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**КИЇВСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ ЛІНГВІСТИЧНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ**  
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**КВАЛІФІКАЦІЙНА РОБОТА МАГІСТРА**  
**ІДІОМАТИЧНИЙ ПРОСТІР СУЧАСНОГО АНГЛОМОВНОГО**  
**ПОЛІТИЧНОГО ДИСКУРСУ: ЛІНГВОКОГНІТИВНИЙ І**  
**ПРАГМАЛІНГВІСТИЧНИЙ АСПЕКТИ (НА МАТЕРІАЛІ СУЧАСНИХ**  
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**IDIOMATIC SPACE OF PRESENT-DAY ANGLOPHONE POLITICAL  
DISCOURSE: A COGNITIVE AND PRAGMATIC ASPECT**

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## INTRODUCTION

Idioms are of significant regional and cultural value. They are everywhere. Analyzing the idiomatic expressions of the language, one can trace the history of the state, get acquainted with the mentality of its people, and get information about its traditions and customs. So that is why idioms are frequently used in political discourse giving speech imagery and liveliness, creating the so-called “feedback effect”. Idioms can help to enrich our perception of the surrounding reality and make the speaker’s opinion more understandable for each of us. Moreover, idiomatic expressions can help to concretize ideas and express emotional assessment. Using idioms, politicians can covertly express their attitude to a particular event or phenomenon and voice their goals and plans.

Politicians strive to present information as eloquently and persuasively as possible, focusing people’s attention on the issues they deem important and trying to win voters’ support in political campaigns. Politicians use a variety of nonverbal means to attain this, e.g. facial expressions, gestures, tempo, and timbre of voice. Among the most momentous tools that are of utmost importance are language stylistic means politicians (or rather their speechwriters) employ to exert the most profound influence on their target audiences. Modern political discourse is a complex and multi-faceted phenomenon. Idioms help politicians to gain popular support, which leads to the approval and legitimization of their policies.

**The topicality** of this research is determined by continuing interest of present-day linguistics in the so-called formulaic language and its use in political discourse with a view of exerting the desired influence on the target audiences thus making them take a certain stance on a number of issues.

**The object** of the paper is present-day anglophone political discourse.

**The subject** of the present study is the stylistic and functional specificity of idiomatic expressions in the analysed discourse.

**Theoretical value** of the master’s paper lies in introducing the theoretical basis for further research in the study of idiomaticity, providing a more detailed insight into the usage of idioms in the political discourse.

**Practical value** of the results is stipulated by the possibility to apply its results to teaching university students Stylistics and Text Interpretation. They can also contribute to a profound reading and interpretation of non-fiction texts. The results might also be helpful in writing students' research papers.

**The aim** of this work is to reveal idiomatic expressions in political discourse in the 21st century.

The aim of this study is achieved by the following **tasks**:

- to survey the available definitions of idiom among scholars;
- to elicit the characteristic features of idiomatic expressions;
- to specify the notion of the political discourse, provide its classification and outline its functions;
- to outline the usage and functions of idiomatic expressions which are used in the political discourse in the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

**Methods of research** used in the paper include functional analysis, analysis of dictionary definitions, lexico-semantic analysis, and contextually-situational analysis.

**The novelty** of the paper lies in the detailed analysis of cognitive and pragmatic aspects of idiomatic expressions in the present-day anglophone political discourse.

**Compositionally**, the paper consists of the introduction, three chapters, conclusions to each chapter, general conclusions to the whole paper, and a list of references.

In the **Introduction** the paper sets up the object and subject of the research, emphasizes the topicality of the problem under study, the main aim and the tasks of achieving it, as well as the method of research used in the paper and the content of each chapter separately.

**Chapter One** presents the general theoretical framework for the study of idiomatic expressions, with a special emphasis on their functions and classifications.

**Chapter Two** provides a theoretical background for the study of political discourse and elicits its general features and functions.

**Chapter Three** provides an analysis of the usage and functions of idiomatic expressions in the present-day anglophone political discourse.

The **General Conclusions** summarize the obtained research results, suggest theoretically valuable inferences, and outline the main perspectives for further research of the problem under consideration.

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY OF IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS**

Idioms are of significant regional and cultural value. Analyzing the idiomatic expressions of the language, one can get acquainted with the state's history, and the mindset of its inhabitants, and receive data about its customs and traditions. Idioms are frequently used because they add liveness and imagery to the speech, providing the so-called "feedback effect".

Idiomatic expressions, as a form of communication, support the concretization of ideas, while conveying an emotional evaluation. Idioms assist in describing the speaker's feelings and emotions as well as identifying a specific subject.

Using idioms, politicians can subtly express how they feel about a certain situation or phenomenon as well as share their objectives and strategies.

#### **1.1 The Notion of Idiom: Differences in Terminology**

The definition of the word "idiom" in English is compound and intricate, as there is not a single connotation and tough rules to describe it clearly. It is still hard to define this only by providing one or two specific statements about this subject of study.

Many scholars have been researching this topic: A. V. Kunin, V. A. Vinogradov, A. I. Smirnitsky, N. N. Amosova, and other scholars who have made a considerable contribution to the study of idiomatic expressions, so it is obvious that we can face with different meanings of this definition.

The majority of linguists, authors, poets, language instructors, and language learners, according to McPherson and Randolph, acknowledge that idioms may serve to create more remarkable and intriguing descriptions and that they are seen to be more potent than literal, non-idiomatic language. But they also concur that idioms are difficult for non-speakers to understand since they can't be clearly



defined and categorised at the same time (L. Flavell & R. Flavell, 1992). As for me, understanding idioms is always a challenge because it requires a lot of experience in learning the language, creativity, good skills, willingness, and perseverance to find out the best equivalent in the native language of the speaker.

According to the quote that is provided by Zoltan Kovecses, Peter Szabco: “Idioms are linguistic expressions whose overall meaning cannot be predicted from the meanings of the constituent parts” (Kovecses & Szabco, 1996, p. 326) or by Stephan Gramley, Michael Patzold (2010, p. 43): “Complex lexical item which is longer than a word form but shorter than a sentence and which has a meaning that cannot be derived from the knowledge of its parts”.

Brenner thinks that native English speakers automatically use idioms without realizing what they are. He draws attention to the fact that there is some ambiguity and dispute over the definition of idioms in dictionaries. The most frequent one, though, is when two or more words are combined and given a specific meaning that differs from the literal meaning of the terms being separate. To sum up this saying, it claims that these units are sometimes not only distinct in meaning but are also viewed as more compelling or gripping in particular contexts (L. Flavell & R. Flavell, 1992).

According to the Oxford Dictionary, an idiom can be the “language of a people or country,” or a “form of expression peculiar to a language.” Idioms are included in the large family of figurative expressions which are connected such as metaphors, proverbs, indirect speech acts, etc. There is a long history of interest in these terms. For instance, figurative expressions have been extensively researched by linguists within European structuralism to understand the synchronic regularities and diachronic changes in languages (Cacciari & Tabossi, 1993, p. 67).

Similarly to this, anthropologists have spent a lot of time researching in which manner the figurative expression is formed and why this can be valid and acceptable for describing an event in one speech community, but cannot be described in another (Cacciari & Tabossi, 1993, p. 78). These lines of research have successfully demonstrated that any facts, cultural models, beliefs, natural

events, etc. shared by members of a speech community can give rise at a given time to figurative expressions. These lines of research aim to clarify the linguistic and social sources of figurative language (Makkai, 1978, p. 139). In many languages, the advent of railways, electricity, and other technological advancements, for example, has enhanced the figurative foundation by introducing a whole new range of ways to describe a reality that was not available, say, in seventeenth-century France, where many figurative expressions were based on religion (Cacciari & Tabossi, 1993).

A new method that views the foundation of figurative expressions in people's cognitive structure has lately given the origins of figurative language a further boost (Cacciari & Tabossi, 1993, p. 95). According to this viewpoint, the historical roots of figurative expressions whether or not they are still obvious to the speakers of a community can provide important details about how individuals arrange their lexical and conceptual knowledge and create linkages across different areas. The relationship between the temporal and geographic domains, where many ideas of the former are borrowed from the latter, serves as a well-known example of this type of relationship. This is demonstrated by the large number of spatial phrases that are used, at least in English, to refer to time.

Figurative language has traditionally been seen as a rather uniform issue in this lengthy and unbroken history. There are variations between a metaphor and a proverb, for example, although both are likely to have comparable roots and serve the same language community. Furthermore, there is a commonly held belief that metaphor is the most prevalent kind conceptually speaking, with the other expressions often focusing on derivative subjects. Idioms, in particular, are sometimes referred to as "dead metaphors", expressions that were once unique, but have become standard and frozen, making them hard as relevant as a metaphor. This notion has just lately been called into question, and idiomatic statements are now valued for their reason. Thus, idioms have certain characteristics in common with that "most luminous" and important trope, although missing the semantic variety and flexibility of metaphors. For instance, words used in metaphors or

colloquial formulations often have a different meaning than they do in literal strings. The meaning of many idiomatic phrases appears to become available, like the meaning of lexical items, through processes of retrieval from memory, in contrast to metaphors, whose interpretation is formed compositionally. Again, unlike actual words, idioms have a syntactic structure that is sometimes frozen but is often quite flexible and may be transformed in a variety of ways, depending also on how closely the string's literal and figurative meanings are connected (Cacciari & Tabossi, 1993).

It should be noted that in the British and American languages, the "broad approach" to the problem of the idiom has a greater popularity. Western linguists include not only phraseology of all types, but even proverbs, sayings, quotations, and others (Сальченко, 2018, с. 33).

Idioms are multidimensional and have a variety of effects, one of which is that it is almost difficult for any one technique or methodology to properly capture it. Furthermore, the image that comes from their analysis is still quite shattered due to our current understanding of these expressions. There have been many enlightening studies conducted, but the findings show that there is still no uniform definition of idiomatic terms that may be used by both native and non-native speakers to make iconic statements.

