**MINISTRY OF THE HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIALISED EDUCATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN**

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**SHAMIRZAYEVA ZARIFA KHUDOYOROVNA**

**The devices of linguistic features in modern political discourse (on the examples of English and Uzbek languages)**

**5A111401 – Foreign language and literature (English)**

**DISSERTATION**

**For being awarded with the academic master’s degree**

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| **Scientific advisor:**  **PhD, assoc. professor, G.N. Tukhlieva** |

**Chirchik – 2021**

**O'ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI**

**OLIY VA O'RTA MAXSUS TA`LIM VAZIRLIGI**

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**SHAMIRZAYEVA ZARIFA XUDOYOROVNA**

**Zamonaviy siyosiy diskursning lingvistik xususiyatlarining tuzilishi (ingliz va o`zbek tillari misolida)**

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**Magistr**

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**DISSERTATSIYA**

**Ilmiy maslahatchi: f.f.n.,dotsent, G.N.Tuxliyeva**

**Chirchiq - 2021**

**MINISTRY OF THE HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIALISED EDUCATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN**

**TASHKENT REGION CHIRCHIK STATE PEDAGOGICAL INSTITUTE**

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| **Faculty:** | Master’s Department | **Master’s Student:** | Shamirzayeva Z |
| **Department:** | Faculty of Humanities | **Scientific advisor:** | Tukhlieva G. |
| **Year:** | 2019-2021 | **Specialty:** | 5A111401 |

**ANNOTATION OF MASTER’S DISSERTATION**

**Topicality of the research:** The study of politics allows students to feel the relationship between political, economic, cultural and social events. The study of politics expands students` knowledge of various political concepts and terms, such as sovereignty, state, political obligation, and the relationship between the individual and the political system. The emergence of new research in the field of political linguistics, the appeal of researchers to new aspects of the study of political language - all this requires a comprehensive understanding of the history of this scientific direction, its current state, its laws.

**Objectives and tasks of the research:** to examine and expose implicit terms in the language of politics to detect examples of linguistic features that impose moral or ethical values on people. According to the objectives set up the following **tasks**:

**-** to investigate different views of scientists on political linguistics.

-to study linguistic features of political words through different methods

-to analyze and explore the terms of politics in English and Uzbek languages

-to identify linguistic aspects in modern political speech.

-to explore contemporary neologisms

**Research methodology and techniques:** Descriptive, etymological, interpretative, socio-cultural, statistical methods.

**Theoretical and practical value**: The results of the work can be applied for writing scientific articles, qualification papers and course works. Some results might be used for the lectures on political science and political debates.

**The structure of the dissertation:** It consists of introduction, three chapters, conclusion, resume and the list of used literature.

**The results obtained:** Scholars' different views on political linguistics have been studied, the linguistic features of political words have been studied in different ways, political terms have been analyzed according to the rhetorical and cognitive features, and new terms, such as political neologisms, have been studied.

**General summary and recommendations:** Understanding political language, a term often used in the political field, helps students better understand how structures that contribute to the improvement of political ideology and the political system work. The research will be useful not only to explain to students the meaning of terms and neologisms that are difficult to understand in political language, but also to give an objective assessment.

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Scientific advisor: G.N.Tukhlieva

Master`s student: Z.Kh.Shamirzayeva

**O`ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI OLIY VA O`RTA MAXSUS TA`LIM VAZIRLIGI**

**TOSHKENT VILOYATI CHIRCHIQ DAVLAT PEDAGOGIKA INSTITUTI**

**Fakultet:** Magistratura bo`limi **Magistrant:** Shamirzayeva Z

**Kafedra:** Xorijiy tillar **Ilmiy rahbar:** Tuxliyeva G

**O`quv yili:** 2019-2021 **Mutaxasssiligi**: 5A111401-Xorijiy til va adabiyoti

(ingliz)

**MAGISTRLIK DISSERTATSIYASI ANNOTATSIYASI**

**Mavzuning dolzarbligi:** Siyosatni o`rganish talabalarga siyosiy, iqtisodiy, madaniy va ijtimoiy hodisalar o`rtasidagi munosabatlarni sezishga imkon beradi. Siyosatni o`rganish talabalarning suverenitet, davlat, siyosiy majburiyat va shaxs bilan siyosiy tizim o`rtasidagi munosabatlar kabi turli siyosiy tushunchalar va atamalar haqidagi bilimlarini kengaytiradi. Siyosiy lingvistika sohasida yangi tadqiqotlarning paydo bo`lishi, tadqiqotchilarning siyosiy tilni o`rganishning yangi jihatlariga murojaat qilishi-bularning barchasi ushbu ilmiy yo`nalish tarixi, uning hozirgi holati, qonuniyatlarini har tomonlama tushunishni talab qiladi.

**Tadqiqot ishining maqsadi va vazifalari:** Siyosiy tildagi yashirin atamalarni o`rganish va ochib berish, odamlarga axloqiy qadriyatlarni yuklaydigan lingvistik xususiyatlarni aniqlash. Shu maqsadga muvofiq quyidagi vazifalar belgilandi:

- olimlarning siyosiy tilshunoslik haqida turli qarashlarini o'rganish.

-siyosiy so'zlarning lingvistik xususiyatlarini turli usullar bilan o'rganish

- siyosat terminlarni ingliz va o'zbek tillarida tahlil qilish va o'rganish

- zamonaviy siyosiy nutqning lingvistik jihatlarni aniqlash.

- zamonaviy neologizmlarni o'rganish

**Tadqiqot uslubiyati va uslublari:** Ushbu tadqiqot ishida tavsiflovchi, etimologik, tarjima, statistik, ijtimoiy-madaniy usullardan foydalanilgan.

**Tadqiqot natijalarining amaliy ahamiyati va tadbiqi:** Ish natijalari ilmiy maqolalar, bitiruv malakaviy ishlari va kurs ishlarini yozish uchun qo`llanilishi mumkin. Ba`zi natijalardan siyosiy fanlar, siyosiy munozaralar va mutaxasssiligi boshqa bo`lgan sohalarda ma`ruzalar va seminarlar uchun foydalanish mumkin.

**Ish tuzilishi va tarkibi**: Mazkur dissertatsiya kirish, 3 bob, xulosalar, rezyume va foydalanilgan adabiyotlar ro`yxatidan iborat.

**Bajarilgan ishning asosiy natijalari.** Olimlarning siyosiy lingvistika haqidagi turli qarashlari o`rganildi, siyosiy so`zlarning lingvistik xususiyatlari turli usullar bilan o`rganildi, siyosiy atamalar ritorikal va kognitiv yondashuvlariga ko`ra tahlil qilindi va yangi siyosiy sohaga tegishli bo`lgan neologizmlar o`rganildi.

**Xulosa va takliflarning qisqacha umumlashtirilgan ifodasi.** Siyosiy tilni, siyosiy sohada ko`p qo`llaniladigan atamalarni tushunish talabalarga siyosiy mafkurani va siyosiy tizimni takomillashtirishga xissa qo`shadigan tuzilmalar qanday ishlashini yaxshiroq tushunishga yordam beradi. Tadqiqot talabalarga siyosiy tilda tushunilishi qiyin bo`lgan atamalarning, neologizmlarning ma`nosini tushuntiribgina qolmay balki holis baho berish uchun ham foydali bo`ladi.

Ilmiy rahbar: G.N.Tuxliyeva

Magistratura talabasi: Z.X.Shamirzayeva

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**INTRODUCTION**

Political linguistics is the study of the relations between language and politics. Language is used as a means to form a state and is enacted in various ways that help achieve political objectives. Language allows for people in a very large number to communicate with each other in a large scope to the effect that a state is formed.[[1]](#footnote-1) As language forms the basis of communication, politics is thus affected by language. There are strong relationships between political linguistics, [social linguistics](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_linguistics), and [media linguistics](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Media_linguistics).

Political linguistics is the study of language as a tool of persuasion in politics, especially speeches and campaigns. It examines the effects of slogans, mass media, debates, and propaganda. The study of political linguistics is important for undergraduates and postgraduates, as it will contribute to a better understanding, analysis and production (including in the process of translation into other languages) of relevant texts. At the same time, the study of political linguistics will help to better understand the political processes taking place in the modern world, learn to see the true meaning of the speeches of political leaders and the ways they use to manipulate public consciousness. Today, the problems of the relationship between language and power, language and ideology, the role of myth in political communication and linguistic manipulation proper are attracting the attention of an increasing number of linguists. The rhetoric of political discourse correlates with overcoming of its negative features such as ideological pretentiousness and monopoly, aggressiveness, dictatorship, pragmatism, and propensity towards conflict. The intensive development of political technologies, the increasing role of the mass media, and the increasing theatrialization of political activity contribute to increasing public attention to the theory and practice of political communication. Politicians have a language of their own too. Studying politics will enhance students` understanding of various political concepts and terms such as sovereignty, state, political obligation, and the relationship between the individual and the political system.

This is possible because a good understanding of politics among students will empower them, thereby enhancing their political consciousness and participation. The key to the success of the speech manipulator lies in the ability to play with words – look for neologisms, metaphors, metonomies allusions, logos and pathos. The study of politics involves the study of a system that is interconnected with social, economic, and cultural structures.

**Topicality of the research.** The study of political linguistics is particularly useful when analyzing international negotiations. International negotiations are complex events with many factors where language and culture barriers often occur. Translators run into difficulties ensuring that nuances and details are not lost in the translation process. At the moment, political linguistics, which emerged at the intersection of political science and linguistics, belongs to the actively developing areas of linguistics. Nominations for new research areas traditionally appear late. Before a certain name can be assigned to the established direction, the field of research must formulate its subject and try out new methodological approaches. The phrase "political linguistics" appeared in the late 80s of the last century, but the actual origins of this trend should be seen earlier, when a steady methodological interest in the study of political communication, rhetoric, and semiotics began to form a separate area of scientific research[[2]](#footnote-2).

Understanding political language in accordance with rhetorical and cognitive approaches will help students to better understand political ideology and how structures work so as to contribute to improving a political system. The study enhances an awareness of values in politics by communicating to students ideologies of various political systems such as democratic system. The information gained will be useful in making value judgements about a particular political system so as to either accept or reject it. Thus political studies enable students to comprehend various forms of government and hence make informed choices with knowledge of the purpose and functioning of each.

**The object of this research** is to analyze and explore the terms of politics in English and Uzbek

**The subject of this research** is to identify linguistic aspects in modern political speech

**The aim of the research** is to examine and expose implicit terms in the language of politics and to detect examples of linguistic features that impose moral or ethical values on people.

**The tasks of the research:**

**-** to investigate different views of scientists on political linguistics.

-to study linguistic features of political words through different methods

-to analyze and explore the terms of politics in English and Uzbek languages

-to identify linguistic aspects in modern political speech.

-to explore contemporary neologisms

**The scientific novelty of the research.** In this regard, the number of publications devoted to political linguistics is rapidly growing in Russia and abroad. The emergence of new and new research in the field of political linguistics, the researchers ' appeal to new and new aspects of the study of political language-all this requires a comprehensive understanding of the history of this scientific direction, its current state, the laws of evolution and interaction with other scientific directions.

According to the research, the interest in political linguistics has already begun, but has not been fully studied. For that we intended to study the linguistic features of political language in a broad sphere and to find unexplored peculiarities of political language, to search political terms in accordance with cognitive and rhetorical approaches, to investigate contemporary political neologisms.

**The problems and hypothesis of the study** are revealed in the following published articles.

1. “Язык современный политики” // “Экономика и Социум”// 2020
2. “The importance of learning political study” // IJERD// 2020
3. “The rhetorical devices of political discourse”// Journal of Academic Research// 2020
4. “Analyzing political language toward cognitive approach”//Journal of Academic Research in Educational Sciences//. 2020

**The degree of investigation of the research.** Initiallythe emergence and formation of political linguistics was defined by Walter Lippmann, Paul Lazarsfeld, Harold, then by E.V. Bakumova, A.N.Baranov, E.V.Budayev, V.I.Karasik, O.L.Mikhaleva, T.A.Svetonosova, A.P.Chudinov, E.I.Sheygal, A.A.Filinsky, T.A.Van Dake, N.Ferklow, R.Vodak and etc. are known with their researches in political linguistics department, uzbek political terminology were investigated by H.Dadaboyev , Hamidov X., Azzamova N, rhetoric and cognitive aspects of political linguistics studied by Lakoff G, Beer K,Chilton A.

**The methods used in the research.** Descriptive, etymological, interpretative, statistical, socio-cultural methods were used.

**The theoretical significance of the research** is connected with the theoretical and historical aspects of linguistic divergences, specificity of evolution of political speeches and terms, definition of theoretical aspects of political languages and its development.

**The practical significance of the research** is analyzing and exploring political language with some specific features. The results of the work can be applied for writing scientific articles, qualification papers and course works. Some results might be used for the lectures on political science and political debates.

**The structure of the dissertation** consists of Introduction, three chapters, conclusions on each chapters, General conclusion, Resume in Uzbek and the list of used literature.

**The first chapter** of this research is devoted to the review of theoretical aspects and its actualization. This section examines the Genesis of modern political linguistics, describes the history of political language as a field, and offers an example of a practical study of political ideology.

**The second chapter** is devoted to the methodology which analyze pecularities of that language through rhetorical and cognitive approaches.

**The third chapter** reflects analyzing and classifying contemporary political neologisms.

**CHAPTER I. GENESIS OF DIFFERENT SCIENTIFIC VIEWS IN THE POLITICAL DISCOURSE**

* 1. **Formation of the modern political linguistics**

Political interaction as a communicative sphere, the main topic and the driving motive of which is the struggle for power, became the focus of Russian scientific interest mainly in the mid-1980s, when the coexistence of political elites ceased to be purely ritualistic and acquired the shape of one of the ways of functioning of society. Today, the problems of the relationship between language and power, language and ideology, the role of myth in political communication and linguistic manipulation proper are attracting the attention of an increasing number of linguists. This is largely due to the fact that politics (as opposed to other areas of human activity) is inherently discursive and political actions are, as a rule, speech actions. Attempts of scientists to give a correct definition of the concept of "political discourse" have led to the emergence of many definitions: this is "the totality of all speech acts used in political discussions, as well as the rules of public politicians illuminated by tradition and proven experience[[3]](#footnote-3) "

1. Research of political communication within the framework of traditional rhetoric and stylistics. Initially (that is, even before the emergence of political linguistics as a special scientific field), publications on the problems of political communication were perceived as a kind of stylistic or rhetorical research. The corresponding publications were mostly "prescription", praising or critical (discrediting) in nature[[4]](#footnote-4).

In publications of the first type, the authors they tried to show their readers how to achieve success in public speaking or other public speech activities, including in the political sphere. Among the most striking examples of publications of a prescription nature are the works of Dale Carnegie and Paul Soper, which reviewed a variety of specific presentations and publications, as well as offered fairly effective recommendations. In such publications, the metaphor was presented as a very useful "decoration" of speech, the skillful use of which can bring a significant pragmatic effect.

The second type of publication focused on a detailed description of the advantages and, to a lesser extent, disadvantages in the speech activities of specific political figures. Have been extensively studied on a variety of aspects the rhetorical skill of political leaders. The reasons for the persuasiveness of presidential speeches were sought in phonetic and rhythmic features, wit, sincerity, openness, simplicity, imagery, and other qualities of speech. In the works of critical orientation, the main focus has traditionally been on "exposing" the unscrupulous tricks of political opponents, as well as their tongue-tied, lack of education and speech negligence. A significant number of critical publications were devoted to the "spoilage" of the native language, among the reasons for which some political reasons were usually mentioned events, as well as the General decline in morals, loss of spiritual foundations and respect for national traditions[[5]](#footnote-5).

2. The Emergence and formation of political linguistics (the twenties and fifties of the twentieth century). The history of the origin and formation of any scientific discipline is inextricably linked with the history of society, and political linguistics is no exception. In a series of events of the XX century, the starting point for the formation of political linguistics was the First world war, which led to unprecedented human losses and a radical change in the worldview of mankind. In new conditions the need to study political communication and its relationship with socio-political processes became more and more obvious.

After the experience of unprecedented propaganda confrontation between warring countries, knowledge about the mechanisms of manipulating public opinion becomes highly scientific and humanitarian value. Therefore, it is not surprising that after the war, the attention of researchers of the language of politics was directed to the study of ways to form public opinion, the effectiveness of political agitation and military propaganda. The most significant works of this period are related to activities of Walter Lippmann, Paul Lazarsfeld, Harold.

During the First world war, Lasswell, W. Lippmann wrote propaganda leaflets for the allied army in France, after the war he studied propaganda and agitation issues, and served as an adviser to twelve US presidents. Modern

political linguistics uses the concept of "agenda setting process" proposed by

W. Lippmann, i.e. highlighting some issues in political communication and silencing others. Thus, the scientist he distinguished the real relevance of a particular problem and its "importance" in the perception of society. Also, W. Lippmann holds the primacy in the use of content analysis as a method for studying public perceptions of the political picture of the world. In particular, in 1920. W. Lippmann published a study of the corpus of texts of the newspaper " The New York Times", which were dedicated to the October revolution One thousand nine hundred seventeen As W. Lippmann showed, it was impossible for the average American to form any objective opinion about what was happening in the world of events due to the anti-Bolshevik bias of the analyzed texts.

Another significant precursor to political linguistics was Paul Lazarsfeld, who was active in the study of propaganda at Columbia University. In 1937, he led a research project on the impact of broadcasting information on American audiences. Subsequently, this project resulted in the creation of the "Bureau of applied social research" – the only University-based research Institute at that time that dealt with political issues and mass communication.

Together with his colleague R. Merton, P.Lazarsfeld developed a focus group survey method1 that was used to collect data on the attitude of ordinary Americans to government radio calls to plant "victory gardens"2 or purchase war loan bonds. It is noteworthy that these government programs were developed and analyzed both by P. Lazarsfeld and other researchers (including Harold Lasswell). P. Lazarsfeld holds the primacy in the application of content analysis to the study of the dependence of the electoral behavior from election campaigning in the media. His most famous research was conducted in Erie County(Ohio).

As the science of linguistics developed and expanded its scope of research. The study of terms has become one of its most important and integral parts. Nowadays, the study of terms is a separate branch of linguistics -formed the terminology. But it is also worth noting that in the process terms from English to Russian, from Russian to Uzbek, without place, artificially with new constructions or Arabic and Persian-Tajik words replacement cases are also observed. For example (appendix 1)

During the six months leading up to the 1940 presidential election, P. La zarsfeld and his colleagues conducted a survey of a focus group of 600 people in order to determine the effectiveness of the propaganda impact of political media texts on American citizens. to the researchers ' surprise, only 54 participants in the experiment changed their preferences in favor of another presidential candidate in six months, and even fewer respondents did so under the direct influence of newspapers, magazines and radio broadcasts. This experiment led to doubts about the hitherto taken for granted position about the total nature of the impact Media on the voter. Subsequently, P. Lazarsfeld and other researchers developed a model of two-level communication, according to which in any society there are susceptible to influence political propaganda "opinion leaders", which distribute political information through interpersonal communication channels.

