

# **Reflections of the Current Ebola Epidemic as Reported in the British and American Press: A Linguistic Analysis**

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## **ABSTRAKT**

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá analýzou amerických a britských novinových článků týkajících se současné epidemie Eboly.

Teoretická část uvádí základní informace o Ebole a přibližuje aktuální situaci ve Velké Británii a Americe, dále zahrnuje teoretické poznatky týkající se žurnalistického stylu, historie novin, a také popisuje jejich jednotlivé části. Teorie pokračuje seznámením s periodiky, jež jsou následně využity v praktické části, poté představuje konkrétní lingvistické prvky, které jsou častým prvkem žurnalistického stylu.

Praktická část je zaměřena na lingvistickou analýzu vybraných novinových článků o současné epidemii Eboly, konkrétně jsou použita periodika The London Times, The Daily Telegraph, The Independent, The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post, The Los Angeles Times, USA Today a The Wall Street Journal.

Lingvistická analýza je zaměřena na hledání společných a odlišných lingvistických znaků ve vybraných člancích.

Klíčová slova: Současná epidemie Eboly, noviny, seriózní tisk, lingvistická analýza

## **ABSTRACT**

This bachelor thesis deals with an analysis of the American and British newspaper articles concerning the current Ebola outbreak.

The theoretical part presents basic information about Ebola and closely describes the current situation in Great Britain and the United States of America, furthermore contains theoretical findings about a journalistic style, history of the newspapers and also describes their individual components. The theory continues with an introduction of the newspapers which are subsequently used for the analysis, also introduces particular linguistic features which are often an essential part of the journalistic style.

The practical part focuses on the linguistic analysis of the selected newspaper articles about the current Ebola outbreak, the used newspapers are namely The Times, The Daily Telegraph, The Independent, The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post, The Los Angeles Times, USA Today a The Wall Street Journal.

The linguistic analysis is concentrated on searching the similar and different linguistic features in the selected articles.

Keywords: the current Ebola outbreak, newspapers, broadsheet newspapers, linguistic analysis

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## INTRODUCTION

There are many deadly plagues that terrorized human population throughout our history, some of them silent, quick and vicious, other slow, curable but equally dangerous. The fight against every single illness will never end and our only choice is to learn from the history and apply the knowledge to better not only us as human beings, but also our chances of long lasting and healthy life. Ebola belongs among the most serious and merciless diseases of the mankind and last year West African countries went through the worst Ebola outbreak in the history. This still ongoing outbreak very quickly became one of the main topics portrayed by the British and American media, especially by the press. My bachelor thesis is concentrating on the way Ebola was reported in the American and British broadsheet newspapers and the main reasons for choosing this topic are the currency of the situation and my interest in the discipline of linguistics.

The primary object of this thesis is to identify and contrast linguistic differences and similarities between the selected American and British articles found in the broadsheet newspapers.

The theoretical part firstly focuses on Ebola virus and its occurrence in the world throughout the history, then the focus shifts onto recent Ebola situation in the United States of America and Great Britain. Furthermore, the theory includes information about the journalistic style, newspapers types, features and their particular parts. The next included chapter deals with the concrete American and British broadsheet newspapers and their brief description and is followed by the chapter about linguistic features often used in the newspaper reporting.

The practical part is written in form of an analysis, concentrating on six pairs of articles covering the most crucial stories connected to the Ebola epidemic. I used nine American and British broadsheet newspapers, namely The Times, The Daily Telegraph, The Independent, The Guardian, The New York Times, The Washington Post, The Los Angeles Times, USA Today a The Wall Street Journal. After a brief introduction to each article the linguistic analysis concentrated on previously mentioned linguistic tools follows. The special attention is paid towards which tools are used more frequently than others and furthermore what are the main differences and similarities between the selected articles.

## **I. THEORY**

## 1 EBOLA VIRUS

Yambuku, the village situated in the Democratic Republic of Congo, is permanently linked to the first discovery and identification of the virus named Ebola. Although the expression Ebola is the name of the river flowing approximately sixty miles from Yambuku, a Belgian microbiologist Peter Piot used it to coin one of the most severe and in many cases lethal diseases found in our history. (Smith 2006) Even though Ebola virus is potentially young illness dated back to 1970's, it has become the source of growing fear and even has earned a nickname 'silent killer'. (columbian.com)

This virus disease formerly recognized as Ebola haemorrhagic fever, also known by acronym EVD (Ebola Virus Disease) strikes human population as well as wild animals such as bats, monkeys and others. In addition to that, the wild animals are identified as initial carries of the virus which subsequently spreads in the human population by means of human to human transmission, specifically through the bodily fluids. (Smith 2006) Hewlett explains more frequent occurrence of Ebola in African countries by pointing out the necessity of understanding cultural differences. People who live in African rural areas often hunt game animals, butcher and eat them for their high protein content. Those animals are usually the only source of food but at the same time become the source of infection. The probability of contagion rapidly increases when the natives handle the meat. This type of transmission is referred to as zoonotic. (Hewlett 2008, 4)

Among commonly known symptoms belong fever, bleeding, diarrhea, muscle pain and severe headache. Indeed, the symptoms occurrence may vary, but the average outbreak ranges from 2 to 21 days. (cdc.gov) Hewlett (Hewlett 2008) points out the difficulty of a correct diagnosis in the early stages of the illness due to the resemblance to other common tropical diseases. Death usually occurs within seven days after patient becomes symptomatic.

According to Smith there are five known subtypes of Ebola virus; however specifically four of them have caused disease outbreak in human population with fatality rate ranging from 53 to 90 percent. (Smith 2006, 35) Peters and LeDuc from National Center for Infectious Diseases, Atlanta, Georgia claim Ebola is considered to be a part of virus family Filoviridae and allege that EVD belongs among diseases "about which we have such profound ignorance". (LeDuc and Peters 1999, 9) Its predecessor called "Marburg" represents the first Filovirus in the world found in 1967 in the city of Marburg, Germany,

where 31 people contracted the virus. Although more rare, Marburg is still considered to be even more fatal and dangerous than Ebola strain itself. (who.int)

### **1.1 Most serious Ebola outbreaks**

Since the earliest Ebola outbreaks in 1976 twenty-five more have occurred, mostly situated in Africa. African countries are suffering a vast loss of lives due to poor quality of health care in affected regions. Living conditions, high population and local customs contribute to the rapid spread of the virus among African population. The last outbreak was identified as the most severe and fatal in the entire history of the virus – it has already taken lives of 10,835 people. (who.int) The New England Journal of Medicine published an article in which Jeremy Farrar, a British infectious disease specialist mentions that it took more than three months to determine the cause of deaths and conclude a diagnosis. Therefore, he claims this outbreak could have been stopped in the earlier stages and describes how lack of timely and effective humanitarian response caused the massive Ebola spread. Together with his colleague Peter Piot, Farrar points out the absolute priority of this ongoing Ebola outbreak – a permanent focus on epidemic combined with increasing response and active service. Their research clearly shows the entitled doubts concerning inability to bring epidemic to an end. (nejm.org)

Smith (Smith 2006, 13) lists the most serious Ebola outbreaks:

- Democratic Republic of the Congo and Sudan, 1976-1977 – 319 and 284 cases, 90% and 53% mortality;
- Democratic Republic of the Congo, 1995 – 315 cases, 81% mortality;
- Gabon, 1996 – 91 cases, 73% mortality;
- Uganda, 2000 – 425 cases, 53% mortality;

The latest Ebola outbreak which has started in March 2014 in West African countries recorded 26,044 cases so far and is still ongoing with 71% mortality. (cdc.gov)

### **1.2 Ebola in the United States of America**

In the autumn of 1989, monkeys imported from the Philippines finished their journey in Reston, Virginia facility. Scientists who have been working within facility noticed that several were already dead. Nevertheless, it was not seen as something unusual at that time. Few weeks after the incident a total of 29 monkeys had died. (Smith 2006, 27) She also states that scientists misjudged the cause of death and mistook Ebola for simian haemorrhagic fever, the disease similar to EVD, yet not harmful and dangerous to human

population. However, it was decided for USAMRIID (U.S. Army Medical Research Institute of Infectious Diseases) virologists to confirm the veracity of their diagnosis. The final result reached Reston facility by the end of November, showing different result of USAMRIID and stating that new strain of the Ebola was discovered. Eventually, the monkeys were killed and new strain of the virus was named “Reston” after the facility where it was isolated. This case surprisingly showed no human contagion, even though one of the workers sustained an incision from infected scalpel stained with blood. (Smith 2006) Following documented cases were closely similar and repeatedly found in Reston facility. Again, three people were not infected in spite of the fact that the virus entered their immune system but the symptoms simply did not show due to development of the antibodies. (gov.uk) In 1992 United States officials arranged more stern procedures concerning transport and quarantine of the imported monkeys.

### **1.2.1 The current reported cases of human contagion in the United States of America**

Presence of Ebola virus in the United States of America is madly discussed topic among all American citizens since September 2014. Smith mentions that although Ebola was already present in America for decades, it has remained its deadly and dangerous status with no increased attention until now. (Smith 2006) In principle, people developed a profound fear due to current situation in Africa without understanding the variety of safety and living conditions. The end of 2014 indisputably brought mass media attention and the effort to broaden knowledge about this disease was substantial.

First diagnosed patient, Thomas Eric Duncan, was a Liberian citizen visiting his family in the U.S. Apparently he lied at the Monrovia Airport when questioned about the contact with other Ebola infected people. He was hospitalized in Texas and died several days later. This event started the spreading of Ebola virus onto more people, such as two nurses who have treated Duncan. (cnn.com) The New York city registered one case, a doctor Craig Spencer who had previously visited Guinea for work and help with Ebola patients. Another seven American citizens were evacuated from affected countries of West Africa and put in hospital for the 21-day monitoring period but all of them showed no symptoms and since Craig Spencer was released healthy from the hospital there were no new reported cases. The United States of America show a total of four patients diagnosed with Ebola. (cdc.gov)

### **1.3 Ebola in the United Kingdom**

The United Kingdom unlike the United States of America does not have any previous history or encounter with Ebola. The first case of contagion was reported in December 2014 and since then then the UK government began to monitor the situation carefully. (who.int)

#### **1.3.1 The current reported cases of human contagion in the United Kingdom**

United Kingdom experienced first and at the same time the last case of Ebola on 29 December, 2014 when female healthcare worker returned back from Sierra Leone. The patient was transferred to London and recovered fully. There are no other known cases detected on UK soil. (bbc.com)

## 2 INTRODUCTION TO JOURNALISM

Journalism is a type of style which provides a never-ending stream of information and service to the public by gathering, analyzing and presenting news. According to Dočekalová the formation of journalism began in the 15th century, when businesses started to grow and new discoveries extended potential to create technical breakthroughs, such as the invention of printing press at the turn of the years 1447-1448. (Dočekalová 2006) Information became more accessible and people started to realize the richness and importance of communication. Conboy points out the interconnection between printing and its subsequent social and economic changes, which created right conditions for early journalism progress. The real boom of journalism arrived in the 19th century, also referred to as the golden age of journalism, when more new technologies including telegraph and steam-power printing press were developed. (Conboy 2004)

Dočekalová (Dočekalová 2006) describes journalism as a journalistic profession as well as products it creates to inform society about current affairs. Moreover, such products also provide public with more inside view completed with comments, connections and opinions. On the other hand, Rudin and Ibbotson (Rudin and Ibbotson 2002) portray journalism not only as a serious and responsible matter, but light and entertaining one as well. Its purpose does not always have to be informing the public about politicians or hard news, sometimes journalism is not simply about presenting news and sharing funny stories becomes equally important.

