyers and investigator will not rely on them in solving their case.

4.3.2 Sentences and phrases used that may lead to confusion and misinterpretations

Often, witnesses use phrases or words that can be misleading and might bring confusion, and might lead to the lawyers and judges to misinterpret them towards the cases in question. The confusing sentences can show the authorship of a certain sentence, as well as its authenticity in a way that legal experts might find it hard to comprehend the meaning in the statements. This section will present the phrases that might lead to misinterpretation as per data collected.

Data collected from DOC 1, W1, the following phrases may lead to confusion: *The Hyundai stopped in the street where it found or caught up with the running guys I mentioned in this statement.* This sentence can cause confusion, because it is not structured in a manner that one can make sense out of it. He further continues to narrate that: *I recognized that the Hyundai belongs to QQQ and the Bantam to EEE. They are friends to the deceased in this case.*

W2 (DOC 1) also mentioned something confusing as in *we were standing in the street waiting for III and RRR then we saw the guys running....* This is confusing as the witness did not mention who are the guys who were running, and what their connection in the murder case is. W4 (DOC1) narrated *light of complexion and I did not speak to him.* This can be assumed that the witness is referring to the skin complexion, however, he did not make it clear nor did he mention to whom he is referring to, hence this might lead to confusion in analysing the case in court.

Extracted from DOC2, W7 the following might be misinterpreted: *At a place where the body was lying and came back and told us that it was her boyfriend who was shot the man who was robbed him his cellphone.* A judge or lawyer can hardly make sense as to what this phrase really mean; the way the words are arranged is confusing. It does not state whose body, or the person who was narrating. This is further explained in discourse under language structure. W7 proceeded to say: ***When I heard the gunshot, I came out to investigate I realised it was my boyfriend.*** This might lead to misinterpretation, as it will leave the investigators wondering if she is also an investigator, and when her sentence is left hanging and fragment which does not mention as to what happened to her boyfriend.

Additionally, W9 (DOC 2) indicated:

[W]e were at Havana side with my colleagues with one member of shift A whereby we go and attend to the shooting. All what had happened there's only the people for first aid (ambulance) and scene of crime. We are four witness in that situation when he was telling us how it happen and all we are police officers.

The arrangement of words in the extract above does not make sense, there is no doer or who the action was acted upon, which may lead to misinterpretation of the above by the lawyers and judges. They might not get any sense, because the sentences do not follow the rule of sentence structure.

DOC 4, W17 re-counted:

[I] walked back as we drove into the small road to the open space next to the road a saw a body lying. At the stadium suspect one pointed the suspect which was standing at the side of small gate in the stadium, and he was tall wearing a white and green jacket on top as the one who committed murder. The investigator and those involved in dealing with the case will be confused, as to whether the witness was walking or driving, this is because of the phrase ***I walked back as we drove into the small road.*** *There was blood coming as he had a jacket on.... The blood was coming at the front of the chest and stomach.* Also, the words *blood coming* are confusing, the word *blood* is personified, since the witness used the word moving instead of flowing.

DOC 5, *My boyfriend was then traced with the bicycle and the police took him with the bicycle at their office with me.* Yet again, the word *traced with the bicycle* can cause confusion to a non-linguist person, and also the arrangement of words can result into confusion and misinterpretation.

DOC 6 W27 (before I intervene) in two and half page he narrated *I tried to separate them but before placing my hands in the fight I heard a gunshot. When I turned around I saw that JJJ (deceased) was bleeding the mouth and to the ladies phone for an ambulance and the police.* This witness could have made use of the verb intervene instead of using the phrase *before placing my hands in the fight* as this can be confusing to the investigator, lawyer and judge if they are not exposed to the literary devices, as the used phrase is metaphoric. DOC 7, *At about 15h00 I lift our homestead* W32. The word **lift** in this statement will result in misinterpretation, instead, the author could have used **left**. W33 (DOC 7) *I arrived at Omwandi area the suspect was pointed out to me.* He did not mention who pointed the suspect to him, in his 2 pages' witness statement. W35 (DOC 7), *we decided to follow some tracks and blood stains which was going into the mountains.*

DOC 9, W42, *Then MM requested me to give him a matrass to sleep on in my place. I let him in my place and I gave a matrass and bed lenins where he and his female friend slept. Before KKK got in bed I saw him taking a pistol firearm out of his waist which I could see had a brown handle or a butt.* The word matrass here is confusing, instead of spelling the word as mattress, the author wrote matrass, which could have been as a result of mother tongue interference.

In DOC 10, the following phrases might cause havoc and misinterpretation: *about 23h30 I was at my working and residence with LL, KK, JJ and FF.,* this is confusing as the witness did not articulate the phrase in a proper grammatical manner, whether her working place is also where she stays. She carried on to narrate that, *after shooting and taking our money, they opened the entrance door and left.* Under discourse, the same witness indicated that she was underneath the bed, hence this is confusing as to how she saw the culprits open the entrance door and leave, her choice of words might confuse the investigator, lawyer as well as the judge.

The data collected from DOC 12, W57 show the following phrase that may lead to confusion in as much as the case is concerned. *I the abovementioned hereby states that I the deceased AAA was my uncle.* The author might have omitted the coordinating conjunction between the personal pronoun *I* and the definite article **the**, which can result in confusion and misinterpretation of his statement.

The data from DOC 13 show the following phrases that might result into confusion, and misinterpretation extracted from different statements: *She told us that it was the girl from our house's body laying (lying) there. At first we were ignored and not allowed to come closer.* The phrase is confusing, the author did

not mention in what way they were ignored and why, as no one at the scene knew their relationship to the deceased.

Data collected from DOC 14, W69 show the following extract that is taken to show how it might cause confusion towards the case in question: *Previously guys from my neighbours namely GG and his friend UU did once placed their pistol inside a tyre which was on top of my house roof, and I had told them not to do it again and I had thrown such tyre in the riverbed.* The witness is not really making sense, as he is not going straight to the point but rather just going around the circles, which might take the investigators, lawyers, prosecutors and judges to take time before they can make sense out of what message the narrator is trying to convey.

Although there were five statements analysed, data collected from DOC 15 only show phrases from two witness statements where confusion and misinterpretation may occur: *As practice of many driving licence owners to keep the licence together with the car key holder. It is normal practice for him to call always his wife at the said time.* These phrases are confusing in a way they are structured, as they do not have useful ideas towards the case.

Extracted from DOC 16, W76, the below sentence is believed to cause confusion and misinterpretation: ***During between two May and June....*** The witness's phrase is confusing due to the fact that he used two prepositions following one another in the presented phrase. The word ***between*** can be a preposition or adverb that is often used in separating two points or in the period separating two points in time. Whilst the word ***during*** refers to a period of time or throughout a course duration for instance. This means, there is an awkward series of prepositional phrases in one sentence, which made the sentence rambling and asymmetrical. Hence, the need for the forensic linguist to come in and analyse thoroughly the written language in the witness statements in order to identify the words used with the probability of consequential into misinterpretation.

Overall, with regard to the data collected from all the witness statements, they show that, due to the sentence structure, the word choice and phrasing in the witness testimony may also be unclear to the interpreter and the witness. This could lead to misunderstandings and incorrect context interpretations. due to that.

4.3.3 Ambiguous phrases

Ambiguity according to Boyarskaya (2019) is when a word or phrase has more than one interpretation. Some words are polysemous which can result in ambiguity and this can be referred to as lexical ambiguity, whilst phrases and sentences can be referred to as syntactical ambiguities Boyarskaya (2019). Butt and Castle (2001) indicated that, ambiguity can rise in cases between two of substitutes from appropriating English words like pursuant to, fit or proper, will or testament and others. Ambiguous phrases impede the authenticity of the statements as legal experts might have different interpretations of the statements, which might lead to the questioning of the authorship of the statements analysed. Data collected from DOC 1, indicate the following ambiguous phrases that are extracted from the analysed witness statements:

Three fleeing persons had already passed by.... The person in the vehicle got out in order to chase after the suspects. The Ford Bantam came at the scene and the suspect turned to the right direction where the Herero speaking persons of Soweto resides. There were two cars, a Hyundai and Ford Bantam; this is a structural ambiguity as it did not make it clear from which car the people who chased after the suspects are from. Also, the second phrase is syntactical ambiguity, the adverb **right** is polysemous, and can make one to be confused in analysing the case.

