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“Slogans in Political Discourse (diachronic aspect)”

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INTRODUCTION

Political slogans have long been a crucial component of political campaigns, functioning as a tool for conveying political ideas to the audience. These catchy, memorable, and effective phrases can significantly influence an election's result.

In the discipline of political communication, the subject of American political slogans is extremely relevant. **The topicality of the research work** is that political slogans have played a crucial role in influencing public opinion and forging political identities in American political campaigns for many years. Political slogans from various historical eras may be examined to learn more about how political speech has developed, how political players have interacted with the voters, and how political circumstances have changed over time.

The **goal of the research** is to analyze how political slogans have changed in the US from 1840 to 2020. The study intends to reveal patterns and trends in the usage of political slogans in the United States by analyzing the use of slogans over various historical periods and political ideologies.

The following **tasks** must be completed in order to achieve the goal:

- to determine the basic concepts of “slogan”, and “political slogan”;
- to sample American political slogans from 1840 to 2020;
- to prove or refute the hypothesis that political slogans are concise and catchy;
- to analyze the occurrences and impact of literary devices on message delivery;
- to single out changes in political catchphrases over time, their patterns, and trends.

The object of the research is political slogans.

The subject of the research is American political slogans from 1840 to 2020.

In this thesis, the **material** is 305 US campaign slogans (1840-2020). The research does not involve the runners-up for the 2024 presidential elections, despite the fact that they are already recognized and have campaign slogans. Thus, the study is limited to slogans that have been employed in previous elections up until 2020. Campaign catchphrases from both of the main political parties were selected to

provide coverage of a variety of political viewpoints. The paper uses a diachronic approach to look at American political catchphrases from 1840 to 2020. Since it covers more than a century of US political history, the time period selected allows for an evaluation of how political slogans evolved over time.

Websites like the *Campaigns and Elections* section of the American President website [88] and the *Presidential Campaign Memorabilia* website from the Duke University Special Collections Library [89] have been used to create a list of 305 campaign slogans. The study could be subject to some restrictions since the list of slogans is not exhaustive.

The **research's theoretical framework** is founded on the works of eminent local and international linguists. Political slogans are the subject matter of works of Ukrainian scholars like O. Bylinska, A. Kovalevska, N. Kutuza, etc. Linguists like Falk Hartig, G. Hare, and C. Newsome dedicated their works to the role of campaign slogans and their place in the political discourse.

In order to conduct the study for this master's thesis, the following **methods** were employed: observation, comparison, deduction, induction, classification, and generalization, as well as language research methods such as the descriptive method, quantitative analysis, linguistic analysis, and method of a purposeful selection. Additionally employed in this work were the *Voyant Tools* and *Text Analyzer* tools.

The theoretical value of the research. The study facilitates the advancement and expansion of already established political slogan concepts. Theoretical data reveals the characteristics of campaign catchphrases and emphasizes the link between slogans as campaign tools and candidates' public perception.

The practical value of the research. Research findings may be applied in American studies and American history courses. Researching American political slogans has practical uses in both guiding political messaging and strategy, as well as in offering insights into the language, rhetoric, and cultural settings of American politics across time.

The **paper's novelty** comes in its thorough diachronic research of American political slogans from 1840 to 2020. The research provides a deeper understanding of

political slogans' relevance and influence by not only looking at their language components but also their historical and social context.

The structure of the paper. The introduction, three chapters, conclusion, references, and appendices constitute the paper.

CHAPTER I. THEORETICAL PRINCIPLES OF THE INVESTIGATION

1.1. Exploring the Concept of Slogan as a Linguistic Phenomenon

The very word “slogan” is Gaelic in origin. From the 16th century to the 19th, it had a meaning of a “war cry or battle cry”, for example, battle cries used by the Irish or Scottish natives. Back then, those cries typically included a surname and/or the name of a meeting place. Nowadays, Collins Online Dictionary marks this definition as obsolete [84].

Similarly, in *Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics*, Hadumod Bussman claims that the term “slogan” is derived from the Gaelic word *slaughghairm* (from “*slaugh* ‘host’ + *gairm*”), which means “host shout or cry” in Gaelic [48].

However, the practice of using catchphrases was not created by chance. Rather, it is a linguistic phenomenon that is deeply embedded in human society’s ideals and standards. People use various language forms of phrases to communicate their complaints, remarks, needs, wishes, etc. In the past, the term “slogan” was prevalent in European nations, especially in the Middle Ages. Back then, it was used as a password to ensure people’s identities [56].

The word “slogan” was used by English speakers at the beginning of the 18th century as a cry, as a lament for any individual or group of people. In the 19th century, a slogan meant any individual’s or group of individuals’ distinctive phrase. In politics, slogans have been used since the 20th century [74].

In the beginning, slogans were simple and were frequently used orally on the streets. To promote them, different channels such as radio, video, television, and even celebrities were used over time. Slogans, regardless of the period, are a form of influence, as evidenced by their meaning and intent. Someone is always trying to persuade another person to believe in something or act in a certain way, whether it is through radio, TV, newspapers, or the Internet, and whether it is spoken or written.

Linguists, anthropologists, and sociologists have all formulated their own definitions of what a slogan is. They all try to define slogans as a separate form of speech, distinguished by specific characteristics that set it apart from other kinds of

language use. These unique features are what give catchphrases their particular character.

The slogan is interpreted in linguistics in different aspects: 1) as a type of utterance, as a text type, and as a speech genre. The most common is the first approach, according to which it is believed that the slogan is a short independent advertising message, which can exist separately from other advertising products and constitutes the condensed content of an advertising campaign [4]. This definition has become almost classical, therefore most modern researchers consider the slogan to be a statement or phrase with some structural and content features. The list of such requirements may vary, but it is agreed that the slogan should contain the main thought, idea, and content of the offer. Another angle is to understand a slogan as a special kind of text. Slogans, like headlines, perform the function of influence.

The understanding of the slogan as a text requires certain clarifications since this type of text has certain features. On the one hand, the brevity and aphoristic nature are characteristics of the slogan, and on the other, slogans own the content capacity and integrity. That is why they may be interpreted as a micro text characterized by a single theme of the message and constitute semantic integrity, that is, it is built on the basis of the categories of cohesion and coherence.

Recently, the interpretation of the slogan as one of the varieties of the speech genre has become widespread. The superiority of the linguopragmatic scientific approach in modern linguistics actualizes the understanding of slogans as a speech genre, e.g. thematically, compositionally, and stylistically established types of messages – bearers of speech acts united by the purpose of communication, by the intention of the speaker, taking into account the personality of the addressee, the context and situation of communication [1].

A slogan, according to Bussman, is “a precise and impressively formulated expression with a persuasive function, frequently formed as an elliptic sentence and equipped with figures of speech” [48]. And to reach the objective and be successful, a catchphrase should fulfill the following criteria:

- conciseness supported by intense emotion, promising to satiate the audience's needs;
- emphasis on the key idea;
- straightforward language that is easily remembered [83].

In William Safire's magnum opus that is *Safire's Political Dictionary*, a slogan is defined as "a rallying cry; catchphrase; a brief message that crystallizes an idea, defines an issue, the best of which thrills, exhorts, and inspires" [71]. The linguist shares his opinion on the difference between good and great slogans. The first ones have rhythm, rhyme, and/or alliteration so that they are easy to remember. In turn, great slogans, according to Safire, can lack all these traits "but touch a chord of memory, release pent-up hatreds or stir people's better natures" [71]. Slogans have a tendency to play on feelings, bypassing logic, and reason.

According to Ding, slogans have two fundamental purposes:

- to provide consistency to a series of advertisements in a campaign;
- to limit a message strategy to a brief, repetitive, and unforgettable stance [49].

The notions of a slogan and a motto may be overlapping. A slogan is a brief statement that makes an appeal or request and communicates a central idea or requirement. A motto, on the other hand, is "a laconic phrase that catches the eye" that is easy to remember and encapsulates the core message [77]. The two terms stress the phrases' concise nature, implying that they are succinct and to the point, and they imply that the statements have a particular objective or message to communicate. A slogan's definition highlights the concept of an appeal, whereas a motto's definition emphasizes the essence of the message. The second definition specifies that the phrase should be simple to recall and eye-catching, whereas the first does not. The terms "slogan" and "motto" are also used in distinct contexts: the first one is frequently associated with political or business campaigns, whereas the second one may be related to a personal or organizational philosophy.

Some oppose a slogan to a logo. For example, Xiaosong Ding argues that a slogan is considered to be a form of a verbal logo. A slogan encapsulates one's values, area of expertise, benefits, marketing strategy, and level of commitment. A

catchphrase can be particularly helpful for reaffirming one's personality. It may end up being more effective than a visual logo. While it is doubtful that the audience will doodle one's logo, they can certainly recall and quote the catchphrase [49].

According to Bjorkstrand (Hanken School of Economics), there are three M's of slogans:

- meaningful. Meaning is essential to a slogan's effectiveness. Despite the flatteries brought about by sloganeering, the message needs to be one of significance and importance if it is to be accepted and successful. If a phrase has meaning, it will be more effective;

- motivating. The slogans must persuade customers and make them feel as if they could relate to the catchphrase. Consumers are less motivated to understand complex messages than they are to comprehend simpler ones;

- memorable. A catchphrase must be unforgettable. Repeated exposure has been shown to improve memorability. When a phrase is overused, it may have a limited existence as such [46]. Some scholars even equate the repetition of slogans with perseveration [23].

Like Safire, Mike W. Martin supported the idea that slogans are primarily aimed at appealing to emotions. Moreover, he advocates that slogans may contain cognitive elements that are regarded as apt by those who employ them while opponents will perceive them as irrational. Martin pays attention to three guidelines this content provides [64]:

- attract attention: Slogans can be used in a variety of settings to promote goods, campaigns, ideas, etc. They can draw attention to a broad range of subjects. A slogan's ability to convey an idea clearly and persuasively to the target audience will determine how successful it is at getting attention. Because they have the ability to influence and motivate people to act, slogans can serve as an events catalyst. For example, *We Shall Overcome* and *Black Lives Matter* were two of the civil rights movement's catchphrases from the 1960s that were used to highlight discrimination and racism against African Americans. These catchphrases stoked the movement's momentum and prompted important civil rights legislation and societal reform [44];

- provide emphasis: Slogans are frequently employed to simplify and make understandable complex concepts or messages. A slogan can make the message more palatable and memorable by condensing complicated concepts into a few short words. Due to this, slogans help to direct attention to the most crucial aspects of an issue;

- simplify: Slogans can reduce the complexity of a message by condensing complicated ideas or beliefs into a brief and memorable phrase. Slogans can capture people's attention and make a statement more remembered by using plain English, catchy rhymes, or repetition. This simplification of communicating can help people comprehend and recall the message more easily, as well as make it more successful in affecting public opinion or behavior.

On the other hand, the simplicity of a catchphrase can also call into question the phrase's trustworthiness. While any government communication, whether aimed at domestic or global audiences in the field of public diplomacy, must be reliable in a manner in which words must be backed up by actions, the fragility of political slogans depends on the obvious but critical fact that the message they are trying to convey can easily be compared with the reality [55].

Since slogans simplify complicated policy ideas into easily recalled catchphrases, everybody by default can contrast them to the actual government's actions. It is less challenging to assess whether Donald Trump would have kept his pledges to *Build That Wall* and *Make America Great Again* than it is to evaluate an apparently trivial policy strategy to change particular rules. Thus, if political slogans are to be taken seriously, politicians must not only develop slogans that are successful in terms of public relations but also closely consider the pledges they make about future prospects.

The creation of slogans relies on several factors including [77]:

- 1) recent analysis of the electorate's preferences and expectations;
- 2) trends observed in previous elections;
- 3) global trends;
- 4) trust in the power of political technologists;

- 5) an epistemological approach;
- 6) a certain degree of reliance on luck.

There are distinct phases in the development of an advertising slogan:

- identify the slogan's keywords and predict which effective motive it should evoke in the perception model. This relates to the objective of the marketing initiative or campaign;
- determine the number of words, symbols, and syllables that form up an advertising catchphrase at the perfect length depending on the means of advertising, e.g. outdoor advertising, social media, press, TV, etc.;
- choose the desired form of advertising slogan;
- customize the slogan for the campaign;
- integrate a catchphrase within the visual concept (i.e. unified presentation form, font, color, etc.) [35].

A slogan is the quintessence of the philosophy of a company or product distributor, and, naturally, the success or deviance of the entire advertising campaign depends on its meaningful content [13].

In conclusion, linguists investigated the notion of a slogan from a number of perspectives and constructed their own definitions. Although there are significant differences between these definitions, it is generally accepted that a slogan is a succinct, memorable phrase that has unique qualities that distinguish it from other uses of language. A successful slogan should be succinct, focus on the main message, and employ simple language that is memorable. An effective slogan communicates a person's ideals, the field of expertise, advantages, marketing approach, and degree of dedication verbally.

1.2. Multi-Functional Role of Slogans in Advertising and Politics

Slogans are brief, memorable sayings that are used to promote goods or political figures/campaigns. While their main purpose is to capture the audience's attention, they also fulfill numerous other crucial roles in both politics and advertising. Regardless of the type of advertising, the slogan performs the following functions:

- persuasive function. The main function of advertising in general and the slogan in particular is to use various linguistic and non-linguistic means to force the addressee to act in the direction desired by the addresser. Unlike texts, the first place in slogans takes persuasiveness, and only then is informativeness, this is what determines the richness of the content and the need to convey it using a connotative message [25]. Connotation is formed up of additional semantic or stylistic components that are directly related to the speaker [33]. Its purpose is to convey the emotional or evaluative shades of the statement, and to reflect the cultural norms of a particular culture by communicating the nuances of the statement. It falls under the category of pragmatic information, which emphasizes the recipient's perspective on the issue at hand rather than the actual items or phenomena;

- magical function. It is revealed in the suggestiveness of an advertising slogan, that is, the ability to influence the consciousness of the addressee of the message using verbal means [25];

- agon function. It consists in highlighting the advantageous properties of the subject of advertising in comparison with other similar ones [25];

- educational function. A slogan not only advertises a product, doing it succinctly but vividly, it builds its specific style of behavior, and lifestyle in the mind of the addressee of the advertisement. The addressee of the slogan frequently takes on the role of an adviser, teacher, or friend, while building hierarchical relationships: the addressee of the slogan knows better what the recipient should do;

- modeling function. It consists in the fact that slogans take an active part in the formation of a peculiar model of the world through advertising discourse;

- decorative (ornamental) function. It consists of the choice of mostly stylistically colored vocabulary that creates a mood favorable for describing the advertised product [25];

- suggestive function. It implies that when we hear or read (even if it is a single word) a slogan we subconsciously begin to look for the meaning of the slogan, and somehow interpret it. And the shorter the slogan, the more variants of meaning, and the more possible interpretations. This is what most political slogans are based on.

- axiological function. A political slogan has the ability to impact the listener's system of values, as it invariably includes a value-based approach founded on specific social and/or individual values of a person. This essentially implies that it serves an axiological purpose [36];

- communicative function. It aims to establish a connection between those in power or those seeking power and the general population. It achieves this through targeted communication using easily understandable signs. Essentially, it serves as a conduit for conveying ideas, and transmitting images, symbols, and myths [40].

This list does not pretend to be complete since new slogans appear every day, which have their own functionality, depending on the goal of the advertising company. The abovementioned functions of the slogan of the advertising text in each specific case coexist in a complex.

Functionally, political slogans serve as “brief statements of a single idea” [67] whose brevity makes them simple to memorize and repeat. Slogans are frequently created to represent the beliefs of those who use them. They develop into succinct declarations of support for political action and by choosing a slogan, an individual is indicating that they agree with the defined in the slogan action.

The slogan serves as a generalized representation of what may actually be a complicated political endeavor. For instance, the *New Deal* of Franklin Roosevelt, which was intended to help the country recover from the Great Depression, came to stand for economic aid and renewal. Governmental action was complicated and extensive in order to carry out this plan. A person’s support for the *New Deal* did not imply that they individually agreed with all of the current government policies [67]. Slogans provide a comprehensive understanding of what is usually an entire government agenda. It is a generalization meant to make a complicated system of government activity more understandable. It would be inaccurate to assume that the use of a slogan and the implicit consent that comes with it can be extended to specific actions occurring as part of the campaign that the slogan depicts.

1.3. Political Slogans as a Special Type of Advertising Slogans

Ancient Greek philosopher Aristotle once said that people as political animals have the capacity to use words to accomplish their own goals. For the past several decades, a key area of study in the field of political discourse has been the interaction between ideology and language.

Political slogans have been employed as a form of motivation and a means of expressing feelings or opinions. Communication between the people and their government is fundamental to the concept of representative governance. The public's opinions are heard through this communication and the government must assemble backing for its initiatives. Since the 1965 Presidential election, the recourse to professional commercial advertising experts by political parties and politicians has grown to the point where one is able to speak of the field of political marketing or political communications [54].

The 21st century is the beginning of the emergence of the informational society, which is closely related to advertising. Political advertising occupies a special place in the US since it helps people make certain choices. Advertisers resort to manipulation and create the illusion of independent choice of the electorate, which can be considered the main goal of advertising.

When manipulation becomes more formalized and organized, it turns out to be propaganda that supports a specific ideology, political party, or leader by using different methods to influence public opinion or beliefs. German social psychologist Erich Fromm proved that political manipulation deprives a person of the ability to form a coherent picture of the world, and replaces it with an abstract mosaic of interconnected facts [50]. Similar to how advertising affects the consumer, political propaganda techniques tend to make voters feel even more insignificant. This does not suggest that political propaganda and advertising openly highlight how insignificant individuals are. Instead, they offer the person a sense of importance by pretending to rely on their critical thinking and reasoning. However, the main purpose of these pretenses is to allay the person's concerns and enable them to deceive themselves concerning the character of their choice.

Political advertising is quite popular and relevant in today's politicized society. It covers a wide range of issues and tasks. Such advertising is the most important and influential tool in the conduct of election campaigns. The primary objective of political discourse is to exert influence over the recipient's value system with the aim of obtaining power.