In the next units of this work, the definition of an idiomatic expression is mentioned, which is provided by Zoltan Kövecses and Peter Szabco as this is laconic and it is easy to understand.

## **1.2 General Features of Idiomatic Expressions**

From the previous unit, it is clear that it is convoluted and not easy to define the notion of the idiom. A big number of scholars have been trying to distinguish general features, types, and functions of them. There are a lot of investigations that are dedicated to this topic and many discussions about whether someone's opinion is much better in the terms of linguistics. There some of the most popular thoughts of linguistic scholars are presented and analyzed.

Idioms are viewed as “noncompositional” or “fixed”, and as such, their definitions must be expressly stated in the mental lexicon, much like the definitions of individual words are recorded in a dictionary. Idioms, in contrast to literal language, are probably interpreted in one of the numerous ways, including:

- through the retrieval of their stipulated meanings from the lexicon after their literal meanings have been rejected as inappropriate (Weinreich, 1969; Bobrow & Bell, 1973);
- in parallel to processing their literal meanings (Swinney and Cutler, 1979);
- directly without any analysis of their literal meanings (Gibbs, 1980, 1986);
- when there has been significant input to recognize a configuration as an idiom (Cacciari & Tabossi, 1988; Tabossi & Zardon, 1993).

The third and fourth points give the greatest explanations of how idioms are interpreted, according to experimental investigations (Gibbs, 1994). A specific "phrasal" lexicon with idiomatic and formulaic phrases that are non-compositional but may be rapidly accessible during linguistic interpretation is a feature of several computer models of natural language processing (Katsarou, 2011, p. 174).

Idioms are frequently regarded as “dead” metaphors by academics. The famous instance of *kick the bucket* seems to demonstrate the theory that the expression may have formerly been metaphorical but with time has become non-metaphorical (actually, this phrase has a metonymic origin). There are certain idioms that to some extent seem to be “dead” in this sense (although “*to kick the bucket*” appears somewhat analyzable in that it alludes to abrupt, as opposed to gradual, death, mostly brought on by kick) (Katsarou, 2011, p. 158). In addition, authors often use idioms to achieve more than one effect, such as an emotional association, and to create humorous subtext (Важнова, 2019, с. 19).

### **1.2.1. Lexical Flexibility of Idiomatic Expressions**

The next thing to be discussed is the lexical flexibility of idiomatic expressions. The lexical variety in idioms and formulaic phrases is quite high (Moon, 1998, p. 197). For instance, many idioms' primary verbs may be modified

without affecting their metaphorical meanings, as demonstrated by the examples below (Moon, 1998):

- *set/start the ball rolling;*
- *throw/toss in the towel;*
- *lower/let down one's guard;*
- *step into/fill someone's shoes.*

Additionally, nouns can change in a variety of idioms without affecting their metaphorical meanings. Think about the following expression pairs:

- *a piece/slice of the action;*
- *a skeleton in the closet/cupboard;*
- *the calm/lull before the storm;*
- *hold up a gun/pistol to someone's head.*

Adjective variations are less frequent than those of nouns or verbs, yet multiple instances show that doing so does not alter the metaphorical meaning of many sentences. For instance:

- *a bad/rotten apple;*
- *a level/even playing field;*
- *close/near to the bone;*
- *the best/greatest thing since sliced bread.*

The following examples show how prepositional and adverbial participles can also show just minor semantic changes:

- *at/in a singe sitting;*
- *by/in leaps and bounds;*
- *out of/from thin air.*

Finally, as shown in the following examples, conjunctions can change:

- *when/if push comes to shove;*
- *when/while the cat's away, the mice will play.*

Unsurprisingly, people's perceptions of an idiom's lexical flexibility are influenced by its capacity to be analyzed. Several researchers looked at the impact of semantic analyzability on idioms' lexical flexibility (Gibbs & Nayak, 1989, p.

147). Participants were shown several sentences that remained unaltered (e.g., “*pop the question*”), had their verbs substituted with relatively synonymous words (e.g., “*burst the question*”), had their verbs replaced with largely equivalent words (e.g., “*pop the request*”), or both its nouns and verbs were modified (e.g., “*burst the request*”). Each sentence has a metaphorical definition of the underlying idiom (e.g., “*propose marriage*”). The metaphorical meanings of both semantically decomposable and nondecomposable idioms were disrupted by changing the verbs and nouns. However, compared to decomposable idioms, modifying the lexical components in semantically nondecomposable idioms significantly disrupted the figurative interpretations of these expressions. For nondecomposable idioms, for example, both noun and verb alterations were estimated as much less acceptable (e.g., “*punt the pail for kick the bucket*”) than for decomposable phrases (e.g., “*burst the request for pop the question*”). These results imply that the lexical flexibility of idioms is significantly constrained by the semantic analyzability of idioms (Gibbs & Nayak, 1989, p. 149).

Additionally, altering a single word in an idiom might not completely change its metaphorical meaning, at least not enough to make the phrase literal. However, altering a few words will have a little but significant impact on the metaphorical meaning of the phrase. For instance, the idiom “*break the ice*” can be changed to *shatter the ice*, which now means “to break down an uncomfortable and stiff social situation flamboyantly in one fell swoop!” (Cserep, 2014, p. 45). *Shatter the ice* is an instance, not of lexical flexibility, but of semantic productivity. Idiomatic versions that are semantically significant are often used in speech, the media, and literature. People can comprehend semantically productive idiom variations relatively easily (e.g., “*Sam didn’t spill a single bean*”), and the more well-known the original phrase, the more understandable the variant is. Variant idioms can be comprehended just as rapidly as their exact equivalents. (e.g., “*Sam didn’t spill a single bean*” versus “*Sam didn’t say a single word*”).

Overall, both in terms of their syntactic productivity and their lexical flexibility, speakers tend to be noticeably more creative when using semantically analyzable idioms.

### 1.2.2 Syntactic Behavior of Idiomatic Expressions

Many idioms are allegedly syntactically unproductive or frozen, which is explained by the conventional noncompositional understanding of idioms. For instance, one cannot syntactically change the phrase “*John kicked the bucket*” to a passive construction – the bucket was kicked by John without disrupting its nonliteral meaning. Many formal strategies have been offered by linguists to forecast the syntactic behavior of idioms (Cserep, 2014).

The findings that people can distinguish between idioms based on their capacity to be analyzed semantically have significant ramifications for understanding how idioms behave syntactically. In various psychology research, it was hypothesized that people's perceptions of the syntactic adaptability of idioms were influenced by their capacity to analyze or break down these figurative expressions (Gibbs & Nayak, 1991, p. 302). In actuality, this hypothesis was supported by the findings of this research. Idioms that normally decompose (e.g., “*pop the question*”) were shown to be significantly more syntactically productive than idioms with unbreakable semantics (e.g., “*chew the fat*”). Because each part simply refers to a metaphorical relationship between the individual part and the referent rather than a specific component of the idiomatic referent, abnormally decomposable idioms were not found to be syntactically productive.

These results imply that the syntactic adaptability of idioms is not a random occurrence, maybe owing to unidentified historical causes (Cserep, 2014), but can at least in part be explained in terms of an idiom's semantic analyzability. The internal semantics of these phrases may also be used to explain the syntactic flexibility of other formulaic languages, such as verb particle formations and binomial expressions. It is challenging to shift a particle into a position of semantic focus, for instance, if the particle in verb particle forms, such as *make up* and *put-*

out, has little significance on its own. Therefore, it is acceptable to say: “*Fifty states make up the United States*”, this expression has limited meaning on its own and cannot be employed in the sentence's final place because it is not logical to declare that the United States is made up of fifty states (Cognitive Linguistics, 2007).

### 1.2.3 Functions of Idiomatic Expressions

The manner that idiomatic phrases add to the context or content of the text may be used to categorize their textual functions. In accordance with five categories and their purposes, Rosamund Moon, a scholar, defined the categories of idioms (1998):

- Informational, for example, that makes a claim and provides information: “*rub shoulders in the running*”, “*catch sight of something for sale*”;
- Evaluative, which gives the speaker's assessment and attitude, for example : “*near the knuckle*”, “*a different/fine kettle of fish*”;
- Situational, which refers to extralinguistic context and involves reacting to situations, like in : “*long time no see*”, “*talk of the devil*”, “*knock it off*”;
- Modalizing, for example, conveying truth, values, counsel, or a request: “*you know what I mean*”, “*to all intents and purposes*”, “*in doubt do now*”;
- Organizational that, for instance, assists in text organization and communicates discourse structure: “*for instance*”, “*be that as it may*”, “*by the way*”.

Informational idioms are tools for sharing new knowledge and adding to a conversation. The information given can take many different forms propositionally. It might be used to describe a procedure, a condition, or a characteristic, in which case the idiom is often used as a predicate, an adjectival group, or a postnominal qualifier.



The data may be circumstantial in character and describe events that occurred at a particular time or location or in a certain way, among other things. Such expressions frequently appear as adjuncts:

Then, at about 6.50 pm, the gunmen opened fire *at close range* from behind some foliage (Moon, 1998, p. 134).

The straightforward naming of items, quantification, and description are further forms of information that are communicated:

“Rising at 5.30 in the morning, her *waking hours* are devoted to her horses” (Moon, 1998, p. 143).

Evaluative idioms convey the speaker’s evaluations. Many evaluative idioms convey the topics of clauses that come as predicates or following copulas:

“After 12 years in power, the Tories had *run out of steam*”. (Moon, 1998, p. 147).

Others appear as nominal groups, or in prenominal positions:

“His seat in the Lords is, for him, only *the icing on the cake*”. (Moon, 1998, p. 151)

Only a few idioms that operate as adjuncts are evaluative:

“Our company was expanding into overseas markets *in leaps and bounds*”. (Moon, 1998)

As responses to or actions caused by the extralinguistic environment, situational idioms are often seen in spoken language; they may also be illocutionary speech acts. Therefore, they are limited by sociocultural elements that exist in the actual world. They often take the form of norms, sentences, and exclamations in syntactic structures. They may be categorized by function, and the following list is just meant to illustrate the range. For instance, congratulations and goodbyes:

“Hello, *good afternoon* I’m just ringing in response to the previous caller you had on actually” (Moon, 1998) and regrets, felicitations, sympathy, appreciation, acknowledgments, and so on:

“*Excuse me*, Colonel, I meant no offense (Moon, 1998, p. 203). “I’m sorry”. “Oh *never mind*. Shit, hell” (Moon, 1998).