Data collected from DOC 2 show: *I received a call from an officer of SCU and told me the cellphone I am using was **involved** in a murder case he is investigating.* The word involved is ambiguous, from the linguistic point of view, the verb involved is polysemous, and investigators and the judges would wonder how was the cellphone involved the murder case, the officer did not specify whether the phone was involved as evidence in a way, that maybe it belonged to the deceased or it was involved in a murder case as a means of communication between the suspects.

*In 15 minutes we heard a shooting at a nearest bar which was about 50m and **see people running outside....*** W9 (DOC 2). This phrase is vague and the scope of conceptual information is not sufficient, as it is not clear whether the people who were running outside came from the bar, or they were just running outside from elsewhere, and why they were running. The witness could have indicated the specific place the people were running from. This is when a forensic linguist can come and analyse the phrase thoroughly from all perspective, by looking at the words used.

W10 (DOC 2) who is a police officer, who was on duty when the suspect surrendered himself at the police station, narrated the story he was told by the suspect: *While he was recharging his cellphone one man came behind and grabbed his cellphone*. This is confusing and has more than just one meaning by paying close attention to the underlined phrase. It can be interpreted in two ways, such as the man who was recharging the cellphone grabbed the person's phone that came from behind, or the man who came from behind grabbed the phone of the one who was recharging. Thus, it is not clear as to who grabbed whose phone, which might give the investigators, lawyers and judges to interpret it differently and result in confusions towards solving the case.

Data collected from DOC 3, W12 indicate a structural ambiguity ***FF one day (later deceased) came inside the room with a child bleeding as a cause of assault***. By looking at the bolded phrase, one can make two interpretations from it, whether the deceased was the one who was bleeding, or perhaps the child. This can lead to confusion and change in the meaning of the content.

Extracts from DOC 4, *When we arrived at the car, he (the accused) was leaning against the car's door*. This does not reveal where the deceased was at this moment, whether he was outside or inside the car, no enough information provided. *The **guy who shot the man and my friend**, they carried him, put him in the boot of the car*. This sentence is ambiguous, especially paying close attention to the bold phrase. There is no information that is clearly leading to the case; the investigator will be forced to go back to this witness to get a clear statement to what really transpired, because it will not lead to a lawful arrest. This will also in the end prolong the investigation.

DOC5, W21, *few minutes later our neighbor Mr YY the owner of the house where CCC (suspect) went came at our home and asked my boyfriend a N\$100....* Who came to their house, is it the suspect or the owner of the house, this can lead to multiple interpretations that might lead to wrong judgement in the case. Extracted from DOC 6 W26, *a certain XXX hold the deceased by arms and walked to where I found him lying dead after he was shot....* It is not clear who was shot, hence people who have no knowledge of linguistic might interpreted the phrase wrongly.

Data extracted from DOC8, W37, *after the court, the accused came back to our cell again. He came with a newspaper from court....* This is also structural ambiguity, the sentences are designed in such a way that may lead to multiple interpretations, as to whether the accused was given the newspaper from court, or he bought it on his way from court or outside court.

4.3.4 Repetition of phrases in witness statements

By repeating certain phrases in witness statements, as presented from the data collected below, it gives more information that the witness was present and witnessed everything, hence there is authenticity in his/her statement, which gives significance to the case. The following extract is repeated twice in DOC 14, W66: *I obtained the warning statement from the suspect*. This indicates that the D/SGT took a warning statement from.... From DOC 15, the following have been repeated; *a male person lying in a pool of blood*. *A person was lying in a pool of blood was wearing W73...* these phrases describe the condition the deceased was when the witness arrived at the scene.

The data collected from DOC 10, W46 the following phrases are repeated twice: ***While underneath the bed, I could clearly hear.... While underneath the bed, I heard three gunshots being fired....*** This explains where the witness was at the time of the incident. Probably due to fear, the witness had to hide under the bed to save herself from the armed robbers.

From DOC 20, the word bleeding is repeated twice in W96's statement: *Constable XX told me that **the deceased is bleeding**. I quickly went to observe and I noticed the following, **the deceased was bleeding from the wounds***. This is explaining the condition the deceased's body was at the scene. This will give the investigators and lawyers to ascertain the reason for death or the type of object that was used in committing this crime.

4.3.5 Sentence construction and sentence structure

Based on the data gathered in accordance with the goals of the study, the extracts below show how they can also impact the authorship of witness statements. It also makes legal experts to question the authors of such statements, their level of understanding and knowledge of the language used in the statements. Extracted from DOC 1, the following were taken from the five witness statements that were analysed:

I walked to my house while the Hyundai vehicle door was left there with doors open and went into the direction of the suspects who shot at them W1. This sentence construction started well with a noun as its subject and has the verb walked, however, a non-linguist expert can hardly find the object in the sentence, as it is constructed with no consideration of grammatical choices and style. Hence, the idea around this sentence is not well integrated which might give the prosecutors, judges, lawyers and investigators a different meaning.

W3 (DOC 1) indicated *I was at a house **in our where** a young male person known to me by the name FFF...* The sentence is not constructed with syntactic fluency, hence it does not read grammatically correct, there is a word omitted between the determiner **our** and adverb **where**. It does not clearly help explain what he wants to convey, resulting in the misunderstanding of the content of the statement. The possible word that may have omitted could be *area* or *location*.

Further, W4 (DOC 1) narrated *DDD was in accompany of another young male person*. The verb **accompany** changes the meaning of the sentence, which could create a different perspective to the investigators, lawyers, prosecutor and judges. The correct verb the witness could have used is **company**, thus the sentence could read *DDD was in **company** of* W5 (DOC 1), the witness mentioned the names of people who were there. For instance, *at 19h00 LL, came at my residential address in accompany of TT, UUU. They were in a white Ford Bantam bakkie. There was also SS in the bakkie*. Similarly, to W4, the way W5 constructed the sentences here changes the meaning and understanding of it due to the verb **accompany** instead, they could have added the suffix **ed** (**accompanied**) to the word in order for it to represent the intended meaning of the content.

In DOC 2, the following were extracted from four statements that indicated errors in sentence construction and sentence structures:

*W8, we **have drinking** beers while my boyfriend was at home*. The verb in this sentence does not agree with the subject, by looking at the auxiliary verb **have** and the verb **drinking**, its structure is confusing and difficult to extract sense out of it. The author could have used the helping verb **were** replacing **have** so it can read as (we **were** drinking beers...), the verb '*were*' representing the second person plural in past tense, since the witness is highlighting something that they did in the past.

*He shot someone who **was** apparently **robbed** him a phone. I asked GG to assist us with her phone but she was not have a credit **at** her phone*. The sentence construction of these sentences shows that she was frightened, because they are not constructed well. The verb **was** (simple past tense) does not fit to be in the sentence, as it changes the meaning and made the sentence to read grammatically wrong as there is already a verb in past tense **robbed**.

In the second sentence, however, the subject is not agreeing with the verb, because of the verbs **was not have** the witness could have put **was not having credit on her phone**, the prepositional phrase **at her phone** also contributes to the sentence structure to be grammatically wrong. Additionally, the sentences given the context, the answers given above are exceedingly confusing; due to the form and content of the

answers, only linguists can understand them. In order to ascertain what the truth is, critical analysis and thought must be applied. witness opinion.

W9 (DOC 2) narrated *when we **go** there we found one gentleman laying down*. The use of a verb '**go**' shows that he used present tense instead of past tense. Simple present tense is used when referring to an action or an event that is happening at the exact time that you are speaking or to describe a common truth or habitual action (Caplan, 2012). In this case, the witness is reporting on the events that happened, hence the sentence construction is wrong. Also, its structure is wrong which led to the sentence to be run on, because it is not complete. Prosecutors and judges would want more information in as much as this sentence is concerned.

Extracted from DOC 3, W12:

[A]fter the baby became two months old I observed that the accused after he left the house in the accompany of his wife when they come back I only heard them fighting inside their room and I saw at some stage the deceased came inside the room where I use to sleep with a child bleeding as a cause of assault possibly with hands.

There are no coordinating conjunctions to connect the related words or phrases together; the paragraph is complex and difficult to understand by the prosecutors and judges. Lack of coherence, connection, and significance could lead to hindrances in figuring out what the witness honestly meant. Moreover, lack of conjunction and how words are put together in this statement led to it to be a run on sentence, which affect the way it is constructed. Literally, investigators, lawyers, prosecutors and judges might find it hard to make sense out of it.

