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HYPERBOLE AS A PERSUASIVE TOOL

Abstract

Exaggeration used for emphasis is known as hyperbole in writing and speaking. Exaggerations that are clearly meant to highlight a point rather than be accepted literally are typically found in hyperbolic comments. The terms metaphor and irony have been linked to hyperbole. The similarities between hyperbole and them are acknowledged in the paper. Additionally, it highlights how hyperbole and the two tropes differ from each other. Hence, the study demonstrates that exaggeration is a distinct form of figurative speech that shouldn't be associated with any particular stereotype. This research demonstrates how hyperbole shares traits with generalization in addition to metaphor and irony. Oversimplification and generalization are not the same thing.

Keywords: hyperbole, persuasive language, emotional appeal, hyperbolic language, political rhetoric

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Hiperbola inandırma vasitəsi kimi

Xülasə

Vurğu üçün istifadə edilən mübaliğəyə yazı və danışıqda hiperbola deyilir. Hərfi mənada deyil, bir məqamı vurğulamaq məqsədi daşıyan mübaliğələrə adətən hiperbolik şərhlərdə rast gəlinir. Metafora və ironiya terminləri hiperbola ilə bağlıdır. Məqalədə hiperbola ilə onlar arasındakı oxşarlıqlardan bəhs olunur. Bundan əlavə, hiperbolanın və bu iki məcazın bir-birindən necə fərqləndiyi vurğulanır. Beləliklə, tədqiqat göstərir ki, mübaliğə heç bir konkret stereotiplə əlaqələndirilməməli olan obrazlı nitqin xüsusi formasıdır. Bu araşdırma göstərir ki, hiperbola ümumiləşdirmə ilə yanaşı, metafora və istehza ilə də oxşar xüsusiyyətlərə malikdir. Həddindən artıq sadələşdirmə və ümumiləşdirmə eyni səciyyə daşımır.

Açar sözlər: hiperbola, inandırıcı dil, emosional cəlbedicilik, hiperbolik dil, siyasi ritorika

Introduction

Studying hyperbole as a rhetorical device in written texts has a long history. It was first examined in the context of rhetoric, which for many centuries served as the foundation for language study along with grammar. This framework included numerous figures of speech that were discussed since the time of the ancient Greeks. Numerous treatises on eloquence and expressive tactics attest to the fact that rhetoric was formerly connected to the exercise of power and persuasive discourse in antiquity. The study of figurative rhetoric has only lately moved into the realm of common, everyday language thanks to pioneers like scholars. The literature on exaggeration in spoken language is mostly devoted to studies of verbal irony and humour, and there isn't much research on hyperbole used in ordinary speech.

When someone uses hyperbole, they are using figurative language to express one thing while meaning another. Stated differently, the meaning meant by the statement does not align with its literal interpretation. When someone uses exaggeration, they state something is more than X instead of just saying X. By employing hyperbole, they go beyond what the listeners anticipate. According to some academics, people often utilize exaggeration in their daily talks as a way to exaggerate and

assess. Greek handbooks noted hyperbole, and it has been employed for thousands of years. In fact, Quintilian, the Roman Rhetorician, discusses hyperbole and claims that people employ it on a daily basis, including illiterate people and peasants. In saying that people without education often employ exaggeration, he may be pointing out how simple it is to create and understand exaggeration. Even though people utilize hyperbole all the time, not much is known about it.

The research has shown that to describe the event under study the politicians use rhetoric devices that exaggerate its social and political importance. In political discour se hyperboles have an impact on thr ee modes of persuasion – logos, pathos and ethos, but in political communication the effectiveness of a hyperbole as a persuasion tool mainly depends on ethos, i.e. conditions of a speech act which determine the relevance of this rhetor ical device and a speaker's personality. In some statements hyperboles are so efficiently embedded the communicative context that they are interpreted literally. In political discourse persuasion is often implemented through the use of hyperboles and other rhetorical devices (analogy, alliteration, anaph ora, climax). The evocative character of hyperbole is key to the implementation of its persuasive function in political discourse. Under the influence of the representations evoked by hyperbole, the object of exaggerated description acquires characteristics which quantitatively and, in some cases, qualitatively differ from its real properties.

