

گـۆڤـارى زانـكـۆى راپـەريــن

Journal of University of Raparin.





E-ISSN: 2522 – 7130 P-ISSN: 2410 – 1036 This work is licensed under CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 DOI:10.26750/Vol(12).No(1).Paper33 Date Received: 10-05-2023 Date Accepted: 16-07-2023 Date Published: 28-02-2025

## A Cognitive - Semantic Study of Conceptual Metaphors and Conceptual Metonymies in The USA Electoral Campaign

Bahra Raouf Salih<sup>1</sup> - Suhair Safwat<sup>2</sup> - Shilan Ali Hama Sur<sup>3</sup>

bahra.salih@univsul.edu.iq - suhair.mohammed@univsul.edu.iq - shilan.hamasur@univsul.edu.iq

<sup>1</sup>Suleimani Computer Institute, Suleimani, Kurdistan Region, Iraq.

<sup>2+3</sup> English Department, College of Language, University of Sulaimani, Sulaimani, Kurdistan Region, Iraq.

## Abstract

This paper aims to provide a cognitive semantic account of the conceptual metaphors and metonymies in the USA electoral campaign of 2020. Conceptual metaphor theory and conceptual metonymy are applied as the framework for the study. It focuses on how conceptual structures contribute to different meaning constructions in each datum. Specifically, the paper looks at two American political speeches delivered by Joe Biden and Donald Trump as heads of the list of their parties. Based on its quantitative, qualitative and comparative analysis within a cognitive semantic framework, this study argues that conceptual metaphor and metonymy help effectively to convey different viewpoints of both politicians in presidential election campaign. Finally, this study has concluded that conceptual metaphor and metonymy have great role in meaning construction through mapping between source and target domains.

**Keywords:** Cognitive-Semantics, Conceptual Metaphor Theory, Conceptual Metonymy.

## 1.0 Introduction

In the political arena, communication can be an essential key to success, and language as a principal method of communication, plays a crucial role in the process of putting political ideas into practice. According to (Lenard, 2017) politics is a struggle for power and by using language every political action is well prepared, influenced and realized. Voters make impressions based upon the politician's integrity and honesty besides the politician's physical presentation and style, which is accomplished through the constancy of one's words and actions and the efficiency of one's political arguments. Therefore, whenever speaking publicly, politicians carefully plan and choose their rhetoric. Rhetoric is inseparably linked with persuasion, though not identical (ibid, p. 61). As Charteris-Black (2011, p.13) says "persuasion, therefore refers to the intention, act and effect of changing an audience's thinking"; being a speech act.

The analysis of language use in political speeches draws on some fundamental ideas that have a major role in a new branch of linguistics known as cognitive linguistics, and in the production of discourse, speakers will start from their personal mental model of situation or an event. According to Geeraerts and Cuyckens (2007: 3) the formal structures of language, such as sentence structures and grammatical forms in cognitive linguistics, are studied as they reflect their users' general conceptual organization, processing mechanisms, categorization principles, and environmental and experiential influences, not as if they were autonomous to language. Politicians use language to reflect specific conceptualizations of the world, and give cues that signal or even highlight those conceptualisations to draw the attention of addressees and voters. According to Langacker (2008: 457), linguistic unites are seen as doing this by evoking background knowledge that is common across speakers and addressees, such as in the form of, among other things, frames of reference (Fillmore 1982), cognitive models (Lakoff 1987), and domains (Langacker 1987; Cienki 2007).

Theories of cognitive linguistics can highlight, bring to light, and clarify diverse aspects of policy and political discourse and theorising about it. The situational specificities of diverse policy and political contexts suggest methods in which cognitive linguistic theories can, or even should, be advanced. Moreover, From the cognitive viewpoint, what matters most about mapping is not its 'accidental' linguistic form but rather its conceptual nature. For

instance, various kinds of processes have been proposed in cognitive linguistics in relation to the individual language user; but now, the move to social (Kristiansen and Dirven 2008) and cultural (Palmer 1996) levels, and consideration of issues such as intersubjectivity (Verhagen 2005; Zlatev 2008), are growing in the cognitive linguistics community. Metaphor, metonymy, image schemas, and conceptual integration are the various processes and devices that have been invoked in politician speeches. For instance, according to Lakoff and Johnson (1980: 159) "metaphors play a central role in the construction of social and political reality". Then Lakoff (1996: 63) combines the CMT and politics and believes that because, as stated in the CMT, we think and act in coherence with our conceptual systems, its most dramatic influence comes in ordinary reasoning: and this is the ground upon which we judge politics. Additionally, the foundation of metonymies as the case of metaphor, can be very useful in political speeches as they reduce and increase responsibility, hence, metonymy as another trope can be central to analysing policy and political language.