Another extract is: *While we were still residing at (place withheld) I came to hear that the suspect allegedly call the deceased while we were lying in one room which is **placed** on loudspeaker that I must leave the house otherwise if I do not leave the house he was going to kill the deceased and me (the witness who was the nanny then)*. The verb **placed** in the sentence is somehow leading to misunderstand of what the witness wish to convey as the word is polysemous, hence, only the forensic linguistic experts will be able to critically analyse it to get the meaning.

W13 (DOC3) narrated: *the doctor **did then opened** the left hand side door and **did looked** into the lady's eyes and said that the lady was dead and that was the time I was trying to ask the man as to how his wife **did shot** herself*. The word order used, could be perplexing for the interpreter, the prosecutors, because of the sentence structure. This could result to the confusion and misinterpretation of context. The

syntactic environment of the past participle **did** and the simple tense **opened**, shows that the author lacks basic rules of sentence construction and sentence structure, hence the assistance of a forensic linguist will be required in this regard.

*The **man himself** was taken **into** the **inside** of the clinic. A man came running **into inside** the building.* Repetition of 'man' and 'himself' consecutive which are noun and personal pronoun is not grammatically correct. Also, the prepositions '**into**' and '**inside**' used mean the same thing. The prefix **in** on both the root words represent the same syntactic function in this regard, hence the sentence is not constructed properly, and this may lead to confusion to the investigators, lawyers, prosecutors and judges. In cases such as this, Linguists' intervention is highly needed.

Extracted from DOC 4: **on** *another day I escorted him....* The preposition **on**, and the word **another** made the phrase to read ungrammatical, as in this case, one cannot start a sentence with the bolded preposition, but rather only with *another* whose syntactic function in this phrase is a determiner. This portrays yet again the lack of knowledge on the different types of words and their categories, making it difficult for the prosecutors and judges to get the meaning.

*On Sunday, me and **my friend of mine**....* The construction of this sentence is grammatically wrong, the author used the possessive pronouns **my**, **mine** and preposition, **of mine** at the same time, whilst they serve the same syntactic function. The pronoun 'me' is already showing that the syntactic function of the noun **friend** to the writer hence, the preposition **of** and possessive pronoun **mine** are not necessary. Another witness indicated *the body of the driver fell out, but not completely because his legs was still in the car.* The structure of this sentence lacks subject verb agreement, the witness referred to plural **legs** by adding suffix **s** but the verb '**was**' is still representing third person singular in past tense.

I saw WW with another guy walking toward our neighbour house. There is no apostrophe to show the possession on the noun neighbour, there is an omission of suffix '**s**' to show that the house belongs to him. *Few minute later neighbour Mr. QQ the owner of the house where SS went came at our home and asked my boyfriend a N\$100,* more similar to the first sentence, there is still an omission of suffix **s** to the noun minute to show plurality, which might cause confusion to whether the witness meant as the sentence starts with a determiner few which is referring to a small number of minutes supposedly.

Extracted from DOC 5, *The description of the bicycle **I want first to mentioned** that the name of the deceased **AAA was wrote** on the bicycle all the indicate on the wheel. W5 **during the same night later** two other friends of SS arrived at the house.* The noun phrase in bold in the first sentence indicates grammatical

error, paying close attention to the verb **mentioned** in past tense. The phrases that use the inflectional morpheme "ed," which is meant to be in present tense to express activity. Again, in the same sentence, there is violation of rule of concord. If a forensic linguist steps in, he/she would be able to assist the investigators, lawyers and prosecutors to identify what the witness is trying to say. He could have written ...**AAA is written** instead on **was wrote**, as the helping verb is in simple past tense, whilst '**wrote**' is in past participle. The bold phrase in the second sentence is contradicting, the way the words are arranged are causing confusion to the prosecutors and judges.

Extracted from DOC 6: **much** blood was where the head was facing **in** the floor of the balcony (preposition in, word much). Although the witness is referring to the amount of blood the deceased lost, the pronoun 'much' is not on its right syntactic environment and it is not applicable, hence the witness supposed to use **a lot** instead for the sentence to read grammatically correct. *A certain EE further that himself and a certain OO **holded** the deceased by arm.* The infinitive verb hold does not add an inflection morpheme **ed** in past tense but change to **held**, hence non-linguists such as those in the justice system might not understand what the witness meant and may misinterpret the meaning of the content which might affect the judgement in the case. **I did not 'noticed'** when the officer went outside the office. Subject verb agreement is still lacking in this sentence, just like in the already analysed sentences. The inflectional morpheme **ed** is supposed not to be added as the witness also used **did**.

DOC 7, W31 **PP and I with other police** officers were summoned to attend a murder. We noticed blood **over** the body especially the head. Grammatically, this sentence is not correct due to how the words are arranged. The witness could have just used the collective pronoun 'we', instead of what is in bold in the first sentence. Also, the preposition **over** can cause misunderstanding and might cause the investigators and prosecutors to get the wrong interpretation.

W40, (DOC8), We drove **to the** Khomas Hochland where I noticed on our arrival there **an** over-turned double cab Toyota bakkie (canopy) with GP registration number. The sentence is not structured in a manner that is grammatically correct, this is because the article '**the**' is not supposed to be there, although the word is correct, the syntactic environment where it is placed is not correct. *DOC 10 W48, upon to my attending to the crime scene....* In this extract, the whole prepositional phrase is incorrectly used which affect the sentence structure, resulting in misunderstanding and confusion of what the witness meant to convey.

DOC11 W53, *I was together with **may** friends ZZZ, XXX and two of them **they was** new friend of me, but two of them I don't **know the are** name we was only **reraxeces**. I was heared that boys they shooting.* The whole sentence is structured without considering the basic rule of a sentence structure. In the same vein, both sentences are grammatically wrong, with subject verb agreement errors, wrong words used, and words arrangement is extremely confusing. In analysing this statement of this witness, starting from the investigators, lawyers, prosecutors and judges would definitely not get the meaning out of it, hence an expert in linguistic might help.

DOC 13, *On the radio D/Insp JJJ reported that deceased appeared and was suspected to have been raped by her killer.* Another omission of the article 'the' between the noun **deceased** and the verb **appeared**, which can be difficult to figure out, especially to non-linguists to figure it out in order for the construction of it to make sense. Often omission of words and letters can influence the understanding of the case, sometimes leading to misunderstanding of the whole context and the witness's intended meaning.

Extracted from DOC 14 the following are from different witness statements:

*[I] was together with other members when the alleged suspect was arrest at her shack in Havana location. While I was at my home when I woke up, I saw that someone **did** place a firearm inside the tyre which is on top of my shack house. I did not informed my uncle that RR partook in killing of the deceased.*

In the first example, there is an omission of the inflection morpheme **ed** to the verb **arrest**, whilst in the second example, the auxiliary verb in past tense **did** could have been removed and just add an inflectional morpheme to the word **placed**. However, the last example shows an inflection morpheme **ed** added to the verb *inform* which is supposed not to, causing confusion and misinterpretation of the sentence.

Taken from the following dockets, DOC 15, DOC 16, DOC 17, 18, 19 and 20 respectively, the following were taken on the sentence structure and sentence construction:

*[A]fter the normal working hours, I left **for** home. **During between** May 2009 and June I heard that he was sick... When we were called by Inspector QQ to go and attend at Goreagab location side whereby apparently a shooting... This gun shots **where** fired in the riverbed behind our house. I was at my shebeen with my customers and I was the one who was attend to them. At that time I mentioned above the deceased arrived also to my shebeen. **On that** time we went to that shebeen. We found the deceased there drinking tombo, I drink also. I went back again at the shebeen but I did not found many people there.*

From the first example, the verb phrase does not make sense grammatically due to the preposition in bold. The second example shows confusion, because of the bold adverb and preposition, the author did not follow the basic rules of sentence structure, and the sentence might be misinterpreted. Yet again, we see an omission between the adjective apparently and an article 'a' which would be **there**. The third example, the word 'where' is used instead of the verb 'were' to represent plurality of the shots fired. The fourth example, the witness's sentence is not constructed well, hence it is confusing, and can be misunderstood, there is a need to add the **ing** form to the verb **attend**. There is also misusing of preposition, and wrong tenses used in the other examples, which contribute to poor sentence structure and sentence construction.