The method of P. Lazarsfeld received significant distribution and is used up to the present time. Although the researchers pointed to an underestimation of the propaganda role of the media, the development of P. Lazarsfeld initiated interest in the study of additional factors of communication impact on the voter. Among the forerunners of modern political linguistics also Harold Lasswell, who is the significant development of the content analysis methodology and its effective application to the study of the language of politics is credited. Using content analysis, Lasswell was able to demonstrate the relationship between the style of political language and the political regime in which this language is used.

According to the researcher, the discourse of democratic politicians is very close to the discourse of the voters they address, while non-democratic elites strive for superiority and distance from ordinary members of society, which is inevitably reflected in stylistic features the political language of power. Language innovations precede social transformations, so changes in the style of political language serve as an indicator of the approaching democratization of society or the crisis of democracy. The research potential of quantitative semantics methods demonstrated by G. Lasswell has become widespread.

So, in the 40s of the XX century, G. Lasswell, N. Leites, P.Jacobson and other researchers identified various interdependencies between the semantics of language units and political processes based on the analysis of Soviet slogans, language of the international, texts of fascist propaganda. During this period, there is an additional impulse to understand the role of language in politics, associated with the practice of totalitarianism and a new, even more destructive world war. Considering this stage of development of political linguistics, historians of science name, in addition to communication specialists, the English writer George Orwell and the German literary critic Victor Klemperer, who turned to a critical study of totalitarian discourse. The first of them wrote in 1948 a dystopian novel "1984",which described the principle of" doublethink " (doublethink) and Newspeak dictionary, that is, specific examples were used to describe ways of speech manipulation of human consciousness in order to gain and retain political power in a totalitarian state.

George Orwell clearly showed how language can be used to make a person believe a lie and consider it to be the true truth, and how the oxymoronic slogans "War is peace", "Freedom is slavery" and "Ignorance is power"can be used as the basis of state ideology[[6]](#footnote-6).

The prophetic gift of J. Orwell is constantly noted by modern experts on political propaganda: sometimes it seems that it is according to the recipes of "Newspeak" that the Soviet troops in Afghanistan decided to call a limited contingent, and this war itself – international assistance. Similar techniques were used by American leaders, who called their military actions against Yugoslavia and Iraq "the struggle to establish democracy[[7]](#footnote-7).

The German philologist Victor Klemperer described in detail the "Newspeak" for which he had misfortune to observe 12 years. His book " LTI. Notizbuch eines Philologen» «LTI. The philologist's notebook" was dedicated to the communicative practice of German fascism, and the letters " LTI "in its name denote "the Language of the Third Empire". It should be noted that the practice of the Nazi "Newspeak" turned out to be much more diverse and sophisticated than the theory created by George Orwell.

For example, it turned out that it is not necessary to prohibit a particular expression- just put it in quotation marks. For example, Heine's "German poet" is no longer a German at all and not quite a poet; respectively writing" outstanding scientist " Einstein allows you to question the genius of an outstanding physicist. Many others were put at the service of the ideas of fascism in Hitler's Germany language tools: Viktor Klemperer describes in particular detail the symbolism and metaphor of fascist propaganda, as well as the practice of banning "objectionable" words and concepts while promoting "new" words and ideas.

In the writings of H. Dadaboyev in the XI-XI U centuries Turkic languages socio-political and socio-economic terminology[[8]](#footnote-8). Socio-political and socio-political analysis of the Uzbek language, including Turkic languages the emergence of economic terminology and the problems of language use are

comprehensive studied. In particular, the country in the languages of the Turkic peoples in Central Asia, yurt,ulus,baliq (in the sense of "city"), yasaq (in the sense of "law"),ordu,qazi,og`riliq,jaza,yug`rush(vazir manosida).

Later there was a description of the Communist Newspeak and language resistance to it in Poland, East Germany, and the Czech Republic, Russia and other States of the "socialist camp"that existed in the second half of the last century. These studies have revealed many comparable facts and patterns. However, there were also signs of national totalitarian discourses: for example, in the Soviet political discourse, political definitions were very significant, radically transforming the meaning and emotional coloring of the word.

So, in Soviet Newspeak, Bourgeois humanism or Abstract humanism is not humanity at all, but a negatively evaluated manifestation of weakness, insufficient cruelty towards political opponents, representatives of the" exploiting classes" and simply doubters. On the other hand, as a Socialist humanism could be violent actions "against class-alien elements" are presented, especially if these actions were perceived as useful "for the working people" in their "class struggle".

Research on the communicative practice of totalitarian regimes continues to this day. Experts have identified the characteristic features of totalitarian discourse, which, as a rule, is characterized by the centralization of propaganda, claims to absolute truth, ideologization of all aspects of life, slogans and addiction to spells. Among signs of totalitarianism are also distinguished by the ritualism of political communication, the prevalence of the monologue of "leaders" over dialogical forms of communication, propaganda triumphalism, sharp differentiation of one's own and others ', propaganda of simple and at the same time extremely effective ways to solve problems.

3. Political linguistics of the sixties-eighties of the XX century. At the next stage of development of political linguistics, foreign experts focused on the study of communication practices in modern Western democracies. These studies have shown, that in the conditions of" freedom " language manipulation of consciousness is constantly used, but this is a more sophisticated manipulation[[9]](#footnote-9).

New political conditions have led to changes in the methods of communication influence, but politics is always a struggle for power, and in this struggle, the winner is usually the one who is better at using communication weapons, who is able to create in the mind of the addressee the necessary picture of the world for the manipulator. For example, an experienced politician will not call for a reduction in social programs for the poor, he will only talk about" tax cuts". However, it is well known what funds are usually used to Finance assistance to low-income citizens. Skilled the expert will offer to fight for social justice, for "reducing the gap between rich and poor", and not every voter will immediately understand that this is a call for raising direct or indirect taxes, and not only millionaires have to pay them.

Similarly, an experienced politician will not talk about reducing aid to the poor, but about the importance of reducing taxes, but it is easy to assume which budget items will suffer after the reduction in tax revenues. Such facts are widely discussed in critical theory The Frankfurt school, whose representatives: T. Adorno, G. Marcuse, M. Horkheimer began to study the forms of totalitarianism, anti-democracy, and nationalist chauvinism after the end of world war II. Similar materials are also presented in many publications of English-speaking authors.

It is quite natural that during the cold war era, the militaristic discourse attracted special attention of linguists. Against the background of "balancing between war and peace", understanding how politicians convince ordinary citizens of the need to use a nuclear bomb gets a humanistic meaning. By analogy with" Newspeak " by J. Orwell (newspeak) in the conceptual Arsenal linguists use the term "nukespeak" (Chilton1982), i.e. "nuclear language", which is used by politicians to justify the possible use of a nuclear bomb, to disguise and obscure the catastrophic consequences of such a scenario.

On the other hand, metaphorical images played an important role in the development of the political situation, emphasizing the danger of the consequences of an atomic disaster ("nuclear winter", "atomic Apocalypse", "warmongers",etc.). it is not Surprising that the awareness of the urgency of the tasks facing by researchers of political communication, it becomes a significant factor in the development of political linguistics.

An important place in the political linguistics of the period under review is occupied by the French school of discourse analysis (J. Dubois, J.-J. Curtin, M. pesche, M. Foucault, etc.). as P. Serio shows, this school arose "as an attempt to eliminate the shortcomings of content analysis used at that time in the Humanities, especially in the field of United States". According to French scientists, American content analysis "involves ordering the surface variety of texts, thereby opening up the possibility of their comparison and calculation".

Accordingly, the task of the researcher is to generalize various ways of expressing similar content and statistical analysis of the results obtained. This analysis is perceived by French experts as "a set of secondary techniques". The theoretical basis for the French school of discourse analysis was the ideas of psychoanalysis, Marxism, and structural linguistics.

As Patrick Serio writes in Michel's theory of discourse Pesce, dominated by three names, "United under the joking name "Triple consent": - Karl Marx, Sigmund Freud and Ferdinand de Saussure.

The subject of research in the French school of discourse analysis is not a single text, but a set of texts, taking into account their historical, social and intellectual orientation, taking into account their interrelationships with other texts, and taking into account the institutional framework that imposes significant restrictions on acts of utterance. This takes into account not only the content of the text, but also the author's intentions, not only what is said, but also what is not said.

Whenever possible, also map the contents of the text interdiscoursal of the author (other statements on the relevant issue) and interdiscourse (statements by others on the relevant issue).

So, in the sixties and eighties of the last century, the research of political vocabulary, theory and practice of political argumentation, political communication in historical perspective, political metaphors and symbols became widespread. The researchers ' attention was drawn to the issues of the functioning of political language in the situation of election campaigns, parliamentary and presidential debates, in party discourse, etc. The scientific apparatus is becoming more and more subtle the study of political communication is increasingly taken into account when studying the discursive significance of certain statements, texts, or text bodies. Already in this period, the study of political communication develops into a relatively independent direction of linguistic research. In the 70s and 80s, textbooks on political communication and methods of its analysis were regularly published abroad.

4. The Current stage of development of political linguistics. Foreign research on political communication is particularly active in the late twentieth and early twenty-FIRST centuries.

The following features of the current stage of development of political linguistics can be distinguished.

1) there is a "globalization"[[10]](#footnote-10) of political linguistics. If previously, relevant scientific research was usually conducted in Europe or North America, but in recent years, such publications are increasingly appearing in various countries in Asia, Africa, Latin America and Oceania (the corresponding review is presented in the final section of this publication). After the fall of the iron curtain, specialists from post-Soviet States began to increasingly master methodologies, techniques, heuristics, and topics that were previously inaccessible to them for political reasons.

2) Political linguistics, the first stage of development of which it was characterized by a predominant attention to totalitarian discourse, and the second-to the political discourse of Western democracies, increasingly addresses fundamentally new problems of the modern multipolar world. The scope of scientific interests of the new science is expanded by including new aspects of the interaction of language, power and society (the discourse of terrorism, the discourse of the "new world order", political correctness, social tolerance, social communication in traditional society,fundamentalist discourse, etc.).

3) at the present stage of development of science, it is becoming more and more it is clear that political linguistics, which was previously United only by research material (political communication, the "language of power"), is becoming an independent scientific field with its own traditions and methods, with its own authorities and scientific schools. During this period, the name of the discipline (political linguistics, Politolinguistik) is widely spread and recognized, special scientific conferences are held, and numerous collections of research on relevant topics are published. Political linguistics actively incorporates the heuristics of discourse analysis and cognitive methodology, A more detailed overview of the leading areas of modern political linguistics, its areas of interest and aspects of the study of political discourse is presented in the following sections.

**1.2 Scientific views of political linguistics**

Depending on the tasks set and the available text material, experts choose one or another aspect of the study of political communication. Let's consider the main contrasts that are revealed in the analysis of specific publications.

1. Research of linguistic, textual or discursive phenomena.

In the first case, the subject of attention is the use of units related to a particular language level (vocabulary, phraseology, morphology, syntax). The most noticeable changes are in vocabulary and phraseology. Every new turn in the historical development of the state, it leads to a linguistic" restructuring", creates its own lexical and phraselogical thesaurus, which also includes conceptual metaphors and symbols.

In the second case, the subject of research is text units: with this approach, specialists study the genre features of political texts, their composition, means of communication between parts, text means of accentuating meanings, etc. A significant number of publications are devoted to the study of specific genres and styles of political language. Linguists study specifics of parliamentary debates, features of rally speech, the language of mass media. Linguopolitano studies devoted to the analysis of graffiti, slogans, the election controversy and political scandal. Special attention is paid to the genres of protest, support, rational-analytical and analytical-statistical genres, humorous genres, and virtually oriented low genres.

In the third case, the units of research are communication strategies, tactics, and roles. In this direction, the communicative behavior of subjects is analyzed political activity. Modern political leaders often use a kind of "speech mask"when trying to succeed with voters. Speech behavior largely depends on the social and communicative role of the politician, which in turn depends on his social status, on the strategies, tactics and speech techniques used. According to a fair observation of E. Sheigal, "The specifics of the policy, in contrast to some other spheres of human activity, is its predominantly discursive nature: many political actions are by nature speech actions[[11]](#footnote-11).

2.Research of modern political language –historical study of political language.

Special research shows that the vast majority of research on political metaphors is based on the material of modern discourse. At the same time, there are publications that deal with metaphors that are characteristic of other political periods. This perspective allows us to get answers to questions about the dynamics of metaphorical systems and to trace how the system of political

metaphors evolves in connection with the change in the context of political situation.

In the most General form, a researcher of political metaphor in a historical perspective may encounter two complementary properties of the system of political metaphors: archetypality and variability.

The first property is expressed in the fact that the system of political metaphors has a stable core, does not change over time and is reproduced in political communication for many centuries. The static nature of political metaphor served as the basis for the first experiments on the theory of political metaphors in the 20th century, but it is often the property was absolutized in the spirit of cultural-temporal universalism.

According to this view, political metaphors remain unchanged in Ancient Greece, medieval Europe, and any country in the modern world, reflecting stable determinants of human consciousness or archetypes of the collective unconscious. As practical research accumulated, it became apparent that political metaphor has diachronic variation.

In 1977, M. Osborne, the founder of the theory of unchanging archetypal metaphors, published a paper in which M. Osborne came to the conclusion that, despite the fact that archetypal metaphors are used in all cultures and at all times, the development of culture, science and technology can affect their frequency.

Thus, A. N. Baranov and E. G. Kazakevich do not question the independence of the role of political language in the communication system: "Political language is a special sign system designed specifically for political communication: to develop public consensus, to make and justify political and socio-political decisions[[12]](#footnote-12).

After studying 56 political speeches of the 19th and 20th centuries, he found that technological progress can reduce the prevalence of archetypal metaphors. For example, in the XX century, the number of metaphorical images associated with water sharply decreased, while in the XIX century river and ocean metaphors were very common. The archetypal nature of political metaphor has received a formalized character in the theory of conceptual metaphor, according to these mechanisms of metaphorization are unconscious and are determined by the physical experience of human interaction with the surrounding world. Thus, an important basis for metaphorical universalism was the anatomical and physiological community of representatives of homo sapiens, which to some extent determines the patterns of thinking.

At the same time, critics of the theory of conceptual metaphor often forget that, according to the theory of J. Lakoff and M. Johnson's conceptual metaphors are consistent with the main concepts of a particular culture,[[13]](#footnote-13) which in principle not only overcomes the shortcomings of the cultural niversalism, but also does not exclude diachronic variability of political metaphor.

Indeed, many metaphors are recorded by researchers in different cultures and at different times. For example, metaphors of diseases have long been used in different countries to represent someone Else's health-threatening social organism. For example, in the age of the Queen Elizabeth I and king James I were very common metaphors of the disease of England, and the causes of these diseases society saw in "foreign bodies": Jews, witches, Catholics. Similar metaphors they are also found hundreds of years later in the rhetoric of Adolf Hitler, and in modern political discourse, in which metaphors of illness

are a significant means of understanding reality and discrediting political opponents in many countries. Of course, the scope of the target for mob of metaphors varies in different epochs.

If in the era of Queen Elizabeth, Catholics could be metaphorically represented as the causes of diseases, then before the reform of Henry IV or during the reign of Mary the Bloody, it is unlikely, but the argumentative potential of the source sphere is actively used in different countries.

Another example is the anti-immigrant discourse in the USA. As shown by the American researcher J. O'brien, in the early XX century, images of natural elements, military invasion, animals, hard-to-digest food were used to understand immigration, that is, metaphors that are regularly recorded by American researchers in modern political communication.

At the same time, the metaphorical system of public representations of political reality undergoes changes over time. This variation in the system of political metaphors has two viewing angles: - correlations between changes in the political situation and the number of metaphors in political discourse; - the dominance of individual metaphors and metaphorical models in different historical periods.

The starting point for research in the first direction was the work of K. de Landtsheer published in 1991, which used content analysis methods to prove that there is an interdependence between the frequency of metaphors and social crises. Having studied the Dutch political discourse for the period 1831-1981, K. de Landtsheer it was shown that the number of metaphors increases during periods of socio-political crises. These observations served as confirmation that metaphor is an important means of solving a problem situation, and subsequently formed the basis of the combinatorial theory of crisis communication. In another study, K. de Landsheer and D. Vertessen compared the metaphor of the Belgian pre-election discourse with the metaphor of the discourse in the periods between elections, and found that the number of metaphors increases during the pre-election period.

The second direction in the study of the variability of political metaphorics is determined by the fact that the scientist is not interested in the degree of metaphoricity of political discourse, but in specific conceptual spheres, the dominant metaphors of a particular era, and their dynamics in connection with changes in the political situation.

For example, the political metaphor "the State is an organism" is one of the oldest metaphors of mankind[[14]](#footnote-14). The deployment of the anthropomorphic metaphorical model is already found in ancient sacred texts. The Rigveda describes that the priesthood came from the mouth the proto-man, the warriors from his hands, the shepherds from his thighs, the farmers from his feet.

3. Study of General patterns of political activity communication-learning the idiosyncrasies of various political leaders, political trends, and parties.

Publications devoted to the idiolects of leading political leaders are of considerable interest. Linguists refer to the "speech portraits" of leading politicians in comparison with the political portraits of Russian political leaders of previous eras[[15]](#footnote-15). Experts also seek to characterize the role of ideal style in shaping the charismatic perception of a politician, refer to the speech characteristics of specific political leaders. Research should be divided into a separate group, devoted to the relationship of political position and speech means of its expression. In particular, it was found that political extremists both right and left are more likely to use metaphorical images. It is easy to notice the increased aggressiveness of the speech of a number of modern politicians who adhere to nationalist views. Prospects for the study of the conceptual metaphor in the idiolects of politicians were outlined as early as 1980 by J. Lakoff and M. Johnson, who considered the military metaphor of the American President, J. Johnson. Sump's.

Within the framework of research in this area, attempts to find practical confirmation of how metaphors in the speech of a politician affect the mass consciousness and encourage the adoption of certain political decisions deserve attention.

Political linguistics as modern science of language is characterized by multidiscipline (different science methodologies usage), anthropocentrism (a person, lingual identity is a base point for research of lingual conditions) and interrelation with political science, philosophy (axiology), sociology, culturology, psychology, knowledge engineering. Formation of political linguistics as independent department of science of language has begun in the 20 th century but its impetuous development in the end of last century.