Modalizing idiomatic expressions are hyperpropositional: they show modality. Though certain idioms may be seen as conative or volitive, these are often cognitive or deontic in character. Since most idioms are based on metaphor, it can be argued that this function is also characteristic and idioms as a unit of language (Магонова, 2018, с. 17).

The majority of idioms that function as disjuncts are modalizing:

“You couldn't *by any stretch of the imagination* call Arthur Miller *After The Fall* a comedy” (Moon, 1998, p. 109).

As adjuncts, postnominal groups, and submodifiers, modalizing idioms can also be found: “The outcome is the same as *in all but name*” (Moon, 1998, p. 128).

Organizational idioms are hyperpropositional, just like modalizing idioms. By indicating the logical relationships between propositions, deixis, prefaces, summaries, opinions, etc., they structure texts. The conjunct is the most prevalent kind of syntax:

“*On the other hand*, Moscow was one of the world's largest holders of gold bullion” (Moon, 1998, p. 232).

*For example*, diseases such as diabetes, rheumatism, and arthritis all have links with diet. (Moon, 1998, p. 243).

Other organizational idiomatic expressions are adjuncts or multi-word prepositional heads of adjuncts:

“... we would consider how best we might contribute to the arms control process *in the fight of* the changed circumstances” (Moon, 1998, p. 243).

Each linguistic definition has unique characteristics that determine how it may be used, understood, and explained in the language. Idioms undoubtedly have their own distinctive characteristics such as being fixed expressions, having lexical flexibility, syntactic behaviour, functions.

### 1.3 Approaches to Classifications of Idioms

As we can see, it is difficult to define an idiom because every researcher has a unique understanding of this word phenomenon. The same issues are with idiom categorization that we see. Each linguist provides his or her interpretation of a classification.

The first classification that is analyzed is the one that is provided by Kövecses, who compares linguistic expressions called idioms to a “mixed bag” which “involves metaphors (e.g. “*to spill the beans*”), metonymies (e.g. “*to throw up one’s hands*”), pairs of words (e.g. “*cats and dogs*”), idioms with *it* (e.g. “*to live it up*”), similes (e.g. “*as easy as pie*”), sayings (e.g. “*a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush*”), phrasal verbs (e.g. “*to come up*”, as in “*Christmas is coming up*”), grammatical idioms (e.g. “*to let alone*”) and others” (Kövecses & Szabco, 1996, p. 341).

Idiom categorization is crucial to understanding them as language phenomena. If we encounter various idioms, there may be variations in the ways that native and non-native speakers comprehend, pick up on, and translate them. Numerous efforts have been made to classify them.

Such scholars as Gramley and Patzold divide idioms into several categories. They classify them according to the “*image and ideas they evoke*” (Gramley & Patzold, 2004) and divide idioms into four groups:

- idioms with an emphasis on individual character (e.g. “*to keep a stiff upper lip*”) that means to hide your emotions and let other people see what you are feeling;
- idioms with an emphasis on the world (e.g. “*to go down the drain*”) that means to be totally wasted;
- idioms that are related to the interaction of individuals (e.g. “*to lend someone a helping hand*”) that means to give help to overcome a difficult situation;

- idioms that express the interaction between the human and the world (e.g. “*to take up arms for something*”) that means to pick up weapons and become ready to fight.

A brilliant linguist, Fernando suggests the concept that there are three sub-classes of idioms: pure idioms, semi-idioms, and literal idioms. This is the next categorization that merits consideration.

Pure idioms are multiword, conventional phrases that are not literal. They may be invariable or have minor changes, but they are never literal. They are considered to be opaque. (e.g. “*to spill the beans*” that means has nothing to do with the beans). Semi-idioms may have one or more literal components as well as one with a non-literal subsense. Consequently, this kind of phrase is seen as slightly opaque. (e.g. “*to foot the bill*”, which means “to pay”). Literal idioms are either stable or allow little changes. They are regarded as transparent since their components may be used to comprehend them. (e.g. “*of course*”, “*in any case*”, “*for certain*”) (Kovács, 2017, pp. 85-101).

According to Seidl and McMordie, idioms can have a variety of forms, including regular, irregular, and even grammatically erroneous ones, but the structure does not determine what the idiom means. There are three primary categories of idioms:

- Idioms with irregular form and clear meaning (e.g. “*to give someone to understand*”, “*to do the dirty on someone*”);
- Idioms with regular form, but unclear meaning (e.g. “*to cut no ice*”, “*to bring the house down*”);
- Idioms with irregular form and unclear meaning (e.g. “*to be at large*”, “*to be at daggers draw*”).

Seidl and McMordie agreed that the majority of idioms fall into the second group, however even within this group, there may be discrepancies in how these idioms are defined.

Cacciari and Glucksberg developed a functional method based on idioms' degree of compositionality and their semantic transparency, which they believe to

be two of the most compelling criteria for categorizing idioms. Idioms can be completely composed, moderately composed, or non-composed depending on the compositionality dimension.

Compositional idioms lack relationships between their constituent parts, yet their meaning can still be understood. As in the idiom “*plastic flower*” which refers to the imitation of a flower made of plastic, the idiomatic expression “*stuffed animal*” meaning a stuffed or stuffed-looking replica of an animal, *kosher bacon* demonstrates kosher-compliant bacon imitation prepared in compliance with dietary regulations, and so forth.

It is possible to identify and make use of links between an idiom's constituent parts and its idiomatic meaning in partially compositional idioms. The meaning to die from the literal meaning of “*to kick the bucket*”, the idiom’s literal meaning does constrain its use and comprehension.

As in the phrase “*pop the question*”, fully compositional idioms translate immediately onto their idiomatic referents.

This attribute has been used by some linguists to determine whether compositional or non-compositional idioms are simpler to grasp. Since the outcome of linguistic analysis for compositional idioms matches the idiomatic meaning, understanding is made easier. Non-compositional idioms are those whose linguistic and idiomatic meanings do not match; as a result, understanding them becomes increasingly challenging. Compositional idioms are simpler for non-native speakers because of this.

Glucksberg asserts that another way to categorize idioms is based on their degree of transparency, or how much the meaning of an idiom can be inferred from the meanings of its parts. He contrasts compositional styles that are opaque and transparent. Although the relationships between an idiom's elements and its meaning may be ambiguous in compositional-opaque idioms, the meanings of the individual words can nonetheless impose restrictions on both interpretation and implementation. For the idiom “*to kick the bucket*”, the semantics of the verb “to

kick” may limit interpretation. Although one might say he lay dying all week, one could not say he kicked the bucket all week because kicking is a separate act.

In the accordance with compositional-transparent idioms, “there are one-to-one semantic relations between the idiom’s constituents and components of the idiom’s meaning. In the idiom “*to break the ice*”, for example, the word “to break” corresponds to the idiomatic sense of abruptly changing an uncomfortable social situation, and the word ice corresponds to the idiomatic sense of social or interpersonal tension” (Glucksberg, 2001). Besides, non-compositional, compositional-opaque, and compositional-transparent idioms, there is also the quasi-metaphorical type.

Such idioms, according to Glucksberg, convey meaning through their allusive content and conjure up stereotypes or prototypes referring to particular events, behaviors, or people because they can both allude to the perfect illustration of a concept and describe a specific event or situation as an instance of that concept. For instance, the metaphorical expression crossing one's bridges before reaching them might be used to describe the idea of doing something prematurely. Glucksberg also draws our attention to the fact that the numerous variations, contexts, and format they exist in can have an impact on idiom recognition, learning, understanding, and, of course, translation. The contrast between knowing and comprehending an idiom correctly, such as “*to spill the beans*” and realizing it as an alternative, such as “he didn't spill a single bean,” is also shown (Glucksberg, 2001). Since the meaning of this option is not immediately kept in memory, it requires complicated mental processing and the application of several tactics to recognize it when it appears in our brains.

According to Cacciari and Tabossi, metaphors in sentences like “*my lawyer is a shark*” or “*my job was a jail*” are based on a similar communication technique to these quasi-metaphorical idioms (1993, p. 43). In this phrase, “shark” denotes outrageous, heartless individuals, while “jail” conjures images of harsh, oppressive situations. Similar rules apply to how quasi-metaphorical idioms are perceived.

One of the momentous typologies is suggested by Kvetko. According to his classification, there are pure or demotivated idioms, also known as phraseological fusions, in which the meaning of each component is distinct from the meaning of the entire idiom, for instance: “*red tape*”, “*to kick the bucket*”, “*hair of the dog that bit you*”, “*white elephant*”. Figurative idioms, phraseological groups having a relationship between the meaning of the words individually and the meaning of the phrase as a whole, are semi-opaque or partially motivated idioms, such as “*to add fuel to the flames*”, “*to put one’s card on the table*”, “*to have a free hand*”. Semi-idioms or semi-transparent phrases are phraseological combinations where one of the constituents has a literal, direct meaning: “*to promise somebody the moon*”, “*foot the bill*”, or “*to lie through one’s teeth*” (Kvetko, 2009, pp. 106-107).

At the same time, Kvetko suggests classifying idioms from a semantic point of view based on their perseverance. He asserts that some idioms cannot be altered since they are entirely stable and cannot be influenced by any changes (e.g. “*once in a blue moon*”, “*red tape*”), and there are certain idioms are transient and may be affected by certain changes.