### **1.1The problem of the study**

Cognitive linguists have restricted their efforts mostly to metaphor in political speeches. Undoubtedly, this phenomenon is pervasive and we still need to understand them in greater depth. But if metaphor has never been alone in language studies, especially including inferential pragmatics, the question is why should they be alone in the cognitive-linguistic approach. In this context, the present article aims to reinstate linguistic exploration into the cognitive sciences as an essential step in searching for other kinds of cognitive activity other than metaphor. In this respect, it will be argued that other areas of figurative thought besides metaphor, metonymy is indeed productive.

#### **1.2The research questions**

This study raises the following questions:

- 1. Are the use of conceptual metaphor and metonymy in electoral campaigns significant?
- 2. Which is the most common conceptual structures in American election speeches?
- 3. How is meaning constructed in American election speeches?

#### 1.3The goal of the study

Based on the previous questions, we can sate the aims of the study as follows:

- 1. To indicate and know the world view of these political leaders.
- 2. To see how their world -view affects the use and frequency of the language devices
- 3. To detect the applicability of the conceptual metaphors and conceptual metonymies to American election speeches.

## 1.4Thse value of the study

1. This study is concerned with the analysis and study of conceptual metaphor and metonymy in which research findings are expected to be useful and beneficial for common readers, the students of English study program.

2. It is expected to give general knowledge about cognitive semantics and conceptual structures to the general readers.

3. Hopefully can stimulate and inspire other researchers to do new other research in the same field by utilizing distinct objects.

## 1.5 Methodology

## **1.5.1** The theoretical models

This research is written with the frame of cognitive - semantics that has contributed significantly to conceptual tools research in recent years and established systematic theoretical framework; this study tries to select multi- cognitive models for analysing every conceptual structure. That can be summed up as follows:

- 1. For analysing conceptual metaphor, the researchers have adopted Lakoff and Johnson's theoretical model of Conceptual metaphor in (1987).
- 2. For analysing conceptual metonymy in the collected data, the researcher have employed Kövecses and Radden's model of conceptual metonymy.

## 1.5.2 The data

This study includes the investigation of conceptual metaphor and metonymy in USA election speeches. Electoral campaigns are the competitive effort by candidates and political parties to win and get voters support in the period preceding an election. The data of the study are drawn from two speeches made by Joe Biden and Donald Trump that are delivered in the electoral campaign of 2020, in which American

English speeches are chosen from the most professional, authorative Site transcription service Rev.com/log/transcripts/Joe-Biden and Donald Trump.

#### **1.5.3** The procedures

1. The data have been gathered from the most professional, authorative Site transcription service Rev.com/log/transcripts/Joe-Biden and Donald Trump.

2. The data are investigated to identify instances of conceptual metaphor and metonymy

3. Then the instances of conceptual metaphor and metonymy are analysing in terms of the selected models.

4. Findings are listed and conclusions are drawn based on the findings.

### 1.6 Electoral campaign

An electoral campaign can be defined as the set of organizational and communication activities performed by candidates and/or political parties to win voters (O'Day, ,2003). The campaigning strategy contains three key elements: campaign objectives, target audience, and key messaging. The campaign is usually a period of a month or several months leading up to election day. The legal window for campaigning will end a day or two before the voting begins, which is called black-out period. Campaigning is important because it allows the candidates and parties to advertise their political ideas, and enables voters to make the right choice decisions. Campaigning rests on the fundamental rights of freedom of expression and peaceful assembly. The electoral campaign often begins in earnest once the candidacies are formally announced. Contestants use a variety of techniques to reach voters and deliver their messages through public media and written materials. The success of a campaign depends on the political speech delivered by the candidates. A political speech is a communication strategy that is based on creating a message through a combination of non-verbal and para verbal to persuade the individual and the masses verbally expressive resources. A political speech is an essential tool for political actors, since it is used by them to express their way of seeing certain problems, link voters with their ideals, generate questions about the exercise of power or create hope in those who receive the message.

#### **1.7 Conceptual semantics**

One of the most rapidly expanding schools in modern linguistics and cognitive science is the movement known as Cognitive Linguistics. While it has its roots in work conducted by a small group of pioneering figures in the 1970s, its originality flourished in the 1980s. For the purpose of studying language, Cognitive Linguistics sought to construct a scientific approach, incorporating the tools of philosophy, psychology, neuroscience and computer science. Cognitive Linguistics represents one of the most exciting and innovative interdisciplinary approaches for studying the complex relationship between language and mind. One significant approach within Cognitive Linguistics is Cognitive Semantics. It is an approach to meaning that represents an approach to the study of mind and its relationship with embodied experience. Cognitive Semantics employs language as a lens reflecting the conceptual organisation of the mind. Cognitive Semantics studies knowledge representation (conceptual structure), and meaning construction (conceptualization). In this way, Cognitive Semantics is opposed to the objectivist view of meaning and truthconditional semantics, both of which were adopted within Formal Linguistics. One of the distinct assumptions of Cognitive Semantics pertains to the role of the speaker in determining meanings and characterizing scenes, employing the conventional means of language. In Cognitive Semantics, the emphasis is laid on the **subjectivist view** of meaning. Language refers to concepts in the mind of the speaker, and not to an objective reality. The meaning of a linguistic expression is seen as relating to a concept in the mind of the speaker which is obtained from everyday bodily experience.

