UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

LEXICAL BUNDLES IN POLITICAL COMMUNICATION: AN ANALYSIS OF SELECTED MANIFESTOES OF TWO POLITICAL PARTIES IN GHANA

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DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

I, **JANE- FRANCES SESI SEDEGAH**, declare that this Thesis, with the exception of

quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified

and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted,

either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

SIGNATURE: ……………………………………………

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SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in

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NAME OF SUPERVISOR: **PROF. CHRISTIANA HAMMOND**

SIGNATURE: …………………………………………………….

DATE: …………………………………………………………

DEDICATION

Dedicated to Mr. Jasper Sedegah and Mad. Josephine Desewu.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To Mr. Jasper Sedegah and Mad. Josephine Desewu, my supportive parents, thank you for believing in me and providing me with all the support to make this dream a reality. The Lord has seen it and will reward you accordingly.

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ABSTRACT

This study explored how lexical bundles are used in political communication using the manifestoes of two major political parties in Ghana, which are the New Patriotic Party (NPP) and the National Democratic Congress (NDC). The study investigated the kinds of lexical bundles used in the manifestoes, their similarities and differences in frequency and use, their structural types employed and the communicative functions of the lexical bundles in the manifestoes. Guided by the Structural Taxonomy and Functional Taxonomy of Lexical Bundles espoused by Biber et al. (2004), this study employed a qualitative approach and relied on document analysis to gather data for the study. Two manifestoes, one from each political party, were sampled as corpus for the study. Findings from the study showed that 14 three- word lexical bundles and 11 four- word lexical bundles were found in the corpus. The study revealed that these bundles were used in large frequencies to express ability of the political parties to deliver on their political promises to their electorate. Out of 17 structural types of lexical bundles, only 4 were found in the corpus. Out of these 4 structural types, prepositional phrases were found to have the most examples in the corpus. The findings also revealed that all three functional types of lexical bundles were present in the corpus. Referential expressions were the most used functional type from the corpus, followed by discourse organizers, and stance bundles. Some examples of referential expressions that were used include *'the next four years'*, *'the next NPP/NDC government'* and *'in this administration'*. The study concludes that the few examples of lexical bundles in both manifestoes show that text producers do not have an extensive knowledge of lexical bundles and how they are used to advance discourses. It is recommended that the writers of the manifestoes incorporate more lexical bundles into their texts to improve on the communicative features of their texts.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

A manifesto is one of the primary vehicles used by political parties to communicate their policies to voters. It is, therefore, logical to presume that creating manifestoes involves a painstaking and carefully considered procedure (Kareinen, 2019). Jasim and Mustafa (2020) opine that politics is a struggle for power often based on the careful articulation of an ideology using persuasive language, and eventually targeting a certain group of electorates. Owusu-Mensah and Rice (2018) state that Ghana has a reputation for being a successful case of the practice of peaceful democracy. Since the beginning of the fourth republic in 1992, Ghana has held peaceful elections, three of which have led to a peaceful transfer of power. The success of the democracy in the fourth republic is dependent on several factors, one of them being the language of manifestoes of political parties (Ayee, 2011). It is therefore important to investigate the role of linguistic features or lexical bundles as an integral part for crafting political communication, and by extension, political manifestoes, devoid of acrimony (Owusu-Mensah & Rice, 2018).

Hyland and Jiang (2018) posit that a proficient user of a specific language has a range of lexical bundles in their schema that they could utilize when the need arises, while also considering how well the bundle fits the type of conversation they are conducting. Biber et al. (1999) highlight that, lexical bundles are significant building blocks of conversation, despite the fact that they are neither idiomatic nor structurally complete. Lexical bundles serve as discourse frames for the articulation of new information, acting as a kind of pragmatic header for larger phrases and sentences. In other words, the lexical bundle

expresses stance or textual meanings, whereas the remainder of the phrase/clause expresses fresh propositional information framed by the lexical bundle. Lexical bundles serve as interpretive frames for the emerging discourse in this way. For example, in a statement like '*I don't know if that is a good idea*' the lexical bundle, *'I don't know'* serves the communicative function of expressing the speaker or writer's uncertainty about the idea that is under discussion. The rest of the sentence plays the role of providing the context in which the bundle is being used.

Hyland (2008) describes a lexical bundle as words that occur more frequently than would be predicted at random and help to define meanings and add to the sense of uniqueness in using a particular language. Thus, bundles are the statistically most prevalent recurrent word sequences in any group of texts (Biber et al, 1999). Hyland (2008) asserts that a certain frequency is required for a linguistic element to be classified as a lexical bundle. This means, it is possible to add that the use of other structural units such as verb phrases, adjectival phrases and transitional markers could account for a structure to be called a lexical bundle. Hyland and Jiang (2018) aver that, lexical bundles are complex expressions, which by coincidence, occur in a text more frequently than anticipated, helping to shape meanings and adding coherence and distinctiveness to a text. Hyland and Jiang (2018) add that lexical bundles are described as complex expressions because they are a unique combination of phrases and clauses that are meaning embedded. Hyland and Jiang (2018) again assert that lexical bundles are common in academic writings and are important components of fluency, distinguishing between experienced and beginner use in both spoken and written settings.

Conrad and Biber (2005) assert that a language user's single use of a particular sequence of words does not automatically render the said sequence a lexical bundle. A particular sequence of words becomes a lexical bundle when it appears in numerous texts. Conrad and Biber (2005) add that, to be termed a lexical bundle, a word sequence must be used by several speakers or authors, rather than simply being used per a writer's or speaker's personal preference. A lexical bundle must appear in several texts in a particular register to establish it as one. In other words, a sequence of words mut have been seen in different texts by different producers of a text for them to be called a lexical bundle. The occurrence of the pattern in multiple texts alludes to the fact that different text producers recognize the function of a particular sequence of words, and hence, use it repeatedly to achieve a particular function or role. For instance, the use of the expression "*the fact that*" allows the text producer to attribute some factual knowledge to whatever they are about to write or say, and the repeated use of this sequence of words means that the speaker or writer of a particular text wants their reader or audience to know that their next utterance is a factual statement, hence the use of the lexical bundle *"the fact that"*.

According to Taieb and Toumi (2021) and Biber and Barbieri (2007), lexical bundles differ from one discipline to the other. In other words, the lexical bundles that may be found in one field of study may be different in another in terms of structure and function. Cortes (2004), for example, in a study that sought to identify major variations in the use of lexical bundles between published works and students' writing in Biology and History realized that the structural groups of History were more of noun phrases and prepositional phrases, whereas that of Biology covered a wide range of structural categories, including noun phrases, prepositional phrases, it + 'to be' Verb + adjective clause fragments (*it is*

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important to) , 'to be' Verb +complement clause fragments (*are more likely to*) , and noun phrase + V +complement clause fragments (*can be used to*). In terms of function, different lexical bundles found in both History and Biology corpora were employed to carry out identical functions. In the case of referential bundles, all bundles designated as time markers in the History corpus referred to the years or time periods in which historical events occurred, whereas in the Biology corpus, the bundles used referred to various time periods, primarily stages in the developmental processes of various biological phenomena. Since lexical bundles are realized by analyzing texts that have been put together into one large structured text known as corpus (plural is corpora), researchers have found that certain bundles are used more in some disciplines than in the others. For instance, Hyland (2008) states that the use of extended collocations such as *'as a result of', 'it should be observed',* and *'as can be seen'* all aid in identifying a text as belonging to an academic register, whereas legal documents are characterized with expressions such as *'with regard to', 'in pursuance of',* and *'in accordance with'*.

Certain criteria have been established for determining lexical bundles in a corpus and the cut-off frequency, which sets the number of lexical bundles to be included in the analysis, is the first criterion. The second criterion is the number of texts a lexical bundle must appear in, and the third is the length of the lexical bundle. These criteria, as well as recommendations from various researchers, are provided in Table 1.

Table 1: Recommendations for establishing lexical bundles

Criterion	Researcher	Recommendation
Frequency	(For large corpora) 1. Biber et al. (2004), 2. Hyland (2008) 3. Cortes (2004)	1. 40 occurrences per 1 million words 2. 10 occurrences per 1 million words 3. More than 20 times per 1 million words
	(For small corpora) 1. Altenberg (1998) and De Cock (1998) cited in Chen and Baker (2010)	1. 2- 10 occurrences in a text
Number of texts	1. Hyland (2008) 2. Biber et al. (2004) 3. Biber and Barbieri (2007)	1. Five or more texts 2. At least five texts 3. Three texts
Length of lexical bundle	1. Chen and Baker (2010)	1. Three, four, five or six words long.

The criterion that specifies that lexical bundles have to appear in different texts is to ensure that writers do not use particular word phrases repeatedly. When different text producers use a particular word phrase in their texts, it can be verified that the phrase serves a particular discourse function, hence the writers' use. Chen and Baker (2010) suggest that four-word sequences are the most explored length in studies that have been conducted in the area, due to the fact that these bundles are easy to identify in a text, and they make manual classifications easy. Lexical bundles are often determined in texts through the use of software, so shorter word bundles can be selected in texts. However, two-word bundles, for example, may be difficult to manually identify, so four-word bundles are recommended for manual categorization.

Biber and Barbier (2007) assert that lexical bundles are distinguished from other types of formulaic phrases by three fundamental qualities. First, by their definition, lexical bundles are highly common and so appear frequently in oral and written text. Second, majority of lexical bundles lack idiomatic meaning and are not cognitively significant. Lexical bundles lack any latent meaning, aside the communicative functions they serve. Third, Pang (2010) argues that they are neither idiomatic nor complete grammatical structures in most cases. It means that, they cannot stand on their own as complete structures that express full thoughts, with some exceptions such as 'I don't know'. According to Biber et al (1999), 15% of lexical bundles in conversation have a complete structural unit (e.g., I don't think so). Finally, lexical bundles are not always a full structural unit. Instead, most lexical bundles connect two structures: they begin at a sentence or phrase boundary but end with the first words of a second structural unit.

1.1.1 Political Communication and Language Use

Political ideology is a concept that politicians must promote as a set of political viewpoints. Because ideologies entail the exchange of ideas, language is essential to their creation and upkeep (Malghani & Shafiq, 2019). Jasim and Mustafa (2020) propound that like every field of study or career, politics and politicians rely on language and its means of communication to carry out tasks that will help them achieve their political ambitions. Jasim and Mustafa (2020) add that politicians understand the importance of linguistic strategies and techniques and the part they play in achieving their political objectives, so they use language to influence people's perceptions and ideas. Jasim and Mustafa (2020) again assert that politicians use language to influence the beliefs and perceptions of the public. They provide positive signals about their goals and behavior while conveying

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negative information about the goals and conduct of their opponents. Adukpo et al. (2020) state that politicians consciously use language to express their thoughts and the destination for the delivery of those concepts is to the people. Political language conveys ideas that compel individuals to vote, argue, or revolt. As a result, language has a critical role in determining political stability or strife.

Politicians are known for their ability to obtain and manage power through the use of language. Sharndama and Mgbemena (2015) highlight that language use by politicians is distinguished by politicians' capacity to exploit the linguistic resources accessible in the language in order to sell their political beliefs and manifestoes to voters. Malghani and Shafiq (2019) assert that politicians frequently use their personal and professional ideals to socially rebuild reality. The political messages that politicians relay to their electorates reinforce individual ideas and behaviors as well as collective ideologies, which unavoidably has an impact on the creation of political policies and organizational norms. Hashim (2019) iterates that those ideas and ideologies must be communicated verbally in political speeches for the audience to accept them. Sharndama (2016) explains the primary purpose of a political speech as to coax the audience of the speaker's point of view by employing the most persuasive linguistic techniques. What this means is, language use in political communication, once done intentionally, has the ability to shift the political positions, attitudes, perspectives and behaviours of the target audience towards the speaker's own ideologies. According to Jasim and Mustafa (2020), for politicians to reinforce such individual and collective ideologies, they utilize language and employ some linguistic elements for tactical purposes to be communicated to diverse people or groups of varied political, social, religious, or educational assertions at specific times and places.

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Malghani and Shafiq (2019) state that the communicative texts or speeches that politicians use carry strong yet coded meanings and messages. Language analysis can be used to assess these coded meanings and messages. Thus, politicians, through their speeches, may use language that have their ideologies embedded in them, which may not be immediately evident to the audience, until the speech is subjected to analysis. For instance, if, in a political speech, a speaker makes mention of a woman running for elections with a statement like *"...the only woman running in an election that is dominated by the patriarchy"*, linguistic analysts would reveal the intentions of the speaker as to why they chose these particular words to describe the manner of people who are contesting for the election. The idea that the speaker may be trying to convey to their audience could be that the candidates for the elections are all male, except for the woman. The choice of words of the speaker, however, may reveal their hidden beliefs and perceptions with regards to gender disparities in their political setting.

Kashiha (2022) explains political speech as a communication exchange between the politician and the listener in which the politician seeks to convince the listener to agree with his or her thoughts and opinions to support the propositions being made. The politician uses a variety of lexico-grammatical tools and linguistic qualities to portray themselves in discourse, predict the audience's responses, build rapport with the audience, in order to achieve their goals (Kashiha, 2022). Political language, thus, describes how the government of a nation or a political party in a country utilizes words to motivate or persuade the public (Uduma, 2012). Politicians can shape how political events are perceived, and the words they use are an important part of that process (Sharndama, 2016). Addy and Amo-Ofori (2020) indicate that, political speeches are carefully constructed to persuade voters of

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various policies, initiatives, and beliefs. Politicians use speeches to subtly affect and control how their audiences hear and perceive the information they are given. The primary goal of a political message is to legitimize one political position as more credible than another. To do this, politicians meticulously construct their ideas in a way that their audience may easily accept by employing techniques that place the speaker in good standing with the audience. Uduma (2012) also avers that a government of a country could use words to turn the public's attention to their political ambitions and goals. A good example of how politicians use language for varied communicative purposes is through the writing of their manifestoes.

1.1.2 Political Parties in Ghana

Mito (2010) state that political parties are organizations that organize public opinion and interests, communicate public demands to the government, seek out candidates and propose political leadership, and frequently try to convey to supporters what is acceptable in terms of social, economic, cultural, and political development. Political parties are important to every democracy because, according to Munger (2019), political parties are the most successful means of attaining and maintaining political office in most electoral settings. Munger (2019) again states that, the ambition of political parties and their leaders to influence policymaking and governance in a country drives them to seek political office. Political parties therefore become a means to a goal for individuals who seek to be at the helm of a country's affairs.

Demuyakor (2021) maintains that, in the fourth republic of Ghana, there are over twenty-five political parties that have been registered, as of 2020. Musah et al. (2020) aver that despite the fact that there are several political parties in Ghana, only the National

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Democratic Congress (NDC) and the New Patriotic Party (NPP) have had the chance to hold power since the beginning of the fourth republic in 1992. Sarfo-Kantankah (2021) states that the NDC under J.J. Rawlings won the elections in December 1992 and 1996, while the NPP under J. A. Kufuor won the elections in 2000 and 2004, each of them taking power for eight years. The NDC won the 2008 elections with J. E. A. Mills as its flag bearer. However, he passed away while in office in July 2012, and John Mahama, who had been vice president at the time, immediately assumed the presidency. John Mahama won the 2012 elections but was defeated by Nana Addo Danquah Akufo-Addo of the NPP in the 2016 general elections. In the 2020 general elections, the NPP's incumbent President Nana Akufo-Addo was re-elected, defeating once again, NDC's John Mahama.

Manzur (2022) explains that elections are an integral part of democratic governance, because they present the opportunity to electorates to decide on who they would want to vote into power. Ayee (2016) posits that manifestoes, therefore, provide an avenue for political parties and their leaders seeking a mandate, especially in democracies such as Ghana's, to propose remedies to the electorate's socio-economic needs and demands.

1.1.3 Political Manifestoes

The political manifesto of a political party is a perfect example of how certain political activities cannot survive without the use of language (Malghani & Shafiq, 2019). Manifestoes of political parties are a crucial component of political discourse. A political manifesto is a written public declaration of the goals and programs of an organization or party. Election manifestoes are also characterized as the formal declarations of expected party positions made at the beginning of an election campaign period (Robertson, 2004). Manifestoes, as defined by Ayee (2011) are documents that define the policies or programs

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that a political party plans to pursue if granted the power to govern. The plans and programs explain the development strategy they will employ if they are to gain the people's legitimacy. Klingeman et al. (1994) cited in Nartey and Yankson (2014) explain political manifestoes as official declarations that are made by political parties outlining their ideas and informing voters on how the country will be managed if they are granted the authority to assume office and hold power.

Yan and Crosthwaite (2018) also define political manifestos as broad, written statements which are a political candidate's individual ideals for a particular political campaign. Manifestoes, however, can have a larger definition that encompasses all declarations of political intent and, in some situations, a need for assistance or support during a revolutionary crisis. For instance, Daubler (2012) opines that election manifestoes have undergone a striking transformation, growing from a meager 150-word paper to many detailed policy pages created by a variety of specialists on policy, voters' preferences, public opinion, and communication through a system of thought and debate. According to Merz et al. (2016), the 20th century witnessed a significant change from the idea of politics as a discursive process, where candidates seeking for power just needed to outline broad ideals, and to an era of specific policymaking and promises of a roadmap to follow while in office. Thackeray and Toye (2019) state that this action has caused what is referred to as election manifestoes. Naurin (2014) asserts that political parties feel pressured to create a list of customized policies to present to voters, so they could be obligated to implement, as much as possible when voted into power.

Kareinen (2019) opines that a political party would put their agendas for the upcoming term in a manifesto by outlining the key concerns and advantages around which their campaigns

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are based. Consequently, the manifesto provides insights into the ideologies, drives, and goals of that particular political party. Yan and Crosthwaite (2018) avow that, politicians use manifestoes to express their promises, as well as their personal motivation for running for presidential office in an attempt to capture the public's support. Yan and Crosthwaite (2018) further explain that, in order to garner the most public support from the political side of the spectrum that aligns themselves with the individual ideological opinions of the candidate, and to persuade those who may lie outside of such leanings to change their allegiances, the linguistic features that represent the candidates' stance are therefore chosen by their writers with extraordinary care. This implies that, the language employed in manifestoes are carefully selected to enhance the electorates' trust in the political abilities of particular politicians, while at the same time, used to amass support from citizens who may not believe in their political ideologies. Ehineni (2014) advances that political manifestoes have become an integral part of the political strategies for gaining political power and are carefully and cleverly crafted to influence the electorates to support the candidature of a particular person. Ehineni (2019) adds that while a party has little control over what is printed in the media, they have complete control over their manifesto and, more intriguing linguistically, how it is crafted with the target audience in mind.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Political manifestoes are documents that are vital to elections in Ghana. Because they outline the plans, aspirations and policies of a political party if they are elected into power, political parties take careful decisions in crafting them. It is expedient that lexical bundles, which, according to Biber et al. (1999) are known to have the ability to develop discourses, should be interrogated in these documents to establish how writers of political manifestoes

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weave lexical bundles into their writing to adequately communicate their political ambitions to their electorates.

Existing literature has established the structure and communicative functions of lexical bundles in an array of spoken and written academic and non-academic fields, ranging from texts in the sciences and in educational journals to spoken register outside of formal classroom settings. This means that, lexical bundles in academic texts and interactions outside the classroom have been studied extensively, with attention to their structures and functions across disciplines. A study conducted by Cortes (2006) examined how some specific lexical bundles were taught to third- and fourth-year university students who were native English speakers in a writing-intensive History class. For the study, research articles from American history journals were collected, and lexical bundles within the corpus were identified. The identified lexical bundles were subsequently taught to the students in the history class. The use of the target bundles, that is, the lexical bundles that were discovered in the corpus and taught in the History class, was analyzed in both the corpus of published articles and the students' writings. The purpose of the study was to determine whether students used any of the target bundles before they were taught, and whether their use increased after being taught. The study further examined the expressions that students regularly used in their writing to convey some of the functions of the target bundles, as well as whether or not published authors in the History corpus frequently used similar expressions. The study revealed that 13 of the 35 target bundles that were chosen for the study had been used by students before instruction. In some cases, a bundle was only used once by a single student in a paper or was used multiple times by the same student on the same paper, as was the case with "*one of the most*" instances, where the bundle was used

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four times in the same paper. Also, the frequency and variation in bundle use did not significantly improve after the students were taught. In their writing, students selected eleven target bundles, each of which was utilized once. The data also revealed that only 14 bundles were utilized by students following the teaching period. The functions that indicate intangible framing features (that is, describing abstract features and demonstrating relationship between ideas) in the papers, that is, after instruction, were used by students more frequently out of all the functions carried out by the bundles chosen for this study. The researcher recommended that a corpus-enhanced disciplinary writing course could aid students gain better techniques to use lexical bundles frequently and in the right context.

Biber and Barbieri (2007) studied the use of lexical bundles in written and spoken university registers, comprising the language used inside and outside the classroom setting. The data included written course outlines, office hours conversations and class management conversations, among others. The results revealed that lexical bundles were much more common in non-academic university registers than in the major instructional registers. Biber and Barbieri (2007) found out that, lexical bundles are often used in course outlines than in any other academic genre. This was found to be in contrast with a study by Biber et al. (2004) that had indicated that lexical bundles were more prevalent in oral speeches than in written discourses. They recommended that future studies should look into whether lexical bundles can be taught successfully to students, and if so, what improvements in understanding and fluency of text production would follow from the teaching.

Chen and Baker (2010) also conducted a comparative analysis of the use of lexical bundles in the academic writings of native speakers of English and second language speakers of English, with the former from experts in academic writing, while the latter was writings by

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Chinese learners of English. The study revealed that by conducting a structural and functional analysis of the data corpus, the use of lexical bundles in non-native and native student writings was similar. Native and non-native students' writings both had more verb phrase-based bundles and discourse organizers than native expert writing, which appeared to be an indication of immature writing. Native professional authors, on the other hand, demonstrated a broader range of noun phrase-based bundles and referential markers. A more in-depth qualitative assessment by the researchers stipulated that native student writing had a few qualities that were characteristic of academic writing, such as the regulation of cautious language in native professional writing, or the use of hedges. The researchers added that non-native writing, on the other hand, had a tendency that appeared to be peculiar to second language writing, such as over-generalizing and preferring certain idiomatic idioms and connectors.

 Similarly, Gungor and Uysal (2016) in another comparative study of lexical bundles by scholars who are native and non-native speakers of English in the educational sciences journal articles revealed that, in terms of the structure of lexical bundles, native English scholars used more noun-phrase based and prepositional based structures, known as phrasal structures. Non-native scholars, on the other hand, used more clausal or verb-phrase structures. The functional analysis of their use of lexical bundles revealed that native English speakers typically chose to employ research-oriented bundles that assisted writers in organizing their actual world experiences and activities. Non-native speakers of English, on the other hand, relied on text-oriented bundles that helped them to compare and contrast elements in their writings and to make inferences.

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Hyland and Jiang (2018) explored the changes in the use and frequency of lexical bundles over a time period of fifty years, with 1965, 1985 and 2015 being the selected years for the study. Three corpora of research papers from five journals, in the fields of Applied linguistics, Sociology, Electrical Engineering and Biology, were used to create the data corpus for the study. The researchers randomly selected six publications from each of the five longest-running journals in each field of study. Thus, 30 articles from each discipline from each of the three chosen years constituted the corpus. The study established that the bundles are not fixed in structure and functions, and one of the important factors that contribute to their dynamicity is the written contexts they occur in as well as the academic disciplines they are used in.

Fitriati and Wahyuni (2019) conducted a study into the use of lexical bundles in WhatsApp conversations between native speakers of English and non-native speakers of English. The study explored how the use of lexical bundles between these two speakers enhanced coherence in their conversations. The findings showed that, functionally, the lexical bundles produced by native and non-native English speakers generally conveyed stance between the sender and the receiver, which comprised of epistemic and attitudinal/modality stance functions to show intention, desire, ability, obligation, and directive. The discourse organizing function was also utilized in the conversation, notably to introduce and elaborate on a topic. However, the referential expression type was considered as being rarely used. This could be because the conversation's topic or subject matter did not seem to require numerous lexical elements describing time and place. The pedagogical implication of the study was that a wide range of lexical bundles were used to convey distinct roles in

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communication and should be explicitly taught in schools to enhance the communicative competence of learners of English.

A study by Adipah (2020) on the use of lexical bundles in the writings of public senior high school students in the Accra Metropolis of Ghana revealed that, 3- word bundles were the most used lexical bundles out of all the lexical bundles that were present in the data. Noun phrases were the most used structure, and they totaled 70 bundle types out of the 222 bundles that were in the data. Functional analysis showed that the research- oriented and text-oriented bundles were the most used function, with 38 appearances each in the data. This was due to the diverse nature of the writings that were collected, that is, the writings were gathered from different subjects of study. The study recommended that, further studies should look into the teaching of subject- specific lexical bundles.