E.V. Bakumova, A.N.Baranov, E.V.Budayev, V.I.Karasik, O.L.Mikhaleva, T.A.Svetonosova, A.P.Chudinov, E.I.Sheygal, A.A.Filinsky, T.A.Van Dake, N.Ferklow, R.Vodak and etc. are known with their researches in political linguistics department.

Political linguistics is an independent scientific discipline possessed object and subject of research, interdisciplinary connections, directions of research.

The dominant purpose of political linguistics is a study of various connections between language, thinking, communication, entities of political activities and political condition of society and also strategies and tactics of political activities.

Research of works was highlight close links with linguistics directions such as axiological linguistics, pragmalinguistics, psycholinguistics, cognitive linguistics, sociological linguistics, functional linguistics, rhetoric, text linguistics in a political linguistics direction.

The most important directions of political linguistics are researches of shared problems of political communication, study of political media-discourse and categories of political discourse, separate political concepts, research of communicative strategies, tactics, procedures of political discourse, political discourse’s role structure study.

The complement of comprehensive study has been political discourse by the way of: 1) primary needs of linguistic theory adverted to real facts of language system functioning; 2) designation of political discourse’s analysis methods necessity for showing up different tendencies in socio-political consciousness sphere; 3) the problems of political science in a political thinking study, its connection with political behavior[[16]](#footnote-16).

Famous linguist A.N.Baranov calls the subject of political linguistics as a political discourse, which is a commonality of discourse practices identified participants of political discourse or formed concrete theme of political communication.

Another magisterial researcher in a political communication field A.P.Chudinov calls more extensional term as a subject of political linguistics – political communication representing speech, focused on propaganda of some or other ideas, emotional impact on citizens of the country and motivate them to definite policy decisions.

Political communication in its turn has own research subjects: political language, political discourse and political narrative[[17]](#footnote-17).

Political language is defined as the special semiotic system being used in a political communication with the aim-formulation of social consensus, political decisions making and foundation in society amid of various points of view[[18]](#footnote-18).

There are two approaches of political discourse research: narrow and extended. A.N.Baranov and E.G.Kazakevich under political discourse term mean “totality of all speech acts in political discussions use and rules of public politics were lightened by traditions and proved by time.” The extended approach was conceived by E.I.Sheygal including “not only institutional but also non-intrusive forms of communications in which one of three constituents belongs to: subject, addressee or content of message”[[19]](#footnote-19).

Political narrative is whole of political texts by A.P.Chudinov, concentrating around definite political event.

A lot of research works about suggestiveness and complexity of the “discourse” term were written. Developing of discourse concepts does not alone in linguistics but in political science, philosophy, psychology, history, literary studies and etc.

Since research paradigm in study of language has been changed to the anthropo-centralism the term “text” has been inadequate for imaging of all variety constituent of event’s communicative practice.

Native and foreign linguists define the “texts” in different ways but all don’t concur that the “discourse” is more volume term than “text”. For example, I.P.Susov defines “discourse” as “connected sequences of speech acts. Delivered comment from speaker to listener (or propositional sequences) becomes the text when it is fixed on writing (or using recorder).In this way the text is as “informative track” of accomplished discourse”[[20]](#footnote-20).

T.Van Dake delimits exactly the “text” and “discourse” conceptions, defining “discourse” as articulated topical text and “text” as abstract grammatical structure of articulated speech[[21]](#footnote-21).

The most widespread dichotomies in linguistics approaches to text’s and discourse’s differentiations are presented in a E.I.Sheygal’s monography “Significs of political discourse” :

*1.* *Category of discourse defines to linguo-social sphere when the text to linguistic* (N.D.Arutyunova, A.K.Mikhalskaya, E.Benvenist, G. Brown, G. Cook, G. Kress, G. Yule) In this approach the text is regarded as verbal image (“oral record”) of communicative event when the discourse as “the text in eventive aspect”, “the speech wrapped up in a life”, “function of the language in an alive relationship” [[22]](#footnote-22). Taken as a whole approach is expressed by the formula “discourse = text + context (linguistic and extralinguistic)”.

2. Discourse and text are contradistinguished as a process and result (O.V.Alexandrova, M.K.Bisimaliyeva, M.Ya.Dymarskiy, E.S.Kubryakova, G.Brown, G.Kress, G.Yule). In the given approach the discourse is functional, processual event, which connect with real speech production and the text is considered as a product of speech production, which has the definite completed and fixed form.

*3. The discourse and the text are opposed in actuality and virtuality* (V.Ya.Dymarsky, V.P.Koneckaya, T.A.van Dake, D.Schiffrin). Supporters of this approach are considered the discourse as real speech event, current speech activity in the given sphere, connected text created in the text. The text hasn’t definite connection with real time but presents as abstractive mental construct which realizes in discourse.

4. Opposition “oral<->written” (V.V.Bogdanov, Z.Turayeva, M.Coulthard, M.Hoey). In the given approach the discourse associates only with sounding oral speech but the text with written form. We are in sympathy with E.I.Sheygal in a view that this approach is limited and successful continuation the given approach gets by V.V.Bogdanov who thinks that the terms “speech” and “text” are hyponyms with regard to “discourse” hyponym. The speech is spontaneous, non-normative, elliptical sound substance characterized with interlocutory while the text prepared, normative, fully-fledged, monologic or interlocutory, is distinguished from the speech by graphical representation of language material [[23]](#footnote-23). Discourse in this way includes all parameters relating to the speech and the text that correlates with discourse’s concept is presented by E.I.Sheygal.

Professor U.A.Dubrovsky considers four avowed parameters of the text: integrity, coherence, visibility and irreducibility. Integrity is understood as unity of text’s architectonics interosculant it in the form of story. Coherence presupposes impossibility of text components’ interchange. Mostly visibility and irreducibility are considered in connection with values of literary texts including exposition, beginning of the action, the development of the action, culmination, outcome, conclusion and epilogue [[24]](#footnote-24). Discourse doesn’t restrict to so in gathering parameters and is more volumetric and multilevel term.

The ratio of the terms "discourse", "text", "speech" is built as follows: the text and the speech are result of such difficult communicative phenomenon as a discourse.

Such types of a discourse as a scientific, pedagogical, religious, medical, legal, art, poetic, political discourse are investigated in modern linguistics.

A.A. Filinsky defines "a political discourse" as speech activity of political subjects within their institutional communication [[25]](#footnote-25).

The main function of a political discourse as E.I. Sheygal and A.P. Chudinov consider, is fight for the political power by using of communicative activity, that is the political discourse is used as the tool of the political power.

4. Research of institutional, media and other types of political discourse.

When selecting text materials (corpus) for research in political linguistics, there are two polar approaches – narrow and broad. In the first case, only texts directly created by politicians and used in political communication are used as research sources. Such texts are among the institutional ones and have very significant specifics. A broad approach to the selection of sources for the study of political communication uses not only texts created by politicians themselves, but also other texts devoted to political issues. As P. Serio notes, there is no statement "in which one cannot fail to see cultural conditionality and which cannot thereby be associated with the characteristics, interests, and values inherent in a certain society or a certain social group that recognizes them as its own. In any statement, you can discover power relations . However, it is important to keep in mind that the content of the message is often implicitly related to the policy area.

**Conclusion on the 1st chapter**

Generally speaking, the first chapter of this work reflect to the investigation of the formation of political linguistics as a science and views of political scientists. Summing up the review, it should be emphasized that the variety of aspects of the study of political communication reflects the interest that is shown in political speech, and the variety of material, areas of analysis and positions that are characteristic of modern political linguistics. According to A. N. Baranov, political discourse includes all speech acts of political discussions and the rules of public politics, having specific conventions. The importance of political discourse lies in the fact that well-maintained political communication provides for reaching consensus in the society. This implies that a politician should aspire making decisions from which the society would benefit greatly. The main aim of political discourse is to make the recipients believe in the necessity of politically correct actions or evaluations. So, it is not to describe but to persuade, so that the recipient would have some intentions, beliefs and need for certain actions. When it comes to discussing the effectiveness of political discourse, the researchers would analyse it in accordance with the main aim of political discourse. It is obvious that talking about the effectiveness of political discourse it is impossible to avoid one of the most important elements of political speech, i.e. persuasiveness. A politician should be capable of finding the best way to address his audience taking into consideration their opinions, beliefs and so on. In accordance with E. V. Budaev and A. P. Chudinov, we suggest that there are several sources through which we can comprehend political discourse and language. The main source of political language that the audience touches upon is mass media, including newspapers, radio, television and the Internet). There is also a source of political institutional discourse comprising leaflets, parliamentary debates, public speech, published documents, etc. Political discourse is considered specific since it possesses a number of peculiar features or characteristics. In their speech, politicians use particular terms and notions, which means that their vocabulary is professional, at the same time common words and phrases when used in political context might possess a different meaning opposed to their usual one. The structure of political discourse is also specific, as it is comprised of particular speech strategies typical of political discourse. The researchers also note that discourse possesses an outstanding spoken and written form, i.e. pauses and intonation. They say that politician’s speech contains twice as many meaningful pauses as other people’s, and these pauses tend to be longer which makes it possible to compare this type of speech with theatrical performances. As it was mentioned in the introduction to this paper, discourse as a whole and political discourse in particular is subject to multidisciplinary research and there is a variety of approaches towards it. In this paper, we suggest that there are at least three perspectives worth discussing. First, political discourse can be viewed from the point of view of physiology as any other text, however, in this case an academic would also regard the context and ideologies. And the last perspective is one concerning the analysis of personal rationales or intentions and/or the addressee’s as well within certain context. The abovementioned suggests that studying political discourse is indeed interconnected with a number of fields of study and aims at analyzing forms, intentions and content of the discourse used in certain context. In addition, another peculiarity of political discourse is its oratory character including declamations, propaganda, triumphant style, ideologies, abstract notions, references to science and logic, criticisms, bumper-sticker rhetoric, and claims of undeniable truth. All these features make political speech sound theatrical and aggressive. The intention of politicians in this case would be to discard their opponents and impose their ideas and beliefs upon the audience.

**CHAPTER II. USING OF POLITICAL LINGUISTICS IN METHODOLOGY**

**2.1 Rhetorical direction in political language**

A rhetorical device is a linguistic tool that employs a particular type of sentence structure, sound, or pattern of meaning in order to evoke a particular reaction from an audience. Each rhetorical device is a distinct tool that can be used to construct an argument or make an existing argument more compelling.  Any time you try to inform, [persuade](https://www.thoughtco.com/elaboration-likelihood-model-4686036), or argue with someone, you’re engaging in rhetoric. If you’ve ever had an emotional reaction to a speech or changed your mind about an issue after hearing a skilled debater's rebuttal, you've experienced the power of rhetoric. By developing a basic knowledge of rhetorical devices, you can improve your ability to process and convey information while also strengthening your persuasive skills. Political rhetoric is essentially classical rhetoric applied to a modern political situation. The basics of rhetoric — logos, [pathos](https://www.wisegeek.com/what-is-pathos.htm), and ethos — all apply to contemporary political discussion, and specific rhetorical devices are employed to increase the effect. For example, politicians frequently make use of anaphora, which is a form of repetition whereby consecutive sentences begin with the same word or phrase. Politicians also use other techniques in political rhetoric, such as confusion, diversion, association, omission, and composition. These techniques are all employed in speeches and public statements to win the favor of the listening audience.

Hitler also speaks of his oratorical technique as soon as the Nazi party was fully formed and acquired its army bodyguards - or bouncers - to deal with the screamers and kick them out of the room[[26]](#footnote-26).

According to him memories, he kept filling his speech with provocative remarks, when uttered, his bouncers became in flight formation, swinging his fists in the direction of anyone who would dare to answer these provocative remarks. The effectiveness of Hitlerism is the effectiveness of one voices embodied through the organization as a whole. Here is the trinity of government that he finally suggests: popularity leader, strength to support popularity, and also popularity and strength, held together for a long time, supported by tradition. Unlike the English-language text, the text of the Russian-language press covers one event - the tragedy that occurred in Odessa on May 2, it is highly detailed, the use of a large negative vocabulary, mainly verbs and nouns: reprisals, shoot, victims, carnage, radicals, reprisal, mock.

A speech is an address given to an audience for a variety of purposes. A speaker may aim to inspire or to motivate, to amuse, to inform or to persuade[[27]](#footnote-27).

The focus of this guide will be persuasive speeches, those that are intended to sway the audience to agree with the speaker. We will examine the impact of rhetorical structure and devices. A speech, no matter the subject, requires a speaker, an audience, and a purpose. You can think of a speech as a rhetorical triangle such as the one below. (Diagram 1)

To be persuasive, the speaker must take the audience into consideration and appeal to them in ways that will convince them. The Greek philosopher Aristotle (384 BC–322 BC) described three appeals that can be used to persuade an audience: ethos, pathos, and logos.

***Logos:*** The speaker appeals to the audience’s sense of reason, using logic, facts, and statistics.

***Ethos:*** The speaker tries to show the audience that he or she is reliable, credible, and trustworthy. The speaker also tries to build a bridge to the audience by using first-person plural pronouns (we, us).

***Pathos:***  The speaker appeals to the audience’s emotions, using emotional language, sensory images, and anecdotes.

We can see an example of how these three types of appeal interact in a speech by former First Lady and Secretary of State Hillary Rodham Clinton to the fourth World Conference of the United Nations. Clinton speaks about the rights of women around the world.(Table 1)

Rhetoric isn’t just for debates and arguments. These devices are used in everyday speech, fiction and screenwriting, legal arguments, and more. Consider these famous examples and their impact on their audience.

*1.“Fear leads to anger. Anger leads to hate. Hate leads to suffering.” –Star Wars: The Empire Strikes Back*- "Qo'rquv g'azablanishga olib keladi. G'azab nafratga olib keladi. Nafrat azob-uqubatlarga olib keladi ”  
*Rhetorical Device*: Anadiplosis. The pairs of words at the beginning and ending of each sentence give the impression that the logic invoked is unassailable and perfectly assembled.

*2. “Ask not what your country can do for you, ask what you can do for your country.”* —President John F. Kennedy.[[28]](#footnote-28)- Mamlakatingiz siz uchun nima qila olishini so'ramang, o'zingizning mamlakatingiz uchun nima qilishingiz mumkinligini so`rang” *Rhetorical Device*: Chiasmus. The inversion of the phrase *can do* and the word *country* creates a sense of balance in the sentence that reinforces the sense of correctness.

*3."I will not make age an issue of this campaign. I am not going to exploit, for political purposes, my opponent’s youth and inexperience." –*President Ronald Reagan-"Men yoshimni ushbu kampaniyaning muammosiga aylantirmayman. Men siyosiy maqsadlarda raqibimning yoshligi va tajribasizligidan foydalanmoqchi emasman." expresses mock reluctance to comment on his opponent's age, which ultimately does the job of *raising the point* of his opponent's age.

*4. “But in a larger sense, we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot hallow this ground.”*—Abraham Lincoln, *Gettysburg Address*. "Ammo katta ma'noda biz o'zimizni bag'ishlay olmaymiz, muqaddas qilolmaymiz va bu zaminni muqaddas qila olmaymiz". *Rhetorical Device*: Anaphora. Lincoln’s use of repetition gives his words a sense of rhythm that emphasizes his message. This is also an example of  *kairos*: Lincoln senses that the public has a need to justify the slaughter of the Civil War, and thus decides to make this statement appealing to the higher purpose of abolishing slavery.

*5. “Ladies and gentlemen, I've been to Vietnam, Iraq, and Afghanistan, and I can say without hyperbole that this is a million times worse than all of them put together.”*–*The Simpsons*. "Xonimlar va janoblar, men Vetnam, Iroq va Afg'onistonda bo'lganman va mubolag`asiz aytishim mumkinki, bu ularning barchasi birlashtirganidan million marta yomonroq".  
*Rhetorical Device:* Hyperbole. Here, hyperbole is used to humorous effect in order to undermine the superficial point of the sentence.

*Allusion*as a rhetorical device of political discourse.

Not surprisingly, the language applied in the political domain is rich in the use of phraseological allusions. According to the Latvian linguist Naciscione, ‘phraseological allusion is an implicit mental reference to the image of a phraseological unit which is represented in discourse by one or more explicit image-bearing components hinting at the image’. One of the most widely used images employed in the corpus of The Baltic Times relate to the Iraq war. We can read about ‘*weapons of mass destruction’, ‘weapons of mass affection’. (ommaviy qirg'in qurollari ',' ommaviy mehr qurollari ')*

Similarly, the name of a dramatic event in history carries a full allusive force of the event itself. For example, we can read about the series of the so-called *Colour Revolutions: the Orange Revolution in the Ukraine, the Tulip Revolution in Kyrgyzstan, the Rose Revolution in Georgia, the Velvet Revolution in Check Republic***[[29]](#footnote-29)**. Rangli inqiloblar: Ukrainadagi to'q sariq inqilob, Qirg'izistondagi lola inqilobi, Gruziyadagi atirgul inqilobi, Chexiya Respublikasidagi baxmal inqilobi. It has to be admitted that to understand the political discourse itself, the language user has to have both the political background, which enables him/her to comprehend the situational context of utterance and a high-level command of the foreign language: the use of allusion presupposes the knowledge of the fact, or the awareness of the contextual situation.

As a rule, no indication of the source is offered to the listener or to the speaker. From the linguistic perspective, allusion exhibits certain important semantic peculiarities: the primary meaning of the word or phrase often serves as a vessel into which the new meaning is assigned to; thus, it results in a kind of interplay between two meanings. It is generally accepted that the essential function of allusion is to give indirect reference to a historical, literary, mythological fact or to the fact important for a certain community or for a specified segment of society. The Times (2006) often uses allusions in its headlines, for example:

*Pie in the sky for teachers; or Pie in the sky for nurses. O'qituvchilar uchun osmondagi pirog; yoki hamshiralar uchun osmondagi pirog.* On a practical level, most people in Britain know the refrain of the song: You will get pie in the sky when you die. In this case, the use of the part of the refrain likely implies that teachers and nurses had been given nothing but promises by the political parties or authorities.

However, linguistically speaking, the allusion pie in the sky implies a new meaning, i.e. nothing but promises. It seems that through the frequency of repetition this allusion has entered into the word stock of the English language and functions as a figurative synonym.

For example, The Baltic Times states that *’three musketeers,* the three Baltic Prime Ministers Ansip, Kalvitis and Brazauskas agree that nuclear power is the one answer to the region’s concern.