#### **1.8 Theoretical Framework**

#### **1.8.1 Conceptual Metaphor Theory**

Lakoff and Johnson (1980), define metaphor as a set of conceptual mappings between two conceptual domains where one domain (called the source) helps people to understand another domain (called the target), for more metaphor look at (Reddy (1979); Turner (1986, 1991); Lakoff and Turner (1989); Sweetser (1990); Indurkhya (1992) and Lakoff (1993, p.206-7). The source domain that can be defined as the more experiential, concrete conceptual domain from "which we draw metaphorical expressions to understand another conceptual domain" (Kövecses, 2002, p.4) and target domain that can be defined as the more abstract conceptual domain which "we try to understand through the use of the source domain" (Kövecses, 2002, p.4; Cf. Lan & McGregor, 2009; Hamawand, 2016).

In the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT), which Lakoff and Johnson propose, they claim that metaphor is a matter of thought not language. Language is not an isolated symbolic system, independent of other cognitive processes. Rather, it is an overt manifestation of the human conceptual system. In Goatly's (1997, p.1) opinion, no form of language exists without metaphor. For instance, *He has a high reputation in the company*, the source domain is the vertical dimension of physical space, while the target domain is social status. In cognitive terms, metaphor is a process that helps to conceptualize a particular concept differently. Another well-known example is that of ARGUMENT IS WAR; *argument* is a complex idea that is simplified, understood, and clarified in terms of *war* (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, pp.4-9).

#### 1.8.1.1: Types of Conceptual Metaphor

Lakoff and Johnson (1980, p. 14-34) classify conceptual metaphor into the

following types:

#### A. Structural metaphors

In structural metaphors, abstract concepts are understood and presented in terms of more concrete concepts. Lakoff and Johnson (1980: 14) state that structural metaphors are 'cases where one concept is metaphorically structured in terms of another.' For instance, *time is money*, in this metaphor the speaker conceptualizes the abstract concept of time, which is the target domain, in terms of the concrete domain of money, which is the source domain.

#### **B.** Orientational metaphors

Orientational metaphor is utilized in situations involving which both physical and cultural elements as in *she is at the peak of health*. This type of metaphor is straightly associated with physical and cultural experiences. Orientational metaphors encompass spatial experiences such as up-down, in-out, on-off, and front-back. In the sentence: *less is down*,' the speaker relates the abstract concept of less with the physically down position. In the present study, we investigate the role of metaphor in political speeches. No doubt, many strategies of language use are processed in the

language of politics to influence the receiver towards a desired attitude or thought. Hence, metaphor as a prominent tool of language is frequently used by politicians. Their main goal is to comply with the desires, emotions, and needs of the audience. In this way, metaphor is used as an instrument of influence and persuasion in political discourse. Likewise, it is used for propaganda purposes. Charteris-Black (2011, p.28) claims that metaphors in political context are frequently used for ideological purposes since they activate unconscious emotional associations thereby contributing to myth creation and telling the right story. The main function of metaphor in political rhetoric, (ibid, p.32), is to frame our view of political issues by eliminating alternative points of view. Therefore, politicians use metaphors for positive self-representation, and negative presentations of their political opponents attacking their ideas. Mio (1997) and Brukholder and Henry (2009) state that metaphors can serve to help voters comprehend abstract entities through more concrete ones, i.e. help them understand complicated political issues through persuasive arguments.

### **1.8.2 Conceptual Metonymy**

Lakoff and Johnson define metonymy as a 'stand for' relationship in which one entity is used to refer to another (1980, p.36). Langacker (1993) considers metonymy as a cognitive reference point and an activation phenomenon, that is, a cognitive process of a conceptual entity providing mental channel for another conceptual entity. For instance, *The ham sandwich is waiting for hischeck*. The ham sandwich stands for and refers to the customer who has ordered a ham sandwich. The concept of 'contiguity' is the key in most of the definitions of metonymy, hence, Croft (1993, p.347) defines metonymy as "a shift of a word meaning from the entity it stands for to a 'contiguous' entity." Then he deals with contiguity relations in terms of encyclopedic knowledge representation within a domain or domain matrix.