He sees the following potential variations among unfixed idioms:

- grammatical variations are restricted, irregular syntactical or morphological alterations in things like tense, word order, form, and articles that produce grammatical variants. (e.g. “*to have been in the wars – had been in the war*”, “*on and off – off and on*”, “*to turn up one’s nose – to turn one’s nose up*”);
- lexical variations, also known as optional or required changes to the lexical structure of idioms, produce lexical variants (e.g. “*out of a clear sky – out of a clear blue sky*”, “*last straw – final straw*”). Changeable idioms occasionally go through lexical and grammatical modifications (e.g. “*a/the skeleton in the cupboard – a/the family skeleton*”; “*there is no smoke without fire, where there is smoke, there’s fire*”);
- the term “orthographic variations” (sometimes known as “spelling variants”) refers to differences in spelling, the use of various punctuation

marks, or the use of small or capital letters. (e.g. “*nosy parker, nosy Parker*”; “*to pay lip service, to pay lip-service*”);

- only in particular English-speaking regions are regional variations desired; examples of geographical variants include any of the previously stated variations: “*on second thoughts* (British English) – *on second thought* (American English)”; “*a skeleton in the closet* (American English) – *a skeleton in the cupboard*” (British English) (Kvetko, 2009, pp. 104-105).

Kvetko also provides an idiom categorization based on how they are put together. According to this theory, idioms might be vocal, verbless, sentence-based, or minimal. In verbal idioms, the verb and the object are frequently used as verbal syntagmatic structures (e.g. “to make up one’s mind”, “to open somebody’s eyes”, “to sleep like a log”). Idioms without verbs have a syntagmatic structure. An idiom that is used nonverbally might be nominal, adjectival, or adverbial (e.g. “black sheep”, “a square peg in a round hole”, “(as) fit as a fiddle”, “once in a blue moon”). Sentence idioms have the complex structure of a sentence (e.g. “the coast is clear”, “to talk of the devil and he’ll soon appear”, “to make hay while the sun shines”). Some linguists assert that the term "minimal idioms" refers to idiomatic statements that contain at least (e.g. “by heart”, “like hell”) (Kvetko, 2009, pp. 104-105).

As we can see, it is clear that there cannot be only one widely accepted classification and there are various efforts to classify idioms. Every classification that is provided by every scholar deserves some particular attention. It is possible to assume that awareness of a distinctive kind of idioms could be helpful in the process of their recognition, understanding, and eventually their translation.

## **Conclusions to Chapter One**

1. An idiom is a fixed expression whose meaning can not be taken as a combination of the meanings of its parts. The fixedness of idioms is a property that



not only distinguishes them from other lexical elements but also supports the idea that they are internally organised.

2. The fact that it is practically difficult for any single strategy or methodology to properly capture an idiom is one of the repercussions of idioms' diverse character. Furthermore, the image that comes from their analysis is still quite shattered due to our current understanding of these expressions. There have been many useful studies conducted, but it is clear from the findings that there is still no uniform definition of idioms that may be used by both native and non-native speakers to make their statements more expressive.

3. Idiomatic language has traditionally been seen as a rather homogeneous issue in history of the English language. There are variations between a metaphor and a proverb, for example, although both are likely to have comparable roots and serve the same language community.

4. Some scholars have been trying to figure out the differences among idioms, metaphors, and metonymies. In fact, they are not quite the same; many idioms are named on metaphors or metonymies.

5. Idioms may perform such functions as informational, evaluative, situational, modalizing, and organizational. Each of them is momentous and serves a great role in the utterances. Informational function claims and provides information. Evaluative one presents the speaker's assessment and attitude. Situational one refers to extralinguistic context and involves reacting to situations. Modalizing one conveys the truth, values, counsel, or a request. And organizational one assists in text organization and communicates discourse structure.

6. The classification of idioms is an important part of studying them as a linguistic phenomenon. If we are faced with different types of idioms, there might be differences regarding the ways how they can be understood, learned, and translated by native and non-native speakers. There are several attempts to categorize them.

7. There are some discussions about whether non-native speakers can implement idiomatic expressions in their speech doubting they can convey the

same information. The usage of idioms in speech indicates a deep understanding of the language. With the help of idioms people can observe the historical and cultural experiences of the people and understand them.

8. Owing to the correct and appropriate usage of idiomatic expressions the language becomes more lively and vivid, expressive, and original. Idioms are unique features of a language, especially of English, and show the richness of the people's vocabulary.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY OF POLITICAL DISCOURSE**

Politics seems to be ubiquitous nowadays. We hear or read politicians' statements practically everywhere: in media, advertising, international organizations, meetings, and cultural events. Politicians strive to present information as persuasively as possible, focusing people's attention on the issues they deem momentous, trying to win voters' support in political campaigns. Modern political discourse is a complex and multi-faceted phenomenon.

#### **2.1 The Notion of Discourse and its Interpretations**

Effective communication requires high levels of speaking, listening, writing, and reading to function in society. Communication skills including organization, succinctness, clarity, adherence to linguistic conventions, responsiveness, and suitability for the reader or listener are needed almost everywhere.

From one perspective, discourse may be seen as the verbal process of genuine communication in life, where factors like the degree of spontaneity and completeness, systemic language features, theme coherence, and explanation for individuals all play significant roles. From a different angle, it is hard to overlook that human communication always takes place in one manner or another depending on the positions of the communicants. The fact that they are a part of a social group and are in a normal speech context is significant.

Discourse reflects the specific situational elements that are present in each situation: 1) communicative intentions of the author; 2) relationship between the author and addressees; 3) all kinds of circumstances, "significant" and casual; 4) ideology and stylistic climate of an era in general, the concrete environment, specific individuals to whom the message is addressed; 5) genre and stylistic features of a message and communicative situation; 6) associations with the previous experience which got to an orbit of the speech act (Karasik, 2002).

National discourses (like English, French, etc.) and many sorts, including scientific, economic, political, poetic, and pedagogical discourses, have been divided into two sides by several linguists. Allocate all of these discourse types to a single national discourse for the second kind to exist. They “are not certain types of discourse, but only some “modification” of the latter, in a certain way, “adapted” by the sphere in which it functions” (Krasnyh, 1999, p. 247).

By the way, many linguists describe various discourse types without taking into account how they are categorized in terms of national identity. They highlight concrete discourse types that are frequently employed in cultural, communicative, historical, and ideological contexts, and as a result, they can be studied from the perspective of the general theory of communication. These discourse types include pedagogical, critical, legal, political, scientific, private, and general discourse.

D. A. Alkebayeva states that “discourse is a main form of communication. It is right to rely on communication between the addresser and addressee of discourse which leads to the appearance of new a branch called pragmastylistics. It deals with two aspects of communication: oral – discourse and written – text. Discourse takes into account verbal and non-verbal linguistic means, mental issues, the intention of communicants as well as communication tools” (Alkebayeva, 2014). It follows that discourse may be characterized as an oral medium of communication and that it has pragmatic relationships with a specific goal to affect the addressee through a variety of techniques.

V.I. Karasik offers a comprehensive categorization of discourse, and this is the criteria of direction that requires restructuring. The expert lists the two primary types of discourse: 1) personal (personal-oriented) where the speaker assumes the role of the person in all the richness of his inner world; 2) institutional (status-oriented) where the speaker assumes the role as the representative of a particular social standing (Karasik, 2000).

A similar division of discourse into personal and institutional is also supported in works by P. Grays, J. Austen, J. Searle, D. Gordon, J. Lakoff, N. I. Formanovskaya, and V. S. Kubryakova.

Discourse inside institutions asserts the concept of interaction between status and role relationships. The following categories of institutional discourse are assigned in connection to contemporary society: advertising, aesthetics, diplomacy, politics, law, pedagogy, administration, religion, mysticism, business, sports, science, and mass information (Karasik, 2000).

This enumeration, according to V. I. Karasik, is not strictly stable; it can be altered and expanded as public institutions significantly differ from one another and cannot be viewed as homogeneous phenomena; they are undergoing historical changes and can interact with one another to form variations of this or that type.

It is significant to realize that each of the discourse types listed above only represents a small portion of the total number of discourse types. Any of these discourses will undoubtedly highlight its distinctive traits, it is apparent.

## **2.2 Classification of Political Discourse**

Under the definitions of political discourse that is provided by various authors. According to scholar Sheygal (2004), the following definition of political discourse can be derived as the linguistic behavior of politicians, means of communication, rhetorical techniques, and manipulative strategies. In this paper, we rely on this definition.

The political discourse cannot be reduced to mere communication since it brings together actors who have certain goals. The goals and a member's choice are determined by the specific type of discourse, therefore in this situation, the goal of political discourse is the securing and upholding of power, and its participants are society and politicians.

Following the classification of numerous authors (Alekseeva, 2001; Karasik, 2004; Konkov, 2011; Hlevova, 1999) these are the most prevalent semantic-pragmatic categories, e.g. inherited features as part of the political discourse:

- 1) The image of the author.

This idea is crucial for defining personal and status-oriented discourse. The author's persona is described by a communication scenario, which includes the following elements:

a) the author's abstraction when communication over personal traits and emotional experiences takes precedence;

b) the author's personification when the interlocutor's personality traits and psychological state have a significant impact on the communication process;

These two situational aspects correspond to the concepts of objectivity and subjectivity (Kenzhekanova, 2015, p. 194).

Personification, as the stylistic mean, the second element in this category, is unique to political speech and, by extension, subjectivity. In the course of political discussion and information sharing regarding political events and choices, the addressers draw on their own personal and professional experiences, revealing the author's identity in both the selection of factual material and the linguistic techniques used to organize it.

c) style of the statement;

d) para-textual components (a short piece of information about the author, the photo of the author, the picture of the author). For instance, Barack Obama's Vision for the Future:

*"I believe that the single most important job of any President is to protect the American people. And I am equally convinced that doing that job effectively in the 21st century will require a new vision of American leadership and a new conception of our national security – a vision that draws from the lessons of the past, but is not bound by outdated thinking" (Barack Obama, 2008).*

2) Addressee ability or factor of the addressee.

