

Sports Jargon and Its Use in Printed Media

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Praktická část

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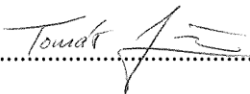
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ABSTRAKT

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá problematikou sportovního žargonu, který se běžně používá jak ve sportovních přílohách tištěných periodik, tak i ve specializovaných sportovních magazínech.

Teoretická část se zabývá obecnou charakteristikou žurnalismu a tištěnými médii, zejména pak jejich prvky. Dále následuje obecný popis jednotlivých sémantických prvků, řečnických figur a sousloví. Na závěr teoretické části jsou zkoumána ustálená slovní spojení a fráze.

Praktickou část tvoří analýza vybraných textů, zkoumá četnost výskytu jednotlivých lingvistických jevů, popsaných v teoretické části a věnuje se jejich podrobnějšímu rozboru.

Závěr zkoumá výsledky analýzy textů a vyvozuje z nich obecné stanovisko.

Klíčová slova: slovní spojení, sportovní terminologie, stylistické prostředky, sportovní zprávy, žargon

ABSTRACT

This bachelor thesis deals with sports jargon which is commonly used in the sport annexes of printed periodicals, as well as in specialist sports magazines.

The theoretical part defines general characteristics of journalism and the printed media, especially their constituents. This is followed by a general description of semantic features, figures of speech and multi-word expressions. At the end of the theoretical part, collocations and idioms are characterised.

The practical part consists of the analysis of selected texts, examines the frequency of occurrence of the individual linguistic features which are described in the theoretical part and focuses on their detailed analysis.

The conclusion examines results of the analysis of texts and draws a general inference from them.

Keywords: word combinations, sports terminology, stylistic devices, sports news, jargon

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INTRODUCTION

The presented bachelor thesis deals with sports journalism and sports jargon. I chose the topic as I am very interested in sports as a whole as well as in sports news and events. In my thesis, I would like to examine the connection between linguistics and sports articles.

The theoretical part of the thesis focuses on sports journalism and sports jargon, their functions and features. In the first part, basic terms connected to the sports journalism are defined as well as their functions and features. The second part deals with main features of sports jargon.

The practical part analyses the selected sports reports from ten different sports fields (baseball, basketball, football, formula 1, golf, ice hockey, motorbikes, rugby, snooker and tennis). The main objective of the analysis is to identify and classify the most frequent linguistic features of the sports jargon, such as figures of speech, multiword expressions and semantic lexical relations, and to examine them into details. The degree of formality of the texts is studied also, on the basis of the usage of slang, emotional or non-standard expressions.

This bachelor thesis contains a CD, where all of the analysed texts are enclosed.

I. THEORY

1 JOURNALISM

According to Evans (Evans 2004), the main aim of journalism is to present the truth. But, as he states, this original purpose is nowadays pushed away by a media intention to attract audience at all costs, even by lying to get a story.

Harcup, a renowned journalist, member of National Union of Journalists (NUJ), states that “Journalism informs society about itself and makes public that which would otherwise be private.” (Harcup 2009, 3)

1.1 History of Journalism

The beginning of journalism dates back to the early ages of modern history. The sources differ in the exact date, but in most cases, the discovery of America in 1492 is considered as the outset of the modern times.

This period is known as a time of the great overseas expeditions and a big development of market. These discoveries evoked the need to inform the population about them and this led to the first global sharing of information, quite primitively via dispatches and later, after foundation of letterpress, also via books. (Dočekalová 2006)

During the next three hundred years, the evolution of spreading the news was very slow. The message itself was the most important and the fact, how is it presented was not essential.

The situation started to change at the end of 19th century. With a foundation of The National Association of Journalists in Birmingham, the university-educated people became specialized as journalists. The first school of journalism in America was opened in 1908, and since that time the number of the newly opened journalism schools grew rapidly. In 1917, there were 84 schools of journalism. (Briggs and Burke 2009)

During the 20th century, journalism divided into many branches, such as political, war, sport or culture, and later into investigative journalism.

1.2 Functions of Journalism

According to Ruß-Mohl (Ruß-Mohl 2005, pp 21-24), a German expert for media and mass communication, the key functions of journalism are:

- Informing people - media brings information which society needs in ordinary life and which helps them in their decision-making process.

- Formulating and publishing - media express a certain factual content or problems, and make these problems into a public matter. They work as an information source or as a warning system.
- Agenda setting - mass media concentrate society attention on few topics which are in the centre of current events. This concentration on certain problems in mass media is called *agenda setting*. By agenda setting, the course of public life is often determined. It is used to force people to think and talk about the presented problems and topics.
- Critique and control - media control the world daily events. Controlling and criticizing the political situation has always been a part of the journalism. A necessary condition for critique and control is the freedom of speech. Mainly in Asia, and in the eastern part of Europe, for example in Russia or Belarus, journalists are often accused of criticizing the leading political power. Restricting the competences of journalists is considered to be an act of infringement.
- Education - media takes part in the education system, mainly as the sources of information.

2 PRINTED MEDIA AND THEIR DEVICES

There are many types of printed media, such as books, newspapers, magazines, journals etc. Newspapers are divided into broadsheets and tabloids. The main difference between broadsheet and tabloid is the level of credibility (certainly higher in broadsheet) and the way how news is published.

While there is a big difference between presenting political or cultural news in broadsheets or tabloids, the way of presenting sport is the same in both. The sport section is present in each of these two types, mainly on the back pages of newspaper (there are exceptions, such as a separate part of newspapers, focused only on sport, e.g. in *Mladá Fronta DNES*) and it has the same features (photos, sport experts commentaries and sports results).

Newspapers are not that current, in contrast with electronic media, but they provide a wider coverage of more sports events. They cover not only mass popular sports, such as football or ice hockey, but not very well known sports as well. (Ruß-Mohl 2005)

2.1 Headlines, Their Function and Composition

The basic function of a headline, not only in the sport journalism, but generally, is to get an attention and attract the reader. According to Reah (Reah 2002), a headline is a unique type of a text, the most important part of the newspapers; it should force the reader to read the whole story, or even to attract the reader to the paper itself.

Importance of the headlines supports the fact that majority of people draw attention to the headline more than to the whole text.

2.1.1 Automation and Actualization

Automation and actualization of the text appears not only in headlines but it also appears within the whole article.

Actualization of the text is an effort of the author to revive the text and get rid of the mechanical usage of settled expressions. To actualize the text, the author uses unusual morphological, syntactical and mainly lexical means to create new collocations and phrases.

By repetition of these new collocations and expressions, actualized text means loses their basic purpose to make text special and they become automated, implying that all the automated text means used to be actualizations originally. (Mlčoch 1999)

3 JARGON AND ITS USE IN SPORT

Jargon is a special kind of terminology, used in both written and spoken language. According to Crystal (Crystal 1995, 454), jargon is “the technical language of a special field.” It is a feature present in every language, and commonly used through all societies. Crystal (Crystal 1995, 454) also provides another definition, stating that jargon is also “the obscure use of specialized language” which means that certain groups, by using jargon, are consciously trying to block off other people from understanding them.

By this definition, meaning of the term jargon is very similar to the term argot, which is stated as “a more distinctive version of slang, in which the purpose of the specialized language is to conceal the meaning of the communication from others” (McShane and Williams 1996, 64). The difference between these two terms is that argot is used mainly by underground society to cover their criminal activity, unlike jargon which is present in everyday life and its meaning is widely known.