Metonymy is 'utilizing one entity to refer to another that is interconnected to it.' According to Radden and Koveceses (2007, p.99), metonymy is "a cognitive process in which one conceptual entity, the vehicle, provides mental access to another conceptual entity, the target, within the same idealized cognitive model." (Cf. Nunberg, 1978; Cf. Nunberg, 1979; Lakoff and Johnson, 1987, p.36; Lakoff and Turner, 1989, p.103; Hamawand, 2016, p.85).

For instance, poets are matched with the poems they write, or hospital patients are equaled with the illnesses for which they are being treated. This type of mapping has a significant role in constructing our knowledge base and offers means of recognizing elements of one domain through their counterparts in the other.

### 1.8.2.1: Types of Conceptual Metonymy

Radden and Kovecses (2007) suggest that types of metonymy producing relationships maybe subsumed under two general conceptual configurations.

### A. Metonymy involving Whole and its part(s)

- 1.Thing-and-Part:
- 2. Scale The man is speeding again. for 'The man is going too fast.'
- 3. Constitution *I smell cat.* for 'the smell produced by a cat'
- 4. Event Ary smoked kent.
- 5. Category-and-Member the pill for the aches
- 6. Category-and-Property *brain* for 'intelligence'
- 7. *Reduction* Kurdistan for Kurdistan region.

#### **B.** Metonymy involving parts

- 1. Action: to *butcher* a sheep
- 2. *Perception There goes my knee.* for 'there goes the pain in my knee' (Lakoff 1987, p.511)
- 3. Causation *healthy exercise* for 'the exercise bringing about the effect

good health' (Radden and Kövecses, 2007, p.15)

- 4. Production I've bought a kia. for 'car'
- 5.Control Napoleon occupied Europe. Napoleon for France army
- 6. Possession ICM: This type of ICM may lead to metonymic relationships:

That's me. for 'my bus'

- 7. Containment The dish has got cold. for 'food'
- 8. Location The whole village showed up. for 'the people of the village'

9. Sign and Reference ICMs: a self-contradictory utterance

10. Modification *Does he study English?* Yes, he does.

In the present study, we investigate the role of metonymy in political speeches. The study attempts to show that one important reason politicians use metaphors or metonymies in their speeches is to make a speech more memorable and arouse an emotional response, which might influence how a politician is perceived. In political discourse, metonymy is often utilized to emphasize positive traits of the speech and to develop specific argumentation patterns. This is due to the pragmatic function within the metonymic mapping between the source and the target domains, but also due to numerous cognitive and communicative factors which provoke the selection of a particular source and target (Radden and Kövecses, 1999, p.44; Barcelona 2019, p. 58). Beard (2000, p.26) declares that metonymy, like metaphor, can be beneficial for reducing and increasing responsibility in political speeches. For instance, the metonymic expression *the white house* is used by people instead of the president's name to reduce the president's personal responsibility. This shows that the main aim is to show how politicians discuss topics when talking to people who agree with them, and how to talk people who do not support their views.

#### **1.9 Data analysis**

#### 1.9.1 Conceptual metaphor analysis

#### **Biden's Speech No 1:**

The first speech was given by Biden in a campaign event in Flint, Michigan on October 31, 2020.

In his speech, Biden uses different types of conceptual metaphor. Eight *structural metaphor* instances to a total of 24 instances of conceptual metaphor are utilized that have conceptual meaning and create mapping between domains for the purpose of meaning construction. Then the same mounts are used for both orientational and ontological metaphors. Two significant examples of conceptual metaphor are selected in this speech:



Figure (1) Conceptual metaphor in Biden's speech

## Extract 1:

## "Biden: It's a disgrace, especially coming from a president who *waved the white flag* of surrender to this virus".

In the above sentence, Biden conceptualizes Corona - virus pandemic as an enemy in a war which hurts the American People. Therefore, at that time people were not undergoing a favourable health period. In this speech, an enemy as a source domain, that of war, maps on to that of a target domain, that if Corona virus. Biden criticizes President Trump as a weak fighter in a war who accepts defeat and does not intend to attack the virus. The president simply raises a white flag, capitulates to the virus forces and hands over nation's life to the virus. Although virus and enemy are obviously different, similarities between them can still be perceived. Virus and enemy are dangerous; both involve harm, damage to people and in some cases, death. Furthermore, there are several structural correspondences between the two domains, as follows:

Source domain	Target domain	
war	pandemic	
enemy	Corona virus	
army	Health professionals	
casualties	Sick and dead people	
victory	Eliminating the virus	