Lexical bundles in political speeches have also been explored, albeit very little. For instance, Darweesh and Ali (2017) explored the types and functions of lexical bundles used in some British political speeches. The primary finding of the study was that, in British political discourses, the referential function of lexical bundles had taken precedence over all other functions in texts. It was also discovered that, in a political discourse, the usage of a function such as the referential function is beneficial to speakers and their audiences since it helps connect what is being stated to entities (physical, abstract, or textual). In addition, such functions help highlight specific characteristics as being significant. Stance bundles, on the other hand, were the least used type of lexical bundles in the corpus. The researchers explain that, the little use of stance bundles was an attempt by British politicians to show their decisiveness in what they say, since stance bundles are often used to express a speaker's uncertainty.

Wu (2021) in a study investigated the similarities and differences in the use of lexical bundles of European Parliament interpreters, translators, and Members of the European Parliament. The findings revealed that, 10% of all the structural types of lexical bundles were present in the corpora gathered for the study. Similar structural features of the bundles used throughout the registers of the interpreters, translators and members of the European parliament were also found, with noun phrases and prepositional phrases being the most used types of bundles used, which hinted at the overall purpose of the parliamentary discourse, which was to provide information. The percentage of verb phrases was the highest in the interpreted register, accounting for 33% of all the bundles used in the corpus, while the spoken register accounted for 20% of the bundles found in the corpus. This indicated that the interpreted register was the most oral out of the three registers in the corpus. The spoken register, on the other hand, was the least oral, which the researcher explains as, the spoken corpus was largely made up of speeches that were read out in parliament, so they were not real-time utterances that were made by members of parliament. Hence, the functional analysis of the lexical bundles showed that the spoken and translated registers, which were the registers of members of the European Parliament and translators respectively, were more similar, with subject-specific bundles predominating. This showed that the purpose of providing information to the electorates was the most important responsibility of such discourses. The interpreted register, which was the register of the interpreters, however, contained stance bundles, referential bundles and subject-specific bundles, which also revealed that the interpreters used these bundles to provide information during parliament proceedings and also to communicate with other members of parliament.

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The study recommended that other linguistic features of parliamentary discourses should be interrogated.

It is evident that numerous studies have established the structure and functions of lexical bundles in written academic texts as ranging from fields of study such as Applied Linguistics and Biology in Hyland and Jiang (2018), History in Cortes (2006), Educational Sciences in Gungor and Uysal (2016), just to name a few. The use of lexical bundles has also been explored in texts of native and non-native speakers of English, as well as texts of experienced and novice writers, as seen in Chen and Baker (2010). Lexical bundles have also been investigated in conversations and in classroom interactions, like in Biber and Barbieri (2007) and in WhatsApp conversations, in Fitriati and Wahyuni (2019). In Ghana, Adipah (2020) has examined the use of lexical bundles in the writings of senior high school students. Studies have also established the frequency, structure and functions of lexical bundles in British political discourses, as seen in Darweesh and Ali (2017) and in European parliamentary discourses, in Wu (2021). However, few studies have investigated the types, structure and communicative functions of lexical bundles in Ghanaian political texts, specifically manifestoes. This is a gap in literature that needs to be given the needed scholarly attention. Therefore, this study seeks to fill this research gap by investigating the lexical bundles, their structures and communicative functions used in Ghanaian political manifestoes.

1.3 Research Objectives

The study is guided by the following objectives.

1. To identify the lexical bundles used in selected manifestoes of the NPP and the NDC.

2. To examine the structure of the lexical bundles used in the selected manifestoes of the NPP and NDC.

3. To explore the communicative functions of the lexical bundles used in the selected manifestoes of the NPP and NDC.

1.4 Research Questions

1. What are the lexical bundles used in the selected manifestoes of the NPP and NDC?

2. What are the structures of the lexical bundles used in the selected manifestoes of the NPP and NDC?

3. What are the communicative functions of the lexical bundles used in the selected manifestoes of the NPP and the NDC?

1.5 Significance of the study

Due to few existing studies on the use of lexical bundles in Ghanaian political manifestoes, the current study is of importance to political parties and to researchers. This study serves as an addition to knowledge on lexical bundles and their use in political discourses, specifically in Ghanaian political manifestoes. Political parties gain insight into the use of lexical bundles in the writing of their manifestoes with regards to how lexical bundles function in these manifestoes and the manner in which they contribute to the uniqueness of each manifesto. Additionally, the findings of this study contribute to the extension of structural and functional taxonomies of lexical bundles, as the data gathered for the study affirms the structures and functions of lexical bundles in written texts as proposed by different authorities in earlier studies. The findings and recommendations from this study also serve as a reference guide for scholars who want to advance research into lexical

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bundles and their use in Ghanaian political discourses in an effort to extend knowledge in the field.

1.6 Scope of the study

The study focuses on examining the structure and functions of lexical bundles in the manifestoes of the NPP and NDC in the 2020 and 2012 elections of Ghana respectively. Lexical bundles have been largely described as the building blocks of discourse which help to shape and give structure to texts and conversations, according to Hyland (2008). For any kind of text, lexical bundles create a connection in ideas, point to specific traits of a person or an idea, among others. They have not received much attention especially in political language, so this study seeks to shed some light on their use in political language, specifically in manifestoes.

Manifestoes are as important as the elections themselves, because the success or otherwise of a political party depends on the plans and goals they intend to implement once they come into power. Manifestoes represent the core of a political party's ideas and ideologies, and electorates regard these documents with utter importance. Language is critical in forwarding a political party's aspiration and ideologies to their electorates; hence it is necessary that linguistic analysis be carried out on these documents to investigate how devices such as lexical bundles help in structuring these texts.

The New Patriotic Party (NPP) and the National Democratic Congress (NDC) were selected for this study because they are the political parties that have dominated the political space of Ghana since 1992 under the fourth republic. The 2020 and 2012 election years were also selected for the study because, the manifestoes used by the NPP and the NDC during these election years respectively led them to gain political power for a second term of office. This

makes the manifestoes used in those election years an important factor in the winning of political power for the second time for these political parties. Thus, this study seeks to interrogate how the use of lexical bundles in manifestoes helps political parties to communicate their political ambitions to their electorates as well as to examine the implications of such on political communication.

1.7 Organization of the study

This study comprises of five chapters. The chapter one is the introductory chapter and it consists of the background of the study, objectives, research questions, significance of the study, scope of the study and organization of the study. The chapter two presents the literature review section of the study. Literature on lexical bundles in academic and non-academic texts, as well as lexical bundles in spoken and written discourses are reviewed with foci on their methodologies and findings. Literature on political language and manifestoes is also presented. In this chapter, the theoretical framework underpinning the study is also discussed, and its significance to the study is justified. The chapter three, which is the methodology section describes the process by which data for the study is collected and analyzed and it includes the research approach and design, sampling technique and sample, data collection instrument, data analysis method and the data analysis process. The chapter four provides findings and analysis of the data collected. The findings from the data are analyzed in line with the research objectives and questions for the study, as well as the theories that underpin the study. The chapter five gives a summary and a conclusion to the study, where recommendations are made by the researcher based on the conclusion drawn from the study. Possible recommendations for future studies are also made.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter provides in-dept reviews, evaluations and critical analysis of literature that is essential to the topic under study. It emphasizes literature that touches on lexical bundles as expounded by numerous authorities, the structure and functions of lexical bundles in spoken and written academic and non- academic texts, as well as language that is used in political discourses, with attention given to lexical bundles. Emphasis is also placed on manifestoes and the language that is used in them, as well as political parties in Ghana. The chapter also explicates structural taxonomy of lexical bundles and functional taxonomy of lexical bundles as the theoretical frameworks that underpin the study, and their relevance to the study.
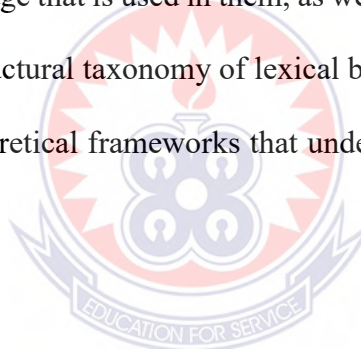
2.1 Lexical Bundles

According to Biber et al. (2004), a study by Biber et al (1999) first named recurrent word sequences lexical bundles, after previous studies like Altenberg (1998) referred to these word sequences as *'recurrent word sequences'*. The study by Biber et al. (1999) compared the most frequent multi-word units in spoken and written forms using a corpus-based research methodology. The study was distinctive in the sense that, it adopted a register perspective, it specifically compared spoken and written registers which were conversation and academic prose and it was based on empirical analysis of a large corpora which consisted of 5 million words for each register. It also relied solely on frequency criteria to

identify multi-word units, and concentrated on longer multi-word units of four, five and six-words than those used in most previous studies.

Lexical bundles have, since the study by Biber et al. (1999), been defined by numerous authors. Biber et al (2004) define lexical bundles as the most commonly occurring word sequences in a register. Cortes (2006) also defines lexical bundles as two or three-word combinations which are obtained through scientific methods in a corpus of natural language. In other words, lexical bundles are extracted from either spoken or written texts with some objectivity attached to the selection process. Cortes (2006) adds that, a computer programme or software is often used to identify groups of three or more-word combinations that occur frequently in texts. Bal (2010) also defines lexical bundles as fixed groups of words that appear together in a language and are frequently employed in a certain register, or in many variations of the language that are characterized by a particular circumstance. It means that, the use of lexical bundles is unique to specific genres of language. For instance, the lexical bundles that would typically be used in conversation may not be found in academic writings, as corroborated by Biber et al. (2004) who, in their comparative study of the use of lexical bundles in classroom teaching and textbooks to conversations and academic prose, revealed that lexical bundles that were used in academic prose were mainly consisted of noun phrase expressions, as in the case of *"the idea of the"* or word sequences that linked two prepositional phrases, such as *"as a result of"*, while most of the lexical bundles that were used in conversation consisted of verb phrases, extended verb phrase fragments, like in the case of *"have a look at"* and question fragments, such as *"can I have a"*. Classroom teaching made use of lexical bundles that were constituted by noun phrases and prepositional phrases, because this register usually relied on bundles that are in used in

conversations and ones that are used in written texts. Barbieri (2017) describes lexical bundles as units of discourse structure that can disclose information about the specific linguistic qualities and communication functions that shape registers. Thus, lexical bundles reveal the particular functions of language that is used in a given register. For instance, in a study by Panthong and Poonpon (2020) on the functional analysis of lexical bundles in Doctor Talks in the Medical television series "Grey's Anatomy", it was realized that stance bundles, which are typically used to express a speaker's knowledge and attitudes regarding certain topics, were the most used bundles in the Doctor Talks corpus, amassing 68.32% of all the bundles that were identified in the corpus. The reason why stance bundles were the most used in this register may be because doctors and medical practitioners usually needed to express what they knew about a certain condition or illness to their colleagues, patients and families of patients. Hence, this register employed stance bundles the most out of all the other lexical bundles that were identified in the corpus. A lexical bundle, according to Fitriati and Wahyuni (2018) is described as a recurrent group of three or more words that serves as a cohesive device in corpus-based spoken or written speech. By describing lexical bundles as cohesive devices, the researchers agree with the proposition of Biber et al. (1999) who refer to lexical bundles as the building blocks of discourse. In other words, lexical bundles help in developing discourses of any kind, because they help to link different ideas in a text, and guide the discourse in progressing from one point to another. Xu and Wijitsopon (2023) also agree to the assertion of Biber et al. (1999) by explaining that lexical bundles are associated with the composition, arrangement, and communicative purposes of texts. Lexical bundles, thus, are an important component of discourses.

Lorenna et al. (2020) also define lexical bundles as collections of word forms that frequently appear together in natural speech. It means that, unlike other linguistic devices such as phrasal verbs, the structure of a lexical bundle cannot be broken down to accommodate any other language structure. For instance, the phrasal verb *"pull out"* can be used as a complete unit, as seen in *"Kwame was asked to pull out the book from the stack"* or be broken down to allow other elements to be put in between, like *"Kwame was asked to pull the book out of the stack"*. The structures that make up lexical bundles are such that, the sequence of words follow each other; they occur together as a single unit. An attempt to break the word sequence into parts would mean that the producer of a text is not a proficient user of a language, as mentioned by Hyland (2008) who states that knowledge of the structure and functions of lexical bundles show a speaker or a writer's communicative competency of the English Language.

Barbieri (2017) asserts that lexical bundles are discourse-building units that serve fundamental communicative purposes and provide structures for the expression of additional information in longer phrases or clauses that follow. Fitriati and Wahyuni (2018) also state that lexical bundles facilitate communication between speakers in a natural environment. The researchers add that, for a speaker to sound fluent and achieve proficiency similar to a native speaker, language users usually make use of lexical bundles in their speeches and writings. In other words, lexical bundles help to build a conversation, often serving different functions pertaining to how they are being used in a spoken or written text. A speaker or writer who is aware of the linguistic devices present in a language has the knowledge to employ them in order to make their texts

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Most studies define lexical bundles based on their frequency, structure and functions in a text. A summation of how lexical bundles have been defined by different researchers is that, a lexical bundle is a fixed three to five-word sequence that occurs frequently in a variety of texts written by different authors and serve a particular communicative function in a text.

2.2 Structure of Lexical Bundles

Biber et al. (1999) and Biber et al. (2004) developed a framework to classify lexical bundles based on the grammatical structures that are present in the bundles. The structures are broadly in three categories, which are noun phrases, verb phrases and prepositional phrases (Biber et al., 1999). Overtime, scholars have applied these structural frameworks in their studies and have gradually established that the use of these structures differ from discipline to discipline.

Barbieri (2017) conducted a study into the use of lexical bundles in American blogs. The study made use of a 2.2-million-word corpus gathered from American blogs at the turn of the 21st century. 10 blogs gathered from each of the 50 states of the United States of America, totaling 500 personal and thematic blogs, were selected for the study and the researcher employed an index for the selection process known as globeofblogs.com. The average length of the blogs was 4,500 words, with the longest blog containing 9, 864 words and the shortest, 1, 099 words. Fuster-Marquez's (2014) classification of lexical bundles according to their structures was used to analyze the structure of the lexical bundles. The study also conceptualized a lexical bundle by identifying 4-word bundles that had reached a cut off frequency of 10 times per a million words and appeared in 5 different texts of the corpus. Structural analysis revealed that, according to Furster-Marquez (2014)

classification of structures of lexical bundles, out of the 460 different four- word bundles found in the corpus, verb phrases were the most used bundles in the corpus, followed by an equal frequency of use of noun phrases and prepositional phrases. Verb phrases accounted for 64% of the bundles present in the corpus, while noun phrases and prepositional phrases each accounted for 18% of the bundles found in the corpus.

Gezegin-Bal (2019) investigated the extent to which Turkish speakers of English produce lexical bundles in their writings. For their study, a corpus of 200 published research articles in six academic disciplines was gathered. The academic disciplines were Economics, Education, History, Medicine, Psychology and Sociology. The corpus consisted of 1 million words, and a computer software was used to analyze each text to collect the lexical bundles that were used in each text. The structural taxonomy of lexical bundles according to Biber et al. (1999) was used to analyze the data. The criteria for selecting a word sequence as a lexical bundle was that the word sequence should have occurred 20 times per a million words in the corpus, it should have appeared in 3 to 5 different texts that constitute the corpus, and the length of the sequence should be 4 or 5 words. The findings of the study revealed that, 94 4-word bundles and 22 5-word bundles were found in the corpus. However, the analysis focused on 4-word bundles since they had a higher frequency in the corpus. Structural analysis showed that majority of the bundles that were found in the corpus were made up of prepositional phrases, such as "*on the other hand*" and "*at the end of*", followed by noun phrases, for example, "*the fact that the*" and "*the importance of the*", which accounted for 46 and 31 bundles respectively. These findings corresponded to those of Conrad and Biber (2004), who in their study also found that about 60% of lexical bundles

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that were used in academic proses were mainly made up of prepositional phrases and noun phrases.

Conrad and Biber (2005) sought to compare the frequency and use of lexical bundles in English conversations and academic proses. The data used for the study was obtained from an already existing corpus, which was the Longman Spoken and Written English Discourse. The analysis of the study only covered only the British English component of the conversation sub-corpus. Conversations over a week from 500 speakers who were resident in the UK were recorded and used for the analysis. The academic prose sub-corpus contained students' textbooks and books that were written for audiences who had technical knowledge of the subject matter of the books. Computer software were used to identify the 3-word and 4-word bundles in the corpus. The study adopted the structural taxonomy of lexical bundles as propounded by Biber et al. (1999). The cut off frequency proposed by the researchers were 3- and 4-word sequences that have appeared in 5 different texts in the corpus and have occurred 40 times per a million words. The analysis revealed that, 4,000 lexical bundles were found in the conversation sub-corpus while 3,000 bundles were found in the academic prose sub-corpus. The structures of the lexical bundles in the conversation sub-corpus were mostly parts of declarative clauses or questions, because conversations, according to Conrad and Biber (2005), tend to have more verbs, personal pronouns and questions. 90% of the bundles contained verb phrases, while in the academic prose, the bundles contained more noun phrases and prepositional phrases.

Chen and Baker (2010) also conducted a comparative study on the use of lexical bundles in the academic writings of native and non-native speakers of English. The study used three different corpora for the study. The first corpus, which would be referred to as the L_2 corpus,

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consisted of English writings from English students who were native Chinese speakers. The second corpus was from academic writings from native speakers of English, while the third corpus was made up of students' writings from native English speakers. The L1 academic writing corpus was retrieved from the academic prose section of the FLOB-J corpus and the students' writings of both native and non-native speakers of English were obtained from the British Academic Written English (BAWE) corpus. The L2 students' writing was named BAWE-CH and the L1 students writing was named BAWE-EN. The study employed both qualitative and quantitative methods for the study. The study was underpinned by the structural taxonomy of lexical bundles as propounded by Biber et al. (1999). Their study also adopted the cut-off frequency of 4-word sequences who have been used in 3 different texts in the corpus and have occurred 25 times per a million words to conceptualize what they refer to as a lexical bundle. Structural analysis of the data showed that the structural categories that were found in all three corpora were noun phrases, verb phrases and prepositional phrases. The corpora were analyzed based on two sub-categories of noun phrases, which are 'noun phrases with *of*' fragments and 'noun phrases without *of*' fragments, such as 'the extent to which', the ways in which', among others. It was realized that the noun phrase bundles differed across all three corpora. The L2 students' writing corpus did not have bundles with the 'noun phrases without *of*' structures. The corpus also had a lower distribution of noun phrase bundles as compared to the other corpora. The bundles that had the noun phrases without 'of' structures in the FLOB-J corpus were mostly used by students who were native speakers of English. The noun phrase with of and the prepositional phrase with of structures were also sub-divided into two, which were 'the + Noun+ of +the /a' and 'in the + Noun + of'. The FLOB-J corpus, which

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contained the expert writings, contained more lexical bundles that were presented in these structures. Neither of the students' writing corpora had bundles that incorporated these frames. Both students' writing corpora, however, had more verb phrase structures than the expert writing corpus. One of the most common frames that was used in the students' writing corpora was 'in order to + verb'. The L2 students' writing frequent used verbs like *achieve, avoid, be, maintain, make* and *understand*, while the L1 students' writing corpus frequently made use of verbs such as *make* and *minimize*.

Dastjerdi and Rafiee (2011) explored the frequency of occurrence and distribution of functional and structural types of lexical bundles and their likely relations as used in Iranian newspapers. The study also aimed at helping second language learners who use journalistic discourses as a means of improving their language production. The corpus for the study consisted of newspapers from the Iranian Daily Newspaper dated from February 1 to September 10, 2009, within the range of issue number 3331 to issue number 3495. Six sections of the newspaper, which were named National, Domestic Economy, Culture and Science, Middle East, World and Art were selected and used to develop the corpus for the study because they contained more words than the other sections of the newspaper. A software known as AntConc was used to identify the lexical bundles in the corpus. The study did not adopt any existing structural taxonomy to analyze the structures of the lexical bundles in the study. The study also adopted the cut off frequency of 4- word sequences that have appeared in five different texts in the corpus and have occurred 10 times per a million words to establish a lexical bundle. The findings of the study showed that, a large number of bundles with 'Noun phrase with of' structures, such as '*the head of the', 'one of the best'*, *'other parts of the'* were found, and they had the largest frequency in the corpus.

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Noun phrases with post-nominal clause fragments such as '*the next five years', 'the fact that the'*, among others, and noun phrases with prepositional phrase fragments like '*the first time in', 'the first time since'* were not frequently used in the corpus. Prepositional phrases embedded with 'of' phrase were also found in the corpus, with examples such as '*off the coast of'* and *'with the aim of'*. Other prepositional phrases were also used in the corpus, with examples such as '*in the near future'* and '*at the same time*'. Lexical bundles that had verb phrases in their structures were also found in the corpus, although they did not have a high frequency of use. One of the frames that were present in the corpus was 'anticipatory it + verb phrase', with examples such as '*it is expected to'* and *'it seems that the'*. Another frame was 'passive verb + prepositional phrase' in the examples of '*was quoted as saying'* and '*took part in the'*. Another frame that was used in the corpus was 'be + noun phrase' such as '*will be the first'* and '*is part of the'*. 'Be + adjectival phrase' was another frame that was used, with examples such as '*is the most important'* and '*is in charge of'*. It was also realized from the data that, lexical bundles that incorporated clause fragments were used in the corpus. Some of the frames that were used were 'verb phrase + 'that' clause fragment' as seen in the example '*he added that the'*, 'that clause' in an example like '*that there is a'*, 'predictive adjective + 'to' clause fragment' in examples such as '*will be able to'* and '*is likely to be'* and 'passive verb phrase + 'to' clause' as seen in '*is said to be'* and '*is expected to be'*. Another frame that was used was the 'to- clause', for example, in *'to be able to'* and *'to take part in'*. Other expressions that did not fit into the aforementioned categories were also found in the corpus, with examples like *'as well as in', 'as soon as possible'* and *'has not yet been'*

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Heng et al. (2014) investigated the frequency and structures of lexical bundles in a corpus of group discussions of undergraduate university students who were proficient non-native speakers of English. The corpus was developed from twenty group discussions that were centered on different topics such as 'How to control the pollution' and 'How to promote thinking skills', among others. Participants of the study were undergraduate students from a university in Malaysia who were enrolled into English proficiency courses. 90 audio files of a reasonable degree of proficiency in English, ranging from a length of 20- 25 minutes were collected from the sampled twenty group discussions. AntConc, which is a software that is used to identify lexical bundles in a corpus was used to identify the lexical bundles. The corpus, after the audio files were transcribed, contained 53, 240 words. The study was hinged on the structural taxonomy of lexical bundles proposed by Biber et al. (2004). The study also adopted a cut off frequency of 3 and 4- word sequences who appear in 20% of texts in a corpus to qualify a word sequence as a lexical bundle. A total of 72 bundles were found in the corpus, which were made up of 34 3-word bundles, 29 4-word bundles and 9 5-word bundles. Heng et al. (2014) realized that 3 and 4-word bundles were used more by the students (3-word bundles were used 341 times in the corpus, 4-word bundles were used 328 times in the corpus and 5-word bundles were used 23 times in the corpus). Most of the bundles that students used were more phrasal than clausal. They contained either noun phrases, verb phrases or prepositional phrases. These phrasal bundles were the most used in the corpus, accounting for 94% of the bundles used by the students in the corpus. Dependent clause fragments accounted for 6% of the bundles that were present in the corpus. Verb phrase bundles were used slightly more than the other phrasal bundles. Verb phrase bundles had 32 different variations of structures while noun phrase and prepositional

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phrase bundles, put together, had 27 different structures. Students used verb phrase bundles to express their opinions, as seen in '*I think that the*', or to show their agreement or disagreement, as seen in '*I agree (disagree) with you*', to ask 'wh-'questions, as seen in '*what do you think*' and to emphasize a topic, as seen in '*is based on the*'

Hyland (2008) focused on the forms, structure and functions of 4-word lexical bundles in a 3.5 million corpus of research articles, doctoral dissertations and Masters' theses in four different disciplines. The corpus gathered for the study consisted of three electronic corpora of written texts comprising of research articles, PhD dissertations and Masters' theses from the fields of Electrical Engineering, Microbiology, Business studies and Applied Linguistics. The research articles sub- corpus consisted of 120 articles which were made up of 30 articles from the leading journals of each discipline. The PhD corpus also contained English writings from Cantonese L1 speakers and consisted of 20 texts from each discipline, making 80 texts for the sub- corpus. The Masters' theses sub- corpus, just like the PhD corpus, contained English writings from Cantonese L1 speakers and consisted of 20 texts from each discipline. The criteria that were used to establish a word sequence as a lexical bundle were that the sequence had to be contain 4 words, the sequence had to be used in 10% of texts in the corpus and they should have occurred 20 times per a million words. The study adopted the structural taxonomy of lexical bundles according to Biber et al. (1999). The analysis revealed that, 240 4-word bundles were found in the corpus. Electrical engineering has the most bundles across all three sub-corpora, with 213 appearances. Microbiology had the least number of bundles in the entire corpus, with 131 appearances. Hyland (2008) submits that Electrical Engineering had the most bundles because the discipline depends on visual and numerical representation. Microbiology also

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had the least number of bundles because, according to Hyland (2008), the discipline is mainly concerned with the naming and coding of entities or organisms, as opposed to the other disciplines, thus the use of bundles is minimal. Among the structures of lexical bundles that were used in the corpus, the most dominant structure used was 'noun phrase + 'of' fragment' and 24.4% of the bundles used in the corpus had this structure. On the other hand, the structure with the least usage was 'anticipatory 'it'' and this structure accounted for 2.5% of the bundles used in the corpus.