Because of the thin line between the meaning of jargon and argot, linguists tend to use the term code, instead of jargon as a variety of language. (Beard 1998)

Nearly any small group which has something in common, or shares the same activity, uses its own jargon. Yule (Yule 2006) claims that jargon helps these groups to differ from the others, whose interests are not common with their own ones.

Some jargons used by a different groups of people even got their name. They are for example airspeak and seaspeak (an international language of pilots and mariners, respectively).

3.1 Usage of Jargon According to Sociolinguistics

Using of jargon is closely connected with sociolinguistics. Sociolinguistics, according to Yule, “deals with the inter-relationships between language and society”. (Yule 2006, 239) It looks into many aspects, such as gender, age or ethnic background.

According to Yule, even people of the same age, living in one particular area, may not understand each other well because social factors play a very important role in communication among them. And if they do not share the same values and interests, it often happens that their communication does not work properly.

Choosing a proper variation of language is a difficult issue. Based on Trudgill, there are more varieties of language, depending not only on the social status of the speakers, such as gender, social class or ethnicity, but also on their social context. (Trudgill 2000)

Usage of jargon (or terminology) is not always appreciated. This usage of the technical language causes many troubles to reader, who has not enough knowledge to be capable of understanding text. The reader may find this type of text confusing, difficult and baffling.

This fact lead to a foundation of the Plain English Campaign, an institution which cooperates with many companies or government institutions, such as the European Union, the United Nations or IBM, and rewrites their specialized texts into the clear, understandable ones.

3.2 Usage of Jargon in Sport

Sport jargon is based on sport professionalisms. Professionalisms are not only used in the field of sport, but also in many other areas, e.g. army, police, medicine or culture. Peprník describes professionalisms as technical terms and phrases which are familiar only to members of a particular group of people and which are used in specific fields of work or in amateur activities. (Peprník 2001)

Since professionalisms are the basic structural unit of jargon, their understanding is the basic key of decoding the utterance. Their misunderstanding then leads to difficulties in understanding the whole message.

Logically, journalists expect certain knowledge of the readers, and vice versa, the readers have to be aware of these expressions, when they intentionally want to read a sport article. But many journalists tend to place too many terms, therefore an experienced reader can be confused and does not have to understand the whole text properly.

4 SEMANTIC FEATURES OF LANGUAGE

Semantics is a part of linguistics. The term *semantics* first appeared in English language in 1948, in a book by A.W. Read. (Peprník 2001)

According to Palmer (Palmer 2001), it is one of three basic parts of language, along with morphology and phonology. Yule states (Yule 2006), that semantics studies the meaning of words, phrases and whole sentences.

Yule also states that semantics deals with basic and general meaning of words and prefers objectivity, which means that semantics does not deal with subjective meanings of words which are used mainly in context.

4.1 Lexical Semantic Relations

Semantics deals not only with meaning of the words, but even with the relationships among them. Lexical relations express links and connections among various lexical units. To express a lexical relation, there is a need of one or more related lexical units. One word may have more than one lexical relation. (Cruse 1995)

The most frequent lexical semantic relations are: synonyms, antonyms, homonyms and hyponyms.

4.1.1 Synonyms

Synonyms are lexical units which have the same or nearly the same meaning. The purpose of using synonymy is to avoid repetition in the text or to express the word in different ways. Synonyms are studied both in semantics and stylistics, because, as Peprník states, they are based on connotative and denotative meaning. (Peprník 2001)

According to Lyons (Lyons 1995), there are three major categories of synonyms: near-synonyms, partial synonyms and absolute synonyms.

- Near-synonyms are expressions, which are not totally identical in meaning, but they are just similar (such as *mist* and *fog*).
- Partial synonyms are mainly identical in meaning, but they are not absolute synonyms, meaning that they are interchangeable in a particular situation.
- Total or absolute synonyms are very rare in English because they need to have the same denotative and connotative meaning and they can be used in any context, without causing confusion in the utterance.

For example Crystal denotes total synonyms as “unlikely possibility” (Crystal 2003, 450) and Cruse notes that frequency of appearance of total synonyms is

“vanishingly rare and does not form a significant feature of natural vocabulary”.
(Cruse 2004, 155)

4.1.2 Antonyms

Antonyms are words with an opposite meaning. Unlike synonyms, antonyms are the common and natural part of a language, with an accurate definition. Majority of antonyms are an adjectives and therefore they are related to the same rules as all the adjectives. (Palmer 2001)

According to Yule (Yule 2006), antonyms are divided into three groups: gradable, non-gradable and relational antonyms.

Gradable antonyms are able to be modified with adverbs like *very, little, more, much, too, less*, or with the suffix *-er*, marking higher grade of adjective. They are also used in the comparative structures, e.g. *older than*. A negation of one of the pair of gradable synonyms does not signify the other word. For example a pair of gradable antonyms *small - young* can be modified (*too small, much bigger*), and the negation of small does not sign the opposite (e.g. *not small* does not mean *big*) (Yule 2006)

Non-gradable antonyms, e.g. *right - wrong*, are not used in the comparative structures, (because they would sound odd: e.g. *more wrong*) In contrast with the gradable antonyms, the negation of one word implies to the other word. (*not right* means *wrong*) (Yule 2006)

Certain non-gradable antonyms create a group of reversives. They are not like other non-gradable antonyms, because the meaning of one more is not an opposite of another. (*not to enter* does not mean *to leave*) (Yule 2006)

Relational antonyms are not words with an absolutely opposite meaning, but they are more complementary to each other. Palmer defines them as “pairs of words which exhibit the reversal of a relationship between items”. (Palmer 2001, 97) In contrast with other antonyms when we assume that if one word is A, it is not B, with relational antonyms, we presume that if it is not A, it is B. (e.g. *husband/wife, thin/thick*) (Palmer 2001)

4.1.3 Hyponyms

Peprník (Peprník 2001) defines hyponyms as expressions that have a narrower meaning than the words that are superior to them (e.g. *table - furniture; window - house*). Hyponyms specify the meaning of the superordinate term (also called hyperonym or archilexeme). Lipka (Lipka 2002) points out, that hyponymy is one way lexical relation between hyponyms and superordinate terms. That means that hyponyms imply the meaning of the superordinate terms, but not vice versa.

Hyponyms belonging to the same level of the hierarchy are called the co-hyponyms. For example, the words *red*, *blue* and *yellow* are co-hyponyms of superordinate term *colours*. (Lipka 2002)

4.1.4 Homonyms

Homonyms are words which have two or more unrelated meanings. (Peprník 2001)

Peprník divides homonyms into three subcategories:

- real homonyms are words with the same spelling and pronunciation, but which differ in meaning (e.g. *beam* as piece of timber or ray of light; *spring* as one of the four seasons or stream of water)
- homophones are words with the same pronunciation, but different spelling (e.g. *here* - *hear*; *write* - *right* - *rite*; *sea* - *see*)
- homographs contains words with the same spelling, but different pronunciation (e.g. *lead* [li:d] - [led]);

The difference between homonymy and polysemy (words with multiple meanings, which are distantly related) is frequently discussed. As Yule states, homonyms differ from polysemy in a dictionary entry. In the dictionaries, homophones have separate entries, while polysemic words have only one entry with a numbered list of meanings. (Yule 2006)

5 FIGURES OF SPEECH

Figures of speech uses derived meaning of words to emphasize the utterance or to produce a new word unit.