#### Extract 2:

## Biden: "We owe them, they are the back bone, they are the sinew, they the heart of who we are".

In his statement, Biden does not speak as an individual politician or a power holder within a specific party or government. Instead, Biden uses pronoun 'we' as a substitution for the whole nation. He evaluates a metaphorical conceptualization of the military as a human body part, by means of which he praises the military using positive assessments. As a significant part of the nation, the military constitutes a backbone, sinew and heart of the nation. Hence, the listener can understand military in terms of human body parts in which the military functions as a backbone on which the nation can lean for support. The military as sinew is used as a symbol of power and strength of the nation. The heart is central to the human body and crucial to human survival. Here, conceptual elements of human body parts are mapped onto the conceptual elements of the military in a systematic way. Hence, there is a systematic correspondence between human body parts and the military as follows:

source domain	Target domain	
human organs	Military	
backbone	support and courage	
sinew	power and strength	
heart	core and crucial	

## Trump's speech No 1:

## This speech was given by Trump in a campaign event in Reading, Pennsylvania on October 31, 2020.

As it is clear in figure (2), significant numbers of structural metaphors (n=57) can be found and identified. Then (14) instances of orientational are signified, and eight instances of ontological metaphor are used. For example:



Figure (2) Conceptual metaphor in Trump's speech

Extract 3:

## Trump: "And did our great Vice President win that debate easily? That was a big one. Mike is doing a great job".

In this extract, Trump makes a question about Mike as a Vice President whether he won the debate easily or not. Trump conceptualizes debate as a war. the audiences can understand the abstract concept of debate which is a target domain, through the concrete concept of war, which is a source domain, and it is familiar to people in everyday life. Actually, these two concepts are distinct, but there are some common properties, for instance, in both cases you can take a position, defend a position, your point can be attacked, you can have different strategies, and win or lose in both war and an argument. The concept of war projects mapping on the concept of debate, which is a cross domain mappings as follows:

Source domain	Target domain	
War	debate	
Two armies	two speakers (participants)	

Journal of University of Raparin	Vol(12).No(1)	گۆڤارى زانكۆى راپەرين	
Military conflict	verbal conflict		
Combat	Exchange of utterance		
Defensive position	intellectual position		
Attack and defend	express viewpoints, express an opposite view		
Military strategies	discourse strategies		
Weapons (justification)	expressions addressing specific	c aspects of the dispute	
Outcome: win or lose	more or less convincing point	S	

### Extract 4:

Trump: "And send your state into a deep and catastrophic depression".

In this extract, Trump criticizes Biden, if he wins the election what will happen. Here, Trump uses personification metaphor which is the attribution of person characteristics in an ontological type, he personifies American state as it will be plunged into terrible despair and depression. His state is being portrayed as a person or figure facing deep depression. Using this type of metaphor affects how audiences imagine things, and it sparks an interest in the subject. It can be clarified as the following:

Source domain	target domain	
Person	American state	
Physical strength	Military strength	
Head	government	
Body part	organization	
Health	welfare	

### 1.9.2 Conceptual metonymy

### Biden's speech:

The first speech was given by Biden in a campaign event in Flint, Michigan on October 31, 2020.

In his speech, 64 instances of pragmatic function of mapping are identified. In which *parts* of an ICM is the most frequent one that function as conceptual metonymy, within this category, there are (10) subtypes and 47 instances among a total of 67 examples are found. Then 20 instances of *whole and Parts of ICM* occur in his speech. The following are two examples of pragmatic function mappings:



Figure (3) conceptual metonymy in Biden's speech

### Extract 5:

## Biden: "America will be heard. When America's heard, I believe the message is going to be loud, and it's going to be clear. It's time for Donald Trump to pack his bags and go home".

In the above extract, Biden uses the source domain represented by the country name for the target domain represented by Americans. This is a case of metonymy, in which America as a source domain stands for the population of America. America is pictured as a person who can hear, which is characteristic of people. Also, he uses the source domain of message to stand for the target domain of official speech, which aims at installing democracy. In his speech, Biden positions himself as a part of the population, reinforcing collective identification. At the level of pragmatics level, this metonymy performs a collectivization function. His speech involves both metonymy and metaphor in which the subject proper noun *America* is a metonymy for the inhabitants. In short, Biden's speech is affective, there is a correspondence mapping in which the target people is portrayed as a part of the source America.

## Extract 6:

"Wall Street didn't build this country, you did. Working people built this country and unions built this country, and unions built the middle class".

In the above example, Biden articulates the term Wall Street which serves as the vehicle to refer to American Financial institutions and financial markets as a whole. The working people who built the country, which Wall Street cannot do. Pragmatically, the working people and unions are evaluated as the forces that have the ability to build the country. In this speech, the middle class stands for a specific class of people in the society.

### **Conceptual metonymy:**

In this speech, Trump uses 165 tools of metonymy that have conceptual meaning, and he involves two different kinds of conceptual metonymy, in which parts of an ICM is the most common tool (n=99), while whole and it's parts of ICM occurs 66 times. The following examples are conceptual metonymy that have a conceptual mapping between source and target domains. Consider the examples below:



## Figure (4) Conceptual metonymy in Trump's speech

## Extract: 7

Trump: "These are voters they're coming in. Florida is looking very good. North Carolina is looking very good".