Journalism, as any other style, has undergone immense changes since its birth. Hargreaves (Hargreaves 2003) mentions the social, political and economic influence caused by increasing value of the information, which according to him has changed gradually, starting as something valuable, scarce and hardly obtainable and ending as something so easily obtained as the air around us. Zelizer (Zelizer 2004) shares a similar opinion when she describes how the information rose in value thanks to the need of public to be recognized and share one's opinion.

Nowadays news can be found everywhere – computers, mobile phones, billboards, etc. Information has also lost its monetary value, since we can easily access it for free. Solly et al. describe those changes as a revolution, which allows journalists to do the research more effectively and accurately due to a “whole new world of opportunities”. (Solly 2007, 7) Access to the research material has become rather extensive and the public is able to hear or read the news as it is happening. This is too supported by Zelizer who claims

“journalism offers reports, story-telling and commentaries in the public media about events and ideas as they occur.” (Zelizer 2004, 23)

## 2.1 Journalistic Style

According to Rao journalistic style refers to “a particular way of writing or a special manner of expression.” (Rao 2011, 10) Style is highly dependent on people’s perception despite its subjectivity, in other words, it matters what others think and how they feel about it. Rao also adds three qualities – accuracy, ease and grace, which every good writing style should follow. To produce a good journalistic writing is thus based on persuasive, well defined, clear and fluent thinking. However, Knight (Knight 2010) points out that rather than concentrate on the style, the writer should work on writing skills and try to create powerful and rhythmic sentences, because to follow the style often means to ruin the message. Additionally, Cotter (Cotter 2010) claims all journalists are careful when it comes to choosing the right words which simultaneously follow the prescriptive norms.

Unlike many other styles, journalism cannot deviate from reality; it must inform public about facts and figures, not about imaginary characters. (Rao 2011)

## 2.2 Newspaper Style

There are four types of style that Rao (Rao 2011, 12) lists and considers to be important in journalistic point of view:

- *plain style* – a commonly known type of style with lack of verbiage, written in the most readable way, but simultaneously very intricate to author;
- *stately style* – a prestige style with enhanced diction, rich and powerful sentences, usually contains phrases creating a punchline at the end of the sentence;
- *polished style* – a style defined by simplicity and elegance, sometimes including exaggerations to revive the reading and attract the readers;
- *powerful style* – a style adapting techniques such as euphemisms, compound sentences, compelling pauses, briefness and giving question without supplying an answer.

All the listed styles are used when writing newspapers, however according to Rao the plain style is preferred for its brevity, which meets the requirements of busy readers.

The journalists have to concentrate on three aspects of good newspaper style and according to Knight (Knight 2011, 251) those aspects are:

- *ledes* – features which introduce the story to the reader and attract their attention, point out the important facts and also make the writing efficient;
- *quotes* – direct quotations and keystones of every article, based on the most fundamental form of the research – conducting interviews;
- *brevity* – emphasis on short and simple sentences and paragraphs rather than complex ones.

### 2.3 News Values

News values are meant to be seen as a guideline for reporters and writers and their role is to help determine which piece of news is worth the attention. (Cotter 2010)

This term was created by Galtung and Ruge in 1965 and brought a fresh concept for those on professional level, who wanted to deliver the most remarkable stories to the public. For the time being, their findings were considered as a great contribution. However, inevitable changes always need new improvements and since every existing good story should meet certain newsworthy values, those values were portrayed, revised and emphasized many times by many authors, including Lanson and Stevens (Lanson and Stevens 1994, 35):

- *impact* – very strong, often negative effect on public, for example war conflict, military coup or infectious outbreak;
- *weight* – news standing out among other news, showing a bigger significance and importance;
- *controversy* – interesting and different approaches or opinions on the same topic, such as prosecutions, fights and debates;
- *emotion* – news that contain emotion take into consideration human emotions and feelings, for example stirring stories about ordinary lives or animal treatment;
- *the unusual* – describing the very opposite of cliché, for instance physical abnormality or atypical and unexpected behavior;
- *prominence* – concentration primarily on prominent members of our society, such as high officials or functionaries;
- *proximity* – local news seem more interesting and important than news far away from home, for instance a local murder is perceived as something more important than possible extinction of an animal in the Philippines;

- *timeliness* – the recency carries the value, old information loses glamour rapidly;
- *currency* – news with more public concern and stuck on people's mind have much bigger value than those less interesting;
- *usefulness* – news that contribute to the public by helping them with problem solutions are very valuable;
- *educational value* – news with educational content enrich the public with more useful information.

### 2.3.1 News Values and Feature Stories

Although feature stories can be found in every section of the newspaper and focus mostly on people and their stories, which is a significant difference in comparison to the news, its relationship is often confusing. As Ricketson states, many journalists use both terms with no special emphasis on its distinction. For instance, if some news story depicts how fifty people lost their lives when a hurricane hit, the feature story will probably focus more on one concrete person and his or her feelings, situation and other personal information. Ricketson analyses certain news values and their connection to the feature stories and points out which are important and which are not. For example *proximity* value loses significance because the features use a whole spectrum of emotions, more intimate details and put emphasis on the atmosphere. Moreover, *timeliness* apply only partly to the features; if new movie comes out and the interview is conducted, *timeliness* is necessary, but if a journalist decides to write a feature connected to death, illness or another topic of the public interest, *timeliness* becomes rather irrelevant. *Currency* is considered to be an interesting value for both features and news stories for its interconnection. If the news story manages to achieve *currency*, the readers become interested and want to find out more about the background and that is when the feature takes over. (Ricketson 2004)

### 2.3.2 Bad News

In case of presenting bad news to the public, there are three methods enabling to do it and since my theses topic includes the articles containing bad news, I decided to include them in my theoretical part. Pumarlo (Pumarlo 2005, 58) describes those methods:

- *the "spin" method* – method using confusion as the tool, turning the story from negative to positive by using a "positive spin"; (e.g. *My business partner lost*

90% savings. → 10% of our savings were saved thanks to my business partner.);

- the “comparison” method – method which uses even more worse story to make the presented one look not as bad as it really is; (e.g. *Although twenty people lost their lives, the situation could have been worse, and is much better than in similar reported cases.*);
- the “sandwich” method – method respecting the truth and accuracy, using good news as the cover and squeezing bad news in between; (e.g. *The police department was impressed with the swift strike, but they noticed several critical mistakes, nevertheless, the used techniques were brilliant.*).

### 2.3.3 Amplification

When journalists cover the selected stories with enormous impact on the public, for instance crime, war or in this case the contagious Ebola outbreak, they sometimes lean towards exaggeration and portray the disproportion between reality and their interpretation. Harcup states that when amplification is used as the tool the story can easily gain terrifying effect and sometimes the reader chooses to believe the act rather than the reality. He also claims that from the literary point of view amplification can simply extend the sentence by enriching information. By doing that, the sentence gains more sense and is much more comprehensible. (e.g. *This illness was dangerous. → This illness was dangerous: it required a specific protection including masks and suits.*) (Harcup 2014)

### 2.4 Inverted Pyramid Formula

According to McKane (McKane 2006) there are two ways how stories can be presented to the reader; chronological approach starts at the very beginning of the event and continues till the end in contrast to the second one, which starts right in the middle of the event and precisely chooses the most dramatic moment as the starting point. The second approach comes from Horace, the Latin poet, who used this idea when he was helping poets with creation of epic poems and advised them to begin with the most gripping event.

The usage of inverted pyramid is nowadays very common way how journalists create a story. It is based on the principle of gathering all the relevant information, subsequently followed by decision-making process, when data is analyzed and arranged according to the importance. The most newsworthy one (headline) is put at the top and then followed by all the remaining ones, with the least important at the end. Although it is not clear who created

inverted pyramid, Friend and Singer (Friend and Singer 2007) suggest the connection between telegraphic transmission and the length of the sent message, which was short and reduced, only to convey the essential content. Thus it is logical to assume that inverted pyramid principle was influenced, to a certain extent, by the invention of the telegraph. The individual components of the inverted pyramid, concretely the headline, lead, body and conclusion are described in more detail below.

#### 2.4.1 Headline

Headline is the most prominent element placed at the top of the newspaper article and the inverted pyramid, whose role is to attract the attention of the reader by catchy phrases and interesting visual aspects. Headline should be short, clear and have the ability to inform about the article content immediately. Type of the print is much bigger and bolder than the rest of the story and the shape may vary as well. Headline should match the story and therefore Cruz claims “it should contain nothing that is not found in the story”. (Cruz 1997, 224)

According to Fowler (Fowler 1991, 78) passive voice can be found very often in headlines, because it “saves space and immediately determines the topic”. Cruz (Cruz 1997) partially disagrees and claims that active voice is better choice for creating headlines, but simultaneously concurs with Fowler’s opinion and adds, that passive voice can be nice variation, especially when the writer does not know anything about the doer.

#### 2.4.2 Lead

Lead, as well as headline attracts attention of the reader and offers guidance into the story. Lead takes form of a paragraph, usually only one or two sentences long and briefly summarizes the story by answering questions such as how, who, when, where, why and what. Franklin (Franklin 2005) describes the lead, using the word intro, as a tool designed to grab the audience and offer them the main point of the story. According to Cruz (Cruz 2010, 30) there are three main types of leads:

- *conventional or summary lead* – used in straight news stories with effort to answer all the w’s above as soon as possible;
- *grammatical beginning lead* – certain kind of a grammatical form that introduces and emphasizes the lead; “w’s” and the “h” follow the form, still as a part of the main sentence, for example the infinitive-phrase lead (*To ensure their safety, employees are given a safety jacket, ...*);

- *novelty lead* – more often used in feature stories, captures reader's attention and is written in very specific manner such as the *picture lead* (*Fat and untidy, his breath smelling like a garbage, Francis Gilmore, today spoke about his life story.*) or *punch lead* (*The president was diagnosed with AIDS. This day is over, but the number of infected is still growing.*).