During election campaigns, political discourse dominates the entire information space, with every element of discourse geared towards suggestive and persuasive interaction between the speaker and the audience. In this context, political slogans are the most effective linguistic units and they serve as the axis of political advertising. The main goal of political advertising is targeted influence on public opinion, which distinguishes political advertising from other options of interpersonal communication [32].

As it has long been noticed, any advertising suggestion quickly causes a feeling of saturation, a reaction of psychological resistance, and the appearance of all kinds of counter-motivation. The discourse of advertising has a complex intentional nature. It possesses the illocutionary force of motivation to achieve a perlocutionary effect, in other words, the addressee's performance of a non-speech action. In order to avoid the distrust of the target audience, the authors of political advertising are forced to resort to hidden influence strategies that mask the advertiser's intentions. Masking motivation and voluntariness creates the illusion of non-involvement of the addressee and freedom of the addressee in making decisions [27].

The problem of defining a slogan is also related to its speech expression: a slogan is called an utterance, phrase, text, micro text, or discourse. O. Bylinska interprets a political slogan as a speech genre, i.e. as a model, a scheme for building an advertising message in political communication, which acts as a kind of communicative move, a technique in political discourse [5].

It is difficult to overestimate the role of political advertising in the modern world, especially on the eve of presidential elections. Pre-election political advertising is primarily aimed at managing voter behavior to achieve specific goals. It is the first step in shaping the image of a politician, which creates the necessary

prerequisites for the perception of ideas, political views, and the candidate's program. Political candidates resort to catchphrases to position themselves as the superior option over their opponents. They frequently use previously copyrighted slogans to further their message [59].

Slogans are often sensitive markers of political settings [67]. They represent what elected officials and the public believe about present-day social and political events. To begin with, parties and their leaders are backed by a certain segment of the community. Otherwise, a political party cannot exist. As a result, the slogans establish connections with the public. Then, in order to garner the greatest number of votes, political organizations, and their officials attempt to endorse the most widely supported ideas while also meeting the most urgent needs of the community. Consequently, there is certainly a link between the political environment and electoral campaign slogans.

A slogan is the essence of an advertising concept compressed into a formula, a memorable thought brought to linguistic perfection, a verbal portrait of a political figure, or a statement that reflects a clear position of the candidate [22]. The effectiveness of the slogan is mainly ensured by such properties as an aphorism, imperative form, and minimum volume containing maximum meaning.

According to Herbert Barry III, a cross-cultural investigator, a political slogan is a catchphrase or motivating phrase that is unambiguously linked with a political party or other organization. He concludes that while a slogan typically comes from the president or a member of their administration, the public's acceptance and use are what determine whether it is successful. Slogans have the potential to cross political lines and be embraced by the entire country. The most effective slogans are not always those associated with a specific political party, even though their origins may still be rooted in some political occasion [67]. Apart from a slogan being the main idea of the campaign, it can be a system of messages that reinforce the main slogan [6].

Slogans may serve as a platform for the general public to voice their views on current affairs. In the book *Voices of America: The Nation's Story in Slogans*,

Sayings, and Songs, Thomas Andrew Bailey claims that the only means through which a significant number of regular people can voice their opinions consistently in favor of or against certain politicians or ideas is through slogans [67]. This may explain why many slogans are spontaneous and why it is typically challenging to identify who came up with them.

Based on the character of electoral campaign slogans, the following definitions of a political slogan may be provided [56]:

- A slogan is a brief declaration that explains why a political figure should be chosen or why electors should support a particular measure. It is said to be effective in an election if it inspires voters and influences them to vote for a specific candidate.
- It is a phrase or motto that conveys an objective or intention and is used for political purposes. As a result, it must have an explicit intent and express an aim on the inside.
- It is an evocative expression found in political speeches or ads to convey a key concept (or to achieve another important goal) in a political campaign.

Summing up, the slogan is a core component of political campaigning and is a mandatory element of the election process. Being an advertising slogan of any political campaign, it is a statement that conveys the main idea of political communication in a concise and understandable form for the recipients. For the purpose of campaigning, influencing, and persuading voters, different types of slogans are used, which have different influential potentials.

1.4. Typology and Function of Political Slogans in Political Discourse

Political slogans serve as a speech genre in political discourse, functioning through specific cases that constitute corresponding communicative-pragmatic types. Therefore, by analyzing the communicative purpose of slogans, their types can be identified and a typology of political slogans has been created by O. Bylinska [5]:

- A slogan-message is based on the affirmation of a certain order of things, therefore this speech genre is built on speech acts of a representative type (according to J. Searle's classification of speech acts [72]). Slogans-messages only provide some

details, mostly of a determining character. In slogans-messages, there is a special type of speech act – a statement-assertion. In political discourse, informativeness is changed to some degree, and the novelty of the message vanishes. In general, prospective recipients of political catchphrases do not anticipate receiving new information; rather, they view them as general assertions, sometimes even truisms [5], statements universally accepted as true and frequently employed to emphasize a prevalent point of view.

The slogan-message fulfills the main requirement for a slogan's content as it presents a concept in a concentrated form. This makes it an excellent tool for conveying program provisions as a statement of fact. All slogans within this type share the common feature of providing communicative instruction on a particular message, with the repeated repetition of this information ensuring that the recipient retains the key program provision presented in a statement form.

- The slogan-call belongs to the campaigning speech genre as it is oriented towards encouraging the addressee to act, so this speech genre is mostly based on directive speech acts (according to J. Searle [72]). Directives include orders, requests, and incentives and constitute the main group of slogans. Some linguists name this type imperative slogans [12].

The use of a verb in the imperative mood, specifically in the 2nd person singular form, creates a sense of dialogic interaction between the addresser and the addressee. As such, political communication, as a form of mass communication, takes on an interpersonal character. This form of communication holds greater persuasive power than a mere presentation of information or description of events. By directly addressing the addressee, the impersonal speaker engages in a form of interaction, conveying information to a specific recipient, thereby creating an intimate effect within mass communication [5; 12]. However, this type is not limited only to directive speech acts since the urge to act can also be expressed by indirect speech means.

- The slogan-promise as a speech genre is based on the speech acts of commissives (according to J. Searle [72]). However, a specific feature of this type is

the absence of performative commissive verbs. They are implied but not verbalized. With this in mind, the commissive part “We promise that...” can be added to each slogan-promise. Slogans-promises are mostly presented as incomplete syntactic constructions of verbless type.

William Safire, who was widely regarded as an expert on language and rhetoric, distinguishes different types of slogans, for instance:

- promissory, e.g. *Every Man a King*;
- warnings, e.g. *Don't Let Them Take It Away*;
- calls for change, e.g. *Time for a Change*;
- rational, e.g. *Let's Talk Sense to the American People*;
- ant-rational, e.g. *In Your Heart You Know He's Right*;
- containing challenge, e.g. *Freedom Now*;
- appealing to gratitude, e.g. *He Kept Us Out of War*;
- evocative, e.g. *Remember Pearl Harbour*;
- alliterative. e.g. *Win with Willkie*;
- rhyming slogans, e.g. *I Like Ike*;
- symbolic, e.g. *I Am as Strong as a Bull Moose*;
- punning, e.g. *Keep Cool with Coolidge*;
- frantic, e.g. *Anything to Beat Grant*;
- sardonic, e.g. *Make Love, Not War*;
- vicious, e.g. *Elect a Leader Not a Lover*;
- meaningless, e.g. *Nixon's the One*;
- questioning, e.g. *Why Not the Best?*;
- facetious, e.g. *Support Mental Health or I'll Kill You* [72].

Based on the very effect slogans produce, they may be divided into the following categories:

- “positive” – to provide someone with something;
- “negative” – to deprive someone of something;

- “combined” – to hand over something, either partly or fully, by removing it from one individual and giving it to another, or not giving it to everyone evenly;
- “impressive” – to cause a buzz;
- “unimpressive” – to provoke emotions;
- “effective” – to inspire people to take action;
- “non-ineffective” – not to elicit any action [77].

These categories provide a framework for understanding the different approaches used in creating slogans and the potential impact they may have on their audience.

Slogans can be classified as “basic” or “operational” [77]. Basic catchphrases are broad in scope and apply to all members of a political group. These slogans frequently represent the party’s overall philosophy or message. Operational slogans, on the other hand, are created for a specific occasion or campaign and are intended to achieve maximal political gain in a particular subject matter.

When competing for a specific election in a specific region, slogans can be adapted to the anxieties and interests in that area. The use of both basic and operational slogans is essential in political campaigning because it allows parties to reach out to a broader audience and handle particular problems that may be important in specific areas.

Taking into account the notion that slogans are intended to draw attention and communicate specific information and/or a desirable outcome, political slogans can be classified into four main groups [55]:

1) those adopted to relate with a nation or a country. Nation branding is the use of business marketing ideas and methods to nations in order to improve their reputation and status in the global community. From this point of view, slogans are a critical tool for presenting countries worldwide, i.e. for transferring a country’s significance to expected tourists, investors, or foreign students. This way slogans do not necessarily tell people what to believe about a nation, but rather ensure that they think about it at all. A vivid example of such type of slogan is *Any decent doctor would prescribe Norway* [61] that is a play on the notion that physicians advise their

patients upon what is best for them. The slogan positions Norway as a healthy and attractive location to reside in by implying that it is the perfect destination.

2) those used by the public and/or political groups to show dissatisfaction or dissent. These are typically used by social movements, non-parliamentary political organizations, or simply gatherings of individuals who share similar interests. An example is *Hey! Hey! LBJ! How many kids did you kill today?* used throughout the Vietnam War against US President Lyndon B. Johnson's (LBJ) decisions and actions in the war. The slogan does not allude to a particular amount of children because it is intended to be a rhetorical question and an act of political protest. It is widely assumed, however, to be a criticism of the president's policies and the toll the war took on civilians that included children. This type of catchphrases is political not just because they communicate a political message, but also because they target specific political figures or political organizations.

This grouping also includes slogans that were crucial and influential throughout revolutions (e.g., the French Revolution). Simple words were meant to stir the feelings of ordinary people seeking justice in their everyday lives as they thought it should be at the time [56].

3) those used by political leaders/parties throughout electoral campaigns. A political campaign is an organized attempt aimed at influencing a decision-making process within a particular group.

Campaign slogans are the most prevalent type of political catchphrases. They are particularly typical in the United States of America and are an essential component of any election campaign since they are meant to transfer the spotlight from the candidate's agenda to the general agenda. In this paper, the main focus is put on this type of catchphrase.

The presidential races in the United States provide several perspectives on the use of phrases as a campaign tool. Firstly, during the period of a campaign, a few slogans are typically used. Some catchphrases are actually not official campaign catchphrases but rather campaign chants. Some scholars argue that official slogans

tend to be more traditional and dull, whereas campaign chants are likely to be more touching, compelling, and vibrant [55].

Make America Great Again! was Donald Trump's formal campaign catchphrase in the 2016 US presidential election that was a fairly standard tagline intended at portraying the United States in a dark tone to convey the idea that Trump by himself could make the nation great again. However, his two notorious campaign cries were more distinct and catchier: *Built that wall* and *Lock her up*. The first one alluded to Trump's proposal to construct a wall along the US-Mexico boundary to prevent illegal immigrants, terrorists, and drugs. The second one alluded to Hillary Clinton, the Democratic presidential candidate, and Trump's wish to imprison her since, according to him, she symbolized backroom deals, corruption, and political egoism. Both cries became unofficial campaign slogans for Trump and transformed into cultural symbols and rallying cries [57].

Furthermore, Trump's official slogan, *Make America Great Again*, was purposefully ambiguous. After all, it may have meant virtually anything to anyone because it is unclear whether the statement referred to economic growth, US values or reputation in the world, or conservative ideals, and it continued to be unresolved when the US truly was great.

As can be seen, campaigns tend to keep their message broad for it to reach the greatest number of possible votes. A message that is too restricted could drive away voters or cause the potential candidate to become tied down in clarifying specifics.

4) slogans used in government to convey some information, e.g. policies, or a political agenda. Slogans employed in the office, like campaign slogans, are expressive devices used by parliamentarians and other political figures to accomplish particular goals. While the users of the former type of catchphrases seek to be elected, the users of this group endeavor to share, explain, and highlight political agendas after entering the office. This group of phrases is the least researched. An example of this group is *Don't Mess with Texas* which was used by the Texas Department of Transportation in the middle of the 1980s to decrease littering on Texas streets. This initiative was a huge success and it is widely attributed to

decreasing littering in Texas. The slogan has since evolved into an iconic symbol in the state and it has been applied in settings other than its initial one [69].

The issue regarding these slogans is that very few are recalled by individuals outside of the particular constituency, such as Texas. When a political slogan with an international perspective serves in office to convey, define, and clarify policies, it is usually noted more widely.

An example of a well-known international political catchphrase is *Evil Empire* by the 40th US President Ronald Reagan. The phrase defined his hardline attitude against the Soviet Union. The 43rd US President George W. Bush created a similar phrase – *Axis of Evil* in 2002 to characterize the regimes of Iran, Iraq, and North Korea, which his administration was blamed for supporting terrorism and pursuing weapons of mass destruction. The *Axis of Evil* was used to identify the United States' shared foes and mobilize the American people in favor of the *War on Terror*, which was a political phrase used to justify the military campaign against the 5th President of Iraq Saddam Hussein after 9/11 both in America as well as overseas [65].

The aforementioned instances suggest how political slogans are ideographic in nature functioning as simplified images that remind people of their ideological views by providing obvious polarities, e.g. good vs evil. They are also used to detect possible threats. Moreover, these instances demonstrate that political slogans used by powerful political figures target both local and worldwide audiences. Although protest and campaign slogans typically appear in specific local settings, the examples above show how political catchphrases may deliver vastly different messages to local as well as international audiences at the same time.

To conclude, all types of slogans express the main communicative goal in different ways. But they are aimed at persuading and influencing the recipient through their communicative form and content. Each of the types of slogans is correlated with the corresponding speech acts and speech forms of verbalization.

1.5. Main Characteristics of Political Slogans

1.5.1. Unique Nature of Political Slogans

People have to foresee the key content of brief political messages such as slogans for them to be successful. The audience will identify a specific political slogan as an assertive, critical or ironic, or benevolent one thanks to rhetorical clues presented in slogans [60]. Given the lack of time, expertise, resources, or capacity to cope with all aspects of a political campaign, the electorate will assess the sincerity of a party's/politician's messages based on rhetorical peculiarities.

Commercial and political slogans share some similarities, such as their brevity and their goal to create a lasting impact. However, certain elements of slogans typically resonate with the realm of politics:

- **Conciseness.** The trend intersects with modern media uses within the digital community because communication is currently defined by rapid and mobile change and consumption.

- **The object of advertising.** The product being advertised is a person or a particular social philosophy, not a product, service, or enterprise [41].

- **Focus on the target audience (electorate).** Political slogans are devised with the target audience in mind, the voters. Slogans form the foundation of campaign positioning and can focus on one of three elements: the product/service, the addressee and their world, or the addresser themselves. Today, most campaign phrases are intended to place the voters in the limelight with messages that communicate directly to them [52].

- **Audience coverage.** Despite its mass, political advertising is aimed at a limited number of people i.e. those who are actually entitled to vote and meet certain requirements [15]. In America, one should be a citizen of the country, be 18 years old, etc. [81]. And the commercials cover a much larger part of the population since practically everyone faces the problem of choosing and purchasing goods and services, that is, there are significantly more real buyers than real voters.

- **Baselines.** Because of the use of graphic components, campaign themes are usually more prevalent in political marketing rather than commercial advertising. They commonly take noticeable and leading places in communicating, connecting the baseline's function with one of the headlines [52];

- **Continuity and frequency of action.** The period of validity of political advertising is regulated by law and such advertising ends after the election of a political leader. Commercial advertising works constantly, with a certain frequency, and there is also a constant market for goods and services for buyers [15].

While there are similarities between commercial and political slogans, certain elements of slogans are more closely aligned with the field of politics. Political slogans are designed with the target audience in mind. The differences reflect the unique nature of political communication and highlight the importance of tailoring communication strategies to specific audiences and contexts. Political slogans aim to connect with people on an emotional level, inspiring them to take action or support a particular cause.

Main characteristics of political slogans:

- its relative brevity and its ability to be quickly recalled. In other words, an effective slogan is one that is simple to memorize and recall. It uses language in a metalinguistic manner that is similar to poetry [54] by employing rhyme, rhythm, and alliteration. The innovative thinking required to create and, in fact, decode slogans appears to be like poetry, which is a parallel between slogans and poetry;

- due to their formulaic character, slogans occasionally resemble aphorisms, proverbs, exhortations, or even a cry for help;

- the consistent use of wit or humor;

- restriction and the possibility to be affected by its communicative environment and a political poster that Hare called “support” [54];

- slogans are primarily evocative and allusive, they frequently use connotational language as opposed to denotational language.

Political slogans, due to their characteristics, can emphasize a subject or problem and thus place it on the political docket. This, in turn, connects political

slogans to agenda-setting theory, which proposes a connection between the most frequently covered topics in the media and what the public considers crucial [47].

A crucial characteristic of slogans is that they are usually accompanied by an image (poster) that supplements and frequently explains the meaning of the message. In situations where a logo is involved, the slogan may be included in the image itself. The advertising text is frequently viewed as a linguistic-visual phenomenon [33].

The images used in advertising connect the advertised product or service with its social and cultural characteristics and advantages. Thus, they not only support the verbal message but also promote a particular perspective on the world, a way of life, and a set of values.

The main goals of political slogans are the following:

- to briefly outline the main idea of the program of political parties/candidates;
- to influence the voter, i.e. to force them to vote for a certain party/candidate;
- to overcome “voter fatigue” from fed-up political leaders;
- to find the most convincing arguments since political advertising is aimed at selling not material ideas and promises;
- to be remembered in a fairly short period of time because of the short terms of the actual campaign and the practical impossibility of correcting unsuccessful advertising;
- to create a strong associative connection between the advertised object, e.g. a candidate or a party, and the slogan;
- to activate the meanings that the recipient is aware of and connect them with new advertising objects offered in the slogan [24].

The coincidence of the information suggested in the slogan with the interests and values of the voter significantly contributes to memorization. Social issues are always of interest to people and the skillful use of these issues significantly increases the suggestiveness of the slogan. Slogans can effectively concentrate the candidate's promises in a certain area by topic, where the following topics are almost always win-win: social security, economic revival, ecology, environmental cleanliness, providing various kinds of opportunities, patriotism, national or state revival [23].