Islami et al. (2019) explored the structures and functions, as well as the relation between the structural and functional types of lexical bundles in literature reviews of the final projects of undergraduate students and how the use of lexical bundles helps in achieving the communicative purpose of their texts. The researchers collected 20 literature reviews of final projects of undergraduate students that were randomly sampled from the library of Language and Art department of Universitas Negeri Semarang (UNNES) in Indonesia. The lexical bundles were collected manually from the corpus by underlining all the bundles that were used in the corpus. The researchers adopted a cut off frequency of 4- word sequences that were used in 3 to 5 different texts in the corpus and had occurred 5 times per a million words to conceptualize their definition of a lexical bundle. The study was guided by the structural taxonomy of lexical bundles according to Biber et al. (1999. The findings revealed that, 26 lexical bundles were found in the 99, 008- word corpus that was used for the study. 9 different structural forms were found in the corpus, and these forms and their examples are presented in a table below.

Table 2: Structures of lexical bundles in Islami et al. (2019)

Structural form	Example
1. noun phrase with 'of' fragment	The result of the
2. verb/ adjective + 'to' clause fragment	Can be used to/ to be able to
3. Anticipatory 'it' + verb/adjectival phrase	It can be said/ it can be concluded
4. Passive verb + prepositional phrase	Is based on the
5. Other prepositional phrase fragment	On the other hand
6. Prepositional phrase with embedded 'of' fragment	In the form of
7. Copula 'be' + noun/adjectival phrase	Is one of the
8. Noun phrase/ pronoun + be (…)	There are so many
9. Other expressions	As well as the

The structural type that was used the most was 'noun phrase with 'of' fragment', which can be seen in bundles such as '*the purpose of the'*, '*the aim of the'*, among others. These findings also agree with findings of different researchers such as Hyland (2008) about noun phrases being typically used in academic writing.

Jalali and Moini (2014) investigated the use of 4- word lexical bundles in the introduction section of published research articles in the field of Medicine. 790 articles were selected from 33 subject areas in Medicine to develop the corpus of 407, 701 words which the researchers called the Corpus of Introduction Section of Medical Research articles. Journals that had publications in all 33 subject areas during the period 2009 to 2011 were used to develop the corpus. In each year of the selected time frame, two issues of each volume of

the journals were randomly selected. Thus, 24 articles from each of the 33 subject areas were selected, with each article averagely containing 3,000 words. The researchers also made use of different computer software to identify the lexical bundles in the corpus. The study was grounded in the structural taxonomy of lexical bundles as propounded by Biber et al. (1999). The study also adopted a cut off frequency of 4- word sequences that had appeared in 5 different texts in the corpus and had occurred 20 times per a million words to conceptualize their definition of a lexical bundle. Findings of the study showed that, 161 lexical bundles were found in the corpus, and 46.64% were phrasal bundles, while 32.58% were clausal bundles. In the phrasal bundles, noun phrases with examples like '*in the management of*' and '*in the pathogenesis of*' were the most used in the corpus, accounting for 29.42% of all the bundles used in the corpus, while prepositional phrases with examples such as '*the aim of the*' and '*aim of the present*' formed 17.22% of the phrasal bundles used in the corpus. Clausal bundles in the corpus were made up of structures such as 'anticipatory 'it' + verb/adjectival phrase', 'passive verb + prepositional phrase', 'copula 'be' + noun/ adjectival phrase', 'verb/ adjective + 'that' clause fragment' and 'verb/ adjective + 'to' clause fragment'. The most clausal bundle structure that was used was 'verb/ adjective + 'to' clause fragment with examples such as '*was to evaluate the', 'have been found to'*, among others. The findings of the study agree with the findings of Hyland (2008) who found that phrasal bundles are more frequently used than clausal bundles in research articles.

Lee (2020) explored the structures and functions of lexical bundles in Linguistics textbooks used in Korean tertiary institutions in an attempt to help students of Linguistics enhance their reading proficiencies. The Corpus of Linguistics Textbooks, which is an already

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existing corpus with a total of 1. 14 million words and which contains 5 major linguistics textbooks was used for the study. A computer software known as Wordsmith 7.0 was used to generate the 3 and 4- word bundles in the corpus. After that, a manual categorization was done using methods that were used by Chen and Baker (2010), Hsu (2015) and Lee and Kim (2017). These methods considered the semantic and syntactic properties that a lexical bundle should have. They also took out word sequences that contained proper nouns in them. Lexical bundles that also overlapped with each other were counted as one. For instance, *'it is important to note'* and *'important to note that'* were merged into '*be important to note that'* and counted as one. Lexical bundles that were closely related in terms of meaning or structure were also combined into one lexical bundle. For instance, *'a discussion of'* and *'the discussion of'* were combined into *'the/a discussion of'* to prevent repetition. The structural taxonomy of lexical bundles according to Biber et al. (1999) was used to analyze the structure of the lexical bundles in the corpus. The study also adopted the cut-off frequency of 3 and 4- word sequences who have appeared in 5 different texts in the corpus and have occurred 20 times per a million words to define their concept of a lexical bundle. The findings of the study showed that 274 3 and 4- word bundles were present in the corpus. The findings also showed that 8 different structures were found in the corpus. The structures and their examples are tabulated below.

Table 3: Structures of lexical bundles in Lee (2020)

Structures	Examples
1. Noun phrase + post modifier fragment	A combination of
2. preposition + noun phrase fragment	As a result
3. Copula 'be' + noun/ adjectival phrase	Be one of the
4. verb phrase + active verb	Seem to be
5. Anticipatory 'it' + verb/ adjectival phrase	It is clear
6. passive verb + prepositional phrase fragment	Be added to
7. Verb/ adjective + 'to' clause fragment	Be likely to
8. Other expressions	It may/ may not

Noun phrase and prepositional phrase bundles were the most used bundles in the corpus, with noun phrases having 54% of the lexical bundles in the corpus and prepositional phrases having 25.2% of the bundles in the corpus. These finding corroborated with findings in other literature such as Biber et al. (2004) which stated that professional academic writing contain more noun phrases and prepositional phrases than any other structure.

Lorenna et al. (2020) also compared the use of lexical bundles in the conversations of native and non-native English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers. The study sought to analyze non-native and native English teachers' talk in order to explain the use of structural and functional types of lexical bundles in non-native and native English teachers' talk, the similarities and differences of lexical bundles used in the talk as well as the relation between

structural and functional types of lexical bundles used in the talk. The teachers' conversations during the teaching and learning process were recorded in order to collect the data for the study. Four meetings were video recorded by the researcher, two of which took place in classrooms taught by native English speakers and the other two in those of non-native speakers. The information from the video recordings was subsequently transcribed into written text, allowing for a clear understanding of the utterances of the teachers. The researchers identified the lexical bundles present in the utterances after transcribing the data. The researchers then organized and analyzed the data in tables that included components of the structural and functional categories of lexical bundles. The study was hinged on the structural taxonomy of lexical bundles as propounded by Biber et al. (2004). The study did not establish criteria for their identification of a lexical bundle. Findings from the study revealed that 233 bundles were used in the teachers' utterances. While native English speakers a total of 110 bundles in their conversations, non-native English speakers employed 139 bundles. It was discovered that native and non-native English teachers both primarily used lexical bundles that included verb phrase fragments in their speech. Only a small percentage of lexical bundles contained prepositional phrase fragments, dependent clauses, or noun phrases. The findings of the study showed that both native and non-native English teachers spoke with more verb phrase fragments. Non-native English- speaking teachers frequently used verb phrases that incorporated the 2nd person pronoun+ verb phrase fragments such as 'you have to', 'you can go', and 'you can talk'. Additionally, native English-speaking teachers tended to use verb phrases in their interactions. In their discourses, they mainly used WH-question fragments such 'how do you think', 'who wants to', 'who is next', among others. In this instance, native English-

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speaking teachers utilized the bundles 'who wants to' and 'who is next' to ask for the next person and 'how do you think' to ask for opinions from other participants of the conversation.

Nasrabady et al. (2020) examined the structural and functional properties of lexical bundles used in published papers in the field of applied linguistics. The goal of this study was to identify all lexical bundles and record all potential structural and functional properties they exhibit in a large number of academic papers published in the discipline through various publications since 2008. The corpus used for the study contained 16 million words gathered from a number of research publications in the Applied Linguistics discipline. The corpus, which was named the Applied Linguistics Corpus (ALC) consisted of 1738 research publications gathered from five journals which are Applied Linguistics, Modern Language Journal, Studies of Second Language Acquisition, System, and TESOL Quarterly, between 2009 and 2018. In this study, the cut-off points for 3-, 4-, 5-, and 6-word lexical bundles were 50, 30, 15, and 10 times per million words, respectively. Different frequency cut-off criteria were chosen by the researchers because lexical bundles lose frequency when they contain more words. To be considered a lexical bundle, any word combination was required to appear at least ten percent of the time in the ALC corpus. Regardless of their frequency, 1,045 distinct lexical bundles were found in the ALC. *'As well as', 'on the other hand', 'at the end of the',* and *'it is significant to note that'* were the most typical 3-, 4-, 5-, and 6-word lexical bundles, respectively. The 1,045 lexical bundles that were present in the corpus totaled 1,652,275 words, or about 10% of the 16 million words in the ALC. This emphasizes the fact that lexical bundles of various lengths play a significant role in the discourse of applied linguistics academic writing. The structural classification proposed by

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Biber et al. (2004) was used to explain the structural analysis of lexical bundles produced from the corpus. Apart from the structural categories proposed by Biber et al. (2004) that were adopted for the study, some other structures were identified in the corpus, such as those containing adjectival phrases (*is beyond the scope of this*), adverbials (*depending on the*), adverb/adjective clauses (*who did not*), be + adjective/adverb + to (*be able to*), infinitive phrases (*to address the*) and those that start with a conjunction (*but also to*). The structural differences in the use of lexical bundles by native and non-native English-speaking teachers was that, the use of "1st/2nd person pronoun + VP fragment" was more prevalent among non-native English speakers, but "WH-questions fragments" were more prevalent among native English speakers. While native English speakers used more "WH-questions fragments" such as '*who wants to', 'who is next', 'what is this'*, and '*what do you think'*, non-native English speakers used a high proportion of the pronoun "you", with examples like '*you have to', 'you're going to', 'you can do',* among others.

Singh and Hong (2019) analyzed the structural and functional features of lexical bundles in a corpus of selected children's fiction. 30 popular children's fiction books written by 11 British and American writers were used to build the corpus of the study, which has 1.7 million-words in total. In order to analyze the structural patterns of lexical bundles in the corpus, the study modified the structural taxonomy propounded by Biber et al. (2004). WordSmith Tools Version 6.0, which is a corpus analysis program, was utilized to analyze the data and produce the relevant information. To find the significant word pairings, manual checking was then done to identify the meaningful word combinations that had been extracted from the corpus by the software. The criteria that were used by the researchers for identifying a lexical bundle were that a word sequence should contain 4 words with a

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frequency of 20 times per a million words, occurring in 5 texts written by different authors. 74 different lexical bundle types were found, examined, and categorized based on their structural and functional characteristics. The lexical bundles in the study were divided into 4 major structural types, which were Noun Phrases (NP) like '*the edge of the*', Verb Phrases (VP) like '*came out of the*', Prepositional Phrases (PP) like '*in the middle of*', and Other Structures. Prepositional phrases were the most common type of bundles in the corpus. These prepositional phrases were then divided into two groups: other prepositional phrases and prepositional phrases with of 'PP + NP fragment including *of*' like '*at the end of*'. Verb phrase phrases, like '*go back to the*' made up the second-highest number of lexical bundles. Noun phrase expressions had the third-highest number of lexical bundles in the structural classification. These noun phrase expressions were then divided into two sub-categories: other noun phrase expressions and noun phrase with *of* phrase fragment. '*The back of the*' is a good example of a noun phrase.

2.3 Communicative Functions of Lexical Bundles

In analyzing the communicative functions of lexical bundles, researchers resort to either one of two frameworks. One of them is the classification propounded by Biber et al. (2004) which established that lexical bundles typically played either one of the following communicative roles: expressing stance, organizing discourse or to make referential statements. The other is Hyland (2008), who also propounded that, lexical bundles served three different roles in texts, which were participant oriented, research oriented and text oriented. Hyland's (2008) taxonomy catered specifically for academic writings.

Barbieri (2017), in analyzing the lexical bundles found in American blogs, with the functional taxonomy of lexical bundles as propounded by Biber et al. (2004) found out that,

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the lexical bundles in the corpus were functionally classified into the three categories suggested by Biber et al (2004), which are referential expressions, stance bundles and discourse organizers. Barbieri (2017) introduced another category for bundles that did not fit into the aforementioned categories. These bundles were mostly verb phrase-based bundles including a dependent clause fragment, such as "*to take care of*", "*to get out of*", verb phrases which serve a narrative function like "*I was a kid*" and "*I used to be*", and conversational, formulaic noun phrases "*a lot of fun*". The main function of these set of bundles were narratives, hence the researcher called them narrative expressions. Stance bundles accounted for 45% of the bundles used in the corpus, which made them the most used lexical bundles in the corpus. The study also found out that, contrary to the incomplete characteristic of stance bundles, the ones that were found in blog writing seemed to be complete units. Some examples that were found in the corpus include "I just want to", "I don't know why", "let me tell you", among others. This, also is suggestive of the subjective nature of blog writing. The complete structures of the stance bundles also contributed to the conversational feature of the language that is typically used in blog writing (Barbieri, 2017).

Referential bundles represented 39% of the total number of bundles present in the corpus. Some referential expressions such as "the rest of the", "for a long time", "one of the most", among others, were typically used to narrate events or experiences in blog writing. Narrative expressions also represented 14% of all the lexical bundles that were used in the corpus. Narrative expressions were more prevalent that discourse organizers, and their structure mostly included verbs in the past tense, which contributed to their narrative functions. Some examples of bundles that fit into the narrative expression category include

"I went to the", "so I decided to", "I used to be". Some narrative expressions also had the tendency to contain phrasal or prepositional verbs like "to come up with", "to check out the", etc. The use of phrasal or prepositional verbs contribute to the informal tone that is characteristic of blog writing. Discourse organizers were the least used functional type of bundles, representing 3% of the bundles used in the corpus. The study also established that, lexical bundles in blog writing were more similar to spoken registers with regards to how they relied on stance bundles, while, at the same time, similar to written academic registers in their use of referential expressions. Aside a functional analysis, another type of analysis known as person reference analysis was done to ascertain whether the lexical bundles included first, second or third person references. The analysis showed that, nearly half of the bundles found in the corpus incorporated person references, irrespective of what the function of the bundles were. Bundles that contained first person pronouns constituted 40% of the bundles in the corpus, while second and third person pronouns constituted 5% and 8% of thee bundles in the corpus respectively.

The study also found that, bundles with first person references typically were stance bundles, bundles with second person pronoun references were usually stance bundles like "if you want to" and referential bundles, such as "for those of you". A few of second person pronoun bundles functioned as discourse organizers, like in the case of "if you have any". The study recommended that the narrative function of lexical bundles that was discovered in the study should be further investigated into. Barbieri (2017) also recommended that further research is needed to better understand the communicative purpose of blogs, their linguistic properties, including the structural and functional characteristics of lexical

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bundles. Another recommendation was that, lexical bundles be compared across blogs that represent varieties of English as used in different parts of the world.

In the study of Gezegin- Bal (2019) that centered on the analysis of lexical bundles in writings of Turkish speakers of English, functional analysis, which was guided by the functional taxonomy of lexical bundles according to Biber et al. (2004) showed that, 75% of the bundles used in the corpus were referential expressions, 15% were discourse organizers and 8% were stance bundles. Gezegin-Bal (2019) added a new subcategory of referential expressions which was referred to as research references with examples such as "the purpose of this", "the aim of this", "to participate in the", among others. The study recommended that, studies that are targeted at raising awareness of lexical bundles to Turkish speakers of English is necessary to help them in their writing. The study also recommended that the use of lexical bundles by beginning and expert Turkish writers of English could also be interrogated.

Conrad and Biber (2005), in their functional analysis of lexical bundles used in conversations and academic proses revealed that, lexical bundles in conversations focused on interaction and conveying personal thoughts and attitudes, as well as to show politeness. Stance bundles were the most used bundles in the conversation sub-corpus. Some examples of bundles that expressed stance in the sub-corpus are 'I don't know how', 'you don't have to', among others. Discourse organizing bundles were fewer in the conversation sub-corpus, and they were used to introduce new topics for a conversation like 'let's have a look' or to clarify some information during a conversation, such as 'what do you mean'. Majority of the lexical bundles used in the academic prose sub-corpus were referential expressions, with examples such as 'in the form of', 'on the basis of', among others.

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Academic prose sub-corpus also made use of impersonal stance bundles. The significant difference between the use of stance bundles in both sub-corpora is, stance bundles are used to convey uncertainty in the conversation sub-corpus. That is, speakers usually use stance bundles to express their opinions, as seen in 'I think that', while in the academic prose sub-corpus stance bundles are used by writers to convey certainty on a topic, with an example like 'the fact that the'. The academic sub-corpus also made more use of discourse organizers than the conversation sub-corpus. The study recommended that, studies on lexical bundles from a psycholinguistics perspective are needed. They also recommended that more studies be conducted on lexical bundles in other spoken and written registers.

The functional analysis of Chen and Baker's (2010) comparative study on how native and non-native speakers of English use lexical bundles in their academic writings showed that, expert writing contained the most bundles that functioned as referential expressions. They accounted for 60% of the bundles that were present in the corpus. In L1 students' writing, referential expressions made up 37% of the bundles in the corpus, while in L2 students' writing, 41% of the bundles functioned as referential expressions. Discourse organizers, on the other hand, were more prevalent in the students' writing corpora than in the expert writing corpus. The L1 students' writing corpus had 39% of the bundles present in the corpus functioning as discourse organizers, while the L2 students' writing corpus had 42% of the bundles present also functioning as discourse organizers. The expert writing corpus had 24% of the lexical bundles present functioning as discourse organizers. Stance bundles were the least used in all three corpora, with expert writing accumulating a percentage of 19% of the bundles present in the corpus, L1 students' writing accumulating 24% of all the bundles in the corpus and L2 students' writing accumulating 16% of the bundles present in

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the corpus. Expert writing, according to the researchers, was the most distinct corpus out of all the corpora used for the study, since it was made up of published writings from experienced writers who had their writings edited, and so could have made structural changes to their texts. The study recommended that lexical bundles should be taught to student writers who are non-native speakers of English in order for them to achieve a more native-like style of academic writing. They also suggested that, the study of lexical bundles should be integrated into English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (EFL) curricula.

Functional analysis of the data collected by Dastjerdi and Rafiee (2011) on the occurrence of lexical bundles in Iranian newspapers indicated that, majority of the bundles in the corpus performed referential functions, mainly to mark time and place features, as seen in examples such as *'for the first time'* and *'in the Persian Gulf'*. Other referential expressions specified particular attributes that were either abstract, such as *'on the basis of'* or concrete, like *'a large number of'*. Bundles that were used for identification or to place focus on entities were also used in the corpus. Some examples are *'is one of the'* and *'one of the best'*. Discourse organizing bundles were also used in the corpus to introduce new topics, compare and contrast ideas or entities, or to frame preceding and anteceding discourses. Some examples are *'according to a report'* and *'on the other hand'*. Stance bundles were also used to convey personal and impersonal attitudes of the writers of the newspaper sections or to express their subjective opinions. Some examples that were present in the corpus include '*it is expected that'* and '*be able to work'*.

The researchers also established a relationship between the structures and functions of lexical bundles. They deduced that, referential expressions and discourse organizers usually

consisted of either noun or prepositional phrases, while stance bundles contained more verb phrases. The study also revealed that, journalists used more referential expressions because their discourses dealt more with reporting events and incidences. The researchers concluded that, journalistic discourses could be regarded as academic writing since the structures and functions that are typically used in both registers are similar. The study recommended that, comparative studies on the use of lexical bundles by Iranian journalists and English journalists should be conducted.

While conducting the functional analysis of the data collected by Heng et al. (2014) on the use of lexical bundles in group discussions of undergraduate students who are proficient non-native speakers of English, the researchers added a new category of functions they named 'discussion- specific bundles', which were, lexical bundles that were used in the group discussion register. Referential bundles were the most used and were realized in more than half of the bundles used in the corpus. They generally functioned as identifying entities, like in *'is one of the'*, specifying attributes like in *'a little bit of'* and making references to specific times, like in *'as you said earlier'* and places, like in *'in front of you'*. Stance bundles were also used by students in their interactions during group discussions. Most of the stance bundles belonged to the attitudinal or modality category which involved using the personal pronoun 'I'. Bundles that demonstrated obligation or directives, such as *'I need you to'* were mostly used by instructors to initiate discussions.

Epistemic stance bundles such as *'I think that the'* were also used by students to express their uncertainty about some things that they said. Discourse organizing bundles were used in the corpus to introduce topics and to provide further elaboration on topics. Students used topic introduction topics like *'I would like to'* to initiate their turns during discussions.

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Topic elaboration bundles such as *'in addition to the'* were also used to clarify a piece of information a student may have priorly given. Discussion specific bundles such as *'I agree with you'* were also used in the corpus to express agreement or disagreement, to express politeness such as *'thank you very much'* and to welcome each other or to begin a discussion, like *'good morning everyone'*.

Heng et al. (2014) also established a relationship between the structures and functions of lexical bundles in the corpus. They found that, verb phrase bundles were mostly used because the corpus was made up of spoken register. Personal opinions and attitudes, which is also characteristic of spoken registers were shown with the use of stance bundles. The use of noun phrase and prepositional phrase bundles also provided audiences with detailed information with regards to the topic of discussion. The study recommended that further research be conducted into the use of lexical bundles in other oral university registers like in debates or in oral presentations. They also recommended that findings of this study could be compared to the writings of the students to reveal the differences and similarities in their use of lexical bundles in spoken and written registers.

Hyland (2008) developed his own functional taxonomy to account for the nature of the data gathered for his study that sought to investigate the use of lexical bundles in research articles, theses and dissertations across four disciplines. The taxonomy functionally categorized lexical bundles into research-oriented bundles, text-oriented bundles and participant-oriented bundles. Hyland (2008) asserts that, research- oriented bundles help writers structure their activities and experiences of the real world, while text-oriented bundles deal with how a text should be organized and arranged. Participant- oriented bundles, on the other hand, also focus on the writer or reader of a text. Hyland (2008)

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discovered that, the disciplines that belonged to the hard sciences, that is Electrical Engineering and Microbiology, used more research-oriented bundles out of all the functional categories that he proposed. The disciplines that belonged to the soft sciences, that is Business Studies and Applied Linguistics, used more text- oriented bundles out of the functional categories. Participant- oriented bundles were the least used in all the four disciplines. The study stated that, the greater use of research- oriented bundles in the hard sciences points to the empirical nature of the disciplines and how they male strong research claims. The greater use of text- oriented bundles in the soft sciences is reflective of the discursive and evaluative patterns in the disciplines, where discussions lean towards persuasion and are more interpretive and less empirical.