The research has shown that to describe the event under study the politicians use rhetoric devices that exaggerate its social and political importance. In political discourse hyperboles have an impact on three modes of persuasion – logos, pathos and ethos, but in political communication the effectiveness of a hyperbole as a persuasion tool mainly depends on ethos, i.e. conditions of a speech act which determine the relevance of this rhetor ical device and a speaker's personality. In some statements hyperboles are so efficiently embedded the communicative context that they are interpreted literally. In political discourse persuasion is often implemented through the use of hyperboles and other rhetorical devices (analogy, alliteration, anaph ora, climax). The evocative character of hyperbole is key to the implementation of its persuasive function in political discourse. Under the influence of the representations evoked by hyperbole, the object of exaggerated description acquires characteristics which quantitatively and, in some cases, qualitatively differ from its real properties (Clark, 1996).

Studies show that politicians use rhetorical devices to exaggerate the social and political relevance of the event they are portraying. In political discourse, hyperboles impact the three main persuasive modalities: pathos, ethos, and logos. However, in political communication, ethos – the conditions of a speech act that establish the speaker's character and the significance of this rhetorical device – largely determines how effective exaggeration is as a persuasion tactic. In certain statements, exaggerations are so deftly woven into the narrative that they are interpreted as fact. In political discourse, devices like anaphora, climax, alliteration, and hyperboles are commonly used as persuasive devices. The emotive aspect of hyperbole plays a major role in its persuasiveness in political speech. Depending on the representations sparked by the use of hyperbole, the object of exaggerated description takes on features that diverge from its genuine attributes, both qualitatively and statistically (Ball, 1970).

Analysis. For ages, linguists, philosophers, and literary experts have been actively studying hyperbole. Nonetheless, the majority of study in this field concentrated on identifying its linguistic status, creating kinds classifications, explaining the lexical and grammatical processes involved in its production, and conducting a comparative examination of the usage of exaggeration in other languages. Psycholinguistic and cognitive linguistics researchers have made significant contributions to the study of hyperbole.

The focus has mainly been on characterizing and categorizing the trope of hyperbole, even though it has been one of the several figures of speech examined within the broad framework of rhetoric since antiquity. Hyperbole has received very little attention in modern language research, mostly because it is seen in other fields as a traditional device whose analysis falls under the purview of rhetoric. The study of hyperbole in the fields of linguistics, psychology, philosophy, and

literary criticism has hitherto received little or no serious consideration. Comparing exaggeration's frequency and use across cultural contexts has been a major focus of empirical research on the topic. In an effort to provide a preliminary contribution to the fields of political discourse analysis and figurative language, this study focuses on the idea of hyperbole in political speeches. Overstatement and exaggeration will be equated with hyperbole throughout the study.

With roots in Aristotle, the term "hyperbole" is well-known and frequently appears in rhetorical histories. According to Smith's Mysterie of Rhetorique Unvaild, for instance, hyperbole occurs when a trope is excessively expanded, when there is a very high and lofty shift in meaning, or when someone argues far more in favor of or against something than is accurate – above and beyond belief. Auxesis and meiosis, which refer to the extreme intensification, expansion, or enlargement of a thing and the exaggerated reduction or attenuation of it, respectively, are recognized as two types of hyperbole. These definitional components are still relevant today. Using examples from written sources, Ravazzoli suggests several linguistic forms of exaggerated language, such as those that expand/magnify and those that attenuate (metaforica amplificante and metaforica attenuativa), in statements like calling someone a colossus or a little pipsqueak, respectively, and simile and metonymy forms (X is like a thunderbolt and Y is all arms and legs). Although the categorizations make sense intuitively, there are issues with the overlaps with metonymy, metaphor, and simile, which attenuate it, accordingly (Kaplan, 1995: 358-362).

Several metaphors and other figures of speech, such as hyperboles, have been so conventionalized or even deemed "dead" that they are no longer considered hyperbole in the sense of deliberate exaggeration within a particular context and with a certain assessment objective. Given how frequently and conventionally the phrase "for ages" is used, saying "I haven't seen someone in ages" may not typically carry an excessive amount of force – it just means "for a long time." Similarly, even though a verb like "be dying to" (e.g., "die to meet someone") is counterfactual when taken literally, it can not be perceived as overdone or exaggerated at all.

