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філології*

Науковий керівник:  
Кандидат філологічних наук, доцент  
**Березенко Вікторія Миколаївна**

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Kyiv National Linguistic University  
Prof. G.G. Pocheptsov Chair of Germanic and Finno-Ugrian Philology

Diploma Paper

“Linguistic portrait of the leader in Modern English discourse”

**ANNA AGEEVA**

Group LLE 58-19

Department of Germanic Philology

Research Adviser

Assoc. Prof. **BEREZENKO V. M.**

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## INTRODUCTION

The master's thesis is devoted to the study of the linguistic portrait of the leader in Modern English discourse.

By studying the linguistic characteristics of modern political discourse, it is possible to identify significant communicative properties and, thus, to determine the main characteristics of the linguistic portrait of a political leader. Linguistics presents different approaches and various understandings of what a "language portrait" is. V.N. Bazylev speaks about the versatility of the linguistic portrait, which reveals the connection between mentality as a way of thinking, language and forms of human behavior (Базылев, p. 6). S.V. Leorda defines a linguistic portrait as "a linguistic personality of a certain social community embodied in speech", and she considers the compilation of a linguistic portrait as a particular area of research of a linguistic personality (Леорда, p. 99). Here we should distinguish between such concepts as "linguistic personality" and "linguistic portrait of a linguistic personality". There are many interpretations of these terms that may intersect.

Review of the scientific literature on the research question, namely: the peculiarities of the linguistic portrait of the leader in Modern English discourse (L.O. Kaufova, O.O. Kalashnikova, E.O. Dryomina, E.O. Babushkina, P.S. Akinina, Yu.S. Alisheva, etc.) makes it possible to argue that in modern linguistics this problem is not given enough attention.

**The topicality** of the work is determined by the general focus of modern linguistic research on identifying the features of the linguistic portrait of the leader in Modern English discourse on the material of public speeches of British and American political leaders.

The **aim** of this work is to study the features of the linguistic portrait of the leader in Modern English-language political discourse.

To achieve this goal the following **objectives** were set:

1) to determine the theoretical foundations of the study of the concept "discourse" in linguistics;

- 2) to characterize the typology of discourses;
- 3) to explore verbal and nonverbal aspects of discourse;
- 4) to distinguish the concepts of “linguistic personality” and “linguistic portrait”;
- 5) to consider approaches to the study of the linguistic portrait of a modern political leader;
- 6) to characterize pragmatic, communicative, stylistic, lexical and grammatical means of expressing the linguistic portrait of a political leader;
- 7) to analyze the linguistic portraits of American and British political leaders in a comparative aspect.

**The object** of research is English-language political discourse.

**The subject** of research is the peculiarities of the linguistic portrait of the leader in modern English discourse.

The **data research** was based on political speeches by US political leaders Barack Obama and Donald Trump, as well as British political leaders Queen Elizabeth II, Theresa May, Boris Johnson and Jeremy Corbyn.

The **research methods** are determined by the purpose, tasks and analyzed material: *comparative method*, which consists in correlating lexical, grammatical, stylistic and communicative-pragmatic language levels characteristics of the linguistic portrait of British and American politicians in the texts of political discourse; *contextual-interpretive*, which is to clarify the specifics of the meaning of words and phrases in the texts of speeches of political leaders; *descriptive*, which was used to justify the use of certain types of language means, including imaginative ones.

The **scientific novelty** of the study is that it comprehensively examines the features of the linguistic portrait of the leader in Modern English discourse. The study of specific features of text fragments of American and British political speeches in a comparative aspect is carried out.

**Practical value** of the master’s paper lies in the fact that the results of the study clarify the concept of linguistic personality and linguistic or speech portrait.

This work makes a significant contribution to the development of disciplines such as linguistics, stylistics, pragmatics, comparative studies of the English language. The proposed study is not only scientific and cognitive in nature. Its results can be useful for philologists and translators who seek to improve their professional level.

The logic of the study determined the **structure** of the master's thesis, which consists of introduction, three chapters, conclusions to each chapter, general conclusions to the whole paper, the list of literature cited, the list of references, the list of illustrative material and resume.

In the **Introduction** the paper presents the object and the subject of the investigation, underlines the topicality of the problem under study, mentions the novelty of the gained results, sets the main aim and the objectives by which it is achieved, considers the methods of research used in the paper, and discusses the content of each chapter separately.

**Chapter One** identifies the theoretical foundations of the study of the concept of "discourse" in linguistics; the typology of discourses is characterized; the verbal and non-verbal aspects of the discourse are studied and the concepts of "linguistic personality" and "linguistic portrait" are singled out.

**Chapter Two** discusses approaches to the study of the linguistic portrait of a modern political leader; pragmatic, communicative, stylistic, lexical and grammatical means of expressing the linguistic portrait of a political leader are characterized.

**Chapter Three** analyzes the linguistic portraits of American and British political leaders in a comparative aspect.

The paper is crowned with the suggestion of other perspectives of research in the area.

## CHAPTER ONE. THEORETICAL ANALYSIS OF THE CONCEPT DISCOURSE IN LINGUISTICS

### 1.1. The term “discourse” in Modern Linguistics

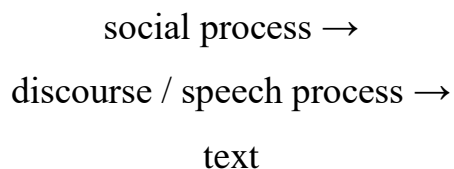
As we know, any scientific, professional and cultural community has its own well-established linguistic practices, meaningfully and thematically defined forms of creating texts. In modern science, such institutionalized forms and practices are usually called *discourses* (Atkinson & J. Heritage, p. 29). In the study of discourses, the object of research is not so much a specific text as its social context. In other words, the text is not analyzed on its own, but as a social representation.

The problem of text comprehension is one of the most difficult in philology. Understanding the text is usually called the appeal of human experience to the text in order to assimilate its content. This experience is both individual and collective, subjective and intersubjective. The concept of intersubjectivity characterizes the presence of elements that are independent of the subject and at the same time mandatory for understanding in the experience of individuals (Давыдов, p. 7).

A text is a semantic sign form, a sequence of signs or images that expresses a certain meaning. In this definition we can observe a double definition of the text: the text as a linguistic unit, i.e. as any segment of a linearly organized flow of speech, and as a unit of communication, i.e. as a functional hierarchically organized semantic integrity, correlated with the communicative and cognitive intention of the subject of communication. In the latter case, the text must be considered in the system “text – interpreter” (Арутюнова, p. 25). As a result of linguistic analysis of the texts belonging to different levels of taxonomy (classes, types, kinds) and different social spheres of linguistic communication, and the practice of productive and reproductive text creation within different functional types, the main features of texts can be identified and described. These include (ibid, p. 69): integrity (coherence), cohesion; text structure, linearity of the text, text’s informativeness and completeness of the text.



*Discourse* is understood by R. Hajj and G. Kress as a social process in which the text is involved, while *the text* is a specific material object that we receive in the discourse (see Кравченко, p. 54). Thus, we have before us two complementary concepts that refer to the same reality. From the point of view of the social process, discourse gives us the real view, while the text – from the point of view of speech. Schematically, this can be represented as follows:



Texts and, accordingly, discourses are now being studied by all sciences. J. Lall defines ‘discourse’ as follows: “Discourse in a broad sense is a process in which ideas and concepts circulating in public, form ideas common in society” (Лалл, p. 202), that is, discourse is that shapes our views on life.

In philosophical speech, the term ‘discourse’ became especially popular thanks to the works by the German thinker J. Habermas. According to J. Habermas, discourse acts as a type of speech communication, due to a critical consideration of the values and norms of social life (Habermas, p. 80). It is worth noting the scientist’s contribution to the development of the communicative concept of language, which he considered as an alternative to traditional philosophical discourse. In his view, language is by its very nature intersubjective, and the model based on language and communication between people means a radical paradigm shift in the theory of society. Through language, we assert that something in the world is true, that certain norms in society are correct, and that we provide a true picture of our subjective experiences. In these claims of truth, which arise every time we perform an act of discursive speech communication and are, according to Habermas, the deepest meaning of language (ibid, p. 81).

Habermas connects the interpretation of the concept of discourse mainly with speech characteristics. Rationality is not in the use of speech to achieve certain results, but in the fact that through speech we seek understanding (ibid, p.

84). Thus, rationalism is not a result, but actually a process of speech in the space of discursive communication.

Based on the results of philosophical research on the content of the concept of 'discourse', it is necessary to connect it as much as possible with the concept of culture. Indicative in this sense is the opinion of L.M. Murzin that "the text as an object of linguistic research as part of culture acquires its full final definiteness; only by knowing the culture of which this text is a part do we have the opportunity to comprehend its deepest layers of content" (Мурзин, p. 169).

Today there is a point of view that recognizes discourse as a communicative and cognitive unit, consisting of statements of different types, united by complex semantic and formal relations (Василик, p. 128). However, a certain vagueness of the speaker's speech program, the analysis of which is the focus of research on the communicative plan of the text, hinders the search for the actual linguistic correlates of the communicative intention of the speaker.

Therefore, the features of the text as the highest communicative unit are its integrity, which is ensured by the unity of the communicative intention of the author of the message, and coherence, which is a condition of integrity and reveals the way the text is organized into a semantic whole. The object of the study in a broad sense is the general type of discourse (macrodiscourse) → political discourse, which, in turn, consists of subdiscourses, i.e. has a hierarchical structure.

Representation, according to S. Hall, is that practice, thanks to which there is a generally accepted knowledge that forms the core of culture. It is the production of meaning through language (Hall, p. 129). Language as a system of representation is a conceptual semantic map that generates mental connections between real objects, abstract and fictional images. These connections can be perceived only if the authors and readers of the text belong to a single cultural field. This is how discourses function, creating explanations that are understandable to the bearers of a particular culture.

Thus, communication in the modern linguistic view is understood as the process of transcoding the verbal sphere into the non-verbal and non-verbal into the verbal sphere as forcing another to perform an action.

It is known that the concept of ‘discourse’ is as vague as the concepts of language, society, ideology, but often the most vague concepts become the most popular. “Discourse” is a communicative event occurring between a speaker, a listener (observer, etc.) in the process of a communicative action in a specific temporal, spatial and other context (Levinson, p. 79). This communicative action is verbal, written and has verbal and non-verbal components.

In the 50-s of the XXth century E. Benveniste, developing the theory of utterance, applied the term ‘discours’ in French linguistics in a new meaning – as a characteristics of “speech assigned to speakers” (БЕНВЕНИСТ, p. 127). In 1952 Z. Harris published the article “*Discourse analysis*”, where he examined the distribution method with respect to superphrase unities (Harris, p. 12). Thus, E. Benveniste meant by discourse the explication of the speaker’s position in a statement, and in Harris’s interpretation the sequence of statements, a length of text larger than a sentence, became the object of analysis.

Therefore, the scientific discussion about discourse as an independent concept began with a description of the relationship between text and discourse. Some scholars suggest interpreting discourse as “text plus situation”, while text, respectively, was defined as “discourse minus situation” (Дейк, p. 87).

The term “discourse” does not have an unambiguous definition and can take on different meanings. It depends on what specific aspects of its manifestation the researcher wants to emphasize. A. Greimas considers eleven such aspects (Греймас, p. 68).

The initial polysemy of the term predetermined the further expansion of its semantics. In the 60-s of the XXth century M. Foucault, developing the ideas of E. Benveniste, proposed his interpretation of discursive analysis. According to Foucault, the priority is to establish the position of the speaker, not in relation to the generated statement, but in relation to other interchangeable subjects of the

statement and the ideology expressed by them in the broad sense of the word (Фуко, p. 44). Thus, for the French school, discourse analysis is, first of all, a certain type of utterance inherent in a particular socio-political group or era.

R. Vodak considers discourse as a text in a context, on the one hand, and as a collection of texts, on the other hand (Водак, p. 109), T. Van Dijk defines discourse as action: “I understand discourse as a specific form of using the language and as a specific form of social situation” (Дейк, p. 45).

We can note that “discourse” means a speech situation, that is, a text immersed in a situation of real communication. Thus, the discourse is not just communication, it has explicit goals and certain participants with their social, psychological, national and cultural status characteristics.

V. Karasyk believes that the authors of research on discourse interpret this concept so differently, from different points of view, that it has become broader than the concept of language (Карасик, p. 227). With the definition of discourse T.M. Nikolaeva actually repeats definition of the text. She gives the following meanings of term of discourse: 1) coherent text; 2) oral and conversational form of the text; 3) dialogue; 4) a group of statements related to the content; 5) speech formation (oral or written) (Николаева, p. 122).

The simplest definition of discourse (from the French *discours* is speech) is the statement of N. Arutyunova that the discourse is a text “immersed in life” (Арутюнова, p. 136). It hints that the emergence of discourse, discourse theory, discourse studies, discourse analysis is the result of an attempt to bring the grammar of language beyond the sentence, so as not to look at speech and text only through the prism of grammatical categories. It is necessary to address the socio-cultural situations in which speech takes place and the text is created, to take into account the mental characteristics of speakers, rules and strategies used by the participants of communication.

Attempts to go beyond the formal grammatical syntax were noticeable in the studies of many foreign and domestic scholars of the second half of the XXth century before and from the time of Z. Harris’s introduction of the concept of

discourse as a distributive function, a chain means of phrases, expressions and supra-phrase unity (Harris, p. 14). The next half century of discourse research and the application of discourse analysis enriched and supplemented linguistics with new ideas and interpretations of concepts from the field of discourse studies, leading it on the one hand to linguistics and on the other to sociopsychology, linguocultural studies and other humanities. This broadened the understanding of the concept of discourse and enriched its semantic meaning.

A.M. Arutyunova presents the most complete and acceptable definition of discourse for the linguistic circle and linguodidactic practice: “It is a coherent text in combination with extralingual, pragmatic, sociocultural, psychological and other factors; the text taken in the aspect of its action; speech, which is considered as a purposeful social action; a component involved in the interaction of people and the mechanisms of their consciousness (cognitive processes)” (Арутюнова, p. 137). The term ‘discourse’ has the following meanings: coherent text, with its extralingual, ontological and epistemological, sociocultural, ethnopsychological and other contexts; holistic communicative situation (event, period, phenomenon, stage, process) with its historical and social contexts; style, content and sample of professional language communication; a kind of speech activity in a certain social sphere.

This definition can be supplemented and clarified by referring to three types of coordinates of the essence of discourse named by M. Makarov (Макаров, URL): the first coordinate is a formal interpretation. Here we can say that discourse is the formation of a higher level than a sentence; and the second coordinate i.e. functional interpretation, is the use of language in all its forms (complete discourse of language); according to the third coordinate or situational interpretation, discourse is the embodiment in the means of language of social, cultural, psychological signs of personalities of communicants.

Thus, in the term ‘text’ there was a coincidence of two concepts i.e. linguistic and discursive. On the one hand, the linguistic concept is a verbalized result of speech activity, a language flow structured by linguistic units according to

their lexical and grammatical meanings, forms and categories into a linguistic text model. On the other hand, it is the discursive content of the same text, a verbal representation of the author's world, epoch, real events and situations, historical and cultural context. Discourse is a linguosocial concept, dynamic, relevant, spatiotemporal and virtual.

Not surprisingly, these two concepts are mixed in the term 'text'. It is not only because of lexical homonymy, but also because a comprehensive linguistic complex analysis can not be completed without discursive information, as well as discursive analysis will never be complete without reliance on the linguistic material in which it is actually presented, and only in this material becomes the fact of communication. Thus, discourse became the center of new directions, ideas and theories on the border of linguistics and other social sciences and humanities (Бычков, p. 7): cognitive linguistics, linguopragmatics, theory of linguistic acts, linguophilosophy, linguosociology, linguoculturology as a carrier of texts with deep meanings, mental features, vertical contexts, ethnocultural, social information and other background factors. We would supplement the concept of discourse as follows: this is what the reader / recipient will be able to perceive from the text, to understand what he will be able to operate in communication.