Political advertising is aimed at creating a positive image of political leaders, so the catchphrases frequently contain positively colored evaluative tokens. N. Kutuza notes that lexemes with an evaluatively positive load are used in the aspect of positively directing the influence of advertising discourse (or strengthening already existing positive emotions) in all types of advertising (e.g. commercial, political, social, etc.) [24]. The use of positively colored vocabulary in political slogans is also due to the fact that the recipient is unpleasant to receive information that contradicts their attitudes, views, and self-perception, so they will either avoid this information or deny it [20].

Slogans serve crucial political purposes:

- **Informative.** Slogans convey the major points of the political campaign and include crucial details that capture the substance of business, political, and economic actions. They also express the politician's desire or plan to take a particular action.

- **Summarizing.** By replacing a large loaded message with a smaller but more comprehensive one, slogans spread political ideas in a concise form. This is because sometimes the space (e.g. posters, posts on social networks, etc.) and time (e.g. speeches, television commercials) do not enable the politician to completely express their objectives [54].

- **Manipulative.** Slogans frequently urge the population to action (as a rule to vote for a particular candidate or to alter the status quo), as well as strengthen political messages and stay in voters' minds for quite a while.

- **Image-forming.** Slogans can help a politician establish the required positive image, recognize them among their opponents, emphasize their strengths, and conceal their flaws.

- **Communicative.** In today's world, where political discourse is increasingly taking place online, slogans serve as a means of communication between American politicians and the general public. The use of television, the Internet, and social media requires brief, recognizable messages. These concise communications are typically pre-planned and made to solidify a concept. In turn, the voters can use

slogans to express their either positive or negative feelings about the presidential candidates or the policies they suggest.

- Consolidating. Slogans can gather people around a specific concept, allowing them to feel and demonstrate a sense of societal solidarity.
- Discrediting. Slogans can be used to smear a political opponent's image or to mock particular political, social, or economic initiatives implemented by the current administration [54].

Slogans inform about the main points of the election campaign and contain essential information that reflects the essence of business, political and economic actions, as well as state the willingness or intention of the politician to do something. The political slogan will not be fully comprehended apart from its communicative context, its immediate visual support, its broader political and historical context, and the audience for whom it is meant. The context (or circumstance) in which the communication occurs is essential for identifying its meaning and purpose.

As a genre of political advertising, a slogan serves as a carrier of ideological information, a means of communication between the advertiser and the addressee (target audience), and a catalyst for political action that produces a predetermined or desired outcome [19]. The catchphrase belongs to the imperative categories of political communication, in which language's regulating function comes first and unifies cases in which the speaker uses language to try to directly affect the audience.

To summarize, political slogans relate to agenda-setting theory by using language in a metalinguistic way to emphasize the issue and put it on the political agenda. The major objectives of political slogans are to persuade voters and to establish a strong association between the marketed item/person and the phrase. Political slogans are effective tools for political communication because they integrate words and visuals to advance a certain worldview, way of life, and set of values.

Slogans ought to promote interest and involvement in the political process. However, the fact that they fail to encourage a thorough comprehension of public issues is a drawback of their use. Several authors have noted that slogans might have

had an adverse effect on the population as a whole [65; 73]. They give the user the cozy but deceptive impression that they are pondering when they are actually just reciting. Then, almost always one-sided, catchphrases leave little space for argument.

Because of their brevity, slogans comprise words with the greatest perlocutionary impact, allowing them to cloud the electors' minds [67]. Slogans are not always clear; they do not suggest explanations. Because slogans generalize party politics, typically with the aim of evoking convincing feelings in the audience, they suggest turning a blind eye to the facts surrounding the problem. And, last but not least, they frequently include untruths or partial facts.

Since slogans tend to generalize the concept considered, traditionally with the intention of provoking compelling emotions from the recipient, they push the audience to disregard the relevant facts about the issue at hand. This can be illustrated by the slogan *Remember Pearl Harbor* given as justification for Hiroshima and Nagasaki's bombing. The American public had previously been reluctant to get involved in the conflict in Europe and Asia but views quickly changed after the *Remember Pearl Harbor* campaign, which called for retaliation against the Japanese. The atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki were an act of atrocity and destruction that far exceeded Pearl Harbor at a time when the defeat of Japan was only a question of time [78]. Used in this manner, a slogan not only generalizes the issue concerned but in addition, it serves as an "opium for the conscience" [67]. And consequently, embracing the phrase eliminates the need for the listener to consider the moral implications of a political choice.

Thus, slogans can be very persuasive due to their succinctness but they frequently do not promote a comprehensive understanding of public issues, leaving little room for debate. They may also be deceptive, contain untruths or incomplete facts, and generalize party politics in an effort to arouse strong feelings in the audience. Adopting a catchphrase frequently spares the listener from having to think about the ethical implications of the choice they are making. As a result, when making crucial decisions about political issues, it is crucial to be conscious of the boundaries of slogans and to look for more in-depth information and analysis.

The pragmatics of advertising slogans reflect cultural realities. This feature consists of the fact that the language of advertising implements features characteristic of language and culture in general. Slogans sometimes come to represent the beliefs of those who use them. They develop into succinct declarations of support for political action. By choosing a slogan, the user is indicating that they agree with the defined action.

Some scholars state that slogans in a certain way represent the linguomental picture of the political sphere [22]. Existing in the same space, people who have different mentalities, in particular in the field of politics, function as if in different worlds, with different axiomatics and cause-and-effect laws that do not coincide. The functioning and perception of an advertising slogan as a part of advertising and a component of culture are impossible without taking into account the socio-cultural context, which makes it possible to reveal the peculiarities of the mentality of the population, determined by the history of development, conditions of existence and other factors.

Today, there is even such a phenomenon as advertising mentality. By this term, it is meant the category of content and/or emotional load which corresponds to the national character, standard views, worldview, mythological, religious, and artistic images and also exists within the language code of the cultural environment in which advertising functions [37]. Considering a slogan to be a type of advertising, this can be applied to slogans as well. The recipient's perceptual readiness is realized if the advertising message uses words and expressions specific to describing a certain advertised object by representatives of the target group.

Summing up, slogans are bright representatives of the linguomental political picture of the country, which, with the help of linguistic and extralinguistic elements, create a certain image of the politician and their team. Therefore, it is essential to use speech units that would in some way represent the qualities of the ideal political party, program, etc. that are already present in the recipient's consciousness in order to formulate an effective political slogan. Thus, the task of advertisers is to bring the

political advertising text/slogan as close as possible to the recipient's language, so that the coded meanings are identical to the decoded elements, signs, etc.

1.5.2. Stylistic Features and Their Influence on Slogan Success

The success of slogans as tools for promoting goods, services, and political ideas is significantly influenced by their stylistic features. Recipients will better understand the influence language has on public opinion and behavior by comprehending the strategies and techniques used in the formation of slogans.

A repetition is an effective tool because it fosters familiarity as well as the increased comprehension that comes from pattern recognition [60]. Politicians commonly use internal repetition strategies, such as rhyme, anaphora, alliteration, etc. to help their most significant points stick in the audience's minds. By actively employing repetition in slogans, they hope that similar to advertising, the audience would get saturated with a repeated message and would remember it without consciously trying.

The phonological characteristics of a slogan, such as its rhythm, rhyme, and alliteration, can increase its effect and memorability on the audience. They can be used to sway people's emotions and opinions and to build a powerful brand image. Slogans can be modified for use in various situations and with different target audiences. The slogans' power and impact may be better understood by comprehending literary devices that are used to make it easier for the recipients to memorize and subsequently recollect them.

One of the dominant sound techniques in English slogans is rhyme, which is considered one of the best techniques in advertising. Rhyming helps slogans and headlines look as attractive and simple as possible so that they are easier to remember. In addition, the function of rhymes in slogans is to convey simple information. An example from the tourism industry can be the slogan of a travel agency *Don't Just Book It, Thomas Cook It* [26]. In this instance, rhyme introduces the brand name for the Thomas Cook campaign.

The rhythmic arrangement is constantly used in slogans. The rhythm is the consistency of stressed and unstressed syllables and their duration. Rhythm is perceived at a subconscious level without noticing it, thereby making slogans memorable, repetitive sentences.

Alliteration is another dominant sound technique used in advertisements. It is a phonetic device in which the repetition of the same or close consonants in verse or prose lines is used to give phrases more expressiveness. Alliteration may help in giving phrases the vigorous beat necessary to make them memorable [49].

In order to achieve a certain goal, associations are used. They are made between two things that the recipients either approve and admire or despise and fear. These two things might be ideas, events, or objects. Political figures may employ association by explicitly stating, for instance, their affiliation with groups and communities that are well-liked and respected. To create ambiguous connections, they frequently employ techniques like personification, allusion, periphrasis, metaphor, and synecdoche. Oblique references to people, places, things, or works of art are called allusions and are used “in order to appropriate the significance of the object referenced” [60].

In rhetoric, leaving out a component effectively draws attention to that component's importance in the claim in question. Ellipsis, in which a word is deleted and its meaning is suggested by the surrounding words, makes a sentence more succinct and hence more suitable for a slogan. Omission for the aim of ignoring or suppressing a certain subject is also politically advantageous. Politicians frequently choose to avoid contentious or negative subjects, choosing instead to conceal information by using techniques like euphemisms. As a euphemism for murdering one's fellow troops, “friendly fire” is currently a common phrase used by American politicians ” [60]. Half-truths and quotations placed out of context are other subtle kinds of omission that might be hard to spot.

Ultimately, slogans' effectiveness depends on both the content they represent and the stylistic approach taken in creating them. Alliteration, rhythm, and repetition are potent devices that may make slogans more memorable and successful in swaying

public opinion. It is also possible to utilize literary devices like association, allusion, and ellipsis to have a greater impression on the reader. One could gain insight into the role language plays in influencing discussions in society and decision-making by comprehending the techniques that are employed for slogan formulation. Therefore, further study in this field might assist in creating better communication approaches to marketing products, services, and political views.

1.6. Concept of NAP Structure and its Components: Strategies for Linguistic Suggestiveness in Political Slogans

To optimize the theoretical development of the problem of congruence of the structure of suggestiveness of slogans, A. Kovalevska introduces the concept of NAP-structure [16]. This phenomenon illustrates certain states of consciousness of the suggestant and external actions to maintain or change these states. The following components of the NAP-structure are distinguished:

1) The N-element (N stands for negative) verbalizes a specific negatively connoted condition of the suggestant that needs to be altered. It is implied that the suggester, whether consciously or unconsciously, feels discomfort and the need for particular changes but quite frequently both the discomfort and the desire for changes are created artificially by the suggester.

2) The A-element (A means action) verbalizes a specific action that its suggestant must take in order to overcome a condition with a negative connotation. Though occasionally the suggester may feel the urge to perform the action, for the most part, this desire is imposed by the suggester.

3) The P-element (P suggests positive) verbalizes the suggestant's positively connoted state immediately following the performance of the action described in the previous component. In most instances, the suggester artificially imposes this state after the execution of the action and it is not a result of the suggestor's own consciousness [16].

The NAP structure occurs at the lexical level, which means that each of its components can be represented both explicitly (being clearly defined verbally in the

text) and implicitly (thanks to presuppositive non-verbalized elements). It shows how certain mental states can be maintained or altered by suggestions from the outside world. The components of the NAP structure can affect how suggestive texts are, such as lexical-semantic relationships, perception, representation, and other elements that can affect how recipients will respond to the text.

A. Kovalevska offers the following basic types of strategies for implementing suggestiveness in a political slogan [16]:

- a positivization strategy where the P-element of the NAP structure is maximally activated. It verbalizes a specific positively connoted state of the suggestant, in which they will be after performing a certain action because the addressee of the message only provides subjective information about their qualities and accomplishments with the intention of creating a positive own image;

- a negativization strategy. In this case, the N-element of the NAP structure of linguistic suggestiveness is most actively engaged because the recipient only receives subjective information about the flaws and mistakes of other candidates that are presented with the intention of portraying them in a negative light;

- an invective strategy. Here reduced, non-codified vocabulary formally serves the purpose of bringing the candidate closer to ordinary people and a certain democratization of their image takes place. In conditions of political and social instability in the state, potential voters typically favor the most aggressive rhetoric that gives them a sense of strength and confidence in the candidate although often fictitious;

- an imperative strategy. Within this strategy, the A-element of the NAP structure of linguistic suggestiveness is highly involved by using verbs in the imperative mood;

- a non-reference strategy. It is distinguished by the use of mostly neutral vocabulary and the lack of any overt references to particular candidates and suggestive components as well;

- a precedent-setting strategy. This one is determined by employing precedents, or widely recognized texts within a particular culture and social group in order to successfully influence a specific target group;

- a strategy of constantivization. The keyword stimulus here is a nominalized noun. Such a noun can have both positive and negative connotations depending on the intended effect of the addressee;

- a result-oriented strategy. Unlike the previous strategy, in this instance, the keyword stimulus is a result-oriented verb. Similar to the before mentioned strategy, the keyword, a specified verb, may have positive connotations and negative as well given the desired outcome for the addressee;

- a strategy of semantic sequence. It is characterized by the activation of N- and P-elements of the NAP structure of the linguistic suggestiveness and their combination by links of semantic sequence;

- a strategy of semantic parallelism. Here the N- and P-elements of the NAP structure of linguistic suggestiveness are activated but are combined by links of opposition and semantic parallelism. Since the opposed elements are not always logically opposed, this strategy is inversely linked to the complex equivalence marker of the distortion process of the NLP language [16];

- a strategy of semantic variation. In this case, the name of a political party or a candidate is used to manipulate public perception using a combination of specific linguistic devices (grapheme presentation, ambiguity, etc.);

- a rhetorical strategy. It is characterized by the use of rhetorical questions that are significant within a certain culture and social group [15].

The author of the aforementioned classification of slogans strategies argues that with the incorporation of this classification into scientific discourse, it will be possible to not only categorize the existing diversity of political slogans in part and political advertising in general as a significant phenomenon of today's information space but also to identify the prevailing strategies of their creation and the deep mechanisms of construction and as a result, to suggest strategies and tactics for neutralizing each of their negative effects [15].

In conclusion, A. Kovalevska's concept of the NAP structure offers an important framework for comprehending the structure of suggestiveness in political slogans. The NAP structure's aspects can be used to control the suggestant's feelings and affect how they react to the suggestive text. Kovalevska provides a classification of techniques for incorporating suggestiveness in political slogans, which can be used to classify, examine, and recommend strategies for counteracting their unfavorable effects. Political analysts and advertisers who want to comprehend the creation and effect of political slogans in the current information space may find this classification to be helpful.

Conclusions to Chapter I

The use of slogans is a language phenomenon that has become deeply ingrained in the principles and norms of human civilization. Since the 20th century, the term *slogan* has changed with time and is now often used in politics. Slogans are a type of influence that stands out from other uses of language due to their distinctive qualities. Slogans can be viewed as a speech genre, a text kind, or a sort of utterance.

Slogans are effective linguistic devices that are used in politics to quickly and effectively communicate a message to an audience. They fulfill a variety of purposes, including persuasive, educational, modeling, decorative, suggestive, axiological, communicative, etc. Slogans in politics serve as succinct summaries of a single concept and offer a generalization of a government's purpose, making it more comprehensible to the general public.

Slogans can serve as sensitive identifiers of political situations since they frequently reflect the political climate. Although political advertising and propaganda can trick and fool people, they give them a sense of significance by claiming to rely on their critical thinking and reasoning. The public's adoption and use of a political slogan ultimately determine its success.

Slogans can be categorized based on their intended communication. For example, they are categorized as slogan-messages, slogan-calls, and slogan-promises. Additionally, slogans can be categorized as basic or operational, with basic slogans

having a broad appeal and embodying the party's fundamental concept and operational slogans being prepared for a particular event or campaign.

Political slogans often utilize language that is witty or humorous, expressive, and allusive. These are only a few of the primary features of political slogans. The main objectives of political slogans are to succinctly summarize the core message of the platform of political parties and candidates, persuade voters, combat "voter fatigue", find the strongest arguments, be remembered quickly, establish a strong associative link between the advertised object and the slogan, and activate the meanings that the recipient is already familiar with in order to connect them with new advertising objects offered in the slogan.

The stylistic elements of slogans have a significant impact on how well they work. Slogans may be made more memorable and compelling by using literary devices like allusion and repetition. English slogans frequently incorporate rhyme, rhythm, and alliteration to make them easy to remember. Understanding the methods employed in slogan formation may assist enhance communication strategies in political campaigns.

A. Kovalevska's NAP structure is an important framework that offers a theoretical foundation for comprehending the suggestiveness of political phrases. For political analysts and advertisers who wish to understand the origin and impact of political slogans in the modern information environment, this approach might be helpful.

CHAPTER II. QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE OVERVIEW OF THE SLOGANS

2.1. Analyzing American Political Slogans from 1840 to 2020: Limitations and Methodology

Political slogans have long been an essential part of political campaigns, serving as a means of getting the public acquainted with political beliefs. In this thesis, slogans that are to be analyzed belong to American parties, thus the study focuses on American political slogans. Given that presidential elections are the most prominent political battles in the nation, the study concentrates on the slogans used in these campaigns. In order to compare the use of slogans across political ideologies, the analysis will incorporate slogans uttered by candidates from various political parties.

In this thesis, a corpus is the collection of 305 campaign slogans in the United States that have been analyzed. There are some reasons for the choice of campaign slogans of the United States:

- personal interest and familiarity;
- historical and cultural value: Especially in the 20th century, American politics had a huge influence on the world's political and cultural environment. In addition to being a significant actor in international politics, the United States has impacted political movements, philosophies, and catchphrases all over the world. Understanding American political catchphrases might provide insights into the period's more significant social and political issues;
- linguistic and rhetorical characteristics: American political slogans might display particular linguistic and rhetorical characteristics that set them apart and make them valuable for research. They may employ more informal language, more colloquialisms, and more diversified linguistic devices that make them worth analyzing.