Participant- oriented bundles, though not used as much, indicated the writer's stance on topics of conversation, and were used more in the soft sciences than in the hard sciences. The study also established some relationships between the structural and functional categories of lexical bundles. The researcher found that 'noun phrase +'of' fragment' was prominent in the research- oriented bundles, while prepositional phrase structures were mainly found in text- oriented bundles. Participant- oriented bundles also mainly consisted of the 'anticipatory 'it'' structure. The study recommended that, lexical bundles should be studied further to offer insights into genre analysis and how writers use the resources available in the English language in different academic contexts.

Islami et al. (2019) also adopted the functional taxonomy of Hyland (2008) to analyze how undergraduate students used lexical bundles in the literature review section of their final projects. Functional analysis showed that, out of the 26 bundles found in the corpus, 11 of them were research- oriented, making them the functional category that was the most used

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in the corpus, while 9 of them were participant- oriented and 6 of them, text- oriented. Research- oriented bundles were mostly used in the corpus to describe the final step of a process, like in *'the result of the'*, or to describe the quantity of an item, like in *'there are so many'*, or to show the description of an entity, as seen in *'the meaning of the'*. The data gathered also showed that, in agreement with previous studies, noun phrases were the most frequently used structure for academic texts, while research- oriented bundles were also the most used functional category in academic texts. The study then recommended that, other studies on lexical bundles should be conducted into other parts of undergraduate students' final projects. The researchers also recommended that, lexical bundles should be taught in schools to help students avoid errors while they write.

Lee (2020) in their study of the functions of lexical bundles in Linguistics textbooks used in Korean tertiary institutions revealed that, 89.4% of the bundles that were present in the corpus served referential functions, making referential bundles the most used in the corpus. Bundles that served discourse organizing functions accounted for 8.6% of the bundles in the corpus, while stance bundles added up to 6.5% of the bundles present in the corpus. The study recommended that lexical variations among sub- disciplines in the Linguistics discipline need to be studied, since vocabulary use among the sub disciplines in Linguistics vary.

 Functional analysis of a comparative study by Lorenna et al. (2020) on how native and non-native English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers use lexical bundles in their conversations revealed that, stance bundles were the most frequently employed functional category by both non-native and native English- speaking teachers. However, there were also some lexical bundles that also served as referential expressions and discourse

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organizers in the corpus. The stances bundles were used by teachers to show ability. Some of the most used stance bundles in the corpus were 'you can make' and 'you can use', among others. This was as a result of the fact that in the case of teaching English, the teachers mostly utilized the bundles to convey their goal, particularly when they were going to explain the materials, to indicate what the students were expected to do, and to demonstrate their students' abilities. Functionally, non-native English-speaking instructors tended to use more attitudinal/modality stances that express ability (e.g., you can make, you can go, you can work, you can use), whereas native English-speaking instructors tended to use more attitudinal/modality stances that express intention/prediction, such as you will see, we're going to, you're going to, and I'll give you. The study recommended that teachers need to employ lexical bundles in their lectures and to increase their students' knowledge on the need to use the correct bundles in terms of structure and function. They also recommended that non-native English teachers should adopt parts of the native English teacher's speech bundles in order to make their speeches sound more natural and fluent. In addition, other researchers could do a comparative study in spoken discourses with a different study objective, such as casual chat, a debating contest, or an oral presentation.

Nasrabady et al. (2020) also adopted the functional taxonomy of lexical bundles proposed by Hyland (2008) to analyze lexical bundles used in published papers in the field of Applied Linguistics. The analysis revealed that, most of the bundles present in the corpus were in line with the functional categories proposed by Hyland (2008). However, new functional categories were realized from the data. Doubling lexical bundles (at the beginning and end of, for example), Contrasting lexical bundles (did not seem to), Exemplifier bundles (factors such as, for example), Questioning lexical bundles (what is the relationship

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between, for example), and Cause Initiator bundles, which are those that indicated the cause of something in a text (be due to the, for example) were some of the lexical bundles that expressed new functional characteristics in the ALC. This study demonstrated that different lexical bundle lengths can express various structural and functional identities and reasonably contribute to the discourse of academic writing in Applied Linguistics. Nasrabady et al. (2020) concluded that in order to produce more thorough results, researchers who plan to investigate the new structural and functional categories of lexical bundles identified in Applied Linguistics are advised to take the findings of their study into account.

The functional taxonomy of lexical bundles as espoused by Biber et al. (2004) guided the functional analysis for the study by Panthong and Poonpon (2020) which interrogated the purpose of lexical bundles in doctors' conversations in a medical TV series. Stance markers were the most frequent use of lexical bundles in the Doctor Talk corpus (68.32%), while Special conversation bundles were less frequent (3.96%). Stance bundles make up the highest percentage of bundles in the corpus (68.32%). This means that there were 13 epistemic stances bundles, 27 desire bundles, 15 obligation/directive bundles, 3 intention/prediction bundles, and 11 ability bundles identified in the corpus. For epistemic stance, there were phrases like *'I don't know what'*, *'I don't know how', 'I thought you were'*, among others in the Doctor Talk corpus. When junior and senior doctors were discussing a case, these lexical bundles were used to convey uncertainty.

Examples of lexical bundles found in the other types of bundles include desire bundles such as "*I just need to" "Do you want me to*", obligation/directive bundles such as "*I need you to" "We need to do*", intention/prediction bundles such as "*We're going to have to", "I was*

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attempting to" and ability bundles such as "*I can do this", "you can do this*" and "*to make sure that*". In the Doctor Talk corpus, 21 lexical bundles (20.79%) served as discourse organizers. This was consistent with other studies such as Biber et al. (2004) and Conrad and Biber (2005) indicating that stance bundles are more prevalent than discourse organizers in spoken discourse. The discourse organizing bundles were used to introduce topics more than they were used to clarify or elaborate topics. Topic introducing topics occurred 15 times out of the total number of discourse organizing bundles in the corpus, while topic elaboration bundles occurred 6 times. A closer study into these bundles by the researchers revealed two sub-types for topic introduction, which were asking questions and checking facts and procedures, and two for topic elaboration, which were requesting for clarification and asking for justification. '*What do you think', 'what do you want'*, and *'what do we have'* were some of the lexical bundles used to ask questions and examine facts and procedures in the corpus. Lexical bundles such as '*take a look at', 'do you know how'* and *'do you have any'* were used to start conversations. Six bundles, which represented 5.94% of the total frequency of the bundles in the corpus were additionally utilized for topic elaboration. In this spoken corpus, four of these were used to make clarification, while two were used to ask for justification. '*What do you mean', 'what does that mean'* and *'what do we do'* were used for clarification while '*how do you know'* and *'what are you going to*' were used for justifications.

In the Doctor Talk corpus, eight referential bundles (7.92%) were discovered. These bundles were in either of the Identification/focus or quantity specification sub-categories. For identification and focus bundles, only one bundle was used, which was '*the chief of surgery'* A senior doctor who collaborates with junior doctors was referred to in that

manner. Two bundles, which were '*a lot of blood'* and *'there's a lot of blood*', were used in the quantity specification sub-category to describe the amount of blood in a patient. Nevertheless, were no imprecision or intangible text deixis bundles, because according to Biber et al. (2004), these kinds of bundles are more common in written texts. The percentage of special conversational functions was the lowest in the corpus of doctor talk, with a total of 3.96% of the bundles in the corpus. Only three bundles were used for specific conversational functions. Two of them, which are '*what are you doing'* and *'are you doing here*' were discovered through a straightforward query of a speaker. It was discovered that the other bundle, '*thank you very much'*, demonstrated the speaker's politeness.

The findings confirm the evidence from Conrad and Biber (2005) that a small number of unique conversational functions are present in spoken discourse because they are highly purposeful, and are used for very specific functions. Additionally, findings from the study revealed that lexical bundles were less common in conversation than in monologue, as seen in the low number of lexical bundles in the study. The study recommended that future research may profit from listening to recordings made by real clinicians. The investigation of the structure, purpose, and relationship of lexical bundles in Doctor Talks may also be useful for further research. Additionally, they recommended that lexical bundles in conversation should be examined in the context of other disciplines to determine how well professionals in these disciplines communicate in the workplace.

The functional taxonomy of lexical bundles according to Biber et al. (2004) was adopted by Singh and Hong (2019) to examine the features of lexical bundles in selected children's fiction. Singh and Hong (2019) found out that, the most commonly used expressions were referential bundles. The category "others" was the second most commonly used. Per the

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findings of the study, children's fiction used fewer stance expressions, discourse organizers, and special conversation expressions. "Others" was a new category created by the researchers to contain lexical bundles that don't fit into any of the functional categories suggested by Biber et al. (2004) Expressions that described simple acts which occur in a variety of children's literature events make up the lexical bundles in this category. Referential bundles were frequently found in the corpus because they performed a wide range of tasks, such as specifying qualities and emphasizing purposes. Several of the characters, circumstances, settings, times, and events were all described by authors of the chosen children's fiction using lexical bundles. Special conversation bundles were hardly found in the corpus. This was because, according to Singh and Hong (2019), conversations frequently made use of this category of bundles. There were not many conversational topics in the corpus that required the use of conversational lexical bundles. The researchers also advanced that children's fiction is also meant for a younger audience and may not need bundles from the special conversation function category. Additionally, stance expressions can be found in the chosen children's literature, albeit in small quantities. For instance, the story's characters employed sequences like *'are you going to'* and *'he was going to'* to convey their intentions. Though in smaller numbers, discourse organizers can be found in children's fiction. Thess kind of lexical bundles are employed in writings to elaborate or explain ideas. *'On the other hand'*, *'as soon as he'* and *'as if they were'* were some examples of discourse organizers that were found in the corpus. The researchers recommended that, teachers are encouraged to carry out engaging and helpful activities in the classroom to help students understand the significance of word clusters like lexical bundles.

Xu and Wijitsopon (2023) investigated the use of lexical bundles in movie scripts of mainstream American films which were well known in the United States of America. The aim of the study was to gain a better understanding of the language of cinematic discourse. The corpus for the study was compiled from scripts of films that ranked among the top five in the U.S. domestic box-office yearly chart between 2005 and 2019. Xu and Wijitsopon (2023) conceptualized a lexical bundle as a four-word sequence that had appeared in at least 40 out of the 100 film scripts n the corpus and had a frequency of at least 100 occurrences in the corpus. A software known as Ant Conc was used in this study to extract lexical bundles in the corpus. The bundles were categorized according to their functions following the functional taxonomy of Biber et al. (2004). The sample yielded a total of 77 lexical bundle types, amounting to 8,479 words.

Stance bundles were the most prevalent category in the corpus, with the most lexical bundle types and the highest token frequency, followed by Referential bundles, Special conversation bundles and Discourse-organizing bundles. Overall, these proportions reflected the nature of film screenplays as a hybrid discourse, with a heavy spoken component as well as descriptive elements. Mainstream film scripts, in particular, are largely dialogic, as evidenced by a high density of spoken formulaic terms in the Stance, Special-function, and Discourse-organizing categories. This refers to the textual growth technique of dialogue-oriented storytelling. It was revealed that, majority of stance bundles in cinema scripts were negative, accounting for 24 of the 35 bundle types.

According to Xu and Wijitsopon (2023), the prevalence of negative stance bundles could be linked to their ability to create external and internal problems in movie plots, such as characters' inability, disagreement, or unwillingness, which comprises the problem-solving

nature that is present in narratives. Referential bundles were the second most important functional category in the corpus. Their high frequency was mainly made up of lexical bundles that denoted place functions, which accounted for 21 of the 24 referential bundle types. Further analysis revealed that the high density of place referential bundles was linked to characters' actions and movements, which were frequently detailed in action lines that provided information about characters' bodily actions.

Xu and Wijitsopon (2023) contend that the fact that place referential bundles make up the majority of mainstream film scripts reflects another aspect of the nature of filmscripts, namely that, it includes descriptions of settings and actions in addition to dialogue to fulfill communicative functions of the film script by connecting places with events or actions performed by characters. Three sub-categories, aside the existing sub-category which is the inquiry sub-category, were created under the special conversation category to accommodate many related lexical bundles that emerged in the corpus but were not listed in Biber et al.'s (2004) functional taxonomy. These three new sub-categories were Actions, Apology, and Command. Discourse-organizing bundles were the least frequent functional category in the corpus. The use of discourse organizers in the corpus suggested that they were dialogic expressions, all of which contained either first- or second-personal pronouns, contributing to the dialogic nature of film scripts. Furthermore, discourse organizing bundles provided contextual information about characters to the audiences. The findings of the study also showed that spoken lexical bundles were frequently used in American mainstream film scripts. American mainstream film scripts are primarily composed of lexical bundles that depict actions, locations, and motions. These categories of lexical bundles add to cohesive meanings from spoken words and body language in the movie

screenplay by enriching the texts with graphical contextual information. The study recommended that it would be useful to conduct a contrastive study on spoken lexical bundles in mainstream film scripts and those in real conversations to investigate how lexical bundles in mainstream film scripts differ from those in real-life conversations, both quantitatively and qualitatively.

2.4 Political Communication and Language Use

According to Michira (2014), politicians have developed unique ways of employing language that deviates from typical common discourse. Oparinde et al. (2021) add that political communication is distinguished by a distinct style of persuasion that has a great influence on people's ability to form opinions. Oparinde et al. (2021) further explain that, political language has expressive functions through which politicians attempt to captivate individuals and persuade them to accept and validate specific political positions and attitudes. Nkwede et al. (2017) advance that political language is a type of language frequently employed by people involved in politics to persuade and sway the public to support and advance their political objectives. These political languages are used for a variety of purposes, including informing the public about a political party's policies and programs, swaying the public with false information, manipulating the public, and vilifying the opposition to win more support from the public. Jalali and Sadeghi (2014) argue that one of the most significant criteria for political candidates to succeed in any political election campaign is their use of tactful language and their capacity to persuade and impress audiences with speech filled with thoughts, emotions, and passion.

Malabar (2020) posits that to persuade an audience, politicians frequently use linguistic devices such as analogies, anecdotes, attacks, emotive language, evidence, generalization,

inclusive language, overstatement, exaggeration or hyperboles, reason and logic, repetition, rhetorical question, appeal to a sense of justice, among others. Braçaj (2020) advances that ideas and ideologies must be expressed through language in political speeches during election campaigns so that they are agreed upon by the electorates as well as anyone who may read or hear parts of the speech later in the media. Omozuwa and Ezejideaku (2008) also explain that the type of language used in political campaigns, and by extension, political communication, has several distinctive characteristics that set it apart from other types of language use. Rezaie and Nourali (2016) confirm this assertion by asserting that politicians use language differently than other language users because they have different goals in mind. They may have different goals when they interact with society. Sometimes they aim to convince electorates to vote for them, accept their political aims and goals, or they may use specific language while responding to journalists. Omozuwa and Ezejideaku (2008) submit that the rhetoric and propaganda used in political campaigns are persuasive. Politicians use these language strategies to convince the public to support them and their parties by portraying themselves as the only ones qualified for the position. Political campaigns use a range of linguistic devices to provide the necessary information to the voters in an effort to persuade or appeal to them. It typically contains a lot of emotion and has the effect of causing the electorate to change their minds on a subject.

Omozuwa and Ezejideaku (2007) add that, another aspect of political campaign language that sets it apart from other types of language use is rhetoric, which combines promises, biblical allusions to God, repetition, figurative language, among others, all at once. Politicians enhance their utterances with rhetorical devices in an effort to manipulate the people. Omozuwa and Ezejideaku (2007) again explain that, politicians need to have strong

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rhetorical techniques to put their opponents in a bad light while also possessing the ability to elicit sympathy or indignation from the electorates. Political campaign language includes some types of promises to the electorate, whether it is in the interrogative, declarative, imperative, or exclamatory mode, because the focus of the communication politicians indulge in is to persuade and win over electorates.

Michira (2014) advances that politics is primarily concerned with issues of power and authority, including how to get and use it, the decision of how to use resources in a specific area, as well as how to manage the perceptions, actions, and values of their citizens. Politicians rely on language as an essential tool to accomplish all of these tasks. Thus, the idea that language is an instrument of power is justified because politics is intrinsically dependent on language. Language is used to perform and mediate complex connections between the governed and those who rule them. Michira (2014) makes the case and provides examples from the data collected from their study such as the use of indefinite pronouns and adjectives, modal verbs, riddles, metaphors, slogans, among others, to support their claim that language is a potent tool that politicians seeking political power use to not only communicate their policies and ideological positions but also to create certain perceptions in order to influence and manipulate the voters in order to gain an advantage over their rivals.

Rezaie and Nourali (2016), in their comparative study of the use of persuasive strategies used by Iran and U.S presidents' speeches postulate that because the main objective of political communication is to persuade individuals to take political action, language manipulation is seen as an effective tool of political communication. Analysis of the data for the study showed that the linguistic devices that were used in the speeches for the

purposes of persuasion were alliteration, wordplay, allusion, parallelism, repetition and metaphors. However, the speakers did not use these devices at the same frequency. The study showed that generally, the Iranian speeches contained more of these devices that the American speeches. Also, the Iranian speeches employed alliterations the most while the American speeches used metaphors the most. From the speeches that were collected and analyzed as data for their study, they also revealed that employing persuasive strategies was dependent on culture, as the culture of a society affects how people think and perceive the world, which has a direct influence on their use of linguistic devices in their speech. Rezaie and Nourali (2016) suggest that the cultural differences in Iran and the U. S is the determining factor in the different frequency of use of alliteration and list of threes in the speeches of the Iranian and U. S presidents.

Dong and Zhao (2010), in their study of English political euphemism and their social functions established that, politicians use political euphemism as a linguistic tactic to conceal scandals, distort the truth, and direct public opinion when debating social issues or events. Dong and Zhao (2010) further explain that political euphemism differs from regularly used euphemistic expressions intended to avoid death and other physical events in that, it significantly alters, if not completely distorts, the meaning communicated by its former signifier. The researchers add that, when used for political reasons, euphemism, which is defined by the replacement of straightforward terms with ambiguous and imprecise ones, plays a crucial part in revealing the implication of political discourse. What this means is, political actors use euphemisms to reveal their actual intended meanings when they communicate with the electorates. In political euphemism, specific meanings are frequently replaced with generic ones, hyponyms are replaced with more general words

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or expressions, and slandering meanings are replaced with neutral or even commendatory ones. The use of political euphemisms, according to Dong and Zhao (2010) reveal the intents of political actors to conceal the truth and divert public attention from it. Politicians also try to influence how people learn about the world and how information is transmitted by employing political euphemisms in their communication with electorates.

Akinwotu (2018) in a study investigating the language and style used in political inaugural speeches expounds that language could also be used to inspire, mobilize, educate, inform, and entertain the audience. Political inaugural speeches, which Akinwotu (2018) defines as a speech given in public, typically following an electoral victory, at the inauguration of a new political office bearer and is frequently provided in a celebratory setting, typically use language resources not only to develop the style of the text but also as effective strategies to persuade and motivate audiences to trust in their political goals and ambitions. A detailed look at the lexical patterns of the speeches that make up the data for the study shows how language is used to express the speaker's intents, which include expressing gratitude and encouraging others, making commitments and promises, and establishing goals and ways to reach them. These intents are realized with particular linguistic tools like the use of certain adjectives and adverbs, repetition, alliterations and vocatives to place emphasis on the promises the speaker makes to his audience.

2.4.1 Political parties in Ghana

Gyasi (2023) posits that, political parties serve as the link between society and politics, as they are the way through which citizens are linked to the state. According to Walgrave and Nuytemans (2009), political parties are thus key actors on the political theater of any

democratic state. Political parties act as information conduits between society and political decision-makers, connecting citizens' aspirations and preferences to public policy.

Nartey and Yankson (2014) state that the New Patriotic Party (NPP) was constituted in 1992 as an established and recognized political party by Ghana's Electoral Commission. Its formation was carefully nurtured by important actors who depended greatly on the tenacity of both the United Party and the Danquah-Busia traditions. The NPP is a liberal conservative and liberal democratic party, and it follows the motto "Development in freedom." According to the NPP's official website (NPP, 2019), the party was founded on July 28, 1992, with the goal of bringing together similarly-minded citizens of the country in order to advocate for "Freedom and Justice through the appreciation and protection of human rights and the rule of law through the practice of true democracy; to build in this country a free and democratic system of government" in which all citizens would be able to make contributions to the welfare, peace, and growth of the country and keep its people free from divisive politics. Sarfo-Kantankah (2021) also states that the NPP views the private sector as the growth engine, sharing similarities with rightist parties like the British Conservative Party and the American Republican Party. It leans toward neo-liberal economic principles, where owning property is a crucial component.

According to Aning (2020), the National Democratic Congress (NDC) is a social democratic political party. The party was established by the late Flt. Lt. Jerry Rawlings on July 28, 1992. It is a center-left party, with the New Patriotic Party (NPP), Ghana's current ruling political party, as its main competitor, and it advocates "Unity, Stability, and Development" as its slogan. Sarfo-Kantankah (2021) asserts that the Democratic Party in the USA and the British Labour Party are two examples of the democratic left parties with

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whom the NDC is affiliated to. The Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) military administration, which ruled Ghana from 1981 to 1992 and was commanded by J.J. Rawlings, is where the NDC had its start. The NDC is a "social democratic party that believes in the equality and the egalitarian treatment of all persons irrespective of their social, cultural, educational, political, religious, and economic relations in a multi-party environment" (Article 5, NDC 1992 constitution, as cited in Sarfo-Kantankah, 2021).

Gyasi (2023) puts forward that the National Democratic Congress is distinguished by populism and adherence to the capitalist economy. By populism, what is implied is that the political party strives to appeal to the ordinary masses. As a continuation from its traditional roots, the NDC appears to be more rural-friendly and less elitist. The New Patriotic Party is known for its liberal administration and market economy. The NPP is also heavily influenced by an intellectual, commercial, and professional elite. It typically caters to the educated and urban dwellers.

Political parties can communicate their evaluation of the environment in which they operate and what they believe is the best way to improve that environment in a variety of ways. Electoral manifestos appear to be the most popular of these methods (Dolezal et al., 2012).

2.4.2 Political Manifestoes

Gyampo and Debrah (2013) aver that, manifestos are significant in modern political party campaigns. They not only promote issue-based campaigning throughout election season, but they are also at the basis of peaceful campaigns. Manifestos have been the primary vehicle for mobilizing the support of electorates for political parties and their candidates during election contests because they tend to capture the fundamental concerns or problems that confront a nation and indicate the approaches to addressing them. Gyasi (2023) states

that creating a manifesto for each election is a standard practice that parties are supposed to follow. Typically, the presentation of manifestos to the electorate is a symbolic act that marks the degree of competition that comes with a political campaign. Political actors have a motivation to explain to voters their policy aims, what they have been doing, and what they have achieved in order to create long-term relationships with the people (Lin and Osnabrugge, 2018). Manifestos, then, according to Gyasi (2023), are essential vehicles for conveying such information to voters. Ibrahim and Siiba (2019) explain that with the aid of the party manifesto, both prospective voters, critics, and political adversaries are able to raise questions about the discrepancies between the promises made by the party in power and their implementation.

Akeliwira and Owusu-Mensah (2022) aver that, manifestos provide an opening into the perspectives political actors take on a given subject throughout the political spectrum, presenting sets of beliefs and promises of action if elected. As a result, political parties running for office channel accumulate their political interests into programs and manifestos that give a choice of values and direction. Walgrave and Nuytemans (2009) state that a party creates an outline of policy positions, preferences, and developmental goals at the commencement of an electioneering process. This proposition is put to the public vote. If the offer receives enough support, the party may be granted the opportunity to take over government, at which point it will begin to carry out the promises made in the manifesto. In a following election, the promises and objectives in the manifesto serve as the foundation for the electorate's evaluation of the party's performance. Gyasi (2023) states that manifestos are the principal sources of media commentary; they serve as the foundation for questioning party candidates; and they drive election-related conversations. According to

Eder et al. (2017), parties produce manifestos for a number of reasons. One of them is that, a manifesto is a comprehensive explanation of a party's political stance on a wide variety of issues. Such a summary is valuable to elite voters, who may use it to determine which political parties offer policies that are most similar to their preferences. Manifestos provide a framework for grassroots activists and organizers to disseminate and discuss party policy proposals with the voters. Another reason why parties produce manifestoes is that, the manifesto is the only organizing document that permits a party's varied interests and perspectives to present a united front to the voting public. As a result, the manifesto establishes the constraints to which all of the party's many actors must adhere in order to present a consistent and reliable front.