5.1 Metaphor

Metaphor is a use of language which uses different ways to describe an original meaning. (Knowles and Moon 2006) Peprník develops this concept, states that metaphor is a relationship between two meanings, based on their common features. The two meanings are literal and transferred. Transferred meaning is based on similarity, involving shape, colour, function, location or extent. (Peprník 2001)

Metaphor operates between two domains: a source and a target domain. The source domain is an area, from which the metaphor is created and the target domain is an area, to which the metaphor is integrated. The meaning of the target domain is understood through the use of the source domain. (Knowles and Moon 2006)

Kövecses (Kövecses 2010) divides metaphors into two groups: Conceptual and Literary metaphors.

Understanding of the conceptual metaphor is based on both literal and transferred meaning. It allows the reader to find and identify the similarities between these two meanings. Conceptual metaphors are more easily identified than literary metaphors, due to fact that they are based on a more common conceptual system.

Literary metaphors are present in literally texts, mainly in poetry. The difference between literary and conceptual metaphors is that the literal metaphors do not have a clear, transferred meaning, based on a conventional knowledge. The authors create them in order to offer a new and abstract perspective for common expressions (e.g. “tea, which taste of window”). Kövecses stated that “literary metaphors are typically less clear but richer in meaning than everyday metaphors or metaphors in science.” (Kövecses 2010, 49)

5.2 Metonymy

Metonymy is a tool of the semantic transfer. While metaphor is based on similarity, metonymy is based on contiguity. It expresses the relations among words, based on their associations and continuity. (Peprník 2001)

According to Hatch and Brown (Hatch and Brown 1995), metonymy occurs when one expression is closely linked with the other. Metonymy is used for extending meanings of

expressions and it is reader-friendly, because it is easy to understand, even if the lexical structure of the expressions is wrong. (Cruse 2004)

Lipka (Lipka 2002) adds that the process of metonymy is economical for the author because there is no change of lexemes, the lexemes remain the same.

5.2.1 Types of Metonymy

Cruse (Cruse 2004, pp.210-11) provides different metonymical patterns:

- Container for contained
“*I will take a cup of tea.*” - sing one particular attribute of the thing to express the thing itself.
- Possessor for possessed
“*Where are you seated?*” - Instead of “*Where do you have the seats?*” - showing a certain degree of politeness by usage of the passive voice.
- Represented entity for representative
“*Parliament elects the president.*” - used to generalize, represents all members of the parliament.
- Whole for part
“*Please turn off the lights.*” - Without specification, which light are meant concretely.
- Part for whole
“*There were so many faces at the meeting.*” - *Faces*, as a part of the body used instead of *people*.

5.3 Synecdoche

The term synecdoche has a close connection with metonymy. Štekauer states that “in synecdoche a part refers to the whole or refers to the part” (Štekauer 2000, 170). Typical example of synecdoche is “I bought a new *wheels*”, when *wheels* as a part of a car are used instead of a word *car* itself.

Klaus-Uwe adds to this definition that synecdoche is used for the transfer from a less comprehensive category to a more comprehensive category, or vice versa. The less comprehensive category is described as a species, the more comprehensive category as a genus. (Klaus-Uwe 1999)

- *thermos* for *vacuum flask* - *thermos* is originally a proper name, now it is used for all types of vacuum flasks. (it is an example of a transfer from species to genus)
- “It is not eatable, you must have a *taste!*” - It is not specified what kind of taste, if good or not. (genus for species example)

5.4 Hyperbole

Hyperbole is used to exaggerate a certain statement in order to emphasize and highlight the meaning. Hyperbole is instinctively used in a spoken language and it is also used in the written literature, to describe feelings or to evoke them in the readers. (Claridge 2010)

The main means of creating a hyperbole in text are numerals (e.g. *thousands of excuses*). Adjectives also occurs as the tool of expressing hyperbole (e.g. *gigantic space*)

5.5 Litotes

Litotes, together with hyperbole, emphasizes and intensifies the meaning. To achieve this emphasis, litotes uses an understatement (e.g. *not bad* to express *good*), or a double negative form (e.g. *not uneducated* to express *educated*).

Usage of litotes is not only to emphasize the meaning, but also to show a certain amount of irony (e.g. *quite underpaid politician*) (Ortony 1993)

5.6 Simile

Simile is a figure speech which uses comparison for a description of similarity of two or more subjects. The comparison is signaled by prepositions, e.g. *as*, *than*, or *like* (*cold as snow*). (Foster 2001)

6 COLLOCATIONS

Collocations are an important and a frequent part in the English language. Their usage is natural for the English native speakers but it causes problems to the non-native speakers. O'Dell (O'Dell & McCarthy 2008) suggests that the root cause of the problem with learning the collocations by the non-native speakers is that there is usually no obvious or a logical reason, why the given form of the collocation is used. (e.g. “*make friends*”, not “*get friends*”)

Stubbs defines collocations as word combinations, which includes two or more words with a lexical relation among them. (Stubbs 2005)

Although most of collocations are combinations of an adjective and a noun, nearly any grammatical types can occur as a collocation, e.g.:

- adjective + noun: “*fast food*”
- noun + noun: “*a piece of advice*”
- adverb + adjective: “*completely wrong*”
- verb + noun: “*commit a suicide*”

As collocations are frequently used in English books, their understanding enables the readers to understand the text more properly. Knowledge of English collocations is also crucial for translators into other languages. (O'Dell & McCarthy 2008)

There are various types of collocation, provided by linguists. Aisenstadt (Aisenstadt 1981) divides the collocations into free and restricted collocations. Swensen provides categories of grammatical and lexical collocations (Swensen 1993). The most detailed division of collocation is provided by O'Dell & McCarthy (O'Dell & McCarthy 2008), who divides collocations into three categories - strong, weak and fixed collocations, which are defined below:

6.1 Strong Collocations

Strong collocations are closely connected and create a bound relation. They follow a pattern, when one word is associated only with the other one. (e.g. “*deliriously happy*”) Strong collocations are not frequent in the everyday language because their use is limited. (Kvetko 2005)

6.2 Weak Collocations

In contrast with strong collocations, weak collocations are created by words, which can collocate with a large amount of other words. An example is the adjective heavy which

combines with a large amount of words to create collocation (e.g. *heavy rain*, *heavy metal*, *heavy smoker*)

This type of collocation is used frequently, as many neutral words are able to create different word-combinations. (O'Dell & McCarthy 2008)

6.3 Fixed Collocations

The words in fixed collocations are close-knitted together and they cannot be exchanged by another word because of this fact. When the words are changed or separated, they do not have the original meaning. (e.g. *blond hair* - the lexeme *blond* associates a hair colour, the combination of lexemes *yellow hair* is not used, also the lexeme *blond* is not used with any other word than hair, for example, *blond flower*) Fixed collocations are also called idioms. (O'Dell & McCarthy 2008)

7 IDIOMS

Idioms, as well as collocations are the multi-word expressions, which have a special meaning, transferred from the meaning of their components. In contrast with collocations, idioms do not have a meaning derived from the meanings of its elements, but it is a phrase, which has a particular meaning. (Kvetko 2005)

Kvetko also states, that alike collocations, idioms can be fixed or changeable. The fixed idioms cannot be changed, otherwise they lose their original meaning (e.g. *of course*). The changeable idioms can occur in several variations, without a change of the meaning (e.g. *build castles in the air* and *build castles in Spain*).