The above-presented statement relating to Three Musketeers by A. Dumas creates the image that the three Prime Ministers of the Baltic States function as if being one friendly, supportive and brave team. Beyond words, visual images can cluster around particular political personalities, thus acquiring allusive resonance. On [reading it through](http://www.whitehouse.gov/the-press-office/2013/01/21/inaugural-address-president-barack-obama) after hearing it, this is another carefully crafted speech. More so, I would say, than Obama's [first inaugural address](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=305aYAAOUFk). But these two parts got my attention the instant I heard them:

1) *Lash and sword*. This inaugural address, like nearly all previous ones, began with an emphasis on the importance of democratic transfer-of-power. For instance, the first words of JFK's address in 1961 were, "We observe today not a victory of party, but a celebration of freedom." But Obama introduced the familiar theme with this twist: Today we continue a never-ending journey to bridge the meaning of words with the realities of our time. For history tells us that while these truths may be self-evident, they've never been self-executing; that while freedom is a gift from God, it must be secured by His people here on Earth. The patriots of 1776 did not fight to replace the tyranny of a king with the privileges of a few or the rule of a mob.  They gave to us a republic, a government of, and by, and for the people, entrusting each generation to keep safe our founding creed. *Through blood drawn by lash and blood drawn by sword[[30]](#footnote-30), we learned that no union founded on the principles* of liberty and equality could survive half-slave and half-free.  We made ourselves anew, and vowed to move forward together. I like the precise logical concision of contrasting "self-evident" with "self-executing" truths. But "blood drawn by the lash" is an impressive and confident touch. It was of course an allusion to a closing passage in what is generally considered history's only great second inaugural address, Abraham Lincoln's right Fondly do we hope, fervently do we pray, that this mighty scourge of war may speedily pass away. Yet, if God wills that it continue until all the wealth piled by the bondsman's two hundred and fifty years of unrequited toil shall be sunk, and until *every drop of blood drawn with the lash shall be paid by another drawn with the sword*, (kirpik bilan tortilgan har bir tomchi qonni qilich bilan tortilgan boshqa bir kishi to'laydi) as was said three thousand years ago, so still it must be said "the judgments of the Lord are true and righteous altogether."

Half-slave, half-free was an allusion to another of Lincoln's most famous addresses, his "House Divided" speech from his campaign for the Senate in 1858. (And Lincoln's phrase "house divided" was his own allusion to the Book of Mark.)  *2) Seneca Falls, Selma, and Stonewall.* I thought the allusion in this passage was eloquent on many levels: We, the people, declare today that the most evident of truths -- that all of us are created equal - is the star that guides us still; just as it *guided our forebears through Seneca Falls, and Selma, and Stonewall;* (Seneka sharsharasi, Selma va Stounuoll orqali o'tmishdoshlarimizni boshqargan) just as it guided all those men and women, sung and unsung, who left footprints along this great Mall, to hear a preacher say that we cannot walk alone; to hear a King proclaim that our individual freedom is inextricably bound to the freedom of every soul on Earth.

The rhetorical and argumentative purpose of the speech as a whole was to connect what Obama considers the right next steps for America -- doing more things "together,[[31]](#footnote-31)" making sure that everyone has an equal chance, tying each generation's interests to its predecessors' and its successors' -- with the precepts and ideals of the founders, rather than having them be seen as excesses of the modern welfare state.  As in the one-sentence summary at the start of the speech, Obama wants to claim not just Lincoln but also Jefferson, Madison, Adams, George Washington, and the rest as guiding spirits for his kind of progressivism. In this passage he works toward that end by numbering among "our forebears" -- those honored ancestors who fought to perfect our concepts of liberty and of union -- the likes of Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Lucretia Mott, Martin Luther King and other veterans of Selma including still-living Rep. John Lewis, and the protestors 44 years ago at the Stonewall. I call the passage above an allusion rather than a dog-whistle because a dog-whistle is meant not to be recognized or understood by anyone other than its intended audience. Obama certainly knew that parts of his audience would respond more immediately and passionately to the names Seneca Falls, Selma, and Stonewall than other parts, but his meaning is accessible to anyone. As is his reference, while speaking two miles from the Lincoln Memorial, to what "a King" said on "this great Mall[[32]](#footnote-32)."

In the case of allusions, the contextual resonance matters more than an individual who has been the author of the words/phrases. Therefore, it can be asserted that the phraseological allusion being widely used in political rhetoric serves as an implicit mental reference to the image of a phraseological unit being represented in a political discourse by one or more image bearing components.

Moreover, phraseological allusions occupy a significant role in political rhetoric because they:

1.use the image to appeal to the imagination

2.create figurative language, which extends the literal language

3.contribute to presenting successful images being backed up by

utterances/statements often left unspoken, but which the listener or reader can immediately process.

*Metonymy* as a rhetorical device of political discourse.

Metonymy is considered to be a rhetorical device that is based on some kind of association connecting two concepts, which these meanings represent. It has to be admitted that metonymy being a means of building up imagery focuses on concrete objects, which are used in a generalized meaning. Naciscione states that ’the explicit image-bearing components of the phraseological units have a metonymic function in discourse’. Thus, it can be presupposed that metonymy as a rhetorical device applied in political discourse ‘secures sustained associative vision which enables the reader or listener to see beyond the words’. In other words, metonymy is the replacement of an expression by a factually related term or notion, and it can bear the semantic connection of a causal, spatial, or temporal nature.

Lakoff and Johnson showed such examples are instances of general principles[[33]](#footnote-33); they do not occur just one by one. For example, English has a general principle by which a place may stand for an institution located at that place.

The White House isn`t saying anything( Oq uy hech narsa demaydi)

Washington is insensitive to the needs of ordinary people (Vashington oddiy odamlarning ehtiyojlariga befarq)

Paris is introducing shorter skirts this season (Parij ushbu mavsumda kalta yubkalarni taqdim etmoqda)

Kreml navbatdagi muzokaralarni boykot qilish bilan tahdid qilmoqda

The Kremlin threated to boycott the next round of talks

Uoll-strit vahima ichida

Wall Street is in a panic

If *"The White House declined to comment" (Oq uy izoh berishdan bosh tortdi)* were understood literally, then it wouldn't be newsworthy—a building is always silent. But when used as it is in the example, "The White House" refers to the President of the United States (or the President and the President's staff), rather than to the building.

Similarly, in England, *"Downing Street"* (a reference to the Prime Minister's residence at 10 Downing Street in London) is typically meant to stand in for the Prime Minister and his or her staff. *"No news from Capitol Hill" (Kapitoliy tepaligidan yangilik yo'q) "* doesn't literally refer to a lack of news from the neighborhood surrounding the United States Capitol Building. It refers to a quiet day from the U.S. Congress, which assembles in the Capitol Building on Capitol Hill.

The famous British politician and soldier Winston Churchill wrote a number of works devoted Wars that occurred in the world. When we analyzing his one of the fictional work “The Dream”, we encountered several rhetorical devices of political discourse. “What about the *Home Rule***[[34]](#footnote-34)** meaning ‘*Rome Rule’*?[[35]](#footnote-35)” In this sentence Home rule refers to the government of a colony, dependent country or region by its own citizens. “We conquered the *Transvaal* and the *Orange Free State.”*Here Transvaal refers to a historical geographic term associated with land north of the Vaal River in South Africa. A number of states and administrative divisions have carried the name Transvaal.

The Orange Free State refers to the independent Boer sovereign republic under British suzerainity in Southern Africa duringthe second half 19th century, which ceased to exist after it was defeated and surrendered to the British Empire at the end of the Second Boer War in 1902. “They are only living in a wing of the Palace,” I said. “The rest is occupied by *M.I.5***.”“**What does that mean?”“*A Government department formed in the war.” (Urushda tuzilgan hukumat bo'limi).* Give me a fair arrangement of the constituencies, a wide franchise, and free elections—say what you like. What is *the franchise?”( imtiyoz)* “Universal,” I replied. “Even the women have votes.” “I have always,” I said, “worked for friendship with the United States, and indeed throughout the *English-speaking world*.[[36]](#footnote-36)”( Ingliz tilida so'zlashadigan dunyo). “English-speaking world,” he repeated, weighing the phrase. “You mean, with Canada, Australia and New Zealand, and all that?”

“Yes, all that.” “They were the wars of nations, caused by *demagogues and tyrants.[[37]](#footnote-37)”**(demagoglar va zolimlar)* **”.**Demagogues- political leaders who seek support by appealing to the desires and prejudices of ordinary people rather than by using rational argument. What flag flies in Strasbourg now?” “The Tricolor flies there.”

The flag of france is a tricolor flag featuring three vertical bands coloured blue, white, and red. It is known to English speakers as the French Tricolour or simply the Tricolour. “You must be living in a very happy age.

In sum, metonymy as a rhetorical device used by political discourse facilitates the perception of the political images and expresses their meaning in a more concentrated manner. The underlying idea of an image is understood by readers/listeners as it is brought to their minds by the context itself.

*Metaphor*as a rhetorical device of political discourse

According to Kittay, ‘metaphor is a trope in which one thing is spoken of as if it were some other thing, and it is an ubiquitous feature of natural language[[38]](#footnote-38)’. Further, the scholar claims that ‘ability to understand metaphors and to use them is characteristic of mature linguistic competence’ . In view of this, no understanding of political discourse is complete without an adequate account of metaphor, which explains the reasons why metaphors underlie primarily linguistic utterances, produced by speakers of the English language and processed by listeners. Referring to the study of political discourse, it has to be noted that when dealing with metaphors as linguistic phenomena, the English language users/learners are expected to know/study:

* how metaphors are used in communication
* what is intended to be understood is different from what is literally said

An *éminence grise* (French pronunciation: ​[[eminɑ̃s ɡʁiz]](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Help:IPA/French)) literally, "grey man," from French. Colloquially, the power-behind-the-throne. An official close to the president or monarch who has so much power behind the scenes that he or she may double or serve as the monarch.

Figurehead-a leader whose powers are entirely symbolic, such as a [constitutional monarch](http://wikipedia.org/wiki/Constitutional_monarch), (Shaklboshi - konstitutsiyaviy monarx kabi vakolatlari butunlay ramziy ma'noga ega bo'lgan rahbar), puppet government- a government that is manipulated by a foreign power for its own interests,( qo'g'irchoq hukumat - o'z manfaatlari uchun chet el kuchlari tomonidan boshqariladigan hukumat), star chamber- a secretive council or other group within a government that possesses the actual power, regardless of the government's overt form, (yulduzlar palatasi - hukumatning ochiq shaklidan qat'i nazar, haqiqiy hokimiyatga ega bo'lgan hukumat tarkibidagi maxfiy kengash yoki boshqa guruh) blank check- legislation which is vaguely worded to the point where it can be widely exploited and abused, poison pill-a provision in an act or bill which defeats or undermines its initial purpose or makes it politically unacceptable, pork barrel-legislation or patronage: acts of government that blatantly favor powerful [special interest groups](http://wikipedia.org/wiki/Lobby_groups), melting pot-a society in which all outsiders assimilate to one social norm, salad bowl-a society in which cultural groups retain their unique attributes (opposite of melting pot theory).

It is generally accepted that rules governing literal language involve syntactic, semantic and pragmatic conventions. Figurative utterances, e.g. metaphor, generally obey syntactic rules, sometimes flout semantic rules and most often violate pragmatic principles; thus, metaphors are characteristically identifiable by the form of the semantic and pragmatic violation.

For example, the political metaphor "the State is an organism" is one of the oldest metaphors of mankind. The deployment of the anthropomorphic metaphorical model is already found in ancient sacred texts.

John of Salisbury offered the following metaphorical picture of the state: the Prince – the head; the governing bodies-the heart; judges-the eyes, ears, and tongue; soldiers-the hands; the peasants the feet[[39]](#footnote-39).

British linguist A. Musolff traced the" evolution " of metaphor "*EUROPE IS HOME*" for the last decade of the 20th century based on English and German Newspapers[[40]](#footnote-40). The author has identified two periods in the development of the metaphor of the house.

Quite interesting are the observations of J. Wei on traditional Chinese color symbolism and its interaction with neoplasms in political metaphor. According to the researcher, the metaphor of the hat as a symbol of power has become widespread in modern Taiwanese political discourse. However, its color is important: red is associated with bribery, gold – with financial scandals, black – with the cultivation of nepotism, yellow – with adultery[[41]](#footnote-41).

The discussion and analysis of metaphors employed by political discourse have indicated so far that a great deal of day-to-day language is used in metaphorical meaning. Seemingly, metaphors structure the way we think about politics, and they might affect our perception of the world. Often, as we can judge from the examples offered, metaphorical language thinly masks a particular political situation, ideology or mindset. Thus, for example, in case the country is worried about the flood of immigrants, it is reasonable to presume that the situation with immigrants is disastrous, in fact. All things considered, metaphors in political discourse create linguistic images that are based on a relationship of similarity between two objects or concepts. Lakoff states that the *Nation as Family* is very common in political discourse where the nation is seen as a family, the government as a parent and citizens as children.

In English, the metaphor *Corridors of power* (in Russian коридор власти) is used to refer to important officials, government departments that make decisions at the state level, all ministries of the English government are included. In Russian, when something happens in the corridors of power (коридоры власти), it means that it happens in an informal setting between high officials, as well as a symbolic designation of power structures and state bodies.

The phrase lame duck is used in both the Russian-language and the English language political journalism to describe a "loser". In above example, the phrase a lame duck – «хромая утка» is used in the meaning of "not elected again, but temporarily still performing the previous duties of a political figure" In other words, metaphors referring to a great deal of source domains characterizing the political discourse are based on the same or similar semantic features where denotational transfer occurs. The research outcomes of the present inquiry show that the area of investigation is very broad: from the description of the linguistic approaches used for influencing an audience’s thoughts and emotions to analyzing the rhetorical devices applied to create a persuasive and manipulative political discourse. “The Dream” tells about “A Golden Age” which refers to the period in a field of endeavor when great tasks were accomplished. The term originated from early Greek and Roman poets, who used it to refer to a time when mankind lived in a better time and was pure.

Mahatma Gandi spoke about “Black Age[[42]](#footnote-42)” in his book which means historical periodization traditionally referring to the early Middle Ages or Middle Ages that asserts that a demographic, cultural and economic deterioration occurred in Western Europe following the decline of the Roman Empire. Broadly speaking, every clique has its own language-an insider`s jargon that people outside the group don`t always understand. Filmmakers talk about “panning” and “fading”. Retailers talk about ”floor sales” and ”back orders”. What exactly do politicians mean when they talk about a "lame duck" or a "dark horse"? What is "red tape" and who is the "Incumbent"?

*Big Government***:** A negative term, used mainly by conservatives to describe government programs in areas where they believe government shouldn't be involved, especially those that spend money on social problems. *Bipartisan:* A cooperative effort by two political parties.*Bleeding Heart***:** A term describing people whose hearts "bleed" with sympathy for the downtrodden; used to criticize liberals who favor government spending for social program. *Bully Pulpit:* The Presidency, when used by the President to inspire or moralize. Whenever the President seeks to rouse the American people, he is said to be speaking from the bully pulpit. When the term first came into use, "bully" was slang for "first rate" or "admirable."*Campaign:* (noun) An organized effort to win an election (verb) To strive for elected office.*Caucus:* An informal meeting of local party members to discuss candidates and choose delegates to the party's convention. *Coattails:* The power of a popular candidate to gather support for other candidates in his or her party. Winning candidates are said to have coattails when they drag candidates for lower office along with them to victory.*Convention:* A national meeting of a political party, where delegates formally elect a party's nominee. *Dark Horse:* A long-shot candidate.*Delegate:* A representative to a party's national convention chosen by local voters to vote for a particular candidate. Each state is assigned a certain number of delegates based on its population*.* *Fence Mending***:** What politicians do when they visit their electoral districts to explain an unpopular action. The term originated in 1879, when Ohio Senator John Sherman made a trip home that most people considered a political visit. Sherman insisted, however, that he was home "only to repair my fences*." Filibuster:* An attempt by a Senator or group of Senators to obstruct the passage of a bill, favored by the majority, by talking continuously. Because there is no rule in the Senate over how long a member can speak, a Senator can prevent a bill from coming up for a vote by talking endlessly. Senator Strom Thurmond of South Carolina set the record in 1957 by speaking for more than 24 hours without stopping.*Fishing Expedition***:** An investigation with no defined purpose, often by one party seeking damaging information about another. Such inquiries are likened to fishing because they pull up whatever they happen to catch.*Front Burner:* Where an issue is placed when it must be dealt with immediately*Gerrymander:* The reorganization of voting districts by the party in power to insure more votes for their candidates. The term originated in 1811, when Governor Elbridge Gerry of Massachusetts signed a bill that changed districts to favor the Democrats. The shape of one new district supposedly resembled a salamander, provoking a Boston newspaper editor to say, "Salamander? Call it a Gerrymander!"*GOP:*Grand Old Party, nickname of the Republican Party.*Grass Roots:* Political activity that originates locally, or arises from ground level. *Ideology***:** An integrated system of ideas about politics, values, and culture. Those who espouse an ideology are sometimes criticized as rigid and narrow-minded. *Incumbent:* A current officeholder. *Inside the Beltway***:** The area inside the Capital Beltway, a highway that encircles Washington, D.C. An issue described as "inside the Beltway" is believed to be of concern only to the people who work in and with the federal government and of little interest to the nation at large. *Lame Duck:*An officeholder whose term has expired or cannot be continued, who thus has lessened power. *Left-wing:* Liberal. The labeling system originated from the seating pattern of the French National Assembly, which put liberals on the left, moderates in the middle, and conservatives on the right. *Reactionary*: A militant conservative; opposite of "radical," which means ultraliberal. *Red Tape:* Government paperwork and procedures that are slow and difficult. Stems from an eighteenth-century British practice of binding official papers with a reddish twine.

*"Ambassador", “Posol, “Elchi*" - from one state to anothera diplomatic representative leading the embassy. A state in historical sourceswith a diplomatic mission to the second state government by the government permanent or temporary representative to be sent. As etymological tariff we can list the following.

*Embassador* is a medieval Anglo-French ambassador is derived from the Latin word Ambaxus-Ambactus71 the word means servant servant. The term was widely used in the 14th century.

The term *Posol* is derived from the Belarusian word ―посылать means to send.

The term *Elchi* was first found in the Uyuk River valley in ancient Turkey. The earlier terms yalavoch, yalafar, rasul are mentioned in the Enasoy runic inscription also represented by.

The term "*Yalavoch"* was first coined near Altynkolis found in the Enasoy memoir. In this ancient Turkic script Diplomat from the Turkish Khanate to Tibet in August-September 711the visit of the representative.