A discourse's structure presupposes the presence of two roles: those of the speaker and the audience. Therefore, during a discourse analysis, it is possible to recreate the communicators' mental worlds, details, and assessments of reality from two perspectives: from the discourse's creation and the discourse's understanding. As a result, one of the categories of a discourse that is given prominence is the

addressee's ability. The elimination of some abstract models of the addressee having a complex of traits that can assure the normal perception of the message is a precondition for creating a specific text. Of course, the person constructing the discourse has a position of advantage, which is frequently utilized to impose their beliefs on the audience. This condition is significant, particularly in the area of policy (Kenzhekanova, 2015, p. 194).

### 3) Informational content.

This category, which more or less describes every act of communication, is nonetheless directly influenced by the discourse's communicative goals. Political discourse's societal objective is to persuade its audience that doing politically acceptable action is necessary (Kenzhekanova, 2015, p. 194).

### 4) Intentionality.

It is a type of discourse that refers to the speaker's intended communication. The author says everything verbally, from words to texts, with a certain aim in mind. This type of political discourse, like the one before it, is directly influenced by the discourse purpose, which already gives the addressee instructions on how to behave verbally. The goal of a political discourse might include both estimation and the recommendation of actions to the addressees. The last element is linked to the next political discourse category (Kenzhekanova, 2015, p. 194).

### 5) Estimation.

The goal of political discourse is not to represent reality objectively, but rather to highlight particular aspects of this phenomenon and persuade the audience to take the desired action for the discourse's author under certain conditions. As a result, the political event is generated in a particular culture and its evaluation—which is important for this subject—is done. Axiological (estimated) vocabulary, a sort of center of gravity that highlights the attention and effects on the reader's awareness, can be used by the speaker for this goal in political discourse (Kenzhekanova, 2015, p. 194).

### 6) Conventionality.

This notion is called interpretability (Karasik, 2000) or perceptual ability (Komarov, 2003) by some authors.

Conventionality has got three forms of manifestation:

a) cliché (e.g. logicity and simplicity of a statement, clarity, and accuracy of information; cliché and stamps are used to cause the existing stereotypes in the consciousness of the listeners, to make information clear and easier to be understood):

e.g. *“last but not least”, “boom and bust”, “apart from the fact that”, “in the absence of”, “to the extent that”, “by the same token”, “to take/hold the view that”, “strictly speaking”, “to proceed from the assumption that”, “to sum up the above-said”, “to bear in mind”.*

b) terminological character (e.g. branched definitions of terms, the entry into the system, accuracy of meaning, briefness, linguistic correctness, the usage of terminological definitions)

e.g. *“to corroborate a statement”, “proponents”, “a vision”, “heterogeneous”, “soft power” – soft influence, e.g. influence through culture, ideology and propaganda; “hard power” – hard influence, e.g. pressure exerted by military and economical levels; “coalition of the willing” – a coalition of voluntary partner.*

A significant portion of the development and invention of new political words has been done by politicians and political researchers.

E.g. *“dark horse”* – a politician who unexpectedly obtains the nomination. This phrase refers to a little-known horse that unexpectedly advances to the head of the pack in racing lingo (Dickson, 2013).

*“Obamacare”* – a derisive name for the Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act, introduced by the democratic leadership and signed into law in March 2010 by Barack Obama (Dickson, 2013).

7) Emotiveness/expressivity.

This category's foundation is made up of several syntactic element combinations that offer specific discourses and texts-productive representations of



discourses — not just integrity and connectedness but also further expressiveness (Kenzhekanova, 2015, p. 195). Expressional nuances used in political discourse can range from pleasant and familiar to somewhat caustic, depending on the semantic features they are intended to convey. As a result, formal etiquette rules for formulations are frequently ignored (Mazaev, 2005).

#### 8) Modality

The attitude towards reality in the speaker's depiction is referred to as the category of a modality. The characteristics of the speaker that apply to not only the participants in the discourse but to the discourse as a whole include evaluations of the content of expressions in terms of reality/unreality, possibility, necessity or desirability, the degree of certainty of the reported thing, and qualitative estimation of the content of statements (Kenzhekanova, 2015, p. 196).

#### 9) Intertextuality.

Relationships between linguistic and social structures that are realized in the universal text, a collection of general and particular textual characteristics, the process of ongoing appropriation and transformation, the creation and reinterpretation of the text, the inclusion of other texts or its components — all these things imply the manifestation of the intertextuality category. Intertextuality is primarily a literary discourse-specific concept (Kenzhekanova, 2015, p. 196).

#### 10) Socio-cultural context.

This category denotes the capacity to engage and activate the receivers' complex sociocultural settings (knowledge) throughout the perceiving process (Filonenko, 2005). The reader's capacity to quickly recognize the topic, the subject matter, and the references that are necessary to comprehend the material is crucial to understanding political oral and written writings.

The text has all of the above semantic-pragmatic categories, which are characteristic of writings in political discourse. Therefore, while analyzing a political discourse, linguists should include both language and extra-linguistic aspects, such as the context of the events recounted in the text, the history behind

them, and the assessment of the players (a phonetic system of the text, grammatical, lexical features of the text).

### **2.3 Main Features of Political Discourse**

Guided by the goal of political leadership, politicians resort to the use of lexical units that hide unpleasant social phenomena or use other stylistic methods to increase public trust (Чорнойван, 2021, с. 15).

Any, including political discourse, is a cognitive phenomenon because it is connected with the reproduction and transmission of knowledge. In the end, it is a language that is seen as a purposeful social action. And more broadly, it is a complex unity of language form, meaning, and action, which can be expressed by the term “communicative act”. The term “discourse” in the language of philosophy and logic means not only logical order, but also formal intermediate (Акінчинць, 2007, с. 73).

However, it is vital to draw attention to the particular characteristics that apply specifically to this particular category of discourse, such as the substantiality and otherness of poetic discourse (the special mechanism of reproduction, the most important phenomenological and genetic principle of poetry) (Kenzhekanova, 2015, p. 197).

Particular characteristics of political discourse are four features: 1) agonistic ability; 2) aggressiveness; 3) ideological character; 4) theatricality (Kenzhekanova, 2015, p. 197).

#### 1) Agonistic ability.

The foundation of political speech is a never-ending conversation battle between the party in power and the opposition, in which adversaries occasionally exchange blows, hold the line, deflect blows, and go on the offensive. The reflection of all the fundamental components of sports and gaming competition in the realm of politics, including the presence of the enemy, rivalry, fight's ethics, legal regulations (rules and regulations), the strategy and tactics of the fight, victory, defeat, the victor's triumph, and winning, demonstrates the convergence of

political discourse on this feature with sports discourse. The strongest proof of a political discourse's competitiveness may be found in formats like legislative debates and pre-election campaigns (Kenzhekanova, 2015, p. 197).

## 2) Aggressiveness.

Aggression is one of the most crucial elements in a political speech. The definition of aggressiveness in English explanatory dictionaries is "violent or hostile feelings, action, or attitude" (Oxford, 2000). This word has one of the longest lists of synonyms in the thesaurus, including hostility, assault, attack, bellicosity, combativeness, destructiveness, encroachment, hostility, impingement, incursion, injury, intrusion, invasion, jingoism, militancy, offense, onslaught, provocation, pugnacity, raid, etc (Wordsworth, 1993).

In political speech, aggression is also linked to the concepts of hierarchy and dominance. "Hierarchy" comes from the Greek word "hieros", which means "sacred", and "arche", which means "power". Dominance comes from the Latin word "dominantis", which means "dominating", as well as "aspiration to domination" "prevalence" and "leadership". Domination, which is a result of violence and establishes a hierarchical order in human connections, is viewed as the foundation of aggression (Kenzhekanova, 2015, p. 194).

The rivalry related to the quest for power, social status, and recognition, increasing territorial positions or roles in collectives, etc., is the cause of hierarchy. If speech aggression is to be considered within the context of political communication, it is important to keep in mind that in this case, the dominant aggression is directed at a specific political figure who is not explicitly mentioned in the communication context, namely the political opponent's critic when speaking to a third party or large audience in public speeches, interviews, or political discussions (Sheygal, 2004).

Specific speaking behaviors display verbal aggressiveness. It is important to emphasize that when highlighting verbal acts of aggression, each one is a political power play meant to degrade the standing of the recipient. Standard speech aggressiveness in political debate is divided as follows:

- expressive wills with the semantics of exile (acts of will);
- categorical requirements and appeals;
- speech acts of damnation (in slogan genres);
- speech acts of threat (Sheygal, 2004).

### 3) Ideological character.

The ideological personality displays a set of social representations, ideas, and beliefs that are centered on group knowledge, interests, and norms. This oddity gives the military access to political dialogue. War is the alternative mechanism by which policy is carried out. The range of their interaction includes genres like military doctrine, a military and political agreement, an ultimatum, and peace negotiations, among others, which provide the ideology and path of the conflict from the viewpoint of the opposing sides (Kenzhekanova, 2015, p. 198).

### 4) Theatricality.

Political discourse is brought together with commercial and scenic discourses under the heading of theatricality. The people play the position of the observer addressee, who sees the present political events as a specific show produced for them with an intriguing narrative and an unpredictable ending, rather than the direct addressee, which is how political discourse becomes theatrical. Politicians continually consider “a spectator audience” when speaking with one another and with journalists, acting or working “for the public” to make an impact and “to break an applaud”. Politicians' likenesses are the foundation of political “theatre”. If the plot-role aspect of political discourse is mostly used metaphorically, then its "director's" element is explicitly visible in many political events where a performance element (such as a script and pre-written texts, the allocation of roles, and rehearsals) is crucial (Kenzhekanova, 2015, p. 194).

Firstly, political advertising is unquestionably exaggerated. Politics-related advertising aims to shape a particular "image" of a public figure or institution and inspire behavior that is exclusive to them. Both are employed in political advertising and utilized in the political agitation and propaganda genres (posters, presentations, speeches in public, debates, speeches at meetings, leaflets, appeals,

and banners). Second, these ceremonial acts resemble large-scale spectacles, like the inauguration or celebrations for national holidays.

Pseudo-events, which comprise particularly prepared activities for the aim of their immediate exhibition or transmission of information about them, are events that happen in addition to ritual events, which take place regardless of mass media and are only illuminated in mass media. Pseudo-events include an interview, a press conference, a television talk, a television discussion, a television debate, and others. Though their major portion is mostly spontaneous, all of these discursive versions are communication events whose dramatic aesthetic is largely determined by mass media.