Linguists approach the cognition and characteristics of the text in several ways: structural (from the standpoint of grammar), socio-communicative, linguo-cultural and linguo-pragmatic. It is clear that with different approaches to the consideration of one speech (text) material, interpretations will be different. There are scholars who do not see the point in distinguishing the concepts of "text as an object of analysis" and "text as activity" because they are dialectically related and can be used synonymously. V. Karasyk considers the term to be irrelevant and regards discourse as a set of process and result of speech-thinking activity; he also gives some definitions of discourse (Карасик, p. 109). From the standpoint of linguistic philosophy, it is the concretization of language in different modes of human existence; from the standpoint of speech linguistics, it the process of living verbalized communication; from the standpoint of sociolinguistics, it is a

communication of certain social groups, therefore, it the text in a situation of real communication. Thus, discourse is an intermediate phenomenon between speech, communication, linguistic behavior, on the one hand, and a fixed text, on the other hand (Карасик, p. 227).

The dialectical nature of the concepts of text / discourse is noted by O.S. Melnychuk (Мельничук, p. 17). He believes that the text is static, but in sound reproduction or visual perception it seems to come to life, become real and is actualized in the discourse. A capacious definition of discourse is its characterization as a holistic unit of information, due to a combination of linguistic and extralinguistic factors: pragmatic, sociocultural, psychological, etc. (McCarthy, p. 125). Currently, the definition of discourse as a term of linguistics has finally gone beyond the text or a piece of text, and includes a list of conditions under which this text is updated.

In this sense, discourse is a speech-mental process that leads to the formation of a stable structure aimed at the mental processes of all participants in communication, the strategy of generation and understanding of speech under certain conditions that determine the relationship of new and known, explicit and implicit in content of specific text forms (Арутюнова, p. 12). It is proposed to distinguish between the concepts of text and discourse in the following way: the 'text' itself is considered to be an independent, isolated and separated from the situation speech-mental product; 'discourse' is a text that is in a situation of real communication, a text in the process of its creation and development.

Thus, discourse in the broadest sense is a speech flow, language in its constant movement, which absorbs all the diversity of the historical epoch, individual and social features of communicators and the communicative situation in which communication takes place. The discourse reflects the mentality and culture i.e. national or general and individual or separate.

## 1.2. Typology of discourse

Poor study of the typology of discourse in linguistics, caused by insufficient understanding of the essence of this linguistic object and phenomenon, unequivocally prevents its systematic study, i.e. the identification of characteristics / properties, features and patterns of the existence and development of discourse as a whole and its varieties separately (Заложных, p. 4). Despite the numerous attempts made by foreign and domestic researchers, it is still not possible to build a coherent, all-embracing system of discourse typology.

To begin with, it is necessary to determine what the concept of ‘typology’ is and what are the goals of the typology of discourse. This word has a Greek etymology, i.e. it is derived from the Greek words for “imprint, pattern, form” and “word, doctrine” (Crystal, p. 88). According to the dictionary, typology is “a classification that represents relationships between different types of objects, phenomena” (Richards, p. 376), and type is “a form, kind of something with certain characteristics” (Richards, p. 377). Paraphrasing the words of the linguist V.E. Chernyavskaya, we can also say that the purpose of the classification of discourses is to reduce an infinite number of specific discourses to a foreseeable number of their main types based on common features (Чернявская, p. 129).

Despite the efforts of quite numerous researchers, it is believed that so far in discourse analysis as a scientific discipline, the section on the typology of discourse has been developed much weaker than the other two main sections, i.e. the section on the structure of discourse and the section that studies the connection between discursive phenomena and other linguistic phenomena. According to the research linguist A.A. Kibrik, “In general, there has not yet been a decisive breakthrough in this area. This is not surprising as the forms of discourse are as diverse as the forms of human life itself. To classify all kinds of discourse into types is an extremely difficult task. In addition, in the literature on the types of discourse there is a lack of diversity, different authors offer completely incompatible approaches” (Кибрик, p. 12).



M. Halliday's concept emphasizes the social functions of language, as well as the thematic and informational structure of speech and writing (Halliday, p. 19). It should be noted here that M. Halliday's thoughts regarding functionality in linguistics were not tied to the theory of discourse. However, after his separation of speech and writing, a number of research linguists appeared who understood, in a functional perspective, the meaning of the term 'discourse' (as 'language in use') (Brown, p. 133) and declared the existence of spoken discourse and written discourse.

One of the first linguistic researchers appeared to be M. McCarthy. According to him, "Discourse analysts study language in use: written texts of all kinds and oral information – from conversation to highly institutionalized forms of conversation" (McCarthy, p. 109). Unlike his predecessors such as J. Brown, J. Yule, S. Levinson and many other British researchers, who in similar situations used primarily, on the one hand, the terms 'spoken language', 'oral or spoken text', 'discourse', and on the other hand – 'written language', 'text', 'written text', M. McCarthy began to use the terms 'spoken discourse' and 'written discourse' (McCarthy, p. 111).

D. Crystal also divided the concept of "discourse" into the concepts of "spoken discourse" and "written discourse" (Crystal, p. 291). However, in addition, he, analyzing the mediums 'speech vs. writing' being in some opposition, which make it possible to distinguish between oral and written discourses, came to the conclusion that there is also a 'mixed medium' (Crystal, p. 293), allowing us to talk about a mixed (oral and written) discourse.

In addition, discourses are divided into institutional and personality-oriented. Institutional discourses include those that are cared for by official state or public institutions (structures, government, administration) (Habermas, p. 399): legal, scientific, pedagogical, religious, sports, music and military. Within these very general discourses, personality-oriented (individual) discourses of prominent representatives of the industry are possible. Domestic and artistic discourses are

non-institutional. They are characterized by a high degree of individuality and originality.

It is quite obvious that the concept 'medium' is a decisive factor for dividing discourse into its largest fragments / types i.e. oral discourse, written discourse and mixed (oral and written) discourse. It is possible that at the moment there are grounds to speak about other types of mediums and, accordingly, discourses, and that in the future, in connection with the development of means of transmitting information and the emergence of new mediums, researchers will identify new types of discourses associated with them.

### **1.2.1. Verbal and non-verbal aspects of discourse**

Undoubtedly, the really existing discourse in linguistics differs from the verbal act of communicative activity ("the act of speech communication", according to Jakobson) (Якобсон, p. 6), first of all, by its larger scale / large size and, accordingly, by the name of its structural elements. Each of the main elements of the structure of discourse (both really existing discourse and constructs of discourses) in linguistics can be defined as follows (Заложных, p. 4):

1) the *subject of discourse* is one who carries out verbal communicative activity, which he implements separately from the object (in the case of a monologue) or together with the object (in the case of a dialogue) in order to exert some influence on the named object;

2) the *object of discourse* is one who takes part for any purpose in verbal communicative activity as a listener or reader and to whom the said verbal communicative activity is directed;

3) *coherent verbal oral statements and written texts* (verbal works);

4) *situational context* is a real and/or mental (ideal) description presented by others in diachrony and/or synchrony of subjects and objects of discourse and their behavior, other objects, various subjects, phenomena and their behavior, events

and their participants, non-events, situational extralinguistic circumstances, aspects, conditions and factors of a really existing discourse;

5) *contact between subject and object* is a physical channel of transmission of oral utterances and written texts from one side to the other with its inherent means of transmission (that is, an oral medium and/or a written medium) (Levinson, p. 129), as well as a psychological connection between the subject and the object (if there is one, we are speaking about a dialogue, and if it is absent, about a monologue);

6) *code* are means of varieties of the verbal language used as an encoding / decoding means for communication;

7) the *goal* is what the subject wants to achieve through its discourse with the object.

So, according to *the subject* of discourse in the typology of real-life discourses, the following classification can be made (McCarthy, p. 111): according to the number of participants in verbal communication, discourse with a single subject, discourse with a group subject and discourse with an abstract subject are distinguished as a subject; according to the gender of the subject of the discourse, discourses can be divided into male, female and mixed discourses; according to the age of the subject of the discourse, discourses can be divided into children's, youth, adult and other discourses; according to the geographical location of the subject, discourses can be divided into European, North American, Latin American, Asian, global, regional and other discourses; according to the ethnicity of the subject, discourses can be divided into Ukrainian, German, French, American and other discourses.

According to the participation of *the object* of discourse in verbal communicative activity, dialogue discourses are distinguished, one of the varieties of which are polylog discourses, where the subject communicates not with one, but with several objects (Halliday, p. 76). Monologue- and dialogue discourses (as well as, accordingly, polylogue discourses) can be classified at the next level, taking into account their grammatical presentation. Thus, the aforementioned types

of discourses, aimed at transferring information from a subject to an object (in contact or without contact), are subdivided into narrative discourses, and those intended to convey a subject's description of any phenomena or subjects to an object are subdivided into descriptive discourses (Harris, p. 26). At the same time, dialogue discourses (and polylogical discourses) aimed at proving something or revealing the truth with the help of reasoned speech in the form of polemics, controversy, discussion, dispute, debate are called polemic discourses.

According to *coherent verbal oral statements and written texts* (according to verbal works), discourses can be classified on the following grounds (Hoey, p. 136): according to the set of verbal acts of communicative activity used in verbal works, discourses can be divided into oral, written or mixed (oral and written) discourses; by the dominant stylistic functions in verbal works of discourses (by aesthetic, informatively influencing, scientific, informatively prescriptive and informatively stating and some other functions) and the corresponding belonging of these works to a particular genre, functional sub-style (or another, lower, sublevel) and functional style, discourses can be divided, respectively, into discourses of artistic, journalistic, scientific, official business, colloquial everyday styles and further into discourses of their sub-styles (and possibly into discourses of lower sublevels) and genres; by thematic/conceptual, content and semantic and target community of verbal works of discourses.

According to the *situational context* in which the discourse is carried out, its varieties can be classified in accordance with the above characteristics of the situational context as an element of the structure of discourse, namely on the following grounds (Заложных, p. 32): depending on the temporal perspective of the description of subjects, objects, subject matters, phenomena, etc. – synchronic, diachronic or synchronic and diachronic discourses; according to the participants of discourse and events described in a verbal work of a real-life discourse, objects, phenomena, events and non-events, situational extralinguistic circumstances, aspects, conditions and factors, their assessments set forth in the above-mentioned

characteristics of the situational context, the choice of the type of discourse can be carried out, as a rule, arbitrarily.

Other individual types of discourse have been analyzed in a pragmatic aspect, such as consulting discourse, narrative discourse, legal discourse, political discourse, production and trade discourse, cultural and media discourse, etc. In the same perspective, using the institutional framework, V.I. Karasik singles out personal (personality oriented) and institutional discourses, which corresponds to the concept proposed here (Карасик, p. 7). In addition, according to T.N. Khomutova, “according to the sphere (purpose) of communication”, “industrial, technical, religious, scientific, artistic, journalistic, regulatory (legal), administrative, political, pedagogical, domestic, etc.” discourses have been distinguished (Хомутова, p. 15).

According to the *contact between subject and object*, discourses can be divided on several grounds (Richards, p. 89): according to the used physical channel of transmission of verbal works from one side to the other side with its inherent means (that is, by an oral medium and/or a written medium), oral discourses, written discourses, or mixed (oral and written) discourses have been distinguished; by the presence of a psychological connection between the subject and the object of the discourse. If it is present, this is about a dialogue discourse, and if it is absent – about a monologue discourse.

By *code*, i.e. depending on the verbal language used by its participants as an encoding/decoding means for communication, discourses can be divided into discourse in English (English-language discourse), into discourse in German (German-language discourse), etc. (Halliday, p. 78).

According to the *goal*, discourses can be classified as follows (Заложных, p. 35): according to the purpose of communication, discourses are divided into institutional and domestic, scientific and non-scientific, official business and business, aesthetic, religious, political, legal, sports and many others, which in their totality overlap all spheres of coherent communication of people; according to the purpose of transmitting information, discourses are divided into narrative

discourses (their purpose is to convey by the subject to the object of various information through a narration), descriptive discourses (their purpose is to convey by the subject to the object of describing any phenomena or objects) and polemic discourses (intended to prove something or to reveal the truth through reasoned speech in the form of polemics, dispute, discussion or debate).

Verbal communication is always accompanied by nonverbal, especially in political discourse. In many cases, nonverbal communication can carry a much greater meaningful load than verbal. Nonverbal communication is represented not only by the use of gestures, facial expressions, pantomime, but also the spatio-temporal characteristics of the organization of communication (Fast, p. 128). In any communication, the correctly chosen distance significantly affects its implementation.

Facial expressions include all the changes that can be observed on a person's face, meaning not only facial features, eye contact and direction of gaze, but also psychosomatic processes (e.g., redness) (Hickson, p. 265). Another important part of communication is eye contact, because it is looks that can say much more than words. Eye contact helps to regulate the conversation.

It should be noted that the most frequent component in the behavior of a linguistic personality, in particular a political actant, is 'eyes'. As for body language, the most frequently used aspect that expresses a person's emotional states in lexical units and phraseology of the English language is 'hand' (Wallbott, p. 345). Lexical and phraseological units of discourse participate in the formation of the linguistic picture of the world, which includes a number of concepts representing the realities of the world, reflected in the minds of the language community in the form of lexical and phraseological units (Burgoon, p. 180). Thus, the mentioned language units in this study are united by such a property as anthropocentrism, which is expressed in their orientation to human, because they serve as a means of characterizing his communicative behavior, which is an important component of human life and determines his place in the world.

Given the contextual use of nominations of nonverbal reactions that make up the thematic group ‘optical-kinesthetic symptoms’ in the discourse, the following generalized symptoms can be distinguished (Ekman, p. 34): manual gestures that cover hand movements and are expressed in phrases; actions with objects, when in a certain state a person uses a handy object, as well as body movements and posture. Finally, it should be noted that phraseological phrases to denote non-verbal actions, in particular those that have already acquired the status of clichés, often predominate in discourses. It should also be emphasized that visual images in discourses are usually given a leading role in creating a relevant linguistic consciousness.

Thus, from the above, it can be seen that the classification of types of discourses allows us to take further steps in the systematization of discourses and ordering their typology. Undoubtedly, the basic point in this direction is the identification of discourses at various levels of similarity (‘common features’) in their structures, which include seven basic elements, the linkage to which allows to form a natural, all-embracing typological system of discourses.

Within the framework of the concept, it became possible to define the main structural elements of discourse, to clarify the author’s definitions of the concepts of ‘discourse’ in general and its varieties at different levels. At the same time, the results achieved indicate that further work is possible and necessary on a deeper classification of an infinite variety of types of discourses in the indicated directions, which in the future will allow a more conscious, systematic and deep study of the properties and characteristics of different discourse objects, both individually and in general.

### **1.3. Scientific fundamentals of linguistic study of “linguistic personality” and “linguistic portrait”**

The anthropocentric research paradigm, which took dominant positions in linguistics in the second half of the XXth century, set as its main goal the study of

a person in all his entities in relation to language i.e. as a “speaking person”, “speech personality”, “communicative personality”, “cultural identity”, but first of all as a linguistic personality (*homo loquens*), that is, a personality expressed in language (Салимова, p. 1514).

When describing a linguistic personality, all researchers of the linguistic portrait rely mainly on two of the three levels proposed by Yu.N. Karaulov (Караулов, p. 60). In turn, the difference between the concept of a “linguistic portrait” and the concept of a “linguistic personality” is due to the breadth of the characterizing parameters that combine modern criteria for the study of personality in linguistics, philosophy, psychology, history, art and religion. This is due to the fact that at the present stage of the development of society, the individual has become the central object in solving many theoretical problems.

By combining the creative features of the individual, we are obliged to preserve and perpetuate them in the memory of descendants in the form of literary, linguistic, artistic and architectural values. Each science has developed its own special methods of preserving cultural values. In linguistics, the main keepers of memory are precedent texts and dictionaries. It is clear that there are no and cannot be uniform criteria for describing an individual, as there are not and cannot be, identical personalities (as psychologists say). The opinions of scientists in various fields of science allow to conclude that the *linguistic personality* is the embodiment of a generalized personality (from a child to a creative one), and a *linguistic portrait* is the embodiment of an individual personality and, as a rule, creative, which contains all the best in understanding humanity (Шевченко, p. 34).