The specific context will always be the deciding element, but the test of impossibility or counterfactuality will be very helpful in handling the enormous number of utterances in the current study. As an example, comparing the milliseconds needed by one's brand-new, state-of-the-art computer to the two seconds required by one's two-year-old computer to complete a task (the old one taking ages to save a document) is one instance where it may be true that the term "ages" can be used hyperbolically. In the current study, a vast number of utterances will benefit greatly from the test of impossibility or counterfactuality; however, the specific context will always be the determining element. Indeed, there are situations in which the term "ages" can be used exaggeratedly. For example, comparing the milliseconds it takes one's brand-new, state-of-the-art computer to accomplish a task that took one's two-year-old computer two whole seconds to complete – the old machine took ages to save a document (Kaplan, 1995: 358-362).

When an expression is overly dramatic compared to its ontological referent, it is called hyperbole. To put it another way, they propose that there are three key components that will enable us to define hyperbole. Exaggeration is the first. The second is the significance of the change in meaning from the propositional to the speaker's intended meaning. Lastly, while speaking hyperbolically, a particular referent needs to be provided. We'll go over each of those components one by one, beginning with exaggeration. Overstretching is the initial component of hyperbole. A speaker who uses hyperbole is highlighting a certain aspect or quality. Speakers who exaggerate typically do so to highlight a point or highlight how important something is. Hyperbole employs false claims to emphasize the significance and difficulty of the topic at hand. We'll use the following example to demonstrate:

This is the worst thing that happened in 2015!

When said, the speaker is emphasizing a point he is making by expressing something false. To emphasize his sentiment that what happened was terrible, he is making up a story about the *"worst thing that happened in 2015"*.

Exaggerated language used for impact or emphasis is known as hyperbole, and it's a popular figure of speech. People exaggerate in many different contexts and registers; examples include coloring ordinary, everyday speech, literary devices, and persuasive language. By putting a trait on a somewhat abstract scale of magnitude, hyperboles purposefully enhance or decrease a referent of discourse. Because it is very pragmatic and relies on context and prior knowledge to discern between literal and exaggerated usage of a particular lexical unit, the task of hyperbole identification presents a challenge to natural language processing. We can examine the following two example statements, where first sentence is hyperbolic and second sentence is literal, to see how pragmatic exaggeration is:

- *I've seen this movie at least eighty thousand times.*
- *These products are tested at least eighty thousand times.*

Because this would otherwise be a huge and impractical time investment, it is logical to believe that the speaker in the first phrase is exaggerating the number of times they have seen this specific movie in order to stress their enjoyment or familiarity with it. The second sentence's remark, however, might fairly be taken literally because, with regard to a specific product, it has probably undergone extensive testing and quality control procedures (Colston, 2002: 78-84).

Recent work by academics has focused on hyperbole identification; they have gathered datasets manually or semiautomatically and demonstrated that computational modeling of hyperbole is feasible. Nonetheless, this field of study in figurative language processing is still understudied, mostly due to the subjective and contextual character of the phenomena, which makes it difficult to model computationally and establish a standard for gathering high-quality annotated data. The practice of rhetoric has historically been linked to the creation of persuasive speeches, and subsequently to aesthetics and literature. The study of figurative language has only lately been moved into the field of common, daily language. Thus, "Hyperbole" has not received much attention in the fields of linguistics, psychology, philosophy, or literary criticism.

Spitzbardt approached the differences in style between words and exaggerated expressions from a socio-psycholinguistic standpoint. They think it is reasonable to assume that the love of the large word extended from the coast to the frontier, where the adoption of new lingo became a pastime for the illiterate and blended in well with other exaggerated aspects of tall-talk. Spitzbardt characterizes these types of "tall-talk" or "high-sounding mouth-filling words" as follows: A type of speech that can be anything from visually stunning combinations of cleverly constructed insults that express contempt or encomium, to outrageous exaggeration, amazing metaphors and similes, and an extremely theatrical oratory performance meant to impress the audience with the speaker's physical strength or overall superiority.

Together with metaphor and simile, hyperbole is the intentional exaggeration used to amplify a point. This type of figure of speech, such as "Hurry, we're hours late," emphasizes a point by purposefully exaggerating it. It is not meant to be taken literally. In contrast, Norrick defines overstatement as: the act of overstating anything, a statement that goes beyond the bounds of reality (Colston, 2002: 78-84).

Theorists typically equate hyperbole with irony or metaphor. All of them are examples of metaphorical speech acts, in which the speaker uses words to express meaning in multiple ways. We shall first define irony and metaphor before talking about how hyperbole relates to these two themes. The act of metaphor and irony were studied by theorists. They asked if understanding them is achieved through the same process of interpretation or not. The mind's interpretation of irony and metaphor, meanwhile, differs depending on whether they are used differently. After doing the study, it was found that adults needed more time to comprehend irony than metaphor. "Metarepresentational reasoning" is the cause of this, they claim. Irony is understood by adults using this form of thinking, although metaphor does not require it (Smith, 1657).