Overall, from the examples given, it seems witnesses ignore English grammar conventions and sentence structure in favor of concentrating on the message's delivery. Due to the radically distinct meanings of root words and words with appended suffixes, the words may be difficult to understand.

4.3.6 Types of sentences found in witness statements

In basic sentence structure, there are four categories, specifically: a short sentence with one major clause that is an independent clause. At least two independent clauses make up a compound sentence. An independent clause and one dependent clause make up a complex sentence. In contrast, a compound-complex sentence consists of at least two independent clauses and one dependent clause, it is simply the combination of compound and complex sentences.

Extracted from DOC 1 up to DOC 20, the following examples are taken from the witness statements that were analysed:

Simple sentences:

If a witness sticks only to simple sentences, it shows that the author may not have enough information or the author lacks knowledge on the English language used in the witness statements.

The vehicle which I saw was a Hyundai with tinted windows. This is a simple sentence, because it is a complete thought with a subject **The vehicle** and a verb **saw** and an object **a Hyundai** and a prepositional phrase **with tinted windows**. *This happen while the suspect was visiting the northern regions where he had a business. We went to see where the noise was coming from. A driver seat was covered with blood.*

[T]he deceased (before he died) told that he was looking for his money. We were also informed that the vehicle belongs to a tourist. We informed the investigation team upon arrival. He then sent a text message to a cellphone number which he had immediately deleted. I told him that the car was in the garage. This information was then conveyed to the police for further investigation. I was informed that the deceased was on duty.

Since simple sentences are only made up with one complete clause, and provided that court sessions are long and tiring (Harupe, 2019), simple sentences are easy to be analysed in court as they are short, and only made up of one idea.

Compound sentences:

Since compound sentences consist of two parts each having a complete ideas, based on the data collected, it shows that the author has the information but he/she does not give reasons as to how the murder happened, and what transpired which along the line might affect the statements' authenticity.

*Ford Bantam came at the scene **and** the suspect turned to the right direction where the Herero speaking persons of Soweto resides.* This witness made use of a compound sentence, by joining the independent ideas with a coordinating conjunction *and*.

[I] picked it up and I put it on the desktop. My boyfriend asked about the price and BB said its N\$300. LL also took part in this conversation and I could hear that they were together during the incident. This man did not greet us and he proceeded to the office of the company owner. He further told me that he was together with the deceased on date she was murdered but he later dropped her somewhere off which he (A) did not indicate to me as to where he dropped her.

[I] just heard FF screaming running into the room and all of a sudden I saw a male person coming from behind the counter with a pistol in his hand being pointed to all of us. At the bank we were assisted after we informed them what happened and we were given a bank statement stating that the deceased was having two policies. The person at the bank then referred us to those companies to confirm from them and as we were not having enough time we fax the statement to the other family members in Rundu. I then left the firearm there where they left it and I went in the location. KK told me they are coming from Windhoek and they came asking for direction.

As indicated that compound sentences give two complete ideas, this is vital to the witness statements, because it will make it easier for the magistrates and prosecutors together with the judges to grasp sense out of the compound sentences.

Complex sentences:

Complex sentence gives a complete idea with a depended clause that may be giving reasons to how the murder case happened or just additional information. This can assist the legal experts in anlysing their cases thoroughly, as it shows the depth of one's knowledge in the cases they are being interviewed on, which contributes to determine the author of the statement.

[I] walked to my house while the Hyundai vehicle door was left there with doors open and went into the direction of the suspects who shot at them W1. He went to buy his Russian and airtime at Goreagab Dam. He then fell on the floor and remained quiet. DD, UU, and I stay with YY and went and committed the robbery. I was arrested by Sergeant and Constable and they recovered the firearm which I was given by QQ to take it to UU. The same person told me that he wanted to go to Oshakati and that he wants to sell his cellphone.

[T]here were three persons at the scene of crime who were identified to me as the victims of the crime and were also witnesses in this matter. The two persons who were both armed with pistols cocked their firearms and pointed at the victims. He turns his heard away to us and start running away. I received a report that the suspect who shot the victim left the cellphone and sandal shoes at the scene. I told QQ that I had the court to attend at Outapi in Omusati region and whether I will be finishing on time. The clothes of the deceased were full of blood and destroyed already.

The use of complex sentences in witness statements is significant as they give reasons of why something happened, might be a good emphasis to the case and give lawyers, prosecutors and judges a sense of better understanding.

Compound-complex sentences:

This shows the author has enough information and reasons to support his/her testimony. This helps the investigators, lawyers, magistrates, prosecutors and judges to trust the authenticity in such statements.

[I] went and came at Katutura state hospital and we asked the people there to bring the stretcher to YYY so that he could be taken inside for treatment. When I turned around I saw that GG (deceased) was bleeding from the mouth I shouted to the ladies phone for an ambulance and the

police. The police officer then came in later and I took him in the director's office and I came to continue with my typing.

[I] was approached by D/C/Insp FFF and he instructed me to provide him the manpower to go and arrest the suspect who killed the foreigner in Windhoek because that suspect is in the area of Ondangwa. We were also informed that the male tourist was shot and killed and his body was dumped somewhere. On the 3rd of January the family members arrived in Windhoek whereby we come together and made some arrangements and we approached the late's employers. With that explanation the suspect was still there so I decided and I arrested the suspect.

Aside from the fact that the sentences above are compound-complex sentences, their syntactic structure is utterly erroneous, with the wrong word order, an inaccurate prepositional phrase, and no conjunctions to connect the sentences.

4.3.7 Tenses, the use of persons and phrases used in witness statements

Overall, witness statements are not restricted to a single tense, as witnesses have different knowledge in the English language that many witnesses are not fully exposed to. Although according to the researcher, witness statements are supposed to be written basically in past tense, since witnesses are retelling events that had previously occurred; this is not the case with the studied witness statements, as some used both simple present tense as well as past tense.

Similarly, they are not constrained to one individual persons. However, from the analysed witness statements, many are written from the first person perspective, although there are some instances where witnesses used third person. The following examples are extracts on tenses, use of persons and phrases from different investigated witness statements:

***I was walking** nearby Soweto market on my way from Vambo location to my residential address. She then **told** us her husband **was looking** for a bicycle.... **I went walking** through the office. This example shows the noun phrase (bold), where they used first person 'I' and they use past continuous tense by using the verbs **was going, was looking, I went walking**. A noun appears in a noun phrase, as well a verb phrase, a verb phrase contains a verb in it, whilst prepositional phrase also consists of a preposition in it. **I could see**.... **I was asked by the doctor to call the police.** **I heard the car stopped** in front of the entrance door. **I have heard the gun shot. I made a u turn without seeing. After everything was done at the scene. We found.... We decided.... We arrived....** The bold phrases show the noun phrases and verb phrases, while*

the underlined phrases show the prepositional phrases, the use of persons and the tenses used respectively.

Another tense used is simple past tense as in *I walked to my house.... I was at a house in our location*. Yet again, we see how the witness used the first person singular.

[I] went again and came at Katutura state hospital casualty.... I did not drink alcohol that day. I was told the previous day that there was a shooting. I came and stood at the road.... I was on duty.... While I was on duty at the station.... I was the only one who can drive the car. I also told him that the knife he wanted to stab my friend with.... I also found one projectile.... I interviewed the secretary.... I was on duty at work, we were supposed to have a meeting.... As far as I am concern the arguments between director WW (the accused) and the deceased started since yesterday. I observed that the deceased was bleeding and blood was falling on the floor.

Mostly, in all the examples given, witnesses usually use the first person, simple past tense; have noun phrase, verb phrase as well as prepositional phrase. They use these probably, because when a person gives his or her testimony, they do it individually, thus the use of first person, and often in past tense, because they are narrating on what happened, but not what is happening at the moment they give their statements.

The use of simple and past tense is also seen, which might be confusing and lead to misinterpretation to the investigators, lawyers, prosecutors and the judges in grasping the intended meaning. The illustration shows how the witness used both simple present and simple past tense:

When we go there we approach the community members then we ask.... I asked if anyone heard the sound of a firearm and there is no body give us information about that. I then stood at the entrance, they come out with the bicycle....