The study includes American campaign slogans from the period from 1840 till 2020, the time limit is 180 years. Campaign slogans have been used in American politics for centuries but they became more prevalent in the mid-19th century. The first presidential campaign slogans appeared during the 1840 campaign of William

Henry Harrison who used the slogan *Tippecanoe and Tyler Too* to promote his candidacy. Since that time, campaign slogans have established themselves as an integral part of American politics and are frequently employed to compress the main points of a candidate's program or message into a memorable and catchy phrase.

Although the candidates for the 2024 presidential elections are already known (and they do already have their political slogans), the study does not include them. Firstly, they have not yet occurred and no one can predict whether the nominees would not withdraw their candidacy from the elections or modify their campaign slogans. It would not be methodologically valid to include slogans from the future since it would be impossible to verify the accuracy and reliability of the data. The research is therefore restricted to political catchphrases that have previously been used in elections up to 2020.

To assure coverage of a range of political ideas, campaign slogans were chosen from both of the major political parties, the Democratic and Republican parties, as well as third-party slogans.

In this paper, a diachronic method is taken to examine American political slogans from 1840 to 2020. The time frame chosen enables an assessment of how campaign slogans have changed over time because it spans more than a century of American political history. This long-term viewpoint presents the chance to identify trends and changes in the language used in political campaigns.

The approach of collecting slogans includes online listings from sites like the *Campaigns and Elections* part of the American President website [88] and the *Presidential Campaign Memorabilia* website from Duke University Special Collections Library [89].

There may be some possible biases and limitations in the study. It is possible that not all of the campaign slogans expressed throughout the research period were included in the sample. This can be due to restraints on data collecting. The slogans may be understood differently by a researcher from a different cultural background and by someone who was raised in the US. Despite the fact that 305 campaign

slogans constitute an adequate number of examples, it might not be sufficient to make firm conclusions on the use and development of campaign slogans throughout time.

2.2. Analysis of the Types and Characteristics of Political Campaign Slogans

According to their intended purpose, there are four types of English sentences. Among the selected slogans, there

- ~ 70% of declarative sentences, e.g. *Vote yourself a farm and horses* (Abraham Lincoln, 1860), *He has kept us out of war* (Woodrow Wilson, 1916), etc.;
- ~ 28% of imperative sentences, e.g. *Vote as You Shot* (Ulysses S. Grant, 1868), *Let's Get Another Deck* (Alfred M. Landon, 1936), etc.;
- ~ 7% of exclamative sentences, e.g. *Hurrah! Hurrah! The Country's Risin', for Henry Clay and Frelinghuysen!* (Henry Clay, 1844), *Tell the Truth!* (Grover Cleveland, 1884), etc.;
- ~3% of interrogative sentences.

Although it should be noted that interrogative questions in this case do not have the aim of asking for some information. Here questions are rhetorical questions, thus instead of asking a question to elicit an answer, they are posed for impact or to convey a point. Since at least 1844, political campaigns frequently have included rhetorical questions. When rhetorical questions are examined in a diachronic way, one can see that this tool has been used for more than 150 years. The rhetorical questions are designed to grab the voters' attention and get them to reflect on the topic at hand. In order to test the audience's understanding of James K. Polk in 1844, Henry Clay employed the rhetorical device known as epiplexis in his slogan *Who is James K. Polk?*

Ronald Reagan made a comparison between the current and previous states of the nation in 1980 by asking a rhetorical question *Are You Better Off Than You Were Four Years Ago?* In 1984, Walter Mondale questioned his opponent's campaign slogan with a rhetorical question *Where's the beef?* In order to engage the audience and ask them to support his 2016 campaign, Gary Johnson utilized an elliptic

rhetorical question *You In?* Ben Gleib employed an imperative form of a rhetorical question in 2020 to pique the audience's feeling of urgency (*Let's Save America, Ok?*).

The special attention deserves a slogan in the form of a chant: *Ma! Ma! Where's my pa? Gone to the White House, Ha! Ha! Ha!* by James G. Blaine in 1884. *Ma! Ma! Where's my pa?* is an exclamation employed to show surprise or amazement. The satirical reaction to the first half of the slogan, *Gone to the White House, Ha! Ha! Ha!* is the second portion, which implies that Grover Cleveland, Blaine's opponent, fathered an unborn child and abandoned it. The cries of *Ma! Ma! Where's my pa?* is a rhetorical question that uses the rhetorical device of epilexis for dramatic effect. It highlights the controversy around Cleveland's alleged wrongdoing and plays on the audience's emotions.

Gone to the White House, Ha! Ha! Ha! is the second line of the catchphrase, and this is an example of irony, where the intended meaning is the polar opposite of the literal meaning. The phrase implies that Blaine's supporters should not be alarmed by the charges and instead should see Cleveland's scandalous behavior as a benefit since he would be serving in the White House. The slogan's sarcastic laughter at the conclusion only serves to highlight how ironic it is.

Overall, the catchphrase employs an exclamation and a rhetorical question to deliver an impactful and stirring criticism of Blaine's opponent.

The slogans have been examined in terms of their communicative purpose based on the O. S. Bylinska classification [5]. The results are:

- there are ~ 46.5% slogan-messages;
- there are ~ 28% slogan-calls;
- there are ~ 25.5% slogan-promises.

One can observe from the data that slogans with a message make up the highest share, with 46.5%. This implies that the communications are concentrated on conveying a succinct and memorable message that might perhaps grab the audience's attention. Call-to-action slogans account for the second-largest percentage (28%), while promises-only slogans account for the remaining 25.5%.

Calls to action are a significant part of the messaging strategy, as seen by the fact that about 28% of the slogans contain one. They may also be powerful because they persuade the audience to do something particular, like vote for someone. But if the call to action is unclear or unpersuasive, it might not work.

Last but not least, almost 25.5% of the catchphrases contain a promise, indicating that the communication is centered on promising or making commitments to receivers. Promise-based slogans can be the least successful of the three since they could be viewed as marketing gimmicks or hollow promises. The electorate may be won over if the promises are supported by the reputation and performance of a nominee, though.

Having used *Text Analyzer* on <https://www.ranknotebook.org/tools/text-analyzer>, the following data have been identified:

- average words per slogan – 4;
- longest word – *constitutional* (14 characters);
- smallest word – *a* (1 character);
- the majority of words comprise 3 or 4 letters.

These findings imply that the slogans frequently use short, basic phrases, and tend to be brief and succinct. This concept is further supported by the fact that a good deal of words include three or four letters. This might have been done on purpose to make the slogans simple to recall and comprehend. Furthermore, since shorter words can be understood more quickly and easily, they could help in giving the slogans a sense of urgency or immediacy. According to the research, the slogans are made to be remembered as well as effective overall and use simple, understandable language.

Only 2.6% of slogans engage numbers in the message. A slogan may become more challenging to recall or less memorable if it contains numbers since they are often forgotten or fail to naturally fit into the rhythm or flow of the phrase. Also, numbers may be perceived as being too exclusive or restricted to particular groups since slogans frequently seek to appeal to a wide audience.

To indicate certain years or policy ideas, numerals are often utilized. The catchphrases *The Sub Treasury and the Tariff of '46* and *54-40 or Fight* relate to a

territorial dispute between the US and Britain over the Oregon Country in 1844 and, respectively, a series of economic measures that were proposed in 1846. Numerals are used to allude to certain election years in phrases such as *We Polked you in '44*, *We shall Pierce you in '52*, and *We'll Buck 'em in '56*. *Vote for 8 Hour Wilson* and *I am for Wilson* and *an 8 Hour Day* both utilize the number eight to denote the 8-hour working regulation.

To sum up, just 2.6% of slogans utilize numbers, which is a rather low percentage. Despite not being frequently used in slogans, numbers can sometimes effectively express a particular message or idea.

2.3. Literary Devices in Political Slogans: Analysis of Occurrences and Their Impact on Message Delivery

Slogans have been analyzed in terms of the presence or absence of literary devices. The identified literary devices and their percentage of occurrence are given in the bar graph in Appendix 1.

The analysis reveals that, with 14.1% and 12.5% occurrences, respectively, alliteration and metaphor are the most often employed literary devices in political slogans. The vivid examples of alliteration are:

- *Fremont and Freedom* (John Fremont, 1856). The /f/ sound is repeated to form a memorable phrase that is easy to remember.
- *Patriotism, Protection, and Prosperity* (William McKinley, 1896). The repetition of the /p/ sound creates a sense of unity and cohesion between the three concepts.
- *Win with Wilson* (Woodrow Wilson, 1912). Repetition of the sound /w/ highlights the candidate's name and fosters a feeling of campaign cohesion and support.
- *A Tested and Trustworthy Team* (Jimmy Carter, 1980). The candidate's experience and competence are highlighted by the repeated /t/ sound, which also makes it a memorable and catchy word.

- *Build Back Better* (Joe Biden, 2020). The /b/ sound is repeated to produce a distinctive and memorable word that highlights the candidate's dedication to advancement and change.

Metaphor is successfully presented in the slogans, some examples are:

- *Don't Change Horses Midstream* (Abraham Lincoln, 1864). This metaphor is employed to illustrate the idea that altering course mid-process can be harmful. It emphasizes that one should follow through on plans because changing directions could have unfavorable effects.

- *It's Morning Again in America* (Ronald Reagan, 1984). In this metaphor, the sunrise stands in for a fresh start, hope, and optimism. It implies that America is emerging from a difficult period and approaching a prosperous new one.

- *Building a Bridge to The Twenty-First Century* (Bill Clinton, 1996). This metaphor aims to demonstrate how America is developing and moving in the direction of a brighter future. The representation of a bridge signifies that the nation is bridging its present with its future and that the latter will be better than the former.

- *Lighting The Fires of Liberty, One Heart at a Time* (Michael Badnarik, 2004). In this metaphor, the spreading of an idea or movement is represented as a fire. The expression conveys the idea that the speaker is attempting to share enthusiasm and a sense of passion for a cause.

- *Restore the Soul of the Nation* (Joe Biden, 2020). The message conveyed by this metaphor is that America has lost something significant and must get it back. The expression implies that the nation needs to have its moral compass or sense of purpose restored.

Parallelism and repetition are other frequently utilized techniques, occurring at 6.2% and 6.9% respectively. These techniques are frequently employed to highlight a specific topic or argument and to give the phrase a sense of coherence or unity. The repetition of grammatical patterns or other parallel structures helps to provide an effect that is rhythmic and memorable which is crucial for slogans to be successful. For instance, *First in War, First in Peace* by Winfield Scott in 1852, *War in Europe –*

Peace in America – God Bless Wilson by Woodrow Wilson in 1916, and *Dream Big Fight Hard* by Elizabeth Warren in 2020.

Repetition implies the repetition of words like in *Free Soil, Free Labor, Free Speech, Free Men, Fremont* by John Fremont in 1856, and repetition of affixes like in *Unbought and Unbossed* (repetition of the prefix *un-*) by Shirley Chisholm in 1972. The message reinforces itself in the voter's thoughts when a key phrase or word is repeated, and this may assist to create an intense emotional link that exists between the catchphrase and its purpose.

Allusion has a 4.9% occurrence. This literary device is particularly interesting in the context of learning about the cultural and historical background of the nation, for instance:

- *Tippecanoe and Tyler Too* (William Henry Harrison, 1840). The reference here is to William Henry Harrison's overwhelming victory at the Battle of Tippecanoe in 1811. The catchphrase honors Harrison's valor in the war and portrays him as a capable leader who can protect the nation.

- *54-40 or Fight* (James K. Polk, 1844). This catchphrase refers to the territorial conflict between the USA and the United Kingdom over the Oregon Country, which was located between the 54th and 40th parallels of latitude. Even if it takes going to war, the slogan urges America to vigorously fight for its territorial claims.

- *Grandfather's Hat Fits Ben!* (Benjamin Harrison, 1888). This is a reference to William Henry Harrison, who was Benjamin Harrison's grandfather and the president of the United States. The phrase argues that Benjamin Harrison is a deserving successor and that he possesses the credentials required to serve as president.

- *No Cross of Gold, No Crown of Thorns* (William Jennings Bryan, 1896). This catchphrase makes references to the Bible and the suffering that Jesus endured on the cross. It implies that William Jennings Bryan is willing to deal with hardship in the name of economic change.

- *Down with King George* (Pat Buchanan, 1992). This catchphrase references the American Revolution and the fight against British authority by the colonies. The

slogan suggests that Pat Buchanan is the candidate most suited to lead the country to freedom.

- *Defeat the Washington Cartel* (Ted Cruz, 2016). This catchphrase makes reference to the infamous Colombian cocaine organization from the 1980s and 1990s. Cruz utilizes the reference to make a parallel between the illegal actions of drug cartels and Washington politics. His campaign's core idea concerning political corruption is implied by the slogan, which also appeals to his followers' longing for political change.

Antithesis, rhyme, and tricolon have a 4.6% occurrence each. Antithesis is a technique for contrasting two opposed viewpoints, frequently to highlight a certain issue, e.g.:

- *Some People Talk Change, Others Cause It* (Hubert Humphrey, 1968). The slogan draws a distinction between people who only advocate change and those who work to bring it about. In a parallel structure, the opposing concepts of *talk* and *cause* illustrate the contrast between those who only talk and those who take action.

- *When they go low, we go high* (Hillary Clinton, 2016). This campaign catchphrase contrasts the unfavorable actions of Hilary's rivals (*when they go low*) with the honorable actions of her supporters (*we go high*). It is important to rise above negativity and choose the high route, which is why the opposing concepts of *low* and *high* are given in a parallel structure.

- *Not me. Us.* (Bernie Sanders, 2020). This campaign slogan from Bernie Sanders opposes the concepts of individualism (*me*) and society (*us*). The competing concepts of *me* and *us* are presented, emphasizing the value of group activity and the notion that change is achieved via group effort rather than just individual action.

Vivid illustrations of rhyme are:

- *Better A Third Termer than a Third Rater* (Franklin D. Roosevelt, 1940). The final sounds of the words *Termer* and *Rater* are the same, making the slogan memorable and catchy. In addition, the catchphrase opposes Roosevelt's third term with the likelihood of a third-party candidate who is less qualified.

- *In Your Guts, You Know He's Nuts* (Lyndon B. Johnson, 1964). The final sounds of the words *Guts* and *Nuts* are similar, and this rhyme establishes a lighthearted and memorable juxtaposition between the visceral knowledge of the subject and the ridiculousness of the subject.

- *Build the Wall and Crime Will Fall* (Donald Trump, 2020). The sound of the words *Wall* and *Fall* is the same, making the phrase memorable. The phrase is made more appealing through the use of rhyme, which also adds a sense of flow and rhythm.

A list of three items that are connected in some way is made using a tricolon. Some examples are *Union, liberty, peace* (Abraham Lincoln, 1864), *Patriotism, Protection, and Prosperity* (William McKinley, 1896), *Peace, Experience, Prosperity* (Richard Nixon, 1960), etc. The important concepts are highlighted and presented in a form that is simple to recall and comprehend when three words or phrases are repeated.

Additionally, pun has a 4.3% occurrence. Puns are used to create wordplay, frequently for comedic effects. The striking examples are :

- *Grant Us Another Term* (Ulysses S. Grant, 1872) – a wordplay on the name Ulysses S. Grant, using the action word *grant* to ask for an extension of his term in office.

- *Let's Make It a Landon-Slide* (Alfred M. Landon, 1936) – a play on the words *landslide*, which is frequently used to denote a decisive political victory and the name of nominee Alfred M. Landon.

- *Love Trumps Hate* (Hillary Clinton, 2016) – a wordplay on Republican nominee Donald Trump's last name and the verb *trump*, which means to outdo or win.

One of the slogans that have some references to previous politicians is Franklin Pierce's slogan *We Polked you in '44, We shall Pierce you in '52*. The proper names *Polk* and *Pierce* are used to denote James K. Polk and Franklin Pierce, correspondingly. Polk was Democratic Party's nominee and he won the 1844 elections. In 1852, the Party chose Pierce for the presidential elections. The slogan

We Polked you in '44; we shall Pierce you in '52 uses a pun thanks to the fact that Polk won the 1844 election and the Party predicted that Pierce would easily win the 1852 election.

In the catchphrase, politicians' names were transformed into verbs, here denominalization or verbing takes place. The words *Polk* and *Pierce* are obviously pronounced similarly to the words *poke* and *pierce*, respectively. In the first part of the slogan, the creators even came up with the past form of the denominalized name *Polk* – *Polked* by adding the suffix *–ed* for regular verbs in the Past Simple. Separately, *poke* and *pierce* are both verbs that suggest that someone is being poked or pierced. The pronoun *you* might refer to the party's political rivals based on the meaning of verbs.

Thanks to a pun, the slogan creates a clever and memorable play on words that links the two presidential campaigns. The pun also serves to emphasize the Democratic Party's power and supremacy at the moment in American politics. The phrase *We shall Pierce you* implies that the Democrats will win the forthcoming election over its rival, the Whig Party. The catchphrase insinuates that the Democrats are better than the Whigs and fosters a sense of competitiveness.

The slogan was successful and then in the 1856 elections, it served as inspiration for a new slogan for the Democratic Party: *We Polked 'em in '44, we Pierced 'em in '52, and we'll Buck 'em in '56*. The part *and we'll Buck 'em in '56* alludes to James Buchanan, the winner of the 1856 presidential election. *Buck* is a shortened form of his nickname *Old Buck* which he received owing to the fact he became president when he was 65 years old.

The important thing to note in this slogan is the change of the pronoun. The pronoun *you* from previous slogans was replaced with *them* (shortened *'em*) probably to avoid ambiguity and to openly direct the action of “poking, piercing, and bucking” against opponents. By this, an antithesis appears *we* against *them*, and by repetition of the pronoun *we* the slogan highlights to voters who they should vote for. Taking into account that the slogan is pretty complex and long (16 words, numbers, and proper names used as verbs), it is often shortened to *We'll Buck 'em in '56*

To sum up, Franklin Pierce's catchphrase *We Polked you in '44, We shall Pierce you in '52* demonstrated a masterful application of puns and wordplay to produce a memorable catchphrase that underlined the Democratic Party's strength and competitiveness in American politics. The slogan's impact was enhanced by the denominalization process, the inclusion of words with similar phonological properties like *poke* and *pierce*, and the switch from *you* to *them* in the pronoun. Even following presidential campaigns used and modified the slogan due to its popularity and efficiency.