The concept of “*linguistic personality*” has been in the focus of linguists’ attention for quite a long time. Studies of various aspects of this concept originate from the traditional areas of linguistics (stylistics of a literary text and linguistic stylistics), the subject of study of which were works of literature, and continue to be carried out within the framework of the new areas of linguistics that have



emerged at the turn of the XX-XXI centuries (linguopersonology, psycholinguopersonology, communicative linguistics, etc.), as well as within the framework of corpus idiolectology developed in the last decade (Рыжкова, p. 330).

As the analysis of the history of the formation of the concept “linguistic personality” in linguistics has shown, it has entered and is firmly entrenched in scientific use, despite the differences in the approaches of researchers to its interpretation. Among the distinctive features of new approaches to the study of the linguistic personality in linguistics can be fully attributed (Рыжкова, p. 331): firstly, the appeal mainly to the linguistic personalities of ordinary native speakers who do not professionally speak the word (i.e. texts, different in style and genre, become examples of natural “non-professional writing speech”); secondly, expanding the range of consideration of the named concept, including social, psychological, and even neuropsychological characteristics of a linguistic personality; thirdly, an appeal to new methods of language analysis, in particular, methods of corpus linguistics, mathematical statistics and automatic text processing, to the achievements of other sciences (psychology, psycholinguistics, neuropsychology of individual differences, etc.), as well as an orientation towards identification and diagnosis of a person by text.

Considering all of the above, we can conclude that at present, linguists are very actively conducting research into the problem of reflecting the individual and personal characteristics of the author in the speech works (texts) produced by him.

At the heart of the presentation of a linguistic portrait, the method of cognitive and pragmatic analysis proposed by N.F. Alefirenko (Алефиренко, p. 30) is most adequately implemented. Research by N.F. Alefirenko argue that cognitive and pragmatic analysis focuses not only on language in its systemic relation, but also on a higher unity i.e. the active unity of language, speech communication and a person (Алефиренко, p. 31). This trinity ensures existence in the real world, where he thinks, learns and creates around himself a value-semantic space that is the center of human culture and civilization.

In this regard, we believe that the main subject of the linguistic portrait should be cognitive and conceptual signs, which are the basis of the pragmicon, determining linguistic indicators in the individual's code system. These signs are distinguished by homogeneity while maintaining their main features i.e. to carry an image, knowledge, assessments and characteristics that state the knowledge of the individual and ethnoculture (Шевченко, p. 213).

Representing the value-semantic space, cognitive and conceptual signs show the uniqueness of their nature: they perform a speech-thinking function, forming the code thinking of the individual, concealing the codes of personal orientations in the world around them. Cognitive and conceptual signs, being the property of the individual-code system, contribute to the emergence of the author's image on the basis of comparison or opposition with the objects of reality that already exist, mastered and realized by the individual and help to navigate in the author's vision of the perfection of the real world.

When describing a linguistic portrait, nicknames, precedent names, author's metaphors, author's phraseological units, author's proverbs, author's formulas and aphorisms of great thinkers used in the text of an individual fall into the category of cognitive and conceptual signs. Combining the signs of a word and a text, the selected units carry multifaceted pragmatic information and are a source for studying the linguistic picture of the world, linguistic personality, linguistic and lexicographic portraits.

On the basis of cognitive and pragmatic analysis, we together with Z.S. Shevchenko, can offer a multi-stage structure of a linguistic portrait (Шевченко, p. 36):

- 1) the first stage is social, containing social information (age, ethnicity, professional activity);
- 2) the second stage is cultural, containing information about cultural content;
- 3) the third stage is intellectual, containing information about intellectual perfection;

4) the fourth stage is verbal, containing information about professional skills;

5) the fifth stage is conceptual, containing information about personality-conceptual landmarks in the surrounding world;

6) the sixth stage is cognitive, containing information of the author's position, stating the state of affairs in the real world;

7) the seventh step is pragmatic, containing information from the author's idea of a perfect vision of the surrounding world.

All of these steps, complementing each other, can interact, combine, but their presence in the structure of the linguistic portrait of a creative personality is required, otherwise the linguistic portrait will be imperfect. All stages of information must be reliable and evidential, and citations must concretize and confirm the research position. A linguistic portrait, like any portrait, must be of cultural and aesthetic value.

Therefore, a linguistic portrait is a fixed or reflected worldview of a thinker, carrying information about assessments of the real world, life attitudes, aspirations and ideals (ibid, p. 48). The basis of a linguistic portrait is self-identification with positive characteristics, judgments that ascertain the state of affairs in the real world. The pinnacle of the linguistic portrait is the realization of the author's vision of the perfection of the world around him.

### **Conclusions to Chapter One**

1. The research of the theoretical foundations of the study of the concept 'discourse' in linguistics allows to draw the following conclusions. It is proposed to distinguish between the concepts of text and discourse in the following way: the 'text' itself is considered to be an independent, isolated and separated from the situation speech and mental product; 'discourse' is a text that is in a situation of real communication, a text in the process of its creation and development. Discourse in the broadest sense is a speech flow, language in its constant

movement, which absorbs all the diversity of the historical epoch, individual and social features of communicators and the communicative situation in which communication takes place. The discourse reflects the mentality and culture i.e. national (general) and individual (separate). The peculiarities of the text as the highest communicative unit are its integrity, which is ensured by the unity of the communicative intention of the author of the message, and coherence, which is a condition of integrity and reveals the way the text is organized into a semantic whole.

2. In linguistics, each of the main elements of the structure of discourse can be defined as follows: 1) the subject of discourse; 2) the object of discourse; 3) coherent verbal oral statements and written texts; 4) situational context; 5) contact between subject and object; 6) code; 7) purpose or goal. In this regard, the typology of discourses is carried out according to the subject of discourse, according to the participation of the object of discourse in verbal communicative activity, according to coherent verbal oral statements and written texts, according to the situational context, according to the contact between the subject and the object, as well as according to the code, for example, discourses can be divided into discourse in English (English-language discourse), into discourse in German (German-language discourse), etc. Whereas according to the purpose, discourses can be classified according to the purpose of communication and the purpose of transmitting information.

3. Non-verbal means of communication (smile, look, facial expressions, gestures, intonation), which often accompany verbal speech in discourse, have three times stronger influence than words, so one should try to make as much effort as possible to master this difficult art of interpreting certain signs and signals. Nonverbal speech plays an important role in the communication process, affects its success. Carrying much of the information, they can facilitate, hinder or even prevent its flow. Thus, it is promising to identify and describe the nominative units and categories of extralinguistics, prosody, kinesics, proxemics and appearance, which form the core of nonverbal communication and are fixed in English

discourse and can be considered as a linguistic source of information about nonverbal discourse. Analysis of all nonverbal communication systems shows that they undoubtedly play a significant supporting (and sometimes independent) role in the communicative process. Having the ability not only to strengthen or weaken the verbal influence, all systems of nonverbal communication help to identify such an essential parameter of the communicative process as the intentions of its participants. Together with the verbal system of communication, these systems provide the exchange of information needed by people to organize joint activities.

4. In modern philology, there are three main areas in which the language personality is studied. So, on the part of linguists, attention is shown to the construction and analysis of a collective linguistic portrait. Also, work is underway to describe the speech of individuals, that is, to create individual linguistic portraits. In addition, on the basis of the communicative activity of speech participants and their aggregates, particular features of the language have been investigated: phenomena and processes in dynamics.

## **CHAPTER TWO. APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF THE LINGUISTIC PORTRAIT OF THE MODERN POLITICAL LEADER**

### **2.1. The problem of the linguistic personality and linguistic portrait of the speaker in the works of modern researchers**

By studying the linguistic characteristics of modern political discourse, one can identify significant communicative properties and, thus, determine the main characteristics of the speech (or linguistic/language) portrait of a political leader. Linguistics presents different approaches and different understanding of what a “linguistic portrait” is.

It is necessary to separate such concepts as “linguistic personality” and “speech portrait of a linguistic personality”. There are many interpretations of these terms, which may overlap with each other. Analyzing the interpretation of the term “linguistic personality” existing in the theory of linguistic personality, E.V. Ivantsova says that “the term ... is used too broadly to designate a team of native speakers” (Иванцова, p. 31), and she gives the following definition of a linguistic personality: “a personality in the aggregate of social and individual traits, reflected in the texts she/he created” (Иванцова, p. 10). The same situation arises with the term ‘linguistic portrait’, i.e. in scientific research there is no single interpretation of it. Therefore, it is often difficult to understand what is the difference between these two terms.

In this work, we proceeded from the definition of a linguistic personality as “the totality of the distinctive qualities of a personality, which are found in its communicative behavior and provide the personality with a communicative individuality” (Беспамятнова, p. 10). We also rely on the definition that defines a linguistic portrait as a set of speech preferences of the speaker in specific circumstances to actualize certain intentions and strategies of influencing the listener (Матвеева, p. 8).

Thus, a linguistic portrait in our understanding represents, on the one hand, the speech or language preferences of a person, which are manifested in specific situations to implement his or her intentions and to influence the listener, on the other, it is a set of features that make a person recognizable.

As for the linguistic portrait of a politician, the personal qualities of a politician and his individuality are reflected in his linguistic or speech portrait. The manner of speech of a political leader, as noted by Yu.S. Alysheva is usually not accidental. It is dictated both by the general social structure of the state and the specifics of the audience that the politician is counting on, and by the individual preferences of the speaker (Алышева, р. 6).

Today scientists have not yet developed a single strict scheme for analyzing the linguistic portrait of a personality. There are several ways that reveal the structure of the linguistic portrait of a political leader and make it possible to describe it. The choice of a particular method depends on which speech aspects are the main ones in the study. Among the main approaches to the research of the linguistic portrait of a politician are rhetorical, psychological, pragmatic, communicative and linguistic.

In linguistics, the analysis of a linguistic portrait is a characteristic of different levels of realization of a linguistic personality. Some researchers consider the central aspect of such an analysis to be phonetic peculiarities (intonation characteristics): the tempo of speech, its melody, the way of pause and highlighting words that carry meaning and expressive load (Бабушкина, р. 8). T.V. Romanova, considering the concept of a linguistic portrait, correlates it in a narrow sense “with the peculiarities of a person’s speech behavior”, “with a linguistic personality, the prototype of a speaker of a certain language” in a broad sense (Романова, р. 117). According to the researcher, the linguistic portrait should be based on the verbal-semantic, motivational-pragmatic features and thesaurus of a person’s speech behavior (ibid, р. 117). Thus, the description of the linguistic portrait includes the characteristics of units of one or more levels of language.

However, today, the most convenient model for describing a linguistic portrait of a linguistic personality, in our opinion, is *a three-level model*, which includes a lexicon, a thesaurus and a pragmaticon. The linguistic portrait is a “functional model of a linguistic personality” (Караулов, p. 24). The analysis is based on the parameters of the three-level model of the linguistic personality by Yu.N. Karaulov, which should be used to analyze this model (Караулов, p. 25).

The first parameter is the lexicon of the linguistic personality. This is the level that reflects the person’s knowledge of the *lexical and grammatical means* of the language. At this level, an analysis of the stock of words and phrases is carried out, which is used in his or her speech by an individual linguistic personality. Researchers call the next step *the thesaurus*, which conveys the linguistic picture of the world. When analyzing a linguistic portrait, the emphasis is on the use of special vocabulary, colloquial formulas and speech cliches, thanks to which the person becomes recognizable. The third level, *pragmaticon*, includes a system of goals, motives and communicative roles that a specific linguistic personality adheres to in the process of communication (Караулов, p. 26).

Taking this model as a basis, the linguistic portraits of US political leaders have been described. The material for the study was the addresses, speeches and interviews of American presidents Donald Trump, George Bush and Barak Obama.

## **2.2. Leading communicative speech qualities of modern political leader and language means of their expression**

Political language as the official language of state power is an area of increased speech responsibility. The means of influence of the political language differ from those used in journalistic, artistic and colloquial speech. Linguists call political discourse a set of “all speech acts used in political discussions, as well as the rules of public policy, sanctified by tradition and tested by experience” (Баранов, p. 23). Political discourse is viewed as a thematically defined text that expresses the



interests of political actors in the process of their activities and is considered in a specific communicative situation.

In public speech of a politician, it is important to use various communicative tactics and strategies. According to V.B. Kashkin, a communication strategy is “a part of communicative behavior or communicative interaction in which a series of different verbal and non-verbal means is used to achieve a specific communicative goal” (КАШКИН, URL). From the point of view of G.A. Kopnina, “speech tactics is such a speech action that corresponds to a certain stage in the implementation of a particular strategy ...” (КОПНИНА, p. 67).

The choice of President Donald Trump as a material for studying of his public speeches is due to the fact that, in our opinion, he is the most influential and brilliant personality in political discourse.

The communicative behavior of politicians during a press conference is often an indicator of how effectively they use communication tactics and strategies to influence society. An important feature of press conferences is *dialogism*, i.e. the expression in speech of the interaction of two or more semantic positions that is a fundamental property of all publicistic texts, even outwardly monologic ones (Дускаева, p. 56).

Donald Trump, implementing *a strategy to reduce*, uses the *tactics of analysis-minus* and actively applies repetition and metaphor. The repeated word grabs the attention of the audience and affects it: *But the fact is, there is no collusion. And I call it the “witch hunt”. This should never happen to another President. This is so bad for our country. So bad. You look at this whole hoax – I call it the Russian witch hunt. I now add the word “hoax”. It’s a very, very bad thing for our country. But I was impressed with the fact that he – when – you know, because the most important question up there was the one on collusion. And he said he saw no collusion (TPP, URL).*

One of the specifics of Donald Trump’s answers to journalists is the use of interrogative sentences. He often asks a question and answers it himself: *Well, Sean, I don’t want to say it was my decision, because what purpose is that? I want*

*to keep the relationship, and we will keep the relationship. We'll see what happens over the next period of time (TPP, URL).*

A distinctive feature of Trump's communicative behavior is that when a journalist speaks about a leader of another country or another politically important person, he does not skimp on compliments to that person and his country: *Well, I like President Moon very much. We have a great relationship. Believe it or not, I have a great relationship with almost every leader. A lot of people find that hard to understand, but I do. But some take advantage of our country like you wouldn't believe. And when they know I know it – which I know in every case – maybe it sort of freezes them up a little bit. But we do; we have a lot of good relationships* (TPC, URL). This tactics allows the US President to strengthen his communicative position.

D. Trump actively uses *a strategy to increase*, that is, he shows his importance in the eyes of listeners and presents himself in a favorable light (Аулова, URL). He implements this strategy with the help of *tactics analysis-plus*, that is, analyzing the situation in a positive way:

*You look at what's happened to our country; we've picked up trillions and trillions of dollars of net worth. Our stock market is almost at its all-time high. Our economy is incredible. Our unemployment numbers are among the best we've ever had in our history. So we have the strongest economy, probably, possibly that we've ever had* (TPP, URL).

In describing the situation approvingly, the American political leader uses vocabulary with positive connotations. Thus, Donald Trump often uses communication strategies and tactics, i.e. uses strategies 'to increase' and 'to reduce'. However, president uses different tactics in implementing these strategies. The use of various speech techniques indicates the differences in the communicative behavior of the politician.

Political communication has goals that determine strategies in political discourse. As a rule, the politician wants (Паршина, p. 45): a) to induce the addressee to vote in the elections for a certain candidate, party, bloc, movement,

etc.; b) to gain credibility or strengthen his own image, i.e. “please the people”; c) to convince the addressee to agree with the speaker, his opinion, to accept his point of view (that the government is working poorly, or that reforms are going well); d) to create a certain emotional mood, cause a certain emotional state of the addressee; e) to give the addressee new knowledge, new ideas about the subject of speech, to inform the addressee about his own i.e. president’s position on any issue.