Kvetko (Kvetko 2005) divides the idioms into several categories: grammatical, lexical, orthographic and geographical)

- Grammatical variations allow morphological and syntactical changes, for example in word order, grammatical tense or articles. (For example *keep up one's chin* - *keep one's chin up* - the word order can be changed without changing the meaning of the idiom)
- Lexical variations include changes in lexical structure without changing the original meaning (e.g. *out of the blue sky* - *out of nowhere*)
- Orthographic variations are defined by changes in spelling, by different punctuation (hyphens, colons etc.) or by capital letters (e.g. *run amok* - *run amuck* ; *okay* - *OK*)
- Geographic variations are used in different countries, or in different parts within one country. Any of previous variations can occur in geographical idiomatic expressions (e.g. *true colours*: used in UK, *true colors*: used in USA)

II. ANALYSIS

8 INTRODUCTION TO THE ANALYTICAL PART

The aim of the analysis is to identify and study features of sports jargon in selected articles and to compare them with theoretical data, which were defined in the theoretical part. I am going to focus on frequency and quantity of the studied features and how they influence the whole understanding of the texts.

I expect that the most common element which will appear in the texts will be professionalisms (technical terms), because they are the main feature of the sports jargon

Ten texts were selected for the analysis. I intentionally chose ten different sports (baseball, basketball, football, formula 1, golf, ice hockey, motorbikes, rugby, snooker and tennis) in order to study whether the structure of their reporting is the same or whether there is a difference in the usage of studied features.

I chose the texts from three sources, The BBC Sport section, The Washington Post and an internet source, focused entirely on women tennis, <http://www.wtatennis.com>. All texts were published in 2011.

Figures of speech and multi-word expressions will be verified at the Oxford Collocations Dictionary and on-line version of idiom dictionary – www.idiomdictionary.com.

The aim of the practical part of the thesis is to compare the occurrence of particular phenomena in various sports. Subsequently, I will study whether the most frequent features of the texts are the same, or whether there is a sport (or sports) where the most frequent elements differ.

9 TEXTS ANALYSIS

All the texts are included on the attached CD. They are sorted in the same way as here, marked as text A01 - text A10.

9.1 Vettel Beats Button in Malaysia (Text A01)

This article, published in BBC Sport, is dealing with FIA Formula One World Championship therefore there is a frequent occurrence of professionalisms from Motorsports. They are not explained at length, because the author assumes that the readership is qualified enough to know these terms. The only one partly-explained word is *Kers* (developed as *power boost system*), because the term itself is new and not over used and could be unknown by a lot of readers.

- Professionalisms - *grip, downforce, kerb, Kers, prime tyre, stint, stewards, wing*

The lexeme *wing* is interesting by the fact that it is a professionalism (wing is an official name of a part of a vehicle), but on the other hand this professionalism is based on a metaphor of a shape (similarity of a wing of a bird).

Other professionalisms are typical for motorsport, as they are used not only in Formula 1, but also in other similar kinds of sports (e.g. Rally, NASCAR or DTM)

- Metaphors - *battling cars, dropped to eighth, kick-start, slammed, sail past, squashed, swamped, took-off*

Both *sail past* and *took-off* are expressions derived from the movement of the means of transport, a ship and an airplane respectively. These metaphors of function, used with a movement of a car are based on the similarity of the locomotion between the car and these objects. When a car sails past something, the maneuver reminds of an ease movement of a ship at the sea.

Metaphor is a dominant figure of speech in this article is the metaphor. There are nearly a twice more metaphorical expressions than all other figures of speech combined. The usage of so many metaphors could be influenced by the fact that the text itself is quite long and because of this the author tried to apply metaphors to prevent the repetition and in order to make the text interesting and more vivid.

There are other figures of speech provided in the text, such as hyperboles (*dreadful start*, *tremendous effort* - used to intentionally exaggerate and strengthen the meaning), metonymy (*Renaults* - usage of the name of the team for the drivers), meiosis (*little bit*) or personifications (*car came alive* or *battling cars*)

- Collocations - *blistering circuit*, *class of his own*, *collect a win*, *cost a podium*, *entire race*, *stretch a lead*

Collocations do not occur in the text much, most of them are typical examples of sports jargon, a typical fixed expression used often in the majority of all sports.

There are different structures of collocations, for example *stretch a lead* and *collect a win* are based on metaphorical expressions, the collocation *cost a podium* is metonymical (it is obvious that there was not any price paid for not finishing on podium, but the chance to be among the best three competitors was lost).

- Idioms - *runner-up*, *slide around*, *docked from the time*, *take it on the chin*, *sharp end*

Idiom *runner-up* is frequently used in the most of sport fields. It is a general sporting term for a competitor finishing second in the sporting event. The term *runner up* is used more when there is a duel between two teams or competitors (football, tennis etc.) In sports such as car races or horse racing, the ordinal numbers are used more frequently (*second*, *third*, *tenth place*).

9.2 Cool Lorenzo Hits Right Notes for Winning in the Rain (Text A02)

The article is covering a motorcycling race in Spain. Due to a frequent occurrence of collocations and idioms, the text sounds rather informal than formal. Another interesting fact is that though sport reports are often focused on the winner, in this case the winner (Jorge Lorenzo) is nearly not mentioned at all. Only the headline and one paragraph are aimed at him.

Although this article belongs to the same sport field - motorsport, there are other types of professionalisms and figures of speech. This supports the idea, that every single sport has its own special terminology.

- Professionalisms - *carbon fibre chasses, course, engine capacity, GP, grip levels, marshals, pits, practice session, riders, rookie, slicks*

An interesting professionalism from the perspective of the structure is the initialism *GP*, which is an abbreviation form of Grand Prix. This abbreviation is not explained in the text which signs that the author is convinced about sufficient knowledge of the readership and does not find it necessary to provide the full form of the abbreviation. The other unique professionalisms are *marshals* and *slicks*, both metaphorically transferred lexemes. Originally, a marshal is a job in the legal system or in the army. It is used in motorsport because of a similar function (track marshals control the observation of the rules). “*Slicks*” is a term used for the tyres which do not have a tread pattern.

- Metaphors - *aftermath, clawed his way back, cool Lorenzo, cool riding, corkscrew, cruelly robbed of chance to win, explosive race, falls from podium positions, feud, nightmare, picked up by the cameras, Repsol Honda camp*

There are several metaphors derived from a movement of a body. *Clawing the way back* refers to a difficult and struggling effort to reach a certain goal, *falls from podium positions* does not mean to fall from somewhere but it means that the rider lost a position among the best three racers. Also, the phrasal verb to *pick up* does not imply a movement, but the meaning is to record. (Stoner’s subsequent comment to Rossi was *picked up by the cameras ...*)

In both expressions *cool Lorenzo* and *cool riding*, the adjective *cool* does not signal a temperature, but it expresses a calm temperament and composure.

Another attractive feature is the emotiveness of the metaphors *aftermath* and *feud*. *Aftermath* is a time after a disaster or a catastrophe and *feud* means usually a bloody conflict between hostile rivals (reopening of *the feud between Stoner and Rossi*). Both these metaphors are used to outline and emphasize the atmosphere of the event.