The history of socio-political terms[[43]](#footnote-43) in the Uzbek language dates back to ancient times is a common Turkish heritage Qaghan, Budun, which is reflected in the Orkhon-Yenisei and other memoirs (Meaning "city“ shahar ma`nosida), sab (meaning "council“ya`ni kengash ma`nosida), bitikchi (meaning "secretary“ ya`ni kotib),Terms like alp (meaning "hero“ qahramon) are a clear example of this. Changes in socio-political life are, of course, in their own lexical layers also finds its expression. This opinion was expressed by M. Kashgari in ―Devonu lug`otit turk. This can be seen in the following socio-political terms in his work:

buzun, baj, bojun (meaning "community“ ya`ni jamoa ma`nosida),

bachig` (meaning "covenant“ ahd ma`nosida),

beg, jarlig`,boj (meaning tribe qabila ma`nosida),

Jag`i, bulg`aq (meaning conspiracy –fitna ma`nosida), jer (land-mamlakat ma`nosida)[[44]](#footnote-44)

The "minister" is the state politician of the national and regional government is a person in charge, politically responsible with other state ministers a key player in decision-making in resolving issues. Ministers in some cases are larger than others, and usually they are of the government court members. In some countries, the head of government, the "Prime Minister" assigned. The ministers in charge of religious affairs, the Israeli minister, are religious may be a priest like one for the responsibility, but the name "minister (Christianity) "not to be confused with the religious status or activities of the Christian ministry need the term “minister” comes from the medieval French minister, the Latin word for servant is minus, meaning participant derived from low meaning.

The term minister is the main head of the government structure is calculated. Learned English, for example in other countries for the United States, the United Kingdom, and Mexico.In Britain, individual ministers are also called secretaries of state. Wazir (Arabic: وزیر) was a Middle Eastern envoy to the Middle East government office or council in the Central Asian khanates (head of department).

Tasks of governing the state under the leadership of the Minister of Foreign Affairs engaged in. V. s king, a prince appointed by the khan to the governorship of the province and were considered assistants of the princes. V. position in the Arab Caliphate 1- introduced by Caliph al-Mansur (754-775). 10 devons during the Samanid period. They are called lord, great owner, barid, mushrif, representative, muhtasib, and so on. Ministers directed The center of the kingdom in the time of Amir Temur and his successorsb.The administration is headed by the Prime Minister - Devonbegi, headed by 7 V directed They are: 1) country and civil affairs, 2) military affairs, 3) trade, 4)

V. on financial affairs, and 3 more special V. border regions and oversaw affairs in subordinate countries. Maz-kur 7 V. devonbegiga subordinated and in consultation with them to carry out important financial affairs of the state they went In the Khiva khanate V. was a high-ranking official, whose duty was tax gathering, liaising with neighboring khanates, appointing officials, etc. k. and consisted of Linguistically, the word "minister" in Russian is in Russian mainly in colloquial language not only in its own terminological field but also in a figurative sense we can also observe the state of arrival. For example: Kogda chelovek stanovitsya bogatom ego schitayut kak and stal ministrom.

In the example above, the word "minister" means "spoken" in Russian in portraying people of a tall, big, ignorant character applied. The term "society" is derived from the Latin word "associationetas", which is a form of a horse derived from socius (ally, friendship), internal between parties used to express friendships in influences and relationships. Society - At the heart of Society is the Arabic word for social. A social word that is an alternative to the French word for social quality is more actively used in Turkish speech than as a social quality. Middle French societe <Latin societās, equivalent to soci (us) partner, comrade + -etās, variant of -itās- -ity

Politics - Greek: politikós is derived from the word politikos "for, in,

that is, related to citizens. ”According to ancient sources "Politics" in modern English. The word is in use. The task is through the appeal of all members of a group is the only decision-making process. It is also the behavior of an individual affecting the upbringing of another person.

Политика-(Greek for "political") understanding, including the actions of public authorities and government administration represents, in addition, the events of public life, functioned government related. Scientific research in the field of politics is political science carried out within.

*Siyosat* - (Arabic: اس ạی س (politics) - horse breeding, horse breeding) - the state the art of management. Politics is the process of governing a group, a society. This representatives of the relevant group will also be involved in the process. This term is often used government activities are understood. politics various socio-political institutions, social layers, strata, and groups.

*Queen* - in ancient English cwen "queen, the rules of women in the state, woman, wife, "(gyny in Greek sources" woman, wife; "janis in Sanskrit

*"woman," gnb "wife of god*;" zena in ancient Slavic churches, in Gothic language qino "woman).

*Царь*- (tssar, tsѣsar, Latin caesar, Greek caesar) – Slavic is a monarchy, usually synonymous with an emperor. The great of the tenth century Prince Simeon I was named the first royal ‘tsar’. In the history of the Russian language this word: "The lion is a weapon of animals." Ts rits - rod change (for women)

The words "king" and "queen" are derived from the Turkic word "kral".

Of course, in ancient times there was no need for these words in Uzbek, because it is special words of the time, such as "horn" and "queen" instead of words used. Linguistically, the word queen means only in context rather, it can be used as a metaphor in a figurative sense. For example: You are my queen, honey!

From this we can conclude that the word for queen is queen the common people are also widespread among the people who do not belong to the royal family applied. In this sentence, the word queen refers to a woman in the family. The language is beautiful and used for high-level tariffing.

Chamber - Latin for room. It's a word in history interrogation camera, or "dark room," which has since meant a black box will give. In the political sphere, it is a reception or a special network the auditorium of the residence.

Палата - 1) The name of several legislative institutions. Lots parliaments are usually divided into two groups: upper and lower. Top and bottom. 2) the name of a particular state or public institution.

Palata- is a political term derived from Uzbek and Russian is the same as given in Russian in the field. But the word plata is a common word in human communication, to come in Uzbek as the hospital's omonim for patients We use the word ward in our conversations. That's the word for chamber corresponds to the given definition.

**2.2 Cognitive direction in political linguistics**

The language is experiencing global upheavals that have affected vocabulary the most. A striking example of this is political language, which is a complex and changing phenomenon, due to the multiplicity of interests, high political activity of citizens and the clash of values of traditional and renewing society. Recently, the attention of specialists is increasingly attracted to the Metaphors used in the discussion of the political life of society, which seek to find out how and why these metaphors are born, to what extent they reflect the social psychology, political processes and personal qualities of their participants. In modern foreign science, there are several main directions in the study of political metaphor. The first of them develops traditional views on metaphor, Dating back to Aristotle. In this case, the metaphor is understood as an ornament of thought, contributing to the success of the impact on the addressee. Also, this direction is called rhetorical, in connection with its characteristics of speech decoration. In relation to semantic and stylistic studies, metaphor is studied on the basis of a cognitive approach, in which metaphor is a form of thinking that is effective in understanding some new realities.

The founders of this direction are considered to be M. Johnson and J. However, the cognitive approach to metaphor emerged much earlier. The Central place in cognitive linguistics is occupied by the problem of categorization of the surrounding reality, in which metaphor plays an important role as a manifestation of the analog capabilities of the human mind. Metaphor in modern cognitive science is usually defined as a mental operation, as a way of cognition, categorization, conceptualization, evaluation and explanation of the world. The main prerequisites of the cognitive approach to the study of metaphor were the provisions on its mental character (ontological aspect) and cognitive potential (epistemological aspect). D. Vico, F. Nietzsche, A. Richards, C. Lewis, S. pepper, F. barlett, M. Beardsley, H. Ortega y Gasset, E. McCormack, P. Riker, E. Cassirer, M. black, M. Erickson and other researchers have paid attention to the phenomenon of metaphorical thinking. Back in 1967. Osborn pointed out the fact that a person tends to metaphorically associate power with the top, and put all undesirable symbols at the bottom of the spatial axis, which, in fact, corresponds to the class of orientation metaphors in the theory of conceptual metaphor.

1. Conceptual metaphor. People will talk about target domains like life, argument, love, ideas, social organization by means of using journey, war, building, food and plants as their source domain. For instance, He attacked every weak point in my argument. His criticisms were right on target (Lakoff & Johnson ). Most English speakers use these linguistic expressions conventionally to talk about argument, because understanding the abstract concept of argument is facilitated by the more concrete concept of war. The conceptual metaphor *ARGUMENT IS WAR* is revealed by metaphorical expression attacked every weak point in and right on target in this example. The abstract concept *ARGUMEN*T is comprehended via the concept WAR, so WAR is the source domain and *ARGUMENT i*s the target domain. According to Lakoff & Johnson, using the expressions from war terms, e.g., attack a position, strategy, win, etc., to talk about argument is no accident, because some part of conceptual network of battle characterizes the concept of an argument.

2.Structural metaphor. Lakoff and Johnson state that structural metaphors are culturally grounded in our experience. They take ARGUMENT IS WAR metaphor as an example to illustrate how argument is conceptualized in terms of physical conflict[[45]](#footnote-45). Animals fight to get what they wantfood,, territory, etc. As part of being a rational animal, we humans usually do not carry out physical conflict to get what we want. More often than not, we resort to verbal arguments to get what we want. In this sense, verbal battles are comprehended in the same terms as physical battles.

3. Conventional metaphor. Metaphors can also be classified in terms of their degree of conventionality. Conventional metaphor is a metaphor that well worn or deeply entrenched in everyday use by ordinary people for everyday purposes. *ARGUMENT IS WAR*: I defended my argument.

As mechanism of conceptual metaphor, mappings help people understand how conceptual metaphor works. Lakoff says that the mapping is a fixed part of conceptual system. The definition of mapping is further improved by Kövecses. As he puts it, mappings are a set of fixed conceptual correspondences that exist between constituent elements of the source and the target domain. It is mappings between a source and a target domain that help people understand one domain in terms of another. Take the conceptual metaphor *SOCIAL ORGANIZATIONS ARE PLANTS*[[46]](#footnote-46) as an example to understand how mappings make up a conceptual metaphor. The following examples are taken from Kövecses. He works for the local branch of the bank. Our company is growing. They had to prune the workforce. The organization was rooted in the old church. There is now a flourishing black market in software there. His business blossomed when the railways put his establishment within reach of the big city. According to the metaphorical linguistic expressions above, the mappings between plant and social organization can be got in the following (appendix 2)

*A POLITICAL ELECTION IS A BATTLE ON A BATTLEFIELD*[[47]](#footnote-47). The concept of political election can be comprehended via people’s experience in a war. The process for each party to prepare a political election can be conceptualized as the process to prepare a war, since both human resources and financial resources are taken into account in these two activities. The intense competition among different parties in a political election is like a battle in a war. 1) Rival Democratic presidential candidates Mr Bill Clinton and Mr Jerry Brown taunted each other at the weekend as mudslinging in the battle for votes 2) The main election battleground now would seem to be the political interviews on television. In the example , the word battle indicates that fighting over votes between two politicians by making speeches or having verbal arguments is like a fight between two soldiers, since the aim of the competition is to contend for the domination of the nation. Moreover, the contest between two or more parites in a political election is quite fierce. It is the same case in example when politicians from two or more parties show up on television to address their election speeches. Politicians try to use words to triumph over their opponents.

*POLITICIANS ARE SOLDIERS*. The heated debates among politicians can be regarded as confrontations between two troops in a war. Therefore, politicians who fighting for the interests of their own parties are soldiers. President Delors also came under fire from Tory MPs. The party expects its young hopefuls to fight at least one unwinnable seat in a rotting inner city. The meaning of war term under fire is subjected to enemy attack. This concept is mapped on example to show that President Delors’ situation is like a soldier who is attacked by the enemy, because the president is strongly criticized by Tory MPs. In example , young hopeful politicians are expected to fight for a seat in inner city just like soldiers fighting for their country in a war.

*POLITICAL STRATEGIES ARE WAR STRATEGIES*. Different kinds of strategies will be employed by commanders in order to win a battle. Undoubtedly, the politicians often adopt all the strategies they can think out to win the election. Political analysts said Tuesday’s outspoken comments by Mr Chirac — like Mr Giscard d’Estaing a candidate for the presidency — seemed to be a tactic to dissuade Mr Mitterrand from offering him the premiership rather than an attempt to force the president out immediately. In other words, ambitious Labour politicians will have to apply the same strategies that win national elections to internal party contests. In example , Mr Chirac hopes to persuade Mr Mitterrand not to offer him the premiership by adopting the strategy of making outspoken comments. Obviously, the tactics used by politicians resemble the strategies used in a war. The example can be explained in the same way. Strategies are also employed by politicians to win national elections. The concrete concept war strategies help people understand the tactics used by politicians in the political election.

*THE OUTCOME OF POLITICS IS THE OUTCOME OF WAR.* The consequence of a political election can be understood via the war terms win, lose or truce. Meanwhile the Conservative Party was regrouping its forces after the defeat of 1945, building up better-organized and larger constituency parties and reorganizing its ideology . National politics, by contrast, has become all too predictable: the Republicans win the White House; the Democrats hold Congress. In 1940, thanks to the party truce, he was elected for Preston, but lost in the election of 1945. The war term defeat means failure to win or succeed. From example , we can see that the Conservative Party lost the election of 1945 just like an army failed in a battle. Thus, the metaphorically use of defeat is adopted in this sentence. The metaphorical use of the word win in example is understood in the same way. If the Republicans win the White House as predicted, it means that the Republican Party defeats the Democratic Party successfully in the election and becomes the ruling party of the United States. The word truce means that each side in a war agrees with the other to suspend aggressive actions. When this concept is mapped onto politics, it shows that both sides of parties are agreed to stop fighting each other and then find a way to settle the disputes or it means that politicians reach a consensus on a particular issue. The term truce conveys such a meaning in example.

All the reviewed studies contributed to the formation of the cognitive approach to metaphor, but in the book of John. Lakoff and M. Johnson's " Metaphors We Live” by developed a theory that brought consistency to the description of metaphor as a cognitive mechanism and demonstrated the great heuristic potential of applying the theory in practical research. Like their predecessors, the authors postulated that metaphor is not limited only to the sphere of language, and the processes of human thinking are largely metaphorical. Metaphor as a phenomenon of consciousness manifests itself not only in language, but also in thinking and in action. "Our everyday conceptual system within which we think and act is essentially metaphorical". This approach made it possible to finally bring the metaphor beyond the framework of the language system and consider it as a phenomenon of interaction between language, thinking and culture.

According to the theory of conceptual metaphor, metaphorization is based on the process of interaction between knowledge structures (frames and scenarios) of two conceptual domains — the source domain and the target domain. As a result of unidirectional metaphorical projection (metaphorical mapping) from the source sphere to the target sphere, the elements of the source sphere formed as a result of the experience of human interaction with the surrounding world structure a less understandable conceptual target sphere, which is the essence of the cognitive potential of the metaphor. The basic source of knowledge that makes up the conceptual domains is the experience of direct human interaction with the surrounding world, and diachronically primary is the physical experience that organizes the categorization of reality in the form of simple cognitive structures — "image schemes".

Lakoff and Johnson divide conceptual metaphors according to their cognitive role into three main groups: structural, ontological and orientational. In structural metaphors, one concept is realized with the help of the other, and the examples of such metaphors are *LIFE IS A JOURNEY* or *TIME IS MONEY*. In orientational metaphors, the entire system of terms is organised in relation to the other, such as in the examples *HEALTH AND LIFE ARE UP, DISEASE AND DEATH ARE DOWN.* Orientational metaphors are based on our physical and cultural experience. Experiences with concrete physical objects, and especially the body, lay a foundation to create an ontological metaphor, which is the third type of metaphors. Ontological metaphors are created either by reification or personification. By using the reification, or the concretization of the abstract event, the actions and emotions become shaped entities or physical objects. Lakoff and Johnson mention *THE INFLATION IS THE ENTITY or THE SOUL IS A FRAGILE OBJECT* as examples of an ontological metaphor based on reification.

Metaphorical projection is carried out not only between individual elements of two knowledge structures, but also between entire structures of conceptual domains[[48]](#footnote-48). The assumption that the metaphorical projection in the target sphere partially preserves the structure of the source sphere is called the Invariance Hypothesis. Thanks to this property, metaphorical consequences (entailments) become possible, which are not explicitly expressed in the metaphorical expression, but are derived on the basis of frame knowledge. Thus, the cognitive topology of the source sphere to some extent determines the way of understanding the target sphere and can serve as a basis for decision-making and action.

In the typology of American researchers, conceptual metaphors are divided into three main groups: structural, ontological and orientation. In structural metaphors, the cognitive topology of the target sphere is a model for understanding the target sphere (ARGUMENT IS WAR), ontological metaphors categorize abstract entities by delineating their boundaries in space (MIND IS MACHINE) or using personification (Inflation is eating up our profits), orientation metaphors reflect the oppositions in which our experience of spatial orientation in the world is recorded (GOOD IS UP, BAD IS DOWN). The diversity of modern research on conceptual metaphor indicates not only the ongoing, but also the growing interest in the theory of J. R. R. Tolkien.The claim that conceptual metaphors cover the entire sphere of human experience and have significant cognitive potential is currently supported by numerous studies of conceptual metaphor, covering almost most areas of human activity. The scope of application of heuristics of this theory is constantly expanding due to the inclusion in scientific research of materials from an increasing number of languages: for example, publications on conceptual metaphors in Arabic, Chinese, Chagga, Japanese, eskimo and other languages Another direction of development of this theory is an appeal to the metaphorical potential of nonverbal semiotic systems, that is, the study of conceptual metaphor in caricature, gestures.

The cognitive metaphor is usually contrasted with the traditional understanding of the phenomenon, which is ascribed to Aristotle, researchers increasingly note that it was Aristotle who first pointed out the cognitive potential of the metaphor. Philosophers of subsequent generations did not pay due attention to the ability of "metaphor to penetrate into the essence of things" indicated by Aristotle, and "representatives of the natural Sciences treated metaphor with disdain, as a means beyond grammar that characterizes sloppy thinking, and not as a legitimate theoretical tool" . Shortly after the publication of the monograph by J. R. R. Tolkien. Lakoff and M. Johnson's first work on the role of conceptual metaphor in scientific thinking appeared, in which the author demonstrated by concrete examples that the basis of conceptual metaphor and scientific analogy is the same process of cognitive projection from one conceptual domain to another.

To date, studies of the cognitive potential of metaphor in obtaining scientific knowledge have become widespread: the influence of conceptual metaphor on the development of scientific ideas has been studied in relation to philosophy itself, as well as biochemistry, history, mathematics, pedagogy, political science, psychology, genetics, Economics and many other scientific areas; studies of the conceptual metaphor in the field of political communication are Particularly widespread. Prospects for the application of cognitive heuristics to political discourse were outlined by J. R. R. Tolkien. Lakoff and M. Johnson, in the visual series of creolized texts. In addition to the General characteristics of the theory of conceptual metaphor, American researchers have considered the consequences of the military metaphor of J. R. R. Tolkien. They showed that the metaphor of LABOR as a RESOURCE, which seems to be completely devoid of emotional evaluation, allows hiding the inhumane essence of the economic policy of States with both market and totalitarian economies. The position that the subject tends to react not to reality as such, but rather to its own cognitive representations of reality, leads to the conclusion that human behavior is directly determined not so much by objective reality as by the system of human representations.