In this regard, *the strategy of persuasion* (i.e. authoritarian, manipulation, domination, coercion) comes to the fore. It is found throughout the genres of political discourse, including political interviews. O.N. Parshina suggests dividing persuasion strategy into argumentative and agitational strategy (Паршина, р. 45). To implement these strategies, the interviewee (politician) uses certain verbal means.

An *argumentative strategy* includes *tactics of reasoned assessments, contrastive analysis, and illustration*. Often, argumentation includes several tactics at once, for example, illustration, or contrastive analysis can act as a valid assessment (Yew, p. 78). But nevertheless, at the heart of the division of tactics is the leading direction in the politician’s speech.

a) Tactics of reasoned assessments: *The reserves, I think, are something that we’ve got to be very careful about. Typically were used during disruptions. For example, during Hurricane Katrina when refineries just shut down. And what we don’t want to do is catch ourselves in a situation, particularly when things are uncertain in the Middle East, where we’re using it now and it turns out we need more later* (OYTQ, URL).

The politician proves and explains why the government cannot use oil reserves to lower gasoline prices in the country: – *...not only have we been able to yank this economy out, to stabilize the financial system and get the economy to grow again, not only have we now produced over 1,8 million jobs... we still have to put more people back to work, we got to bring the deficit down: I think I’m equipped to finish the job* (OYTQ, URL).

At the syntactic level, one can trace the enumeration of the ‘for’-arguments expressed by homogeneous objects. The emphatic construction *not only* accentuates attention in its function, but is reinforced by repetition. According to its meaning, the statement is divided into two logically interrelated groups of arguments: what the politician did and what needs to be done in the future. Factual information (1.8 million jobs) emphasizes evidence and credibility. A reasonable assessment is also expressed here by a logical conclusion.

b) Tactics of contrastive analysis: – *Well, keep in mind that 1932, 1933 the unemployment rate was 25 percent, inching up to 30 percent. You had a third of the country that was ill housed, ill clothed, unemployed. We’re not going through something comparable to that. But I would say that this is as bad as we’ve seen since then. And if we don’t take some significant steps then it could get worse* (OOMB, URL). Comparing the past and the present helps to show the achievements of the politician during the presidency in the above remark. The example shows a comparison between the times of the Great Depression and the current crisis.

c) Illustrative tactics: – *People don’t like war, but what they should be angry about is the fact that there’s a brutal dictator there that had destroyed lives and put them in mass graves and had torture rooms. Listen! I wish they could have seen the seven men that came to see me in the Oval Office. They had their right hands cut off by Saddam Hussein because the currency had devalued when he was a leader, ok. And guess what happened? And Americans saw the fact that they had their hands cut off and crosses or Xs carved in their forehead. And he flew them to America and they came to my office with a new hand, grateful for the generosity of America and with Saddam Hussein’s brutality in their mind* (IPRT, URL). Using this example of cruelty and ruthlessness, the politician argues the need for a war against terrorists.

The *agitational strategy* is represented by the *tactics of promise and appeal*. In contrast to agitational speeches from pre-election statements, this strategy is not expressed so clearly in political interviews. We do not often see exclamation

clauses, amplifying adjectives and adverbs. Basically, the politician uses the future tense, personal pronouns and parallel syntactic constructions (Yew, p. 98).

a) Tactics of promise: – *Yes. I have said repeatedly that I intend to close Guantanamo, and I will follow through on that. I have said repeatedly that America doesn't torture. And I'm gonna make sure that we don't torture. Those are part and parcel of an effort to regain America's moral stature in the world* (TOAG, URL).

Within the strategy, repetitions *will, we will*, modal verbs, future tense, and affirmative sentences are used. Future tense and modal verbs convey a planned action, promise, or intention. At the syntactic and lexical level, repetitions increase the impact.

b) Tactics of appeal: – *We want to eliminate this problem of childhood obesity in a generation. We want to get that done. We want our kids to face a different and more optimistic future in terms of their lifespan* (MOLM, URL).

Despite the fact that the appeal is not expressed directly (let's, I ask), parallel constructions give the speech convincing, the pronoun 'we' performs an important function: the politician addresses the whole people, speaks of himself as one of these people, which means that he encourages to unity, to action and to support. Within the framework of persuasion strategies, we can see that the argumentative strategy prevails over the agitation strategy. In most cases, a politician strives for a logical justification of his position.

It is difficult to unambiguously define and describe the principles of speech influence in situations of persuasion. When considering oral speeches, the analysis of the written text of political speech is not enough to understand the reasons that caused the known *communicative effect*. This is due to the fact that the written text reflects only the content side of the spoken speech, while the effect of persuasion is produced through the action of formal means. Therefore, for the assessment, it is required to present as fully as possible, firstly, the context, and secondly, the audio-visual characteristics.

The linguistic portrait of a political leader conveys two types of information: subject-logical or self-information and pragmatic or emotional influence. Analyzing political contexts using a variety of linguistic means, it should be noted that they are characterized by the ability to play the role of both constructive and destructive components of discourse. That is, a correctly selected linguistic phenomenon enhances emotionality, expressiveness, helps the communicator to convey the circumstances more vividly, and the recipient to understand the message (Станко, p. 249).

Considering communicative and pragmatic means as a destructive element of political discourse, we may note that they can hide the true meaning by verbosity: *Most ominously, we see the fears of ordinary people being exploited through appeals to sectarianism, or tribalism, or racism, or anti-Semitism; appeals to a glorious past before the body politic was infected by those who look different, or worship God differently; a politics of us versus them* (RPO, URL).

In the above passage, we can observe Obama's use of manipulative means, including the repetition of the lexeme *appeal*, abstract marked nouns, the use of medical and religious terms to distract from himself, his country, thus shifting all responsibility to opponents.

The well-established functioning of national values in the linguistic picture of the world, the linguistic representation of significant symbols, such as the "American dream", provide ample opportunities for manipulative influences in the political discourse of the United States. The concepts 'American dream', 'national interests', 'security of the nation', etc. often acquire sacred significance in American discourse (Bayley, p. 156). In his presidential campaign, Barack Obama also actively 'exploited' this technique. In his speeches, he often appeals to the notions of a 'mighty nation': *They understood that our power alone cannot protect us, nor does it entitle us to do as we please* (SEL, p. 129). Here Obama tries to convey to the recipients that *our power* represents 'strength' that in itself will not protect them and will not allow them to behave as they please.

B. Obama often identifies himself with many nationalities of American society, thus causing trust and sympathy among voters: *For us, they fought and died, in places like Concord and Gettysburg; Normandy and Khe Sanh* (BOIA, URL). The identification here is facilitated by the use of the personal pronoun *us*, which serves as a unifying element that connects the speaker with those who fought and died in Concord, Gettysburg, Normandy and Hee San.

The *technique of defamation* one's opponents in order to portray one's own activities in a positive context is often used by politicians (Bayley, p. 145). In his speech, Barack Obama understands 'some great powers' as Russia and China. He opposes himself as a representative of a different political culture, identifying with the 'noble' American people who seek to change the situation in the country and around the world for the better:

*On this basis, we see some major powers assert themselves in ways that contravene international law. We see an erosion of the democratic principles and human rights that are fundamental to this institution's mission; information is strictly controlled, the space for civil society restricted* (RPO, URL).

In addition to the 'national idea' in American political discourse, a stable set of mythological motifs is cyclically reproduced (Bayley, p. 79), which are also present in Obama's speeches:

a) "courageous leader": the idea of the prominent role of a political leader who acts effectively, saving people from danger, demonstrates courage, ability to fight and protect his people: *Now, there are some who question the scale of our ambitions – who suggest that our system cannot tolerate too many big plans. Their memories are short* (BOIA, URL).

b) "belief in a better future": the belief that despite all the temporary troubles, the courageous American people will be successful and happy: *We will restore science to its rightful place, and wield technology's wonders to raise health care's quality and lower its cost* (BOIA, URL). The passage says that Americans will restore their science to a decent height and master the wonders of technology that will raise the quality of health care and reduce its price.

c) “our strength is in unity”: the belief that only together, thanks to their faith, devotion and hard work the American people will be able to overcome difficulties on the path to a better future: *We will harness the sun and the winds and the soil to fuel our cars and run our factories. And we will transform our schools and colleges and universities to meet the demands of a new age. All this we can do. And all this we will do* (BOIA, URL). The personal pronoun *we* and the gradation in the form of the last two sentences are evidence of the unifying efforts of the people and political forces.

d) “faith in one’s own strength”: the belief that the arrangement of their own well-being is to the strength of citizens: *We continue to have differences with the Cuban government. We will continue to stand up for human rights. But we address these issues through diplomatic relations, and increased commerce, and people-to-people ties* (RPO, URL).

Summarizing the content of the above, the former and current US presidents, as a rule, give optimism and hope for the best to statements. The lexical units used by political leaders are quite simple. However, their speeches are replete with figurative comparisons, vivid examples, they often contain emotionally expressive vocabulary.

To argue their political views, American politicians prefer simple sentences, although they also use complex structures. An analysis of the linguistic portraits of American political leaders allows to characterize them as linguistic personalities capable of reasonably and emotionally convincingly urging people to take actions that will determine further qualitative changes in the life of American society. The cognitive system of American political leaders is focused primarily on universal values (cohesion, love for the country, etc.). Their communicative behavior contributes to the cultivation of these values in their own country and abroad, which is achieved through a developed system of strategies and tactics. The verbal system of the linguistic personality of American presidents is characterized by clarity, institutionality and explicitness.



### 2.3. Functional and stylistic potential of lexical and grammatical means of speech of a modern political leader

Every politician has his own characteristics, which are manifested in his linguistic portrait, in how he speaks, what language techniques he uses, what he emphasizes. B. Obama's speech as a former US president, leader of the American nation is unique both in terms of the use of language, expressiveness, and in terms of creating an atypical image of a political leader.

Among linguistic and cultural markers, researchers single out allusive elements, quotations, non-equivalent vocabulary, gaps or lacunae, connotative semantics, phraseologisms, proverbs and sayings, lexical background, internal word form, and others (Колодій, p. 246). Thus, a fairly rich phraseology is represented here by the following set expressions: *It is the kindness to take in a stranger when the levees break, the selflessness of workers who would rather cut their hours than see a friend lose their job which sees us through our darkest hours* (SEL, p. 88). The phraseological phrase 'to take in a stranger' means "to take the disadvantaged under the roof", i.e. it acts as a positive set phrase. While the verbal phraseological unit 'to see somebody through one's darkest hours' is intended to "lead someone through gloomy times".

The correlation between emotionality and evaluation is most transparent at the lexical level of language, when a politician, using a certain type of vocabulary, expresses his emotions, gives a positive or negative assessment of events and so on. In the process of analyzing the speeches of former US President Barack Obama, it becomes clear that the leading role in creating a positive image of the United States is played by vocabulary with a positive meaning: *The instruments with which we meet them may be new. But those values upon which our success depends – hard work and honesty, courage and fair play, tolerance and curiosity, loyalty and patriotism – these things are old. These things are true* (SEL, p. 122). These are the true values of humanity that bring success to the American nation,

such as hard work and honesty, courage and justice, tolerance and curiosity, devotion and patriotism.

Above all, Americans value freedom, peace, prosperity, and confidence in the future. The most negative attitude in the American nation to war, the use of weapons, danger, threats and human suffering. All this is a clear expression of the appeal to the national mentality of the United States (Harris, p. 45). Thus, the use of lexemes with a positive or negative evaluative meaning in speech is quite appropriate. They mark psychological emotionality, create contact with the audience, serve as a logical connection between the real state of affairs and the picture desired by the speaker, that is, they influence emotions by manipulating the opinion of the listeners.

The central core of Obama's speeches is the use of the lexeme *change*. Thus, in address to his constituents, Obama has repeatedly stressed that America needs immediate and radical changes in foreign and domestic policy. He points to the inability of the current government to change the situation in the country: *It has not been the path for the faint-hearted – for those who prefer leisure over work, or seek only the pleasures of riches and fame* (BOIA, URL); *Rather, it has been the risk takers, the doers, the makers of things – some celebrated but more often men and women obscure in their labor, who have carried us up the long, rugged path towards prosperity and freedom* (BOIA, URL). Obama is of the opinion that this was not a path for the weak, for those who prefer rest to work or crave only those pleasures that give wealth and fame. On the contrary, it is the way of those who take risks, do, create and try to change something for the better.

Offering his constituents changes for a better life, Obama actively addresses the moral and spiritual values of his people, appeals to a sense of dignity, patriotism and pride in his country: *Instead, they knew that our power grows through its prudent use; our security emanates from the justness of our cause, the force of our example, the tempering qualities of humility and restraint* (SEL, p. 278).

Obama's linguistic portrait is distinguished by the use of demagogic rhetorical devices, which are at least deceptive and mislead the audience. For example, he often uses the techniques of generalization and hyperbolization:

1) generalization:

*We are the keepers of this legacy. Guided by these principles once more, we can meet those new threats that demand even greater effort – even greater cooperation and understanding between nations (SEL, p. 71).*

2) hyperbolization: *What is required of us now is a new era of responsibility – a recognition, on the part of every American, that we have duties to ourselves, our nation, and the world ... (SEL, p. 287).*

In his recent speeches, Obama has often used an aggressive tone and offensive labels and stamps against his political opponents: *Internal repression and foreign aggression are both symptoms of the failure to provide this foundation (RPO, URL); The history of the last two decades proves that in today's world, dictatorships are unstable (RPO, URL).*

The aggressiveness of political speech is evidenced by the concepts present in the cognitive picture of Obama's discourse, characteristic of the military conceptsphere, the most common of which are the concept of battle, America, as well as biblical concepts:

a) lexemes combat, fight: *We're told that such retrenchment is required to beat back disorder; that it's the only way to stamp out terrorism, or prevent foreign meddling (RPO, URL).*

b) appeals as personification of America: *Imagine if, instead, Russia had engaged in true diplomacy, and worked with Ukraine and the international community to ensure its interests were protected (RPO, URL).*

c) biblical references and clichés such as: ... *the God-given promise that all are equal, all are free, and all deserve a chance to pursue their full measure of happiness (BOIA, URL).*

At the *lexical level*, each political text operates with keywords that are often repeated. For example, for a speech by Obama at the UN General Assembly in

September 2015, the following words are: ... *by forging alliances with old adversaries; by supporting the steady emergence of strong democracies accountable to their people instead of any foreign power; and by building an international system that imposes a cost on those who choose conflict over cooperation, an order that recognizes the dignity and equal worth of all people* (RPO, URL).

The key concepts of the analyzed samples of Obama's linguistic portrait are lexemes to denote the most important components of human life: moral, material and axiological. These are the lexemes *Home, Child, Peace, Care, Job* and *Education*. In addition, from speech to speech, there are certain key sentences in the speech of the 44th American president, which he repeats almost word for word. These phrases sound like concise expressions of Obama's political course, as fundamental principles of his activity. Such sentences in the analyzed samples of political discourse are: *The strength of nations depends on the success of their people -- their knowledge, their innovation, their imagination, their creativity, their drive, their opportunity – and that, in turn, depends upon individual rights and good governance and personal security* (RPO, URL).

Thus, the rhetorical features of the former US president's speech help to form a linguistic portrait of a confident, purposeful, moderate leader who is able to lead and take responsibility for the future of the nation. Pervasive metaphors, frequent repetition of keywords and phrases strengthen listeners' trust in the speaker.

The category of modality is realized in the speech of political leaders B. Obama and D. Trump both at the phrase and text level. Its specificity in political speech is the special use of linguistic evaluativeness. The implementation of the directive attitude in political speech is facilitated, first of all, by the widespread use of modal verbs and constructions (Беляева, p. 13): *We must speak our minds openly, debate our disagreements honestly, but always pursue solidarity* (ПТИР, URL). The modal verb 'must' serves here as a duty, pointing out that Americans

have to speak openly about what they think, resolve differences in an honest dispute, but always strive for solidarity.