Other figures of speech found in the text were simile (*from as far back as Rossi was*) and hyperbole (two examples - *absolute nightmare, huge testament*).

There is also a presence of synonymy, a lexical semantic relation. The interesting example is the usage of three synonyms used instead of a name Valentino Rossi (*the Italian, the nine-time world champion* and a nickname *The Doctor*)

- Collocations - *conserve the tyres, en route, following the same path, genuine belief, championship points, laps to go, overtaking maneuver, podium finish, race result, racing incident, release a statement, save the tyres, wet tyres, worn tyres.*

The majority of collocations used in the text, is connected with the sport. Only the collocations *en route* and *following the same path* are able to be applied in different events. The others occur only in the sport area.

The expression *en route* is an example of a borrowing from a different language. In this case the word combination comes from French, it was accepted into the English language and it is commonly used instead of the expression “*on the way*”.

An interesting fact is that there are four collocations with the word *tyre* in the text and the expressions *conserve the tyres* and *save the tyres* are synonyms.

- Idioms - *back on track, came to grief, felt the gravel, first home, fruits of their findings, in all, make their own luck, right notes*

There are various idioms based on metaphors, such as *back on track, felt the gravel and first home*. To be the first home in this case does not mean to arrive home, but it is an idiom which means to win a race. *To felt the gravel* (In all, nine rider’s *tyres felt the gravel* during the race...) is an expression for drive out of the track, where the gravel surface is.

Another idiom in this text is *back on track*. To be back on track usually means to continue with an interrupted work or to come back to a professional career after an injury, for example. But in this case (In all, nine rider’s *tyres felt the gravel* during the race, but only four making it *back on track*), the meaning is purely denotative, the riders really get back to the track.

9.3 Judd Trump Beats Mark Selby in China Open Final (Text A03)

The final match of a snooker tournament is reported in the article. The term snooker itself is not mentioned at all, which is unusual. The report is very descriptive and there is no additional information about the players or the venue.

- Professionalisms - *break, century break, clearance, corner pocket, frame, frame ball*

Although the number of used professionalism is not high, all the terms are important for the understanding of the text. They are describing the game and they are frequently

repeated, for example the lexeme *frame* appears eleven times in the article, therefore the understanding of these professionalisms is crucial for understanding the whole text.

The term *clearance* is purely metaphorical, meaning that all the balls were placed into the corner pockets and the table is empty.

- Metaphors - *be on the brink of defeat, clearance, concede frames* (easing into the final having *conceded* only seven frames), *fluctuating final, steep learning curve, survive a round* (Trump, who *survived* one qualifying round)

The expressions *brink of defeat* and *steep learning curve* are metaphors of shape, emphasizing the meaning. *Be on the brink of defeat* means to be very close to a defeat and *steep curve* signals a very strong and rapid progress.

The word *fluctuating* gives the readers an idea, how close the game was and that the result was not obvious until the very end of the game.

- Metonymy - *decisive pink, got to the colours, miss a brown, simple red, world number four*

All the colours (*pink, red* and *brown*) are metonymies, they represent the balls, with which are played with. The term *world number four* is used instead of a name of the player (Mark Selby).

- Hyperbole - *unbelievable feeling, high quality, enthralling contest*

All of these hyperboles emphasize the meaning. The collocation *high quality* doubles the positive meaning, basically if something is quality, it is positive, but when the adjective *high* is added, it evokes an even better impression.

- Simile - *pressure like that, looking like being 9-9*

The simile *pressure like that* is used in the article for a shortening of a sentence. The pressure is described sufficiently, that is why it is not necessary to repeat the previously given information.

The expression *looking like being 9-9* is interesting from the point of view, that on the contrary with the majority of litotes, this one expresses a situation which did not happen, but the probability for that situation to happen was high.

- Collocations - *building up a lead, claim title, high quality, impressive showing, lack of confidence, main event, major title, qualifying round, reach the final, reduce the gap, show a form*

These collocations are not specific only for a particular sport (in this case snooker), but all of them are general collocations which can be used in nearly any kind of sport (especially *claim title, main event, qualifying round* or *reach the final*).

- Idioms - *brink of defeat, come home early, out of nowhere*

The idiom *brink of defeat* was mentioned already with metaphors. If we divide this idiom into parts, they seem to have no connection - *brink* is an edge of some real object and *defeat* is an abstract term. But together, they create a new, literal meaning of being very close to a loss.

The idiom *come home early* does not mean to arrive home, but it is an expression for being eliminated in the early stages of a tournament.

9.4 Road to Roland Garros Begins (Text A04)

Due to a presence of many figures of speech it is obvious that the author of the article writes in a very informal way. The article is extracted from the official site of the Woman Tennis Association (WTA), however the degree of formality is visibly lower than for example at BBC Sport. Some of the expressions used in the text are even from the substandard language.

- Professionalisms - *clay, court, dirt, finalist, Grand Slam, hat-trick, qualifier, runner-up, spoiler, title, WTA*

The lexemes *clay* and *dirt* are synonyms. Another synonymy used in the article for the clay surface is the metaphorical expression *red stuff*. The majority of enumerated professionalisms are closely connected with tennis, mainly the initialism *WTA* (abbreviation of Woman Tennis Association), *Grand Slam* (word combination used for the four biggest tennis tournaments) and *clay*. The rest of the professionalisms are common terms used in sport generally. All the mentioned official names of the tournaments (such as *Andalucia Tennis Experience, Family Circle Cup* or *Roland Garros*) can be also sorted as professionalisms.

- Hyperboles - *dazzling victory, great effect, sublime climax, superb clay season, swashbuckling run, unbridled joy*

The lower level of formality is demonstrated by a frequent occurrence of hyperboles. They exaggerate the meaning, and when they are used a lot in the text, the trustworthiness of the author of the text can be reduced.

While the adjectives *great* or *superb* are commonly used for creating hyperboles, adjectives such as *swashbuckling* or *unbridled* are very rare in the English language. That is why the expressions are eye-catching and interesting.

- Metaphors - *backspin to the future, breach the second week, breakthrough, brief flirtation, clay swing, diminutive Slovak, force of nature, full blown affair, chief storyline, injury cloud, slouch, pocket the title, red stuff, retrieving style, stars of WTA, title defense, veteran*

The first mentioned metaphor, *backspin to the future* is one of the very few literary metaphors used in texts generally. Backspin is a special kind of tennis shot during which the movement of a player goes backwards. A backward direction connected with the future is logically very unimaginable therefore putting these two words into a word combination seems very odd and draws an attention of the readers. And by occurrence of this literary metaphor in the headline, the aim of the author to make the readers think is underscored much more.

There is a frequent appearance of the elements of nature in these metaphors. The expressions, such as *force of nature* (*force of nature* as she is), *full blown affair*, *injury cloud* and *stars of WTA* have their origins in the nature.

- Metonymy - *capturing Rome, world number 1*

The expression *capturing Rome* is a typical example of a whole-for-part metonymy. The name of the city is used instead of the expression “tournament held in Rome”.

The expression *world number one* is metonymical, but in the context of the text [A much-desired (and deserved) first Grand Slam title for hard-working *world No.1* Caroline Wozniacki...] it is used to develop an introduction of the player, whose name is mentioned just after the expression.