It follows that the conclusions we draw from metaphorical thinking can form the basis for action. This explains the particularly increased interest of modern researchers in the conceptual metaphor in the field of political communication around the world (A. N. Baranov, D. Berkho, TS. Vershinina, R. Dirven, p. Drulak, R. Kagan, Y. N. Karaulov, A. A. kaslova, H. Kelly-Holmes, V. Kennedy, I. M. Kobozeva, V. Kristol, J. Lakoff, J. lavton, M. luoma-Aho, J. Lule, J. Milliken, S. N. Murane, A. Musolff, V. O'regan, R. Paris, E. Refaye, T. Rohrer, A. B. Ryaposova, O. Santa Ana, N. A. Santsevich, E. Semino, T. G. Skrebtsova, A.V. Stepanenko, J. Thornborrow, Y. B. fedeneva, I. Hellsten, R. hulsse, A. Chenki, P. Chilton, N. M. Chudakova, A. p. Chudinov, J. Tsinken, etc.) political metaphor is a significant tool for manipulating public Consciousness. At the same time, as shown by J. Lakoff ,the metaphors offered by politicians are devoid of argumentative power if they do not agree with the conceptual prototypes of a particular society. Discourse analysis emerged in the mid-60s-70s of the 20th century in France as a new direction in the Humanities, combining linguistics, critical sociology and psychoanalysis within the framework of 2.3the development of structuralist linguistics. The founders of this direction in science L. Althusser, R. Barth, J. Lacan, R. Jacobson and others in their works continued the method of separating language and speech of the Swiss linguist F. de Saussure.

As a result of this scientific activity, a whole branch of knowledge was formed — the "school of discourse analysis" .Some time later, in the 1970s and 1980s discourse analysis becomes a kind of super-discipline, which begins to include new objects — psychological, legal, political, etc. For the first time, the key concept of "discourse" was used by Zeling Harris in 1952, defining it as "text". He also introduced the concept of discourse analysis — a "method of analyzing coherent speech", which is intended "to expand descriptive linguistics beyond a single sentence at a given time and to correlate culture and language" If we talk about the modern predecessors of discourse analysis, we can not fail to mention the outstanding works of Russian formalists: Vladimir Propp, the pre-war works of Voloshinov V. N. and Bakhtin M. M. in Addition, the well-deserved scientific activity of one of the founders of linguistic structuralism, R. Jacobson, helped to spread this tradition in the Prague school, as well as in European, later in American structuralism[[49]](#footnote-49) . One of the brightest representatives of discourse analysis-Ten van Dyck, in his article "Questions of text pragmatics", referring to the theory of speech acts, defined discourse as a pragmatic sequence in which the pragmatic limitations of this sequence are revealed .

For M. V. Jorgensen and L. Phillips, discourse is "the use of language in everyday texts and communication, as well as a dynamic form of social practice that builds the social world, personality and identity"[[50]](#footnote-50). At the same time, Pereverzev E. V. and Kozhemyakin E. A. discourse is defined as a certain sequence of utterances created in the historical and social framework, which "can influence the models of a person's subjective experience, his internal representation of the world, beliefs and behavior”

Currently, the lack of possibility to unify this terminological construct does not allow to stop the controversy about the variety of options for interpreting this concept within the framework of approaches developed by representatives of different schools. However, to simplify the interpretation of the concept of "discourse", E. S. Kubryakova identified the following classification of approaches: structural-syntactic approach: discourse as a fragment of text, that is, a formation above the level of a sentence (super-phrasal unity, a complex syntactic whole); the structural-stylistic approach: discourse as Netessova organization of spoken language characterized by the fuzzy division into parts, the dominance of associative relationships, spontaneity, pragmatism, high contextnode, stylistic characteristics; communicative approach: discourse as verbal communication (talking, eating, language functioning), either as a dialogue or conversation, that is the type of dialogue utterances, or as the speech from the position of the speaker in contrast to the narrative which takes no account of such a position.

Studying the phenomenon of political discourse, some representatives of the postmodern school and the school of critical discourse analysis agreed that this phenomenon contains a manipulative basis. They explained their views by the fact that the creation of any political text is based on the goal of persuading a certain position, encouraging action, as well as presenting the necessary facts in a certain light . As one of the brightest representatives of the postmodern school, Michel Foucault believed that power first creates truth, and then imposes it, so discourse should be perceived as" violence against things " .

In addition, Levshenko Yu. I. noted that many scientists, such as: Yu.Habermas, A. Gramsci, M. Foucault, P. Bourdieu believe that discourse is a fairly powerful and powerful resource that concentrates the functions of reproduction, distribution and regulation of power relations .

In her monograph, Sheigal E. I. subjected the concept of "political discourse" to a comprehensive analysis, highlighting its functional features, characteristics, the main concepts of this term, and also analyzed the intentional and genre aspects. For the study of political discourse, E. Sheigal identified the main linguistic approaches: 1. descriptive (rhetorical analysis of the linguistic behavior of politicians); 2. critical (identification of social inequality, which is expressed in the discourse); 3. cognitive (analysis of concepts and frames of political discourse).

In the field of linguoculture, the word politics is a conceptual concept

When we take it, of course, the terms and phrases in the political arena come to mind will be jammed. In particular, the policy of each country is different in different parts formed. For example, social policy and foreign policy. This is in social policy while political terms pertaining to the state are common and in foreign policy instead, common terms apply to all states.(Diagramm 2)

According to the pragmatic approach, the terms reflect the most important concepts can be set. First of all, the terms are human terminoelementida: human interaction, human needs, human relations, human report etc. The word human (from the Latin word "humanus") is translated into English as a result of semantic and formal assimilation, "human, humane, humane, humane. Science in the 1920s in development E. Meyo in the concept of management to express the basic concept. The word "human relations" is a terminological element that represents a sign. Cognitive linguistics reflects the concept of human, a prototype in the field of category formation - all the thoughts and feelings of the heart, the attitude the concrete action of the underlying and specific person, the control system of the self includes.

As noted by E. Budaev. V. and Chudinov A. P., the source of political language is political media discourse (television, press, radio) and institutional political discourse expressed in the form of parliamentary debates, speeches at rallies, political leaflets and party documents, etc. At the same time, there are complex texts that simultaneously contain the properties of scientific, political, artistic and everyday discourse. Levshenko Yu. I. he believed that the phenomenon of political discourse is implemented by the mass media, which, thereby, turn into a channel of interaction of political subjects with the environment. Political discourse is a special kind of communication that, having its own metalanguage, reflects the world of politics.

However, as Sheigal E. I. noted, political language is not the prerogative of politicians or government officials, this resource is open to every subject of the language community[[51]](#footnote-51). First of all, experts engaged in the study of political discourse, divide it into institutional, which uses only the texts of politicians (political documents, interviews of political leaders, public speeches, transcripts) and mass-media (texts of journalists, which are distributed mainly in the press, on the radio, on the Internet, etc.). On the periphery of political discourse are based episodic texts on political topics that were created by non-professional politicians or journalists (appeals or letters to politicians or government agencies, everyday conversations on political topics, anecdotes), hardware communication (orders, orders, instructions) and fiction (memoirs, political detectives) .

Today, the media-political discourse is recognized as an independent communicative phenomenon that occurs at the intersection of two discourses and, in the presence of certain features, creates prerequisites for manipulating public consciousness . As features of political discourse, Levshenko Yu. I., notes the absence of the practice of mandatory argumentation, more often, the use of the emotional vector in the political text of this discursive practice. One of the main tasks in the scientific field of research of discursive practices is the improvement of various methods that make up the complex concept of "discourse analysis". Today, discourse analysis is still a fairly young discipline, and due to its heterogeneity, it contains many different approaches.

Below we will highlight the most popular approaches of discursive analysis. When conducting discursive analysis, the methods of Western researchers are most often used: T. van Dyck, N. Luhmann, G. Mccluren, R. Vodak, P. Serio, as well as many other foreign communicators. However, it is worth noting that at the moment Russian discursology is reflected in the scientific concepts of V. I. Karasik, V. B. Kashkin, E. A. Kozhemyakin, E. G. Malysheva, G. N. Manaenko, A. A. Negryshev, A.V. Polonsky, L. N. Sinelnikova, V. E. Chernyavskaya, A. P. Chudinov and many other Russian discursologists .

Today, discourse analysis has established itself as an interdisciplinary approach that has taken shape at the intersection of linguoculturology and sociolinguistics, absorbing various methods of the Humanities: philosophy, psychology, rhetoric, political science, linguistics, sociology, and others. One of the main problems faced by representatives of various schools and traditions, including those mentioned above, is not the development of a unified method of discourse analysis ,but how to coordinate them all. However, today, discourse analysis, its main tactics and strategies still occupy a niche of interdisciplinary research, in which many ways of posing and solving problems of interpretation prevail.

Today, critical analysis of political discourse occupies a leading position in the study of political communication. As E. V. Budaev notes, " this direction belongs to the axiological level of methodology[[52]](#footnote-52)." Further, the axiological level is divided into a descriptive and critical approach to the analysis of political discourse. The first approach is used to describe and explain phenomena that are related to the political beliefs of the subject of the study, while avoiding ideological assessments. In the second, critical approach of the studied discourse, the phenomena of social inequality are analyzed, while the side of the subject is explicitly taken by the researcher of this political discourse .According to T. van Dyck, when conducting research in this area, "there can be no scientists who take a detached and even more indifferent position" .

The formation of critical discourse analysis hereinafter-KDA was greatly influenced by the ideas Of M. Foucault, the works of L. p. Althusser, A. Gramsci, J. Habermas, as well as the views of other philosophers of the Frankfurt school. In addition, we should mention the influence of critical research by N. Chomsky on the Genesis of KDA and the London school of news analysis By M. Halliday . When conducting a modern CDA, the material is political texts that reflect a particular social inequality. Researchers analyze various ways of verbal impact on society, as well as the formation of all types of inequality, while taking a social position. Further, in his work, Budaev E. V. identifies three main approaches of modern KDA: dialectical-relational approach (founder — N. Fairclough) — the study is subject to: time and place of communication, subjects, their values, activities, social relations, discourse; sociocognitive approach Van Dyck - the relationship between cognitive structures, discourse and society is studied; discursive-historical approach (R. Vodak — the study of the practice of using language and semiotic systems by power elites to maintain their dominance. However, as more consistent, Shevchenko A. Yu. highlights the method of discourse analysis of news publications by ten Van Dyck, presented in his monograph "elite Discourse and racism" . In this paper, when conducting a discourse analysis, Van Dyck suggests starting with the structure of the text itself, micro-and macrostructure. The latter, first of all, consists of: a Title, a Brief overview, the Main event, the Context and the history of the event. The next step, the Dutch scientist suggests moving on to the study of semantics, which he defines as the microstructure of a media text. At this stage, we analyze individual words and sentences, their relationship, as well as rhetorical and stylistic features of the formation of these meanings.

According to T. Van Dyck, the formation of mental models in readers is influenced not only by the thematic foundations of media texts, but also by the formulations used by journalists[[53]](#footnote-53) . As mechanism of conceptual metaphor, mappings help people understand how conceptual metaphor works. Lakoff says that the mapping is a fixed part of conceptual system. The definition of mapping is further improved by Kövecses. As he puts it, mappings are a set of fixed conceptual correspondences that exist between constituent elements of the source and the target domain. It is mappings between a source and a target domain that help people understand one domain in terms of another.

**Conclusion on 2nd chapter**

The rhetoric of political discourse correlates with overcoming of its negative features such as ideological pretentiousness and monopoly, aggressiveness, dictatorship, pragmatism, and propensity towards conflict. These features of political discourse impose the information instead of making it the subject of recipient’s reflection, thus, leading to aloof perception of text. The maxims of reflexivity and dialogism are the basis for the main concept of this rhetoric. The maxim of reflexivity implies that any words bears certain ideas and energy passed by the author or speaker to the recipient. During the perception of these words, the recipient understand the text and fits it within his reflection. When this occurs, researchers note that it provides for dialogism as this text is adapted by means of recipient’s perception. Rhetoric means are applied to make the recipient more interested in the text and its meaning, in answering questions and providing arguments for his position, agreeing or disagreeing with the speaker . However, often researchers mention the maxim of monologue as one that is typical of political discourse since sometimes the text does not reflect the reflection of the speaker and does not call for recipient’s reflection as well. Thus, political discourse comprises all types of interaction of an individual and society, creating worldview. Political discourse reveals the way cultural values and social order are imposed in different societies. This type of discourse includes a variety of political discussions in the society, including ones with the politicians and officials and public rhetoric.

At the same time, discourse is a cognitive process, and text is its outcome. On the whole, discourse is a complex communicative phenomenon within the context of extralinguistic aspects, which is not equal to text. A number of researchers have been studying political discourse over the last few years since this phenomenon is regarded as the type of discourse which affects society to a greater extent. What is more, in [rhetoric](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rhetoric), a rhetorical device, persuasive device, or stylistic device is a technique that an author or speaker uses to convey to the listener or reader a [meaning](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Meaning_(linguistics)) with the goal of [persuading](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Persuasion) them towards considering a topic from a perspective, using language designed to encourage or provoke an [emotional](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emotion) display of a given perspective or action. Rhetorical devices evoke an emotional response in the audience through use of language, but that is not their primary purpose. Rather, by doing so, they seek to make a position or argument more compelling than it would otherwise be. Metaphorical projection is carried out not only between individual elements of two knowledge structures, but also between entire structures of conceptual domains.

**ChAPTER III. INVESTIGATING CONTEMPORARY POLITICAL NEOLOGISMS**

**3.1 Classifying political neologism**

A neologism (from Greek neos 'new' + logos 'word') is a newly coined word that may be in the process of entering common use, but has not yet been accepted into mainstream language. Neologisms are often directly attributable to a specific person, publication, period, or event. According to Oxford English Dictionary neologism was first used in print in AD 1483.21[[54]](#footnote-54).

A ***neologism*** from Greek"new" and λόγος *lógos*, "speech, utterance" is a relatively recent or isolated term, word, or phrase that may be in the process of entering common use, but that has not yet been fully accepted into mainstream language.Neologisms are often driven by changes in culture and technology.

1. Politicians and supporters. The first group of the analyzed units covers new units denoting people belonging to a party or being adherent to some political views as well as naming the leading figures of the USA. It is easy to note the current tendency to name this ideology in honor of its political representatives usually by adding suffix –ism, ex.: *Blairism*– the political ideology of the former leader of the Labor Party and Prime Minister Tony Blair. It reflects the commitment of someone to its centrist politics. In our opinion, this neologism does not have any constant connotation which means the presence of the archiseme ‘adherence to certain political views’ as well as the differential seme ‘commitment to Tony Blair's policy’. Another example is the neologism *trumpism*– the views and cultural and political statements of Donald Trump. A neologism bushism formed the same way means however funny or absurd words, phrases, pronunciations, and semantic or linguistic errors that occur in the public speaking of former President of the United States.

We have noticed that because of the president's repeated absurd statements, he became the subject of jokes both of the residents of his country and beyond. Besides, bushism produces a significant comic (ironic, and often sarcastic) effect. Among the most used bushisms are as follows: “I know the human being and fish can coexist peacefully.” “Make no mistake about it, I understand how tough it is, sir. I talk to families who die.” “I think that the vice president is a person reflecting a half-glass-full mentality.” “You’re working hard to put food on your family.” “They misunderestimated ...”. “There’s an old saying in Tennessee – I know it's in Texas, probably in Tennessee – that says: fool me once, shame on ... (long pause) shame on you? (long pause) Fool me – you can't get fooled again”. “You teach a child to read, and he or her will be able to pass a literacy test.” (Bushism, n.d., para. 4). It should be mentioned that among the neologisms with the name of American President Barack Obama – *Obamaphoria, Obamanation, Obamarama, Obamanos, Obamatopia, Obamalujah, Obamatrons, Obamascope, Obamanator, Obamalicious, Obamaloha, Ohbama, Bamelot, Obamerika, Barackstar***[[55]](#footnote-55)** – there is not a single lexical innovation reflecting adherence to certain political views put forward by a politician or political party. Recent American elections have led to the creation of neologisms among which we can single out the following: trumpalist – a person supporting Donald Trump as candidate to President of the USA; trumper – a person who is a supporter of politician Donald Trump; trumpertantrum – angry early-morning tweeting laced with innuendo and falsehood; trumpflation – the expected increase in inflation as a result of economic policies of Trump[[56]](#footnote-56).

Shortened words being one of the main ways of word-formation in English also influenced the process of creating political new words. Based on analogy of the already existing POTUS – President of the Unites States of America and Flotus – First lady of the Unites States such new words like PEOTUS – President Elect of the United States and Slotus – second lady of the United States – the wife of the vice-president appeared in English. And now, the PEOTUS (President-Elect of the United States), even before officially taking charge, reiterated his promise of bringing jobs back to the States by slamming General Motors over the production of Cruze sedan in Mexico via his official Twitter account PEOTUS Donald Trump Warns General Motors Over Mexican Imports.

2.Types of government. Another group of political neologisms names types of government. Among them are: narcissocracy – government by the excessively self-centered; ineptocracy – a system of government whose main characteristic is incompetence in all areas; idiocracy – rule, government or control exercised by foolish people; kludgeocracy – government that is over-complex and ineffective. Observations indicate that all the units of a given group are formed by blending. Among neologisms monosemantic, polysemantic and homonymous words are differentiated. It should be mentioned that there are some cases when already existing words acquire new meanings due to semantic extension. Our study shows that examples of monosementic neologisms are much more abundant than those of the other types. They can be subdivided into several lexical groups which are connected with the political sphere, people’s sexual orientations and sexual discrimination, the spheres of the Internet, technology, language and linguistics, racism and discrimination against different nations, psychology, human feelings and behaviour, ecology and biology, work and work-places, music, news broadcasting and newspapers.

Neologisms connected with the political sphere include the nouns alt-righter/ alt-rightist, Ameritopia, cappie, clickocracy, conservofascist, hybrid warfare, Party of No, policide, rapefugee, remainiac, rUK, trapezocracy. Scholars believe that in the modern English language, the word-formation method called blending is gaining more and more strength: with the help of this method, the formation of new lexical units occurs with impressive dynamism, but corresponding changes are introduced into Veronika Katermina dictionaries with delay and caution . Negative evaluation of the meaning of these new words should also be taken into consideration: narcissism – an extreme interest in your own life and problems that prevents you from caring about other people; *kludge* – a clumsy or inelegant solution to a problem; ineptness – the quality of having the wrong properties for a specific purpose; idiocy – very stupid ideas or behavior. The study of the concept of linguistic evaluation makes it possible to assume that the cognitive classifying activity of a person is reflected in linguistic units; the evaluation component acts as an obligatory semantic component of the lexical meaning. In the first case narcissocracy, a negative evaluation is achieved by using a precedent name Narcissus – via Latin from Greek Early 19th century: via Latin from the Greek name Narkissos , perhaps from narkē ‘numbness’, with reference to its narcotic effects .In the next three units kludgeocracy, ineptocracy, idiocracy the evaluation component is achieved by the following words containing in their meaning an emotional evaluative component: clumsy – expressed without enough skill or thought, and often in a way that is likely to upset people, inelegant – not attractive, graceful, or polite, wrong – not accurate or correct, stupid – not intelligent, or not able to consider or judge things carefully.