### 2.4.3 Body

Body, the main part of the article, preceded by headline and lead and followed by conclusion should contain everything that was promised by the opening elements. Thoughts, ideas, research and the main points have a particular task and that is to fit everything together and make a whole. Body always needs to keep a promise of the headline and stay as catchy, interesting and brisk as was predetermined, otherwise the reader stops reading after few lines due to boredom. It must provide detailed and objective information, support for all claims and answer all the questions which crossed the reader's mind since he was invited in by the headline. Body usually contains quotations and the information is arranged in decreasing order of importance.

### 2.4.4 Conclusion

Conclusion contains the least important information about the presented story, for instance the final quotes, and provides some kind of summary or may provide a way for the reader to access further information.

### 3 NEWSPAPERS

Hornby (Hornby 1990, 873) defines newspaper as “a printed publication (usually issued daily or weekly) consisting of folded unstapled sheets and containing news, articles, advertisements and correspondence”.

According to Sloan its long history reaches back to the Renaissance period, where so called *newsletters*, actually newspaper precursors, circulated among people in rather private manner. The content of those newsletters usually consisted of information about war, social and economic situation or features which would satisfy a human curiosity. Although handwritten, newsletters have already had a similar shape and form as newspapers have nowadays. Yet, one very strong difference can be found – the usage of headlines, which did not occur until 1640. Another known newspaper ancestor, named *corantos* appeared in 1622 and only special occasions and interesting events lead to its production. *Corantos* took form of a small pamphlet. The very first English newspaper was published in 1666 and was named *The London Gazette*. Sloan et al. mention that the first American newspaper published without authority appeared in 1690 and therefore all copies were destroyed immediately. Thus, *The Boston News-Letter* is considered to be the very first successful American newspaper published in 1704. (Sloan 2002)

#### 3.1 Types of the Newspapers

Today's market, abounding with numerous types of newspapers varying in format, size, thickness, seriousness, frequency and colour diversity, offers possibility of contentment for everyone. Rudin and Ibbotson claim “newspaper aims at a large circulation of general readers and is primarily a vehicle for topical news and information.” (Rudin and Ibbotson 2002, 45) Barnhurst and Nerone (Barnhurst and Nerone 2001) provide one of the most important divisions according to the format – broadsheet, tabloid and Berliner. According to them, the form of the newspaper is something that is designed to preserve and identify a particular paper even when the content changes every day.

##### 3.1.1 Broadsheet

According to Rudin and Ibbotson the term broadsheet refers not only to the size of the newspaper (large sheets of paper) but also to the certain attributes such as “seriousness and depth of the news coverage”. (Rudin and Ibbotson 2002, 10) The broadsheet press is focused on the text itself rather than on the visual aspects, which is one of the most visible differences in comparison to the tabloid. Education and higher social status tend to be

connected with the readers as well as respectability, decency and life in the suburbs. Williams (Williams 2010) points out the existing link between social classes and the types of newspaper they choose and states the possibility of recognition according to what newspapers he or she purchases, in other words people working in managerial positions would prioritize upmarket papers, for instance *The Daily Telegraph* or *Financial Times*.

As Richardson et al. (Richardson 2005, 29) put it, “broadsheet news values traditionally favor a mix of politics-plus-diplomacy-plus-war with the sport on the back page”. Richardson too points out the impact on the social situation, especially in Britain, where the habits of reading certain kinds of the newspapers visibly divide people according to the class. This fact has earned the broadsheet newspapers exceptional position among other types of papers and they are viewed as “epitome of journalistic excellence”. However, to extend this thought, Franklin et al. started to emphasize the effect of tabloid newspapers on the content as well as visual aspects of the broadsheet papers. He describes how they contain less foreign news and are filled with increasing number of photographs and opinions from columnists. As for the priority, there has been a noticeable shift towards printing stories typical for tabloid papers. Moreover, broadsheets now also contain many editorial features, which were primarily connected to the tabloid style as well. Franklin uses a neologism “broadloid”, coined by Alan Rusbridger, to point out growing similarities between those two formats. (Franklin 2005, 28)

### 3.1.2 Tabloid

Tabloid-style presents news to the reader in slightly amusing, funny and relaxed way. Since this format is connected with low quality journalism, its content matches expectations of the readers and offers them for example the mix of gossip, features, TV programs and shorter stories, which are written in slangy, informal way. Tabloids also cover celebrities and their lives and they use quite lurid way to do so. The form is easily recognizable for its colorfulness, small size (approximately half-size of the broadsheet), frequent occurrence of the pictures and photographs and sensational content. (Conboy 2006) To pinpoint a specific language difference between broadsheets and tabloids, example is provided: if broadsheet covers a crime story, the term *police officer* would appear in it, whereas if tabloid covers the same story, the word *cop* would be used instead. The tabloid headlines often contain grammatical omissions, alliteration or capital letters and use emotive verbs to awaken the attraction of the readers. Harcup (Harcup 2014)

provides information about the typical tabloid headlines, referred to as the banner headlines, using large font, which takes up almost the entire front page.

Although tabloids are perceived as a one-sided, low quality papers, Slot et al. (Slot 2012) presents changes in the newspaper industry, specifically the conversion of the broadsheet to the tabloid format. The main reasons may be decrease in the costs or paper savings, however, the conversion has caused downfall for advertisers, who often face difficulties when selling a different format. For instance, Slot names *The Independent* or *The Times*, the former broadsheet newspapers that fall under the tabloid format nowadays. According to him, the European market currently offers the majority of newspapers in the tabloid format.

### 3.1.3 Berliner

The Berliner format is said to be simultaneously the best selection of the broadsheet and the tabloid attributes, offering the quality, full color, size convenience and maintaining the broadsheet values such as the ethical code or formal language. (theguardian.com) This type of format is widespread in European countries, however, the UK newspaper *The Guardian* presented first Berliner in 2005. Alan Rusbridger, editor-in chief of *The Guardian* said “we believe the format combines the convenience of a tabloid with the sensibility of a broadsheet.” (theguardian.com)

Berliner format managed to find its place In the United States of America as well, although in some cases only partially, meaning the created formats have similar layout, but are different in the size and content. To be exact, *Lafayette Journal & Courier* in Indiana was the first to use this format in 2006. (Harcup 2014) Moreover, in 2011, *Chicago Tribune* had a new format makeover which was quite similar, only wider than Berliner format.

## 3.2 United States and United Kingdom broadsheets

To form the corpora for the subsequent analysis, I have decided to choose eight important American and British broadsheet newspapers and provide brief information about each. Furthermore, I have decided not to include tabloid newspapers in my analysis for the more obvious differences, thus I do not provide further and more concrete information about American and British tabloids.

### 3.2.1 USA Today

USA Today, the only American national newspaper, ranks among the most circulated daily newspapers in America and was founded in 1982. USA Today is also distributed in the

United Kingdom and is accessible online for free. Each edition consists of four sections, namely News, Life, Sports and Money and Friday edition serves as the compensation for the weekend, because the paper is not released on Saturdays and Sundays. Each section is identified by its chosen color and the newspapers supplement additional sections when special events, such as the Olympics or national holidays occur. (usatoday.com) Survey done in 2014 estimated the circulation of more than 4.1 million copies therefore USA Today is considered to be the newspaper with the highest average circulation in the United States of America. (poynter.org)

### **3.2.2 The Wall Street Journal**

The Staff of the Wall Street Journal claim “The Wall Street Journal publishes the world's most vital business and financial news and information”. (The Staff of the Wall Street Journal 2001, 158) The motto of the newspaper is “The Truth in its Proper Use”. The Wall Street Journal, firstly published in 1882, does not include only the information concerning businesses and finance, but also offers worldwide news and monthly launches WSJ luxury magazine. As any other newspaper, the Journal has expanded and added new sections, such as Arts, Lifestyle or Culture. Every research shows that the Wall Street Journal is perceived as the most reliable and believable American newspaper. With 2.2 million subscribers, it is the second largest and most successful newspaper in the United States of America by circulation. (wsjmediakit.com)

### **3.2.3 The New York Times**

The first issue connected with Henry Jarvis Raymond, the founder of the New York Times was published in 1851 and so far The New York Times received 96 Pulitzer Prizes. With the average circulation of more than 2.1 million copies, they are the third most successful newspapers in the United States of America. The motto “all the news that’s fit to print”, used for the first time in 1896 became a part of the front page and can be found in the upper left corner. Sterling states The New York Times are called “the newspaper of record” and according to him this title was received due to being the “preeminent and the most authoritative news source documenting current events”. The Times contains three main sections, namely News, Opinions and Features and is “an agenda setter for other media outlets”. (Sterling 2009, 1020)

### **3.2.4 The Washington Post**

With its base in the capital city of the United States of America, the Washington Post is regarded as a significant and rightful part of the most important national newspapers. The Washington Post, founded in 1877, is primarily focused on political situation and has already won 47 Pulitzer Prizes. Since the paper was acquired by Jeff Bezos, the Amazon founder, it has started to lean towards conservative and libertarian beliefs such as the climate denialism. (mediamatters.org) The average newspaper circulation per day reaches up to 377,466 copies. (statista.com)

### **3.2.5 Los Angeles Times**

Los Angeles Times had its first issue published in 1881. The ethics code of L.A. Times together with the code of The New York Times is strongly against the possibility of obtaining information from their sources for money. Although the majority of newspapers started to reduce international news, L.A. Times together with all the newspapers mentioned above (with the exception of USA Today) managed to maintain their reported amount. (Sterling 2009) The average daily circulation of the print newspaper ranges from 370,000 to 400,000 copies. (statista.com)

### **3.2.6 The Daily Telegraph**

The Daily Telegraph, formerly known as Daily Telegraph and Courier, founded in 1855 is viewed as the most desirable high-quality newspaper in the United Kingdom and its daily circulation ranging up to 511,000 copies sold surely supports this statement. The orientation fully leans toward right conservative side and the paper covers international and local news together with engaging features. (britannica.com)

### **3.2.7 The Guardian**

The British national newspaper named The Guardian issued its first copy in 1821 and today, with the average 186,000 copies sold per day occupies a respectable place in the market. As the paper supporting social democrats and liberals The Guardian respects certain values, for instance the social equality. The former broadsheet format was replaced by Berliner in September 2005 for its timeless appearance which brought a new fresh look to the broadsheet newspaper design. (theguardian.com)

### **3.2.8 The Times**

Formerly known as The Daily Universal Register, The Times published its first issue in 1788. This daily newspaper has the average circulation of 397,000 copies, which makes it the second most selling broadsheet in the United Kingdom. The Times is politically right oriented, specifically in the middle of the right and the center and supported by Conservative Party. The content is assembled from the news, opinions and comments, business and world data and sport section. (theguardian.com)

### **3.2.9 The Independent**

The Independent is relatively new to the British public for its quite recent (in comparison to the other newspapers) first publication, which took place in 1986. Since 2003, The Independent started offering two formats for the readers – traditional broadsheet and tabloid. The tabloid version kept all the broadsheet qualities and contains every single article or commentary that can be found in the broadsheet version. As for the circulation, The Independent sells approximately 62,500 copies per day. (independent.co.uk)

#### 4 THE LANGUAGE OF THE NEWSPAPERS

Every news story formation is affected by certain rules (rather generally accepted conventions) that are recommended to follow. Language of the newspapers is clearly recognizable if compared to, for instance, academic language. According to Crystal and Davy it is not objective, nor possible to concretely define language used in newspapers which have rich variety of sections and articles. Thus it is essential to focus on the main purpose of the newspapers, which is to inform society, to reach any fundamental conclusion. They also emphasize the fact that there are many aspects which need to be taken into consideration and blend together to create any sort of comprehensive linguistic analysis. (Crystal and Davy 1969, 173)

Cotter (Cotter 2010, 16) uses the terms “language“ and “discourse“ to summarize all the essential elements that take part in creation of a newspaper article. According to her, elements concerning language are part of the structure relating to syntax (use of tense, sentence structure), lexicon (word choice), sociolinguistics (e.g., indexicality, language attitudes, variation, usage), and pragmatics (e.g., inference, connectiveness). Discourse represents more extended meanings that go beyond the sentence structure and relate to coherence, communicative function or narrative.