According to Ayee (2011), manifestos have been a feature of Ghana's election politics since before independence. This is demonstrated by the number of national and local elections, byelections, plebiscites, referendums, and manifestos that have been developed. Nartey and Yankson (2014) aver that the manifesto of a political party is a significant rhetorical text that serves as a basis on which political debates are done. Political manifesto writers, therefore, find modal auxiliary verbs to be a very valuable persuasive tactic to employ in an attempt to strongly and cogently deliver their party's campaign message to the electorate. Nartey and Yankson (2014), in their study on the use of modal auxiliaries in the manifesto of a Ghanaian political party, which was the 2012 manifesto of the New Patriotic Party, realized that, with the exception of might, nine central modal auxiliary verbs established in English grammar were utilized in the manifesto. The modal verbs that were recognized were *'could', 'can (not)', 'need to', 'must', 'should', 'may (not)', 'would', and 'will'*. The modal auxiliary verbs specified in the NPP's political manifesto had varied degrees of

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dominance, with will being the most frequently employed. The modal auxiliary verbs were deliberately and carefully used in order to positively project the NPP in front of the electorate while highlighting the alleged inefficiencies and incompetence of their major opposition party. The study also established that modal verbs are used in manifestoes to convey a sense of purpose, guarantee, responsibility, and need in an intentional and planned attempt to sway the electorate. The researchers assert that modal auxiliary verbs have a persuasive connotation in political discourses in general, and particularly in political manifestos. Third, the study's findings reveal that modal auxiliary verbs do not have fixed meanings; rather, they are appropriately processed in a particular context and are influenced by relevant situational elements such as register type.

Similarly, Aning (2020) explored the use of modal auxiliaries in the 2016 manifesto of the National Democratic ingress (NDC). The study sought to reveal how these verbs often disclose unclear meanings about the nature of political debate. Findings from the study indicated that the manifesto made use of six of the nine central modal auxiliary verbs recognized by the English language, in varying amounts. The modal verbs that were used in the manifesto were *'will'*, *'can'*, *'must'*, *'shall'*, *'would'*, and *'could'*. With 542 occurrences, *'will'* had the highest frequency of occurrence in the manifesto. Compared to the modal *'will'*, the other five modal verbs were used far less frequently. With an occurrence rate of 10 times, *'Can'* ranked as the second most frequent occurrence after that. Shall also occurred 6 times in the data. The manifesto used the modal verbs *'must'* five times, *'would'* twice, and *'could'* once. The fact that some modal verbs were used more frequently than others support the idea stated by Nartey and Yankson (2014) that modal auxiliary verbs are contextually used to achieve diverse communicative intents and goals.

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Aning (2020) contended that the majority of particular modals that were used in the NDC 2016 manifesto were not determined by chance, but rather by the unique goals that the manifesto sought to achieve. Aning (2020) further adds that the type and nature of discourse determines the choice of modal auxiliary verbs. This suggests that, the modal auxiliary verbs that were used in the manifesto were peculiar to the communicative functions that it was intended to achieve

Gyasi (2023) conducted a study to determine the readability level of the manifestoes of three political parties in Ghana. The political parties, which were the New Patriotic Party (NPP), the National Democratic Congress (NDC) and the Convention People's Party (CPP) were selected for the study because they were the only political parties that had parliamentary representation at the time of the study. The Coleman-Liau Index and the Gunning Fog Index were used as readability indices to analyze the data for the study. For each manifesto, 12 random portions were chosen for study. Then, from each part, texts of 300 and more words were selected. According to the mean figures of the readability indices, all three manifestos were written at levels of difficulty far above the reading abilities of the average Ghanaian voter. Furthermore, statistically, the manifestos did not differ much from one another. The findings showed that reading and understanding the CPP manifesto would require a person in level 300 of university in Ghana, while reading and understanding the NDC manifesto would require a person in Grade 14 of the US education system, or level 200 of the Ghanaian educational system. A person with a 14th grade level of formal education in the United States and at level 200 of the Ghanaian educational system can read and understand the NPP manifesto. According to Gyasi (2023), from a populist ideological standpoint, the CPP and NDC should have manifestos written at a statistically different

readability level than the NPP manifesto. The NPP manifesto was incredibly difficult for the average Ghanaian voter to understand. However, this was hardly surprising from a party that is described as traditionally elitist. The study recommended that manifesto writers should consider changing their writing style in order to satisfy the standard reading scores specified for public publications, so that electorates with varying educational backgrounds can read and understand the manifestoes.

Sarfo-Kantankah (2021) also explored the key concepts that were presented in the manifestoes of two political parties in Ghana, which were the NDC and the NPP. The study employed corpus-linguistic methods to compare the foci of the manifestoes and the strategies that were used to establish them. Two sub-corpora were used for the study, which were the manifestoes of the NDC and NPP for the 1996, 2000, 2004, 2008, 2012, 2016 elections. The NPP 2004 manifesto was excluded from the NPP sub-corpus because the researcher could not have access to it. It was established from the findings that, the NPP focuses on policy and character, whereas the NDC mostly focuses on policy problems and their strongholds. The policy concerns (theme, accomplishments, beginning, launching, or completion of projects/programs) and geographic places (regions, upper [East and West], Volta, Accra, and Tema) were the main foci of the NDC manifestos. The NPP, on the other hand, focused on their ideology (freedom, rule, liberal, and prosperity) and personality/character. Three main names featured in the NPP manifestoes. These individuals were John Agyekum Kufuor, the president of Ghana under the NPP government from 2001 to 2008, Nana Addo Dankwa Akufo-Addo, the presidential candidate of the NPP in the 2008 general elections, and John Dramani Mahama, who served as vice president from January 7, 2009 to July 2012 and as president and presidential candidate in 2012 and

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2016. The study concluded by providing some parameters that writers of political messages should consider as they craft political messages such as what worries the electorates have and which policy measures are most likely to address the electorate's concerns.

2.5 Theoretical framework

2.5.1 Structural Taxonomy of Lexical Bundles

Biber et al. (2004), in their study of the use of lexical bundles in university classroom teaching and textbooks, and drawing comparisons with a previous study of lexical bundles as used in conversation and academic prose, developed a structural taxonomy to classify the distinct structures that were seen in lexical bundles from both studies. Biber et al. (2004) found that the structure of lexical bundles are typically one of three structures. They are either bundles that incorporate verb phrase fragments, bundles that incorporate dependent clause fragments or bundles that incorporate noun phrase and prepositional phrase fragments. Under these three general classifications, each of them contains sub-classifications. The table below demonstrates these classifications with examples.
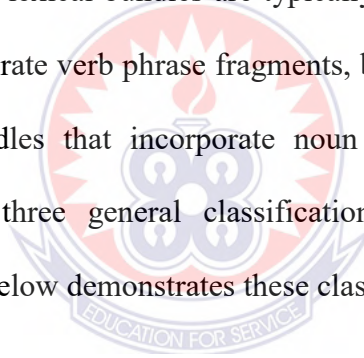
Table 4: Biber et al (2004) structural taxonomy of lexical bundles

1. Lexical bundles that incorporate verb phrase fragments	
1a. (connector) + 1st/ 2nd person pronoun + verb phrase fragment	Well I don't know, you don't have to
1b. (connector) + 3rd person pronoun + verb phrase fragment	It's going to be, that's one of the
1c. Discourse marker + verb phrase fragment	I mean you know, you know it was
1d. Verb phrase with non- passive verb	Is going to be, take a look at
1e. Verb phrase with passive verb	Is based on the, can be used to
1f. yes/no question fragments	Are you going to, does it make sense
1g. wh- question fragments	What do you think, how many of you
2. Lexical bundles that incorporate dependent clause fragments	
2a. 1st/ 2nd person pronoun + dependent clause fragment	I need you to, you might want to
2b. wh- clause fragments	When we get to, what's going to happen
2c. if- clause fragments	If we look at, if you want to
2d. verb/ adjective + to- clause fragment	To be able to, to come up with
2e. that- clause fragment	That there is a, that this is a
3. Lexical bundles that incorporate noun phrase and prepositional phrase fragments	
3a. (connector +) noun phrase with of- phrase fragment	One of the things, a little bit of
3b. Noun phrase with other post- modifier fragment	A little bit about, the way in which
3c. Other noun phrase expressions	Or something like that, and stuff like that
3d. Prepositional phrase expressions	At the end of, at the same time
3e. Comparative expressions	As far as the, greater than or equal

Source: Adopted from Biber et al. (2004)

2.5.2 Functional Taxonomy of Lexical Bundles

The functional taxonomy developed by Biber et al. (2004) is an expansion of the functional taxonomy that was propounded in an earlier study by Biber et al. (2003), which only catered for conversation and academic prose registers. The goal was to create a taxonomy that provided the main discourse functions that lexical bundles serve in texts. According to Biber et al. (2004), lexical bundles primarily serve three functions in a text. These functions are expression of stance, organization of discourse and expression of references.

2.5.2.1 Stance bundles

Biber et al. (2004) explain stance bundles as expressions that allow a speaker to show their certainty or otherwise about a proposition or an utterance. Conrad and Biber (2005) also describe stance bundles as expressions of attitudes and judgements that serve as a lens through which utterances are interpreted. This means that, speakers and writers usually employ stance bundles in the expression of their position of surety or otherwise on a topic of conversation. Some examples of stance bundles include 'I don't know if', it is likely that', among others. Biber et al. (2004) add that, stance bundles convey two types of meaning, which are epistemic meaning and attitude or modality meaning.

2.5.2.1.1 Epistemic stance bundles

Biber et al. (2004) propound that epistemic stance bundles make claims about the degree of informational knowledge in terms of certainty, uncertainty, and probability. Epistemic stance bundles could either be personal or impersonal (Biber et al., 2004; Conrad and Biber, 2005). Personal epistemic stance bundles explicitly or directly credit the speaker, writer, or addressee with the stance that is being expressed, as seen in the example *'I don't think that'*.

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Conrad and Biber (2005) add that in personal stance bundles, the use of the personal pronouns 'I', 'you', 'we', among others, is rife. Impersonal epistemic stance bundles, on the other hand, convey the speaker or writer's position on a topic without specifically mentioning the owner of a certain stance, like in the example *'it is possible to'*. Biber et al. (2004) also expounds that, personal epistemic stance bundles are more likely used to express uncertainty, while impersonal epistemic stance bundles are often used to express certainty.

2.5.2.1.2 Attitudinal or Modality bundles

Attitudinal or modality bundles, according to Biber et al. (2004) frequently communicate the speaker's personal opinions about an occasion or the deeds stated in a proposition or an utterance. Biber et al. (2004) advance that attitudinal stance bundles are further divided into four categories, which are desire bundles, obligation or directive bundles, intention or prediction bundles and ability bundles. Desire bundles are personal statements of stance that define motivated wishes and wants of the speaker or writer or enquire about the aspirations of others. Some examples are *'I don't want to'*, *'we would like that'*, among others. Obligation or directive bundles are personal bundle that instructs the reader or listener to perform an action that the speaker wants done. The directive force in these bundles can be either direct or indirect. When first person pronouns are used with verbs of desire, the directing force in these bundles become direct, as seen in *'you need to know'*. The direct force is indirect when the bundle does not contain a verb of desire, in an example such as *'you may want to'*. Intention or prediction bundles convey the speaker's desire to take a specific action in the future. Additionally, intention bundles may be either personal, like in the case of *'what we're going to'* or impersonal, with impersonal intention bundles

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indicating predictions of future events that do not involve the speaker's will, such as *'is going to be'*. Ability bundles are usually impersonal and they are meant to specify the competencies and skills that readers or listeners should master. Some examples of ability bundles are *'to be able to'* and *'to come up with'*.

2.5.2.2 Discourse organizers

Conrad and Biber (2005) put forward that, discourse organizers show connections and relations between previous utterances and utterances that are about to be made, or newly made utterances. Biber et al. (2004) advance that discourse organizers mainly serve to functions in a text, which are to introduce a topic and to elaborate or to provide clarification on a topic. Topic introducing bundles, according to Biber et al. (2004) are used to show clear signals that a new topic that would drive an interaction is being introduced. Conrad and Biber (2005) add that topic introducing bundles could also introduce sub-topics and could also be used to shift the attention of the readers or listeners towards another point of view of a topic. Some examples of topic introducing bundles include *'going to talk about'* and *'if you look at'*. Conrad and Biber (2005) proffer that topic elaboration or topic clarification bundles can be used to provide explanations on a subject of conversation, like in the example *'nothing to do with'*, or to add context to previously expressed information, as seen in the bundle *'what do you mean'*. Topic elaboration or topic clarification bundles can also clearly indicate the relationship a speaker or writer recognizes between discourse components, like in the example *'on the other hand'*.

2.5.2.3 Referential bundles

Biber and Barbieri (2007) state that referential bundles make direct mentions of physical or abstract elements or to the written texts themselves in order to distinguish a person or thing or to draw attention to a particular quality of the entity. Biber et al. (2004) and Conrad and Biber (2005) assert that referential bundles are divided into four sub-categories which are identification or focus bundles, imprecision bundles, attribute specification bundles and time, place or text reference bundles. Identification/focus bundles highlight a significant entity or a component of it, like in the example of '*one of the most*'. Imprecision bundles signal that a preceding discourse was stated inexactly. As a result, they are connected to stance expressions that show uncertainty. An example of an imprecision bundle is '*or something like that*'. Attribute specification bundles draw attention to a specific attribute of the entity, such as quantities, as seen in the example '*percent of the*', physical or material attributes like '*in the form of*', and abstract features, such as '*the type of the*', and '*the manner in which*'. Time, place and text reference bundles point to particular times, places and locations that are present in a text. An example is '*the end of the*'.

2.6 Relevance of the theories to the study

The study seeks to make meaning of what lexical bundles are, what grammatical structures they may occur in and how producers of Ghanaian political manifestoes use lexical bundles in communicating their goals and plans to electorates. The structural taxonomy of lexical bundles, thus, helped me to answer research question one, that borders on how to identify the lexical bundles that have been used in the selected manifestoes and what their structural compositions are.

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The functional taxonomy of lexical bundles provided the basis for which research question two was answered, that is, analyzing how each of the lexical bundles used in the selected manifestoes was used to communicate certain political ideologies to electorates.

2.7 Summary of chapter

The chapter focused on establishing studies that had been done in the area of the current study to properly situate the gap that the current study seeks to fill. Studies that explored the use of lexical bundles were reviewed, with focus given to the structure and functions of lexical bundles that researchers had found in the corpus generated for their studies. The reviews were aimed at providing a clear context in which the current study would be situated in, in terms of investigating how lexical bundles are structures and how they function in political tests, specifically Ghanaian manifestoes.

The study is also underpinned by two theoretical frameworks, which are the structural taxonomy of lexical bundles and the functional taxonomy of lexical bundles. These theories help to explain the unique grammatical components that make up a lexical bundle, and how the use of a lexical bundle shapes interactions between speakers and in texts.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the methods and procedures used to collect and analyze data for the study of the structure and functions of lexical bundles found in selected manifestoes of two Ghanaian political parties. The chapter addresses the study's research approach, research design, sampling technique, data collection and data analysis processes and provides justifications for each methodological choice made.

3.1 Research Approach

This study adopts the qualitative approach to research because the study seeks to investigate the use of lexical bundles in selected political manifestoes of the NPP and the NDC. Creswell (2014) explains qualitative research as a method for investigating and making sense of the meaning that people or groups assign to a social or human situation. The research process includes the researcher developing questions and procedures, collecting data in the form of selected manifestoes from the NPP and the NDC, analyzing data deductively by applying existing themes in the literature to the data collected, and providing interpretations of the data's meaning. Manifestoes are one of the answers that politicians attempt to give to the problem of political power and governance of a country. The qualitative approach helped the researcher to interrogate documents to understand how language had been used, for instance, by politicians in manifestoes to convey their political ideas to the citizens.

Jankowski and Wester (2002) also assert that qualitative research is frequently descriptive in nature, and is best conducted in a realistic context with an emphasis on everyday activity. Jankowski and Wester (2002) again state that the focus of qualitative research is on everyday life and its significance as experienced by participants because people act on the basis of the meanings they give to themselves and others. The use of language is a natural occurring phenomenon as used in any type of human interaction. The type of language that is used in any political discourse, thus, has the ability to influence the opinions, and subsequently, the voting decision of electorates. This study, thus, lends itself to the qualitative method of enquiry because it seeks to determine how a linguistic device such as lexical bundles was used in a manifesto to communicate or persuade electorates to make informed decisions at the polls.

Qualitative research, to Leavy (2014), is characterized by inductive methods to gather knowledge in order to make meaning of the world. By inductive methods, what is meant is that the researcher collects and analyzes data in order to construct ideas, theories, or hypotheses based on trends and findings revealed by the data. It employs an approach in which the researcher begins with specific data and progresses to more broad theories or ideas. Leavy (2014) adds that this approach is used by researchers to explore and to rigorously analyze to gather information about social phenomena, to discover the meanings people attach to activities, circumstances, events, or artifacts, or to gain an in-depth understanding of some aspect of social life. When the primary goal of a research is to investigate, describe, or explain a phenomenon, Leavy (2017) states that qualitative research is typically acceptable. Since this study aims at revealing the functions that lexical

bundles play in adding to the communicative functions of manifestoes, qualitative research is the most appropriate.

Denzin and Lincoln (2018) proffer that the world is viewed through an interpretive, naturalistic lens in qualitative research. Accordingly, qualitative researchers investigate phenomena in their natural environments with the goal of explaining or interpreting occurrences in terms of the meanings that individuals assign to them.

Miles et al. (2014) advance that qualitative research explores the ordinary and extraordinary lives of individuals, groups, societies, and organizations through close and/or extended interaction with participants in a naturalistic environment. The manifestoes that were collected as data for the current study, to some extent, reveal the ideologies that are central to the political parties, Therefore, the study of these documents especially from a language perspective gives the researcher an idea into how the use of specific language in these manifestoes aids politicians in propagating their political ideologies and beliefs.

3.2 Research Design

Thakur (2021) posits that in order to ensure that a researcher effectively addresses the research problem, the research design refers to the overall strategy that a researcher chooses to integrate the various study components in a coherent and logical way. Wright et al. (2016) refer to a research design as a general research strategy that outlines a clear and systematic plan to address predetermined research question(s) through data gathering, interpretation, analysis, and discussion. The research design, according to Thakur (2021) serves as the guide for the data collection and analysis. It implies that, the research design of any study provides a framework for the decisions that border on how data is collected

and analyzed. Based on these assertions, this study is guided by the qualitative content analysis design.

3.2.1 Qualitative Content Analysis

Qualitative content analysis, according to Shava et al. (2021) is a research method that involves the subjective interpretation of data content through a systematic categorization process of coding and detecting recurring trends or themes. Hseih and Shannon (2005) also define qualitative content analysis as a research approach for the subjective interpretation of text data content through the systematic classification process of coding and detecting themes or patterns.

According to Shava et al. (2021), qualitative content analysis is a scientific methodological controlled examination of texts inside their communicative content, using step-by-step content analytic principles and methods without quantitative measurements to develop theory. The method focuses on an integrated perspective of the texts and their individual contents. It goes beyond collecting content from texts to examine meanings, themes, and patterns that may emerge in the text. Shava et al. (2021) add that the samples for qualitative content analysis are often composed of carefully selected texts that might inform the research issues under consideration.

Shava et al. (2021) indicate that qualitative content analysis is a research process where raw data is grouped into categories or themes based on reliable assumptions and interpretations. By carefully examining and continually comparing the data, the researcher employs inductive reasoning to draw patterns and themes out of it. It is a non-intrusive strategy if written text is the primary source of data because no unintended interactions between participants and researchers take place. According to Leavy (2017), using qualitative

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content analysis allows researchers to look into the meanings that are implicit in texts. Daymon and Holloway (2011) also aver that it provides a way to bring attention to elements like irony, stylistic and rhetorical devices, metaphors, and figures of speech that are concealed or latent in the text.

According to Hseih and Shannon (2005), there are three approaches to conducting a qualitative content analysis. The first is traditional qualitative content analysis, which derives coding categories directly and inductively from raw data. This is the method for developing grounded theories. The second method is directed content analysis, which begins with a theory or pertinent research findings. The researchers then immerse themselves in the data during data analysis, allowing themes to emerge from the data. This strategy is typically used to validate or enhance a conceptual framework or idea. The third method is summative content analysis, which begins with counting words or evident content and then expands the analysis to include latent meanings and themes. The current study ascribes to the second method of conducting a qualitative content analysis. This is because, analysis of the data collected for the study would be done with themes and codes that already exist in literature, as well as in the theoretical frameworks that underpin this study. These themes are guides to realizing the grammatical structures that lexical bundles could be made up of, and how they are used in political communication.

Zhang and Wildermuth (2005) outline seven steps that researchers should take when using qualitative content analysis as a research design. The first step is preparing the data, that is, ensuring that the data is transcribed into text form, if it exists in other forms such as audio files. The second step is to clearly state what the unit of analysis for the data would be. The third step is to develop themes and a coding scheme. These could emerge from data,

existing literature, and theories. can all be used to generate categories and a coding scheme. An initial list of coding categories could be developed using the model or theory, and the model or theory could be adjusted as new categories develop inductively during the analysis. The fourth step is to test the coding scheme on a sample text to ensure that there are no discrepancies or inconsistencies in the coding scheme. The fifth step is to code all the data collected for the study. The sixth step is checking the coding that has been done for uniformity. The seventh stage entails making meaning of the identified themes or categories, as well as their attributes.

3.3 Sampling technique

Daymon and Holloway (2011) state that sampling involves making decisions about what data to collect, how to evaluate it, and where to obtain it. Methods for qualitative sampling include intentional, strategic sampling based on findings relevant to the purpose of the study. Miles et al. (2014) aver that the majority of qualitative sampling are purposeful as opposed to random because qualitative studies concentrate on the particular circumstances of each case. Due to the nature of the current study, purposive sampling was deemed appropriate in deciding the procedure involved in sampling.

3.3.1 Purposive sampling

Purposive sampling is defined by Oliver (2006) as a type of non-probability sampling in which the researcher makes decisions about which individuals to include in the sample based on a variety of criteria such as participants' knowledge of the research issue or ability as well as readiness to take part in the research. Creswell (2013) states that purposive sampling is the selection of venues or individuals that will assist the researcher in

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understanding the research problem. Bernard (2002) state that purposive sampling is a non-random strategy in which the researcher determines what needs to be known and sets out to discover people who can and are ready to contribute information based on knowledge experience. To Wimmer and Dominick (2011), purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling method that selects respondents for a study based on certain features or attributes and rejects those who do not fulfill these requirements. Again, purposive sampling, according to Lindlof and Taylor (2002), is a non-probability strategy in which sites and instances are picked because there is reason to assume that what happens there is crucial to understanding some process or concept. In line with these assertions from these scholars, the 2020 election manifesto of the NPP and the 2012 election manifesto of the NDC were purposively sampled for the current study. The NPP and NDC were selected for the study because they are the only political parties that have had the chance to gain political power since the beginning of the fourth republic in 1992. The two manifestoes were specifically selected because these manifestoes were the most recent manifestoes used by the two political parties to gain a second term in presidential office.

3.4 Sampling and sample size

Daymon and Holloway (2011) postulate that the choice of what to sample for a study will vary based on the study's emphasis and topic matter, but some considerations that could be made are where to sample data from, which refers to the location or environment for your research, what to sample, which includes the time period, activities, events, processes, or issues, and sampling technique to be used, as well as whether a sample should be taken of who or what. Leavy (2017) posits that the process of choosing several individual cases from a broader population is known as sampling. Leavy (2017) adds that the number of distinct

examples that a researcher finally selects and the person(s) or participants from whom a researcher gathers data constitute a sample. Leavy (2017) advances that smaller sample sizes are preferred in qualitative studies.

Based on these assertions, and also on the basis that, lexical bundles are identified by their appearance in texts produced by different authors, the sample size for the study was two manifestoes; the 2020 manifesto of the NPP and the 2012 manifesto of the NDC. These two manifestoes were sampled based on the fact that, these manifestoes were used by the NPP and the NDC in the 2020 and 2012 elections respectively, and the political parties were able to gain a second term of office. Aside the fact that the sequence of words needed to appear in different texts to ensure that the use of lexical bundles is not as a result of a writer's peculiar writing style, two manifestoes were selected for the study to induce some fairness into the choice of manifestoes that would constitute the data for the study.

3.5 Data collection method

Jankowski and Wester (2002) explicate that in-depth interviews, document analysis, textual analysis and unstructured observations are just a few of the methods used to acquire data in qualitative research. This study employed textual analysis as a data collection method due to the nature of the data collected for the study.