2.3% of the time, rhetorical questions are used to get the listener to consider a certain topic or viewpoint. Metonymy is found in 2% of slogans and epithets, irony, and assonance have 1.6% of occurrence. The personification and ellipsis are present only in 1% of slogans. Some examples of these literary devices are given in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

Less frequent literary devices in political slogans

Literary device	Example
rhetorical question	<i>You In?</i> (Gary Johnson, 2016)
metonymy	<i>Four more years of the full dinner pail</i> (William McKinley, 1940)
epithet	<i>Honest old Abe</i> (Abraham Lincoln, 1860)
irony	<i>It's the economy, stupid</i> (Bill Clinton, 1992)
assonance	<i>I like Ike</i> (Dwight D. Eisenhower, 1952)
personification	<i>Keep Hope Alive</i> (Jesse Jackson, 1988)

The rare but intriguing literary device found in selected slogans is an acronym. Only one slogan utilizes this technique – *MATH – Make America Think Harder* by Andrew Yang in 2020. The first letter of each word creates a word MATH. A campaign catchphrase that employs an acronym is meant to be memorable, and catchy, and to deliver the message in a clear, concise manner that is simple to recall. It is further emphasized by the use of the imperative verb *make* that the voters should consider the problems affecting the nation more carefully.

It should be noted that approximately 64% of all slogans comprise some literary devices and many of them include not one device but a pair of them. For instance, Calvin Coolidge's 1924 slogan *Keep Cool and Keep Coolidge* adopts several literary devices:

- alliteration: *Keep* and *Coolidge* have the same /k/ sound;
- rhyme: *Cool* and *Coolidge* rhyme;
- pun: the phrase plays on the word *Cool*'s dual meaning;
- parallelism: repeated form establishes a parallelism between the two phrases, highlighting the significance of each.
- irony: the slogan is a play on words as *Keep Cool* is a common expression that means to keep calm but it also relates to Calvin Coolidge's last name. The catchphrase has an ironic quality due to the two distinct ways the word *cool* is used.

By making the slogans more engaging and memorable for the electorate, literary devices actively contribute to the achievement of these objectives. And this confirms the hypothesis that slogans are catchy and easy to remember thanks to literary devices.

Apart from literary devices, politicians resort to lexical unusual alterations for attracting attention. For example, the slogan *Adlai and Estes – The Bestest* by Adlai Stevenson in 1956 uses an irregular form of the superlative of *good*. In fact, there are two ways of the formation of the superlative form of an adjective: irregular form plus the superlative suffix *-est*. Thus, there is double “superlativeness”. Firstly, it is made in order to arouse interest in the unusual superlative form. Secondly, it was aimed at creating rhyme so that the slogan would be catchy: *Estes – Bestest*. The usage of the double superlative *bestest* suggests that Adlai and Estes are the best alternatives available in addition to being good.

In 1972, Shirley Chisholm coined a new word to create a memorable catchphrase *Unbought and Unbossed*. The use of the prefix *-un* in both words connotes a feeling of disobedience and independence. The phrase implies that the subject (in this case, Shirley Chisholm) is unaffected by outside forces or special interests. The nominee turns the noun *boss* into an adjective that looks more like the 3rd form of a verb and adds the prefix *-un*. Coining new word certainly looks intriguing to voters. The parallel structure created by the *-un* prefix’s repetition can enhance the slogan’s coherence and impact.

Although the terms *Monied* and *Reannexation* can be found in dictionaries, they seem pretty unusual in terms of vocabulary in corresponding slogans *Reannexation of Texas and Reoccupation of Oregon* (James K. Polk, 1920) and *Government Of, By, and For the People...Not the Monied Interests* (Ralph Nader, 2000).

In 1948 Harry S. Truman’s campaign’s catchphrases *Pour it on ‘em, Harry!* and *Give ‘Em Hell, Harry!*, he employs colloquial expressions and contractions of pronouns that are a feature of spoken English. The informal tone created by the use of contractions (*em* instead of *them*) and colloquial language (*Give ‘em hell*) conveys a connection with common people.

In conclusion, this investigation has shown that literary devices are frequently used in political slogans to create appealing, memorable catchphrases that have had an impact on voters' minds for a long time. The two literary devices that are most frequently used are alliteration and metaphor, followed by parallelism, repetition, allusion, and other techniques. Each of these tools has a different effect on how a message is delivered; some give the voter a sense of cohesion and togetherness, while others stir up memories and emotions. Overall, the analysis of literary devices used in political slogans sheds light on the creation and dissemination of political messages to the general public and emphasizes the significance of successful communication tactics in political campaigns. Conveying a sense of kinship with ordinary people may also be accomplished by using colloquial language and contractions.

Conclusions to Chapter II

Using presidential races as the primary emphasis, this thesis examines political slogans in America from 1840 till 2020. The 305 slogans make up the corpus for the research. The research does not encompass the contenders for the 2024 presidential elections, regardless of the fact that they have been established and have political slogans. To evaluate linguistic and societal patterns across time, a diachronic approach was adopted. The analysis of the usage and evolution of campaign slogans in American politics throughout a sizable span of history offers some interesting insights into the American history.

Political slogans are mostly declarative and imperative statements, with a lower amount of exclamatory and rhetorical inquiries, according to the analysis of political slogans. The study also shows that slogans are usually message-driven, followed by calls-to-action and promises, respectively. In addition, slogans frequently consist of short, straightforward words (four words on average) that are simple to remember and comprehend.

Political slogan analysis has proven that literary devices are vital in producing memorable and impactful expressions. The most often employed literary devices are alliteration and metaphor, with parallelism, repetition, and allusion close behind.

These are employed to stress a particular issue, to give the phrase a feeling of coherence, a sense of unity. Literary methods make slogans rhythmic, memorable, and emotionally compelling, all of which are necessary for effective campaigns. Additionally, to get people's attention and increase the effect of a catchphrase, lexical unusual changes and the invention of new words can be used. Political slogans utilize literary tropes to highlight the nation's culture and history while also showing the candidates as capable, reliable rulers who can uphold the interests of the country.

CHAPTER III. PATTERNS AND TRENDS IN THE USE OF POLITICAL SLOGANS OVER TIME

3.1. Analyzing the Use of Candidates' Names in American Political Campaigns Slogans

Political slogans that include a candidate's name may be a powerful tool for establishing a candidate's identity and building brand awareness. Voters are more inclined to recall and connect a phrase with a candidate whose name is linked to a certain idea or attitude. This way, the personalization of politics takes place.

Among 305 selected political slogans from 1840 to 2020, 25,6% of slogans comprise politicians' names. In other words, every fourth slogan is aimed at promoting a politician's image and brand. It should be noted that these slogans do not always include the name of the presidential candidate in whose campaign the slogan is promoted. All in all, slogans with politicians' names may be classified into the following groups:

1. slogans that include the name of the presidential candidate in whose campaign it is promoted (~ 91.1%). In this group, some subgroups may be determined:

- slogans that directly name a nominee for the presidency (~82.1%);
- slogans that use a periphrasis or a nickname to name a politician (~ 9%).

2. slogans that include the name of the opponent candidate (~ 3.6%);
3. slogans that include the name of the vice-president candidate (~ 2.6%);
4. slogans that include the name of previous politicians (~2.5%).

It should be noted that some slogans comprise both nominee's and opponent's names or both nominee's and running mate's names, thus they can be attributed to more than one group.

The group of slogans that directly name a nominee for the presidency is the most numerous. It makes up 82.1% of all slogans comprising politicians' names. By using their name in a catchphrase, politicians may distinguish themselves from their contenders and elicit a powerful emotional response from the electorate.

During the 19th century, American politics frequently used the names of leaders in campaign slogans. It was a successful strategy for politicians to spread the word about their policies and win over voters. Early in the century, campaign slogans frequently concentrated on the names of the politicians, such as *Hurrah! Hurrah! The Country's Risin', for Henry Clay and Frelinghuysen!* Slogans evolved over the century, becoming increasingly inventive and confrontational. For instance, the 1852 campaign slogan *We Polked you in '44, We shall Pierce you in '52* alludes to James K. Polk's prior successful campaign and predicted victory for Franklin Pierce.

Slogans grew more centered on constitutional principles and national unity during the Civil War and Reconstruction, such as *John Bell and the Constitution* in 1860. Slogans from the post-Civil War period frequently mirrored the prevailing political tensions, such as *Tilden or Blood!* in 1876, which alluded to the contentious election between Samuel Tilden and Rutherford B. Hayes. The catchphrase *Grandfather's hat fits Ben!* was used in 1888 to play on the idea that Benjamin Harrison was a fitting successor to his grandfather, William Henry Harrison, who was the 9th US President.

In the 20th century, the usage of leaders' names in campaign slogans was a reflection of the shifting political landscape and the shifting tactics used by candidates to win over voters. The campaign catchphrases of the early 1900s, including *Vote for Taft Now*, *You Can Vote for Bryan Anytime* and *It Is Nothing but Fair to Leave Taft in the Chair*, were quite simple and centered on the specific candidate. However, as the century went on, catchphrases started to use stronger language and emotional appeals, such as *Win with Wilson* and *I am for Wilson and an 8 Hour Day*.

Slogans evolved throughout the 1920s becoming more humorous and memorable. Examples include *Keep Cool and Keep Coolidge* and *Who but Hoover?* The 1930s witnessed a comeback of more serious catchphrases such as *Let's Make It a Landon-Slide* and *Life, Liberty, and Landon*. The 1940s were characterized by catchphrases that highlighted how crucial it was to win the war, such as *Win the war quicker with Dewey and Bricker*.

The 1950s experienced a rise in slogans that were more individualized and person-centered, for example, *I Like Ike* and *Madly for Adlai*. The renowned *Kennedy, Kennedy, Kennedy* catchphrase defined the 1960s and the notorious *Don't change Dicks in the middle of a screw, vote for Nixon in '72* catchphrase defined the 1970s. The 1990s witnessed a comeback of catchy and cheerful catchphrases like *Ross for Boss* and *Go Pat Go*.

In order to establish a sense of familiarity and a sense of connection with people, politicians began using their names directly in slogans from the beginning of the 21st century. For instance, *Dean for America* from 2004 was a vivid illustration of this pattern. By 2016, catchphrases like *Kasich for America* or *Kasich for US* had begun to appear as this tendency had continued to develop. Another example is 2020 Hillary Clinton's campaign slogan *Hillary for America*. These slogans serve as illustrations of how candidates may utilize their names to establish a brand and set themselves apart from their rivals. They also imply that the given nominees are the most qualified person to be the nation's leader.

In 2020, personalized slogans, for instance, *I Like Mike* and *Mike Will Get It Done*, highlighted the character and expertise of the candidate. Lincoln Chafee's campaign used the slogan *Lincoln for Liberty* having implemented alliteration and wordplay to make a point. In addition to helping to make the phrase memorable, the repeated *L* sound in *Lincoln* and *Liberty* highlights the connection between Lincoln and the concept of liberty. The word *Lincoln* conjures the memory and legacy of one of America's most renowned presidents, Abraham Lincoln, who is known for his part in putting an end to slavery in the country. The slogan successfully appeals to the historical and patriotic feelings of many Americans, as well as those who admire freedom, justice, and equality, by linking the name of Lincoln with the idea of liberty. This way, the past (Abraham Lincoln) is connected to the present (Lincoln Chafee) thanks to wordplay.

2020 John McAfee's campaign's usage of the slogan *Don't Vote McAfee* is an intriguing example of wordplay that opposes the conventional use of political slogans. Traditionally, they often aim to support the candidate and entice supporters

to vote for them. However, in this instance, the slogan adopts a negative stance and urges voters to reject McAfee. It is a distinctive strategy that is likely to grab people's attention and pique their interest in the campaign. It is important to keep in mind, though, that this phrase can be counterproductive since it might end up discouraging people from casting a ballot at all rather than motivating them to support a different candidate. But it should be stated that it is the only example in American history that uses a negative approach towards a nominee the campaign is intended to support and promote.

In conclusion, using personalized slogans that explicitly refer to a presidential candidate has historically been a prevalent technique in American campaign slogans. The historical development of political catchphrases serves as evidence of how imaginative, combative, emotive, and person-centered slogans have been through time. The tendency for candidates to use their names in slogans reflects their efforts to build a brand, set themselves apart from their opponents, and appeal to the emotions and sense of familiarity with the electorate.

The effectiveness of wordplay and alliteration in creating memorable and emotionally evocative slogans has been proved by personalized slogans, such as those employed in recent campaigns. Negative campaign slogans like *Don't Vote McAfee* are uncommon in American politics. Overall, it seems probable that the use of personalized slogans in political campaigns will remain a crucial strategy for candidates looking to win over voters.

3.2. Understanding the Periphrasis and Nicknames Behind Famous Campaign Catchphrases

This group of slogans often requires background knowledge of US cultural and historical realia since many periphrasis and nicknames would be incomprehensible to outsiders. For example, the slogan *Tippecanoe and Tyler Too* refers to William Henry Harrison who actively used his nickname *Tippecanoe* while running 1840 presidential elections. He was considered a successful Indian fighter and his endeavor to demolish Prophetstown was successful [85]. The victory was significant that it

earned Harrison the moniker *Tippecanoe*. 44 years later, while running for the presidency one more time, Harrison used a similar slogan but this time substituting the name of the candidate for a vice president: *Tippecanoe and Morton too* (Tyler was replaced with *Morton*).

The next slogan with a periphrasis is *Honest old Abe* (Abe is shortened from Abraham) which indicates Abraham Lincoln. The nickname *Honest Abe* was one that Abraham Lincoln proudly cherished. Even though it was not always simple to be an honest politician or lawyer, he firmly believed in what he stood for and fought hard to uphold it.

Slogans *I Like Ike* and *I Still Like Ike* refer to Dwight D. Eisenhower who used the phrases correspondingly in 1952 and 1956. In Eisenhower's family, all boys had the nickname *Ike* and were called this way adding some attributes before *Ike*. For example, the eldest brother was *Big Ike*, the younger brother was called *Little Ike*, etc. [45]. Eisenhower was *Little Ike*; later the attribution of *Little* was lost. Only Eisenhower preserved the moniker at the end of World War II and lately, he was actively employing his nickname in his political campaigns.

Simple and memorable, the phrase *I Like Ike* immediately gained popularity among Eisenhower's followers as a rallying cry. It was meant to imply that Eisenhower personally had a high degree of popularity among Americans and that he was an admirable figure. The slogan has a simple structure that is easy to recall and a rhyme that sticks in the audience's heads. The pronoun *I* also fosters a feeling of closeness between the nominee and the electorate. The catchphrase was again employed during Eisenhower's presidential campaign in 1956 and it once again succeeded to inspire his followers and present him as a reliable candidate.

Two slogans employ a periphrasis to name a candidate. The first one is *The champion of popular sovereignty* (1860). Stephen A. Douglas is referred to as *The champion of popular sovereignty* since he supported the concept that territorial settlers should have the authority to determine whether or not to maintain slavery, instead of leaving that choice to the federal government. His idea of popular

sovereignty was a crucial topic in the discussion regarding slavery in the United States prior to the Civil War [58].

Regardless of all of his efforts, the concept of popular sovereignty eventually failed in addressing the problem of slavery in the US and the nation collapsed into a civil war. Nevertheless, Douglas's support for popular sovereignty continues to be a significant part of US political history and his reputation as *The champion of popular sovereignty* remains till the present day.

Due to Woodrow Wilson's advocacy for the implementation of an eight-hour workweek for employees, he was referred to as *The Man of the Eight-Hour Day* (1912). Thanks to this and other Wilson's slogans that reflected his political stance Wilson gained the victory in 1912 presidential elections. In 1916, when he was president, he signed the Adamson Act, which mandated an eight-hour workday for railroad employees. This bill was notable for the first time in US history, a federal law enforced an eight-hour day for employees. This was a significant turning point in American history regarding worker rights.

Wilson's idea of an eight-hour workweek was one of the aspects of his larger progressive agenda that intended to better the lives of the working class. He argued that fewer working hours would provide people more free time to take part in family life, civic activities, and leisure pursuits. In addition, he believed that instituting an eight-hour workday would boost performance by lessening worker exhaustion and enhancing workplace security [75].

In conclusion, political slogans frequently use periphrasis and nicknames to communicate a clear and straightforward idea. These catchphrases, which capture the personalities and ideologies of the people who used them, have a long history in American politics. From William Harrison's *Tippecanoe and Tyler Too* to Woodrow Wilson's *The Man of the Eight-Hour Day*, slogans continue to influence American political discourse and serve as a reminder of the significant events and people from American history.

3.3. Use of Running Mates' and Rival's Names in American Political Catchphrases

The vice presidential candidate's name may appear in slogans for a variety of reasons. Firstly, it may be useful in increasing voters' familiarity and name recognition with the candidate. Secondly, stressing the strength and unity within the party, including the vice presidential and presidential candidates, might be beneficial. Thirdly, supporting the party as a whole and its agenda rather than just one candidate might help gain more support.

Among the selected slogans, there are 8 slogans that include running mates' names. Thus, this phenomenon is quite rare and not typical for American political slogans. These slogans are given in Table 3.1 where running mates' names are underlined and it should be noted that they always go after the presidential candidate's name.

Table 3.1

Slogans with the names of running mates

Slogan	Party	Year
<i>Tippecanoe and <u>Tyler</u> Too</i>	Whig	1840
<i>Hurrah! Hurrah! The Country's Risin', for Henry Clay and <u>Frelinghuysen</u>!</i>	Whig	1844
<i>Hayes the true and <u>Wheeler</u> too</i>	Republican	1876
<i>The boys in blue vote for Hayes and <u>Wheeler</u></i>	Republican	1876
<i>Tippecanoe and <u>Morton</u> too</i>	Republican	1888
<i>Our choice: Cleve and <u>Steve</u></i>	Democratic	1892
<i>Win the war quicker with Dewey and <u>Bricker</u></i>	Republican	1944
<i>Adlai and <u>Estes</u> – The Bestest</i>	Democratic	1956

The use of running mates' names in political catchphrases may be traced only to the period from 1840 to 1956. By the 1950s, slogans hardly ever included the names of running mates. One of the rare examples from this period that mentions the vice presidential candidate's name is the Democratic slogan *Adlai and Estes – The Bestest* from 1956. Thus, it can be concluded that modern slogans starting from the middle of

the 20th century concentrate purely on presidential candidates and creating their brands, and leaving behind their running mates.