A higher-order representation embedded with a lower-order representation is referred to as metarepresentational in speech. An idea or a statement could be referred to by a higher-order representation. Conversely, there are three distinct meanings associated with lower-order

representations. Public representations are statements made in public. Conceptual images, which may include ideas. Lastly, representations that are obstructed and pertain to prepositions or sentences. Thus, a lower-order representation, represented by a thought, could differ from an utterance, or a high-order representation.

Given the varying ages at which metaphor and irony are recognized, it is possible that distinct mechanisms underlie the interpretation of each of those figurative speech acts. The "different cognitive and pragmatic demands" that irony and metaphor require are the cause of this. Metaphor uses modulation, while irony uses metarepresentational reasoning. Later on, we'll talk about how metaphor uses modulation. Lastly, speakers may employ sarcasm to express a mocking or unfavorable attitude (Ravazzoli, 1978: 87-91).

In an attempt to understand a remark, listeners modify the words to have a "occasion specific" meaning. For instance, the human mind has a mental image of what the word "dog" means. Thus, the term "dog" may conjure up ideas of many dog breeds. Additionally, it might imply loyalty. These are the entries for the term "dog" in encyclopedias. To achieve the intended connotation, the hearers modify the meaning of the word "dog" when the speaker utters it. To put it another way, hearers will modulate through the encyclopedic meanings connected with the word "dog" when they hear someone use it. To select the most appropriate meaning, they will take into account hints from both the input and the context. The process of modulation implies that a language contains more concepts than words that are employed (Gibbs, 1994: 418-423).

Consequently, this allows the speaker to generate non-lexicalized concepts from other lexicalized ones that have the same logical or encyclopedic entries. One might convey the meaning of "very mean" by using the term "devil". The speaker employs the encyclopedia entries to assist in communicating the idea that there isn't a single term that can be used to describe something as "extremely mean". An ad-hoc idea is used in this modulation procedure. According to the ad-hoc idea, the hearer must either expand or narrow the meaning in order to understand the speaker's intended meaning. When the intended meaning is more precise than what has been said, narrowing is used (Kaplan, 1995: 358-362).

The phrase "The film made me sick" is accurate. The speakers expect the hearers to modify the quality scale when they make this statement in the hopes of receiving a figurative comprehension. As a result, in an attempt to understand the statement, hearers consult the encyclopedic assumptions in search of a characteristic that corresponds with the statement. Consequently, *"The film made me have a negative psychological effect"* may be the intended metaphorical sense. On the other hand, presenters who plan on a hyperbolic interpretation will anticipate that listeners would modify the quantity scale. The hearers are required to access the encyclopedic assumptions and alter the quantity if we apply the same example. Consequently, the description that emerges is not as dramatic as what the speakers have said. This could be "I felt uneasy watching the film" (Colston, 2002: 78-84).

When someone uses ironic statements, they are expressing a desire for a different message to be conveyed. This type of language is second nature to humans, who use it extensively for interpersonal communication and negotiation. Even while using irony increases the possibility of misinterpretation, speakers are generally at ease with it. The literature on irony and sarcasm offers a wealth of insightful information about hyperbole, and hyperbole does appear to be a common occurrence in ironic speech. In conventional rhetoric, linguistics observes that irony is strongly linked to both understatement and hyperbole "in that each misrepresents the truth." It was discovered by linguists that irony and hyperbole frequently coexisted in discursive contexts where humor, emphasis, and clarity were the main objectives (Spitzbardt, 1963).

A new approach to analyzing irony and hyperbole emphasizes the emotive dimension and stresses the significance of the interactive dimension. Specifically, it emphasizes the necessity to pay attention to "particular speaker-listener interactions when examining people's emotions in ironic communication." Leggitt and Gibbs investigate a variety of speaker responses to problematic situations, including non-personal irony (i.e., directed at third parties), understatement, satire,

sarcasm, overstatement, and rhetorical questions. The way that such acts are received by listeners differs, with overstatement and sarcasm evoking greater negative effect than irony, understatement, and satire. Sometimes, people see hyperbole as speakers making a "big deal" out of things that don't warrant it. Of course, exaggerating problems is just one kind of hyperbole; many of the instances we will look at in this paper take place in situations that are not problematic, like performed narratives and general assessments of both positive and negative circumstances. Nevertheless, Leggitt and Gibbs do serve as a helpful reminder of the significance of listener reception and the interactive dimension. This emphasizes how crucial it is to approach the purpose and interpretation of counterfactuals interactively, which is how this study will do it. We will try to show that retrievable speaker connections and other interpersonal contextual factors seen in corpus data provide a (perhaps helpful) substitute for the elicited affective reactions found in psycholinguistic testing (Fogelin, 1988: 14).