It is essential for the sentences in individual paragraphs to link up and create a whole, thus the entire text must be coherent in order for the reader to be well oriented and informed. (Crystal and Davy 1969) Kroeger claims coherence of the text is ensured by the usage of deictic elements (personal pronouns, demonstratives), anaphoric elements and antecedents. (Kroeger 2005, 136)

According to Crystal and Davy (Crystal and Davy 1969, 184) “the group structure and the sentence structure are two main areas of stylistic importance.” To achieve the utmost comprehension for the reader, Crystal and Davy recommend introducing a text by using simple and shorter sentences which makes it more readable and clear. Complex sentences tend to be distributed among the simple ones, which ensure clarity as well.

Modality also represents indispensable part of the newspaper language. When writer wants to express an attitude, factuality, possibility or probability through a sentence, modality becomes the right instrument to do so. (Narrog 2012, 5) Among common examples of modals belong expressions like *should*, *could*, *will*, *can* or *must*.

The usage of action verbs in the newspaper language may indicate relations to certain objects, if such relations even exist. Transitive verbs like *have*, *make*, *tell*, *take* or *get*

always require a direct object, whereas intransitive verbs like *lie*, *arrive*, *continue*, *run* or *come* do not require a direct object to complete their meaning. However, certain verbs can be classified as both transitive and intransitive and those verbs are for example *manage*, *smell*, *eat*, *go* or *leave*. (Umstatter 2007, 189)

Crystal and Davy allege that adverbials are extremely common and important in newspaper reporting since they can fulfil an emphatic function. This fact can be achieved by putting an adverbial “anywhere near the beginning of the sentence”. (Crystal and Davy 1969, 182)

According to Coulmas direct speech in the newspaper reporting can be seen as one of the most essential parts of the text. Not only gives it credibility, but also the original speaker becomes a part of the story, which can cause a whole spectrum of emotions. (Coulmas 1986) By reading quotes the reader feels as if all the facts are currently happening. The usage of the direct speech introduces a freshness and currency to the former story. Indirect speech in the newspaper language is used simply for the act of reporting.

Rowe claims that active and passive voice in the newspaper reporting is closely connected with the intent of the writer, concretely if the aim is to place an emphasis on the receiver of the action like in the sentence *Health care worker was given a treatment after being wounded* or keep the “subject of the sentence as the originator of the action” like in *Doctors took care of the wounded health care worker*. (Rowe 2005, 77) According to Rowe, the active voice is perceived as livelier and easier option for the readers.

Another important lexical aspect of the newspaper reporting is a usage of figures of speech and the following subchapters focus on describing them in more detail.

## 4.1 Literal and Figurative Meaning

Certain expressions are sometimes used in different sense than *literal*, in other words, understand the meaning requires the ability to recognize the surrounding lexical and grammatical signs. This type of meaning is called *figurative*. (McGregor 2009) It can be said that the meaning is extended further from being just *literal* and the reader has to find its deeper sense on her or his own, which is very complicated and for someone unfeasible mission. I listed those processes of meaning extension that are significant for the linguistics.

### 4.1.1 Metonymy

McGregor emphasizes the importance of associations and claims metonymy is “an extension of the sense to another concept via typical or habitual association”, which means

that metonymy partially projects the meaning to another existing entity that is connected and non-hypothetically associated with the basis. (McGregor 2009, 131) Metonymy allows just one relation and “operates at phrase level only”. (Dirven and Pörings 2002, 9) This process of meaning extension is based on existing notional and figurative relationships between certain words, for example *I’m reading Remarque*. (I’m reading his book; connection between an author and his book) or *White House released a statement*. (The power authority released the statement; connection between the building and the political institution) or *There are a lot of clever heads in the classroom*. (There are clever people; connection between the body part and the person)

#### 4.1.2 Metaphor

Metaphor uses resemblance as the tool and in contrast to metonymy is only hypothetical because it sees “one thing in terms of some other thing (as if it were a journey)”; also allows more than one relation. (Dirven and Pörings 2002, 9) When we use metaphor, we select one entity and transfer its attributes to another, which can help us understand the first one more accurately. According to Barcelona (Barcelona 2003, 328) the first entity is called “the source domain” and the second one “the target domain.” Johnson and Lakoff (Johnson and Lakoff 1980, 295) present the most common types of metaphors:

- structural metaphor (e.g. *time is resource, love is journey, your heart is black*)
- orientational metaphor (e.g. *she was not able to rise above her feelings, speak up please*)
- ontological metaphor (e.g. *irresponsibility finally caught up with him, life has cheated him*)

#### 4.1.3 Synecdoche

According to Cuddon (Cuddon 2013, 704) synecdoche is “a figure of speech in which the part stands for the whole.” Thus this process of meaning extension allows us to understand something else within the introduced entity. Synecdoche is frequently used in everyday language and is quite similar to metonymy. The examples of synecdoche are listed below:

- using part to present the whole (*Hired hands did their job well*);
- using whole to present the part (*France won the silver medal at the Olympics*);
- using class to present the whole (*milk* is usually associated with cows, but there are many other sources and types of *milk*, such as a *goat, sheep, soy beans, almonds*, etc.);

- using material to represent the object (*woods* refer to the longest golf clubs);
- using container to represent the contents (*keg* refers to the whole steel barrel that contains beer).

#### 4.1.4 Personification

According to Cuddon personification portrays inanimate objects as if they were alive by means of the qualities characteristic for humans that are being assigned to them. It is frequently used in literature, especially when writers create poetry. *I hear the wind whispering, I see the sun smiling* and *I am loved by the trees* are three typical examples of personified inanimate objects. (Cuddon 2013)

#### 4.1.5 Hyperbole

Hyperbole is a figure of speech that uses exaggeration as the tool, therefore the sentences containing hyperbole cannot be taken literally. Claridge claims hyperbole can assign importance or desire to things and “inflate certain aspects while downplaying others”. Typical every day examples are: *I haven't seen you in ages. Your grandfather is as old as the hills.* (Claridge 2011, 217)

#### 4.1.6 Euphemism

Hoffmann describes euphemisms as gentle and sensitive indirect expressions enabling us to avoid hurt (*pass away* instead of *die*), unpleasant situations (*I'll think about it* instead of *no*), intimate expressions (*down there* instead of *my genitals*) or insinuation (*pre-emptive strike* instead of *unprovoked attack*) by being evasive. (Hoffmann 2009, 102)

The opposite of euphemism is called dysphemism which emphasizes imperfection (“*a filthy dirty face*”). (Cuddon 2013, 222)

## 4.2 Multi-word Expressions

Multi-word expressions are composed of two or more words that together form a meaning. Some of them are more predictable, another are more complicated and hardly comprehended.

### 4.2.1 Collocations

Learning English simultaneously means learning collocations, sometimes without even realizing it because they are a natural part of the language. Some words that are put together make sense more naturally than others, for instance instead of saying *my grandfather makes the right thing*, although the message is delivered, but in rather clumsy

and unnatural way, the collocation *my grandfather does the right thing* introduces precise, natural and fluent option which is more suitable. McGregor (McGregor 2009) presents typical examples of collocations called “binomials”, such as *up and down*, *salt and pepper* or *pen and paper*, which are fixed and very easily predictable word combinations.

McCarthy and O’Dell (McCarthy and O’Dell 2005, 12) provide more examples of collocations:

- adjectives and nouns (*delicious food, soft drink, romantic evening*);
- nouns and verbs (*keep an eye on something, take a chance, reach the summit*);
- noun and noun (*round of applause, a bar of chocolate, a bouquet of flowers*);
- verb and expressions with prepositions (*burst into tears, walk with pride, eyes filled with horror*);
- verbs and adverbs (*place gently, whisper softly, believe strongly*);
- adverbs and adjectives (*utterly stupid, fully equipped, happily married*);

#### 4.2.2 Idioms

Partially fixed expressions whose meaning is impossible to recognize by analyzing individual component words are called idioms. McGregor claims that substantial amount of idioms is quite conveniently changeable, at least to some extent; if we take an example that is possible to modify: “*He gave me a piece of his mind*”; we can alter it according to the time, people involved or its purpose: “*Don’t give him a piece of your mind* or *A piece of my mind is what I intent to give him*”. (McGregor 2009, 96)

The key element that helps us understand idioms is the context, providing further information which can indicate the meaning: *Hold your horses! You are angry and might regret your decision later.*

McCarthy and O’Dell (McCarthy and O’Dell 2002, 6) provide types of idioms:

- verb + object/complement (and/or adverbial) (*raining cats and dogs*);
- prepositional phrase (*in a split second*);
- compound (*a new lease of life*);
- simile (as + adjective + as or like + noun) (*as bald as a cue ball*);
- binomial (word + and + word) (*safe and sound*);
- trinomial (word + word + and + word) (*signed, sealed and delivered*);
- whole clause or sentence (*that’s the way the cookie crumbles*).

### 4.3 Semantic relations

Semantics examines the meaning of the words and sentences, moreover the meaning of miscellaneous signs that create the sentence. In other words, this study is primarily focused on the semantic sense of words and signs within the explored language. The following subchapter includes lexical semantic relations – relations based on the highly complex structure referred to as lexicon. According to McGregor (McGregor 2009, 137) the lexicon should not be seen as “mere listing” but should be comprehended as enormous network of segments with mutual connection.