In addition, the use of the Imperative mood in the speech of US President D. Trump is quite small: *Do not let anyone tell you it cannot be done. No challenge can match the heart and fight and spirit of America* (ИТИР, URL). In the passage the Imperative is represented by the negative form *Do not let* and contains a passive voice.

The Conditional Mood takes a little more place, the main Mood in political speech is Indicative (Беляева, p. 23): *If that happens without consequence in Ukraine, it could happen to any nation gathered here today* (RPO, URL).

It should be noted that the frequent use of modal verbs is related to their ability to present a statement as reasonable, necessary, possible, and to regulate the modality of the whole statement, preparing the mind of the addressee and signaling the intentions, wishes and demands of the politician. They have an imperative character and acquire increased ideological significance in political communication. It is known that the largest number of modal verbs is used in party and election speeches, which is explained by the fact that these political speeches belong to those that have an agitational character, the smallest number is in parliamentary speeches: *We must protect our borders from the ravages of other countries making our products, stealing our companies, and destroying our jobs. Protection will lead to great prosperity and strength* (ИТИР, URL). In the passage it comes to the need to protect US borders from foreign countries that supply goods, 'steal', according to Trump, American companies and destroy jobs.

The frequency of use of modal verbs is also associated with the use of other modal constructions in speech: modes of action, modifying elements and conditional sentences. However, this is the most important element of the expression of directiveness in political speech, which should be qualified as a typological feature of this type of text (Harris, p. 111).

Grammatical tense is widely used to implement the pragmatic orientation of political speeches. The linguistic portrait of both American politicians is dominated

by present tense forms, mainly Present Simple, past, represented mainly by Past Simple, and simple future tense Future Simple, which is usually used in party and election speeches, where it is presented most accentuated, i.e. more often in the final part of the speech, together with the appeal: *We do not seek to impose our way of life on anyone, but rather to let it shine as an example for everyone to follow* (ПТИР, URL); *For us, they packed up their few worldly possessions and traveled across oceans in search of a new life* (BOIA, URL); *Together, we will determine the course of America and the world for years to come* (ПТИР, URL).

Forms of the future are often used in greeting speeches, which, according to A. Karas, is due to the fact that politicians in power, speaking at certain events, give a forecast for the future (Карась, p. 36). In addition, the Future tense, expressing the preference of an action and correlating something with the future, can be used to express modality, resulting in the statement that is perceived as a confident call that claims the nature of truth: *We will seek friendship and goodwill with the nations of the world – but we do so with the understanding that it is the right of all nations to put their own interests first* (ПТИР, URL). The passage is about the search for friendship and good neighborliness of all peoples of the world by the United States, which at the same time understand that any nation has the right to take care of itself first.

Notably, the use of pronoun forms of the first person plural is of special importance for all types of speech of politicians, as they allow politicians to realize their goals: to appeal to different groups of the population, to establish connections within the group consciousness depending on their intentions, to create a sense of community, to attract the addressee to politician's side, directly addressing him, and indirectly presenting himself and his own program. According to the methods of identification and intimacy, the use of pronoun forms is associated with evaluativeness. Speaking of 'we', 'our group', politicians use only a positive connotation, while the political opponent is characterized in a negative way (Harris, p. 18): *We, the citizens of America, are now joined in a great national effort to rebuild our country and to restore its promise for all of our people*

(ПТИР, URL). In the passage, the personal pronoun ‘we’, separated by the apposition ‘the citizens of America’, emphasizes the unity of the citizens of America in the great cause of rebuilding their country.

Forms of the first person singular, as noted by M.O. Didenko, typical of politicians who have already won and hold high positions and for pre-election speeches, especially imprinted at the party congress (Діденко, р. 45): *I will fight for you with every breath in my body – and I will never, ever let you down* (ПТИР, URL). In the fragment, the personal pronoun singular *I*, in combination with the metonymic expression ‘to fight with every breath in my body’ and the phrasal verb ‘to let smb down’, indicates the image of a strong and unbreakable leader.

This can be explained by the fact that, conducting the election campaign, the candidate wants to form a linguistic portrait of a strong, determined and reform-capable politician. And the frequent use of the “I” must demonstrate that there is a leader in the party and for the voters who is able to take a leading position. The use of forms of the second person is insignificant: *This is your day. This is your celebration* (ПТИР, URL).

As O.V. Alexandrova emphasizes, a characteristic feature of the political speeches of modern politicians is the predominance of simple sentences, while many complex sentences are either formally simple, or the principal clause does not carry a significant informative load, but only introduces the subordinate clause (Александрова, р. 112). Such sentences are easier to perceive, creating the appearance of reasoning with the following conclusion, and have an appealing, affirmative nature: *Today’s ceremony, however, has very special meaning* (ПТИР, URL); *We will face challenges. We will confront hardships. But we will get the job done* (ПТИР, URL).

Such simplification of the syntactic structure of the linguistic portrait of modern politicians is connected with the general tendencies of language development and with the influence on the political discourse of the media and the language of advertising. The latter is also manifested in the widespread use of

incomplete sentences. They are mostly filled with associative visual elements that enhance their emotional potential. Such sentences, in our opinion, can be considered as a stylistic figure that gives the text dynamism and greater expressiveness.

In addition, interrogative and conditional sentences play an important role in political speech. They are most often used in parliamentary speeches, which is explained by the debatable nature of these speeches, as well as by opposition representatives as a means of negative evaluation of the ruling party. All interrogative sentences are used either in the form of a rhetorical question that remains unanswered, or the question is immediately answered by the speakers themselves (Sproule, p. 89). In other words, a 'question-and-answer' course is used, which performs the function of actualizing the topic, facilitates the recipient's transition to it, and also acts as a means of intimacy, because the interlocutor is the addressee, who is already represented as a follower, like-minded person and exponent of common opinion: *How should we respond to these trends? There are those who argue that the ideals enshrined in the U.N. charter are unachievable or out of date -- a legacy of a postwar era not suited to our own* (RPO, URL).

As we can see, the use of rhetorical questions in the presidential speech is aimed at attracting attention, enhancing the impression, emotional expression and creating a good mood. For example, Obama, with the help of a rhetorical question emphasizes the main task facing him and all Americans, that is, to ensure the existence of a single nation and a single people.

Conditional sentences are based on a system of argumentation and have a modal meaning in the following context: *When you open your heart to patriotism, there is no room for prejudice* (ПТИР, URL). Zero Conditional is used in the fragment, which expresses a constant, regular condition and determines the real result. The verbal predicate in the subordinate clause of condition and the verbal predicate in the principal clause are used in the same tense.



Among the stylistic syntactic figures in the linguistic portrait of American leaders of the nation can be distinguished parentheses, parallel constructions and repetition. These figures increase the general expression of politicians' speech, creating a special rhythm of a phrase or a whole semantic fragment, serve as a means of emphasizing the most important, from the author's point of view, meaningful elements of speech, thereby enhancing the impact of speech on the recipient. Therefore, they are especially often used in speeches that have a pre-election nature (Бойко, p.18):

Paranetical sentence or parenthesis: *The question we ask today is not whether our government is too big or too small, but whether it works – whether it helps families find jobs at a decent wage, care they can afford, a retirement that is dignified* (BOIA, URL). As we can see, the parenthetical construction here serves to clarify how the US government works, whether it helps families find work for adequate pay, affordable health care and a decent life in peace.

Parallelism: *From this day forward, a new vision will govern our land.*

*From this moment on, it's going to be America First* (ПТІР, URL).

Repetition: *It belongs to everyone gathered here today and everyone watching all across America* (ПТІР, URL).

The repetition of the pronoun *everyone* in the above passage indicates the importance of the information that the politician wants to convey to the listener. Thus, these syntactic constructions give special sharpness to the utterance, emphasize the opinion of the political leader and highlight the most important in his speech.

It should be noted that the overestimation of the importance of the form of presentation, as well as tradition have led to excessive use of stylistic devices in the speeches of former and current American presidents. There is almost no political speech that is not saturated with various stylistic devices (Харченко, URL).

All these stylistic devices are, in our opinion, in constant interaction, complement each other and are closely intertwined, forming their own system. Thus, the antithesis is often made out of parallel structures, which, in turn, may be

accompanied by repetitions. Different types of repetitions can become elements of gradation or climax. Given the fact that the audience relies only on its memory, the speaker is forced to repeat certain parts of the statement (Jensen, p. 89). Although he may do so in order to better convey his opinion to the audience, persuade them or force them to accept his point of view. Therefore, all types of repetitions are widely used in this discourse.

An example of an anaphoric repetition is the following excerpt from a speech by Donald Trump: *The oath of office I take today is an oath of allegiance to all Americans* (ПТИП, URL). Synonymous expressions ‘the oath of office’ and ‘an oath of allegiance’ are set phraseological expressions that complement each other.

An illustration of the antithesis or opposition can be the following passages from the speech of B. Obama, which due to its simplicity and humor won many supporters: *That’s the basis of the sanctions that the United States and our partners impose on Russia. It’s not a desire to return to a Cold War* (RPO, URL). The first sentence in the passage is introductory and explains the reasons and expediency of imposing sanctions of the United States and its partners against Russia, namely, the unwillingness to return to the Cold War.

Especially rich in antitheses is the inaugural speech of US President Donald Trump, which really achieved its goal: *Because today we are not merely transferring power from one Administration to another, or from one party to another – but we are transferring power from Washington, D.C. and giving it back to you, the American People* (ПТИП, URL). It is evident from the passage that D. Trump’s speech is full of oppositions, which contributes to the strengthening of the semantic and stylistic effect.

One of the means of exercising emotional influence on the audience is gradation/climax, which in many cases is created by synonymous repetition. In addition, synonyms are located as the intensity increases. Let us consider an excerpt from Trump’s triumphant speech: *Washington flourished – but the people did not share in its wealth. Politicians prospered – but the jobs left, and the factories closed. The establishment protected itself, but not the citizens of our*

*country* (ПТИР, URL). Synonymous repetitions here are the verbs ‘flourished’, ‘prospered’ and ‘protected’, the accumulation of which creates gradation.

As we can see, the expressiveness of certain lexical units in gradation is closely connected with their emotional coloring, with the significance of their content and with the ability to express different degrees of tension in utterance. Besides, the increase in expression is, in our opinion, due to the use of parallelism and antithesis in one paragraph.

An interesting kind of parallelism is also a chiasm, the main function of which is to give a new additional meaning to the statement, fixing the addressee’s attention on the reported fact, thus distinguishing it: *What truly matters is not which party controls our government, but whether our government is controlled by the people* (ПТИР, URL). In the fragment, the chiasm is combined with the emphatic construction *What truly matters is ...* and the antithesis, adding an expressive character to the whole utterance.

It is worth noting that the parenthetic constructions, which can often be found in the speech of political leaders, are isolated in writing by graphic means, i.e. brackets or dashes. Examples of this linguistic phenomenon include: *For two years, the United States and our partners – including Russia, including China – stuck together in complex negotiations* (RPO, URL). In this case, the parenthetic sentence, separated by a dash, clarifies, characterizes the details of the message, giving the story sharpness and immediacy.

By placing at the beginning of the sentence an adverb or particles of negative or intensifying meaning, we give the utterance emotional coloring and relate this stylistic phenomenon to the inversion, under which M.D. Gutner understands the intentional violation of word order in order to highlight the emotional or semantic component (Гутнер, p. 23): *Not because we want to isolate Russia – we don’t – but because we want a strong Russia that’s invested in working with us to strengthen the international system as a whole* (RPO, URL). The negative particle ‘not’ at the beginning of the sentence introduces an inversion and serves to focus the audience’s attention not on the fact of Russia’s isolation by

the United States, but on the fact of cooperation with a strong country to strengthen the international system as a whole.

Enumeration can also help to intensify the content of the statement. So, Donald Trump's speech is especially rich in this stylistic device: *Every decision on trade, on taxes, on immigration, on foreign affairs, will be made to benefit American workers and American families* (ПТИР, URL). There are separate lexemes 'trade', 'taxes', 'migration' and the phrase 'foreign policy', which will be decided for the benefit of American workers and their families.

As an argument, a political leader can also use figurative means of speech, i.e. metaphors and comparisons or similes. Moreover, most of them are not unexpected relations between the two types of lexical meanings that create the image (Jensen, p. 128). This is natural, because images based on sudden facts and phenomena take time to perceive them, to understand the connections between the phenomenon being described and the phenomenon being compared: *In America, we understand that a nation is only living as long as it is striving* (ПТИР, URL). Here, the word 'nation' with meaning 'lives while fighting' is a personified lexeme. The passage uses a comparative group with the connecting expression 'as long as'.

Thus, such a slow process can distract the audience from further presentation of the content. Therefore, figurative expressions in the author's speech should be stencil, i.e. such that are easily perceived. If the speech of political leaders uses fresh similes or metaphors, unexpected on the basis of comparable features, then such metaphors or similes, as noted by L.M. Morskaya, become deployed (Морська, p. 337), which greatly facilitates the process of gradual awareness of the connections of the compared facts. We find an extremely large number of metaphors in an excerpt from Obama's speech:

*We will harness the sun and the winds and the soil to fuel our cars and run our factories* (BOIA, URL). It is clear from the passage that it is permeated with metaphorical verbal expressions.

The expressive language means that extremely eloquently characterize the speech of politicians include oxymoron, the function of which is to combine opposite in content, contrasting concepts, which together give a new idea: *The result is a lasting, comprehensive deal that prevents Iran from obtaining a nuclear weapon, while allowing it to access peaceful energy* (RPO, URL). The phrase ‘peaceful energy’ means atomic energy, which can actually pose a great threat.

The euphonic embellishment of a political leader’s speech also belongs to the stylistic devices typical of political discourse (Potapenko, p. 223). In special cases, when the content requires appropriate pathos, politicians use alliteration. Although it, like rhyme, does not belong to the system of means that make up the political style. For example: *We don’t adjudicate claims. But like every nation gathered here, we have an interest in upholding the basic principles of freedom of navigation and the free flow of commerce, and in resolving disputes through international law, not the law of force* (RPO, URL).

Finally, the expressive means of the linguistic portrait of the American leader include hyperbole, often combined with similes, metaphors and amplified by adjectives in the superlative degree of comparison or intensifiers, and vivid synonymous epithets: *For us, they toiled in sweatshops and settled the West; endured the lash of the whip and plowed the hard earth* (BOIA, URL); *We recognize the deep and complex history between Russia and Ukraine. But we cannot stand by when the sovereignty and territorial integrity of a nation is flagrantly violated* (RPO, URL). In the first fragment, hyperbolicity is expressed here by verbal metaphorical expressions ‘toiled in sweatshops’, ‘settled the West’, ‘endured the lash of the whip’ and ‘plowed the hard earth’. In the second fragment, the synonymous epithets ‘deep and complex history’ contain negative connotations that describe the ambiguous relations between Russia and Ukraine.

Therefore, among the tropes and figures in Obama’s political speeches are widely represented: similes, epithets, metaphor, oxymoron, hyperbole, synonyms, as well as parenthetic sentences or parentheses, parallelism, antithesis, inversion, chiasm, anaphora, repetition, gradation and more. All of them serve to express the

positive or negative emotionality of the linguistic portrait of a political leader, verbalized in political discourse.

### **Conclusions to Chapter Two**

1. In their political speeches, US Presidents B. Obama and D. Trump prefer to use the personal pronoun of the first person plural ‘we’ and the possessive pronouns ‘our/ours’ to identify with the American people to achieve a perlocutionary effect, i.e. to motivate the audience to socio-political reaction. Political suggestion can occur directly, i.e. by persuasion, call to action or covertly, i.e. by creating a certain emotional state, mood or background. Thus, it can be argued that at the lexical and grammatical level, it is personal and possessive pronouns that are markers of the personal and collective in the linguistic portrait of the American political leader.

2. In the speeches of American presidents, the collective dominates over the personal. This is manifested, first of all, at the lexical-semantic and morphological and syntactic levels. The President, acting as a representative of the institution of power, voices the interests of his country, people and government. He does not speak on his own behalf, but on behalf of the entire state. It is quite clear that the personal becomes unimportant and secondary for him. The desire and ability of politicians to unite themselves and the audience is realized through grammatical constructions, as well as stylistic figures and tropes.