3.5.1 Textual analysis

Frey et al. (1999) propound that textual analysis is a technique that scholars use to explain and analyze the elements of a recorded message. They add that, the aim of textual analysis is to characterize the messages that are present in texts in terms of their content, structure, and functions. The study adopts textual analysis as a data collection method because it seeks

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to draw meaning from how lexical bundles are used in the selected manifestoes to facilitate the communication of the aims and aspirations of the political parties to electorates. Textual analysis, which Kuckartz (2019) identifies as a method suitable for thoroughly examining texts to get an in-depth understanding of its properties and hidden meanings, helps the researcher to pay attention to the structures that are present in the manifestoes, as far as lexical bundles are concerned.

Smith (2017) assert that textual analysis is a method to investigate communications and messages as they appear across a range of mediums. Textual analysis data can be generated from a variety of sources, including documents, films, newspapers, among others. These types of data serve as the texts under investigation, and they are utilized to evaluate the meanings, values, and messages sent through them. The texts that are used in this study are the 2020 manifesto of the NP and the 2012 manifesto of the NDC, and textual analysis reveals the latent meanings of how specific lexical bundles have been used in these manifestoes to persuade electorates to give the political parties a second term in presidential office. Smith (2017) adds that, texts are generated by numerous actors for diverse causes, and textual analysis aids in understanding the importance of the creation of such texts. Frey et al. (1992) adduce that textual analysis serves three purposes, which are that researchers assign meaning to the text, investigate the consequences of variables outside the text of study, and analyze or evaluate the text. In this study, textual analysis serves the purpose of analyzing the language in the manifestoes with regards to how lexical bundles have been used in communication.

According to Lockyer (2008), text is polysemic, which means that it may be interpreted in various ways. Thus, a textual analysis can help discover the hidden or latent meaning of the

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text based on the context or society in which it is utilized. Textual analysis can look at the content and meaning of texts, as well as their structure and discourse (Lockyer, 2008).

3.5.2 Data collection process

The data collection process, according to Asiamah (2017) examines the many steps, methods, and techniques by which the researcher uses various data collection tools to acquire data for the study. O'Leary (2014) recommends two methods when conducting a document analysis. The first is the interview technique. This strategy entails the researcher treating the document as a respondent or informant who offers valuable information to the researcher (O'Leary, 2014). The second method is to make a note of occurrences within a text. This technique was used to analyze data inductively, building from specific to general, fundamental occurrences within the text. For the current study, the manifestoes were downloaded from the website of an organization known as Coalition of Domestic Election Observers (CODEO), that is, https://codeoghana.org/. CODEO was the preferred site for collecting the data because, the website of both political parties did not have the manifestoes that would constitute the data for the study.

The Coalition of Domestic Election Observers is dedicated to ensuring that elections are free, fair, and transparent, and voter turnout in elections are increased, among others. Part of their activities in this regard is to provide the public with some political education, hence their upload of manifestoes of political parties that contest elections in Ghana. The manifestoes of political parties that contest each presidential election are uploaded unto their website, under a tab labeled "Library" so I downloaded the manifestoes that I needed for the study from that tab. The manifestoes were downloaded onto my mobile phone on Sunday, 6th August, 2023 at 3:16pm for the NPP manifesto and 4:25pm for the NDC

manifesto. The website from which I downloaded the manifestoes had a system where the manifestoes from the most recent election years were at the top of the page, and they followed in a decreasing order. The NPP manifesto was easier to find and download out of the two because the 2020 presidential elections were the most recent that were held in Ghana. The downloading of the NDC manifesto required more time as I had to go through the 2020 and 2016 election years in order to find the 2012 election manifesto of the NDC. The manifestoes were then transferred from my phone to my laptop and subsequently saved as separate documents in a pdf format as "NPP 2020 manifesto" and "NDC 2012 manifesto". The files were moved to my laptop to afford me ease with reading the texts, highlighting word sequences that could qualify as lexical bundles, as well as adding comments to the highlighted texts while I was doing my preliminary coding and analysis. In line with the technique of O'Leary (2014) that deals with treating the document as an informant, I read the manifestoes carefully in order to extract what I needed for the current study.

3.6 Data Analysis

Lindlof and Taylor (2002) define data analysis as the process of classifying, breaking down, and reestablishing unprocessed data into themes, patterns, concepts, and assertions. Flick (2013) states that the goal of qualitative data analysis is to provide a more detailed description of a phenomena in a field of study. This study, thus, ascribes itself to thematic analysis as a means to analyze the data collected for the study.

3.6.1 Thematic analysis

Braun et al. (2016) define thematic analysis as an analytical strategy that is aimed at uncovering patterns of meaning in a qualitative dataset. They add that, thematic analysis is excellent for researchers who intend to do primarily descriptive research. Since the focus of this study is to describe how lexical bundles play a communicative role in manifestoes, thematic analysis is the most appropriate analysis technique to use. Braun et al. (2016) again posit that thematic analysis also provides a tool for more complex, interpretive analysis. Thematic analysis allows the researcher to uncover patterns or themes in a dataset and then explain, interpret, and evaluate their relevance. Furthermore, Braun et al. (2016) indicate that thematic analysis is particularly effective with textual material that the researcher has developed (such as diaries, story completion, or vignettes) as well as pre-existing (such as talkback radio or newspapers, and in the case of this research, manifestos of political parties). The data for the current study is primarily documents, specifically manifestoes, and the purpose of the study is to make meaning out of how lexical bundles aid communication in a written text. Thus, thematic analysis is the most appropriate data analysis method for the current study.

Braun et al. (2016) outline six steps for researchers to follow when conducting thematic analysis. The first stage of thematic analysis is familiarization, which entails spending a significant amount of time with the data and being well acquainted with its contents. In practice, this includes reading and rereading all data items and taking notes on what could constitute codes or themes. Braun et al. (2016) explain that, a researcher should examine the data looking for theories and concepts that can help answer a research question, and reading it with an open and critical mind. At this step, the data was given a cursory read

first, identifying word sequences that could potentially be lexical bundles. These word sequences were highlighted and would be used in the subsequent steps of the data analysis process.

The second, third, fourth and fifth stages involve primary analytical activities that are generating initial codes, coding data into potential themes, reviewing and changing the possible themes, and constructing a rich analysis of the data that final themes express. Braun et al. (2016) state that coding is an important stage in thematic analysis, and careful, meticulous coding establishes strong foundations for topic growth and helps a researcher make interpretations of the data. The add that, the coding technique includes reading the data attentively and tagging each aspect with a code that corresponds in some way to a research question. During the coding process, existing codes could be edited by extending to fit the analysis process. After the first reading of the data, I re-read the data set attentively, paying attention to the highlighted word sequences and whether they met the criteria to be established as lexical bundle. The criteria propounded by Altenberg (1999) and Chen and Baker (2010), that a word sequence qualifies to be a lexical bundle if it appears in both manifestoes with a frequency of at least three times, and it is made up of three and or four words were what was adopted for this study. The grammatical structures of the lexical bundles found in the data were analyzed, in order to answer research question one. Then, these bundles were analyzed based on the similarities and differences between them with regards to how they were used in both manifestoes. After that, these lexical bundles were analyzed with particular reference to what functioned they played in each paragraph they were present in, and how their used shaped the discourse present in different sections of the data. The themes for each research question were already established in the theoretical

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frameworks that underpinned the study, so I made sure to match my initial codes to these existing themes. The final step is the writing phase. Existing analytical writing is put together, developed, and modified throughout this stage of thematic analysis. I used descriptive language to present the findings of the study in a manner that would be easily understood.

3.7 Unit of Analysis

Zhang and Wildemuth (2005) assert that the basic unit of text to be analyzed during the analysis process is referred to as the unit of analysis. The unit of analysis for the study is a paragraph. Wali and Abdul (2020) define a paragraph as a group of interconnected lines that develop a single concept. The reason for the selection of a paragraph as the unit of analysis for the study is that, a paragraph is a defined structure that exists in a text and typically conveys a fully expressed thought or idea. Hence, the communicative function that a lexical bundle intends to perform would be adequately exhibited in a paragraph.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

A research study, according to Bowen (2009) is required to be objective and sensitive in data collection and analysis. Respect for participants and informed consent are the primary principles upon which all other ethical issues are based (Vanclay et al., 2013). Wimmer and Dominick (2011) recognized three major ethical considerations. The first is to prevent fabrication, which means that the data utilized for the study must be real and appropriately reflect the opinions of the study participants. The second step is falsification, which is the avoidance of any type of erroneous information in data analysis and findings. The third step is to avoid plagiarism by claiming ownership of concepts or works that are legally owned

by others. Based on these assertions, the current study utilized the original manifestoes as a data source, devoid of any modifications. All the analysis and findings that were presented were accurate and were representative of what existed in the data set for the current study. According to Vanclay et al. (2013), a research study must fully disclose all of the methods and analytical procedures used for the study in order for another researcher to replicate the research; to allow peer review of the adequacy and ethicality of the methodology; and to encourage self-reflection on the boundaries of the methodology and any implications for the results and conclusions. In light of the ethical principles described in the preceding paragraphs, this research was done fairly and objectively, with no attempt to manipulate the data acquired. The selection of political parties for the current study was not based on any biases, but rather on the fact that the political parties selected have been the only ones to govern the country since the beginning of the fourth republic in Ghana. Secondly, because the study solely focused on the analysis of manifestoes to investigate how lexical bundles have been used in them, no participants were required. As a result, there was no need to get consent from any participants or inform them about the goal of the study. Additionally, all the methods, procedures and steps that were involved in the entire data collection and analysis process on the use of lexical bundles and their communicative functions in the manifestoes have been outlined in the current study.

3.9 Trustworthiness of Data

According to Lincoln and Guba (2000), one of the most significant components in building trustworthiness in research is ensuring credibility (internal validity). Creswell (2014) offers eight validation procedures for verifying the validity of a qualitative study. Triangulation, using member checking to determine participant accuracy, using rich and thick

descriptions, presenting negative case analysis, spending extended time at the research field, using peer debriefing, using external auditors, and clarifying research basis are examples of these processes. Creswell (2014) adds that qualitative researchers should use at least two of the methodologies in their research. The validation procedures that were used in this study were using external auditors and using thick, rich descriptions.

The current study made use of external auditors to ensure credibility. After I had coded the data and developed themes consistent with what had been provided by the theoretical framework for the current study, I had a couple of my colleagues go through the coding sheets and sections of the data to ensure that my findings were consistent with the data that was collected. In addressing the methods that were used in collecting data for the study, thick and rich descriptions were employed to explain the data collection process in detail. I stated and explained every decision and action that was made with regards to the method of collecting the data so that the process was clear and concise.

In the current study, my political biases were bracketed as I interrogated the manifestoes for how the use of lexical bundles in them helped in communication. Bertelsen (2005) defines bracketing as a researcher's interpretation of a phenomenon based on immediate understanding of a phenomenon, rather than pre-existing assumptions or hypotheses. I bracketed my political biases by preventing my personal and political opinions from affecting my interpretation of how the lexical bundles in the manifestoes were used in communicating the political goals and aspirations of both the NPP and the NDC to their electorates. Also, all the analysis that was done was based on only the data provided from the manifestoes that made up the corpus. No inferences were drawn from other documents or events that surrounded the release of the manifestoes of both political parties.

3.10 Summary of chapter

Chapter three focused on the methods that were used in collecting and gathering data for the study. The researcher adopted a qualitative content analysis through a qualitative research approach to investigate the use, structure and communicative functions of lexical bundles in selected manifestoes of the NPP and the NDC. Through document analysis, I collected data from two manifestoes, which were the 2020 manifesto of the NPP and the 2012 manifesto of the NDC. Furthermore, rationalization was provided for each choice made at every stage of the data collection process. Three ethical issues that were raised during the study were. Finally, the entire chapter explained the research approach, research design, sampling techniques, sample size, data collection methods and procedures, data analysis methods and procedures, ethical issues and the credibility of the study.
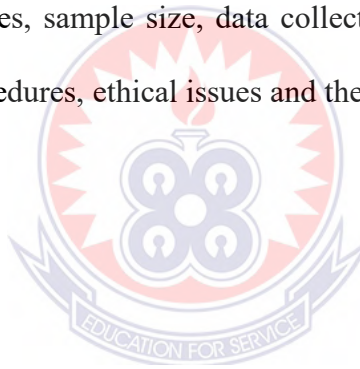
CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents an analysis and discussion of findings from the data collected from the manifestoes of two political parties in Ghana on the use of lexical bundles in political communication. The chapter also presents findings from the data collected to identify the kinds of lexical bundles that are used in the manifestoes, the structural classifications of these lexical bundles and the specific functions they play in the corpus generated for the study. The research questions that guided the process of data collection are

1. What are the lexical bundles used in the selected manifestoes of the NPP and NDC?

2. What are the structures of the lexical bundles used in the selected manifestoes of the NPP and NDC?

3. What are the communicative functions of the lexical bundles used in the selected manifestoes of the NPP and NDC?

4.1 RQ1. What are the lexical bundles used in the selected manifestoes of the NPP and NDC?

This research question points out the lexical bundles that were identified in the corpus. The researcher identified these lexical bundles by taking a first cursory look at the corpus and noting word sequences that could potentially be lexical bundles. These word sequences were then examined according to the criteria established by Chen and Baker (2010) and Biber et al. (2004). After that, the word sequences that qualified to be lexical bundles were sorted out and listed. This study established a lexical bundle as a three and or four- word sequence that has been used at least three times in all the texts that make up the corpus.

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Although Chen and Baker (2010) state that four- word bundles are the most researched length of lexical bundles and recommend that they should be used in manual categorizations of lexical bundles, the researcher found out that three- word bundles were also frequently used throughout the corpus. In accordance with Lee (2020), three-word bundles have the potential for productive and relevant expressions, and their analysis equally reveal meanings of utterances made in a discourse. Thus, three- word bundles were included in the list of lexical bundles found in the corpus. Below is a table showing the three and four- word lexical bundles that were found in the corpus.

Table 5: Three and Four- word lexical bundles in the NPP and NDC manifestoes

Three- word lexical bundles	Four- word lexical bundles
In consultation with	The next four years
In that regard	In our (2008/ 2016) manifesto
In fulfilment of	In our first term
In this administration	For the first time
Over the years	At the end of
The (NPP/NDC) government	The next (NPP/NDC) government
In partnership with	During its next term
Across the country	The last four years
As well as	At the beginning of
In line with	For its next term
In collaboration with	In our next term
In addition to	
As part of	
One of the	

The three- word and four- word lexical bundles presented in the table above were found in both manifestoes. Since a word sequence needs to appear in both manifestoes to be

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classifies as a lexical bundle, the lexical bundles found in both manifestoes were the same. Thus, they were placed into one table. From the table, it is realized that some lexical bundles, which are *'The next (NPP/NDC) government'* and *'The (NPP/NDC) government'* appear to be two bundles that have been merged into one. Following the procedure of Lee (2020) who also merged two lexical bundles because they had the same structure but have different nouns in them, the researcher merged two lexical bundles which were originally *'the next NPP government'* and *'the next NDC government'* in the first example, and *'the NPP government'* and *'the NDC government'* in the second example.

A graphical representation of the frequency of lexical bundles used in the manifestoes is provided below.
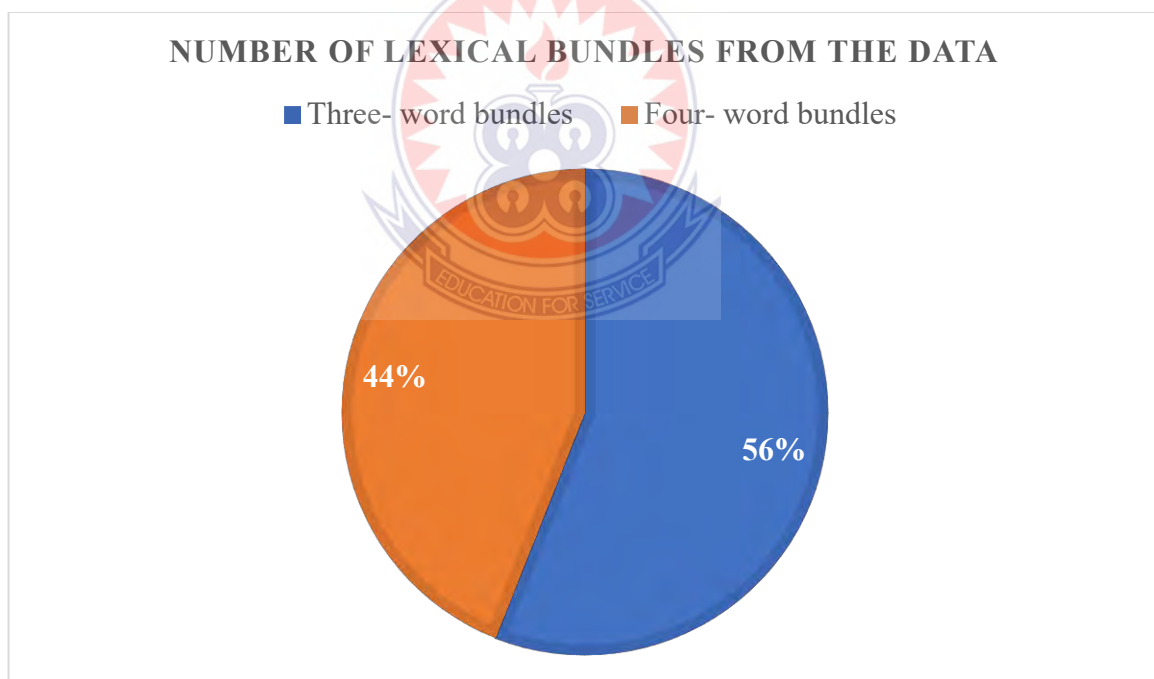

Figure 1: Graphical representation of lexical bundles in both manifestoes

There were slightly more three- word bundles than four- word bundles in the corpus, as can be seen from the figure above. While there were 14 three- word lexical bundles in the data corpus, constituting 56% of the total percentage of lexical bundles used, there were 11 four-

word bundles in the data, constituting 44% of the total percentage of lexical bundles in the corpus. This finding is in contrast with assertions from studies such as Hyland (2008) who stated that four- word bundles are the most common in terms of the number of words in a lexical bundle. The occurrence of more three- word bundles in the corpus for this study also go contrary to the findings of other studies like Jalali and Moini (2014), Barbieri (2017) and Islami et al. (2019). These studies examined the use of lexical bundles in various spoken and written registers other than political texts, such as Medicine, American blogs, among others, and concluded that, four- word bundles are the most prevalent in written texts. A lot of investigation has not been done into political texts to determine the nature of the lexical bundles that are frequently used in them, and so the findings that have been presented from studies that address the use of lexical bundles in specific disciplines may not apply to the findings from this study.

After manual categorization of the data, it was realized that there were 25 bundles found in both the NPP and the NDC manifestoes. In comparison with Wachidah et al. (2020), who also manually categorized lexical bundles used in the findings and discussions section of graduate theses, the bundles found in the corpus for this study were few. This finding goes contrary to the assertion of Bestgen (2019) who states that the smaller the data corpus, the higher the number of lexical bundles selected using fixed criteria. Evidence from other studies such as Heng et al. (2014) suggest that the corpora that have more words in them usually have a higher occurrence of lexical bundles in them.

Biber et al. (2004) also state that lexical bundles are more prevalent in spoken registers than in written registers, because spoken registers usually rely on what they term as 'oral and literate bundles'. This means that, spoken registers use a blend of bundles that typically

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belong in spoken discourses, as well as written discourses. So, while written registers are restricted to literate bundles, spoken registers have access to both literate and oral bundles. Also, it is relevant to note that the cause for the few uses of lexical bundles in the corpus can be attributed to the gap in knowledge on the use of lexical bundles in Ghana. A cursory look through the curriculum for basic schools, senior high schools, and the required communication skills course for undergraduate tertiary students revealed that lexical bundles were not taught in the classrooms. Linguistic and communication studies in Ghana do not pay a lot of attention to the use of lexical bundles in written and spoken interaction. Thus, text producers may not familiar with how to use these bundles to enhance coherence in text, as Hyland (2008) postulates.

From the examples of lexical bundles found in the two manifestoes, some similarities and differences were found in terms of the frequency of the bundles in each manifesto, and the ways in which the lexical bundles were used in each manifesto.

4.1.1 Three- word lexical bundles

The findings from the data reveal that there were 25 lexical bundles found in the corpus, consisting of 14 three- word bundles and 11 four- word bundles. It was realized that some bundles were used in higher frequencies than others in both manifestoes. The table below shows the three- word lexical bundles found in the data and how many times they occur in each of the manifestoes.

Table 6: Frequencies of three- word lexical bundles

Three- word lexical bundles	NPP	NDC	Total number of occurrences
One of the	6	8	14
In consultation with	2	2	4
In fulfilment of	4	1	5
In this administration	1	3	4
The (NPP/NDC) government	42	50	92
In partnership with	2	5	7
Across the country	11	15	26
As well as	41	35	76
In line with	7	3	10
In collaboration with	7	9	16
In addition to	9	6	15
As part of	19	12	31
In that regard	2	2	4
Over the years	3	2	5
Total	156	153	309

A graphical representation of the frequencies of the three- word lexical bundles in both manifestoes is shown below.

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FREQUENCY OF THREE- WORD LEXICAL BUNDLES IN THE MANIFESTOES

Figure 2: Graphical representation of frequencies of three- word lexical bundles in the manifestoes

From table 6 and figure 2 above, the lexical bundles with the highest frequency in both the NPP manifesto and the NDC manifesto is *'the NPP/NDC government'*. This bundle occurs 42 times in the NPP manifesto and 50 times in the NDC manifesto.

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4.1.2 Four- word lexical bundles

The table below shows the frequencies of the four- word lexical bundles in the NPP and NDC manifestoes.