However, there are instances where the third person, and simple present tense were used. For instance, *we left the house.... We split up.... We instructed the suspect, this witness also used a third person singular he took off his jersey and he was trying to run away. We stopped as we were directed by D/C/Insp*. The witness used collective pronoun **we**, to show that while they were at the scene of crime, he was with his colleagues. Collective nouns and pronouns are used to denote a group of people (oxford dictionary). He also used the third person singular *he*, to show that he is referring to someone perhaps the suspect. All these can only be analysed thoroughly by the linguist expert, thus there is a need for the forensic linguist to be involved in investigations to give a better understanding of the syntactical features used.

4.4 Discourse content analysis

Discourse often discovers a comprehensive definition, to take account of the collective language and language-based behaviors are ways that societies, within a certain culture or setting, make sense of the world (Onoja & Oguche, 2021). According to Onoja and Oguche (2021), forensic discourse is a discipline of linguistic study that typically aids law enforcement organisations in addressing and resolving crimes in society.

This section will present the findings on the information gathered from the witness statements, that were analysed based on discourse analysis as one of the objectives of the study. The focus was on the following aspects: Context, fragmentation, coherence in the witness statements, correspondence with other witness statements, language structure and the relationship between the addressee and addressor.

4.4.1 Context

The context of a text is the information needed to interpret the text and make sense out of it (Crystal, 1992). Based on the analysed witness statements, the researcher looked at context in discourse with regards to the time, place where the occurrence occurred, gender, and the age of the victims (deceased). Hence, if the witness was present at the scene of crime and during the time the incident happened, he/she is likely to give accurate information such as the exact time the incident happened or place.

DOC 1 is a murder case of a 24 years old male, who was shot dead through a windscreen of the car on the 11th July 2009, 19h00 at Soweto and he was sitting at the passenger's seat. DOC 2, is that of a murder case of a young male, who was shot dead when he tried to rob a cellphone from a man at 21h30, at Khomasdal on Saturday, the 21st September 2013. DOC 3, is a case of a 33 years old female, who was murdered by her husband on 15 May 2007, Windhoek. DOC 4, is of a 26 years old male, who was shot dead, and thrown in the riverbed few kilometres from where he was shot. Taken from DOC 5, is a case of murder that happened on the 22nd July 2002, where a 50 years old male was stabbed in a throat in Windhoek, this case was finalised in 2015.

Taken from DOC 6, is a murder case of a 19-year-old male, who was murdered with a pistol on 13th July 2010 at about 09:00, in Independence Avenue. DOC 7, is a case of murder of a 56 years old male, who was murdered on the 08.07.2006 between 11:00 and 17h00, who was shot dead with a firearm, the accused persons were sentenced to 30 years' imprisonment in 2015. Subsequently, DOC 8, is of a 25 years old

female, who was murdered by her ex-boyfriend of 37 years of age on the 1st of January 2015, after having ended their romantic relationship affairs. The accused was sentenced to 35 years in prison.

DOC 9, is a murder case of a 27 years old male, who was shot with a firearm in the head on 21 November 2008 in Babylon informal settlement, Windhoek. DOC 10, is a murder case of a male who was shot dead on the 01.08.2012 at Kilimanjaro informal settlement, Windhoek. DOC 11, is of a 33 male, who was murdered by means of shooting with a firearm in Windhoek on 22.07.2013. DOC 12, is a murder of a 45 years old male, who was shot in the head at Wanaheda, Windhoek between 21 and 22 December 2013.

DOC 13, is of a 20-year female, who was raped and murdered, in 2009 in Windhoek, probably strangled by the rapist. DOC 14, is a murder case of a male, who was shot with a pistol in the chest in 2013, in Windhoek. DOC 15 is of a 44-year-old male, who was shot in the head in 2010 in a riverbed in Windhoek. DOC 16, is a case of a 33 male, who was murdered with a pistol in 2013, in Windhoek. DOC 17, that was studied is of a 26 years old, who was shot dead in the chest.

DOC 18, is of a 45 years old, who was stabbed with the knife in the head on 23 May 2012, Havana location, Windhoek. DOC 19, is of a male whose age is not mentioned on the docket, who was murdered in Single quarters, Windhoek on 6 May 2014. Lastly, DOC 20, is of a 66-year-old male, who was found murdered in a riverbed, who is believed to have been murdered with a sharp object on 31 May 2016 at between 20h00 and 23h00.

From the context provided above, the data collected indicated that most of the murder cases are a results of shooting. The cases that have been analysed indicates that, out of twenty dockets, there are only two cases of females who were murdered. The percentage that makes up a large group is that of the males, which is a bit questionable.

4.4.2 Fragmentation

Fragmentation deals with reducing the body parts into segments. In forensic discourse, fragmentation can be referred to how witnesses divide the body parts to describe the incidents. By using different body parts of where exactly the damage was done, it shows the authenticity of the statement given. Moreover, it shows the authorship of that certain statement, as if someone was not present at the scene, they are likely to confuse the fragment where the damage was done. Below are the examples taken from the statements that were analysed:

*The bullet went through the windscreen and hit the deceased in the **chest** DOC 1, W1. W2 (DOC 1) narrated: I heard two gunshots and saw three men running towards our direction one of them wearing a floppy hat was carrying a pistol in **his hands**. The deceased was shot in the **stomach**. It seems the accused used to be intoxicated as W12 from DOC 3 indicated; I came to know that he (A) used to lock himself inside the garage and when he comes out from there, his **face** appeared very changed and beat the deceased. She continues narrating: I was not at any stage beaten by the accused, however he (A) also at some stages cut down our **cellphone chargers** into pieces alleging that we have placed monitoring and hearing devices to spy or monitor his movements but this was not true.*

Extracted from DOC 5, the following fragmentation is presented from the data collected:

*[T]T he held him (deceased) from behind and I stab him at the **neck**. Upon our arrival at the scene, I observed that the body of a female's **face** was covered in blood. When we arrived at the scene, I observed the bruises on the **face** and the **skin in the neck** was blue. The bigger wound on the right **side cheek**, the second bigger wound on the **left hand side cheek** and a small open wound between **the left ear and the head**, by using an alleged unknown sharp object.*

The witnesses used fragmentation to give specifications to where the damages were caused or describing the injury suffered. Another aim for fragmentation in discourse is to outline and give the exact description to the specific aspect a witness is referring to.

4.4.3 Coherence within the witness statements

DOC1, W1 used linking word **while**, to show coherence within his statement, example: **While** in the cells of Katutura police station where I was detained, I heard that the firearm believed to have been used was recovered. This sentence is also linked with the sentence in syntactic analysis under sentence construction. DOC 4, W16, in his statement, the witness managed to link his ideas with: We left the house **but** after about one hour they contacted us **and** informed us that AA was now at home. We went there **and** found KK after questioning him, he gave use the phone. **While** at the station, Sgt LL found some blood samples on UU (suspect) clothes which made us to be more suspicious of him **because** he could not provide us with satisfactory answer. These cohere with what has already been mentioned.

***Later** the police came back and they asked me to take theme at my boyfriend's work **and** I took them there. **While** at the upper end of the stair I observed a body of a human being was lying in*

*the pool of blood. **Upon** our arrival at the police we found a long queue at the charge office. **Thereafter**, we were taken by the farmers **and** drove north eastern direction. **However**, we managed to arrest two of the five criminals. **Besides**, our colleagues from special Unit located the place where suspect no 1 stays. **Whilst** on the way to the funeral companies we decided to approach the bank.*

Coherence shows the flow of ideas and how they link to one another. It can help investigators, lawyers, prosecutors and judges to find a sense of connectivity within the statements and represent how the ideas cohere and indicate that they are referring to the same thing by using cohesive devices.

4.4.4 Correspondence (similarity) with other witness statements

Below are examples taken from the data collected from the witness statements. However, not all extracts from the witness statements are presented below, as the researcher reached the saturation point and the data collected from the witness statements present the same findings.