3. The linguistic portrait of political leaders has its own semantic, pragmatic features that affect the degree of certainty of its units in a given situation. The semantic factors of uncertainty of politicians’ speech units include: abstractness and breadth of meanings of lexical units and relativity of definition of abstract units. Politicians often neglect the clarifying definitions required by lexical units with abstract meanings. Many units of political language mean complexes of ideas, quite distant from the direct experience of a person. Therefore, in political speech there is a conflict of two tendencies – terminological, conceptual accuracy and semantic ambiguity. Thus, the uncertainty of units of political discourse is caused

by semantic and pragmatic factors. Situationally, this uncertainty can lead to the removal of communication problems or to their creation.

4. In the political speeches by B. Obama and D. Trump, stylistic means of speech are expressive, because they have an emotional and evaluative effect. Often, even stylistically neutral language means can acquire expressive meaning. So, the main stylistic and syntactic linguistic means and methods of creating the expressiveness of the linguistic portrait of American leaders include: repetition, enumeration, emphatic constructions, parenthetical sentences, inversion, parallelism, anaphora, antitheses and rhetorical questions. Commonly used lexical and semantic stylistic means of expressiveness include: euphemisms, phraseologisms, metaphors, hyperboles, as well as amplifiers and fillers.

## CHAPTER THREE. LINGUISTIC PORTRAITS OF DIFFERENT AMERICAN AND BRITISH POLITICAL LEADERS

### 3.1. The specifics of the interaction of multilevel linguistic means when creating a linguistic portrait of a modern political leader

Speech is a form of communication between people using language constructions. It is speech that helps to form and formulate people's thoughts. Since speech is a verbal communication, it helps to define a representation or a speech portrait of a linguistic personality (Инешина, p. 1).

Interestingly, modern both British and American politicians use the pronoun 'I' in their speech, which strenuously emphasizes the leadership qualities of a linguistic personality, which the people can follow (Романова, p. 9). 'I' helps to form in individuals a certain portrait of a representative of a political office. To gain the people's goodwill or favour is also very important for the politician.

When it comes to pronouns, the pronoun 'We' also plays an important role. It is the use of 'We' that helps psychologically influence the public, which can later elect a certain politician. From a psychological point of view, this pronoun defines a politician as a person who is ready to help, listen and interact with the people (Osborn, p. 116). Let us consider first the linguistic means involved in the creation of the speech/linguistic portrait of British political leaders such as Queen Elizabeth II and Theresa May.

Elizabeth II is the modern ruler of Great Britain, including a politician. As for the speech or linguistic portrait, we would like to pay attention to the speech of the British Queen. In her article I.A. Murzinova emphasizes that Elizabeth II's speech is grammatically correct (Мурзинова, p. 46). There is a certain kind of English speech in Britain called "*Queen's English*". Moreover, this speech is aristocratic not only grammatically, but also phonetically. I.A. Murzinova claims that the Queen's pronunciation meets all the norms of "received pronunciation" (ibid, p. 47). This shows that this linguistic personality belongs to a higher and



aristocratic society, where pronunciation requires a high level. From this it should be concluded that the politician knows how to correctly and competently appear in the political arena and convey information to the people.

Also, the Queen in her speech makes it clear to her people what she thinks of every British citizen. Here is an example from a speech by Elizabeth II to Parliament in 2014: *My government will legislate in the interest of everyone in the country. It will adopt a one-nation approach, helping working people get on, supporting aspiration, giving new opportunities to the most disadvantaged and brining different parts of our country together* (QES, URL).

This example shows that British politician assures every citizen of the country in solving problems. With the keyword *one-nation*, the Queen Elizabeth II touches on the values and feelings of patriotism of the British, she conveys the unity and equality of British citizens. Elizabeth II focuses on what the government thinks about the quality of people's life in the country. Thereby she tries to evoke a positive attitude of people towards the UK government.

As for the government, the example clearly shows that the Queen expresses her respect through the **keywords** *my government*, thereby winning over the parliament. On the other hand, it is propaganda of the British government to the people. Here are some examples from the speech of Elizabeth II: *My ministers will continue to reduce the country's deficit, My government will also continue to cut taxes in order to increase financial security, My ministers will implement measures to increase further the personal lounges loans* (QES, URL). These examples show how often the lexeme 'government' is mentioned in the speech of British politician.

There are quite a few such examples in the Queen Elizabeth's speech. This technique shows the people of the country that they should rely on the government. In addition, it will be more effective if Elizabeth II as the most important political figure of Great Britain, actively mentions that it is the government that deals with all kinds of problems. Only in this case, the British people will believe and listen to

what Parliament thinks about the citizens of their country and they should be trusted with the fate of people and Great Britain.

Reflecting on the linguistic portrait of Theresa May, we would like to say that in the speech about Brexit, this British politician has such a stylistic figure of speech as *anaphora*: *I know you're working around the clock. I know you're doing your best. I know that sometimes life can be a struggle, When we take the big calls, we'll think not of the powerful but you. When we pass new laws, we'll listen not to the mighty but to you. When it comes to taxes we'll prioritize not the wealthy but you* (TMB, URL). With the help of this stylistic device, Theresa May enhances and highlights the meaning and logic of important thoughts, namely, that she hears and understands the people, she knows how they work and try to arrange their lives. The British politician also emphasizes that the people in power are above all possible things. She agrees that the government is ready to consider all the problems of citizens. It is interesting to note that with this technique she increases public confidence.

Speaking about expressive means of speech, the British politician uses such a technique as *alliteration*: *... to go as far as your talents will take you, We will forge a bold new positive role for ourselves in the world* (TMB, URL). The repetition of the same consonants gives the speech of Theresa May a particular sonic expressiveness, which is important for the attention and attraction of the public. Mention should be made of Theresa May's speech that is thorough and clear for the public to understand. With the help of stylistic means, the speech of the British politician becomes expressive and informative. Thereby it convinces the British that it is Teresa May who is the strong politician who should be followed.

Now let us turn to an examination of the linguistic means involved in the formation of a linguistic portrait of American political leaders, such as US President Donald Trump.

In her scientific article, P.S. Akinina highlights the main themes in Donald Trump's speech. They are the unity of the country, strengthening of the state, equal rights, absolute freedom for all and the fight against corruption (Аникина, р. 29).

Based on the themes, it can be understood that this American politician represents these interests and makes it clear to the Americans that he is ready to fight for the rights of his people and the state with all his might. In other words, Donald Trump wins the trust of the citizens of the country so that they would choose and follow him.

P.S. Akinina also emphasizes that this American politician's speech is characterized by means of persuasion. For example, it is the figure of *ellipsis* in Donald Trump's speech. This stylistic technique helps speech acquire rhythm and dynamism, making the performance more vivid and expressive (АНИКИНА, р. 32). Let us demonstrate the above statements with Donald Trump's 2019 Florida speech: *I will join voters across the Sunshine State – my home* (KAG, URL).

It is interesting to note that in the speech of this American politician, *jargons* are quite widespread: *Everybody's getting rich and I'm working my ass off* (KAG, URL). This example is also taken from a speech in Florida. This method, i.e. the use of pejorative words helps Donald Trump win over the audience and to convince Americans that he is common person who is working for his bright future. The politician hints that he is like everyone who wants a good life, but for this he works hard. Donald Trump attracts people by the fact that he sets himself on an equal footing with everyone. In other words, he has not just achieved success, namely, he lived from hand to mouth. Speaking of *equality*, Donald Trump also applies this theme in his speech, addressing the public, for example: *I was like you, I was a civilian. I loved my life. My life was so much simpler* (KAG, URL). By this example, the politician tries to arouse the respect of Americans and become an authority for the people.

In addition, the speech of this American political leader is rich in *synonyms*: *The economy is booming, wages are rising, crime is falling, poverty is plummeting, confidence is soaring* (KAG, URL). The use of a large number of synonyms makes Donald Trump's speech brighter, gorgeous and more accessible to the public. People perceive information better when a politician uses a rich supply of

synonyms and does not use frequent repetitions, thereby arousing the interest of the people.

Overall, Donald Trump's speech is loud, excited and emotional. Such a speech attracts a lot of people's attention. Moreover, it helps to evoke in the audience that emotionality and excitement that is contained in Trump's speech. Also, such a speech encourages and motivates to do as much as possible for the country.

It should be noted that this politician's speech contains short sentences, with a pause between them. The linguistic portrait tells us that Donald Trump speaks briefly but precisely. American politician doesn't talk too much, otherwise people will stop paying attention to the main topics in his speech, as they will get bored. The audience loves to speak briefly and informatively. As for the pauses in speech, it says that Donald Trump often thinks what to say. In addition, it gives him confidence in front of common Americans and more accurate delivery of information to the people.

Summarizing all the examples of modern British and American political leaders, in particular Queen Elizabeth II, Theresa May and Donald Trump, we can come to the conclusion that it is with the help of speech that politicians develop their speech characteristics, means of persuasion, tactics, expression of interests, etc. These aspects are very important, since all this helps to compose a linguistic portrait of a modern politician, followed by the people.

### **3.2. Features of linguistic portraits of American and British politicians in a comparative aspect**

#### **3.2.1. Donald Trump's linguistic portrait**

Every politician has his own characteristics, his own *image*, which is manifested in his or her linguistic portrait, i.e. in how he speaks, what language techniques he or she uses, what he/she emphasizes. So, Donald Trump's speech is unique both in

terms of the use of language, expressiveness, and in terms of creating an atypical image of a political leader.

The category of evaluation, in our opinion, is one of the main for any political speech, and *evaluative adjectives* are one of the most important means of its expression. In political speech, they focus on a bipolar evaluation system (correct – incorrect) and relate to the identification system: “we/ ‘friend’ group – positive” – “they / ‘foe’ group – negative” (Матвеева, p. 25): : *We are one nation – and their pain is our pain. Their dreams are our dreams; and their success will be our success. We share one heart, one home, and one glorious destiny* (ПТИР, URL).

The passage is about a single nation whose pain is the pain of all Americans. Their dreams and success are the same for everyone. Heart, home and brilliant purpose are also the same. The lexeme *glorious* in the phrase *glorious destiny* has positive connotations and in the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English it means “having or deserving great fame, praise, and honor” (LD, c. 687).

Therefore, an attempt is made to impose on the addressee a certain system of evaluations (more broadly, a picture of the world) and a position in the coordinate system ‘we – they’. Thus, in the types of American political speeches, evaluative adjectives are used in accordance with the direction of the whole evaluation: negative ones are especially characteristic of the opposition, positive ones – for the ruling party (respectively in party and pre-election speeches), mostly positive – in congratulatory and festive ones.

O.S. Fomenko thinks that the basis of any political speech is the use of common literary vocabulary, known to all members of the communicative fellowship, which acquires political and ideological meanings and nuances only in certain political situations. The principle of ideological propaganda in the language of politics launches a mechanism of directed semantic-pragmatic modeling of the semantic content of language units at all levels of language (Фоменко, p. 103).

This means the actualization of some semantic nuances and the neutralization of others, the manifestation of fluctuations, shifts in the semantics of words, phrases, in the semantic meaning of the sentence and text. Language begins to adapt to the goals set by politics. As a result, words existing in the general vocabulary are actualized in the political and ideological context to formulate theories, positions, doctrines and become thematic or *political* lexicon (Опарина, p. 88). Thus, one of the examples of actualization of general literary vocabulary in the speech of a political leader as a special type of text is the use of *keywords*, *slogans*, which become so due to their semantic content and frequency of use: *That all changes – starting right here, and right now, because this moment is your moment: it belongs to you* (ПТИР, URL).

The key word here is the lexeme *changes*. Continuing the theme of a new life under the new government, the word “*change*” sounds in the slogan. The glossary gives the following explanation of this lexical unit: 1. to become different; 2. to stop doing one thing and to start doing something else; 3. to put or use something new or different in place of something else (LD, p. 244). Such a semantic set does not have any connotative coloring. Nevertheless, the implementation of the lexical unit “*change*” in the context of the slogan contributes to the creation of a connotative layer, which gives the emotionality inherent in the electoral discourse and a positive assessment.

*Keywords* and *slogans* are interrelated. They are the most important elements and typological characteristics of any political speech, the leading role of which is to influence the recipient. Their features include, firstly, brevity, simplicity, and at the same time a certain semantic ambiguity. It makes it possible to use these words often in different situations and contexts. Secondly, it is their emotional charge and evaluative polarization, which contributes to the separation of groups “us/them” (Шевченко, p. 34). In our opinion, slogans and keywords should, as soon as possible, provoke in the addressee the expected reaction i.e. association. The success of a politician’s speech is due to the simplicity of the

expression of the complex whole, which is greatly facilitated by the use of keywords and slogans.

L.O. Romanchuk, agreeing with M.O. Didenko's opinion argues that keywords can be divided into three groups: common, program and narrow (Романчук, p. 122). **Common** are, as a rule, **slogan words**, which are used without exception by all politicians in all kinds of speeches of a political leader. They include political affective words, classifiers, which provoke a certain reaction of the addressee and represent, as a rule, **abstract concepts** (ibid, p. 123). They always have a positive assessment and immunity against criticism: *Their victories have not been your victories; their triumphs have not been your triumphs...*(ПТІР, URL).

**Program keywords** express the main positions of the action program of a certain party and when used frequently in a certain context become **slogans**: *At the center of this movement is a crucial conviction: that a nation exists to serve its citizens* (ПТІР, URL).

**Narrow thematic keywords** are devoted to the main topic for a particular political speech. With frequent use in certain contexts, they can also go into the category of *slogan words*: *But for too many of our citizens, a different reality exists: Mothers and children trapped in poverty in our inner cities...* (ПТІР, URL).

It should be noted that words that denote political groups and individual politicians are similar to keywords and have a direct connection with them. Politicians divide society into "us" and "them", linking this division with evaluation. Such words are more widely used in party and pre-election speeches, the purpose of which is to campaign for one's own group.

Since the United States is inhabited by people of different nations and religions, a symbol was needed that would give them a sense of unity, integrity, and belonging to one nation (Шевченко, p. 35). Such a **symbol** is the **Bible** and its eternal truths, and **God** is the guardian of the nation. We can include in the biblical theme expressions that are not directly traced in the Bible, but contextually they

fully correspond to it: *There should be no fear – we are protected, and we will always be protected. We will be protected by the great men and women of our military and law enforcement and, most importantly, we are protected by God* (ПТИР, URL).

A reference should be made to the inaugural speech of US politicians that is characterized by the use of vocabulary that defines the traditional ideological values and national mental characteristics of American society. Universal and state values are considered in these speeches (Четайкина, p. 79). Every newly elected president must inspire in his people hope for a better future and faith in the success of his work as a state leader. The Bible is such an inexhaustible source of faith and hope for Americans: *The Bible tells us, “how good and pleasant it is when God’s people live together in unity”* (ПТИР, URL). In the fragment we can observe the functioning of the **biblical allusion**.

Thus, the use of **biblicalisms** in the speeches of American president makes it possible to see the importance of Scripture for the American people (Опарина, p. 89). The Bible still serves as a precedent text for today’s speakers. They use biblicalisms of various levels (from individual lexemes to whole sentences) for pragmatic purposes.

A characteristic feature of Donald Trump’s rhetoric that distinguishes him from most American politicians is his demonstrative disregard for the rule of political correctness. The active use of **politically incorrect vocabulary** is often combined in his speeches with what can be called a ‘figure of fictitious silence’: the speaker intentionally, with the use of evaluative and expressive words and phrases, says about opponents what they allegedly seeks to hide. As a result, appear phrases like: *I was going to say dummy Bush; I won’t say it, I won’t say it* (TPC, URL).

In addition, many **slang words** and **vernacular** or grammatically abnormal expressions are used, that create the effect of an informal, friendly style of communication (Корецкая, p. 354): *dopey* “stoned”, “narcotic”; *I’m for it, okay; ...and you watch* (TPP, URL).