Spitzbardt makes a major contribution to the linguistics of hyperbole by emphasizing the lexico-grammatical repertoire for hyperbole and advocating for the examination of hyperbole in ordinary speech rather than literature. Similar to what he does in this paper, Spitzbardt tries to enumerate common lexical and grammatical features found in hyperbolic utterances: numbers, spatial extent expressions (miles, oceans), intensifying and extreme adjectives and adverbs, verbs like "die to," comparatives and superlatives, extreme metaphors and similes, and numerous others. Moreover, Spitzbardt asserts a cultural point – which is undoubtedly supported by anecdotes but difficult to verify – that American English is more prone to hyperbole than British English. This point is not addressed in the current study (Spitzbardt, 1963).

The debate between literal vs figurative interpretations is related to counterfactuality in ironic speech. There is evidence that the figurative process does not completely exclude literal meanings, even if the counterfactuality condition tends to steer listeners toward metaphorical hearings (Ravazzoli, 1978: 87-91).

Certain linguistics emphasize the interaction between literal and figurative meaning in the listener's response and believe that both are important to the success of sarcastic speech. Likewise, there are many who argue that when interpreting metaphor and irony, it's crucial to include salient meanings — meanings that can be retrieved from one's mental vocabulary instead of from a particular context, or literal and prototypical meanings. Experimentally, with individuals interacting with a computer-based reaction test known as a "moving window," receivers quickly pick up on counterfactuality in the online processing of metaphors and use it as a crucial aspect in interpretation (Brooks, 1972: 98).

Even though there are undoubtedly instances that fall under the category of "hyperbolic-ironic," there are still disagreements regarding the relative strengths of effects between irony and other tropes like over- or understatement. This raises the question of whether hyperbole and irony can and should be conceptually separated. As previously said, in this study, we adopt a more comprehensive perspective and examine exaggeration in a range of situations, many of which hardly qualify as ironic — rather, they merely convey joy, dislike, humor, and other subjective responses. Because it's a unique trope, hyperbole has a wider application (Spitzbardt, 1963).

Conclusion

This work has traced the interest in exaggeration across a range of research disciplines, including conversation analysis, rhetoric, lexico-grammatical studies, and more empirically and cognitively focused investigations of irony. What has been lacking, though, from earlier studies is a comprehensive, corpus-based analysis of hyperbole in ordinary speech. This essay seeks to bridge the gap and, at the very least, slightly right the balance. A corpus-based study has many advantages. If cliches like metaphor and hyperbole can only be understood in their context, then a huge corpus provides a multitude of contexts gathered into a single body of material.

To sum up, this paper's title is exaggerated. The definition of hyperbole is still not fully understood. Because of a property that makes it distinct from other metaphorical speaking acts, it is

not regarded as unique. Conversely, it is distinct because it possesses qualities in common with metaphor and irony that help set them apart from one another. It also has traits in common with generalization. Although it is common in everyday speech and simple to understand, hyperbole is not well researched. In my view, we will be able to better appreciate irony and metaphor once we have a better understanding of hyperbole. As a result, we might anticipate a theory that explains both common and figurative speech acts, such as irony.

Additionally, the corpus demonstrates that hyperboles are not only found in lexico-grammatical items; rather, hyperboles and other tropes should be studied across turn boundaries and within the placement and sequencing constraints that conversation analysis has consistently emphasized, even with small data samples. This is supported by syntactic and discoursal strategies like polysyndeton, repetition, and clustering of hyperbolic items. Within the framework of placement and sequence, recurrence and patterning is a potent tool that can fuse the quantitative, automatically retrievable evidence of corpora with the perceptive qualitative categories of conversation- and discourse analysis. The study of exaggeration in interactive contexts highlights the expressive and interpersonal meanings that are emphasized in its application. These meanings include intensification, humor and banter, empathy, solidarity, hostility, informality and intimacy, as well as evaluative and persuasive purposes.

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