Table 7: Frequencies of four- word lexical bundles in the data

Four-word lexical bundles	NPP	NDC	Number of occurrences
The next four years	37	21	58
In our (2016/2008) manifesto	2	5	7
In our first term	2	1	3
For the first time	4	3	7
At the end of	4	6	10
In our next term	5	3	8
The next (NPP/NDC) government	21	23	44
During its next term	1	2	3
The last four years	2	1	3
At the beginning of	2	2	4
For its next term	2	1	3
Total	82	68	150

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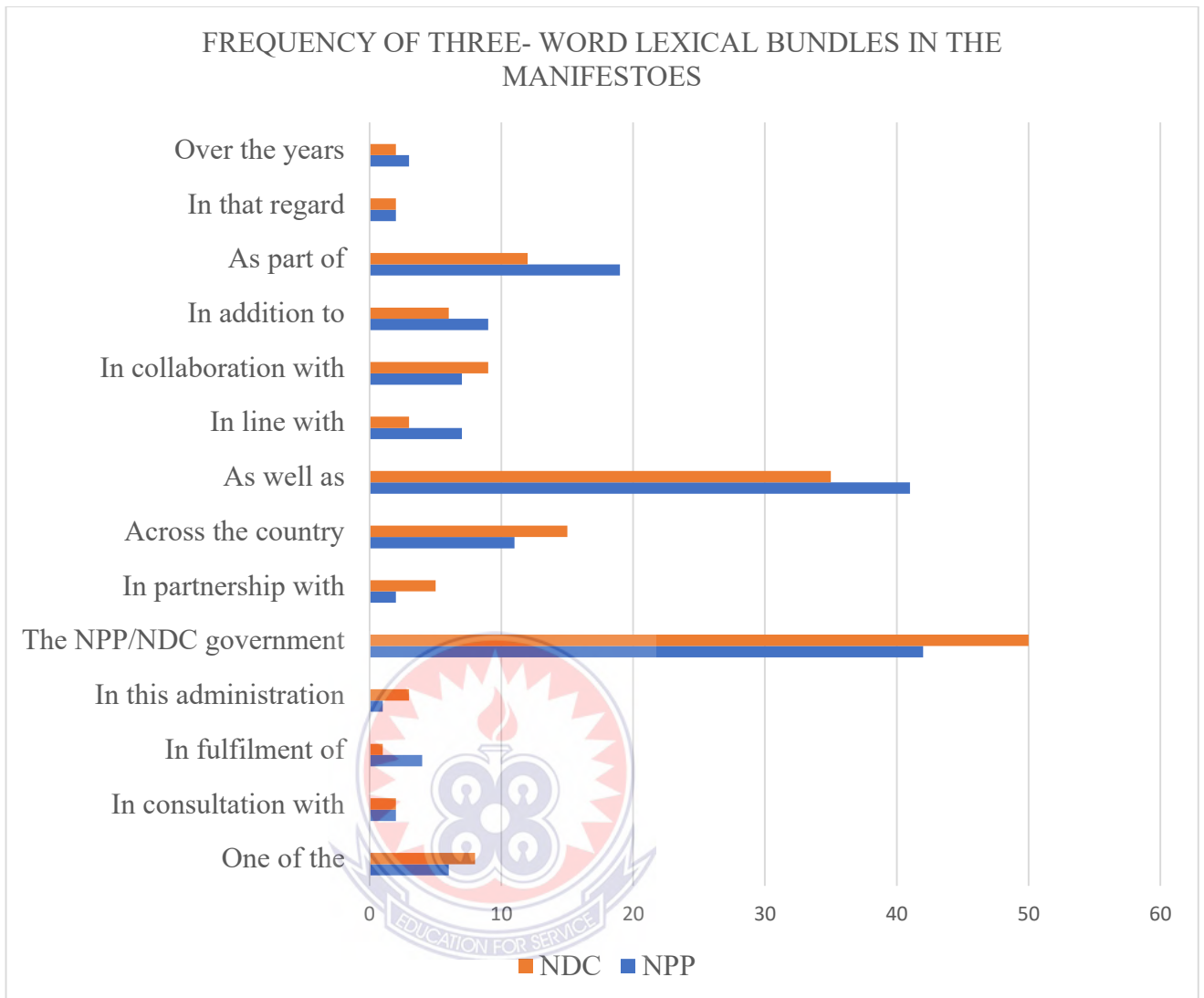A graphical representation of the frequencies of the four- word bundles in the corpus is shown below
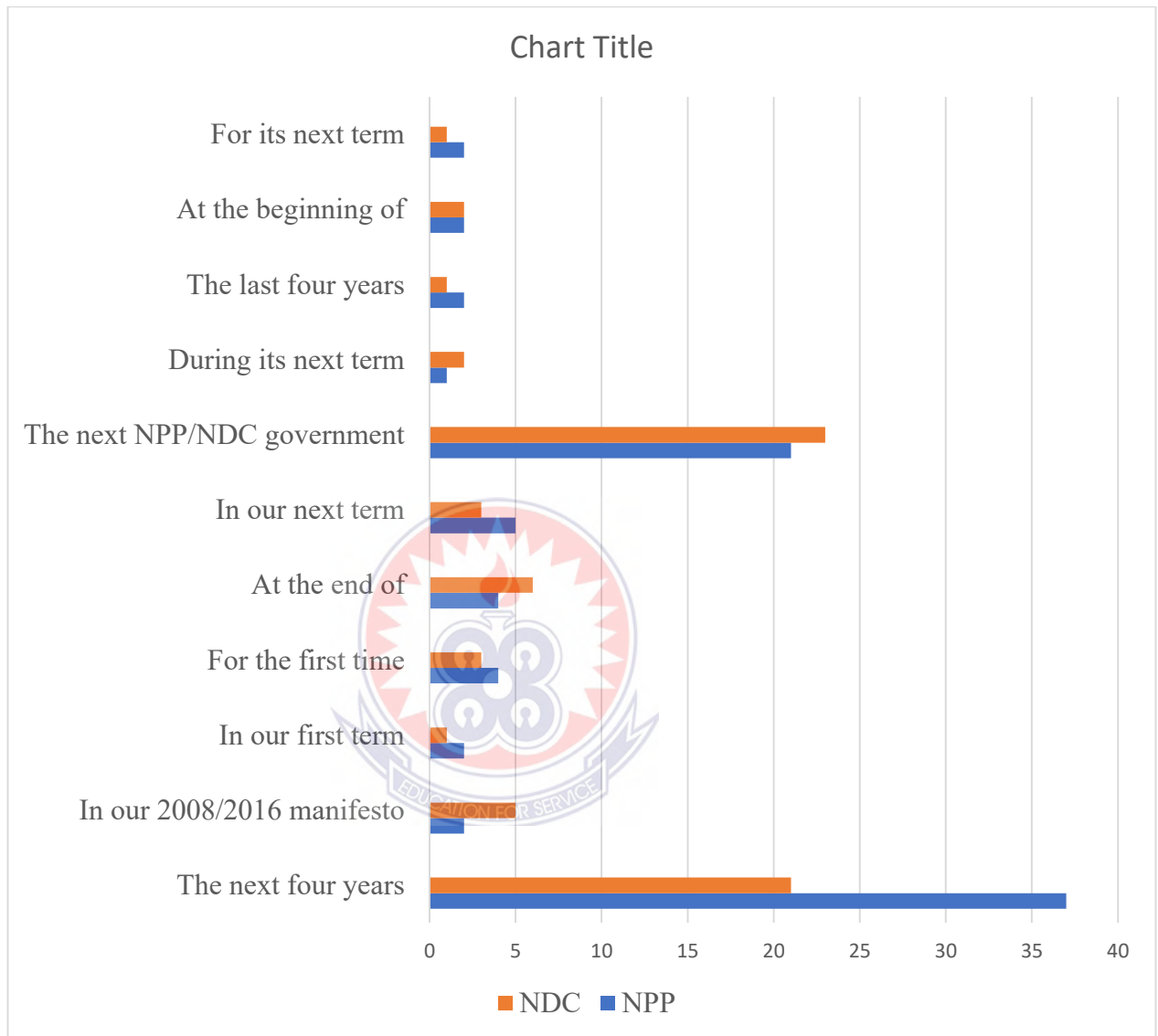

Figure 3: Graphical representation of frequencies of four- word lexical bundles from the data

From table 7 and figure 3 above, the lexical bundle with the highest frequency in the NPP manifesto is *'the next four years'*, while the highest occurring lexical bundle in the NDC manifesto is *'the next NDC government'*. The bundle *'the next four years'* appeared 37

times in the NPP manifesto, while in the NDC manifesto, the bundle *'the next NDC government'* appeared 23 times.

4.1.3 Similarities and differences

There were some similarities and differences in the frequency of lexical bundles in both manifestoes. From table 6, it is realized that the three- word bundle with the highest frequency in both manifestoes is *'the NPP/NDC government'* which occurs a total of 92 times, that is, 42 times in the NPP manifesto and 50 times in the NDC manifesto. In table 7, *'the next four years'*, which occurs 37 times in the NPP manifesto, and *'the next NDC government'* which occurs 23 times in the NDC manifesto, have the highest number of occurrences out of all the four- word bundles used in the corpus. These three bundles occur the most times due to the nature and content of the data corpus. The manifestoes that constitute the data for the study are being used by the political parties to gain a second chance at governing the country. Due to this, a lot of reference is made to the existing government and the one that will come after it, should the political parties be given the opportunity to hold presidential office for a second term. These references are used to remind the electorates of the achievements of the political parties in the first term, as seen in in the excerpt below

> In just 4 years of prudent macro-economic management, **the NDC Government** (2009 – 2012) achieved sustained single digit inflation for more than 24 months since June 2010, the lowest annual average single digit rate since 1970…
>
> (NDC manifesto, page 50)
>
> **The NPP Government**, past and present, is the only party with a proven track record in designing and implementing social protection programmes that have provided

much needed support to the vulnerable and disadvantaged in Ghana. From health insurance through school feeding to free SHS, we have continuously demonstrated our credentials in building a fair and equitable society.

(NPP manifesto, page 161)

In the above examples, the lexical bundles are used by the political parties, in their manifestoes, to draw attention to their achievements in their first terms of office. The high frequency of this bundle, which is *'the NPP/NDC government'* thus proves that the writers of the manifestoes understand the role that language plays in political communication, so they use this lexical bundle to make reference to their ability to fulfil their political promises to the electorates.

Based on the ability that the political actors have established through the use of the lexical bundle *'the NPP/NDC government'*, the bundle *'the next four years'* is also in reference to the political goals they seek to attain when they gain political power for a second term in office. Throughout both manifestoes, *'the next four years'* precedes a political promise or an expectation that the political parties want the electorates to have. The excerpts below show how the bundle has been used to relay political promises in the manifestoes to the electorates

To enhance further the peace and security of the country over ***the next four years***, we will continue with these investments and continue to invest in new technologies to improve the crime-fighting capabilities of the security forces, including the continued deployment of ***'the next four years'*** cameras to assist in fighting crime under the ongoing Alpha project.

(NPP manifesto, page 161)

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In ***the next four years***, the NDC Government will make the NHIS truly national by phasing out the District Mutual Health Insurance Schemes, improve efficiency in the provider payment mechanisms and roll out capitation nationwide.

(NDC manifesto, page 37)

From the above excerpts, the utterances that come after the bundle spell out a project that the political parties seek to carry out in their next term of office, if they are elected into power. The lexical bundle, *'the next four years'* thus, introduces these promises, and makes reference to the specific time period that they hope to achieve their goals.

The most occurring bundles from both the three- word bundles and the four- word bundles, which are *'the NPP/NDC government'* in both manifestoes, and *'the next four years'* and *'the next NDC government'* are specific to the corpus of the study. These three bundles occur the most times because they are unique to the corpus. They are central to the main idea in these manifestoes, which is to relay political ambitions to electorates. This explains why they are the most occurring lexical bundles from their sets of lexical bundles.

The difference in the frequencies of the three- word and four- word bundles in the NPP and the NDC manifestoes is that, three- word bundles were used more frequently than the four-word bundles. The total frequency for the three- word lexical bundles in the NPP manifesto was 156, and in the NDC manifesto it was 153, making a total of 309, while for four- word bundles, they were 82 in the NPP manifesto, and 68 in the NDC manifesto, making a total of 150. Aside the fact that there were more three- word bundles in the corpus, the findings show that they were also used more than the four- word bundles. This finding agrees with Taieb and Toumi (2021) who state that the shorter a lexical bundle, the more often it is used. That explains why in the two manifestoes, more three- word bundles are found, and

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in higher frequencies, than four- word lexical bundles. Additionally, from tables 6 and 7, it is realized that the NPP manifesto has higher frequencies of three- word and four- word bundles than the NDC manifesto. This may be due to the fact that, the NPP manifesto contains more words than the NDC manifesto, thus, confirming Heng et al. (2014) when they state that the longer a text, the more lexical bundles are used in it. The NPP manifesto contains 33, 140 words, while the NDC manifesto contains 29, 174 words. This explains why there are higher frequencies of three- word and four- word lexical bundles in the NPP manifesto than in the NDC manifesto.

4.1.4 Structural similarities and differences

The table below shows the distribution of three- word and four- word bundles found in the corpus according to their structural categories.

Table 8: Distribution of structural types of three and four- word bundles in the manifestoes

Structural type	Three- word bundles	Four- word bundles
Noun phrase with 'of' phrase fragments	2	-
Other noun phrase expressions	1	3
Prepositional phrases	10	8
Comparative expressions	1	-

A graphical representation of table 8 is shown below.

DISTRIBUTION OF STRUCTURAL TYPES OF THREE AND FOUR- WORD BUNDLES

Figure 4: Graphical representation of the distribution of lexical bundles in the manifestoes according to their structural types

From table 8 and figure 4 above, it is realized that both three- word and four- word lexical bundles in the corpus have the highest examples of prepositional phrases in them. However, three- word bundles are slightly more than four- word bundles. This could be attributed to the overall dominance of three- word bundles in the corpus. This finding confirms that both three and four- word bundles utilized the most prepositional phrase expressions in the corpus.

However, noun phrases have more four- word bundles than three- word bundles. This may be due to the fact that most of the four- word bundles are composed of an article and an adjective. This composition is more common in longer word sequences than in shorter ones.

4.2.3 Functional similarities and differences

The table below shows the distribution of three- word and four- word bundles found in the corpus according to their functional categories.

Table 9: Distribution of functional types of three and four- word bundles in the manifestoes

Functional types	Three- word bundles	Four- word bundles
Referential expressions	6	11
Discourse organizers	7	0
Stance expressions	1	0

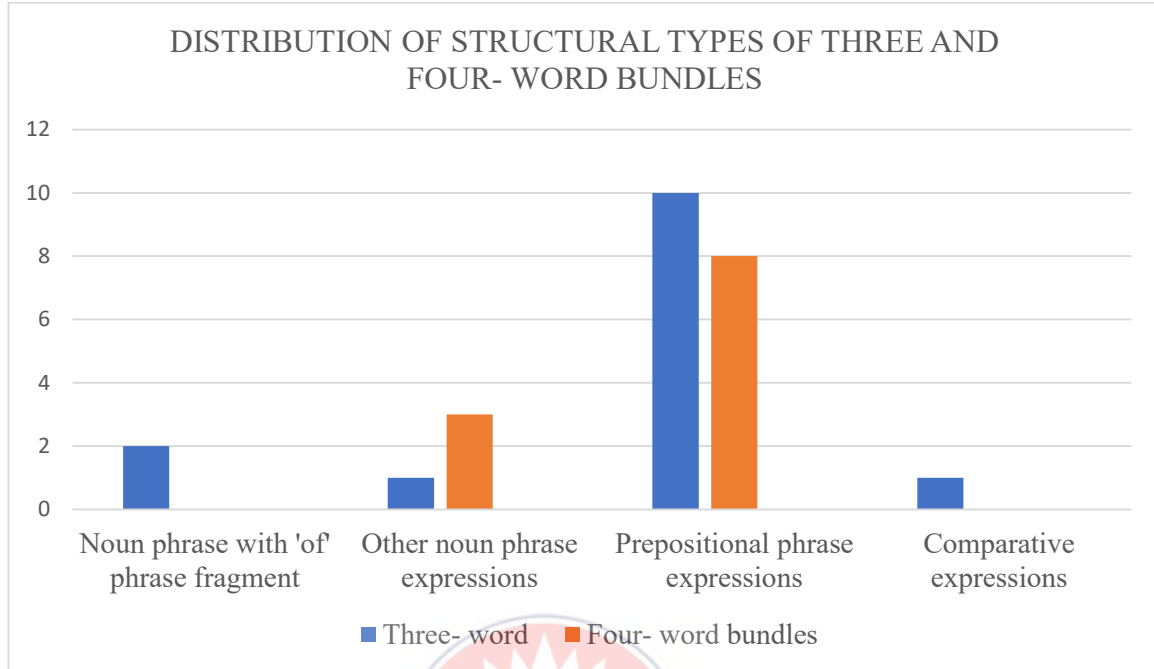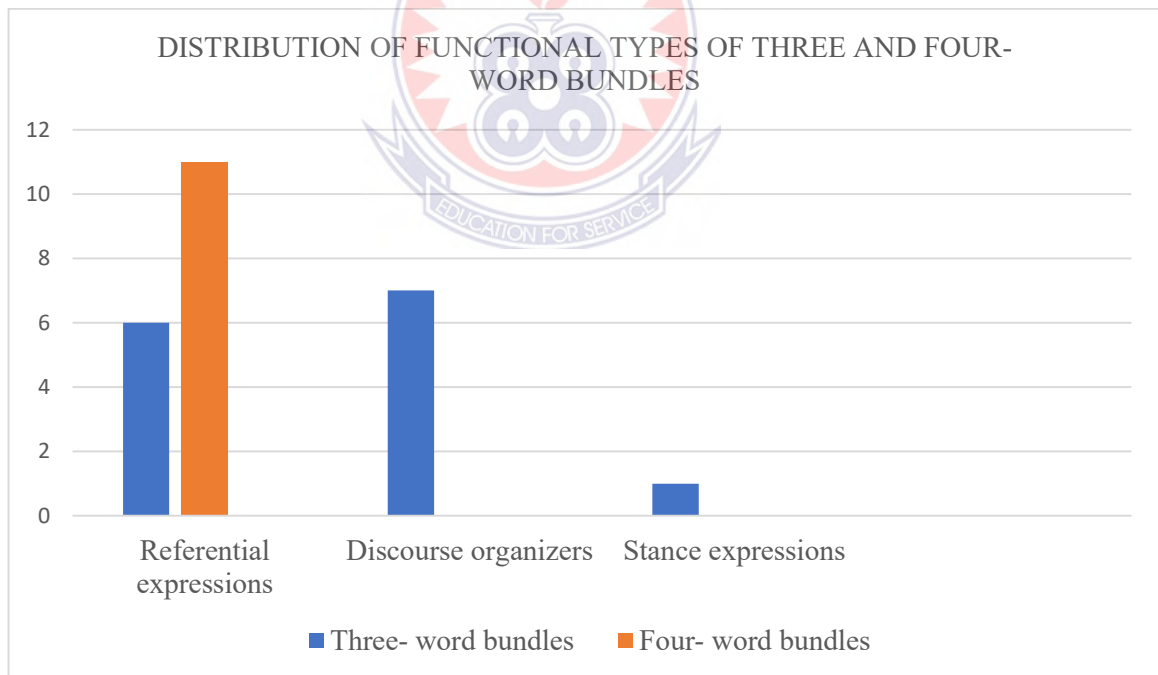A graphical representation of table 9 is shown below.

Figure 5: Graphical representation of the distribution of lexical bundles in the corpus according to their functional types

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From table 9 and figure 5 above, it is realized that referential bundles have the most distributions, which is in line with findings of scholars such as Chen and Baker (2010) who expound that, referential expressions are the most common functional expressions in written texts.

However, all the four- word bundles in the corpus serve as referential expressions. This may be due to the reason that, the four- word bundles in the data are corpus specific. That means, because the bundles were used specifically to communicate political goals, their structure and composition were in line with the general message that the manifestoes carried. Some examples of these bundles from the corpus are *'the next four years'*, *'in our next term'*, *'the next NPP/NDC government'*, among others.

It is important to note that all the discourse organizers that were found in the study were three- word bundles. This may be the case because, it is easier for three- word bundles than four- word bundles to act as connectors between sentences and paragraphs. It is also likely that, three- word bundles are more concise and easier to recall, as compared to four- word bundles, hence a higher frequency in the use of three- word bundles as discourse organizers in the corpus.

4.2 RQ2. What are the structures of the lexical bundles used in the selected manifestoes of the NPP and NDC?

This research question borders on the grammatical structures of lexical bundles found in the corpus. Each lexical bundle has a unique composition depending on the grammatic elements that are found in them. Biber et al. (2004) first identified that lexical bundles can either be clausal fragments or phrasal fragments. Beyond these two broad classifications, they identified a number of structural classifications that lexical bundles can fall under.

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Below is a table showing the structural classifications of lexical bundles found in the corpus.

Table 10: Structural types of lexical bundles in the NPP and NDC manifestoes and excerpts from the corpus

Structural types of lexical bundles	Examples from the corpus
1. (connector) + Noun phrase with *'of'* phrase fragment	As part of One of the
2. Other noun phrase expressions	The next four years The next (NPP/NDC) government The last four years The (NPP/NDC) government
3. Prepositional phrase expressions	In our (2008/2016) manifesto In our first term For the first time At the end of In our next term During its next term At the beginning of For its next term In consultation with In fulfilment of In that regard In this administration Over the years In partnership with Across the country In line with In collaboration with In addition to
4. Comparative expressions	As well as

A graphical representation of the frequencies of lexical bundles in the corpus according to their structural types is provided below.

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FREQUENCY OF STRUCTURAL TYPES OF LEXICAL BUNDLES

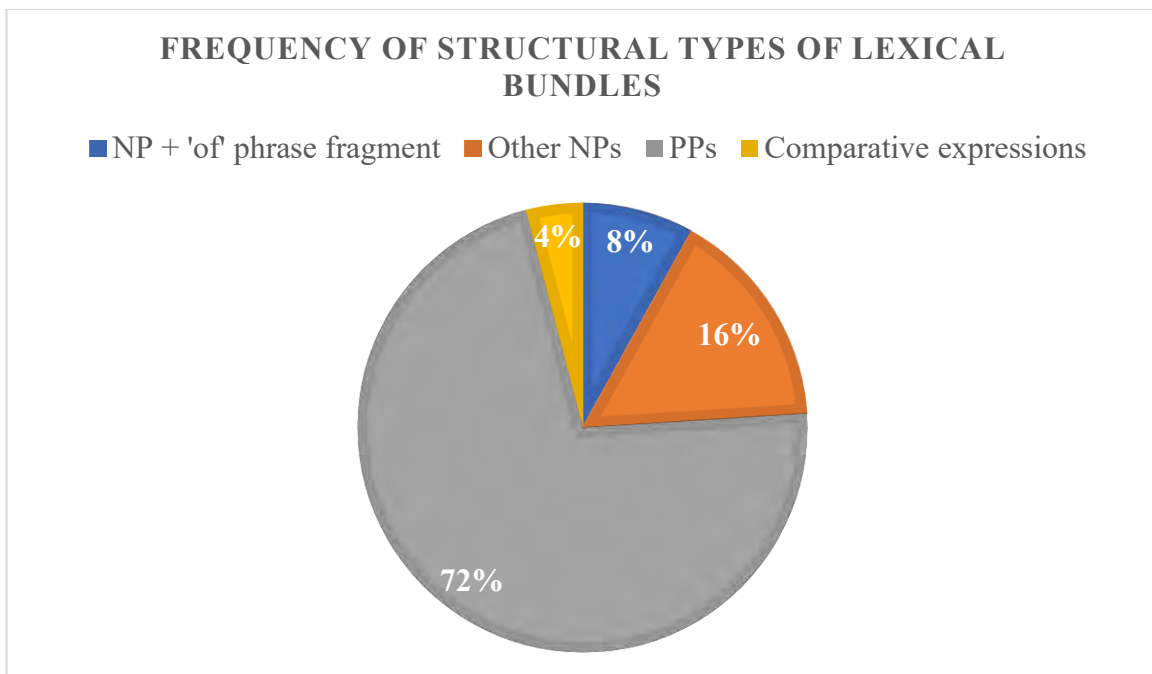■ NP + 'of' phrase fragment   ■ Other NPs   ■ PPs   ■ Comparative expressions

Figure 6: Graphical representation of frequencies of structural types of lexical bundles

From the figure above, it is realized that the most dominant structural composition of lexical bundles in the corpus is prepositional phrase expressions. Out of the 25 lexical bundles present in the corpus, 18 of them are prepositional phrase expressions, which make up 72% of the total number of bundles used in the corpus. The second most frequently used structural type of lexical bundles was other noun phrase expressions, with 4 occurrences, making 16% of the total number of lexical bundles used in the manifestoes. Noun Phrases with *'of'* phrase fragments were the third most used structural type of lexical bundles found in the corpus. There were 2 occurrences of this structural type in the corpus, constituting 8% of the overall number of bundles used. The least occurrence of structural type of lexical bundles was comparative expressions, with only 1 occurrence. This accounted for 4% of the percentage of total number of lexical bundles in the corpus.

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The prevalence of prepositional phrase expressions in the data corpus is in tandem with the findings of Islami et al. (2019) and Gezegin- Bal (2019) who aver that, lexical bundles made up of prepositional phrases are the predominant structures that are present in texts. Conrad and Biber (2005) assert that in written texts, prepositional phrase expressions are the most common structures, and the findings of this study confirm their assertion. Datjerdi and Rafiee (2011), Jalali and Moini (2014) and Lee (2020) indicate that noun phrases are the most dominant structural types in academic writing, followed by prepositional phrase expressions. Their findings are central to establishing the reason for the dominance of prepositional phrases in this data corpus. Manifestoes are not academic documents, therefore they lack the basic attributes that are usually characteristic of academic texts. They are, however, written documents, thus the lexical bundles used in them would be what Biber et al. (2004) consider to be literate bundles, that is, bundles that are used in written texts. Biber et al. (2004) go on to explain that, these literate bundles are usually noun phrase expressions or prepositional phrase expressions. This study's findings are in corroboration with the findings of Biber et al (2004).

The structural classification proposed by Biber et al. (2004) contains 17 structural types of lexical bundles, however only 4 structural types are present in the data corpus. This might be due to a number of reasons. To begin with, Biber et al. (2004) asserts that in general, lexical bundles found in written texts tend to be more phrasal than clausal in nature. This implies that, written texts would naturally have fewer clausal lexical bundles in them. Lexical bundles that incorporate dependent clauses, therefore, would have few occurrences, especially in this corpus since it is made up of written texts. Conrad and Biber (2005) and Heng et al. (2014) whose studies focused on the use of lexical bundles in English

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conversations and students' group discussions found that verb phrases were more prevalent in the spoken register. Conrad and Biber (2005) hypothesized that spoken registers tend to contain more verbs and personal pronouns, which accounts for why lexical bundles that are prevalent in speech incorporate verb phrases in their structures. The texts that make up the corpus for this study are written texts, thus, in tandem with the assertion of Conrad and Biber (2005), they do not contain any lexical bundles that are made up of verb phrases.

4.3 RQ3. What are the communicative functions of the lexical bundles in the selected manifestoes of the NPP and NDC?

This research question addresses the specific communicative functions that the lexical bundles play in the data corpus, and how these functions play a part in political communication in Ghana. Biber et al. (2004) proposed three functional types of lexical bundles, which are stance expressions, discourse organizers and referential expressions. These three broad types have sub categories that spell out more specific functions and meanings. The findings showed that, out of the 25 lexical bundles that were found in the data, 17 of them were referential expressions, 7 of them were discourse organizers and 1 of them was a stance expression. Below is a table showing the different functional types of lexical bundles and examples from the corpus.