DOC 1, W1 and W2 show no correspondence to each other, because W1 gave the time he believed to have had witnessed the incident at **19h00** while W2 indicated **between 20h00 and 21h00**. Moreover, W1 indicated that the Hyundai car (where deceased was) was left **stationed**, whilst W2 indicated the opposite, example *After the shooting the Hyundai **turned around and drove away** I do not know whether anybody was hurt during the shooting.* However, there is correspondence in their statements as they both mentioned tinted windows, *The Hyundai had **tinted** windows.*

In DOC2, W7 indicated the lady's boyfriend was the dead one, meanwhile W8 indicated that the boyfriend was the one who shot the deceased. W5 does not really corresponding to others, because she was not present at the scene of crime as indicated in the example '*I was on duty at the station one man came at the station*'.

In DOC3, the researcher found out that, W13 and W14 are not corresponding each other, as W13 indicated that the man was screaming for help saying that his wife shot herself '*please help, **my wife shot herself***' whilst W14 indicated that the man was screaming that the wife was shot '*please help, **my wife is shot***', looking at these two noun phrase, they do not mean the same thing, in the first example, it can mean that the wife is the doer (carried the action of shooting herself) however in the second example, it means someone has carried the action of shooting, but not the wife, thus they are not corresponding.

This is where a linguist can come in to analyse the two phrases and assist the magistrate and prosecutors in getting the distinction between the two.

Meanwhile, (DOC 3) W14 and W15 are corresponding to each other, as they both mention the same phrases in their statements: *'A man came in the building shouting and screaming saying, please help me my wife was shot'*. Also, like W14, W15 also indicated that the Dr. told her to call the police, *Dr. HH asked me to call the police which I did*.

Based on the data collected, it shows that W16 and W17 of DOC 4 statements are not corresponding to one another, W16 indicated how they went where suspect one stays, whilst W17 talks of how he drove with suspect one, went to where the dead body was and later went to the stadium where SUS 1 pointed suspect two.

Data collected from DOC 8, shows the relationship between W1 and the accused.

Based on the findings presented from the data collected, statements that are not corresponding might lead to prolonged investigation as investigators and lawyers have to cross-examine witnesses to make sure the information provided is correct. Furthermore, it might lead to wrongful arrest. For instance, if one witness said he saw the suspect at 17h00 at Ombili, and another one says he saw the suspect at Otjomuise at the exact time, while the crime was committed at Ombili at 17h00, the investigator will be forced to obtain new statements from these two witnesses to make sure he has concrete evidence to arrest the suspects, as one of the two witnesses might have given a false statement.

Also, witnesses that are not corresponding might lead to civil lawsuit against the investigating officer and the Namibian Police at large. For example, if the investigator had reasons to believe that X committed the murder due to what the witness has said, and arrest X, and it later turned out that the witness lied under oath, and X did not commit the crime, X can sue the police, because his reputation was ruined and he might have suffered emotional trauma.

It is vital for the witness statements to correspond to each other. This assist the investigators and prosecutors, magistrates to get the distinction and be able to compare and contrast the information presented in their witness statements and also help them in solving their cases and get the real culprits who committed the crime. It also helps them to connect the incidents by paying close attention to the words and sentences used in both statements.

4.4.5 Language structure

From the data collected from the witness statements, the researcher presents some examples below, however, they are all not presented here as most of them are similar.

*I cannot say **many was them** because after the shot I saw four Damaras **were passed running** from where the **shot was**. He explained to us how the story **was goes on** and **how is happen**. Based on how the written language is structured in the above examples, it seems the writer is not fluent in the English language, which might hinder his articulation and contribution to the case. This could be due to the fact that this person is not from an English speaking community. This is evident by looking at the verb phrases in bold, where there is an error in Subject Verb Agreement.*

[I] called them and told them that my boyfriend want to buy a bicycle and they came at our house. There was a N\$50 in the house and I added the at the N\$200 that I went to take from my boyfriend's friend. On Wednesday morning my boyfriend went at work with the bicycle. We were informed by the colleague that we found first on the scene.

From the examples given, there is no subject verb agreement, paying close attention to the underlined words. Also, the way the words are arranged and the prepositions used, it shows that the witness is not fluent in the English language.

Language used in witness statements can also lead to linguistic evidence, which may lead to the arrest of the right person who committed the crime as shown in the extract:

The accused shown suspicious events as W37 of DOC 8 indicated *he (A) came back with a newspaper from court. As I was paging through, I discovered that **one page was removed***, this is suspicious as one would want to find out why the accused teared one page from the newspaper. He continued narrating that '*one of my cell-mate had visitors and upon his return, he came back with a newspaper similar to the one the accused had, as my co-inmate was checking in his newspaper, I then **saw the (A) picture in** the newspaper and the heading that the **accused murdered the lady***'.

Linguistic evidence through language is that '*I was in our **cell** an unknown suspect was brought in our **cell**. I heard the accused asking the caller if there is **paraffin** oil in the house. The accused told the caller to go and buy **paraffin** at the service station*. The word the word **paraffin** is also repeated as it was the tool that was used to get rid of the evidence that might implicate the accused.

Furthermore, from the data collected, the close friends to the deceased and cousins to the deceased narrated in their statements, that are worth to be mentioned, these are W38, 39 and 40 (DOC 8):

Each mentioned:

*[A]t around 16h21 (on the same date that is believed for the incident to have happened) I chat to the deceased and she asked me to call her, of which I told her, I did not have credit '**please call me**'. W4 also indicated on the same date about 15h43 I received a text message from the deceased saying '**call**', I replied saying I do not have credit, but the deceased never responded. The fifth witness also indicated 'on the same day at about 14h56 I received a text message from the deceased saying **please call me**'. I replied her that I did not have credit at about 15:08, then the deceased then text me again saying that I should call her with our office number. I told the deceased that I will call her after work, when I knock off, I tried to call the deceased after knocking off (between 17h00 and 18h00) but the deceased never picked.*

With close reference to the above extracts, repetition of the phrase in bold, indicates from a discourse level that, the deceased was desperately in need of help, and she could have been saved, if the people she texted could have responded. She sent these messages hoping they will respond and come to her rescue, but to no avail as all the witnesses indicated that they did not have credit.

However, in as much as witnesses give their statements orally in the language they better understand and police officer write the statements in the official language; sometimes police officers direct translate the statements into English, while they are not also fluent in it. For instance, if the witness gives the statement in Oshiwambo, Damara, Rukwangari or any other language, whereby the police officer has to write it in English, and the police officer is not fluent in the English language, the statement might not be used in the court of law, which might lead to the case being struck from court roll.

4.4.6 The relationship between the addressee and addressor

Here, the researcher analysed the relationship between the witnesses and the victims (deceased), as well as the connection between the witness and the perpetrator. DOC 1, W1 knows the names of the suspect and the victim; *I recognized that the Hyundai belongs to QQQ and the Bantam to EEE. They are friends to the deceased in this case*, however, he did not indicate what relationship him and the deceased shared. W2 (DOC 1) however, indicated that he does not know the victim personally; this is seen in the choice of words used in his statement:

The man with a pistol in the hand turned around, cocked his facing us, I saw his face and I will be able to identify him when I see him again. The underlined words are an indication that the witness has no

knowledge of who they are. W5 (DOC 1) in this case indicated that he was a friend to the deceased, and they were drinking together at the bar before the whole incident, indicated by the phrase in bold: *We bought some liquors and drink there. **We were joined by the deceased** and GG who were in a Hyundai sedan car.* W7 of DOC 2 did not mention whether he knew the deceased but rather only a girlfriend.

In DOC 3, W11 has no relationship to the victim nor to the suspect, however, W12 indicated that she is the cousin to the deceased and lived with them for a while as a nanny to their child. Moreover, W13, W14 and W15 indicated that they do not know the victim nor the suspect, thus they share no relationship as they are just workers at the hospital.

Data collected from DOC 8 indicate, that he is a twin brother to the accused as indicated: 'I am a biological twin brother to the accused'. However, he indicated that he does not know the deceased, nor did he know that she was the twin brother's girlfriend as he narrates in his statement. *I do not know the referred name withheld (deceased) personally but I saw her for about three times in my life. I never knew that she the accused girlfriend and GG (A) did not also informed that she was his girlfriend.*

The relationship between the witness and the victim or the suspect/accused and the witness influence how he or she narrates the story. This is normally seen in the language used by the witnesses. Based on what has been discussed above, on the relationship between the witnesses and the victims or the witnesses and the suspects/accused, it can impact how and what they say in their statements. If for example, witness X is a brother to Y who committed murder, it might hinder the investigation, because X might give a false statement to protect his brother from going to jail. Similarly, if X and Y are enemies, or the witness is related to the deceased, he/she is likely to fabricate his/her witness statement, because of the malicious between them or because of the anger within them if the victim is related to them.