#### 4.3.1 Synonymy

Semantic relation, where two words share similar meaning is named synonymy. McGregor (McGregor 2009, 137) states that it is rare to find two words with identical meaning, therefore some of them are described as “partial synonyms”; when we take two partial adjectives *strong* and *powerful* and use them separately for instance in collocations, we can observe how important is the group of words which surrounds them: we can use both *strong* and *powerful* when we refer to arms (*he has strong arms, he has powerful arms*) without causing confusion; in contrast we cannot apply both adjectives when we use collocation strong head for alcohol and substitute *strong* for *powerful* without losing its meaning. Stanojevic (Stanojevic 2009) claims two words with the exact same meaning do not exist therefore it would be untruthful to define synonyms this way.

Synonyms are also connected with dialects, for example with British vs. American English (*lorry* vs. *truck, lift* vs. *elevator, jumper* vs. *sweater*).

#### 4.3.2 Antonymy

Antonymy represents semantic relation, where two words share the opposite meaning. There are several types of antonyms that are identified by McGregor (McGregor 2009, 137):

- gradable antonyms - which depict particular degrees between two antonyms by means of comparative constructions (*fast* and *slow* can be used like *faster than* and *slower than*);
- non-gradable antonyms – which represent exact opposites and do not use gradation (*pass* and *fail, dead* and *alive, male* and *female*);

- reverses – which are pairs of words that represent contradictory movement and can be also interpreted as opposites (*push* and *pull*, *rise* and *fall*, *inflate* and *deflate*);
- converses – which are antonyms distinguished by contrasting points of view (*own* and *belong to*, *like* and *please*, *give* and *receive*).

#### 4.3.3 Homonymy

Homonymy stands for the expressions which have identical spelling but differ in meaning, for instance *chest* (as part of a human body) and *chest* (as a box with a lock). McGregor claims that homonymy can be homophony as well (when they share the same phonological form). Words that share this phenomenon are called homophones, for instance *boy* (as an opposite of a girl) and *buoy* (as an object floating on water). He adds that some words are only partial homophones since not all of their shapes share the same phonological forms, such as a verb *bear* and a noun *bear* (past simple of the verb has different phonological form). (McGregor 2009)

#### 4.3.4 Hyponymy

According to McGregor the term hyponym represents subcategory of a term that is perceived more generally, for instance *shirt* is the subcategory of *clothes*. Thus, the term hyponymy represents the relation between those two categories, where the higher one is called superordinate (also referred to as hyperonym). Certain terms fall into this analysis more naturally than others (eg. colours, plants, animals or kinship) (McGregor 2009)

Mott (Mott 2009) points out hyponymy is a transitive relationship – if *cat* is a hyponym of animal, the *Munchkin Cat* is a hyponym of *cat* and simultaneously a hyponym of *animal*.

#### 4.3.5 Meronymy

Meronymy defines a relation between the whole and its components and in contrast to hyponymy is not a transitive relationship – it can be said that *cornea* is part of *eye* and *eye* is part of *head*, but not that *cornea* is part of a *head*. (Mott 2009)

Typical examples of meronymy are *door* and *window* seen as part of a *room* or *wheel* and *pedal* as part of a *car*. (McGregor 2009, 138)

## **II. ANALYSIS**

## 5 THE INTRODUCTION TO THE ANALYTICAL PART

The analytical part focuses on locating the linguistic differences and similarities in the selected British and American broadsheet newspaper articles dealing with the current Ebola outbreak. I assembled twelve articles and created six pairs, where each pair always contains one article from the British and one from the American broadsheet and covers the same event. Subsequently, the linguistic analysis was done to create clear conclusions showing all the different and similar approaches used when the articles were put together, furthermore I concentrated on the features of the headlines as well. I strived for the most accurate findings by using as many tools described in the theoretical part as possible. Selected topics for the six pairs are the death of Thomas Eric Duncan who was the first Ebola victim in the United States of America, the case of Pauline Cafferkey, a British health care worker who contracted Ebola while working in Sierra Leone, Obama's reflections on the Ebola outbreak, the second Ebola case in the United States of America, new Ebola outbreak in Sierra Leone and the case of a Spanish nurse who contracted Ebola while helping already infected priest.

Using online databases, I was unable to compare and contrast the visual aspects of the newspaper articles.

To provide basic information and give you a good sense of a background, I am going to write a brief introduction for every article. Subsequently I will focus on the headlines and look for the linguistic methods that contributed to their creation. I will also find out how many "w" questions each headline answered and try to examine the differences and their purpose. Then I will continue with the analysis of the articles, concentrating on the usage of direct speech, modality, examples of verbs, looking for the phrasal verbs in particular, and sentence structures, mainly grammatical constructions called apposition and parallelism. I will discover and describe the figures of speech and multi-word expressions that occurred in the texts as well. Using the news values that I described in my theoretical part, I am going to examine the frequency of occurrence and their application in the selected texts.

Ebola outbreak, or any other topic connected with death for that matter, is very serious topic and therefore I expect that I will not find many metaphors and idioms in these texts. Those figures of speech are more likely to be found in the tabloid press which deals with rather lighter topics. However, grave topics depicting death, diseases or war conflicts often

use euphemisms to ease a gravity of the situation and provide a reader with some sort of a consolation and therefore I expect to find them in the articles.

Throughout the whole analysis I will focus only on those features used in connection with the Ebola outbreak for that is my thesis topic.

On the other hand, I assume the American broadsheets will contain more direct speech due to the fact that the United States is more affected by the Ebola issue than the United Kingdom.

After the analysis of each pair I will include a conclusion in every section, where I will focus on contrasting and comparing my findings. I will summarize all the gathered information in the final conclusion and concentrate on the main linguistic differences and approaches used in the British and American broadsheet press.

Every article constituting the analytical part is available on enclosed CD.

## 6 ARTICLES CONCERNING THE CURRENT EBOLA OUTBREAK FROM THE AMERICAN AND BRITISH NEWSPAPERS

I selected twelve articles describing main events that took place during the current Ebola outbreak that began in March 2014. For each of those events I found two articles, one American and one British and created a pair. For obtaining the British articles I used The Independent, The London Times, The Daily Telegraph and The Guardian. For obtaining the American articles I used The New York Times, The Los Angeles Times, USA Today, The Wall Street Journal and The Washington Post. I worked with archives that are available online. Each article has an assigned acronym to achieve a clear orientation.

### 6.1 The Death of Thomas Eric Duncan

Thomas Eric Duncan, a Liberian, was the first person in the United States diagnosed with Ebola. He came to the United States on 20 September 2014 to get married, but already felt ill and four days later decided to visit a Texas hospital, where he was told to go home. Another four days later he was hospitalized in Texas Health Presbyterian and kept in isolation. His condition progressively worsened and regrettably, Thomas Eric Duncan died on 8 October 2014. Two following articles cover his story and death.

#### 6.1.1 The Independent: Thomas Eric Duncan dead: First US Ebola victim dies in a Texas hospital (I1)

The headline answers the questions *who* (T.E. Duncan), *where* (Texas hospital), *what* (dead) and *why* (Ebola victim), therefore fulfils its informative function quite extensively. The colon usage introduces elaboration and readers expect to be provided with further information. In this case, the colon also puts an emphasis on the reported fact, which makes the readers stop and think more deeply. This is also supported by the fact that the word *dead* is mentioned two times in the headline, although in different forms. The headline appears to be strictly informative and does not contain any secondary facts, also partially omits verbs, which is a typical aspect associated with the creation of headlines.

By means of an apposition the first lines of the article simply repeat what was given by the headline. (*Thomas Eric Duncan, the first person to be diagnosed with Ebola in the US, has died according to the hospital where he was being treated.*) The apposition appears once again when symptoms are described in more detail (*...but fell sick a few days – suffering from a fever, headache and abdominal pain*). The following lines present the reader with

an example of a direct speech, the only example found in the entire article. In this quotation the hospital spokesman expresses feelings and informs the public about Duncan's death. The quotation gives the article credibility and brings out emotions. I found two examples of modality (*we must inform you; however, there is no approved treatment*) and two examples of phrasal verbs (*step up, ran out of*).

The article continues in a form of a story, depicting Mr. Duncan's deteriorating condition and the disease progress, also mentioning a new term *ZMapp* (coinage) created to name an experimental drug.

Using intertextuality, the article reminds readers of the situation in West Africa where the epidemic started in March 2014. This strategy functions as a linkage between events and connects them together, in other words it evokes incident from the past to put the current one into context.

The second part of the article contains more positive information, the writer refers to the US Secretary of State and the British Foreign Secretary, reassures the public by the fact that everyone who had been in contact with Duncan was isolated. The last paragraph reminds about the way the virus is spread and emphasizes that the chance of the disease spreading is very small, which appeases the public.

I would like to include examples of collocations (*became ill, deadly virus, health screening, fell sick, emergency room, aid workers, medical staff, bodily fluids, disease spreading, direct contact, incubation period, fearful of, linked with, profound sadness, heartfelt disappointment*) and metonymy (*the hospital has since acknowledged; according to the hospital*).

The overall impression is that the article is definitely newsworthy, for it includes current information with strong impact on the public and is useful and partly educational as well.

### **6.1.2 The Los Angeles Times: Thomas Eric Duncan of Liberia dies of Ebola in Dallas (ALT1)**

The headline of this article answers the questions *who* (T.E. Duncan), *what* (dies), *where* (in Dallas) and *why* (Ebola). The first obvious and noticeable fact would be the necessity to inform about his nationality right in the headline by the usage of a modifier *of Liberia*, therefore the readers immediately know that he was not an American citizen. In this case, the headline includes the most important facts and does not include anything else.

The opening paragraphs use an apposition which identifies the main points in different way and provides further information. (*Thomas Eric Duncan, the first person diagnosed with*

*Ebola in this country, died amid allegations...; Duncan, 42, had just a few days with his fiancée, Louise Troh, before being hospitalized...*) These paragraphs are written in very long and complex sentences, containing several facts at once. The article also demonstrates an example of parallelism (*masked, gloved and heavily cloaked medical workers*).

The text contains twelve examples of direct speeches and the majority of those speeches convey very strong emotional charge from a sympathy, indignation, personal feelings and opinions, allegations to a lack of sense of belonging. This spectrum of emotions arouses a public interest, however certain parts border with sarcastic remarks, which could influence reader's perspective on the issues connected with African citizens. (*I'm willing to stake my life on the fact he didn't have insurance. He's from Liberia!*) This is simultaneously an example of generalization, assuming that every African citizen does not have insurance.

A syntactic phenomenon, modality, occurs in the text as well (*initial missteps in his treatment might have spread the virus further, he would have preferred to stay in Liberia, I would not put the love of my life in danger, we must inform you*). Phrasal verbs (*grew up, put in, took place, placed on dialysis*) are another part of the article structure.