### **Conclusions to Chapter Two**

1. Modern political discourse is a complex and multi-faceted phenomenon, as it is hard to define providing only one definition of this term. In the paper, we rely on the definition provided by Sheygal according to which political discourse is viewed as the linguistic behavior of politicians, means of communication, rhetorical techniques, and manipulative strategies.

2. The field approach to the examination of a political discourse's semantic-pragmatic structure allows for the partial revelation of not only all of this kind of discourse's distinctive traits, but also of some of its areas of contact with other forms of discourse. The field system of discursive features can aid in identifying features that are in and out of a zone of crossing different forms of discourse due to its objective. It can also confirm a closer interdependence of discourse types within each class divided according to status criteria.

3. The interpretation, which is a phenomenon quite distinct from, say, an occurrence that cannot be objective, is the information in the political discourse of mass media. Any type of speech includes a specific contribution from the human element. Discourse is an anthropocentric phenomenon; because the speaker (or writer) "assigns" speech because of its evaluative character, it subjectively reflects the world.

4. Subjectivity, which helps to slant the information in the addressee's favor, differs political discourse in the media from other types of discourse since the subject interprets reality in the text, reflects some interests, have aims and purposes.

5. In the area of interaction between political discourse and the discourse of mass media, it is possible to assume that that the political discourse of mass media appears as an autonomous communicative phenomenon. Because of this, political speech in the media can influence audience opinions and behavior in the appropriate context.

6. Such peculiarities of political discourse as aggression, ideological character, intentionality, informational content, competitiveness, theatricality, modality, mass orientation, conventionality, the factor of the addressee, national and cultural specificity, agonistic ability all contribute to the creation of the required conditions for public consciousness manipulation.

7. The political discourse has some goals and objectives, which contribute to the manipulation of information in a way preferable and suitable for the addressee. Thus, a good politician should be a good orator, as this person needs to carry the data, try to show his confidence, and persuade people to give their votes for them.

## CHAPTER THREE

### STYLISTIC AND FUNCTIONAL SPECIFICITY OF IDIOMS IN THE 21<sup>ST</sup> CENTURY POLITICAL DISCOURSE

The 21<sup>st</sup> century is rich in different events, some of them are pleasant, some of them are horrible, and nobody could imagine them to be in the future: a lot of war conflicts, horrible terrorist attacks, convoluted elections, a long pandemic, the unexpected death in the royal family and so on so forth.

There are plenty of speeches given by American and British politicians, and owing to these events their statements cannot be unemotional, as they try to support people as people's lives matter.

The biggest part of the speeches is dedicated to the Russian-Ukrainian war, as plenty of politicians condemn these events and try to help Ukraine in all various ways. The war in Ukraine leads to genocide thus many representatives of other governments are against the aggression from the side of the Russian government.

#### 3.1 Idioms in American Political Context

Politicians use idioms to present themselves or their parties as the best solutions, add more contrast or criticize their opponents. As we have already analyzed some key aspects of idiomatic expressions, it is also interesting to specify how they are used in the political discourse. To identify the features of English idioms, we considered and analyzed the speeches of American politicians which were given in the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

The first politician whose speech for analysis included idiomatic expressions is George Walker Bush, who is the 43<sup>rd</sup> president of America. There is even a term that is called "Bushism" which means the policies, principles, and sayings advocated by the former president. On the Second Presidential Debate Bush says: *"I hear there are rumors on the Internet that we are going to have a draft"* (2004). In this context, the idiomatic expression *"to have a draft"* means that people do not have a serious attitude to the debate and election, that there will be one more event

like this, and people have no trust. According to the functional peculiarities of idiomatic expressions provided by Rosamund already mentioned in the paper, this idiom is evaluative, as Bush assesses the information from his competitors.

The next example to consider is: “*I know it is hard for you to put food on your family*” (Bush, 2000), where “*to put on your family*” has the meaning of providing enough money to cover necessities for the family. This expression is used to show that the government knows the problems of every citizen. In terms of the functions, this idiom is situational, as it is selected because of the situation of running the country by Bush that was in that period.

The next phrase is: “*We ought to make the pie higher*” (Bush, 2000) whereas the idiomatic phrase “*to make a pie higher*” has a situational function as well and is said to show that the government is working on creating more availability of wealth and work opportunities than does redistribution of wealth.

One more idiomatic expression that is mentioned by Bush is: “*See, in my line of work you got to keep repeating things over and over and over again for the truth to sink in, to king of catapult the propaganda*” (2005), in which the phrase “*the truth to sink in*” has the evaluative function, as it means that the person unexpectedly starts to believe in the idea or fact, understand it, and realize what the effect it has on him/her. Bush uses this phrase to show the changes that are done during his presidential term.

In general, all the idioms that he used are semantically transparent. It is easy to explain their meaning with the help of conceptual mapping from the source domain, the president, to the target one, his audience. People start to believe him and see the successful actions from his side being as a president.

The next interesting president is Barack Obama, who is a politician that served as the 44th president of the United States from 2009 to 2017. He is a member of the Democratic Party and was the first African-American president of America. There are some idiomatic expressions in his speeches. One of them is the phrase: “*some nations may be able to turn a blind eye*” (Obama, 2011). This idiom has a figurative meaning and informational function as the president tries to show



that some nations do not care about democracy which is important in any place of the world.

Obama added one phrase about this issue, as “*the democratic impulses that are dawning across the region*” (the U.S. had the responsibility to act in Libya, March 28, 2011), this phrase has a figurative meaning of “to be democratic” as well and evaluative function, as the speaker conveys the atmosphere of the situation. The rule of democracy should be bold on every side of the country. There is also such an idiom as “*they seek a foothold*” (Obama, 2011). According to the functions of idioms, this is an evaluative one as it assesses people. The people that are loyal enough to protect and fight for the country, are the greatest, and other people should appreciate them and their efforts. Obama likes to be expressive and emotional. He often uses such idiom as “*Be our North Star*” (Time, November 14, 2016), the meaning of this is to motivate to inspire others and according to the function, this is also evaluative. Every person knows that the “star” is a symbol of guidance and the USA will guide everybody to the places and things they were dreaming of.

By the way, Obama also uses some idioms about the conflict situations, to show his words more persuasive and to make his speech more amazing, calling the sympathy of people, picking up the dramatical words as “*the dark forces of civil conflict*” (Obama, 2011), which provide the situational function in this context.

Obama’s speech is rich in using idiomatic expressions. Owing to them he tries to show the power of the USA, gains admiration from the audience and approval of his actions and him as the president. The idioms he used are also semantically transparent because their meaning is clear for the target domain, American people.

The former president of America, Donald Trump uses many idioms in his speeches, paying certain attention to express his emotions, for instance: “*We are going to start the engine rolling again, because... right now, our country is dying at 1 percent GDP*”. Donald Trump uses the idiom “*to start the engine rolling*” which means “to pay particular attention to the need of restarting a new step of

economic development” and this idiomatic expression has a situational function. The analyzed idiom has the equivalent in Ukrainian, which means “to make the engine work” (Haberman & Schmidt, 2018).

According to these idiomatic expressions, Donald Trump uses the most idioms in his speech, sometimes combining two idioms in one sentence creating more expressive ideas, for example, “*He violates the red line in the sand, and he made so many mistakes*”. Donald Trump combines two idioms in the given example: “*to violate the red line*” meaning no possibility to return and it serves as evaluative because it shows Trump’s opinion and attitude to the situation that occurred, and “*to draw a line in the sand*” meaning “to forget the past” and it has a situational function because it has the idea of forgetting the problems of the past and think about future (Trump, 2015).

Idioms in his speech are understandable and semantically transparent. His listeners, the target domain, can understand his attitude and opinion about these situations through the used expressions.

The incumbent president of America Joe Biden also uses plenty of idioms in his speeches. On the campaign trail as part of his central message to bring Americans back together, Biden says the words: “*We can join forces, stop the shouting, and lower the temperature*” (Biden, 2021), where the idiom “*lower the temperature*” signifies the de-escalation of the situation, going from hot to cold, or from angry to calm and it has got a situational function. Phrase that is used in the inaugural speech where the future of the country as viewed through the power of unity is discussed, president Biden says such words: “*If we are willing to stand in the other person’s shoes for just a moment*”, the idiom “*to stand in the other person’s shoes*” (Biden, 2021) has situational function and means “to put oneself in other person’s place”. Biden uses this phrase to win favor over the listeners and explains that across the political aisle, from different walks of life, finding common interests which can unite them all together.

At the Pardoning of the National Thanksgiving Turkey, Joe Biden makes such an interesting and at the same time confusing statement: “*You know, as a*

*University of Delaware man, I'm partial to Blue Hens, but today we're going to talk turkey*" (Remarks on the Thanksgiving Turkey Presentation Ceremony, November 19, 2021). In this case, there is the phrase "*to talk turkey*" that is situational. Listeners should not expect the president to tell us the recipes for how to cook a perfect turkey, how to hunt, turkey anatomy, or other points about this animal. Biden wants Americans to be serious and to be honest so that the population does not lose confidence in his leadership.

In his conversation with Dr. Swati Mohan, after the mission Biden called to congratulate the team, Biden asks how Swati Mohan is, and he responds that everything is fine and thanked him for taking the time to speak with them, then Joe Biden adds: "*Are you kidding me? What an honor this is – this is an incredible honor...*" (Outlook, November 17, 2022). The idiomatic expression "*are you kidding me?*" is used in the conversation to light-heartedly express his disbelief that she would thank him in the face of her and her team's incredible achievement. This phrase implies that the speaker has made such a dubious statement that he must be joking and has the situational function, as it shows the outright response to the situation. That is why the idioms that he used, and especially the one from the example, are semantically transparent, so it is possible to define their meanings from the source domain to the target one.