Researchers also pay attention to Donald Trump's frequent use of the *inversion* technique. This syntactic device not only enhances the expression of the utterance, but also directly connects its structure with thinking and emotions (Порческу, Рублева, p. 61). Violation of the usual word order focuses the attention of listeners on those fragments of the utterance that are regarded by the speaker as of paramount importance in terms of semantic significance: *Americans... who want and expect our government to serve the people, and serve the people it will* (TPP, URL).

Finally, Donald Trump's rhetoric is distinguished by certain *phono-stylistic* features. The words used by him in public speeches are overwhelmingly monosyllabic and two-syllable. Only a few of them contain three or four syllables (Корецкая, p. 346). This, combined with additional intonation means, such as slowing down the tempo, a high descending tone creates an abrupt and dynamic rhythm of speech, making it understandable for a listener with any level of education.

The researchers note that the linguistic and stylistic means used by Donald Trump allow to achieve the main goals i.e. to form his own positive speech portrait with a critical attitude towards the previous administration as well as to gain the approval of the mass audience. At the same time, the simplicity and accessibility of his presentation make a political leader's speech understandable for an ordinary American. At one time, these features of Donald Trump's public speeches provided him with votes.

### **3.2.2. Boris Johnson's linguistic portrait**

Let us try to identify and systematize linguistic means in political discourse using the example of a public speech by a British state leader. The tasks of the work include determining the features of their functioning, as well as establishing the role of language techniques in the formation of the speech image or linguistic portrait of a British politician. For analysis, let us take the speech of British Prime

Minister Boris Johnson, who spoke on behalf of the UK at the General Assembly, dedicated his speech to the development of digital technologies (BJS, URL). The politician stressed both the outstanding advantages of innovative processes and the dangers hidden in their uncontrolled use.

Despite the fact that the speeches of leaders at such meetings have much in common, they somehow clearly manifest the individual characteristics of the speaker, which make it possible to characterize a senior official as a linguistic personality (Eysenck, p. 236). In addition to the substantive and relevant character, Boris Johnson's speech is of interest for linguistic and stylistic research, since it is replete with a variety of lexical and syntactic techniques, and continues the British tradition of public speaking.

The compositional structure of Boris Johnson's political speech can be divided into three parts: the introduction, the main part and the conclusion. In the introductory part, the speaker performs a contact-establishing function with the audience, seeking to interest and prepare for the perception of information. The British Prime Minister began his speech with a traditional greeting "*Mr President, Your Excellencies, Ladies and Gentlemen, faithful late night audience*" (BJS, URL), expressing special gratitude to those who had the patience to "sit out" late into the evening using the adjective 'faithful'. This appeal contains explicit information about what specific type of listener it is addressed to, the circle and category of addressees are defined. Boris Johnson went on to highlight the long-standing role of the United Kingdom in the UN as a nation advocating world peace: "*It is customary for the British Prime Minister to come to this United Nations and pledge to advance our values and defend our rules, the rules of a peaceful world*" (BJS, URL).

The use of the lexical unit *pledge* with the meaning *to formally promise to give or do smth.*, i.e. to provide something in a formal and official way, combined with the expressions *advance our values* and *defend our rules*, can be classified under the thematic group "defending the interests of our country" within the framework of political discourse. The named expressions appeared to be

*contextual synonyms*, which allows the speaker to arrange the text into a single semantic whole, develop the topic and provide additional information. The use of a kind of repetition of anadiplosis (pickup) *rules*, in which the end of one syntactic construction is doubled by repeating it at the beginning of an adjacent construction, acts in the function of underlining the meaning of thought.

The most important part in the structure of a public speech of a British political leader is the main part, which conveys key information, evaluates and suggests ways to solve the identified problems. The main part of the analyzed speech can be conditionally divided into two parts (Eysenck, p. 36): the depiction of the gloomy future with pejorative evaluative components and the sounding of specific steps to overcome it. Talking about the development of digital technologies, the British leader portrays an uncertain future that will inevitably affect everyone present at the General Assembly and from which it will be impossible to hide: *But no-one can ignore a gathering force that is reshaping the future of every member of this Assembly. There has been nothing like it in history* (BJS, URL).

The politician turns to the stylistic device of *hyperbole*, giving his personal assessment of the described phenomenon and expressing the opinion that history has not seen anything like it. A *gathering force* is an example of a *hyperbolic metaphor* based on the exaggeration of the importance of digital technology. The negative form of the phrase also enhances this effect. Although, according to the rules of the English language, there can be only one negation in a sentence, however, the presence of two adjacent negative sentences and the negative semantics of the verb ‘*ignore*’ make it possible to support an ambiguous prediction.

Using an *enumeration* technique, Boris Johnson emphasizes the pervasive nature of the Internet service, which it will be very difficult to hide anything from: *You may keep secrets from your friends, from your parents, your children, your doctor – even your personal trainer – but it takes real effort to conceal your*

*thoughts from Google. And if that is true today, in future there may be nowhere to hide* (BJS, URL).

In the given example, the connection between lexemes is carried out by anaphoric repetition of the preposition *from* and the pronoun *your*. The repetition gives the phrase a rhythmic character and unites into one whole enumeration of elements that characterize the universal values adopted in society, namely such spheres of life as family, friends, children and health care. Also, in the above passage, the author uses synonymous expressions *to keep secrets*, *to conceal your thoughts*, and *to hide*. Both sentences are presented in the form of opposition (antithesis), where in the first case the contrast is achieved through the use of the conjunction *but*, and in the second – in the form of the lexical opposition *today – future*.

The comparative technique can be seen in the following sentence: *As new technologies seem to race towards us from the far horizon we strain our eyes as they come, to make out whether they are for good or bad – friends or foes?* (BJS, URL) The comparison is expressed by the verb *to seem*, giving it a latent form. One of the semantic components of the meaning of the verb *to race* is *to move* or *go fast*; *to compete in a race* (Ирисханова, p. 89), i.e. ‘move’ or ‘walk fast’ is a seme of plurality. In other words, there are always several participants in a race. The use of the utterance *we strain our eyes* also allows Boris Johnson to evoke the image of a race in the field of technology in the audience and to ask the question in the form of a rhetorical opposition *good or bad – friends or foes*. The antithesis is built on the associative contiguity of the opposition *good* and *evil*, *good* and *bad*.

An allusion to the ancient Greek myth of Jason, the leader of the Argonauts who went to Colchis for the golden fleece on the ship “Argo”, is presented in the following example: *If only they had never invented the ship, then Jason would never have sailed to Colchis and all sorts of disasters would never have happened* (BJS, URL).

The use of the form of the Subjunctive mood allows the author to create the intended effect of influencing the addressee, namely, to convince that success and results can be achieved by taking risky actions. With such references to mythological themes, the British prime minister emphasizes humanity's fears of any kind of technological progress. Thus, direct reference to well-known literary plots allows the politician to evoke the necessary associations and the expected assessment of the events in the audience.

Having demonstrated in the first part of his speech the dual contradictory nature of modern technological capabilities, Boris Johnson, as an 'agent' of political discourse, creates the basis for further persuasion and proceeds to enumerate specific steps designed to form public opinion on certain international issues (Хафизова, p. 211). To this end, in the next part of his speech, the British Prime Minister actively uses the linguistic category of modality: *But we must be still more ambitious. We need to find the right balance between freedom and control; between innovation and regulation; between private enterprise and government oversight. And we must make our voices heard more loudly in the standards bodies that write the rules. Above all, we need to agree a common set of global principles to shape the norms and standards that will guide the development of emerging technology* (BJS, URL).

The implementation of the impact is carried out through the use of modal verbs *must* and *need*, expressing a call to action. The same syntactic structure of adjacent speech segments, parallelism, repetition of the preposition *between*, which introduces the opposition of contextual antonyms *freedom – control, innovation – regulation, private – government*, allow achieving the effect of expressiveness by emphasizing the semantic dissimilarity of the listed lexical units. The rhythm of speech arises, and against this background, semantic similarity and contrast are more clearly perceived.

It is worth noting such lexical features in the speech of the British Prime Minister as the use of not only the plural pronoun '*we*' (Хафизова, p. 212), i.e. expressions of opinion on behalf of the state, but also a number of cases when

Boris Johnson speaks on his own behalf, using the singular pronoun *'I'*, often accompanying it with *evaluative adverbs*: *I totally reject; I am profoundly optimistic; That is my point to you, my friends, my Excellencies; I invite you; I hope you will come there; I have no doubt that we can* (BJS, URL).

Boris Johnson's speech contains a number of remarks and statements in a humorous manner, contributing to the creation of a comic effect: *...London, a wonderful city, where by the way it is not raining 94 per cent of the time, and where at one stage – when I was Mayor of London – we discovered that we had more Michelin starred restaurants even than Paris. The French somehow rapidly recovered – by a process that I wasn't quite sure was entirely fair* (BJS, URL).

The Prime Minister uses comic elements in his speech (expressed in the form of denial and comparison) to add emotion and expressiveness to his speech, to maintain his political image and generate a positive reaction from the public. These examples are based on exposing the well-established stereotypes about Great Britain (that this country has a rainy climate) and France (a country of connoisseurs of culinary art and gourmet food) (Болдырев, p. 116). They allow to make the environment less formal and defuse the situation. The suddenness of the transition from official political speech to everyday speech enhances the comic effect of the statement.

So, characterizing the speech of British Prime Minister Boris Johnson, we can draw the following conclusions. The British politician resorts to a variety of techniques that affect the audience. Among the most frequent stylistic means in Boris Johnson's political rhetoric speeches are such expressive devices as comparison or simile, allusions to well-known mythological and literary motives, cases of hyperbole, lexical synonymy, paraphrase, metaphor, epithets, as well as means of creating a comic effect. All of them allow to express assessment and attitude to the designated phenomenon or event, increase the persuasiveness of the judgments made. They are aimed at retaining the attention of the audience and focusing on important points, enliven the speech and enhance the pragmatic effect of the statement. Among the syntactic stylistic devices, syntactic and lexical

repetitions, opposition (antithesis), anaphora, enumeration and rhetorical question prevail.

### **3.3. Comparative analysis of linguistic portraits of Jeremy Corbyn and Theresa May as British political figures**

Let us characterize the peculiarities of the speech behavior of British political leaders as communicants in a situation when they are delivering a prepared speech. For example, Theresa May's first speech after taking office as Prime Minister was delivered on July 13, 2016, in front of the official residence in Downing Street (TMFS, URL).

Theresa May's first speech gives the impression of being carefully rehearsed (Матвеева, p. 134): the pace is very slow, with accented pauses, the speaker often looks at the text of the speech. Besides, in moments of direct appeal to the viewer, the speaker's gaze is directed to the camera, which also creates the impression of rehearsed speech behavior. The lack of gesticulation indicates some stiffness of the speaker.

The focus on the inner subjective world, an exaggerated sense of one's own significance is also reflected in the choice of linguistic units. Theresa May's speech is characterized by the accentuated use of the first person personal pronoun: *I have just been to Buckingham Palace, where Her Majesty The Queen has asked me to form a new government, and I accepted* (TMFS, URL).

Unlike Theresa May, Jeremy Corbyn, in his victory speech at the end of the 2015 campaign that led to his election as leader of the Labor Party, practically does not refer to his notes. He maintains eye contact with the audience, his pace of speech is fast, and his manner are confident. Saying thanks to his party supporters and campaigners, Corbyn calls them by name and in some cases addresses them directly: *Tom, your man to do that; Ed, thank you for all of that* (JCLL, URL).

The British politician's speech is accompanied by active gestures, emphasizing the speaker's interest in the speech and the reaction to it. At the same time, the communicant is sensitive to the audience's reaction and reacts to it accurately.

Since speech activity is socially conditioned and dialogical in nature, the producer, creating a purposeful text, always thinks about how it will be perceived and what effect it will have on the recipient. In the process of dialogue, with direct communication, the producer has the opportunity to monitor the recipient's reaction and, if necessary, vary the strategies (Минаева, p. 397).

Let us consider the interaction of Theresa May with her political opponent Jeremy Corbyn in a situation of spontaneous verbal communication during a session of questions to the prime minister. During it the project of educational reform presented by the Prime Minister was discussed (Попова, p. 138). The essence of the proposed changes aimed at improving the quality of public secondary education is to attract universities to participate in school education by sponsoring existing or opening their own secondary schools; increasing the number of students at faith schools by removing restrictions on admission to students of other faiths; stimulating cooperation between public and private schools; expanding the activities of the so-called grammar schools (TMGM, URL).

The last item caused the most criticism. In particular, the Labor Party has expressed strong protest against the proposed reform, as evidenced by the speech of its leader during the session of questions to the Prime Minister devoted to this problem. Having received the floor, Jeremy Corbyn expresses formal gratitude to the speaker. Then he calls on his colleagues to pay tribute to the policeman who was wounded the day before. Only then he proceeds to discuss the topic of educational reform that interests him (ibid, p. 139). He recalls Theresa May's inaugural speech on unity, ironically noting that she achieved unprecedented unity among teachers, officials and former education ministers from all factions opposed to her project. Then he asks to name the experts who approve of her project.



Theresa May joins in condolences to the policeman and recalls her own experience as the Minister of Internal Affairs. Moving on to the issue of reforming the education system, she repeats the words of her keynote speech almost word for word (TMGM, URL). The question about the expert is ignored which her opponent Corbyn did not fail to notice.

Further, Jeremy Corbyn cites the words of a teacher dissatisfied with the reform project, and gives statistics confirming the ineffectiveness of elite schools in Kent compared to mainstream schools in London in relation to the performance of children from poor families. Then he asks why such a system should be supported. Theresa May's answer is not related to Jeremy Corbyn's question. She advises to stop looking into the past, *quotes* her keynote speech again and finally declares: *The Right hon. Gentleman believes in equality of outcome, I believe in equality of opportunity; You believe in leveling down, we believe in leveling up* (TMGM, URL).

Theresa May then goes personal, reminding Corbyn that he himself went to an elite school, just like she (referring to personal experience). Thanks to this they both ended up in their place, and her supporters are more happy about this than his adherents (again getting personal). There was no direct answer to the question about the future of primary school students (avoiding the answer) (Попова, p. 139). Asked by J. Corbyn whether the government puts pressure on the existing elite schools to accept more children, Theresa May replies: *The Right hon. Gentleman is right that what we are looking at and consulting on is a diversity in provision in education* (JCLL, URL).

Analyzing the types of argumentation used by communicants, one can notice significant differences in the choice of persuasion strategies. Jeremy Corbyn relies on external sources of information, his speech is replete with *quotes*: *May I quote one expert at her? His name is John and he is a teacher; The Secretary of State for Education suggested on Monday that grammar schools may be required to set up feeder schools in poorer areas; Let me quote to her a critic of grammar schools; Not my words, but those of former Right hon. Member for Witney* (JCLL, URL)

Jeremy Corbyn also requires her opponent to provide a link to the expert opinion: *I wonder if it is possible for her... to name any educational experts who back her proposals* (JCLL, URL).

He draws the attention of those present to the fact that the Prime Minister does not provide such information or avoids answering the directly posed question: *Sadly, she wasn't able to [name any experts]; I notice she didn't answer my question about feeder primary schools; I am sorry the Prime Minister was unable to help anyone in Kent or Buckinghamshire in the answer to my question* (JCLL, URL).

In general, we can conclude that Corbyn treats his opponent's lines more carefully than May does. So, in response to the Prime Minister's clearly prepared accusatory phrase, Corbyn replies, quoting his opponent: Theresa May: *The Right hon. Gentleman believes in equality of outcome, I believe in equality of opportunity* (JCLL, URL). – Jeremy Corbyn: *Equality of opportunity is not segregating children at the age of 11* (JCLL, URL).

In the same way, Jeremy Corbyn intends to use May's metaphor against her. Let us demonstrate it on the following example:

T. May: *Members of the Labour Party will take the advantages of a good education for themselves and pull up the ladder behind them for other people* (JCLL, URL).