As for the figurative meaning, I managed to find two metaphors in one of the quotations (*The real elephant in the room is, the man is black; Price described Texas Health Presbyterian, a 898-bed hospital, as a "boutique" facility*), examples of metonymy (*much of the country became transfixed; the hospital didn't treat him right*) and one example of synecdoche (*the face that we now associate with Ebola*). Multi-words expressions called collocations (*substandard care, spread the virus, low risk, developed symptoms, deep sadness, refugee camp, deepest sympathies, prominent leaders, initial failure, potential victim, long history, multicultural community, incubation period, remain quarantined, confirmed diagnosis, deadly viruses, health workers, liver function, experimental drug, insidious disease, plan a funeral, fought courageously, heavily sedated, put in danger, receive a drug, come in contact, show signs, applying for a visa*) were used the most.

The article contains a number of abbreviations (*Rev.* as a reverend, *Sept.* as a September and *Oct.* as an October) as well.

The article has a very peculiar ending that is portrayed by returning to the very beginning of Duncan's journey. This is a very powerful and capturing literary device called flashback (*He packed a backpack and a suitcase, and told neighbors he was going to America, he planned to build a house for his family*) which compels the readers to think about the whole article one more time. The flashback also helps with an understanding of the occurring situation.

### 6.1.3 Conclusion

The most frequent features found in both articles are collocations. Collocations such as *heartfelt disappointment*, *profound sadness*, *deadly virus* or *incubation period* were used many times by both newspapers (I1, LAT1), partially because both newspapers quoted the same sources. I would point out the use of expressions with similar meaning, synonyms, concretely *show symptoms* (I1) and *develop symptoms* (LAT1), furthermore expressions relating to potential victims such as *isolate* or *quarantine* (I1) and *confine* or *remain inside* (LAT1). Another powerful aspect of the two analyzed articles is a direct speech. I1 used only one quotation of Mr. Watson, hospital spokesman, whereas LAT1 used eleven quotations, which is a remarkable difference, though I must add the LAT1 printed a significantly longer article. One can say that the main difference is the length, but I think the main difference is chosen approach. Both articles inform about the event dutifully, but LAT1 includes numerous opinions and comments from family members and other members of society, therefore is more emotional and extensive. While I1 only informs about the crucial facts, the LAT1 deals with Mr. Duncan's nationality, approach of the hospital where he was treated and possible mistreatment. These facts make the article much more miscellaneous and this may be the reason why I found two examples of metaphor in LAT1 and none in I1. LAT1 differs from I1 by the frequent usage of apposition as well. Another concrete example is *two others remain hospitalized – one in Atlanta and one in Nebraska – after being flown from Africa*. I1 used the apposition twice. The overall view is the LAT1 contains a significantly higher number of collocations and authentic statements and appears to be more readable, for is written in a form of a story, whereas I1 strictly informs and reminds the readers about the situation, disease spreading and precautions. The article in I1 provides the negative information in the beginning, whereas in LAT1 the negative information is provided throughout the entire article. Both headlines are written in active voice, the headline in I1 puts more emphasis on what happened.

## 6.2 Case of the British Health Care Worker

Two following articles inform about a female health worker who contracted Ebola virus while working in Sierra Leone. Both articles mention other reported cases of two nurses who experienced similar situations and recovered fully.

### 6.2.1 The New York Times: UK Military Health Care Worker Has Ebola, Officials Say (NYT1)

The headline the article informs readers about the occupation and nationality of the person, using an initialism UK (United Kingdom), however does not specifically answers the question *who* (no name or gender), furthermore provides the source of the information (Officials). The headline makes the reader wonder about the details such as where and how it actually happened, therefore fulfils its role to draw ones attention.

The article is very short and only three paragraphs are directly connected with the mentioned military worker. The rest of the article is about anti-Ebola system of the United Kingdom and two another paragraphs mention events which already took place. By including those events, the article offers knowledge about the ongoing situation to the public and simultaneously links the events together. The negative information is mentioned right in the beginning and the rest of the text is rather neutral, only informative. I found two examples of the same modal auxiliary verb (*will be medically evacuated, will be taken in due course*) that convey some sort of a prediction. Furthermore, the article contains one example of a direct speech. The text contains mostly transitive verbs (*contract, reveal, bring, take*).

Another part of the article are metonymy (*Britain has an extensive anti-Ebola effort; Ministry of Defense said...; Public Health England have said*) which stand for the specific people. The most frequently found linguistic features are collocations (*health care worker, tested positive, deadly virus, military worker, contracting the disease, extensive effort, Ebola outbreak, infected person, clinical decision, medically evacuated, stringent procedures, military personnel, specialist treatment, level of risk, in due course*) and the article also features an idiom example (*effort got under way in Sierra Leone*).

### 6.2.2 The Daily Telegraph: Ebola: British health worker tests positive for Ebola (DT1)

The headline emphasizes the main point of the article, Ebola, by putting it at the very beginning and separating it by a colon. The rest of the headline answers the questions *who* (British health worker) and *what* (tests positive for Ebola).

The first very noticeable aspect of the article is a repetition of the same information – *health worker tests positive* - firstly mentioned in the headline, for the second time in the opening paragraph which enriches the information by adding its source, *Public Health England*, for the third time in the following paragraph which simultaneously answers the

question *when* it happened and for the fourth time in the quotation placed in the second half of the article. The text is highly coherent, the term *health worker* is substituted by expressions like *healthcare worker*, *female Army medic*, *unnamed soldier*, *she* or *medic*. Another part of the article is one long quotation of the Ministry of Defense which includes cautionary remark about the risk that Ebola carries. I found examples of modality expressed by means of a modal adverb (*she was likely to be flown out as soon as possible*) and modal verb (*it may take several days*). The phrasal verbs are represented by examples *flown out* and *come into*.

The text contains plenty examples of collocations (*health worker*, *tests positive*, *Ebola virus*, *aid mission*, *British-built clinic*, *deadly virus*, *full recoveries*, *clinical decision*, *medically evacuated*, *stringent procedures*, *safeguard personnel*, *level of risk*, *caught the disease*, *incubation period*, *highly-contagious haemorrhagic fever*, *treating patients*, *give treatment*, *specialist treatment*, *catching the virus*, *take several days*, *next of kin*, *in due course*) and also features examples of metonymy (...*tested positive for Ebola*, *Public Health England have said*; *the Ministry of Defense said*...). The article provides an example of hyperbole to overstate the situation in West Africa (*deadly virus which has ravaged West Africa*). The virus obviously did not ravage the entire West Africa, only the affected areas.

The last paragraph deals with the similar cases of the two British nurses and their recoveries, therefore includes positive information in the end. The article is definitely newsworthy and highly informative.

### 6.2.3 Conclusion

The analyzed articles are both full of collocations connected with Ebola, which is the most frequent linguistic phenomenon that I found. Both NYT1 and DT1 use the same collocations such as *clinical decision* or *specialist treatment*. NYT1 uses term *contract disease* and DT1 uses term *catch the virus* and those two terms can be considered as synonyms. Both newspapers use the same source for quotation, though NYT1 chose to publish different parts of the Ministry of Defense speech.

The article in NYT1 is very short and in comparison to the one in DT1 does not include any additional and useful facts. I found examples of metonymy in both articles, concretely two examples in NYT1 and three examples in DT1.

The article in DT1 also used a significantly higher number of initialisms (*UK* which stands for the United Kingdom was used five times and *RAF* which stands for Royal Air Force was used two times), whereas NYT1 article used initialism *UK* only two times.

The main difference is based on the fact that the infected woman was British, therefore NYT1 simply reported on what happened and encapsulated general facts about the United Kingdom and Ebola epidemic, whereas DT1 gave more detailed information including the ones concerning West Africa. DT1 also used hyperbole (*virus has ravaged West Africa*) to emphasize the importance and seriousness of the ongoing situation.

### 6.3 Obama's reflections on Ebola outbreak

President Barack Obama commented on the ongoing outbreak and expressed concerns about the situation in September 2014. Sharing the opinion of several specialists such as Jeremy Farrar (as I mentioned in 1.1) Obama commented on the lack of effort and slow progress in combating Ebola epidemic.

#### 6.3.1 The Wall Street Journal: Obama Plans Major Ebola Offensive (WSJ 2)

The headline answers only questions *who* (Obama) and *what* (plans Ebola Offensive) and uses capital letters in each word, which is a feature typical for The Wall Street Journal. The article includes a lede which continues with answering “*w*” questions and tells the reader *where* will this plan take place (West Africa), also elaborates the expression Offensive and describes it in more detail – *more doctors, supplies and portable hospitals*. The lede uses capital letters for each word as well.

The first paragraph uses the word combination *President Barack Obama*, the rest of the article refers to the president by using *Mr. Obama*. The first constituents I am going to mention are five quotations giving the article authenticity and credibility, which is crucial especially in the articles reporting about gathering of world leaders and presidential speeches, such as this one. The article features many examples of modality (*true toll probably is much higher, I could not possibly overstate, epidemic could significantly grow, virus could mutate in the way that would make it more dangerous, significant mutations that would change the way the virus is transmitted are likely, mutation is unlikely at this stage, it would send, it could quickly spread and would be difficult, the military could be used*) that mostly represent predictions and possibilities. I also found five illustrations of phrasal verbs (*stamp out, set up, turn around, carry out, run out of*) and an example of

apposition (*the governments of the three most affected countries – Liberia, Sierra Leone and Guinea – have been overwhelmed and...*).

An example of parallelism (*The strategy has four components: control the outbreak, build competence, bolster the capacity, and increase support...*) shows how fluent and balanced the text can be.

Another frequently applied features are collocations (*portable hospitals, health-care experts, medical supplies, scaled-up response, control the outbreak, build competence, increase support, infectious disease, treatment center, urgent response, rising concern, bring under control, military role, humanitarian crises, humanitarian disasters, spreading the disease*) and I managed to find two examples of idiomatic phrasal verbs (*virus would be difficult to stamp out, challenges in carrying out response plan*).

As for the figures of speech, the text presents an example of metonymy (*Tom Frieden briefed the White House on his findings*).

The whole article is very thorough and quite long and contains many figures concerning a death toll in Africa and outbreak costs. The text can be seen as a prognosis of the next steps and precautions towards ending Ebola epidemic.

### **6.3.2 The Daily Telegraph: Barack Obama: we are not moving fast enough to stop Ebola epidemic (DT2)**

The headline uses a colon to clearly emphasize a main point of the article, Barack Obama, and uses his words to pinpoint described issue. All the words begin with lower-case letters (with the exception of the president's name and the name of the disease), therefore the headline evinces a consistency. Usage of the pronoun *we* smartly includes all people, inclusive pronoun *we* has the power to unite everyone and generate an idea that we should work together to overcome every issue standing in our way. Obama is trying to say that even though the worst situation concerns Africa, Ebola should be considered as a global problem, which can easily become the truth.

The headline is followed by the lede which functions as a paraphrase and adds an answer to the question *where* (at the United Nations). The rest of the article refers to the president Barack Obama by using only *Obama*, which could be perceived as a manner that is bit rude. The article features two examples of the direct speech. One of those quotations includes an opinion of the president of Sierra Leone who compares Ebola to terrorism and he literally says that *Ebola is worse than terrorism*, which is an example of simile.