4.5 Discussions

Forensic linguistics allows researchers to investigate and analyse the legal documents using a content analysis. To contrast and compare the results of the current study to other researches in the field, the following findings from the current study are compared to the previous related literature. Thus, the findings of the present study agree and disagree with other scholars as presented below.

The current study evaluated the forensic investigation on witness statements on murder cases, by analysing the witness statements on murder cases from the concluded cases (dockets). It is imperative to report that, as the previous researchers indicated that, witnesses are those who were present at the scene

of crime and their confession or statements help with the case investigations Solan (2010) and their testimony present a logical argument in court. Based on the data collected in some cases, Heydon (2019) investigators or police officers took witness statements from people who have no idea of what transpired. For example, they interview those who were not there at the time of crime, which results to them giving irrelevant information that add no significant values to the cases in question, hence the findings agree and disagree with the previous researchers.

The findings of the current study indicates that, some of the synonyms and vocabulary selected might cause confusion as the definition used in witness statements influence the exact expression as El-Sakran (2020), (Sheikha & Inkpen, 2010), (Heydon, 2019) also indicated in their studies, such in cases where witnesses used firearms, pistols, guns in the same statement, a legal expert who has no knowledge might think these words do not mean the same thing in the context they have been used.

The repetition of words and phrases help investigators to get the emphasis, and these repetitions have the central idea of what the witness wishes to convey, this is similar to what (Ariani et al., 2014) have indicated in their article that, word repetition can occasionally be beneficial. By how words are used and arranged from the findings, it is evident that there is a significant need for the forensic linguists in investigation, as (Valentine & Maras, 2011) also stressed on the importance of forensics linguists that, they are mostly called in by police in order to support them in determining how various documents are altered and to analyse the handwriting in documents related to investigations

Regarding the words used in witness statements, Asprey (2003) alluded that efforts have been made to avoid using archaisms words, but to rather use the simple terms equivalent to the synonyms used. However, from the data collected, it shows that many synonyms might cause confusion in the cases, and magistrates and prosecutors might get confused, thus there is a need for forensic linguists to get involved in legal aspects particularly in cases of murders, as murder is regarded as a serious offense.

Ambiguity is also one of the aspects that cause confusion, and misinterpretations in legal documents (Butt & Castle, 2001), and witness statements are no exception. In the findings, a list of ambiguous phrases and words were analysed, and discussed on how they cause confusions to the cases and misinterpreted by the magistrates, prosecutors, and judges.

Although Srijono (2010), defined sentences briefly as the grammatical units, from the findings of the present study, most sentences in the analysed witness statements are full of grammatical errors such as concord agreement, and the use of wrong prepositions. This contributes to the sentences' structure to be

ungrammatically correct as Cohen and Smith (2007) indicated, this sometimes is due to the arrangement of words within the witness statements.

Onoja and Oguiche (2021) pointed out that, forensic discourse scrutinises actions, replies and utterances through language to aid legal experts convey their evidence to unravel cases. In cases of witness statements, the utterances and language used do not always give legal experts the assistance they would want to use, unless if the forensic expert assist.

Notably, Littlejohn and Mehta (2012) indicated that, forensic linguists also see fit to indicate the order in which the messages were transmitted, and to link the messages at hand using cohesive and coherent devices. Similarly, from the findings presented, cohesive devices were used in the witness statements, such as *furthermore*, *whilst*, *thereafter*, *and* so on, but in some witness statements this is not the case as some witnesses have not used them, hence the researcher agree with the previous scholars.

According to Correa (2017), forensic linguists are aware of the importance of context when trying to understand a dialogue and will not accept interpretations that have been changed for either the prosecution or the defense based on the context. Similarly, in order to establish the key theme of what happened from the findings, context has been indicated from each case.

4.6 Chapter summary

The chapter presented the major findings from the data collected from the witness statements. It looked at lexical content analysis, paying close attention to the relevance of different words and phrases towards the cases, the repetition used in the witness statements and the reasons behind, words and phrases that might cause confusion and misinterpretations, the choice of words, ambiguity, and word formations. It also explored on the syntactic content analysis, where it focused of the sentence structure and construction, types of sentences such as simple, compound, complex and compound-complex.

It further explained the kinds of tenses and persons used in witness statements, and also briefly touched on the phrases. It went further to give a detail discussion on discourse analysis, where it tackled on the context, fragmentation, coherence, correspondence and language structure on witness statements, as well as the relationship between the witnesses, victims and suspects. Finally, it gave some brief discussions on the present study and what other researchers have said with regards to the findings of the current study. The next chapter is on the conclusion of the research as well as the recommendations.

Chapter 5

Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusions

This study has endeavoured to carry out forensic linguistic investigations of the written witness statements on murder cases. This research aimed to address the themes from the objectives of the study, using a qualitative approach, thus the study addressed the problem statement and answered the objectives of the study.

In line with the objectives of this study, the major findings of the current study indicated the following:

There are challenges in terms of lexical content analysis in witness statements. These ranges from relevance in witness statements. Also, investigators sometimes interview people who were not present at the scene of crime, or sometimes have no knowledge in the cases they are being questioned about. This might waste the magistrates' and prosecutors' time, as they have to stay in court all day listening to witnesses who have no vital information to add to the cases.

The study also reported that, there are some words used in witness statements that might lead to confusion, and words that are misspelt or mistaken with the others, which change the whole context of the intended meaning. However, this research has successfully highlighted the need to always include the forensic linguists in investigation on murder cases, to help giving better and critical explanations on the terminologies that might be confusing and polysemous.

The current study also highlighted the repetition of different words such as firearms, Pistols, observed etc and why the repetition of words in witness statements can be useful. Repetition of words and phrases is significant, because it gives emphasis on the key aspects that might be useful in the investigation process, and might help speed up the investigation process. Furthermore, there are some words and phrases that are used in witness statements that based on the data collected, they might cause confusion and misinterpretation towards the cases, which might lead to wrongful arrests or cases to be struck out of court roll.

Additionally, there should be forensic linguists in courts when analysing witness statements, as some words and phrases can be ambiguous, whereby the legal experts might not be able to comprehend. Also, how words are arranged, the word choice as well as the word formation play a central role in witness

statements, and from the data presented in the findings, these key areas have been explained in detail, with the aid of extracts from the witness statements.

This study has achieved its objective as the authenticity and authorship are clearly stipulated in the findings, such as how sentence construction and structure, types of sentences, tenses and the use of persons could give whether the witness (author) was present at the scene or heard from someone. Due to the fact that English is a second language in Namibia, many witnesses and police officers come from communities where English is less spoken, or where people are not fluent in it. Since English language is the only language used in witness statements, it often results in poor sentence structure and sentence construction.

With regards to the data presented in the findings, the researcher presented how most statements are written in a manner that their sentences are constructed in an ungrammatical manner. This is often influenced by the investigator or police officer who has written the statement when the witness is giving his/her testimony orally. Some police officers or investigators tend to direct translate from the spoken words to the written ones in English, when sometimes they are also not fluent in the English language. The study presented how this might impact the investigation and how the magistrates, prosecutors or the judges rule on their ruling.

The types of sentences have also been analysed, where some witnesses opted for simple sentences, compound, complex as well as compound-complex. In cases such as using compound complex, many witness statements have no punctuations, which might yet again bring confusion and misinterpretation and take much of the prosecutors' time.

Moreover, the use of persons and tenses used in witness is not restricted, although from the researcher's point of view, they supposed to use simple past tense, since they are reporting on the crimes and incidents that happened already during the time they give their testimonies. Thus, most of them used past tense, although there are some who used both past tense and simple present tense.

Discourse being a sustained body of text longer than a phrase which normally constitute a coherent unit, context, narratives, language used, fragmentation and so on, has also been presented in the current study.

This objective looked at how the context is used in the witness statements, which assisted the researcher to grasp and get an overview of the murder cases analysed in the contemporary study. Most of the cases that have been analysed are murders of males between the age of 19 to 66, with only two females between the age of 33 and 25 respectively. Fragmentation in witness statements has been discussed,

where witnesses gave specifications of the exact areas that the deceased suffered the damage on their bodies. This can also assist the investigators to obtain their preliminary reports.