Both the Democratic Party and the Republican Party, the two major political parties of the United States, used running mates' names in slogans. It is crucial to remember that neither party has consistently used this strategy throughout history.

In the middle of the 19th century, the Whig Party employed catchphrases like *Tippecanoe and Tyler Too* in 1840 and *Hurrah! Hurrah! The Country's Risin', for Henry Clay and Frelinghuysen!* in 1844 during this time. Republican campaign slogans from the late 19th century included *Hayes the true and Wheeler too*, *The boys in blue vote for Hayes and Wheeler* in 1876, and *Tippecanoe and Morton too* in 1888. With the Republican Party's slogan *Win the war quicker with Dewey and Bricker* in 1944 and the Democratic Party's *Adlai and Estes – The Bestest* in 1956, the practice of using running mates' names in campaign slogans persisted throughout the 20th century. But it should be noted that it was the Republican Party who more actively engaged running mates' names in political slogans together with presidential candidates' names.

To conclude, throughout American political history, the usage of running mates' names in campaign slogans has been an uncommon phenomenon that mostly occurred between 1840 and 1956. By emphasizing the strength and unity within the party, highlighting the party's agenda as a whole, and differentiating the party's ideology from the opponents', the strategy of using the vice presidential candidate's name in a slogan helped increase voters' familiarity and name recognition with the candidate.

Using the names of running mates in campaign slogans was more prevalent among the Whig and Republican parties than the Democratic Party. Modern campaign slogans have tended to be centered on the presidential candidates, building their brands while ignoring their running mates.

Slogans that contain the name of a rival candidate can be successful in some circumstances but they can also be dangerous. On the one hand, adding an opponent's name to a phrase can help make it memorable and catchy. This is particularly useful

in political races as candidates are competing for voters' attention and seeking to set themselves apart from one another.

On the other hand, incorporating the name of a rival in a phrase might sometimes turn out as negative and aggressive. It could appear as though the candidate is more interested in disparaging their rival than in advancing their own program and ideals. Furthermore, negative campaigning occasionally backfires, making people dislike the politician who does it.

Among the selected slogans, there are only 11 slogans that include an opponent's name. In light of this, the phenomenon is unusual and untypical of American political phrases. These catchphrases are listed in Table 3.2 with the rivals' names underlined.

Table 3.2

Slogans with the opponent's name

Slogan	Presidential candidate	Year
<i>Who is <u>James K. Polk</u>?</i>	Henry Clay	1844
<i>Blaine, Blaine, <u>James G. Blaine</u>, the continental liar from the state of Maine</i>	Grover Cleveland	1884
<i>Vote for Taft now, you can vote for <u>Bryan</u> any time</i>	William Howard	1908
<i><u>Willkie</u> for the Millionaires, Roosevelt for the Millions</i>	Franklin D. Roosevelt	1940
<i><u>Roosevelt</u> for Ex-President</i>	Wendell Willkie	1940
<i>Dick <u>Nixon</u> Before He Dicks You</i>	anti-Nixon slogan	1972
<i>Down with <u>King George</u></i>	Pat Buchanan	1992
<i>Send <u>Bush</u> a Message</i>	Pat Buchanan	1992
<i><u>Obama</u> Isn't Working</i>	Mitt Romney	2012
<i>Love <u>Trumps</u> Hate</i>	Hillary Clinton	2016
<i>Bye <u>Don</u></i>	Joe Biden	2020

By examining the slogans from Table 3.2, it can be seen how the slogans' usage of the opponent's name has changed over time. The first slogan, *Who is James K. Polk?*, was used by Henry Clay during the 1844 presidential campaign. It is a

criticism of Polk's lack of national experience and recognition. The catchphrase is meant to cast doubt on James K. Polk's credentials while also subtly highlighting Clay's own expertise. The rhetorical question *Who is James K. Polk?* used by Henry Clay was probably meant to expose his opponent's lack of presidential credentials. By posing the slogan in this manner, Clay implied that Polk was a comparatively unknown person in American politics and was thus unqualified to assume the presidency. The implied comparison between Clay's own background and accomplishments and those of his opponent acted as a further way for the question to bring attention to Clay.

Blaine, Blaine, James G. Blaine, the continental liar from the state of Maine was used during the presidential campaign of 1884 as an attack on Blaine who was accused of corruption. It openly mentions Blaine and disparages him by labeling him a *continental liar*. Grover Cleveland, Blaine's Democratic opponent, used the catchphrase in an effort to raise doubts among voters about Blaine's honesty and trustworthiness. This phrase is an illustration of negative campaigning, which has historically been a popular strategy in political campaigns.

The slogan from 1908, *Vote for Taft now, you can vote for Bryan any time*, mentions the rival candidate's name in a way that implies the rival is not an actual contender and can be voted at any moment. This can be viewed as a reasonably mild usage of the adversary's name without creating a negative image of the opponent.

In the 1940 campaign slogan *Willkie for the Millionaires, Roosevelt for the Millions* the name of the rival is mentioned more openly and with a pejorative connotation. The campaign's slogan suggests that Willkie, Roosevelt's opponent, only cares about the interests of the affluent, in contrast to Roosevelt's concern for the general welfare of society.

Franklin D. Roosevelt was running for a third term in 1940. Roosevelt faced competition from Wendell Willkie whose campaign slogan was *Roosevelt for Ex-President*. The slogan is an obvious instance of negative campaigning because it directly criticizes Roosevelt, who was the president at the time. The slogan was being

used by Willkie to showcase his own campaign as the superior option while framing Roosevelt as an inadequate leader who should be replaced.

In the 1972 anti-Nixon campaign slogan *Dick Nixon Before He Dicks You*, there is a more hostile usage of the opponent's name since it includes a slanderous nickname and implies that Nixon poses a threat to the safety of the people as a whole.

The opponent's name is not stated specifically in the one of 1992 campaign slogans: *Down with King George* and *Send Bush a Message* but a derisive moniker is used in its place – *King George*. A more confrontational tone is also used in these slogans with the idea that the adversary is a force that must be subdued.

In more recent campaigns, a combination of direct and indirect usage of the rival's name may be observed. *Obama Isn't Working*, Mitt Romney's 2012 campaign slogan, is a direct criticism of the rival, whereas *Love Trumps Hate*, Hillary Clinton's slogan, uses the opponent's name to contrast a supportive message. In the case of *Obama Isn't Working* the mention of the opponent's name is accompanied by a critical statement regarding how well he is handling his duties as president. Compared to other slogans that utilize the rival's name more subtly or humorously, this one might be perceived as being more direct and hostile.

2016 Hillary Clinton's slogan *Love Trumps Hate* deserves special attention. The phrase employs wordplay to make a political point. The term *trumps*, which also happens to be the name of a card game and a homophone for *defeats* or *beats*, is the foundation of the wordplay in this slogan. The word *love* stands for good feelings and attitudes, whereas the word *hate* stands for bad feelings and attitudes. The pun uses the resemblance between the term *trump* and Donald Trump's last name to indicate that love may triumph over the hatred connected with Trump's political opinions and ideologies. This wordplay's effectiveness comes from the way it generates a memorable and catchy phrase that is easy to remember. The slogan invokes emotions to convey a strong message, which is crucial in political debates since feelings frequently play a big part.

Last but not least, Joe Biden's 2020 campaign slogan *Bye Don* uses the opponent's name in a more jocular and dismissive manner, implying that the

candidate is not taking the contender seriously and is prepared to take the race. The pun in *Bye Don* is a play on the word *bye-bye*, a term for goodbye. *Don* is substituted for *bye* to refer to Donald Trump, Biden's rival in the 2020 US presidential election. The pun serves as a smart and memorable method to communicate the desire to see Trump removed from office. Compared to some of the more negative or offensive slogans that have been employed in previous political campaigns, the pun also has a fun and joyful tone. The general tone of Biden's 2020 campaign rhetoric, which highlighted the need for cooperation and unity in politics, is consistent with the slogan.

Finally, it can be said that using an opponent's name in a political slogan has frequently occurred in the 20th and 21st centuries. The analyzed slogans illustrate the evolution of this phenomenon over time featuring various tones and degrees of hostility. Political slogans have evolved to reflect the shifting political environment and media landscape, ranging from subtly implied criticism to blatant attacks. In political campaigns throughout history, negative campaigning has been a common tactic, while wordplay and humor have been more commonplace recently. Overall, including an opponent's name in a political catchphrase is a strategy that needs to be carefully considered.

3.4. Role of Proverbs and Idioms as a Source for Political Slogans

For several reasons, politicians may resort to proverb-based catchphrases. Proverbs are brief and memorable sayings that have a strong emotional impact on the audience. They are effective persuasive tools since they frequently convey common sense or a widely accepted opinion on the subject matter.

In addition, proverbs also have a rich history and cultural value, which may give a politician's message legitimacy and authority. A slogan based on a proverb may also foster both trust and familiarity in the recipients since they can relate to the phrases and can easily identify them. Last but not least, they are frequently timeless and flexible to any context, making them useful for a variety of campaigns.

Among 305 selected American political slogans from 1840 to 2020, there are three proverb-based slogans. Although this type of slogan makes up only 1% of all slogans, this phenomenon is worth analyzing and exploring. Three presidential candidates used proverbs in their slogans: Abraham Lincoln, Richard Nixon, and George H. W. Bush. These slogans may be seen in Table 3.3 with the presidential candidate, year of the political campaign and whether or not the nominee who employed a proverb won the presidential elections.

Table 3.3

Slogans consisting of proverb-based slogans

Slogan	Candidate	Year	Victory in elections
1. <i>Don't change horses midstream</i>	Abraham Lincoln (second term)	1864	yes
2. <i>Don't change Dicks in the midst of a screw, vote for Nixon in '72</i>	Richard Nixon (second term)	1972	yes
3. <i>Don't Change the Team in the Middle of the Stream</i>	George H. W. Bush (second term)	1992	no

In his 1864 re-election campaign, Abraham Lincoln used the original proverb *Don't change horses midstream*. The very proverb implies that one should not change their mind or the course of action, plan, or leadership during some project or at an inappropriate time. Lincoln's goal was to stress the value of consistency and stability amid a period of significant change and uncertainty. He intended to make it clear that changing leaders during such a critical moment would be damaging to the country's efforts to maintain the Union and put a stop to the Civil War, which was still raging at the time. Lincoln's campaign was able to garner greater support to win the elections because of the usage of a well-known proverb in the slogan, which also served to make the slogan more memorable and catchy.

Richard Nixon's campaign included the catchphrase *Don't change Dicks in the midst of a screw, vote for Nixon in '72* during the 1972 US presidential election. The catchphrase is created thanks to a play on the saying *Don't change horses midstream* that was previously used by Lincoln 108 years ago. The message coincides with Lincoln's: it is irrational to change governance during a crisis.

Unlikely Lincoln's slogan, Nixon's catchphrase generated a lot of controversies and received harsh criticism for its derogatory and sexist tone. The catchphrase implies that changing presidents in the midst of a crisis (*Dicks*) would be as silly as changing lovers during a sexual encounter (*a screw*). This slogan is a disputable and provocative illustration of political campaigning that aims to appeal to people's emotions by using shock and humor in order to get the audience's attention.

It is worth noting that the word *Dicks* is capitalized in the above-mentioned slogan. And knowing the history of Nixon's racing for the presidency before, it can be concluded that Nixon himself is implied by the word *Dicks*. Nixon earned the moniker *Tricky Dick* in reaction to a smear campaign he launched against Helen Douglas in 1950 while the two were running for a Senate seat [82].

Moreover, compared to Lincoln's slogan, Nixon's is more structurally complex since it contains 2 sentences that are both imperative and calling for action. Thus, the primary point of the phrase is the idea that Nixon is a more secure and trustworthy option and that voters should not take a chance by choosing another president but Nixon at a pivotal moment.

20 years later after Nixon's slogan, George H. W. Bush also resorted to the same proverb in his campaign, having used the well-known pattern but having changed some words: *Don't Change the Team in the Middle of the Stream*. This slogan is a more conventional and less ambiguous catchphrase, compared to Nixon's slogan, and is more similar in tone and context to Lincoln's catchphrase. It implies that maintaining continuity and stability is crucial, particularly while dealing with difficulties or uncertainty. The metaphor of *the stream* indicates that *the team* (administration, leadership) is directing and guiding people through potentially challenging circumstances, and that is why changing leaders might result in disaster.

All three candidates successfully chose the proverb that had high relevance in those times. The proverb's element *Don't change* was significant since the candidates were running for the second term and did not want to lose their leadership. The second crucial element is *midstream*, *screw*, *stream* that implies some difficulties, and some turbulent times:

- the idea of *midstream* used by Lincoln is self-explanatory since back then in 1864 the United States was in the middle of the Civil War;
- the concept of *a screw* in Nixon's slogan was due to the fact that Nixon was running for re-election in 1972 while the USA was engaged in the Vietnam War;

- the notion of *a stream* is used by George H. W. Bush in 1992 since firstly, his opponent Bill Clinton presented a formidable challenge at the time, and secondly, the US was experiencing an economic slump.

While Lincoln preserved the original form of the proverb, the other two candidates changed the initial form and added rhyming words so that slogans would be catchier: *screw – two*, *team – stream*. Thanks to this, phrases gained more rhythm which is essential if one wants the phrase stuck in the audience's minds. And as can be seen from Table 3.3, 2 out of 3 candidates who adopted the proverb to slogans reached a goal and won elections. It cannot be said that only slogans determine politicians' success but surely, their role is not to be underestimated.

In conclusion, for more than a century, proverbs have been essential in political campaigns. Political leaders appeal to the historical and cultural value of well-known sayings by using proverb-based slogans to convince and influence voters. Such memorable phrases provide a message that is already universally agreed upon, which makes them powerful persuading tools.

In this paper, three examples show how various advertising objectives can be met by using a proverb-based slogan. Nixon's contentious catchphrase was meant to shock and amuse the audience, Bush's more traditional slogan centered around upholding reliability and security, and Lincoln's slogan stressed the need for stability and consistency as well during crisis times. It is worth noting that politicians of the 21st century do not opt for proverbs while coming up with slogans for their political campaigns.

As was proved before, politicians may resort to fixed expressions to look for inspiration to create slogans. However, some political slogans have become so widespread that they go beyond the political context and acquire a new meaning without any political or temporal reference.

The vivid illustration of the above-mentioned phenomenon is the proverbial slogan of Herbert Hoover's presidential campaign in 1928: *A Chicken in Every Pot and a Car in Every Garage* that claimed that everyone would succeed during Hoover's administration.

The phrase is sometimes misattributed to Herbert Hoover. In fact, the first one who used this expression was Henry IV of France in the 16th century. At that time, the King is said to have expressed the desire for every peasant in his country, regardless of wealth, to have a chicken in his pot every Sunday [87]. But thanks to Hoover's advertising campaign, the phrase *A Chicken in Every Pot* gained so much popularity that it even entered dictionaries, for example, the Farlex Dictionary of Idioms [86] with the meaning of prosperity and fortune. And the slogan can be considered effective since Hoover won the 1928 presidential elections.

Looking at the historical development of political slogans, it can be observed how these phrases evolve and acquire new meanings over time. As is seen with the example of the *chicken in every pot* slogan, the phrase was originally used by Henry IV of France in the 16th century but it gained a new meaning and became associated with Herbert Hoover's presidential campaign in 1928.

Finally, political slogans can have a long-lasting effect outside of their initial political context. Herbert Hoover's campaign slogan *A Chicken in Every Pot and a Car In Every Garage* demonstrates that catchy political slogans may spread across society and gain a new meaning unrelated to their original purpose. The phrase became so well-known during Hoover's presidential campaign that it is now associated with wealth and prosperity. This is an indication that language, particularly political slogans, may have a profound effect that goes well beyond the realm of politics.

American political catchphrases can be inspired by a wide range of things, such as speeches, historical occurrences, and contemporary political developments. As has been seen from the previous chapter, many political slogans are proverb-based, i.e. they were created thanks to already existing proverbs in the language. Other language sources serve as inspiration for political catchphrases.

During Woodrow Wilson's 1916 presidential campaign, the catchphrase *He proved the pen mightier than the sword* was employed. This catchphrase is a metaphor that refers to Wilson's preference for negotiation and diplomacy in place of military action in the context of global affairs. The expression *the pen is mightier*

than the sword refers to the notion that words can have greater influence and power than physical strength. The phrase has a literary origin since it was coined in 1839 by Edward Bulwer-Lytton that used the phrase in his theatrical piece *Richelieu; Or the Conspiracy*. Wilson managed to establish a rapport with people by emphasizing his dedication to peaceful solutions through the use of a well-known metaphor.

President Harry S. Truman is credited for popularizing the phrase *The Buck Stops Here* which was his slogan in the 1948 presidential campaign. The expression is thought to have come from the game of poker when the dealer was chosen by passing a marker dubbed a *buck* from one player to another. As the person in charge of supervising the game and making sure the rules were obeyed, the dealer was referred to as the person who stopped the buck. The term *The Buck Stops Here* refers to the idea that the President is ultimately accountable for the decisions taken by the government and cannot deflect responsibility to others. Truman was renowned for his direct style of administration and he frequently used this expression to highlight his willingness to accept responsibility for the choices he made in that office.

Evan McMullin used the catchphrase *It's Never Too Late to Do the Right Thing* during the 2016 presidential campaign. It is a widely used idiom that has appeared in a variety of contexts throughout the years. It is believed that this expression belongs to Nelson Mandela. The slogan's message is that it is never too late to make a positive change or stand up for what is right.

Political slogans can be greatly influenced by idioms. They are able to connect emotionally with the audience, concisely and memorably explain complicated concepts and emotions, and support candidates in building their reputation and brand. Among selected slogans, they constitute only about 2.6%, yet they deserve to be analyzed. They are presented in Table 3.4 with idioms underlined.