### **3.2 The Functions of Idioms in the Field of British Politics**

David Cameron is the former prime minister of the United Kingdom, who served from 2010 to 2016. Being elected as the prime minister, Cameron gives his first speech and uses such idiomatic expressions: "*I'd like to pay tribute to the outgoing prime minister for his long record of dedicated public service*" (Cameron, 2010). David Cameron uses the phrase to express his respect and honor for his predecessor, Gordon Brown. This expression can help to get some support and trust from both the population and other politicians. This idiom performs an evaluative function, as it shows his attitude to the former prime minister. Then, in the statement "*And I think the service our country needs right now is to face up to*

*our really big challenges...*” (Cameron, 2010) there is an expression that in this context means “being ready to face difficulties, to have confidence in one’s strength, and the strength of the people”. This idiom fulfills a situational function as it helps to raise the spirit of the people, and motivate and mobilize them to take action.

The prime minister expresses big hopes for the future of his country in this statement: “*And I want a political system that people can trust and look up to once again*” (Cameron, 2010), the idiom “*look up to*”, means “to look up to someone, to take an instance from someone”, helps to express the thoughts more vividly and has the organizational function.

The former Prime Minister of the UK in 2016 used many idioms in his public speeches, which are connected with natural phenomena. Among them are such expressions as “*to turn the tide*”, “*to fall through the cracks*”, “*at rock bottom*”, “*to chase the rainbow*”, and “*for instance, having terrorism*” (Cameron, 2010). The represented example “*to chase the same rainbows*” means “trying to do something you will never achieve”. This idiom features a person who cannot deal with reality and underestimate his strength. It fulfills a situational function.

In his statements we can notice one more idiomatic expression: “*I refuse to cross the Rubicon and write press law or to cross the Rubicon*” (Cameron, 2010). Here he says about a difficult decision and that there is no way back. Cameron’s speech represents the idea that he is not ready to provide the government with the power of controlling newspapers. He supports the idea that there should be no limits to freedom of speech even in the press, and so these idiomatic expressions have an informational function. As it is seen, the idioms are semantically transparent and are comprehensible for the people, the target domain.

The next politician is Theresa May, who is also famous as Lady May, who was a British prime minister and the leader of the Conservative Party from 2016 to 2019. She was trying to achieve strong and stable relationships everywhere. In a speech the day before she lost the meaningful vote, May said: “*The only deal on the table is the one MPs will be voting on tomorrow night.*” (BBC News, 2019),

the phrase “on the table” means “an option, especially the one that can be negotiated” and this idiomatic expression has a situational function. Here she urges her Brexit plans and indicates her decision that there is no other solution available with the European Union. This is also used to say that there will not be any further negotiations. There is also one interesting statement that is said by Theresa May: “*For the people who need our help and protection the most, let Britain be a beacon of hope*” (BBC News, 2015), where the phrase “to be a beacon of hope” means something that holds the promise of hope and performs the situational function. The idioms in her speeches are semantically transparent, so it is possible to understand them without any problems.

Boris Johnson served as prime minister of the United Kingdom from 2019 to 2022. His public speeches display a great variety of idiomatic expressions. In his first speech as a prime minister, he says: “*The doubters, the doomsters, the gloomsters – they are going to get it wrong again. The people who bet against Britain are going to lose their shirts*” (Johnson, 2019). Due to this quote, Johnson uses word order to attack his opponents, thus we may assume that its function is evaluative because he judges his opponents, as well as informational owing to convey his opinion about them. Instead of disproving arguments about Brexit directly, he urges the audience to run through warnings as evidence of doubters’ negative attitude, not evenhanded assessments. Johnson frames politics as a choice between those who back Britain, and those who will bet against it.

When the pandemic appeared in our lives, the former prime minister of the UK, Boris Johnson described coronavirus as a “*physical assailant*” that represents the meaning of being challenged to fight, it can also be compared to a battle, so this has the evaluative function. One more example of idiomaticity in Johnson’s speech is “*and we need to wrestle (coronavirus) to the floor*” (The Guardian, 2020), which shows that we need to overcome this disease and it has a situational function. There are also the examples of semantically transparent idioms, so it is possible to discover their sense in the transmission from the source domain to the target one.

### 3.3 The Use of Idiomatic Expressions and Their Functions in the Context of Ukrainian-Russian War

The war conflict that started in our country in 2014 escalated into a full-scale war on 24 February 2022. Russia invaded Ukraine, started bombing its cities, and had the ambition to capture all our lands and change the government under the Russian propaganda of prohibiting the Russian language and killing Russians who speak it. All democratic countries around the world started supporting Ukraine from the first days of the huge-scaled war giving ammunition, humanitarian help, hosting refugees, applying economic sanctions, and, of course, making powerful speeches trying to persuade the Russian president to stop killing Ukrainians and abandon any ambitious plans to capture the whole sovereign country in the centre of Europe.

#### 3.3.1 Idioms in President Joe Biden's Speeches

The incumbent president of America, Joe Biden, on the first day of the war, 24th February, gave a speech according to the following events. He says such statements: *“Putin is the aggressor. Putin chose this war. And now he and his country will bear the consequences”* (Biden, 2022), where the phrase *“bear the consequences”* has a meaning “to get the results” and is used to show the morals, as he conveys his values. In this context, it does not anything pleasant or desired. The American president also adds such statements as: *“We’ve cut off Russia’s largest bank – a bank that holds more than one third of Russia’s banking assets by itself – cut it off from the US financial system”* (Biden, 2022). It performs the informational function. Here *“cut off”* means limiting Russia from the world in terms of switching this country off the international currencies.

The next phrase is: *“As I said on Tuesday, these are people who personally gain from the Kremlin’s policies and they should share in the pain. We will keep up this drumbeat of those designations against corrupt billionaires in the days ahead”* (Biden, 2022), where *“share in the pain”* means “to feel the pain” and *“keep up this drumbeat”* that shows the idea people continue doing the same

actions that limit their life as they used to do before. Both of them are used to show evaluation, as they convey his attitude to this situation.

In his speech on the final day of the NATO summit in Madrid Joe Biden makes such a statement: “*Putin thought he could break the transatlantic alliance, he tried to weaken us. He expected our resolve to fracture. But he’s getting exactly what he did not want*” (Biden, 2022), the phrase “*to resolve to fracture*” is “to separate something into different parts”, in this context it implies that Russian president wants to split up NATO, to weaken it. Also, it presents informational features.

The next words which are declared by Biden are: “*We are going to stick with Ukraine, and all of the alliance is going to stick with Ukraine as long as it takes to, in fact, make sure that they are not defeated*” (Biden, 2022), where the expression *to stick with* means to follow, and is also situational. In his speech about the massive bombing and killing of Ukrainian people, Biden reports abuses against civilians “*should make your blood run cold*”, which is an evaluation, as it expresses his attitude to these events and shows his feeling of fear. This bombing was on 30th September. More than 23 people were killed and 28 were wounded – it is a terrible situation. The idioms he used enhance his talks and also are semantically transparent.

### 3.3.2 Idioms in Boris Johnson’s Speeches

Boris Johnson is a former prime minister of the UK who was in office at the time of the Russian full-scale invasion. He gave a lot of emotional speeches that described the situation in Ukraine and expressed his full unconditional support for the Ukrainian people. He has been to Ukraine during the Russian invasion a couple of times. This politician is even awarded by the Ukrainian President in the capital of our country.

On the day of the Russian invasion, Boris Johnson gave a speech to people all around the world, especially Ukrainians: “*We – and the world – cannot allow that freedom just to be snuffed out. We cannot and will not just look away*” (2022).

Both of these idioms have a situational function in this context. In the given context “*snuff out*” means “to stop something (e.g. a disagreement), usually in a forced or sudden way” and “*look away*” in this statement refers to the problem, conflict that cannot be ignored by others.

On 24 August 2022, the Independence Day of our country, Johnson came to Ukraine and gave a speech to show his attitude to our people who are suffering from Russia. He said: “*I told you then that we were shoulder to shoulder with you and that is as true today as it was in that horrific moment*” (Johnson, 2022), in which the phrase “*shoulder to shoulder*” means that we are equal and we can count on British people. Johnson also repeats the idiomatic expression “to cope with” which means “to overcome, to deal with”.

The politician said: “... *give in to Putin’s economic blackmail because the people of my country can see with complete clarity what is at stake in Ukraine today*” (Johnson, 2022), where the word “*blackmail*” refers to the restrictions and bans for Russia. Here there are two more idiomatic expressions in this statement: “... *I believe that history is at a turning point and after decades in which democracy has been on the defensive, on the back foot ...*.”(Johnson, 2022). The “*turning point*” has the meaning of a time at which a decisive change in a situation occurs, especially one with the beneficial results and “*on the back foot*” is used here to describe being outmaneuvered and outclassed by an opponent, having more disadvantages rather than advantages.

These idiomatic expressions perform an informational function as they contain important information. In the concluding part of his speech, Johnson states: “*You can’t negotiate with a bear while it’s eating your leg, you can’t negotiate with a street robber who has you pinned to the floor and we don’t need to worry about humiliating Putin any more than we would need to worry about humiliating the bear or the robber*” (2022). Here he compares the president of Russia, Volodymyr Putin, with a bear, and says that there cannot be any negotiations and that everything should be solved on the battlefield, at the same time he asks all the countries to provide more ammunition to help the military and the prime minister



is especially grateful to Joe Biden, who supports Ukraine at the same level. In this context, this idiomatic expression has got an evaluative function, as it expresses his attitude, and is semantically transparent for the target audience.

### 3.3.3 Idioms in Liz Truss's Speeches

A newly elected prime minister of the United Kingdom, Liz Truss, was also deeply concerned about the war in Ukraine. Firstly, Ukrainians were afraid of these changes that happened in the UK's government, because we had great support from Boris Johnson and we did not know what to expect from the newcomer, as we could lose this support easily. While she was promoting herself as a candidate, in her campaign she was trying to back up our country as much as she could. It was one of her electioneering promises which Liz Truss tried to fulfill, as we could notice significant supplies of ammunition on the battlefield.