J. Corbyn: *: It's not about pulling up ladders, it's about providing a ladder for every child* (JCLL, URL).

Statistics and numbers are another line of reasoning that Corbyn uses: *The problem is there are now almost a million of them on zero-hours contracts who do not know what they are going to be paid from one week to another In Kent, which has a grammar school system, 27 % of pupils on free school meals get good GCSEs compared with 45 % in London* (JCLL, URL).

Theresa May's answers also contain some figures. But, if J. Corbyn cites statistics related to factual information about the percentage of students who

successfully pass exams in regions with a predominance of one type of educational system or another, then the Prime Minister assesses the attendance of students in “good and excellent schools” and the number of students in schools that are “bad, non-standard, or needing improvement”: *We will ensure that we are able to provide good school places for the 1.25 million children in schools that are failing, inadequate or that need improvement; We have seen 1.4 million more children in good or outstanding schools* (JCLL, URL).

Unlike Jeremy Corbyn, who seeks outside confirmation of his rightness, Theresa May’s personality tends, as we have already noted, to refer to her own experience as argumentation: *One of the events that I used to look forward to going to every year as Home Secretary was the Police Bravery Awards* (PMQ, URL).

Theresa May’s speech contains many repetitions: the wording of a phrase that seems to her to be successful is repeated verbatim: *We will ensure that we are able to provide good school places for the 1.25 million children that are in schools that are failing or inadequate... It is an opportunity for young people to go where their talents will take them; We are setting up a more diverse education system that provides more opportunities... I want to ensure that children have the ability to go where their talents take them* (TMGM, URL).

Thus, we can conclude that a characteristic feature of Corbyn’s speech behavior as a political leader is argumentation based on facts from external sources (expert opinions and statistics). While the speech behavior of the politician Theresa May is dominated by argumentation based on personal subjective experience. In addition, repetitions abound in her speech and persuasion strategies are rigid.

### **Conclusions to Chapter Three**

1. When analyzing the public speeches of American and British political leaders, it is necessary to focus on important points that in a situation of lack of time can play a key role in describing their linguistic portrait. Firstly, a true political leader, preparing a speech, thinks about his or her listeners, touching on the most

important topics for the public in a logical order. He or she takes into account factors of social context: demographic, social and psychological characteristics of the audience. Secondly, in political speech, a candidate often tries to discredit his opponent in a covert way. He can subtly remind the public of the scandalous exposure of his opponent. Thirdly, to raise as many positive issues as possible while avoiding negative ones is the goal of any politician. Fourth, most politicians create images or linguistic portraits of pragmatists, so they avoid humor. However, there are professionals who make their careers in comedy. Fifth, political leaders emphasize special stamps, slogans that are easy to remember and can further help shape the desired image of the candidate. Finally, a characteristic feature of populist speech is reductionism, ie the desire for simplification in speeches, texts, reality, the division of all processes, actors into bad and good.

2. Based on the study and presentation of examples of speech portraits of contemporary British and American politicians such as Queen Elizabeth II, Theresa May, Boris Johnson, Jeremy Corbyn, Donald Trump and Barack Obama, it can be concluded that it is very important, not only in linguistics, but also in life, to be able to compose a speech or linguistic portrait not only of politicians, but also of other linguistic personalities in general. Analysis and examples make it clear that this topic is really relevant. Without speech, people could not form the image of linguistic personalities.

3. With regard to the importance of compiling a linguistic portrait of modern politicians, examples of speech portraits of these representatives from politics show that it is important to focus on what the politician says, how he speaks and what main idea he carries, since he or she deals with important issues in a given country and is responsible for this. Moreover, today the speech portrait of a modern politician plays an important role in political communication and the world arena, since political figures are representatives of the country's speech culture.

## GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

Discourse in the broadest sense is a speech flow, language in its constant movement, which absorbs all the diversity of the historical epoch, individual and social features of communicators and the communicative situation in which communication takes place. The peculiarities of the text as the highest communicative unit are its integrity and coherence.

In linguistics, each of the main elements of the structure of discourse can be defined as follows: the subject of discourse; the object of discourse; coherent verbal oral statements and written texts; situational context; contact between subject and object; code and purpose or goal. In this regard, the typology of discourses is carried out according to the subject of discourse, the participation of the object of discourse in verbal communicative activity, coherent verbal oral statements and written texts, the situational context, the contact between the subject and the object, as well as according to the code. So, discourses can be divided into English-language discourse, German-language discourse, etc. Besides discourses can be classified according to the purpose of communication and the purpose of transmitting information.

Non-verbal means of communication (smile, look, facial expressions, gestures, intonation), which often accompany verbal speech in discourse, have three times stronger influence than words. So one should try to make as much effort as possible to master this difficult art of interpreting certain signs. Nonverbal speech plays an important role in the communication process, it affects its success. Carrying much of the information, they can facilitate, hinder or even prevent its flow. Thus, it is promising to describe the nominative units and categories of extralinguistics, prosody, kinesics, proxemics and appearance, which form the core of nonverbal communication. They can be considered as a linguistic source of information about nonverbal discourse. Analysis of all nonverbal communication systems shows that they undoubtedly play a significant supporting (and sometimes independent) role in the communicative process. Having the ability not only to

strengthen or weaken the verbal influence, all systems of nonverbal communication help to identify the intentions of its participants.

There are three main areas in which the language personality is studied. Attention is shown to the construction and analysis of a collective linguistic portrait. In addition, work is underway to describe the speech of individuals, that is, to create individual linguistic portraits. Besides, on the basis of the communicative activity of speech participants, particular features of the language have been investigated: phenomena and processes in dynamics.

In their political speeches, US Presidents B. Obama and D. Trump prefer to use the personal pronoun of the first person plural 'we' and the possessive pronouns 'our/ours' to identify with the American people to achieve a perlocutionary effect. Political suggestion can occur directly, i.e. by persuasion, call to action by creating a certain emotional state, mood or background. Thus, it can be argued that at the lexical and grammatical level, it is personal and possessive pronouns that are markers of the personal and collective in the linguistic portrait of the American political leader. In the speeches of American presidents, the collective dominates over the personal which is manifested at the lexical-semantic, morphological and syntactic levels. The President, acting as a representative of the institution of power, voices the interests of his country, people and government. The desire and ability of politicians to unite themselves and the audience is realized through grammatical constructions, as well as stylistic figures and tropes.

The linguistic portrait of political leaders has its own semantic, pragmatic features that affect the degree of certainty of its units in a given situation. The semantic factors of uncertainty of politicians' speech units include: abstractness and breadth of meanings of lexical units and relativity of definition of abstract units. Politicians often neglect the clarifying definitions required by lexical units with abstract meanings. Thus, the uncertainty of units of political discourse is caused by semantic and pragmatic factors.

In the political speeches by Barack Obama and Donald Trump, stylistic means of speech are expressive, because they have an emotional and evaluative effect. The main stylistic and syntactic linguistic means and methods of creating expressiveness of the linguistic portrait of American leaders include: repetition, enumeration, emphatic constructions, parenthetical sentences, inversion, parallelism, anaphora, antitheses and rhetorical questions. Commonly used lexical and semantic stylistic means of expressiveness include: euphemisms, phraseologisms, metaphors, hyperboles, as well as amplifiers and fillers.

Political discourse is a special kind of institutional discourse, the main purpose of which is the conquest and retention of power. Analysis of the political discourse and speech behavior of the linguistic personality of a politician allows us to single out the linguistic means on which political strategies and tactics are based.

In their political speeches, US political leaders Barack Obama and Donald Trump prefer to use the personal pronoun of the first person plural 'we' and the possessive pronouns 'our / ours' to identify with the American people to provoke the audience to socio-political reaction. At the lexical and grammatical level, personal and possessive pronouns have become markers of the personal and the collective in the presidential speech. The President, acting as a representative of the institution of power, voices the interests of his country, people and government. He speaks not on his own behalf, but on behalf of the whole state, and therefore it is quite clear that the personal becomes secondary for him. Thus, the desire of a political leader to unite himself and the audience is realized in political speeches through grammatical constructions, as well as stylistic figures and tropes.

In the political speeches of Barack Obama and Donald Trump, which reflect the linguistic portrait of these political leaders, the stylistic means of speech are expressive because they have an emotional and evaluative effect. Often, even stylistically neutral linguistic means can acquire expressive meaning. Thus, the main stylistic and syntactic linguistic means and methods of creating expression in the language of politicians should include: repetition, enumeration, emphatic

constructions, parenthetical sentences, inversion, parallelism, anaphora and rhetorical questions. Commonly used lexical and semantic stylistic means of expression include: alliteration, euphemisms, phraseologisms, metaphors, hyperboles, antitheses, as well as amplifiers and placeholders.

Summarizing the above, we can conclude that the speech portrait of Queen Elizabeth II is a special type of linguistic portrait as an image of an institution of power, which includes a personal image, that is, the image of a monarch. The Queen's speech is a special form of the so-called *Queen's English*, used by representatives of the upper class and differs from other forms of English by phonetic characteristics. The most important value in the behavior of the British Queen is her awareness of her mission as the guardian of the British monarchical tradition. Through public appeals from the Queen, a positive image of the monarch is maintained in the minds of the British.

In the communicative behavior of the Queen patriotism, a sense of duty, loyalty to tradition, observance of the rules of royal etiquette are manifested. The attitude towards the Queen in the English individual consciousness is in most cases positive. The Queen's ability to represent Great Britain in the international arena is highly appreciated. Such negatively marked characteristics of the Queen's behavior as snobbery, lack of a sense of humor, coldness are criticized. At present, a positive image of the reigning Queen Elizabeth II has been formed in the collective linguistic consciousness of the British with the help of verbal and non-verbal means. It should be noted the importance of public opinion, which is an invaluable source of information about the image of the English monarchy.

Boris Johnson's speech is quite dynamic both in content and in the manner of presentation. The speech is not overloaded with political vocabulary, although it touches upon the actual challenges of our time. The stylistic and expressive means used by Boris Johnson characterize him as a distinctive, competent politician enjoying authority in the world community, and at the same time make his speech memorable, original and convincing.



Observing the verbal and non-verbal behavior of British political leaders in various situations of socially oriented communication makes it possible, firstly, to characterize the politician's temperament, as well as the level of his emotional stability. Secondly, it makes it possible to identify a certain correlation between the type of personality and preferred verbal strategies in a prepared and unprepared speech. When considering and preparing an argument, Theresa May is inclined to choose strategies that would have the greatest impact on her, first of all, turning to her own experience.

Communication with unfamiliar people is associated for her with a high level of stress. Verbal strategies are characterized by rigidity: Theresa May is difficult to reformulate the statement, she often resorts to repetitions, she sometimes gives an answer that does not correspond to the question. Theresa May is inattentive to her partner's reactions and avoids answering a direct question. Besides, in response to criticism, she gets personal. Corbyn, on the contrary, is sensitive to the opponent's remarks and is able to successfully turn them in his favor. When preparing the argument, the British politician does not rely on his own experience, but resorts to external sources of information.

## RÉSUMÉ

Магістерську роботу присвячено дослідженню мовного портрету лідера в сучасному англомовному дискурсі.

Шляхом вивчення мовних характеристик сучасного політичного дискурсу можна виявити значущі комунікативні властивості і, таким чином, визначити основні характеристики мовного портрета політичного лідера. У лінгвістиці представлені різні підходи та різне розуміння того, що таке «мовний портрет». В.Н. Базилев говорить про різнобічності мовного портрета, який розкриває зв'язок між менталітетом як способом мислення, мовою і формами поведінки людини (Базылев, с. 6). С.В. Леорда визначає мовний портрет як «втілену в мовленні мовну особистість певної соціальної спільності», а складання мовного портрета розглядається нею як приватний напрямок дослідження мовної особистості (Леорда, с. 99). Тут слід розділити такі поняття, як «мовна особистість» і «мовний портрет мовної особистості». Існує безліч трактувань цих термінів, які можуть перетинатися між собою.

Огляд наукової літератури з досліджуваного питання, а саме: особливості мовного портрету лідера в сучасному англомовному дискурсі (Л.О. Кауфова, О.О. Калашнікова, Е.О. Дрьоміна, Е.О. Бабушкіна, П.С. Акініна, Ю.С. Алишева та ін.) дає можливість стверджувати, що в сучасному мовознавстві даній проблемі приділено недостатньо уваги.

**Актуальність** роботи визначається загальною спрямованістю сучасних лінгвістичних досліджень на виявлення особливостей мовного портрету лідера в сучасному англомовному дискурсі на матеріалі публічних виступів британських та американських політичних лідерів.

**Метою** дослідження є вивчення особливостей мовного портрету лідера в сучасному англомовному політичному дискурсі.

Для досягнення мети ставилися такі **завдання**:

- визначити теоретичні засади вивчення поняття «дискурс» у лінгвістиці;

- охарактеризувати типологію дискурсів;
- дослідити вербальні і невербальні аспекти дискурсу;
- виокремити поняття «мовна особистість» і «мовний портрет»;
- розглянути підходи до вивчення мовного портрету сучасного політичного лідера;
- охарактеризувати прагматичні, комунікативні, стилістичні, лексичні та граматичні засоби вираження мовного портрету політичного лідера;
- проаналізувати мовні портрети американських і британських політичних лідерів у компаративному аспекті.

**Об'єктом** дослідження є англomовний політичний дискурс.

**Предметом** дослідження є особливості мовного портрету лідера в сучасному англomовному дискурсі.

**Матеріалом** дослідження послужили політичні промови американських політичних лідерів Барака Обама та Дональда Трампа, а також британських політичних лідерів королеви Єлизавети II, Терези Мей, Бориса Джонсона та Джеремі Корбіна.

**Методи** дослідження зумовлені метою, завданнями та проаналізованим матеріалом: *зіставний* метод, що полягає у співвіднесенні лексичних, граматичних, стилістичних та комунікативно-прагматичних мовних рівнів характеристики мовного портрету британських і американських політиків у текстах політичного дискурсу; *контекстуально-інтерпретаційний*, що полягає у з'ясуванні специфіки значення слів та словосполучень у текстах виступів політичних лідерів; *описовий*, за допомогою якого було обґрунтовано використання певного типу мовних засобів, зокрема виражальних.

**Наукова новизна** дослідження полягає в тому, що у ньому комплексно розглядаються особливості мовного портрету лідера в сучасному англomовному дискурсі. Проводиться дослідження конкретних особливостей текстових фрагментів політичних промов американських та британських політичних діячів у порівняльному аспекті.

**Практичне значення** дослідження магістерської роботи полягає в тому, що зібраний та проаналізований матеріал може бути використаний на лекціях з мовознавства, перекладознавства, стилістики, лексикології англійської мови та компаративістики. Запропоноване дослідження має не тільки науково-пізнавальний характер: його результати можуть бути корисними для філологів та перекладачів, які прагнуть удосконалювати свій професійний рівень.

Логіка дослідження зумовила **структуру** магістерської роботи, яка складається зі вступу, трьох розділів, висновків до кожного розділу, загальних висновків, списку використаної літератури, списку довідкової літератури, списку джерел ілюстративного матеріалу, додатків, резюме.

У **вступі** обґрунтовано актуальність теми роботи, визначено об'єкт і предмет дослідження, сформульовано його мету та завдання, охарактеризовано джерела добору ілюстративного матеріалу та дослідницькі методи, наукову новизну, розкрито практичну цінність дослідження.

У **першому розділі** визначено теоретичні засади вивчення поняття «дискурс» у лінгвістиці; охарактеризовано типологію дискурсів; досліджено вербальні і невербальні аспекти дискурсу та виокремлено поняття «мовна особистість» і «мовний портрет».

У **другому розділі** розглянуто підходи до вивчення мовного портрету сучасного політичного лідера; охарактеризовано прагматичні, комунікативні, стилістичні, лексичні та граматичні засоби вираження мовного портрету політичного лідера.

У **третьому розділі** проаналізувано мовні портрети американських і британських політичних лідерів у компаративному аспекті.

У **висновках** коротко викладено основні результати дослідження.

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