Table 3.4

Slogans comprising idioms

Year	Slogan	Nominee
1900	<u>Let Well Enough Alone</u>	William McKinley
1932	We are <u>turning the corner</u>	Herbert Hoover
1948	I'm Just <u>Wild About</u> Harry	Harry S. Truman
1948	<u>Give Em Hell</u> , Harry!	Harry S. Truman
1964	In Your Guts, You Know He's <u>Nuts</u>	Lyndon B. Johnson
1976	<u>Peaches And Cream</u>	Jimmy Carter
1984	<u>Where's the beef?</u>	Walter Mondale
2020	<u>Stand Tall</u>	John Hickenlooper

During William McKinley's 1900 presidential campaign, the phrase *Let well enough alone* was adopted as a slogan to imply that the nation's current situation was secure and prosperous due to McKinley's administration and that any effort to change it might be pointless and harmful.

We Are Turning The Corner was used by Herbert Hoover during the Great Depression to suggest that the country was on the verge of economic recovery. It implies that the nation had been going in the wrong direction but was now making progress.

I'm Just Wild About Harry and *Give Em Hell, Harry!* are two of Harry S. Truman's campaign anthems, and both use the language to express a strong sentiment of admiration and tenacity. While *give them hell* refers to an aggressive and determined attack, *wild about* refers to a passionate love for something. By using these catchphrases, Truman aimed to demonstrate his enthusiasm for his political cause and his dedication to succeed.

The catchphrase *In Your Guts, You Know He's Nuts* by Lyndon B. Johnson is an illustration of an ironic rhyme idiom. *In your guts* refers to a strong sensation or intuition but *he's nuts* denotes someone who is either crazy or irrational. Johnson used this catchphrase to disparage his opponent Barry Goldwater and to argue that Goldwater was unqualified to serve as president.

The metaphorical phrase *Peaches and Cream* from Jimmy Carter's campaign aims to project a good image. *Peaches and cream* refers to a nice and delightful experience. Throughout his presidential campaign, Carter promoted himself as a positive and likable figure by using this catchphrase.

The campaign slogan *Where's the Beef?* by Walter Mondale is a perfect representation of a rhetorical question. The question *where's the beef?* is used to demand proof or evidence. Mondale utilized this catchphrase to criticize the actions of his rival, President Ronald Reagan.

Stand Tall is a phrase used in John Hickenlooper's campaign to express a feeling of power and assurance. *Stand Tall* refers to a sense of pride and assurance. Hickenlooper utilized this catchphrase to motivate his supporters to stand up for their ideals and principles.

In conclusion, idiomatic political phrases are extremely powerful because they evoke emotions. This chapter has illustrated how idioms have been successfully used by political politicians to develop catchy slogans. These catchphrases, which range from Woodrow Wilson's *The Pen Is Mightier Than The Sword* to John Hickenlooper's *Stand Tall*, have not only benefited candidates in winning elections but have also shaped American political culture.

3.5. Power of Emotional Appeals in 1964 Presidential Elections

In the 1964 presidential elections, the two main candidates were Barry Goldwater and Lyndon B. Johnson (LBJ). Barry Goldwater's main political slogan was *In Your Heart, You Know He's Right*. The phrase was designed to stir up the electorate's emotions and imply that Barry Goldwater was the morally superior candidate. The mention of *heart* suggests that voters should follow their feelings rather than their reason and that choosing Goldwater is more a question of personal conviction than of sound judgment. The catchy and straightforward slogan may encourage followers to feel a strong sense of devotion and loyalty.

In response to Goldwater's slogan, LBJ's campaign came up with its own catchphrase for Goldwater: *In Your Guts, You Know He's Nuts*. The slogan is built on

a play on words. The *gut* is slang for “stomach” Moreover, the *gut* is closely associated with the idiomatic phrase *a gut feeling*, a firm conviction about somebody or something that cannot fully be justified. There appears this antithesis between the phrases *In Your Heart – In Your Guts* that are pretty similar in their meaning indicating one should trust their intuition. However, following one’s heart is typically associated with making decisions based on emotions and desires while trusting one’s gut is more focused on instinct and intuition.

The word *nuts* is slang for *crazy, stupid*, a negative colored lexeme taking into account this slangish meaning and since it is used to mock another politician. The catchphrase suggests that Goldwater lacked moral character and was unfit for leadership due to his illogical and unpredictable actions and policies. This slogan, in contrast to the first, disparages the rival candidate with humor and sarcasm. Additionally, it relies on the idea that the public would reject Goldwater based more on instinct and common sense than on rational arguments or ideological stances.

Johnson’s slogan changed only two words (replaced *heart* with *nuts* and *right* with *nuts*) having modified the whole meaning of the phrase adding to it a sarcastic tone. The interesting thing is that both slogans are quite catchy but the second one is easier to remember thanks to rhyme: in the first slogan, there is *heart – right* where vocal sounds are not identical (but the final consonant is the same) while in the second slogan, there is a perfect rhyme: *gut – nuts* and owing to this, it sorts of surpasses Goldwater’s slogan.

Both slogans actively engage pronouns, there are three pronouns in each of the slogans: *your, you, and he*. The first two pronouns are targeted at the audience to create a sense of intimization between the addresser and addressee while the third pronoun *he* substitutes distinct nouns, to be more precise, different persons.

In Goldwater’s slogan, the pronoun *he* means Goldwater himself, and the phrase *he’s right* intends to create a positive image of the politician. In this case, the slogan’s content concerns the person who created the very slogan while there is the quite opposite situation with Johnson’s slogan.

In Johnson's slogan, the pronoun *he* does not suggest the creator of the slogan but the slogan creator's opponent – Goldwater. And since this slogan is targeted at the opponent and his supporters, there is no need to convey a positive image but on the contrary, it would be a powerful manipulating strategy to use the opponent's pattern of the slogan, change some words and in the end, create a similar slogan that would mock the initial slogan and level its efficiency among potential voters. And it is common knowledge that negative images are quicker to be remembered and recalled and they have a long-lasting effect on the audience.

These two slogans deserve special attention since Johnson's slogan is a directly reversed catchphrase of the Goldwater's campaign. It is an immediate and straightforward response to the opponent to counteract his campaign. Thanks to this response, there appears a sense of a dialogue or even debates at the level of slogans. This is a linguistic and political phenomenon worth mentioning and analyzing. This strategy was, in fact, effective since Johnson defeated Goldwater, garnering 61% of the votes to his opponent's 38%.

Both phrases make an emotional and instinctual appeal to voters but they accomplish it in distinct manners. While the second slogan employs humor to delve into people's sense of suspicion and mistrust, the first invites voters to trust their moral convictions. In the end, the context in which a phrase is used and the audience it is intended for determine how effective it will be.

To sum up, two outstanding campaign slogans that captured the ideological gap between the two leading candidates made the 1964 presidential election stand out. *In Your Heart, You Know He's Right*, Goldwater's campaign slogan, played on voters' sentiments and suggested that voting for Goldwater was more about emotional conviction than rational decision-making. Johnson's reply, *In Your Guts, You Know He's Nuts*, used wordplay and humor to imply that Goldwater was unqualified for leadership owing to his unpredictable behavior and views. Pronouns were used in both phrases to establish a personal connection with the audience and to disparage the competition. In the end, Johnson's campaign slogan worked better and he easily won the election.

3.6. Most Common Words in Political Catchphrases of the US from 1840 to 2020

The essential ideals, promises, and objectives of a political campaign may be illustrated by the most prevalent words in slogans. Words like *change*, *forward*, *hope*, and *progress*, for instance, may allude to an emphasis on innovation, transformation, and a break from the norm. Contrarily, lexemes like *freedom*, *liberty*, *justice*, and *patriotism* may place an emphasis on the nation's safety, the defense of freedoms enjoyed by individuals, and traditional principles. The frequent use of words like *family*, *healthcare*, *jobs*, and *education* may also be a way to appeal to a specific group or community.

It is crucial to examine the terms that appear most frequently in political slogans since doing so sheds light on the goals, priorities, and message techniques used by political campaigns as well as the issues they think the electorate will value most. We may better grasp the primary concerns being addressed, the tone and language being used to convey those issues, and the campaign's overall messaging strategy by finding the words that appear most frequently in political slogans.

Additionally, by looking at the words that appear most frequently in political slogans, one can trace how political discourse has changed over time. The most prevalent terms in campaign slogans from various eras can be compared to reveal changes in political priorities, vocabulary, and manipulating techniques, as well as how political campaigns react to current events and shifting social and cultural standards.

Thanks to *Voyant Tools*, the words used most frequently in American political slogans from 1840 to 2020 (during 180 years) have been identified. While identifying, the most prevalent words, stop words in *Voyant Tools* were introduced. Stop words are a group of frequently used terms. They are used to remove insignificant words prior to or following analysis from a natural language text so that programs can concentrate on the crucial ones. In this case, the stop list includes articles, determiners, prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, modal verbs, auxiliary verbs, numerals, separate letters, signs, and numbers.

The identified most common words are shown in Appendix 2 with the count of the word in all chosen slogans. They also can be seen in a word cloud in the Appendix 3. The size of the words in a word cloud, which visualizes keywords, reflects how frequently they are used.

As seen from Appendix 1, the word *America* is the one that appears in political slogans the most, to be precise, 38 times. The term is found in approximately 12% of all American political slogans. It is a strong emotive word that stands for the United States and its citizens. The American identity, as well as the ideas of freedom, democracy, and opportunity, have been linked to this word. The term *America* is frequently used in political slogans to elicit national pride and a sense of patriotism since slogans are created to appeal to people's feelings and delve into their core principles and convictions. Furthermore, candidates for political office frequently use the term *America* to emphasize their message of togetherness and to appeal to voters' feelings of common purpose.

It is prominent that *America* has continually been employed in political slogans over the years. The word *America* appears frequently in the early slogans in conjunction with other phrases like *first*, *efficient*, or *needs*. The catchphrases from the 1920s to the 1980s tend to be more nationalistic.

Charles Evans Hughes coined the slogan *America First and America Efficient* in 1916 and by this, he started the trend of using *America* in slogans. It is obvious that the notion of placing America first has existed since the early 1900s. *War in Europe - Peace in America - God Bless Wilson*, Woodrow Wilson's 1920 campaign catchphrase, underlined the significance of maintaining peace in America in the face of conflict. Warren G. Harding and Pat Buchanan both uttered the phrase *America First* in 1920 and 1996, respectively.

In the slogans of the 1980s, *America* served as a sign of optimism and rebirth. In his 1984 campaign, Ronald Reagan employed the term *America* in his two catchphrases: *Let's Make America Great Again* and *It's Morning Again in America*. These two emphasized the notion of a promising future for America in a positive and enthusiastic manner. The 1984 campaign slogan of Walter Mondale, *America Needs*

New Leadership, captures the country's need for innovation and change. The 1992 campaign slogan for Bill Clinton, *It's Time to Change America*, echoes a similar idea.

Beginning from the 1990s and continuing through the 2000s and 2010s, there is a transition to the use of *America* in conjunction with more ethereal or aspirational terms like *believe*, *courage*, *truth*, and *hopeful*. In various campaign slogans, the term *America* with a preposition *for* is used to imply that the politician is advocating on behalf of the nation, e.g. *A Leader for America*, *The Better Man for a Better America*, *Dean for America*, *Kasich for America*, *Hillary for America*.

The phrase *Make America Great Again* has gained a lot of popularity recently and was used by Donald Trump in both 2016 and 2020 political campaigns. The slogan, which is centered around the idea of American exceptionalism, emphasizes the need to restore America's greatness. Trump's political opponents, including Andrew Yang and Gary Johnson, also utilized the word *America* in their campaign slogans.

In summary, the diachronic use of *America* in campaign slogans illustrates how important patriotism and national identity are in American politics. The high frequency of the term reflects the historical significance of American cultural identity and principles in political discourse and communication. It demonstrates shifting mindsets and priorities across American history, from pragmatic considerations in the early 1900s to aspirational goals starting from the beginning of the 21st century.

The other most frequent words in political catchphrases of the US are *change* (13 occurrences), *peace* (13 occurrences), and *people* (10 occurrences).

More than 150 years ago, the word *change* appeared in political catchphrases, with usage rising in the 20th and 21st centuries. It was only sometimes employed in the early years; in 1864, there was only one reported slogan. However, it became increasingly common in the 20th century when political campaigns from 1968 to 1992 used the word *change* to pique the interest of voters.

Early campaign slogans stressed consistency and continuity, including Abraham Lincoln's 1864 call to support him during the Civil War, *Don't change horses midstream*. Hubert Humphrey's slogan *Some People Talk Change, Others Cause It* in

1968 and Jimmy Carter's *A Leader, for a Change* in 1976, on the other hand, used the word *change* to set candidates apart from the status quo.

With Bill Clinton's slogans *For People, for a Change* and *It's Time to Change America* and George H.W. Bush's *Don't Change the Team in the Middle of the Stream* in 1992, both major parties employed *change* to reach out to the electorate in the 1990s. After that *change* has increased in frequency as a theme in political catchphrases, with Barack Obama's *Change We Can Believe In* and *Change We Need* in 2008 serving as famous examples.

In general, the usage of the word *change* in political catchphrases conveys a desire for development, innovation, and advancement. It has been employed by candidates from a range of political and ideological perspectives, including liberal Democrats and traditionalist Republicans.

Another significant element that appeals to many Americans is *peace*. 13 political slogans have used the word *peace* in total throughout history, the first being from 1852 and the most recent from 2008. Many political slogans have advocated the idea of ceasing war and attaining peace, with the word *peace* frequently being linked to times of war or struggle.

At the outset, phrases like *First in War, First in Peace* and *Union, Liberty, Peace* emphasized how crucial peace was to preserving the unity and the wealth of the nation. The slogans used during and after the Civil War, such as *An honorable, permanent, and happy peace* and *Let Us Have Peace*, were meant to bring an end to the war and establish peace in the nation.

With slogans like *War in Europe - Peace in America - God Bless Wilson* and *War in the East, Peace in the West, Thank God for Woodrow Wilson*, the slogans of the World War I era turned to encourage peace as a means of avoiding the conflict. Slogans like *Peace. Progress. Prosperity.* and *Peace and Prosperity* centered on pushing peace as a method for achieving advancement and prosperity in the middle of the 20th century.

There are only two examples from the 21st century on this list, indicating a decline in the use of the term *peace* in political slogans in recent years. This,

however, might simply be an indicator of the fact that recent political campaigns have focused more on other concerns.

In conclusion, the term *peace* has consistently appeared in political catchphrases throughout American history. It has been used to promote peace, create harmony and prosperity, and steer clear of violence altogether. The idea of peace continues to be vital to many Americans, despite a reduction in recent years.

The word *people* highlights how crucial it is to meet the needs of the entire populace. Politicians frequently use the word *people* in their slogans to express empathy and compassion for the hardships and difficulties that regular Americans encounter. Political catchphrases from the early 19th century, such as Zachary Taylor's *For President of the People* from 1848, sought to portray the nominee as a single individual who could represent all citizens instead of just the aristocracy.

Political catchphrases from the latter half of the 20th century, like *Some People Talk Change, Others Cause It* by Hubert Humphrey in 1968 or *For People, for a Change* by Bill Clinton in 1992, attempted to communicate the message of the candidate's dedication to introducing positive change in the lives of common people.

Twenty-first-century slogans like *Putting People First* by Bill Clinton in 2000, *Government Of, By, and For the People... Not the Monied Interests* by Ralph Nader in 2008, or *Working People First* by Bill de Blasio in 2020 were intended to emphasize the significance of people's well-being and welfare and to reassure voters that the presidential nominee would give the highest priority to their needs.

From advocating for a candidate as in *For President of the People* in the 1840s to the notion of *Putting People First* in the 1990s to highlighting the value of working people in modern slogans like *Working People First* in 2020, the primary focus of campaign slogans has changed through time. Political slogans that use the word *people* are frequently representative of the working class since they make an effort to appeal to the general public.

To sum up, the term *people* has frequently appeared in political catchphrases throughout history to emphasize the significance of responding to the demands and worries of the general populace. These catchphrases have changed over time to

represent shifting objectives and viewpoints on the function of government in society. Early slogans stressed portraying a single person as the voice of the people, however, more contemporary slogans have placed an emphasis on larger ideas of inclusivity and equality. However, political catchphrases continue to use the word *people* to imply a sense of compassion and commitment to bettering the lives of all residents, particularly those who are working class.

The words *vote*, *new*, *make*, and *better* are common in American political slogans because they convey messages that are essential to political campaigns. Each of them occurs 9 times in political slogans. The term *vote* is used to entice people to take part in the electoral process and have a voice in who represents them in government. Political slogans typically utilize the word *new* to imply that the candidate is proposing novel solutions or a new course for the nation.

Due to its ability to imply activity and power, the word *make* is frequently used in political phrases in America. Candidates for office regularly employ the word *make* to express their dedication to implementing change and accomplishing particular objectives. The term stresses that the politician is not merely advocating change; they are also acting to bring it about.

The term *better* is frequently used in political campaigns because it conveys a desire to enhance living conditions for residents. Candidates emphasize their dedication to enhancing people's lives and addressing important social and economic challenges with catchphrases using this term.

Among frequent terms in slogans, there is also *union*, *prosperity* (8 occurrences each), *liberty*, and *future* (7 occurrences each) that represent core values that are deeply ingrained in American political culture and history. *Union* symbolizes the concept of a united nation and underlines the significance of cooperating in order to accomplish shared objectives. Since the formation of the nation, this idea has been a major political theme in the United States. Politicians have frequently utilized the idea of the union to inspire the country and foster a sense of shared solidarity during times of crisis or discord.

The word *prosperity* captures the ambitions of Americans for prosperity and welfare. The significance of building a thriving society that provides an opportunity for everyone has been underlined in numerous political catchphrases. The American Dream, which stresses the possibility of economic and social advancement, is strongly related to the concept of prosperity. Voters are encouraged to feel hopeful and optimistic by hearing slogans that use the word *prosperity* and present an optimistic picture of the future.

The word *liberty* is a cornerstone of American political history. It alludes to the personal liberties and rights guaranteed by the Constitution, such as freedom of speech, of the press, and of religion. These liberties have been the subject of numerous political catchphrases, frequently in response to alleged dangers from outside forces or intrusions by the government.