In this extract, Trump uses ACTION FOR AGENT metonymy which relates to the relationship between entities that function as parts with respect to a whole ICM. Here, voter as a source is a part of the process of voting or voting as a whole. A mapping applies to entities within an event and the same domain. Then by mentioning names of Florida and North Carolina, Trump uses LOCATION ICM (PLACE FOR HABITANCE), which always these places are associated with their people living there. Hence, Trump pragmatically tries to collect voters and vote in the electoral event, moreover he collects the country name and its inhabitance.

## Extract: 8

# Trump: "See, I don't participate in this because look at all the cameras back there, look at them all".

In this extract, Trump conceptualizes CAUSAL METONYMY, which permeates the field of perception. Here, Trump articulates the word *See* as a percept that stands for its cause, and to make sure that many cameras back there; so he doesn't participate in fake and corrupt news because there are many cameras back there. Then he uses containment image schema, as if news trajector is a container in which fake and corrupt as landmarks are contents in it.

## 1.10 Findings

This study outlines conceptual metaphor and conceptual metonymy in the USA electoral campaign in American. In this respect, one speech from both Biden and Trump is studied and conceptual tools (conceptual metaphor and metonymy) that used in their speeches are counted and clarified through tables and figures. The researcher tries to choose two significant extracts from each tool of conceptual structures such as conceptual metaphor and metonymy. The theory of cognitive the theory of Cognitive- Semantics was used to carry out a qualitative and quantitative analysis of the political speeches of the USA

candidates in the 2020 election campaign. The overall distribution of conceptual metaphor and metonymy in USA Political speeches.

President	No. of Conceptual metaphor	No. of Conceptual metonymy	Total
Biden	24	67	91
Trump	79	165	244
Total	103	232	335

the above table shows the overall distribution of conceptual metaphor and metonymy in American political speeches of (Joe Biden and Donald Trump). In addition to the raw number of conceptual structure tools. In the Biden and Trump' speeches in the first column, the results are represented as the number of conceptual metaphors in the second column. The third column displays the frequency of conceptual metonymy in both speeches. The fourth column clarifies the total number of metaphor metonymies occurrences in his speech. As observed the primary aim of both speeches is to express their ideas and beliefs and convince their audience to follow them. Both try to make their speeches persuasive and inflammatory to convince their audience to adopt their particular opinions and follow their ideals. two leaders use these devices to support their claims, convey their message and to influence the attitude and thought of the voters. For instance, (59) conceptual metaphors and conceptual metonymies are identified in Biden's speech, in which 24 metaphors and 67 metonymies. the same mounts (8) of structural, orientational and ontological types of metaphors are found and parts of an ICM as one of the types of it, is the most frequent one, within this category, there are (10) subtypes are found in his speech. While in Trump's speech (n=244) conceptual structures, (79) conceptual metaphors, in which the most common tool is structural (57), then orientational tool (14) and ontological metaphor (8), Furthermore, (165) conceptual metonymies are found, in which the most frequent

tool is parts of an ICM (n=99), while whole and it's parts of ICM occurs (66) times. Despite the similarity in the use of devices, there is a difference in the frequency of each tool. For instance, the frequency of these tools in Trump's speech is more than Biden, partly it may be referred to the fact that Trump's statements are longer than Biden.

## **1.11 Conclusions**

- Cognitively speaking, both conceptual metaphor and metonymy are pervasive in political speech, metaphor is useful since politicians often use metaphors to explain something in a less well-known (abstract) domain in terms of things from relatively better-known (concrete) domains intuitively and unconsciously to understand the mind, emotions and all other abstract notions. Regarding metonymy, politicians often express and explain something by describing some other associated with it instead of talking about it directly. Hence, Cognition and the use of language encompass the access and manipulation of mental spaces, which are built from human perceptual experience and are expanded through imaginative procedures, within which the most significant ones are metaphor and metonymy.
- The most common tool is conceptual metonymy that is used in selected American data, in which the most frequent tool is parts of an ICM.
- Both metaphor and metonymy have significant role in meaning construction through mapping between source and target domains.
- Finally, this study concluded that all conceptual tools serve the claim that human language is entirely metaphorical in nature as suggested Turner.