The text also includes modality examples (*number could explode, totals could peak well below, there should be a lot of wrangling, US would dispatch 3,000 troops*) and examples of phrasal verbs (*ramped up, closed out, come under, set up*).

Furthermore contains a high number of collocations (*combat the outbreak, international efforts, significant gap, health crises, hardest-hit nations, deep concern, infected people, grim warnings, international aid, make a difference, fight the outbreak, come under criticism, slow response, robust plan, dispatch troops, set up facilities, form teams, medical supplies, Ebola victims*) and I found one idiom (*efforts are ramped up*). The figures of speech are represented by two illustrations of metonymy (*US would dispatch 3,000 troops, the Pentagon mission will involve airlifting personnel*).

### 6.3.3 Conclusion

The two analyzed articles dealt with Barack Obama's plan to stop Ebola epidemic. Both articles used direct speech to support their reports, but WSJ2 did so more often, concretely five times. DT2 uses persuasive technique - inclusive language - in the headline which appears powerful (*we are not moving fast enough*). DT2 uses lower-case letters in the headline, whereas WSJ2 uses capital letters. Capital letters can often have more appealing and eminent impact. Both articles contain many collocations, DT2 presents two collocations which are an example of synonyms (*combat the outbreak vs. fight the outbreak*). Another frequent element in both articles is definitely modality due to the fact that the texts are about a plan that did not take place yet. So, the modality almost always expresses possibility or prediction. I found one example of metonymy in WSJ2 and two examples in DT2 and all of them are connected to the power of the country.

Another interesting finding is that DT2 shared information that Obama has come under criticism because of responding slowly, whereas WSJ2 included information concerning only Obama's successful planning and great contributions, no criticism whatsoever.

DT2 also includes various news that do not concern only Obama, like announcement of European Commission chief or comment of the president of Sierra Leone. WSJ2 is very focused on Obama's strategy and on US military plans. DT2 uses expression *Obama* throughout the whole article in comparison with WSJ2 which refers to the president using *Mr. Obama*, which clearly indicates that WSJ2 opted for more polite and respectful tactics.

## 6.4 Second Ebola case in the United States of America

Following articles inform about a female nurse who contracted Ebola while caring for Thomas Eric Duncan, the first victim of Ebola on US soil. Mr. Duncan already had Ebola when he came to US, therefore these articles report about the first case of contagion that happened in America.

### 6.4.1 The Washington Post: Second Ebola case confirmed. Texas health worker wore ‘full’ protective gear. (WP1)

The headline of the article is written in form of sentences, answering the questions *what* (second confirmed case), *where* (Texas) and *who* (health worker). The word ‘full’ is in inverted commas, which insinuates implicit irony. The sentence *Texas worker wore ‘full’ protective gear* is powerful and simultaneously intimidating because it signifies that no one is safe, not even fully equipped and protected workers.

The text shows many examples of modality (*more cases may be likely, health care worker may have had, may have contracted, may have had contact, workers who may potentially have been at risk, person could contact, individual should supervise*) which indicates possibility of the certain situations happening. I also found few illustrations of a grammatical pattern called apposition (*taking off personal protective equipment – gowns, gloves, face mask, goggles – is also one of the biggest areas of contamination; three of them – the National Institutes of Health; Emory University Hospital; and the University of Nebraska Medical Center – have treated Ebola cases*). The writer uses direct speech very often (thirteen times), especially quotes Thomas Frieden, director of the Center for Disease Control, but also includes a statement from a neighbor, James Wortman, who talks about his sick wife being treated in the same center and expresses fear and panic. This tactic of including personal feelings and views is very persuasive and can often result in exaggerated reactions. The usage of expressions like *desperate measures* and *high risk* that have certain connotations can overstate the entire situation which is not so alarming at all. The same goes for the usage of intensifiers like *very concerned*. Another example is hyperbole (*deadliest outbreak ravaging West African countries*) suggesting that Ebola is the ultimate disaster.

The text also features expressions with similar meaning – synonyms (*face shield* vs. *face mask*, *protective gown* vs. *protective gear* vs. *protective equipment*).

The article is very long and therefore contains high number of collocations (*deadly virus, come into contact, health worker, contract the virus, protective gear, confirmed diagnosis,*

*breach in protocol, deeply concerned, news conference, provided care, taken steps, develop symptoms, care for, high risk, made effort, low-grade fever, test result, emergency room, taking off, mucus membranes, stable condition, massive stroke, taking a temperature, show signs, virus spread, sought treatment, got infected, deadliest outbreak, emergency room diversion, medical procedures, draw blood, electrolyte levels, follow protocol, kidney dialysis, save life, became sick, take step, take care of)* and many of them mark technical terms connected with health care. I did not find single idiom in the entire article, but I found two examples of metonymy (*the city knocked on doors, the White House said*).

#### **6.4.2 The Guardian: Second Texas healthcare worker diagnosed with Ebola virus (G1)**

The headline of the article answers questions *who* (healthcare worker), *where* (Texas) and *what* (diagnosed with Ebola) and is written briefly. Following lede provides more info about the worker and states that she flew from Cleveland the day before she reported symptoms of Ebola. This type of lede is called *punch lede* because it includes a shocking fact.

The article contains two examples of modality (*more infections could follow, it may get worse*) and one nice example of parallelism (*person by person, moment by moment, detail by detail, Rawling said*), furthermore I found several examples of apposition (*The worker, a nurse at Texas Health Presbyterian hospital in Dallas, was immediately isolated; A nurse, 26-year-old Nina Pham, was the first person to have been infected with Ebola; three worst-hit countries in West Africa – Liberia, Sierra Leone and Guinea – could produce as many as 10,000 cases*) and one example of antithesis (*It may get worse before it gets better*) which has contrasting effect.

The text is full of direct speeches (eight examples) that support the writer's findings and make them more credible.

The most frequent multi-word expressions found in the article are collocations (*health care worker, calls into question, serious concern, taken steps, exhibited symptoms, direct contact, incubation period, develop symptoms, isolation ward, breach in protocol, contracting the virus, protective gear, come under pressure, body fluids*) and I found one example of idiom (*the CDC said it was establishing a rapid-response team to help hospitals "hands on, within hours"*)

The article also contains a figure of speech - metonymy (*White House said...*).

### 6.4.3 Conclusion

The two analyzed articles, covering the case of Nina Pham, use different approaches for creating headlines. WP1 chose shock tactics and basically mentioned that safety does not suffice right in the headline, also used whole sentences, whereas G1 briefly informed readers about the main point and included the punch line in lede which was not featured in WP1. Both articles contain high number of collocations connected with health care system therefore the texts appear to be rather difficult for the readers who are not familiar with this type of language. For instance, WP1 uses a phrase *emergency room diversion*, which could be quite hard to comprehend without any previous knowledge. Other examples are *hazmat team* or *electrolyte levels* also found in WP1. The G1 does not contain phrases which would be perceived as highly technical, but is full of the ones connected to the health care sphere as well. Both articles include many quotations, though WP1 five more and both similarly use apposition in sentences. The article printed in WP1 has also significantly higher number of modality examples.

WP1 uses the term *hazmat team* and G1 uses the term *city's fire and rescue department* to refer to the same thing which is another proof that the article in WP1 employs more phrases evoking fear and concerns. WP1 contains two examples of metonymy, G1 contains only one example.

Another interesting difference is the content of the article, concretely G1 states Nina Pham does not have any pet, whereas WP1 describes procedures that took place to save her pet. Due to the fact that other articles including information about Pham's pet exist, G1 provides the public with false fact.

To sum up, WP1 definitely published an article that is emotionally charged, persuasive, more informative and complex, on the other hand the article in G1 uses more techniques which draw reader's attention and make the text more fluent, such as parallelism.

## 6.5 New Ebola outbreak in Sierra Leone

Ebola outbreak in Sierra Leone began in March 2014 and the country started to inform the rest of the world about approaching end of the epidemic in October, however many cases began to pop up again and the two following articles describe the situation of Sierra Leone in November 2014.

### 6.5.1 USA Today: Ebola cases rise sharply in Sierra Leone (USA1)

The headline of the article is very short, clearly informing the public about the most important facts, that is *what* (Ebola) and *where* (Sierra Leone). The headline uses an adverbial *sharply* to describe the situation and its severity and to make the headline more gripping.

The article presents seven examples of the direct speech and uses statements of World Health Organization officials to support mentioned facts. The article shows many examples of modality (*drop in Liberia could be partly due to an increase, cases may appear to fall, people shouldn't overreact, reports may not be completely reliable, people without Ebola could be exposed, but it may be larger than the number, countries should try to help, both measures could encourage*) and includes also four phrasal verbs (*fall off, level off, setting up, show up*). Furthermore, it contains examples of apposition (*Michael Osterholm, director of the Center for Infectious Disease Research and Policy, says people...; treatment clinic in Sierra Leone, equipped to treat 80 people, opened this week*) and parallelism (*from day to day and week to week*). I found an example of antonyms (*rise vs. fall, drop vs. increase*), where *rise* and *increase* together with *fall* and *drop* are synonyms. The text also features examples of multi-word expressions, concretely collocations (*test results, surveillance system, transit center, treatment center, put at risk, health care workers, treatment clinic, hospital beds, treat patients, spread the virus, halt the spread, health systems, hardest hit, protective equipment, receive treatment, medical emergencies, contract the virus, went on strike, fall ill, fight Ebola*) and idioms (*most of them are the primary breadwinners, getting these centers up and running*). I found one example of simile (*Ebola cases can vary widely, much like daily fluctuations in temperatures*) as well. The figurative meaning is presented by metonymy (*Sierra Leone is reporting, according to the WHO, The United States is opening a clinic, USA should try to help*).

The article contains examples of figures and initialisms such as *WHO* or *USA*.

### 6.5.2 The Guardian: New Ebola outbreak in Sierra Leone raises fears of new infection chain (G2)

The headline of the article answers the questions *what* (new Ebola outbreak) and *where* (Sierra Leone) and expresses fear connected with the possibility of Ebola spreading, therefore not only informs, but also includes a view on the situation. The headline is followed by lede informing about a concrete affected area, Koinadugu, which was the only area in Sierra Leone not experiencing Ebola.

The article contains neither a direct speech nor an example of modality, but I found three phrasal verbs (*prided itself on, pulled out, set up*), examples of apposition (*thanks to the intervention of an expat businessman, Momah Konte, who returned from Washington; the district, which is home to more than 260,000 people, borders on Guinea*) and two illustrations of synonyms (*prevent vs. contain the virus, corpses vs. left bodies*).