Subsequently, coherence in witness statements is believed to be an important aspect discussed in the current study, as it links different ideas together, which might smoothen the investigation process. Correspondence of witness statements is explained to be vital in witness statements. It is crucial, because it can help prevent the wrongful arrest as well as prolonged investigations. Thus, witness statements in the same case need to correspond to each other to avoid wasting resources and time, especially since sometimes the investigator has to cross examine that same witness over again, to get relevant information that can be used in the court of law.

The linguistic structure is believed to play a critical role in analysing witness statements. Based on the findings presented, some witnesses are not fluent in English language, as they indicated their vernacular languages, although they declared in English. It is also crucial for the police officers or investigators to be fluent in the English language, since some errors in the witness statements are because of them, since they are the ones who write them, or alternatively, there is a need for the forensic linguists to be called when analysing the statements, since they are expert in that field.

The study also concluded under discourse that, in most cases, when the witness is related to the deceased, chances are that, the relationship they share can influence how he/she narrates the testimony. Similarly, when there is bad blood between the witness and suspect, the witness might give a false testimony just for the suspect to be locked up unlawfully. Likewise, to a witness who is related to the accused or suspect, chances are that he/she might give false testimony just to protect the suspect, which might result in criminals to walk freely.

5.2 Recommendations

The current research recommends the following:

- The choice of words used in witness statements should be carefully put into consideration to avoid misinterpretation of the information conveyed in the statements and confusions.
- Repetition of unnecessary phrases needs to be avoided when writing witness statements, as this might bore prosecutors, magistrates and judges and be time wasting.
- Police officers need to refrain from writing run-on sentences, and make use of punctuation marks as well as cohesive devices.

- Moreover, witness statements should correspond (have similarities) to each other to help in solving the murder cases in question.
- There is a need for the police officers who write statements to be fluent in English language, both in speaking and writing to avoid direct translation and misleading information.
- There is a need for witness statements to be written either in the vernacular languages of the witnesses, in order for them to be able to express themselves fully and to avoid misinterpretation of messages.
- Investigator or police officers who write witness statements should be sent for English language courses in order to be taught of grammar to avoid grammatical errors.
- Also, forensic linguists are highly needed to be a part of investigation teams, to help in analysing the language in witness statements where magistrates and prosecutor have no knowledge on.
- A forensic linguist should be present throughout cross-examinations to provide an unbiased assessment of the procedure.

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Annex

CHECKLIST

Content analysis checklist

The following elements in the witness statements will be the main focus:

Lexical content analysis

1. Which words are repeated in the statements and why?
2. Word choice.
3. Word formation / collection of certain words.

Syntactic content analysis

4. Relevance of certain phrases to the cases.
5. Are there certain sentences and phrases employed that can cause misunderstanding and misinterpretation of the cases?
6. Ambiguous phrases.
7. Repeated phrases
8. Sentence construction.
9. Sentence structure.
10. Types of sentences (Simple, Compound, Complex and Compound complex).
11. Tenses used in the witness statements.
12. The use of persons
13. Clauses and phrases.

Discourse content analysis

14. Fragmentation in witness statements.
15. Coherence within the witness statements.
16. Look at the context (time, place where the incident took place, age, distance, religion).
17. Are the witness statements corresponding to each other?
18. Language structure.
19. The relationship between the addressee and addressor.

APPENDIX A

Ndamononghenda N Ndatyapo

P O Box 3657

Windhoek

0814132337

01 June 2021

The Inspector General of Police

Namibian Police Force

Private Bag 12024

Ausspannplatz

Dear Sir

REQUEST TO BE PROVIDED WITH STATISTICAL DATA ON MURDER CASES OF THE PERIOD 2015-2018 FOR ANALYSIS

I am Ndatyapo Ndamononghenda Ndalipo, ID No 92012900410, a student at the Namibia University of Science and Technology (NUST), doing my Masters in English and Applied Linguistics. I will be contacting a research and my research topic is "A Forensic Linguistic Investigation of Witness Statements on Murder Cases at the Windhoek Police Station, Windhoek".

I intent to conduct my research at the Namibian Police next semester, and my study population is 50. At this point, I would like to request from your good office to provide me with the statistical data of the number of closed murder cases (any type of murder case) between the years 2015 to 2018. My aim for the inquiry is for me to be able to fulfil the requirements of my qualification as well as to be able to know the total number of the closed cases, in order to have clear knowledge of my study population as well as my sample size.

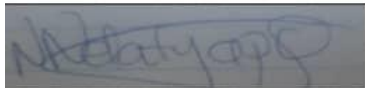
I have initially requested for the statistics from the Prosecutor General's office as the setting of the research, however, they have responded that I approach the Namibian Police Force for the information, as per their attached response. Furthermore, I would like your good office to provide me with a permission letter permitting me to collect my data at your organisation next semester.

The Ethical Clearance will be provided to your good office once it is obtained from NUST. Kindly find attached my proposal for further understanding.

For any enquiries regarding the request, kindly contact me on 081 4132337 or at email: ndalipondatyapo@gmail.com.

Looking forward to hearing from you soon.


Yours Faithfully,

A rectangular box containing a handwritten signature in blue ink. The signature appears to be 'Ndatyapo' with a stylized flourish at the end.

Ndamononghenda N. Ndatyapo

APPENDIX B

W/O. Gath N. N.
21 JUN 2021

 **NAMIBIAN POLICE FORCE**
WINDHOEK

REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

MINISTRY OF HOME AFFAIRS, IMMIGRATION, SAFETY AND SECURITY

Tel. No: (+264 61) 209 3111
Fax: No: (+264 61) 220 621

Enquiries: Comm. Mafwila / W/O¹ Katala

Our Ref.: 8/3/1
Your Ref.:

OFFICE OF THE INSPECTOR-GENERAL
Namibian Police Force
Private Bag 12024
Ausspannplatz
WINDHOEK
Namibia

04 June 2021

Ms. N.N. Ndatyapo
P.O. Box 80521
WINDHOEK

Dear Madam

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO OBTAIN DATA AND CONDUCT RESEARCH ON MURDER CASES FOR THE PERIOD 2015-2018 FOR ANALYSIS

1. The above mentioned subject matter reference.
2. Your request for permission to obtain data on the number of closed murder cases for the period 2015-2018 for analysis within the Namibian Police Force is hereby **approved**.
3. You are hereby advised to make further arrangements with the Police Regional Commander of Khomas Region to conduct your research. In the same vein, it is imperative to note that the information or data to be obtained should not be used for any other purpose except for this academic research.
4. Your interest and willingness to carry out a research study within the Namibian Police Force is highly appreciated.

Thanking you in anticipation for your mutual cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

S.H. Ndeitunga
S.H. NDEITUNGA, OMS
INSPECTOR-GENERAL: NAMIBIAN POLICE FORCE

NAMIBIAN POLICE
WINDHOEK
04 JUN 2021
INSPECTOR GENERAL

Cc: The Regional Commander: Khomas Region

APPENDIX C

Private Bag 13388

Namibia University of Science and Technology

WINDHOEK

25 January 2022

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

The MBA thesis titled A FORENSIC LINGUISTIC INVESTIGATION OF WITNESS STATEMENTS ON MURDER CASES AT WINDHOEK POLICE STATION, researched and authored by Ms Ndamononghenda Ndalipo Ndatyapo, was language edited and proofread by me in November.

I corrected language and stylistic errors in the text, and marked interpretation and paraphrasing difficulties that existed so that these could be corrected. I have also recommended that final adjustments be made in the table of contents, bibliography and text layout before submission of the dissertation. I understood that an expert content editor still had to evaluate the thesis and I did not edit the text after his contribution.

As an experienced language editor working for NUST's COLL, I believe that the dissertation is ready for evaluation and publication, provided that the author has corrected all errors as indicated. For further information or editing I may be contacted at the following e-mail address: jhunter@nust.na

Regards.

Yours faithfully

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Jeanne Hunter', with a large, stylized initial 'J'.

Mrs Jeanne Hunter

M Phil Second Language Acquisition (Stellenbosch) cum laude; PG Diploma Translation (UNISA); PG B Ed (UNAM) cum laude; PG Diploma TESOL: Applied Linguistics (Surrey); BA and HED (Stellenbosch)