لێكۆڵىنەوەى واتاسازى ھۆشەكى لە چەمكى خوازە و چەمكى دركەيى لە كەمپىنى ھەڵمەق بانگەشەى ھەڵبژاردنى سەرۆكايەتى ويلايەتە يەكگرتەوەكانى ئەمريكا بەھرە رەوف سالح<sup>١</sup> - سوھەير سەفوەت موحەمەد<sup>٢</sup> - شيلان عەلى حەمە سور<sup>٣</sup> <sup>١</sup> پەيمانگاى كۆمپيوتەرى سلێمانى، سلێمانى، ھەرێمى كوردستان، عێراق. <sup>٢+٣</sup>بەشى زمانى ئينگليزى، كۆليژى زمان، زانكۆى سلێمانى، سلێمانى، ھەرێمى كوردستان، عێراق. **پوختە:** 

ئامانجى سەرەكى ئەم توێژينەوەيە بريتىيە لە ليكۆڵينەوە لە خوازەيى ودركەيى چەمكىيەكان لەروانگەى واتاسازى هۆشەكى لە ھەڵمەتى ھەڵبژاردنى سەرۆكايەتى ئەمرىكا لەسالى ٢٠٢٠. بنەماى سەرەكى توێژينەوەكە لەسەر پشت بەستن بە تيۆرى لە چەمكى خوازە و چەمكى دركەيى و تىشك دەخاتە سەر ئەوەى كە چۆن پيّكهاتە چەمكىيەكان لە مىزارى دەكەن لە بونياتنانى مانا جياوازەكان لە ھەر داتا و زانيارىيەكدا بەتايبەتىش دو وتارى سياسى ھەر يەكە لە جۆو بايدن و دۆنالد ترەمپ كە ھەر يەكەيان سەرۆكايەتى لىستى پارتەكەيان كردوە وەكو نمونە وەرگيراون. ئەم لە جۆو بايدن و دۆنالد ترەمپ كە ھەر يەكەيان سەرۆكايەتى لىستى پارتەكەيان كردوە وەكو نمونە وەرگيراون. ئەم لەچوارچيوەى واتاسازى ليكۆلينەوەكەى بريتىيە لە رييازى چەندايەتيى و چۆناييەتى و شيكارىي بەراوردكارىي لەچوارچيوەى واتاسازى زيھنىدا و باس لەوە دەكات كە خوازەيى چەمكى و دركەيى بە شيوەيەكى كاريگەر يارمەتىدەرن بۆگەياندنى دىدگاى جياوازى ھەردو سياسەتمەدار لە بانگەشەى ھەلبژاردنى سەرۆكايەتىدا. لە كۆتايىدا ئەم بۆگەياندنى دىدگاى جياوازى ھەردو سياسەتمەدار لە بانگەشەى ھەلبژاردى سەرۆكايەتىدا. لە كۆتايىدا ئەم لەچوارچيوەيە گەيشتوەتە ئەو دەرئەنجامەى كە خوازەيى چەمكى ياوترىن ئامرازە لەناو ئەو ئاخاوتن و وتارانەى كە لەرگىراون. ھەردو خوازەيى چەمكىي و دركەيى چەمكىي باوترىن ئامرازە لەناو ئەو ئاخاوتن و وتارانەى كە بەكارھينانى نەخشەسازى لە نيوان مەوداى سەرچاوە يامانىي

**کلیله وشهکان**: هەڵمەتى ھەڵبژاردن، واتاسازى ھۆشەكى ، تيۆرى خوازەيى چەمكيى، دركەى چەمكيى، مەوداى سەرچاوە و ئامانج.

#### **References:**

- Barcelona, A. (2004) "Types of arguments for the metonymic motivation of conceptual metaphor." Unpublished manuscript, Department of English, University of Murcia, Spain.
- Beard, A. (2000) "The language of Politics" Routledge
- Burkholder, T. R. & Henry, D. (2009) "Criticism of. Metaphor." In J.A. Kuypers (Ed.). Rhetorical Criticism: Perspectives in Action.
- Charteris-Black, J. (2011) "Politicians and Rhetoric: The Persuasive Power of Metaphor." 2nd Edition, Palgrave Macmillan, London. <u>https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230319899</u>
- Cienki, A. (2007) "Frames, idealized cognitive models, domains." In Greeraerts and Cuyckens (eds.) The Oxford Handbook of Cognitive Linguistics.
- Croft, W. (1993) "The role of domains in the interpretation of metaphors and metonymies." Cognitive Linguistics 4: 335-370.
- Fillmore, C. (1982) "Frame semantics. In linguistics in the morning calm," ed. By the linguistic society of Korea, 111-137. Soeul: hanshin.
- Goatly, A. (1997) "The Language of Metaphors." London and New York: Routledge.
- Geeraerts, D. and Cuyckens. (2007) The Oxford Handbook of Cognitive Linguistics, Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Geeraerts, D.and H. Cuyckens (2010), The Oxford Handbook of Cognitive Linguistics, Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Hamawand, Z. (2016) "Semantics. A cognitive account of linguistic meaning", published by equinox publishing ltd.
- Indurkhya, B. (1992) "Metaphor and Cognition." Dordrecht: Kluwer.
- Kövecses, Z. (2002) "METAPHOR: A Practical Introduction." Published by Oxford University Press, Inc. 198 Madison Avenue, New York, New York 10016
- Kövecses, Z. and Radden, G. (1998) "Metonymy: Developing a cognitive linguistic view." In "*Cognitive Linguistics*" 9-1. PP 37-77. Walter de Gruyter.
- Kövecses, Z. and Radden. G. (2007) "Towards a theory of metonymy, In *The Cognitive Linguistics Reader*". Edited by Vyvyan Evans, Benjamin Bergen and Jörg Zinken. London: Equinox. pp. 335-359.
- Kristiansen, G. and Driven, R. (2008) "Cognitive Sociolinguistics: Language Variation, Cultural models, social Systems."
- Lakoff, g., & Johnson, m. (1980a) "Metaphors we live by." Chicago: University of Chicago press.
- Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (1980b) "The metaphorical structure of the human conceptual system." Cognitive science, 4(2), 195-208. tps://www.press.uchicago.edu/ucp/books/book/chicago/B/bo3613865.html
- Lakoff, G. (1987) "Women, Fire and Dangerous Things: What Categories Reveal about the Mind." Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Lakoff, G. (1993) "The Contemporary Theory of Metaphor." In A. Ortony (Ed) Metaphor and Thought. Cambridge: Cambridge University.
- Lakoff, G., and M. Turner. (1989) "More Than Cool Reason." Chicago: University of Chicago Press. Langacker, R. 1978. The Form and Meaning of The English Auxiliary. Language 54: 85 342. 1987. Foundations of Cognitive Grammar. Vol. I. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press.
- Lan, L. & McGregor. (2009) "Color Metaphor in Business Discourse." Language for Professional Communication: *Research*, Practice and Training. pp, 11-24. Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