- Simile - *ditto, passion reaching fever*

Ditto is a very attractive form of simile, it is a one word expression, used instead of the traditional expressions, e.g. such as, as like as. (Serbian teen Bojana Jovanovski could threaten at the smaller events, and maybe even breach the second week in Paris. *Ditto* Dominika Cibulkova...)

The simile *passion reaching fever* is an emotive expression. It describes the intense ardour of the spectators.

- Collocations - *clay court, clay season, coming weeks, Grand Slam title, Premier title, prevailing conditions, ranking riser, runner-up, second week, title contenders, win-loss record*

There are examples of weak collocations (words which can create collocations with a large amount of other words, e.g. *clay* and *title* - *clay court, clay season, Grand Slam title, Premier title* and *title contenders*)

The collocation *second week* may be seen as a standard word combination (an numeral *second*, developing and describing a noun *week*), but in tennis terminology it is a set phrase pointing out that a tennis player was not eliminated in the early rounds of a big tournament (played for two weeks) and he/she advanced to the final rounds. (Serbian teen Bojana Jovanovski could threaten at the smaller events, and maybe even *breach the second week* in Paris.)

A lot of collocations in the text (*clay court, Grand Slam title, Premier title, win-loss record*) are rather technical terms therefore they are difficult to be identified by the readers who do not have sufficient knowledge about the sport. For example, a Premier tournament is a special name for a tournament with a higher donation than the other tournaments.

- Idioms - *double whammy, follow suit, get the trophy monkey off her back, happy hunting grounds, joie de vivre, momentum mojo, play a blinder, scoring runs, spare a thought for, under her belt, up and coming*

There are several informal expressions such as *whammy* (informal way of describing two setbacks in a row, or at the same time) or *play a blinder* (an informal British expression, which means to perform with a lot of skill). These informal idioms again point out a significantly lower degree of formality.

An idiom, borrowed from a different language is present in the text. The French expression *joie de vivre* was adapted into English and is commonly used as way of

expressing the enjoyment of life. Another example of an idiom, borrowed from different language is the idiom *momentum mojo*. Mojo is a word borrowed from Spanish, meaning a magic charm or spell.

An eye-catching idiom is “*get the trophy monkey off her back*”. In this idiom, *monkey* represents a certain burden, which is defined by the lexeme *trophy*. To get the trophy monkey off someone’s back therefore means to win a tournament, because a trophy is given to a winner.

9.5 Rangers Lose, Leaving Playoff Hopes in Other Teams Hands (Text A05)

This article, dealing with ice hockey, one of the most popular sports world-wide, is extracted from the BBC Sport web page. It is not only a report about a single match, but it also describes the complicated situation of last rounds of the National Hockey League (NHL).

- Professionalisms - *backhand, captain, center, coach, defenseman, forward, goaltender, overtime, period, playoffs, regulation, scoreboard, shootout, shot, standings*

All these professionalisms are related to the ice hockey and they describe various aspects of the game, such as players (*center, defenseman, captain, forward* and *goaltender*) or game sections (*overtime, period, regulation* and *shootout*). Two professionalisms are not related to the game itself, but generally to the concept of the league, describing the features of the NHL (*playoffs* and *standings*).

- Metaphors - *catalyst, clear the puck, clinched a playoff berth, collect themselves, dictate the pace, fell meekly, pursuers, rolled into zone, ruffle the standings, skim of the suspense, smacking his goal, teetering season, whip a shot*

There are many metaphors indicating a movement. They help the reader to imagine how the game was played (*fell meekly, rolled into zone, smacking his goal, whip a shot*).

The metaphors *clinched a playoff berth* and *ruffle the standings* are both connected with a change of the situation in the league standings and they are both meant in a positive way.

- Metonymy - *Devils, Rangers, Thrashers*

These metonymies are derived from the team names (New Jersey Devils, New York Rangers and Atlanta Thrashers). To name players after the team is a typical feature of sports jargon. It is very common in sports such as ice hockey, basketball or baseball.

Other figures of speech in the text are not frequent, one occurrence of simile (*as quickly as possible*) and one hyperbole (*dismal game*). The low amount of these figures may be caused by a very descriptive and formal text, where the author wants to provide a real and trustworthy report and not to exaggerate.

- Collocations - *long rally, make the playoffs, playoff berth, playoff push, playoff race, scoring chances, standings*

The professionalism *playoff* is involved in four collocations. This means that this lexeme is able to create multiple word combinations. The collocations *playoff push* and *playoff race* are synonymous, both expressing a very important final part of the league. All these collocations can be used chronologically together in one sentence - there is a hard *playoff race/push*, before a team can *make the playoffs* by clinching a *playoff berth*.

- Idioms - *call it a night, lay an egg, lose the driver seat, make a play, play the game, skimmed of the suspense*

The idiom *lay an egg* is a slang expression used many in the USA and Canada. It means to fail completely with a task or performance. (We *laid an egg*, and we need to move by it as quickly as possible.)

The expressions *make a play* and *play the game* are very similar, both expressing an effort which was expected. In the text was later stated that the expected effort was not successful. (We just *didn't make a play*.)

9.6 Northampton 23-13 Ulster (Text A06)

This article is a rugby match report. It describes the match itself and also provides commentaries from the main representatives of both involved teams.

- Professionalisms - *conversion, finisher, flank, kick, penalty, referee, score, second-half, semi-finals, set piece, tackle, try, winger*

All the professionalisms are connected with rugby. Different types of players are named (*finisher, flank, tackle, winger*) and various types of activity within a game are described (*conversion, kick, penalty, try*).

The reader of the article should be aware of these professionalisms, because their meaning is necessary for understanding the text, as the occurrence of these terms is high.

- Metaphors - *a margin to bridge, battle bravery, carved his way through, dream start, drove through the middle, finisher, firepower, plant the ball, rolled through the tackle, sun-drenched stadium*

There are three similar expressions for a movement on the playing field (*carved his way through, drove through the middle* and *rolled through the tackle*). All the metaphors combine the adverb *through* with a verb. Two of these metaphors are used in a single sentence. (The Tongan *drove through the middle, rolled through a despairing* Ulster tackle and planted the ball over the line.)

Other metaphors are two examples of war metaphors within the article. Both metaphors *firepower* and *battle* are derived from a military terminology.

- Hyperboles - *despairing tackle, explosive start, faint hopes, huge let-off, too great*

These hyperboles are used as an exponentiation of the impression on the readers. The expression *too great* is a typical example of exaggeration, the adverb *great* which has a very positive meaning itself is emphasized by another adverb *too*, giving an extra positive impact.

The frequent use of hyperboles shows a big enthusiasm of the author, but on the other hand it can lower the degree of formality of the text.

- Collocations - *hard-fought victory, team mate, vital score*

The collocation *team mate* (also *teammate*) appears very frequently in the sports field. It is used when a team has more than two players who compete with each other. When there are only two players, the term *partner* or *co-player* is used.

The lexeme *victory* is can create collocations with a big amount of adjectives. According to the Oxford Collocation Dictionary, there are more than 35 entries with this noun. The collocation *hard-fought victory* explains how the victory was achieved.

- Idiom - *wasn't on the money*

The meaning of being on the money is to be correct or appropriate. In this text it is used to express that a part of the game (set piece) was not played as it was supposed or expected.