Table 11: Functional types of lexical bundles and examples from the corpus

Functional types of lexical bundles	Examples from the corpus
Referential expressions	
1. Identification	One of the
	As part of
2. Time reference	The next four years
	In our first term
	For the first time
	In our next term
	During its next term
	The last four years
	For its next term
	Over the years
3. Place reference	The next (NPP/NDC) government
	In this administration
	The (NPP/NDC) government
	Across the country
4. Text reference	In our (2008/2016) manifesto
5. Multifunctional reference	At the end of
	At the beginning of
Discourse organizers	
1. Topic elaboration	In consultation with
	In fulfilment of
	In partnership with
	As well as
	In line with
	In collaboration with
	In addition to
Stance expressions	
1. Impersonal epistemic stance	In that regard

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A graphical representation of the functional types of lexical bundles that were present in the corpus are shown below.

FREQUENCY OF FUNCTIONAL TYPES OF LEXICAL BUNDLES

■ Referential Expressions   ■ Discourse Organizers   ■ Stance expressions
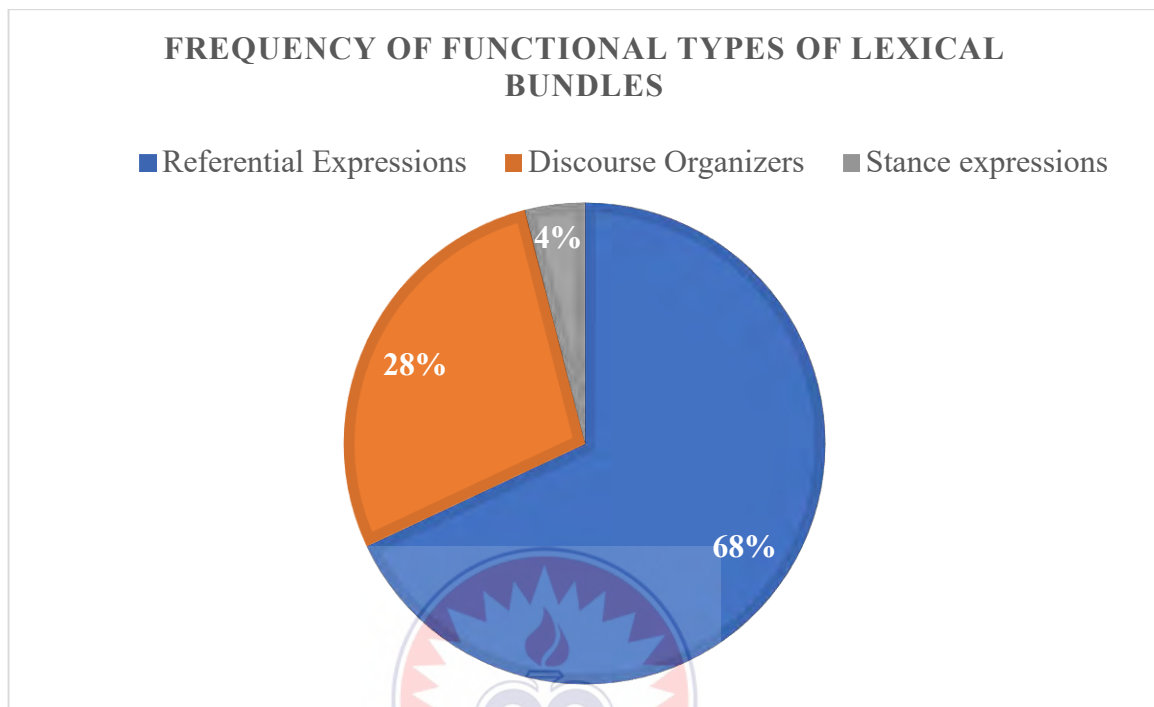
4%

28%

68%

Figure 7: Graphical representation of frequencies of functional types of lexical bundles

As shown in the figure above, referential expressions have the most examples in the corpus, followed by discourse organizers, then stance bundles have the least distribution. There were 17 examples of referential expressions from the data, and the majority of them were used as time reference bundles. Referential expressions made up 68% of the functional types of lexical bundles present in the corpus. Discourse organizers were the second most used functional type of lexical bundles. There were 7 examples from the corpus, making 28% of the total number of lexical bundles in the corpus. Stance expressions only had one example, making them the least functional type in the corpus. They made up 4% of the number of bundles fund in the corpus.

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The dominance of referential expressions in the corpus is in tandem with findings from studies such as Chen and Baker (2010), Dastjerdi and Rafiee (2011), Heng et al. (2014) and Gezegin- Bal (2019), who found out that referential expressions were the most occurring functional types of lexical bundles from the data they each gathered. The findings of this study corroborate with findings from Darweesh and Ali (2017), who state that referential expressions are the most used functional types of lexical bundles in political discourses. There were 7 occurrences of discourse organizers from the data corpus, making them the second most occurring lexical bundles in the corpus. For discourse organizers, there were no instances of topic introduction bundles. All the bundles that performed discourse organizing functions were used as topic elaboration bundles. Stance bundles had the least representation in the corpus, with 1 occurrence. This finding confirms the assertion of Singh and Hong (2019) that stance bundles have the most occurrences in academic texts. Since manifestoes are not academic texts, the implication is that stance bundles would not greatly feature in this corpus. The study by Panthon and Poonpon (2020) that addressed the use of lexical bundles in a medical television series established that, stance bundles were also mostly used in spoken registers that in non- academic written texts. This finding gives basis to the reason why stance bundles had the lowest number of occurrences in the corpus for this study. The stance bundle that was present in the corpus was used as an impersonal epistemic stance bundle. The subsequent subsections explain into detail each functional category and states evidence from the data.

4.3.1 Referential expressions

Biber et al. (2004) explain referential bundles as expressions that single out certain important attributes of an entity in a text. Biber and Barbieri (2007) also affirm that

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referential bundles generally refer to physical or abstract entities, or specific parts of the text. According to Biber et al. (2004), referential expressions can be divided into sub categories which, are identification or focus bundles, time or place or text reference bundles, imprecision indicators and specification of attributes. The referential expressions found in this study were either identification or focus bundles, or time/place/text reference bundles.

4.3.1.1 Identification or focus bundles

Biber et al. (2004) state that identification bundles give focus to the noun phrase following the bundles and deem them as important. From the data collected, the number of identification bundles in the corpus were 2, making up 11.6% of the referential bundles present in the corpus. Some examples from the corpus demonstrating how the identification bundles were used are as follows.

> Rollout has started. This makes it possible for retailers to receive payments on their mobile phones without the need for a traditional Point of Sale device. Ghana is the only country in Africa, and *one of the* few in the world, with a Universal QR CODE payment system.

> (NPP manifesto, page 20)

> Government is in constant engagement with traditional authorities, consulting them regularly on a wide range of issues. *One of the* major successes of this relationship is the peaceful resolution of the Dagbon conflict.

> (NPP manifesto, page 129)

> *As part of* our integrated transport plan, the Accra-Tema, Kumasi-Ejisu, Accra-Nsawam and Takoradi-Kojokrom rail networks will also be rehabilitated to support

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the development of a rail-based mass transportation system. We will prioritize the construction of the Tema-Akosombo rail line to facilitate multi-modal transport links between the northern and southern sectors of the country.

(NDC manifesto, page 82)

The development of our ICT infrastructure is a pre-requisite for the attainment of sustainable growth and development. The NDC Government will therefore convert all under-utilized Post Offices into Community Information Centres *as part of* a nation-wide programme.

(NDC manifesto, page 84)

From the above examples, it can be observed that the bundles are used in different situations to draw the reader's attention to the next utterance. In all four examples, the speaker is making reference to a particular event or occasion that is of importance to the general message in the manifestoes. In example 1, the preceding texts makes reference to Ghana being among a select few countries that use a universal QR CODE payment system. The use of the bundle *'one of the'* directs the attention of the reader to the fact that this feat, which has not been accomplished by a lot of countries, has been done by their government. It is also implied that the writer is trying to draw attention to their administration and their achievements, as a basis to request for more support from electorates in order to gain a second term in office.

4.3.1.2 Time/Place/Text reference bundles

Biber et al. (2004) explain that, these types of bundles refer to particular places, time periods and locations in a text. Aside time/place/text reference bundles, Biber et al. (2004) added a fourth category, which they refer to as multi-functional reference bundles. Biber et

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al. (2004) expound that these bundles can be used to either refer to a place, a time period or a location in a text, depending on the context the bundle is being used in. This functional type of bundles, as can be seen in table 7, are the most occurring set of lexical bundles in the corpus. Below are some examples from the data that shows the use of these bundles.

> Ghanaian-owned technology firms have collaborated with government in the delivery of public services, from passport processing to drivers' license acquisition, the National Identification Card and Digital Addressing projects among others. We will deepen this relationship over ***the next four years*** to grow the core economic clusters.

> (NPP manifesto, page 174)

> ***In our 2016 Manifesto***, we presented to Ghanaians our resolve to tackle these and other daunting challenges. We shared an inspiring vision to create jobs and to build a prosperous and inclusive society. Rebuilding seemed an impossible task. There were doubts in the minds of many about our ability to overcome the enormous challenges we inherited let alone moving forward the aspirations of citizens to improve their well-being and laying the foundations for a Ghana Beyond Aid.

> (NPP manifesto, page 2)

> Ghana is on the verge of losing her forest cover, which is currently estimated at about 1.6 million hectares, down from the estimated 8.2 million hectares ***at the beginning of*** the 20th Century. The NDC will pursue policies and programmes that will target the reversal of the trend and address gaps in the effective and efficient management of our forestry resources including expansion of the national plantation development programme to cover degraded forests and off-reserve areas.

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(NDC manifesto, page 81)

Three million school uniforms have been provided to children in needy and deprived communities *across the country*. With a total population of 5.2 million school children, this means that 3 out of every 5 school children have been supplied with school uniforms.

(NDC manifesto, page 21)

In example 1, *'the next four years'* makes reference to a time period. The duration for a term of office in Ghana is four years, so the speaker alludes to the time period that makes the next term of political office. As Robertson (2004) remarks, the manifestoes of political parties are written in anticipation that they will garner the support of electorates to gain political power. Therefore, the manifestoes make specific references to the next term of office, while they lay out their political goals and ambitions in their bid to persuade electorates to vote for them.

In example 2, *'in our 2008 manifesto'* is being used as a text reference bundle to refer readers to a document outside of the main text that adds relevance to the current text. The manifestoes used in this study are the ones that the NDC and the NPP used in gaining political power for a second term in office. Thus, this bundle is used to refer the reader to the manifesto that they used to gain power for their first time in office. By referring readers to that earlier manifesto, the political party affirms their resolve to fulfil their promise in their second term of office, just like they did in their first term.

In example 3, the multi-functional reference bundle *'at the beginning of'* is used to refer to a specific period in time, which is the 20th century. This bundle is being referred to as a multi- functional bundle because, in some other examples in the corpus, the same bundle is

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used to refer to a specific place that the writer wants the reader to be aware of. One of such examples is

> ***At the end of*** their national service programmes, personnel who opt to go into commercial agriculture will be provided with start-up facilities that will include land acquisition and preparation, planting material, chemicals and fertilizer.

(NDC manifesto, page 53)

In the above example, *'at the end of'*, being a multi- functional bundle, functions as a referential bundle that focuses on a particular event, which is the national service programme. Thus, in the context that the bundle *'at the end of'* is being used, it functions as a place reference bundle.

4.3.2 Discourse organizers

Conrad and Biber (2005), as well as Biber and Barbieri (2007) state that discourse organizers emphasize the relationship between preceding discourse and incoming discourse. From the data, discourse organizers are the second most used functional type of lexical bundles in the corpus. In the literature, discourse organizers are not known to be peculiar to any written or spoken genre. Due to the functions that they play, which are to start a discourse and to provide elaboration or clarification during a discourse, they are used in every spoken and written register. Discourse organizers typically function as either topic introduction bundles or topic elaboration bundles. In the corpus, the discourse organizing bundles that were found were topic elaboration bundles.

4.3.2.1 Topic elaboration discourse organizers

Conrad and Biber (2005) state that topic elaboration or clarification bundles can provide more information to a topic under discussion or clarify previously expressed information. This type of discourse organizing bundles can also indicate the speaker or writer's perception of the relationship between discursive elements. Some examples from the corpus are stated below.

> In 2008, the NDC Government promised to review the mandate of the Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs (MOWAC) *in line with* national development aspirations; work towards a 40% women in public service and at conferences and congresses of the party; to introduce major gender policy and legislation; to mainstream gender issues in all aspects of national development; and to revise, update and implement its Affirmative Action Policy for Women issued in 1999.
>
> (NDC manifesto, page 102)
>
> The next NDC Government will implement the following programmes…Target the development of the country's potential in mini hydro power projects with capacities below 100 megawatts, especially in the northern savannah zone, *in partnership with* SADA…
>
> (NDC manifesto, page 16)
>
> In particular, we will leverage strengths of public-sector financial institutions like the Ghana Infrastructure Investment Fund (GIFF), the proposed Development Bank, *as well as* geo-financial arrangements like the International Financial Services Centre (IFSC), which is receiving support from the African Development Bank (AfDB), and the strategic siting of the African Continental Free Trade Area

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(AfCFTA) Secretariat in Ghana, to create a regional financial services hub that will contribute in large measure to the deepening of both domestic and regional capital markets to finance our economic transformation agenda.

(NPP manifesto, page 183)

Over the next four years, we will, **in addition to** the specific initiatives we have mapped out previously, invest in mobilising private capital to fund part of the Ghana CARES Programme, implementing the Ghana Capital Market Master Plan, and completing the implementation of the International Financial Services Centre.

(NPP manifesto, page 183)

In all the examples stated above, the lexical bundles serve the purpose of allowing the speaker add more information to something they have previously said, or to clarify some aforementioned detail. In example 1, the speaker clarifies that the review that is to be done is in accordance with the overall development goals of the country. In example 2, the speaker demonstrates how their government is going to undertake a project, by partnership up with another organization. In example 3, the speaker uses the bundle *'as well as'* to add more information to what they have previously stated. The same could be said for example 4, where the speaker is adding further information to what has already been said. So, the speaker uses the bundle *'in addition to'* to show that more information is being added to the preceding discourse.

4.3.3 Stance bundles

Stance bundles, according to Chen and Baker (2010) are used by speakers and writers to express their positions of certainty or uncertainty in a discourse. Text producers also use stance bundles to convey their attitudes, personal feelings and perspectives about a topic in

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a discourse. Biber et al. (2004) explain that stance bundles could be used in expressing two types of meaning, which are epistemic stances and attitude or modality stances. Epistemic stance bundles could either be personal or impersonal, according to Conrad and Biber (2005). From the data collected for the study, impersonal epistemic stance bundles were used in the data corpus, although in the lowest frequency.

4.3.3.1 Impersonal epistemic stance bundles

Conrad and Biber (2005) assert that impersonal epistemic stance bundles convey the speaker or writer's position on a topic without specifically mentioning the owner of a certain stance. Biber et al. (2004) state that text producers use impersonal epistemic stance bundles to express certainty in their utterances. Below are some examples of stance bundles used in the corpus.

> Through joint security operations, such as KOUDANGOU and the ongoing Operation CONQUERED FIST, we will continue to reinforce the security of our north-western, northern and north-eastern borders to guard against any infiltrations into the country. ***In that regard,*** we will enhance the capacity of our security forces through the provision of equipment, logistics, intelligence capability, and training to maintain the peace and fight crime within our borders, as well as international terrorists who may seek to destabilize our country.
>
> (NPP manifesto, page 191)

> We will participate in international affairs with a focus on championing the causes of economic integration, continental unity and Pan-Africanism. ***In that regard,*** our immediate focus will be on activities within ECOWAS which are likely to stimulate a more vigorous interaction at the level of our people.

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<div align="right">(NDC manifesto, page 106)</div>

The above examples demonstrate how the writers express their certainty in fulfilling their political promises to their electorates. In both examples, it can be observed that the bundle *'in that regard'* comes after the writer has made a promise to the reader and the electorates, to accomplish a task once they gain political power for a second term in office. The use of the stance bundle is relevant to the writer because, in order to gain power for a second term, the electorates need to be assured about their ability to carry out their goals and ambitions. The writer used *'in that regard'* to show their readiness to accomplish their political goals.

4.4 Summary of chapter

This chapter adequately addressed the findings and analysis of the data for the study. The data collected to answer the research questions were critically explored through the lenses of the structural taxonomy of lexical bundles and the functional taxonomy of lexical bundles, both propounded by Biber et al. (2004). Research question 1a sought to identify the lexical bundles that were found in the data corpus. Research question 1b, which focused on the structural types of the lexical bundles in the corpus, identified 4 structural types. Research question two explored the communicative functions of the lexical bundles in the corpus. The findings showed that the lexical bundles found in the data consisted of referential expressions, discourse organizers and stance bundles.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter summarizes the salient points that were raised in the study. This chapter also draws conclusions from the study and makes recommendations that would help political parties in their drafting of their manifestoes and by extension, their political communication. The chapter also addresses the limitations of the study. Suggestions are also made for future researchers who would wish to interrogate the use of lexical bundles in political texts and in Ghanaian texts.

5.1 Summary of key findings

Chapter four of this study sought to answer three research questions that were presented in the study. The findings of research question 1, which was to investigate the kinds of lexical bundles found in the study revealed that, a total of 25 lexical bundles were used in both manifestoes. Out of these 25 lexical bundles, 14 of them were three- word bundles, while 11 of them were four- word bundles. Some examples of the lexical bundles that were found include *'as well as'*, *'the next four years'*, *'the NPP/NDC government'* and *'for the first time'*. Some similarities and differences between the use of lexical bundles in the manifestoes emerged from the analysis. The findings showed that, three- word bundles were used more than four- word bundles. The frequency of three- word bundles in the two manifestoes was 309, while for four- word bundles, they were 150. This showed that, aside three- word bundles having more examples than four- word bundles in the corpus, they were also used twice as much as the four- word bundles. The similarities that were drawn

from the three- word and four- word bundles in the corpus were, the lexical bundles with the highest occurring frequencies from each set of bundles was specific to the corpus. These lexical bundles, which were *'the NPP/NDC government'* in both manifestoes for the three-word bundles and *'the next four years'* in the NPP manifesto and *'the next NDC government'* in the NDC manifesto for the four- word bundles, were bundles that were used in the manifestoes to communicate the ability of the political parties to deliver on their promises to the electorates.

Research question 2 ascertained the structural types of lexical bundles that were found in the data. Out of the 17 structural types that are present in the theoretical framework, 4 of the types were found in the corpus. These types are (connector) + noun phrase with 'of' phrase fragment, other noun phrase expressions, prepositional phrase expressions and comparative expressions. Some examples of each structural type are *'as part of'*, *'the last four years'*, *'in consultation with'* and *'as well as'* respectively. Prepositional phrase expressions were the structural type with the most examples. Out of the 25 bundles found in the corpus, there were 18 prepositional phrase expressions, constituting 72% of the bundles in the data. This finding confirmed the assertion of Conrad and Biber (2005) who stated that prepositional phrases are the most common expressions in written texts.

Research question 3 addressed the communicative functions of the lexical bundles in the corpus. Per the theoretical framework, lexical bundles serve either one of three functions. They are either referential expressions, discourse organizers or stance expressions. From the data, referential expressions were the most used functional type of lexical bundles. Out of the 25 examples of lexical bundles found in the corpus, referential bundles were 17, making 68% of the total percentage of functional types of lexical bundles in the corpus.

This finding was in tandem with Chen and Baker (2010) who asserted that referential expressions were the most used functional type in written texts. This finding also confirmed what Darweesh and Ali (2017) contended that, referential expressions are the most used functional types of lexical bundles in political discourses.

5.2 Conclusion

The study delved into the use, structure and functions of lexical bundles in the manifestoes of two major political parties in Ghana. The findings suggest that while there were some lexical bundles found in the data corpus, their insufficiency showed that text producers did not have an extensive knowledge on what lexical bundles are and how they could be used to advance discourses. It was realized that the NPP manifesto contained higher frequencies of three and four- word lexical bundles because it contained more words than the NDC manifesto. The study also suggests that, there is a relationship between structural types and functional types of lexical bundles. Most prepositional phrases and noun phrases in both manifestoes functioned as referential expressions. On the other hand, all the examples of discourse organizers found in the manifestoes were prepositional phrases. This study contributes significantly to understanding the significance of lexical bundles in written political communication.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings and discussions of this study, the following recommendations have been made to increase the knowledge and use of lexical bundles in the Ghanaian context.

1. Since lexical bundles are important to formulate discourse and increase coherence in a text, political parties and their communication units are advised to employ

more lexical bundles, not just in their manifestoes, but in any piece of text they wish to share with their electorates to enhance the persuasiveness of the manifestoes.

2. The communications unit of the NDC is advised to incorporate a more extensive use of language, which would translate into using more lexical bundles in their manifestoes, in order to increase expressivity in their manifestoes.

3. It is also recommended that stance bundles, which are generally used in expressing certainty or uncertainty in texts, should be incorporated more in manifestoes and political communicative texts, in order to further assure electorates of political actors' resolve to achieve the goals they have.

5.4 Suggestions for further studies

For further studies, it is suggested that the same study could be done but with a larger corpus consisting of manifestoes from multiple political parties in Ghana. The findings from that research would confirm the findings that have been revealed in this study.

It is also suggested that future researchers could explore the use of lexical bundles in different Ghanian registers, since there appears to be little knowledge that focus on it. More studies in this area would help establish a knowledge base of lexical bundles and their uses in academic and non- academic texts produced by Ghanaians. Investigations could also be done into lexical bundles used in spoken registers to explore how different and similar the bundles used in this register are, as against the bundles used in written texts.

Further studies could also compare the use of lexical bundles in Ghanaian texts to the use of lexical bundles in texts produced by native speakers of English to identify the nuances

that are present in the manner that Ghanaian writers use lexical bundles, in terms of frequency and structural and functional compositions of the lexical bundles they use.

5.5 Limitations

The study sought to explore the uses, structure and functions of lexical bundles in the manifestoes of two political parties in Ghana. The findings of the study were realized in relation to the structural and functional taxonomies of lexical bundles propounded by Biber et al. (2004). Since the study ascribed to the qualitative approach to research, the findings cannot be generalized to other non- academic texts produced in the Ghanaian context.

The sample size that was originally decided on for the study was 4 manifestoes, 2 from the NPP and 2 from the NDC. The decision of 4 manifestoes was because both political parties had had the opportunity to gain a second term in office twice. However, due to the unavailability of one of the manifestoes, I had to settle on two manifestoes to create fairness in the data sampling process.

Minimal literature on the use of lexical bundles, as well as their structure and functions in Ghanaian written and spoken registers posed some initial difficulty to me with regards to how efficiently I could situate my work in the Ghanaian context. However, some relevant related literature, specifically, ones that dealt with other linguistic elements in Ghanaian texts were relied on to supplement the limited literature available in this area of study.

In spite of these limitations, the study explains how two major political parties in Ghana employ lexical bundles in their manifestoes to communicate their political aspirations to their electorates. The study is therefore a good basis for the pursuit of further studies in the area.

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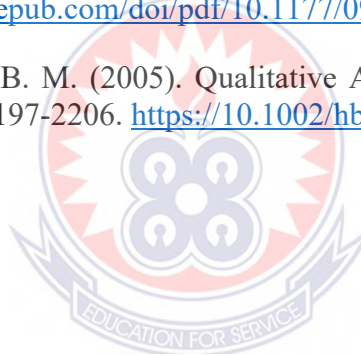
APPENDIX

LIST OF IDENTIFIED LEXICAL BUNDLES

Lexical bundles	Frequencies in each manifesto	
	NPP Manifesto	NDC Manifesto
The next four years	37	21
In our 2008/2016 manifesto	2	5
In our first term	2	1
For the first time	4	3
At the end of	4	6
In our next term	5	3
The next NPP/NDC government	21	23
During its next term	1	2
The last four years	2	1
At the beginning of	2	2
For its next term	2	1
One of the	6	8
In that regard	2	2
In fulfilment of	4	1
In this administration	1	3
Over the years	3	2
The NPP/NDC government	42	50
In partnership with	2	5
Across the country	11	15

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As well as	41	35
In line with	7	3
In collaboration with	7	9
In addition to	9	6
As part of	19	12
In consultation with	2	2