There is an expression: "*The United Kingdom stands side-by-side with Ukraine on its path as a free European democracy*" (Truss, 2022), in which "*side-by-side*" has a meaning of "being together". Some statements are used to express her kind support for Ukraine, as "*stand together*" that has the same meaning. The phrase "*eye-to-eye*" is used to describe that she monitors the situation in our country all the time. These idiomatic expressions have got an evaluative function. In Truss' statements, she says: "*So he is now hell-bent on snuffing out the flame of freedom in Ukraine through all-out war*", in which "*hell-bent*" implies her being determined to achieve something at all costs, and "*to snuff out*" is understood as to be stopped owing to a forceful or sudden way.

Liz Truss promotes the idea of banning Russia from the whole world, as they are doing such horrible things on Ukrainian lands. The evidence of this can be traced in the following statement: "*The free world, collectively, needs to bear down harder to cut Russia off from its key sources of foreign income: energy and other exports such as gold*". There is such an expression as: "*to bear down*", which means increasing pressure, moving directly towards someone or something in a purposeful way, to land a target. It shows us that she wants the war to be finished

as soon as it is possible while she is offering such actions, as cutting Russia off from the civilized world and all nations should unite to oust Putin from the government. In this following statement: “*We cannot be cowed by Putin trying to gas-light the world with lurid threats. Whenever NATO has stood up to his bullying, he has been forced to back down, not double down*”. Moreover, there are such phrases as “*stand up to his bullying*” that show, that NATO is brave enough to fight with Russia, and the next one is “*to back down, not double down*”, which shows the current situation on the battlefield right now, as Ukraine is leading and winning the war. These idiomatic expressions above have got the evaluative function, as she tries to show her opinion about this war (2022).

As Liz Truss was in office for only a few months, there are not so many momentous key points in her career as a prime minister. However, the idioms in her speeches are semantically transparent and understandable. It is possible to detect their meaning in a prism of conceptual mapping from the source to the target domain.

### **3.3.4 Idioms in Victoria Spartz’s Speeches**

Victoria Spartz, who comes from Ukraine, lived here for more than half of her life and she is the first Ukrainian elected as a congresswoman. She makes many efforts trying to portray us as a unique nation worthy of all kinds of help and support. She asks for a lot of ammunition supplies to fight against the Russian soldiers.

In her first speech, Victoria Spartz tries to show great empathy to Ukrainians and humiliate Putin and his people, attracting people’s attention to the horrible things that Russian soldiers are doing to us. Spartz said: “*I think we have an obligation and duty to save this world, help Ukrainian people to survive, and this president (needs) to get his act together and exercise some leadership. What's happening under his watch is (an) atrocity*” (Spartz, 2022). In the last sentence there is an idiom “*under somebody’s watch*” that has a meaning of being observed or guarded carefully at all times.

There are some convoluted issues with Mr. Yermak, who is not appreciated well by Spartz, as he did not give any clear explanations to Ukrainians before the war started. In her speech to the president of Ukraine, Volodymyr Zelenskyy, she states: *“Based on the strong support I have been receiving from Americans, Ukrainians, and many people around the world, I understand why my comments struck a chord with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Ukraine”* (Spartz, 2022). Here the idiomatic expression *“to struck a chord”* has a meaning of impressing somebody strongly in positive or negative ways.

According to the function, these idioms are evaluative, as Spartz estimates the situation around them and shows her opinion. In the situation of the war, Ukrainian people support the government and they do not understand Victoria Spartz’s idea, in some ways her statements are underestimated, for example, that it is important to fight against the only opponent – Russia, not our government. So, the idioms that she used are semantically transparent too.

### **Conclusions to Chapter Three**

1. In this chapter the speeches of American and British politicians in the 21<sup>st</sup> century are analysed. They are enriched with idiomatic expressions, as the latter are one of the most effective tools to add emotionality and expressiveness in a precisely meaningful and forceful way.

2. The quantitative analysis of the examined speeches allowed us to come to a conclusion that American politicians tend to be more committed to using idioms than their counterparts from other countries.

3. Idioms in the speeches of such former and incumbent American presidents as George Walker Bush, Barack Obama, Donald Trump, and Joe Biden are different, so they also perform various functions. According to the analyzed material, George Bush use mostly evaluative and situational ones. Barack Obama also use these ones, and besides – informative ones. Donald Trump likes to evaluate different events, so most of the idioms have evaluative function. Joe

Biden's speeches include lots of situational idioms; however, in his talks about Ukraine he also used evaluative and informative ones.

4. In the British political discourse there is also a varied usage of the idiomatic expressions in Cameron, May, and Johnson's speeches. They all show their emotions and try to motivate people. David Cameron uses mostly the idioms that have situational and informative functions. Almost the same types of idioms Theresa May used – her favorites were situational idioms. As for Boris Johnson, he mostly used the idioms that perform situational and informative functions.

5. In the situation of Russian full-scale invasion, politician's world-wide craft their speeches to express their support for Ukraine and its people. There are plenty of speeches dedicated to condemning Russian aggression. American politicians, Biden and Sparzt, use idiomatic expressions which have got mostly evaluative and informational functions as the first one is aimed at showing their attitude toward these events and the second is to demonstrate the horrible events for the whole world.

6. In the analyzed speeches given by British politicians, Boris Johnson and Liz Truss in particular, their sincere empathy and deep concerns are expressed. They also employ a lot of idioms that mostly perform evaluative, situational, and informational functions.

## GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

The history of the English language is extensive and varied. Idiomatic expressions, a distinct layer of language, are developed during its growth. No language can exist without this phenomenon. For the implementation of successful cross-cultural communication, the study of idiomatic idioms is of utmost importance. They are regarded as distinctive communication manifestations of language and speech that are exclusive to each language. In this study, an idiom is defined as a permanent phrase whose meaning cannot be interpreted in terms of the sum of the meanings of its elements. The assumption that idioms are internally organized is supported by the fact that idioms are fixed, which also sets them apart from other lexical components.

Idioms have their functions, such as informational, evaluative, situational, modalizing, and organizational. Each of these functions is momentous and serves a great role in the utterances.

Idioms are characterized by a wide variety of structures, usually immutable and often illogical. These constructions do not always meet the basic grammatical norms. There is a large number of classifications of idiomatic expressions based on various criteria.

Idiomatic expressions are used in every discourse of speech. Owing to the correct and appropriate usage of idiomatic expressions the language becomes more lively and vivid, giving expressiveness, brevity, and originality. They are unique language features and show the richness of the language.

In this paper, modern political discourse is a complex and multi-faceted phenomenon, as it is hard to define providing only one definition of this term. In the paper, we rely on the definition provided by Sheygal according to which political discourse is viewed as the linguistic behavior of politicians, means of communication, rhetorical techniques, and manipulative strategies.

The main functions of idioms in political discourse are identified. With the help of these functions, idiomatic expressions can influence the audience,

manipulate the population's consciousness, encourage the population to act, and establish a closer connection between the politician and the audience.

The paper focuses on the distinctive features and functions of idioms in the speeches of the 21<sup>st</sup> century American and British politicians. The research revealed that American politicians use more idiomatic terms in their speeches than their British counterparts. It may have happened under the conditions that existed in their nation.

In their remarks, American presidents including George W. Bush, Barack Obama, Donald Trump, and Joe Biden frequently utilize colloquial terms. All of them make an effort to assert their authority, demonstrate their loyalty, stand for Americans, and win their goodwill.

The idiomatic expressions in such British politicians' speeches as Johnson, May, and Cameron are all used in special ways. They all want to inspire people by displaying their emotions. It is particularly evident in Johnson's remarks. Johnson urged everyone to abide by the rigorous quarantine restrictions and be well by 2020 when everyone was terrified of the new virus and pandemic.

Politicians today talk about maintaining Ukraine and the citizens of our nation. Several lectures specifically denounce Russian aggression. Biden and Sparzt, two American politicians, utilize colloquial terms that primarily serve evaluative and informative purposes. The former is intended to convey their opinion about these occurrences, while the latter serves to highlight how terrible these events are for the entire globe.

Prime Ministers Johnson and Truss convey their sympathies and significant worries due to the circumstances in the remarks they gave that are examined in this article. Additionally, they use a lot of idioms and emphasize mainly informative, situational, and evaluative purposes.

Following the idiomatic expressions mentioned in this paper, their main functions are evaluative, informational, and situational as all these idiomatic expressions refer to the horrible war in our country.

## RESUME

Поняття ідіоми в лінгвістиці вивчається протягом багатьох десятиліть. Існують різні інтерпретації поняття ідіоми, підходи до визначення функцій та класифікації цього явища. Це пов'язано із багатьма факторами, оскільки різні вчені мають різні погляди на це питання і дати визначення цього поняття, яке б в одному реченні відображало його складну природу і відмінні риси є доволі складним завданням.

Ідіоматичні вирази використовуються у будь-якому дискурсі, тому що вони є невід'ємним елементом кожної мови. Поняття політичного дискурсу також потребує детального дослідження та не може визначеною лише одним значенням. У цій роботі представлені різні підходи до аналізу особливих рис та функцій політичного дискурсу з точки зору різних вчених мовознавців.

У даній роботі були також проаналізовані публічні промови американських та британських політиків у XXI столітті та використання ідіоматичних висловів у цих виступах. Було проаналізовано їх доцільність, значення та функції. Результати показали, що за їх допомогою можна дізнатися емоційний стан, особливості поведінки та ставлення до тієї чи іншої ситуації.

Також були проаналізовані ідіоматичні вирази у промовах американських та британських політиків у контексті російсько-української війни. Саме завдяки цим виразам ми можемо спостерігати, що реакція світових політиків на цю війну є однозначно негативною, а самі вони засуджують дії Росії та російського уряду та переймаються долею нашої країни та українського народу. Основними функціями ідіоматичних висловів в проаналізованих промовах є оцінювальні, інформативні та ситуативні.

**Ключові слова:** ідіома, функції ідіом, класифікація ідіоматичних виразів, політичний дискурс, політична промова.

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