The word *future* is frequently used by political politicians to send an upbeat message and to encourage voters to support their ideas for a better future. The concept of the *future* also emphasizes the significance of forward-thinking and making long-term plans. Politicians frequently emphasize subjects like climate change, education, and healthcare in their campaigns because they will have an impact on generations to come. Candidates can show their devotion to these concerns and their commitment to constructing a better society for future generations by highlighting the word *future* in their slogans. The term is also aspirational because it denotes a change from the present and a desire for advancement. It appeals to people's yearning for the betterment and change and may serve as a strong inducement for voters to vote for a certain politician.

Less common but essential are terms like *win*, *war*, *time*, *leadership*, *great*, *free*, and *American* (6 occurrences in the slogans). *Win* and *war* conjure up images of strength and victory, which is frequently a central theme of political campaigns. Nominees use them to demonstrate their dedication to stand up for their convictions and overcome challenges. Political slogans frequently employ the word *time* to imply that a new age is starting and change is approaching. *Leadership* refers to the concept

of an individual who can steer the nation and its citizens in the right way. It speaks about skill, wisdom, and a distinct future perspective.

Political slogans frequently employ the word *great* to express hope and faith in the potential of the nation. It serves as a means of uplift and a warning that the crowning glory is yet to come. The word *free* evokes the libertarian and democratic ideals that are important to American culture. It implies that a candidate is dedicated to upholding these ideals and making sure that everyone in the country is given the same chances and rights. The word *American* connotes a sense of identity and pride in one's country. It implies that a politician is dedicated to prioritizing America and advancing its interests and ideals both domestically and internationally.

To sum up, the frequent use of words like *vote*, *new*, *make*, and *better* highlights the importance of civic engagement, innovation, action, and progress. Other key terms like *union*, *prosperity*, *liberty*, *future*, *win*, *war*, *time*, *leadership*, *great*, *free*, and *American* reflect the diverse themes and ideals that are deeply embedded in the country's political culture and history. One can obtain insight into the aims and objectives of politicians as well as the worries and expectations of voters by studying the meaning of these terms in political slogans.

Conclusions to Chapter III

Political catchphrases that contain a candidate's name may be a successful strategy to develop their brand and personality. Plenty of political slogans directly mention a nominee for the president, with the name of a politician appearing in about one-fourth of them. Over time, catchphrases have changed, becoming more provocative and imaginative. Earlier campaign slogans typically emphasized the names of politicians, however more contemporary slogans emphasize the qualities and experience of the candidate. Political landscape changes and strategies employed by candidates to win over voters are reflected in the use of leaders' names in campaign slogans.

Political slogans have frequently used periphrasis and nicknames to make their messages clear and memorable throughout American history. These catchphrases,

which capture the personalities of the politicians who used them, have grown to be significant components of American political discourse. *Honest Old Abe*, *I Like Ike*, *Tippecanoe and Tyler Too*, and *The Man of the Eight-Hour Day* are a few examples. Some of these catchphrases have historical value, while others have entered the common vernacular in America.

In American political slogans over the years, the usage of running mates' names has been very uncommon, with the majority of such slogans coming between 1840 and 1956. The goal of the technique was to promote the party's overall program while also enhancing voter acquaintance and connection with the candidate. The branding of the presidential nominee has often been the focus of campaign slogans in the contemporary era, with the running mate being mostly ignored. The catchphrases that include the name of a rival candidate show the several ways the name of the opponent may be utilized, from a subtle way to more hostile and direct.

American political catchphrases can be molded by a variety of things, including proverbs, historical occurrences, and current political trends. Recipients can connect to and quickly recognize the proverb-based slogans that help develop familiarity and trust among them. They may be used for a variety of campaigns since they are timeless and adaptable to every situation. Politicians frequently employ idiomatic phrases to design catchy slogans that appeal to voters. Idioms are a simple and effective approach to communicating difficult ideas and feelings.

The goals, priorities, and communications strategies employed by political campaigns may be understood by looking at the terms that appear most frequently in their slogans. The historical relevance of American cultural identity and ideals in political discourse is shown in the frequent usage of the term *America* in political slogans over the years.

The terms *change*, *peace*, and *people* are among the most commonly used. The terms *vote*, *new*, *make*, and *better* are also often employed in political slogans since they express the key ideas that political campaigns want to get through. Political slogans often try to succinctly and memorably convey a candidate's message and goals to the voters.

CONCLUSION

Political campaigns frequently employ slogans, and the effectiveness of a slogan depends on both the content it expresses and the style of approach it takes. A slogan is a succinct, memorable phrase that serves as an essential tool in political communication to convey a certain goal or intention to the electorate.

A significant understanding of how language influences public opinion and decision-making was gained from the examination of slogans. A memorable slogan may communicate a message succinctly and effectively by using literary devices and simple language. By examining slogans, one may better comprehend how language affects people's opinions and beliefs and create future communication tactics.

The corpus of material in the present thesis is the collection of 305 American campaign slogans from 1840 to 2020. The majority of the chosen slogans are declarative sentences (~ 70%) aimed at making it clear what they are trying to say to the audience. The biggest proportion is represented by slogan messages, followed by appeals to action (~ 28%). Slogans that just include promises (~ 25.5%) could be perceived as insincere. A slogan's effectiveness is determined by several variables, such as the standing and actions of the politician or the potency of the message.

The majority of political slogans utilize short, basic phrases that are concise and clear, with plenty of words consisting of three or four letters, according to the investigation into political slogans using *Text Analyzer*. Shorter words may be digested more rapidly and convey a feeling of urgency or immediacy, therefore this is probably done on purpose to make slogans simpler to recall and comprehend. Even though they are not frequently employed in slogans, numerals may be useful for expressing certain concepts or years.

Slogans have been examined in terms of the use of literary devices. The literary devices most commonly used in political slogans are alliteration (found in 14.1% of all slogans) and metaphor (present in 12.5% of all slogans). Other frequently used strategies include parallelism and repetition (6.2% and 6.9%, respectively) which are typically used to draw attention to a particular subject and to give the term a feeling

of coherence. It is essential for slogans to have a rhythmic and memorable effect, and this may be achieved by repeating parallel structures. Literary methods may strengthen the main point and help the target audience connect emotionally with the slogan. Because literary devices like allusion represent the cultural and historical legacy of the country, voters are abler to connect to the message.

The use of creative and emotive slogans that prominently incorporate a presidential candidate's name has a long tradition in American political campaigns. 25,6% of all slogans contain the names of politicians, i.e. every fourth slogan is meant to enhance the reputation and brand of a certain candidate. Recent campaigns show that wordplay and alliteration are powerful techniques for developing appealing and memorable slogans. Slogans with a nominee's name are expected to continue to be a crucial tactic for candidates looking to establish their brands, set themselves apart from rivals, and connect emotionally with voters.

Slogans have evolved to meet the needs of the time, from the emphasis on constitutional principles and national unity during the Civil War and Reconstruction to the evolution of more light-hearted and recognizable phrases in the 1920s and the rise of personalized and person-focused slogans in the 1950s. Recently, politicians have explicitly used their names in campaign slogans to build trust and familiarity with voters. From the time of William Harrison's *Tippecanoe and Tyler Too* until today, political campaigns that employ periphrasis and nicknames operate as a reminder of the key events and figures that have affected American politics.

It has historically been a successful strategy for improving voter familiarity and fostering party cohesion to include the names of vice presidential candidates in campaign slogans in American political elections. In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, the Republican and Whig parties adopted this tactic more frequently. Lately, the trend has changed towards emphasizing the presidential candidate alone in campaign slogans, ignoring the possible advantages of promoting the running mate's name.

The capacity of proverb-based slogans to appeal to common values and cultural norms is what gives them power. Nixon, Bush, and Lincoln's slogans serve as

examples of how varied advertising goals may be met by adopting proverb-based slogans. Furthermore, Hoover's catchphrase *A Chicken in Every Pot and A Car in Every Garage* shows that language has the power to transcend politics and have an impact on society as a whole. The proverbial power of language in political campaigns is still as important as ever, even though modern politicians may not utilize proverbs in their slogans.

The words that appear most frequently in slogans can serve as illustrations of the core values and goals of a political campaign. The terms most commonly used in political slogans of the US have been determined thanks to Voyant Tools. The term *America* appears in around 12% of all American political slogans. It is notable that throughout the years, political slogans have always mentioned *America*. In the early slogans, the term *America* commonly comes alongside other words like *first*, *efficient*, or *needs*. From the 1920s through the 1980s, catchphrases tended to be more patriotic. The term's diachronic use illustrates how attitudes and values have changed throughout the course of American history, from practical considerations in the early 1900s to aspirational objectives at the start of the twenty-first century.

Change, *peace*, and *people* are the next most common terms in US political catchphrases. *Vote*, *new*, *make*, and *better* are often used in political slogans since they express ideas that are crucial to electoral campaigns. Other significant words like *union*, *prosperity*, *liberty*, *future*, *win*, *war*, *time*, *leadership*, *great*, *free*, and *American* express the various themes and goals that are ingrained in the political culture and history of the nation. By analyzing these words in political slogans, one may gain insight into the goals and ambitions of politicians as well as the concerns and expectations of voters.

In conclusion, political slogans have been crucial to political campaigns throughout US history. One can have a better understanding of how language can affect public opinion by looking at political slogans. The most successful slogans are those that are short, straightforward, and use literary tactics like alliteration and metaphor. Slogans that are based on proverbs have the capacity to appeal to shared values and cultural norms, and the names of the nominees and vice presidential

candidates have long been used in slogans to create a sense of familiarity between them and voters. Throughout history, opinions and ideals have changed, and this is reflected in the diachronic usage of the word *America* in slogans. Overall, political slogans continue to be a crucial tool used by politicians to inform the public of their objectives and intentions.

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SUMMARY

This master thesis is dedicated to political slogans in American political campaigns. The author aims to analyze how political slogans have evolved from 1840 to 2020 and identify patterns and trends in their usage. The research's object is political catchphrases while the subject is political slogans of the USA from 1840 to 2020.

A list of 305 campaign slogans was compiled using resources from websites like the American President website and the Presidential Campaign Memorabilia. The study is only concerned with campaign slogans used from prior elections until 2020. In order to examine American political catchphrases from 1840 to 2020, the research takes a diachronic method.

The following methods were used to carry out the investigation for this thesis: observation, deduction, comparison, induction, generalization, and, classification as well as language research techniques like linguistic analysis, descriptive method, quantitative analysis, and method of a purposeful selection. The *Text Analyzer* and *Voyant tools* were further utilized in this investigation.

The works of eminent linguists, including from Ukraine such as O. Bylinska, A. Kovalevska, and N. Kutuza, as well as from other countries, including Falk Hartig, G. Hare, and C. Newsome, who have studied the function and significance of campaign slogans in political discourse, serve as the theoretical foundation for this research on American political slogans.

The thesis's novelty lies in its comprehensive diachronic analysis of US political slogans. The paper is structured with an introduction, three chapters, a conclusion, references, and 3 appendices.

The first chapter covers the theoretical basis of slogans with a focus on political slogans, their development, and linguistic interpretation. A slogan is a succinct phrase that makes an appeal or a request and conveys a key concept or demand. The chapter highlights that the creation of political slogans relies on several factors such as

analysis of the electorate's preferences, global trends, and trust in political technologists.

The second chapter deals with the analysis of 305 American political slogans used in presidential campaigns from 1840 to 2020. The findings reveal that slogans with a message account for the largest percentage (46.5%), followed by slogans with a call to action (28%), and slogans-promises (25.5%). With an average of four words per slogan with the most words including only three or four letters, the slogans are often succinct and written in simple English. Only 2.6% of slogans include numbers, which might make them more difficult to remember.

The literary devices utilized in political slogans are examined in the chapter. The most frequent literary techniques are alliteration and metaphor, which are followed by allusion, antithesis, rhyme, the tricolon, puns, and references to prior politicians. The slogans *Build Back Better*, *Don't Change Horses Midstream*, *Some People Talk Change*, *Others Cause It*, and *Grant Us Another Term* are examples of alliteration, metaphor, antithesis, and pun, respectively. These strategies are used to produce a memorable catchphrase, emphasize the candidate's message, appeal to voters, and support the political objective.

The third chapter explores patterns and trends concerning political slogans. Throughout 1840 and 2020, politicians' names appeared in around 25% of political slogans, with the presidential candidate's name appearing most frequently. Since the 1950s, they have become more personalized and person-centered. Politicians utilize their names explicitly in slogans, stressing their brand and credentials for leadership. Wordplay and alliteration-based personalized slogans are still common in contemporary campaigns. Although political slogans with periphrasis and nicknames may need cultural and historical background knowledge, they are frequently used in the political discourse.

The use of running mates' names in slogans was a rare phenomenon that predominantly took place between 1840 and 1956. Only 3.6% of political slogans in American history featured the name of the opponent; this is not a common pattern in American political catchphrases.

Proverbs are used in just 1% of the slogans examined, yet this phenomenon deserves attention. Richard Nixon, George H. W. Bush, and Abraham Lincoln employed the proverb *Don't change horses in midstream* with different significant modifications of the original version of the proverb in their campaign slogans. The adage was skillfully utilized by all three candidates to make a point about the value of reliability and security in leadership amid uncertain times that was pertinent to the political context of the day. Idiomatic slogans make up just approximately 2.6% of the chosen slogans. They are effective since they arouse emotions, and politicians have utilized them to create memorable slogans that influence American political culture.

The terms that appear the most frequently in political campaign slogans in America have been identified. Analyzing the most frequently used terms in political slogans might reveal campaign objectives, communication plans, and historical shifts in political discourse. As a result of the prominence of patriotism and national identity in American politics, the term *America* occurs in political slogans the most (38 times). Its frequent use illustrates how attitudes and priorities have changed over time in America, from practical considerations in the early 1900s to aspirational aims at the start of the 21st century.

In American political catchphrases, the terms *change*, *peace*, and *people* are among the most often used words. Since the 20th century, the word *change* has become more frequently employed to express the desire for innovation and development. Politicians have frequently included the word *peace* in their catchphrases, particularly during times of conflict. Political slogans have changed throughout time, with early versions emphasizing the voice of the people being represented by a single individual, while more recent versions highlight inclusion and equality owing to the phrase *people*. *Vote*, *new*, *make*, and *better* are other often used terms in political slogans.

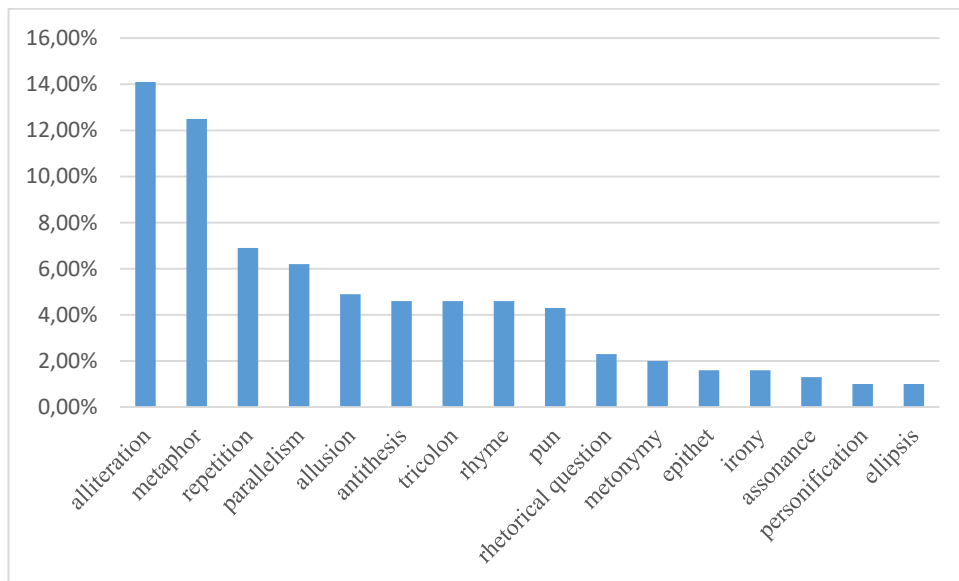
Finally, political slogans continue to be an essential instrument for politicians to communicate their aims to the general public. This thesis lays the groundwork for further study in this field and advances understanding of political slogans and how

they have changed throughout American history. Analyzing patterns and trends might help better understand how language shapes public opinion.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Percentage of literary devices



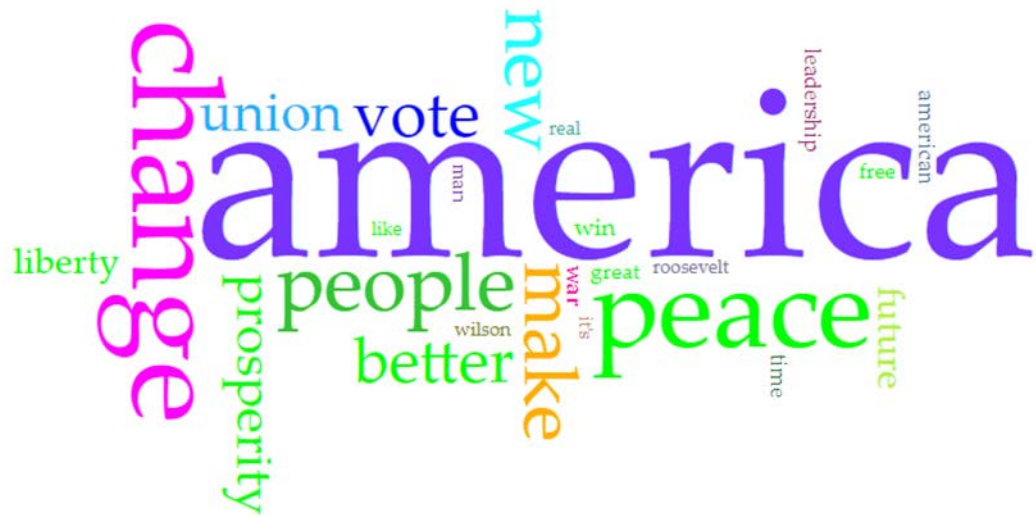
Source: made by the author

Frequency of the most common terms in political slogans

Words	Frequency
America	38
change	13
peace	13
people	10
vote	9
new	9
make	9
better	9
union	8
prosperity	8
liberty	7
future	7
win	6
war	6
time	6
leadership	6
great	6
free	6
American	6

Source: made by the author

The most common words in American political slogans



Source: made by the author