- Langacker, R. W. (1987) "Foundations of cognitive grammar: Theoretical prerequisites" (Volume I). Stanford: Stanford University Press.
- Langacker, R. W. (1991) "Foundations of Cognitive Grammar," Vol. 2: Descriptive Application. Stanford: Stanford University Press.
- Lenard, D. (2017) "The Analysis of Metaphors and Metonymies in Political Speeches A Case Study of the Former Croatian Prime Minister Ivo Sanader." ELR Journal, 2017, pp. 61-81
- "Metaphor, and Mio, J. (1996) Politics Persuasion." Mio, J. (ed.), Katz, (ed.) Metaphor: Implications and Applications, Lawrence Erlbaum Α. Mahwah: Associates, 127-147.
- Nunberg, G. (1978) "The Pragmatic of Reference." Bloomington: India University Linguistic Club
- Nunberg, G. (1979) "The non uniqueness of Semantic Solutions: Polysemy." Linguistics and Philosophy
- Oakley, T. (2010) "Image schema." In D. Geeraerts and H. Cuyckens, editors, *The Oxford Handbook of Cognitive Linguistics*, pages 214–235. Oxford University Press, Oxford, 2010.
- O'Day, J. (2003) "POLITICAL CAMPAIGN PLANNING MANUAL. A STEP BY STEP GUIDE TO WINNING ELECTIONS. National Democratic Institute for International Affairs.
- Palmer, G. B. (1996) Toward a Theory of Cultural Linguistics. Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Radden, G., Z Kövecses. Z. (1999) "Metonymy in language and thought" Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest
- Radden, G. and Kövecses, Z (2007) "TOWARDS A THEORY OF METONYMY". *The Cognitive Linguistics Reader*. 2007. Edited by Vyvyan Evans, Benjamin Bergen and Jörg Zinken. London: Equinox. pp. 335-359.
- Reddy, M. (1979) "The conduit metaphor." In A. ortoni, ed. Metaphor and thought. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- https://www.google.com/search?q=Rev.com+citation&rlz=1C1GCEA\_enIQ1022IQ1022&source=lnms&tbm=isch&sa=X&ved= 2ahUKEwiAzduOgff- AhWbX\_EDHU39C9wQ\_AUoAnoECAEQBA&biw=1229&bih=550&dpr=1.56
- Sweetser, E. (1990) "From Etymology to Pragmatics: The Mind-as-Body Metaphor in Semantic Structure and Semantic Change." Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Turner, M. (1986) "Death Is the Mother of Beauty. Chicago: Chcago University Press.
- Turnr. M. (1991) "Reading Minds. Princeton, N.J.": Princeton University Press.
- Verhangen, A. (2006) "Constructions of intersubjectivity." Discourse, Syntax, and Cogniton. Pragmatics and Cognition. Published by John Benjamins Publishing. Online ISSN: 1569-9943. Print ISSN: 0929-0907
- Zlatev, J. (2008). The co-evolution of intersubjectivity and bodily mimesis. In J. Zlatev, T. Racine, C. Sinha & E. Itkonen (eds.), The Shared Mind: Perspectives on Intersubjectivity. John Benjamins. pp. 215–244