Occurrence of only one idiom in the text is surprising, but it displays a high level of formality, combined with a fact that the amount of collocations is not high either

9.7 2011 Masters: McIlroy All Alone atop Leader Board at 10 under Par; Tiger Woods Makes His Move (Text A07)

This article is about one of the four most important golf tournaments - The Masters Tournament. The article is extracted from The Washington Post

- Professionalisms - *birdie, bogey, bogey-free, bunker, co-leader, fairways, golf swing, golfers, hole, champ, leader board, major, par, round, tap-in birdie, under par*

The majority of these terms can be used only when speaking or writing about golf. They are very specific and unique. There are professionalisms, derived from the kinds of birds (such as *birdie, bogey* and others, not mentioned in this text - *eagle* and *parrot*). All these professionalisms are names of game situations, they describe how much shots a player has to hit before he put the ball into a hole. Both terms *birdie* and *bogey* are used in diminutive form.

Other unusual professionalism is *champ*, a slang expression used as an abbreviation of the word champion.

- Metaphors - *baby of the bunch, big bad wolf, get up-and-down, kids, precocious players, puppies, shot a lackluster*

Three metaphors are in a way synonymic (*kids, precocious players* and *puppies*). They all refer to the three mentioned young players and all of them describe a very young age. Another metaphor, comparing a player to a very young child, is *baby of the bunch*.

The metaphor *get up-and-down* is not a description of a movement, but it compares the off-balanced performance to the sine way.

There is just one example of a simile (*proud-as-peacock*) and one example of a hyperbole (*so much good golf*).

- Collocations - *casual bravado, couple of shots, front edge, leader board, seminal moment*

The collocation *seminal moment* is a common sport collocation, often used in various kind of sport. In every sport there is at least one seminal or crucial moment, when the result is decided.

Casual bravado can be also called *cliché*. It is a collocation, which expresses a frequent repetition of words which are said to make an impression, that the player is self-confident. The word *bravado*, borrowed from Old Spanish, means a false bravery. In this text, a sentence “*I don’t really care what anyone else does.*” is a typical example of a casual bravado. Other bravadoes are for example “*I will stay focused only on my play.*”; “*I don’t care if I am losing or winning.*” etc.

- Idioms - *get it going, look forward to, told the tale*

The idiom *to tell the tale* means to tell something bad about somebody behind his or her back. But in case of this article it means to sum up the situation or to provide an overview.

The idiom *to look forward to* is a very common idiom, not used only in the sports terminology but in everyday life.

There is an example of three synonyms present in the very beginning of the article. (The narrative Augusta National spun Friday afternoon appeared so *neat, nice, tidy*: Three young talents ...) They were probably used to attract the readers, or they could serve as symbols (three players - three expressions).

9.8 Inter Milan 2-5 Schalke (Text A08)

Another article from BBC Sport covers the first semi-final of the League of Champions, the most prestigious European football competition, where only the best football teams from European leagues compete.

- Professionalisms - *acute angle, break, Bundesliga, centre, cross, defender, drive, equalizer, goalbound, goalkeeper, halfway, head, header, Champions League, leg, long-ball, midfield, net, pass, penalty, penalty area, post, quarter-final, referee, second half, semi-final, shot, six-yard box, striker, trough ball, volley*

The occurrence of professionalisms in this text is very high. This is because of the fact that the game is very precisely described, providing many details. The reader should know all these expressions to understand the article properly.

There are many different types of players provided (*centre, defender, goalkeeper, header, striker*). That is also connected with the fact that the article is very detail, it is not focused only on players who score goals, as it is usual, but also on other players on the field.

- Metaphors - *ball fell kindly, clearance, cushion a header, defense was breached, dream start, first leg, head, lying in mid-table, pinpoint ball, probing long-ball, sliding a ball, strike, sweet finish, unleashed a shot, veteran*

Also the occurrence of metaphors is higher. There are four different metaphors with the noun *ball* (*ball fell kindly, pinpoint ball, probing long-ball, sliding a ball*). They all express the movement or character of the ball.

- Metonymy - *Inter, Leonardo's side, Serie A side, show red*

All the three metonymies *Inter, Leonardo's side and Serie A side* are synonyms, they refer to the football team Inter Milan. Serie A is an official name of the most prestigious league in Italy.

To *show red* means to disqualify a player from the match (by a referee) by tossing a red card on a player because he roughly violated the rules. *Showing red* is a part-whole metonymy, not the colour but a red-coloured card is shown.

- Hyperbole - *desperate lunge, enthralling and unpredictable finish, exquisite technique, fire wildly wide, hapless Cesar, huge blow, sublime volley*

There are many appearances of hyperbole, showing the author's emotions. An interesting hyperbole is "*enthralling and unpredictable finish*". The double exaggeration is not very common and it points out the importance and dramatic charge of the last minutes of the game.

The hyperboles *desperate lunge* and *hapless Cesar* both express very negative emotions by the exaggeration.

- Simile - *it looked like the champions were finding the rhythm, looking all but over, nervy-looking defense*

All the similes are created with different forms of the lexeme *look*. The first mentioned hyperbole is long and very descriptive; the other hyperboles are in a standard length.

The simile *looking all but over* is interesting from the point of view that it is not based on a similarity. It allows all possibilities but not the one mentioned in the expression.

- Collocations - *all square, fine save, own goal, regain the lead*

All square is a commonly used expression for a tied game, when both sides have the same chances to win a game or a match.

The collocation *fine save* is typical for the sports where there are goalkeepers who stop a shot by a successful manoeuvre.

To score an own goal is not a positive expression as it may sound, but it is a word combination which means to score the goal into one's own net, so the other team has the advantage.

- Idioms - *at full stretch, build-up play, firing home, first leg, pull the strings*

Firing home is an idiom used in sport, when a player passes a ball (or puck, depends on the sport) towards his own goalkeeper in order to solve a dangerous game situation.

The idiom *first leg* is a metaphorical expression, meaning the first stage of a tournament (usually called *first round*).

9.9 Giants Outgun Rangers in Opener (Text A09)

The article from the BBC Sport deals with one of the most popular sports worldwide - baseball. It is a report about an important match of the National Baseball League (NBL). With a relatively small amount of metaphors, collocations and idioms, it can be assumed that the degree of formality is high and the text is more descriptive than emotional.

- Professionalisms - *at-bat, base, baseman, bullpen, bunt, catcher, double play, drive-in, ground ball, home run, hosts, inning, National League, opener, outs,*

pitcher, plate, post-season, rally, reliever, runners, runs, sacrifice fly, single, starter, visitors, World Series

The occurrence of professionalisms in this article is very high. Baseball is a difficult sport with a lot of terminology, and all the most important terms are provided in this text.

Professionalisms *hosts* and *visitors* are traditional expressions of a two teams. The team which plays on a home stadium is called the hosting team, and logically, a team which came from a different city or state is called the visiting team.

There are several terms which are very important because they describe different aspects of the play, therefore they are necessary for the readers to be aware of them, otherwise they will not understand the article properly. (*at-bat, bunt, double play, drive-in, home run, inning, outs, runs, sacrifice fly*)

- Metaphors - *commanding lead, mountain to climb, sacrifice fly, smashed a double, suffered the defeat*

The metaphors *commanding lead* and *suffered a defeat* are connected with a war or military. The appearance of war metaphors in the sports terminology is usual, since sport is also a battle between two opponents.