Steven M. Teles starts his article “Kludgeocracy in America” with the following words: In recent decades, American politics has been dominated, at least rhetorically, by a battle over the size of government. But that is not what the next few decades of our politics will be about. With the frontiers of the state roughly fixed, the issues that will define our major debates will concern the complexity of government, rather than its sheer scope . He uses such evaluative expressions like the size of government, complexity of government to draw the readers’ attention to the problems in American government.

He is concerned that kludgeocracy poses a significant threat to the quality of American democracy. The evaluation component, in our opinion, is the main one in the connotative meaning of the lexical unit due to its sociolinguistic nature. The subjective-valued element of meaning can be explained by the differentiated response of people to positive and negative phenomena and it acts as an integral one in the semantic structure of the nomination.

In uzbek translation trumpalist - AQSh prezidentligiga nomzod sifatida Donald Trampni qo'llab-quvvatlovchi shaxs; trumper - siyosatchi Donald Trampning tarafdori bo'lgan shaxs; trumpertantrum - erta tongda g'azablangan tweeting, yolg'on va yolg'on bilan yozilgan; trumpflyatsiya - Trampning iqtisodiy siyosati natijasida inflyatsiyaning kutilayotgan o'sishi, narsisokratiya - haddan tashqari o'zboshimchalik bilan boshqarish; ineptokratiya - asosiy xarakteristikasi barcha sohalarda layoqatsizlik bo'lgan boshqaruv tizimi;

idiokratiya - ahmoq odamlar tomonidan amalga oshiriladigan qoida, hukumat yoki nazorat; kludgeocracy - o'ta murakkab va samarasiz bo'lgan hukumat, narsisizm - o'z hayotingizga haddan tashqari qiziqish va boshqa odamlarga g'amxo'rlik qilishingizga to'sqinlik qiladigan muammolar; kludge - muammoning qo'pol yoki nafis echimi; befarqlik - ma'lum bir maqsad uchun noto'g'ri xususiyatlarga ega bo'lish sifati; ahmoqlik - juda ahmoqona g'oyalar yoki xatti-harakatlar.

Political events. The next group includes neologisms devoted to political processes. It is necessary to take into consideration a lexeme Article 50 – article of the Lisbon Treaty that sets out the process by which member states can withdraw from the European Union being the so called prophecy of the process itself. Jennifer Rankin, Julian Borger and Mark Rice-Oxley reveal in their article in an expressive way the importance of this neologism: Rarely have 250 words been so important – five short, obscure paragraphs in a European treaty that have suddenly become valuable political currency in the aftermath of Britain’s decision to leave the EU (Rankin, Borger, Rice-Oxley, 2016). Being formed on analogy with the already existing neologism grexit – the as yet hypothetical Greek exit from the Eurozone, some new words began to appear among which we should point out the following: Brexit – the British exit from the Eurozone: SIX months ago the chances of “Brexit”— Britain departing from the European Union—seemed remote. Today, largely because of Europe’s migration crisis and the interminable euro mess, the polls have narrowed. Some recent surveys even find a majority of Britons wanting to leave . A background guide to ‘Brexit’ from the European Union , para. 1) Calexit – an exit by the state if California from the United States of America: Californians would need to pass an amendment to the US Constitution, which requires the blessings of the other 49 states. The measure would also survey voters on whether a “Calexit” is something that interests them. Clexit – an exit by the country from international climate treaties. Due to these words a new suffix was brought into existence: -exit (suffix) – added to the first letters of the name of a country or state to indicate that it may leave a union or federation. Any political process has its own supporters and opponents.

The following neologisms are the confirmation of that: regrexiteer – someone who regrets the vote to leave the EU; bremoaner – someone who complains about Britain’s exit from the European Union. It is interesting to note that in the first case the structure “a complex word + suffix” contains in its composition the seme “regret” while the lexeme naming the supporters of this process is formed by the direct addition of suffixes -er or - eer, in connection with which the assumption can be made that this word, being the base, indicates a more positive perception of this process by the British. We should single out a lexical innovation brexistence – the fact or state of living or continued survival of Britain (UK) or the British after the BREXIT event.

One should also note such new lexical units like bremorse, breturn, breversal: First Brexit, then Bremorse… is Breturn possible? 1) Breversal: there may be a way to reverse the decision to leave the European Union. The consequences of Brexit can be shown in the lexical innovation vassal state – a term used by some Brexiters to refer to the UK if it stays in the customs union or single market during a transition period following departure from the EU. Since the appearance of this neologism there have been many articles devoted to this topic. 1). The members of this lexical group carry mainly negative connotations like the term Ameritopia coming from Mark R. Levin’s book “Ameritopia: The Unmaking of America.” The term clickocracy also has negative connotations: “There is this apparently inalienable belief that social media and the internet has brought citizens closer to democracy. Think twice. The rise of a clickocracy could actually be driving them further apart”.Negative and also sarcastic meanings are present in the word remainiac: “Remainiac Philip Hammond is leading the country into a disaster by calling for three year Brexit transition deal” . The neologisms which contain a name of a political leader usually do not carry positive connotations, like: “The Trumpification of the US media: why chasing news values distorts politics”.

**3.2 Analyzing political neologism**

Donald Trump`s neologisms: Usual neologisms, Discursive neologisms, Incomprehensible new lexical units, Familiar lexical units used as a different part of the language. Unusual addition of the definite article **the,** which leads to the change of value shades misprints or slips of the tongue.

The material worked out shows that to date D. Trump has enriched the lexical composition of the English language, with some of his neologisms already included in the leading academic edition – the Oxford English Dictionary, so they became usual (or customary) neologisms, i.e. such as got to the usage, dictionary. It is important to note that the word must be actively used for at least five years in order to be included in the vocabulary compiled by the University of Oxford Lexicography Center. Thus university scholars prevent the entry of „one-day‟ lexical units into the dictionary, because the process of vocabulary enrichment of the English language is continuous. However, the use of some new lexical units by the 45th President of the United States has given such impetus to their dissemination that they have evolved into usual neologisms earlier, said A. Stevensson, chairman of the content department at Oxford University‟s Lexicography Center. A study of neologisms of the 45th United States President, introduced into the Oxford English Dictionary , showed that all of them (4 neologisms: clicktivism, haterade, otherize, and herd mentality) were recorded in D. Trump‟s posts on Facebook and on Twitter during his 2016 presidential election. So, according to S. Deverell, the word clicktivism appeared in the mid-2000s, but it was after D. Trump began to actively use it in his posts on social networks that this lexical unit acquired popularity. Analysis of the studied material as well as researches showed that the period of the most frequent use of this neologism by D. Trump is defined. We regard this neologism as usual, since it has been entered into the Oxford English Dictionary. Neologism clicktivism is a noun that is formed from the base of click in the suffix way by first adding the adjective suffix -iv and then the noun suffix -ism. An analysis of the interpretation of the word clicktivism, presented in the Oxford Dictionary, as “the practice of supporting a political or social cause via the Internet by means such as social media or online petitions, typically characterized as involving little effort or commitment” allowed us to make the following conclusions regarding the semantics of this neologism: 1) its generic integrating semantic constituent is „activity‟, differential semantic constituents are „in social networks‟, „without thinking‟, „in support or against any petition, initiative, etc.‟; „replacement of active actions‟; 2) the -ism suffix usually means, in English, a philosophical, political or religious trend or formation, but in the case of this word it does not refer to any of these trends or formations, but rather relates to trends in social networks; 3) the word clicktivism is usually understood as „sofa activism‟, that is, it has negative connotation.

A study of neologism haterade has shown that it has also been included in the Oxford English Dictionary and is therefore considered to be usual. D. Trump used this neologism even before the presidential race. So, this word was recorded in his Twitter post on August 7, 2015. Structurally, the lexical unit haterade is a noun created by the abbreviation, namely, it is a telescopic word, that is, this noun is formed by the fusion of the words hater and Gatorade. Semantic analysis based on the interpretations given to this neologism as “excessive negativity, criticism, or resentment” and “excessive criticism and negativity, especially online” showed that 1) the generic integrating semantic constituent of the word is „criticism‟; there are also such differential components of value as: „negative‟; „excessive negative‟; „human emotions‟; „emotions on-line‟; 2) the morphemic components of the given lexical unit have the meaning of hater – a person who hates and Gatorade – a brand of energy drink, but the value of neologism under study is largely influenced by the first component, the second indicated a measure of emotion; 3) in the minds of native speakers, this neologism has negative shade as it is used to convey excessive negativity, criticism, or outrage.

A study of the following usual neologism otherize has shown that since 2016 D. Trump has most actively used it on the social network Twitter, after which the lexical unit became widespread in the media and went to Oxford English . Regarding the structure of neologism otherize, we note that it is a verb that has emerged as a play on words otherwise, and is also a kind of conversion or non-suffix way of forming neologism due to the transition of a word from an adverb to a verb. As this neologism is a verb, its use has been recorded in various grammatical tenses and forms (to otherize, otherize, otherized, otherizing, felt otherized).

The Cambridge Dictionary provides the following interpretation of this neologism: “to make a person or group of people look different or to consider them to be different”. On the basis of this, a semantic analysis was carried out. It showed that 1) the generic integrating semantic constituent of this verb is „forced action‟; in its meaning revealed the following differential components of meaning: „relation to a person (or group of people)‟; „attitude as to “the different”‟; „look at a person (or group of people)‟; „look as at “the different”‟; „separation of this person (or group of people) from society‟; 2) morphemic analysis is not possible because the word is formed in a non-suffix way; 3) the word is used to confront someone in society, so it has negative connotation. A study of neologism herd mentality has shown that it has also been entered in the Oxford English Dictionary that gives reason to consider it a usual neologism. This phrase has been repeatedly recorded in social media posts by D. Trump. Structurally, neologism herd mentality is a phraseological neologism, since it is a new constant phrase that is formed of two words: nouns herd and mentality. The noun mentality plays the role of the main word; the noun herd performs an attribute function. A semantic analysis of this neologism was conducted on the basis of its interpretation suggested by the Oxford Dictionary: “the tendency for people`s behavior or beliefs to conform to those of the group to which they belong” .

So, 1) the generic integrating semantic constituent of the investigated neologism is a „tendency‟; there are the following additional components of meaning in the phrase: behavioral confrontation; opposition to ideas; 2) analysis of the components of phraseological neologism revealed that it combined the words belonging to different thematic groups: the word herd is used to describe the life of animals, and the word mentality is characteristic of a person; 3) the combination of these lexical units into phraseological neologism resulted in the emergence of a new meaning with a negative connotation – the ‘herd mentality’, a common synonym of mob mentality, that is, neologism herd mentality has negative connotation.

Thus, the structural analysis of D. Trump`s usual neologisms has shown that they are different: morphological neologisms created by the affixes method, abbreviation – telescopic and conversion, phraseological neologisms, but the semantic generalization indicates that they all have negative connotation. Discursive neologisms An analysis of the researches, publications in the British and American press showed that such lexical units as fake news and alternative facts can also be distinguished as the authorial neologisms of D. Trump, Oxford Dictionaries add clicktivism and haterade[[57]](#footnote-57) as new words for angry times.

According to our study of both official speeches, interviews and publications by the 45th US President on social media and research on this topic, it was found that the phrase fake news is a favorite among D. Trump`s newcomers. According to Tauberg, it ranks eleventh among the 25 most commonly used expressions of the president, and Britzky counted on D. Trump`s Twitter account for 66 uses of the phrase in just five days. Researchers say that according to the British dictionary Collins English Dictionary, the use of phraseology fake news by D. Trump increased to 365% in 2017, so this neologism was recognized as a phrase in 2017.

Structurally, neologism fake news is a phraseological neologism that is represented by a phrase that consists of two lexical units: the nouns fake and news. The main word in the phrase is noun news, and noun fake performs an attribute function. This expression is recorded in the lexicographic sources of modern English except the leading academic edition – the Oxford English Dictionary.

As soon as this neologism gets into the mentioned dictionary it will become usual. Analysis of its definitions “false stories that appear to be news, spread on the internet or using other media, usually created to influence political views or as a joke”, “false reports of events, written and read on websites” , “false news stories, often of a sensational nature, created to be widely shared or distributed for the purpose of generating revenue, or promoting or discrediting a public figure, political movement, company” allowed us to draw conclusions about its semantics. Another neologism attributed to D. Trump that has become active is the phrase alternative facts. The study found that it can be considered the first neologism of D. Trump as president; since in the administration of the 45th president of the United States this neologism was first used on January 22, 2017; D. Trump took office on January 20, 2017. The phrase was heard at a press conference by the president`s advisor, K. Conway, who used it to describe the false statements made to D. Trump. The study of the phrase has shown that it originated much earlier, namely, it can be found in the book by J. Orwell “Newspeak” in 1984, but it has not received distribution. In the presidency of D. Trump this lexical unit is not only widely used, but has acquired another meaning. It is actively used by both the president and his assistants and critics of his administration. Structural analysis of the phrase alternative facts has revealed that it is a phraseological neologism formed by a phrase that combines two words: the adjective alternative and the noun fact, which is the main word in the phrase.

Incomprehensible new lexical units. The first group includes the phrase big league. It was heard at the presidential debate on September 26, 2016, when D. Trump, then a presidential candidate, promised to cut taxes big league. Structural analysis of D. Trumps new lexical unite *big league* showed that it is a phrase, created on the basis of two words: the adjective big and the noun league. Although the main word is a noun, usually in English, if the phrase is used as phraseology, it serves as an adjective, but the authorial phrase is perceived as an adverb. Thus, the investigated phraseological neologism was created by conversion – the transition from adjective to adverb. As the mentioned new creation of D. Trump is not included in the dictionaries, it has no dictionary interpretation. Therefore, we were not able to make a semantic analysis based on it. Instead of that, using the context of the expression (cut taxes big-league), we understood the authorial neologism as an adverb significantly.

The second group includes a number of newly created lexical units, such as the blacks, the Muslims, the Hispanics, and more. D. Trump repeatedly used them during his speeches. In particular, many were taken up during the debate on October 19, 2016 . The third group includes lexical units such as covfefe, Nambia, unpresidented. In our view, all of these words are misprints or a slip of the tongue, but it is thought that at least some of them may be considered neologisms of D. Trump. So, *covfefe*[[58]](#footnote-58) is the most striking of these lexical units and has caused a lot of discussion in the press and among social network users. This phenomenon appeared on Presidential Twitter on the night of May 31, 2017, although the tweet was deleted in the morning, and it had time to be reviewed and started discussing. Structural analysis by context alone, despite the constant negative press covfefe, suggests that this lexical unit is a noun. In our opinion, it is not possible to determine the way of its formation.

Most majority of neologisms appeared with the development of press. Bigger bang for a buck - эффективное использование ассигнований на оборону, в основном за счет ядерных средств сдерживания.Big lie - большая ложь, гитлеровская пропаганда. Black hats - злодеи, негодяи. Can carrier - козел отпущения.Green power - власть денег. Jane Crow-дискриминация женщин. Larger than life - невероятный, сказочный, преувеличенный. Log- roller - политический толкач. Man on horseback - военный диктатор. Pot- culture - образ жизни наркоманов. Put-down - резкий ответ. Trade off - компромисс. Roll-call - перекличка для проверки наличия[[59]](#footnote-59).

*Creating*—This process refers to process of a word being made from nothing, at least not from any pre-existing words.  It should be possible to make-up a word from complete scratch, but according to *Among the New Words*, there aren’t any such words because “to make something out of nothing does not seem like a human talent.”  Another way to create a word is to imitate a sound in nature.  This type of creation is called *onomatopoetic*.  This includes words like *boo* as in the *booing* of a crowd, *burp*, *gobble*, and *growl*.  For a lexicographer, this etymological source is particularly cumbersome because when a word has no lexical source, it could easily be looked at as gibberish. *Borrowing*—Unlike creating, borrowing in the source of much of the English vocabulary.  Borrowing occurs when one simply borrows a word from another language.  A general term referring to such words is a ‘loanword’.  There are three major types of loan words.  The first is a *simple loanword*.  These are words that relatively keep their form when adapted into English, with only possible slight tweaking to make the word fit English sound patterns.

Examples include *chichi* from French, *blitzkrieg* from german, *queso* from Spanish, and *perestroika* from Russian.  The second type of loanword is an *adapted loanword*.  These are words that are more heavily modified.  Latin *spelunca* becomes *spelunker*,Greek *ataraktos* becomes *ataratc*This technique is used frequently in medicine and technology when a fancy word or root is needed.  The third type of borrowing is a *loan translation.*  This is when a term in another language is translated using exsiting English words, but the foreign meaning remains the same as in *blonde from the coast*, coming from Spanish *rubia de la costa*.  The main problem that this type of word-formation poses is the issue of spelling.  If the word is modified and used in literature, then the spelling is clear.  But if the word’s modification originates in speech, then the difference in speech from the original foreign word to the new English word could be difficult to reconcile.  *Combining*—Combining seems to be the most productive way of forming new words.  The formula is self-explanatory; it is simply the combining of words or word parts into a new word.

These new words fall into two categories, *compound* and *derivative*.  To understand the difference it is important to understand that a word *base* is the part of a word that suffixes or prefixes can be added to.  Compound words are formed by the combination of two or more words/word bases and derivatives combine one word/word base with one or more affixes.  When combining to create a new word, one is not bound to traditionally accepted affixes.  For example, the prefix *docu*- has come to refer to something done in a documentary style, such as *documusical* or *docudocumentary*, a documentary about a documentary.  When a certain type of combination becomes popular, it is common for the new word to beget more new words in like form.