The metaphor *a mountain to climb* does not mean that a player or a team has to climb a mountain but it expresses a difficult obstacle which is necessary to overcome.

- Metonymy - *Giants, Rangers*

Appearance of metonymy, which uses the name of the team for the players, is present in this article. Usage of a metonymical expression “*Giants*” is more attractive than using a long expression “*San Francisco Giants players*”.

- Simile - *at all looked to be going well, that was as good at it was*

These similes help the readers to imagine more a current situation and provide them a better description

- Collocations - *high-scoring game, suffered the defeat*

The collocation *high-scoring game* is used in all sports when there are a lot of goals or points (usually in football, ice hockey, baseball or rugby).

To suffer a defeat is also a widely used collocation, it describes the expression *be defeated* or *lose* in a more emotional, metaphorical way.

The report did not include idioms, which supports the estimation that the text was written in a formal way.

9.10 Court Vision: The Latest around the League (Text A10)

This article, focused on basketball, is taken from the BBC Sport and is very emotional. There are both reports of the match and quotations from the coaches. A frequent use of idioms, collocations, hyperboles and metaphors signals a low degree of formality.

- Professionalisms - *attack, ball, beat, conference, crossover, defenders, defense, dribble, hoop, league, MVP, NBA, offense, paint, pick-and-roll, playoffs, points per possession, postseason, rebounding rate, scoring, screener, season, semifinals, teammates, teams, timing, title, trade*

These professionalisms are created mainly by terms related to basketball (*dribble, hoop, paint, points per possession, screener*)

Other terms are connected with the basketball league, such as *conference, playoffs, postseason, semifinals, teams* or *title*.

There are two initialisms present in the article; it is *MVP* (*the most valuable player* - an annual award for a player) and *NBA* (*National Basketball Association* - the official name of the basketball league in USA).

- Metaphors - *anchor them heading into the playoffs, big men, Bulls destroyed Celtics, carry a burden, defense fades, Derric Rose obliterated Rajon Rondo, orchestrating outside of his play, refined game, scoring margin, swept the Heat*

An example of metaphor connected with music appeared in the text - *orchestrating outside* of his play. This metaphor shows a precise play, similar to an organization of the orchestra.

There are several examples of emotional ways how to express a situation (*Bulls destroyed Celtics, Rose obliterated Rondo* and *swept the Heat*). All of these expressions are emotionally charged and describe a very strong and quick action.

- Metonymy - *Bulls, Celtics, Heat, Lakers, Magic, Orlando*

Also in this article, there is a presence of names of the teams which serve as a name of the players. All the metonymies are derived from the team names (*Chicago Bulls, Boston Celtics, Miami Heat, Los Angeles Lakers and Orlando Magic*).

- Hyperboles - *a ton of games, absolutely unfair, brilliant performance, brutal crossover, enormous stress, fabulous year, greatest sadness*

The big amount of hyperboles shows a lower degree of formality. By exaggerating, the author wants to express emotions and distorts the true description of the match. The hyperboles such as *a ton of games* and *brutal crossover* are unambiguous example of a pure exaggeration.

The hyperboles *enormous stress* and *greatest sadness* are both connected with an excessive description of a shape.

- Simile - *as basic as math gets, based as much on observations as on stats, enjoy as much as anyone, looking more and more like it will be the Celtics' undoing, lot of stuff like this, so simple an elementary school student could understand it with a few minutes of teaching*

These similes are interesting because of their length. Usually, similes consist of two or three words, but in this article, they are even a whole sentence long. By this length, they describe the situation more precisely.

- Collocations - *barrage of criticism, easy target, play well, title contender*

Occurrence of war metaphors is present in the text. *Barrage* is a term borrowed from French and it means to overwhelm someone with question, or, in this case with a criticisms. *Target* is also connected with military.

- Idioms - *barring a miracle, draw the attention, for real, pick-and-roll*

Pick-and-roll is the only one of the idioms mentioned which is not used in the everyday language, it is a specific idiom used only in basketball to describe an offensive play

CONCLUSION

This bachelor thesis deals with sports journalism. It is focused on the usage of sports jargon, which refers to a specific terminology used to report various sports events. In comparison to other branches of journalism, sports journalism is more informal as the delivered information is not as crucial as for example in politics.

The statement that sports jargon is based on professionalisms, which was mentioned in the theoretical part, was proven to be right. Professionalisms were the most frequent element of the sports jargon in eight out of ten analysed texts. Collocations were the most frequent feature in TextA02 and TextA03; metaphors in TextA04 (see Chart 1).

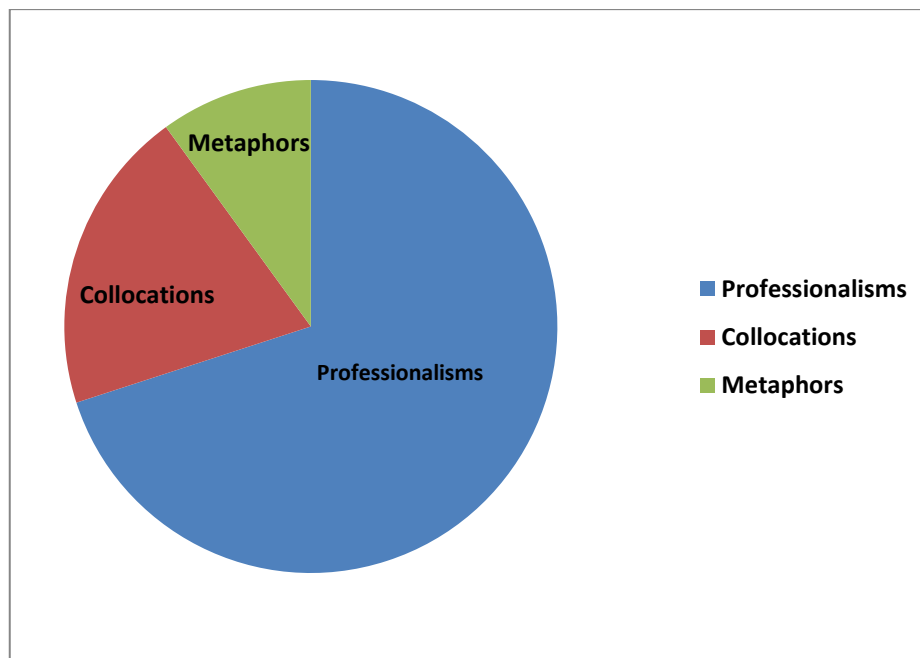


Chart 1: The Most Frequent Features in Texts (self-created)

Understanding of professionalisms is crucial for understanding of the whole text. Some sports professionalisms used in sports which are well-known and popular in particular countries can be identified easily as they are frequently used in the everyday language. For Czechs, professionalisms from ice hockey, football or tennis are more comprehensible than from baseball or rugby.

According to the analysis, the texts with high occurrence of hyperboles and idioms have a lower degree of formality. The trustworthiness of the text is decreased by using exaggeration and slang expressions.

Surprisingly, lexical devices which occurred in texts were very closely connected, for example the majority of collocations and idioms were based on metaphors and many collocations were created by the usage of professionalisms.

To conclude, this bachelor thesis provides a way to a better understanding of the sports jargon and offers an outline of its most frequent elements.

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LIST OF CHARTS

Chart 1 The Most Frequent Features in Texts (self-created)

APPENDICES

P I Analysed texts (see the enclosed CD).