A compound example is *–hop*, as in *bar-hop*, *table-hop*, *job-hop,*and *city-hop*.  A derivative example is the suffix *–nomics*, as in *Nixonomics*, *Clintonomics,*and *electionomics*, referring to the economics of the respective base word. *Shortening*. This technique is simply the shortening of an old word by omitting some part of it.  This is similar to the present fad of abbreviating words to be clever or cute, such as *presh* for *precious*, or *vom* for *vomit*.  The easiest way to shorten a word is to *clip* it.  If you clip a main element from the front, it is called *fore clipping* (*gas* *guzzler* to *guzzler*); if you clip a main element from the back, it is *hind clipping* (*jet-propelled plane*to*jet*); if you clip only one part of a main element, it is *internal clipping* (*photo opportunity* to *photo op*); if you clip at random, it is *innovative clipping* (*facsimile transmission* to the respelled *fax*).   Another form of this is to use the initials of the word or phrase, but to pronouse then as if they were a typical word.  *Yuppie*is the acronym for *young urban professional* with the suffix –*ie* on the end.  *Wasp* is the acronym for *white anglo-saxon protestant*.  The last major way to shorten a word into a new word is to use *back formation.*   This is similar to clipping, but in back formation, the new word is typically of a different part of speech than the old word.  For example, the noun *air conditioning* is transformed into the verb *air condition* by removing the suffix –*ing* as though it were the agent suffix on a verb.  Similarly, the noun *chain-smoker* become the verb *chain-smoke* through the omission of the suffix *–er*. *Blending*—This process uses shortening and combining at the same time.  A word that is a blend is one that puts two or more forms together, but omits at least part of one.  There are many complex variations of this.  *Okie* from the shortening of *Oklahoma* and combining with suffix *–ie* is a blend with the first element clipped.  *Cheeseburger* from the combination of *cheese* with the shortened *hamburger* is a blend with the second element clipped.

*Infomercial*from the combination of shortened *information*and shortened *commercial* is a blend with both elements clipped.  And the variations can go on and on, but the most important thing to realize is that the merge of shortening and combining creates an entirely new source of word formation*.  Shifting*—A shift of an old word in grammar or meaning can create new word.  When an old word shifts, the form typically stays the same.  The proper noun *Google* has become the verb *to google* because of the nature of the function of the noun.  This is a shift in grammar.  Before computers, the noun *virus* referred to a sickness within the body, but now also refers to a sickness of a computer.  This is a shift in meaning. Doing a case study of the inclusion of neologisms in various dictionaries is a great way to understand how over time, a neologism can become part of everyday speech. For this case study, I’ve decided to focus on the neologisms of politics, in celebration of the recent election. Starting with the 1920s, I chose one word from each decade, continuing up to present day to further illustrate the word-becoming process that happens over time. I also tried to collect a variety of words that reflected many different types of word-formation to show different examples of the way words are created*. Normalcy*-  "America's present need is not heroics but healing; not nostrums but normalcy; not revolution but restoration." –President W. G. Harding (*OED*) *OED* under normality, n. —the character or state of being normal. *American Heritage* -under normality, n. —the state or fact of being normal; normalcy. “Is a real word that was coined by Warren G. Harding, at the time it meant nothing except a misused word representing normality. Normalcy does appear in many prominent dictionaries today.” “Possibly originally a Bushism which has filtered into popular use.” The adjective *normal* is combined with the suffix –*cy* to create *normalcy*, a derivative of *normal*. *Normal* is an adapted loanword from the Latin word normalis, “made according to a carpenter’s square". There is no doubt that *normalcy* has not stuck in the English language. It is used more often than not as an example of mis-speak. I included the defintion from the *Urban Dictionary* about *normalcy* [[60]](#footnote-60) being a ‘Bushism’ because it’s ironic that the word, while not coined by Bush, was still coined by a former president.

Political neologisms testify to the transformations taking place in the field of politics, while assessing a certain concept or phenomenon . A striking example here is the neologism omnishambles (the prefix omni-meaning “all-” and shambles “disorder, chaos”), named in 2012 by the Oxford Dictionary of the Year. Originally coined for the British political satirical television series The Thick of It, the term, according to The Telegraph, became an ironic expression of the general mood of the British, indicating a completely out of control situation . The noun shambles was successfully played in his speech by former Labor leader Ed Miliband, regarding the government's budget for 2012 as a failure ("omnishambles Budget"): “On charities, the reality is that the Prime Minister is not making the rich worse off. He is making charities worse off. Over the past month we have seen the charity tax shambles, the churches tax shambles, the caravan tax shambles and the pasty tax shambles, so we are all keen to hear the Prime Minister's view on why he thinks, four weeks on from the Budget, even people within Downing Street are calling it an omnishambles Budget " In 2015, the concept of dog-whistle politics began to appear in the media again due to the influx of refugees from Syria. For example, the British edition of The Guardian angrily titled its article "Carson and Trump's refugee rhetoric is a whole new breed of dog-whistle politics" and writes: "What used to be called 'dog whistle' politics became a shrill blast heard around the world this week as American politicians reacted to the Paris terrorist attacks with an anti-refugee backlash that sounded ferocious even by the standards of the 2016 presidential race ". The indignation is primarily associated with the statements of the US presidential candidate Donald Trump, directed against representatives of the Muslim community.

At the same time, the term dog-whistle politics is played up in the article: the word whistle "whistle" turns into a shrill blast "shrill howl" heard all over the world. Another catchy neologism that incorporates the Euro stem is Eurogeddon. Formed from two nouns Euro and Armageddon, this term has been used by economists for several years already, implying by "Eurogeddon", on the one hand, the collapse of the single currency of the European Union. for: "Eurogeddon! Why the shocking new price of Swiss cheese and chocolate means Europe's single currency dream is heading for disaster", reads the heading of an article in The Daily Mail . On the other hand, we are talking about Greece's refusal to use the euro: "Eurogeddon: Finance minister quits as defiant Greece votes NO and heads for euro exit" - the title of another article on The Daily Express .

Often neologisms are associated with the description of specific people. For example, the verb - illax (chill "to calm down" and relax "to relax") is used when referring to British Prime Minister David Cameron. The Times even publishes an article entitled "Just a little chaterama with the chillaxed PM", revealing that David Cameron, despite his busy work schedule, always finds time for various entertainment.

**Conclusion on the 3rd chapter**

The appearance of neologisms in a living language is a constant and regular process, its word stock is always adopting new words as a result of social and linguistic changes, innovations and development. The language is rapidly reacting to the emergence of new social phenomena, objects and activities which immediately undergo the process of nomination. The suggestion that new notions appear simultaneously with their signifiers does not seem to be ungrounded, for the most of human mental activity is carried out with the help of verbal means. The question where neologisms come from, the question of their origin or source lies within the field of our scientific interest. The topic of the research offers a remarkable opportunity to trace the life of modern neologisms from their very conception to overall recognition and inclusion in the dictionaries and databases. The modern epoch produces a lot of inventions and innovations in virtually every sphere of human activity – scientific, political, commercial and others. There appear new objects and devices that penetrate into everyday life of many people. The most neologisms appear according to the following simple pattern – first there appears a new object / phenomenon or just some necessity for it, then it is nominated by a word, chiefly a newly created one. So, the introduction of new words shares its nature practically with all the kinds of innovations – political, technological, scientific etc – as all of them are caused by social demand. The material aspect of the neologisms cannot be ignored as well, as the new lexemes are built with the help of certain linguistic “matter” which represents its substantial side and is a “framework” where the notion is inserted.

**CONCLUSION**

According to E.V. Budayev and A.P. Chudinov, the “globalization” of political linguistics is taking place. Whereas previous scientific studies have generally been conducted in Europe or North America, in recent years, such publications have increasingly appeared in a wide variety of countries in Asia, Africa, Latin America, and Oceania. After the fall of the Iron Curtain, specialists from the post-Soviet states began to learn more and more about the procedures, techniques, heuristics, and topics that were previously inaccessible to them for political reasons. Political linguistics, which had previously been characterized by a pre-eminent focus on totalitarian discourse and the discourse of Western democracies, is increasingly turning to the fundamentally new problems of the modern, multipolar world. The scientific interests of the new science are expanded by incorporating the analysis of the new aspects of the interaction between language, power, and society (the discourse of terrorism, the discourse of the new world order, political correctness, social tolerance, social communication in traditional society, fundamentalist discourse, etc.) .In the modern world, the concept of the language of manipulation (political, economic, medical, etc.) receives quite strong scientific development and application in practice. The way of how information is selected is very significant. Word choice is a dominant factor – the ability to express ideas, thoughts, emotions. New words are created that denote recently developed phenomena, concepts, objects, and different styles of communication. They can change reality, as well as alter and control the communication process. Manipulative schemes affect respondents, attracting and expanding the interest of the audience. The key to the success of the speech manipulator lies in the ability to play with words – look for neologisms, metaphors, metonomies antithesis, personifications, and epithets. Then, direct these stylistic means to improve the speech, making it meaningful, colorful, and powerful. If the word sounds rude or tactless, it is replaced by more neutral words – euphemisms. Neologisms seem to enhance political sharpness, for instance, in utterances about global chipping, economic risks, and disturbing reports of disaster areas. We tried to show examples of the impact certain groups of words have on political events, phenomena, and intentions. it is safe to say that leaders of English-speaking countries like to speak to the public and extensively enjoy oratory. Political rhetoric is well-developed in these countries. Politicians play with the laws and conduct bureaucratic regimes using instrumental power. However, they try to affect us by incorporating new words into political discourse, while utilizing their influential power. In this paper, we made an attempt to show how political neologisms are created, as well as the rhetorical devices applied to form a persuasive and manipulative political discourse. Since neologism is a new word or phrase, it takes a new cover, another meaning, and can be applied as a linguistic innovation. The area of investigation is broad. A variety of different lexical units were found during research, and among them are a number of the neologisms that are specifically observed and applied in political discourse. Therefore, it was important for us to choose the neologisms that are of political nature by definition. The study of the lexical means also helped us to reveal the stylistic techniques of public speaking, which remain relevant today. Stylistic methods in speeches of prominent politicians sometimes acquire manipulative aspects. Having a precise basis, they can influence the person, introduce certain economic and political illusory ideas, and define other norms and values. It is significant that the technology of manipulation by lexical means has been known for a long time. Neologisms are recognized to affect the consciousness of the recipients. Linguistic techniques are widely used to establish emotional climate, critical reflection, psychological pressure, and choice of associations in order to incite conflict situations. In general, we can say that the choice of lexical and linguistic methods can either limit the effect of manipulation in speech or contribute to its success. For instance, when the meaning of the piece of information is distorted, meaningless connotations are embedded, media text comprehension is negated, and ethical standards are challenged, it may lead to the reader’s aggravation and negative perception.

**REZYUME**

Siyosiy tilshunoslikni o'rganish siyosiy sohada izlanayotgan magistrantlar va aspirantlar uchun muhimdir, chunki bu tegishli matnlarni yaxshiroq tushunish, tahlil qilish va ishlab chiqarishga shu jumladan boshqa tillarga tarjima jarayonida yordam beradi. Shu bilan birga, siyosiy tilshunoslikni o'rganish zamonaviy dunyoda sodir bo'layotgan siyosiy jarayonlarni yaxshiroq tushunishga, siyosiy rahbarlarning nutqlarining asl ma'nosini va ularning jamoat ongini boshqarish usullarini ko'rishni o'rganishga yordam beradi. Siyosiy texnologiyalar, ommaviy axborot vositalarining rolining ortishi va siyosiy faoliyatning teatriallashuvi jamoatchilikning siyosiy aloqa nazariyasi va amaliyotiga e'tiborini qaratishga turtki beradi. Siyosatchilarning ham o'ziga xos tili bor. Siyosatni o'rganish talabalarning suverenitet, davlat, siyosiy majburiyat va shaxs bilan siyosiy tizim o'rtasidagi munosabatlar kabi turli siyosiy tushunchalar va atamalar haqidagi bilimlarini kengaytiradi. Talabalar o'rtasida siyosatni yaxshi tushunish ularga imkoniyat yaratadi va shu bilan ularning siyosiy ongi va faolligini oshiradi. Berk siyosati - bu jamiyat ishlarini fuqarolarning idrok etilgan manfaatlariga asoslanib boshqarish ilmi yoki san'ati. Shuning uchun ular ijtimoiy-iqtisodiy siyosatni targ'ib qilish orqali jamoat ishlarida mas'uliyatli ishtirok etishlari mumkin. Siyosiy tilshunoslikni o'rganish xalqaro muzokaralarni tahlil qilishda ayniqsa foydalidir. Xalqaro muzokaralar - bu til va madaniyat to'siqlari tez-tez yuzaga keladigan ko'plab omillarga ega bo'lgan murakkab voqealar. Tarjimonlar tarjima jarayonida nuanslar va tafsilotlarni yo'qotmaslik uchun siyosiy atamalar, terminlar bilan ishlashadi. Ayni paytda tilshunoslik chorrahasida paydo bo'lgan siyosiy tilshunoslik faol rivojlanayotgan sohalardan biri. "Siyosiy tilshunoslik" iborasi o'tgan asrning 80-yillari oxirida paydo bo'lgan, ammo bu tendentsiyaning haqiqiy kelib chiqishini ilgari, siyosiy kommunikatsiyalar, ritorika va semiotikani o'rganish alohida yo'nalish bo`lib ajralib chiqqanida ko'rish mumkin. Siyosiy tilni tushunish talabalarga siyosiy mafkurani va siyosiy tizimni takomillashtirishga hissa qo'shadigan tuzilmalar qanday ishlashini yaxshiroq tushunishga yordam beradi va bu demokratik tizim kabi turli xil siyosiy tizimlarning mafkuralarini yetkazish orqali siyosatdagi qadriyatlar to'g'risida xabardorlikni oshiradi. Olingan ma'lumotlar ma'lum bir siyosiy tizimni anglash, uni qabul qilish yoki rad etish uchun uchun foydali bo'ladi. Siyosiy lingvistika sohasida yangi tadqiqotlarning paydo bo`lishi, tadqiqotchilarning siyosiy tilni o`rganishning yangi jihatlariga murojaat qilishi-bularning barchasi ushbu ilmiy yo`nalish tarixi, uning hozirgi holati, qonuniyatlarini har tomonlama tushunishni talab qiladi.Siyosiy tildagi yashirin atamalarni o`rganish va ochib berish, olimlarning siyosiy lingvistika haqidagi turli qarashlarini o`rganish, siyosiy tillarning lingvistik xususiyatlarini turli xil usullar va so`zlar orqali o`rganish bu sohaning asosiy yo`nalishlaridan hisoblanadi. Ish natijalari ilmiy maqolalar, bitiruv malakaviy ishlari va kurs ishlarini yozish uchun qo`llanilishi mumkin. Ba`zi natijalardan siyosiy fanlar, siyosiy munozaralar va mutaxasssiligi boshqa bo`lgan sohalarda ma`ruzalar va seminarlar uchun foydalanish mumkin.Mazkur dissertatsiya kirish,3 bob, xulosalar va foydalanilgan adabiyotlar ro`yxatidan iborat. Ushbu tadqiqotning birinchi bobi nazariy jihatlarni ko'rib chiqish va uning dolzarbligini ta'minlashga bag'ishlangan. Ushbu bo'lim zamonaviy siyosiy lingvistikaning Genezisini o'rganadi, siyosiy til tarixini soha sifatida tavsiflaydi va siyosiy mafkurani amaliy o'rganish misolini keltiradi. Ikkinchi bob o'sha tilning xususiyatlarini ritorik va kognitiv yondashuvlar orqali tahlil qiladigan metodologiyaga bag'ishlangan. Uchinchi bobda zamonaviy siyosiy neologizmlarni tahlil qilish va tasniflash aks ettirilgan.Olimlarning siyosiy lingvistika haqidagi turli qarashlari o`rganildi, siyosiy so`zlarning lingvistik xususiyatlari turli usullar bilan o`rganildi, siyosiy atamalar semantik va tarkibiy xuxusiyatiga ko`ra tahlil qilindi va yangi siyosiy sohaga tegishli bo`lgan neologizmlar o`rganildi.

Xulosa qilib shuni aytish kerakki,tadqiqot talabalarga siyosiy tilda tushunilishi qiyin bo`lgan atamalarning, neologizmlarning ma`nosini tushuntiribgina qolmay balki holis baho berish uchun ham foydali bo`ladi.

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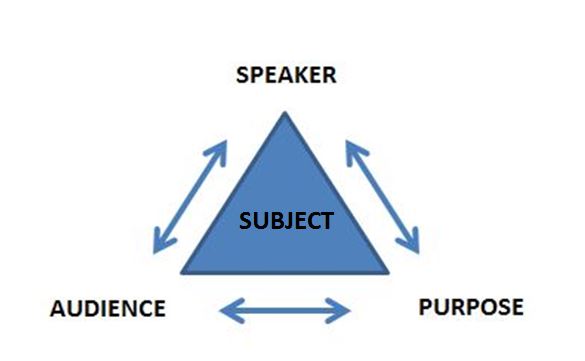
**APPENDIX 1**

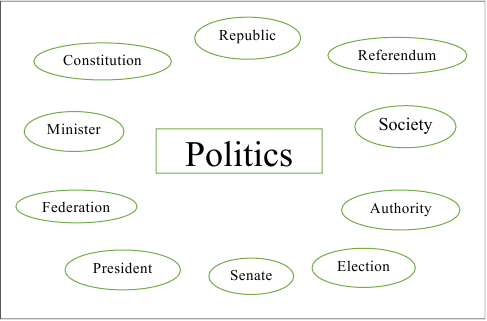
|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| republic | республика | respublika | jumhuriyat |
| democracy | демократия | demokratiya | xalq hokimyati |
| president | президент | prezident | yurtboshi |
| minister | министр | ministr | vazir |
| somite | samit | сомит | qo‘shma majlis |
| regulation | регламент | reglament | yo‘riqnoma |
| pension | пенсия | pensiya | nafaqa |
| convention | конвенсия | konvensiya | qurultoy |
| deputy | депутат | deputat | noib (xalq noibi) |
| compensation | компенсация | kompensatsiya | tovon |

**APPENDIX 2**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Source: PLANT** | Target: SOCIAL ORGANIZATION |
| **(a) the whole plant** | the entire organization |
| **(b) a part of the plant** | a part of the organization |
| **(c) growth of the plant** | development of the organization |
| **(d) removing a part of the plant** | reducing the organization |
| **(e) the root of the plant** | the origin of the organization |
| **(f) the flowering** | the best stage, the most successful stage |

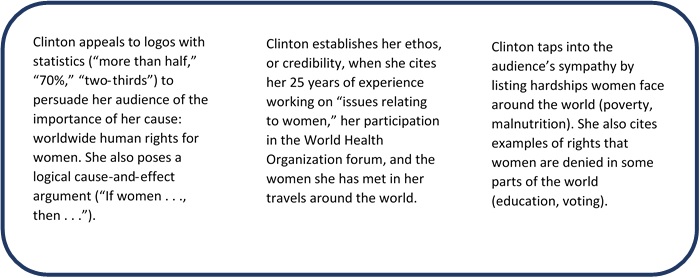
**DIAGRAMM 1**





**TABLE 1**





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