The multi-word expressions included in this article are collocations (*fresh outbreak, death toll, raised fears, ambulance team, remote district, major setback, spread of the virus, claimed lives, coming into contact, borders on, Ebola outbreak, widespread disease, rural areas, call centre*) and idiom (*kept Ebola at bay*). Another features presented in the article are metonymy (*Koinadugu had prided itself on...; the Red Cross said the emergency...; Red Cross collected them...; the head of the call centre told the Guardian the call centre was...*).

### 6.5.3 Conclusion

The two analyzed articles are very different in content and used tactics. The major difference is definitely a lack of direct speech in G2, whereas USA1 uses direct speech very often, almost in every paragraph. Another missing aspect in G2 is the usage of modality which is quite often used by USA1. Both articles contain high number of collocations and USA1 also features two examples of idioms, G2 only one. Another attribute which have these two articles in common is the usage of apposition, furthermore USA1 also uses parallelism which has the power to make the text more distinctive and memorable. Metonymies are used by both articles and in most cases symbolize the organization-for-members relation, but also location-for-institution relation. USA1 does not contain lede, whereas G2 does.

As for the content, G2 is very informative, I would say strictly informative and does not include any additional facts in contrast with USA1 which presents very long article containing extracts dealing with opinions concerning the state Sierra Leone is in. USA1 describes their response as uncoordinated and slow and imposes an idea that the whole situation could have been prevented by using different approach and that it is their fault. It becomes obvious that the article concentrates rather on the worst aspects of the situation than on the simple report of the facts and figures. USA1 includes passages about people's lives and their stories, therefore influences reader's emotions and views. G2 is more concrete when it comes to mentioning the affected area and other names of nearby

districts. However, there are certain paragraphs which are very similar and deal with the same topic.

## 6.6 The case of Spanish nurse

A Spanish nurse who contracted Ebola in October 2014 has become the first case in Europe. She came into contact with Ebola when her team treated Spanish priest working in Sierra Leone.

### 6.6.1 The London Times: Ebola reaches Europe as Spanish nurse is infected (LT1)

The headline of the article informs readers about *what* happened (Ebola), *where* it happened (Europe) and *who* is a victim (Spanish nurse). It is not clear *where* it happened, so the headline definitely lures the reader in. It is short, to the point and clear.

The first part of the article deals with background information about other Spanish cases and their progress, the second part is more focused on the view of the United States of America, especially on President Obama and his speech. The article contains only one example of modality (*and said he would pressure*) and one example of a phrasal verb (*step up*). As for a direct speech, both examples are linked with Obama's speech. Presidential speeches are highly persuasive, powerful, direct, and often contain many examples of linguistic features. This one urges the nations to step up and offer help to overcome Ebola situation, however it has rather menacing overtone. It contains three examples of metonymy, where Obama refers to the government of the country (*countries that think they can sit on the sidelines; just let the United States to do it; foreign countries need to do more*) and one example of synecdoche (*he would pressure heads of states*). Another example of metonymy in the text is *Reuters reports*.

I also found an example of parallelism in his speech (*that will result in a less effective response, a less speedy response, and that means that people die, and it also means that the potential spread of the disease beyond these areas...*).

The article features several examples of multi-word expressions, such as collocations (*test positive, deadly virus, specialist treatment, protective suits, meet requirements, positive result, stable condition, feel ill, come into contact*) and an example of idiom (*fall victim to*). The text also includes words like *alarming, deadly, rapidly* or *ravage* which have really strong impact on the reader and may frighten the public more than what would be considered as a necessary measure.

### 6.6.2 The New York Times: Ebola Infects Spanish Nurse, a First in West (NYT2)

The headline of the article includes information about *what* happened (Ebola), to *whom* it happened (Spanish nurse) and *where* (West). This headline is written very briefly and omits certain words however the reader still gets the message. Using an adjective Spanish allows using the word *West* without causing any confusion about where the situation occurs. The headline is written using capital letters and differentiates itself from the text by means of italic.

The article is quite long and contains very detailed information and is written partly as a story, depicting a journey of the nurse in very readable way. This certainly helps readers to make a connection. The article contains eight examples of direct speech, several of them are only parts of the sentences, but still give the article more credibility and seriousness. The text also uses apposition (*Doctors Without Borders, a group known for its meticulous attention to infection control and success in protecting its workers, also reported on Monday...; Ms. Mato, the Spanish health minister, said...; Mr. Bernabéu, told Efe, the Spanish national news agency, that even if...; The priest, Manuel García Viejo, died three days after...*). I found six examples of modality (*her case should be used; he would not estimate; lapse could potentially expose; measures that should prevent the disease; health care systems would be able; anybody else could guarantee*) and three examples of phrasal verbs (*seal off, drawn up, got in*).

The article also presents examples of collocations (*health worker, deadly illness, health expert, defense systems, tested positive, develop symptoms, protective gear, spread the disease, bodily fluids, strict protocol, running water, staff members, tropical disease, medical experts, got in touch, stable condition*) and one idiom (*be on lookout for*).

Figurative meaning is represented by metonymy (*C.D.C. redoubled its efforts; according to the World Health Organization, even if Spain had the means; Mr. Bernabéu told Efe, the Spanish national news agency...*).

### 6.6.3 Conclusion

The two analyzed articles deal with the Spanish nurse who was infected with Ebola. Both are written using formal language and present the facts in very clear and informative way. LT1 is significantly shorter and focuses not only on the situation of the nurse, but also includes Obama's comments on Ebola. This fact gives the article broader point of view and offers readers different kind of an inside. NYT2 focuses mostly on the Spanish point of view and surprisingly does not contain any of those presidential remarks, also contains

high number of quotations in contrast with LT1. LT1 uses more metonymic expressions when referring to the state for the government pattern, whereas NYT2 uses pattern describing organization for its members relation. Both articles use words as *alarming*, *deadly* or *rapidly* to describe Ebola and its spread, therefore both seem highly frightening and cautionary. NYT2 article is more readable and is written like a story, whereas LT1 is strictly informative and presents only the crucial facts which could somehow enrich the public. I would describe NYT2 as far more emotional and easily comprehended. Both articles contain the same examples of collocations such as *stable condition* or *test positive*. LT1 uses the term *protective suits*, NYT2 uses the term *protective gear* and this type of relation is called meronymy, because the *suit* is a component of the *protective gear*. Same goes for the *medic* in LT1 and the *nurse* in NYT2. Both articles also contain synonymy relation such as *illness* in NYT2 and *disease* in LT1. NYT2 also features a significantly higher number of modality examples.

## 7 SUMMARY OF THE ANALYSIS

At the beginning of the analysis I assumed there are not as many differences between the British and American broadsheet newspapers. I assembled twelve articles, six from the British and six from the American broadsheets, and analyzed them to see if my statement was right or not. I also expected that the number of articles reporting on the current Ebola epidemic will be approximately the same. Indeed, I was wrong and finding and creating identical pairs describing the same event proved to be more complicated than anticipated. That is the main reason for using only four British broadsheet newspapers in my analysis.

The mutual connection and parable of both broadsheets is based on very similar approach when analyzing events concerning rather serious topics connected with danger and death. Both broadsheets contain articles written in very thorough and precise way, trying to portray the topic as accurately as possible. The American broadsheets presented significantly longer articles full of direct speeches, in total I found forty-six examples, which is a very high number in comparison to the British broadsheets which contained only fourteen examples and in addition to this result one article (G2) does not contain direct speech at all. The only British article containing more than two examples of direct speech was G1 that used it eight times.

Another significant finding, and very surprising if I may add, is that not even one article contains an example of euphemism. I assumed that due to my topic selection euphemisms will be used at least to some extent, especially in the articles describing people who lost their lives because of Ebola.

Furthermore I was interested in studying sentence constructions, especially looking for examples of apposition and parallelism. Apposition belongs among frequently used grammatical constructions in newspaper reporting for its ability to interpret and closely identify the noun phrase of a sentence in different way, adding new information and knowledge for readers. Apposition was often present in both American and British broadsheets however the American broadsheets used it slightly more often - that is twelve times in comparison to the British broadsheets, where it appeared seven times. Parallelism in newspaper reporting could be very nice variation how to present facts to a reader therefore it has a power to make the text more fluent and simultaneously memorable and interesting. I found four examples of parallelism in the American broadsheets and only one example in the British ones.

Modality expresses predictions, possibilities and necessities and is closely tied with newspaper reporting. Through it a writer can express what is, what would be, what may be or what should be. It has really extensive effect on readers, not only it tells them if someone made mistake, but also shows them what must be done to achieve a better result. My analysis clearly shows that the American broadsheet articles dominate in modality usage because I found thirty-eight examples in them. The British broadsheets articles contain only eleven examples.

As presumed, the usage of metaphors in broadsheet newspapers was not proofed. From twelve articles only one, concretely LAT1 contains two examples.

The analysis also led to a conclusion showing that the most frequent features of both broadsheets are multi-word expressions called collocations. I was focusing mainly on those somehow connected with my thesis topic and every pair of articles has some collocations in common. This could be simply explained by the facts that both American and British broadsheets often used the same source for obtaining facts and information. The occurrence of idioms in the analyzed articles was very low and I managed to find only several examples.

Furthermore the analysis revealed that both American and British broadsheets used the same number of metonymic expressions, fifteen examples in the British and another fifteen examples in the American broadsheets. The metonymic patterns in the analyzed articles use the state vs. its government relation the most, followed by the organization for its members pattern. Metonymy is abundantly used in the newspaper reporting because it could, among other benefits, save space and the writer does not have to name every single member or repeat himself for that matter. Readers immediately notice the connection and now what the expression stands for.

I was also paying a special attention to an appearance of the negative and positive information in the analyzed texts and I noticed that broadsheet newspapers tend to use so called sandwiching method and put the negative information in the middle and surround it with more positive one. Some articles put the negative information at the beginning and continue with more positive one and others divide the article into two parts, where each part contains positive or negative information. The majority of the analyzed articles contain negative information at the beginning, but for instance NYT2 contains information with negative undertone not only at the beginning but throughout the entire article. In comparison the WSJ2 article begins with positive information and continues with it almost the entire page, subsequently uses sandwiching method when including negative one.

Because of describing news values in my theoretical part I wanted to find out how many articles actually honor them and so I concentrated on this aspect as well. I came to a conclusion that the articles fulfil the majority of mentioned news values, especially because they have very strong impact on the public, present important news with weight and include several opinions of the officials and specialists which often collide with each other and therefore give the readers various points of view. At the same time they are full of emotions and report not only on what is happening locally, but also globally. Local news tend to have more impact on the reader due to proximity. And finally, the articles describe recent or fresh news and often include useful and educational information. In this case, many articles provide additional info about Ebola, the way it is spread and how to stay well protected.

The last aspect that I observed was the creation of newspaper headlines, more precisely I analyzed how many “w” questions each headline answers and what are the other contributing factors. The most frequently answered questions are *what* happened, *to whom* it happened and *where* it happened. The headlines do not contain any figures of speech that are often found in tabloids and most of them are strictly informative, trying to answer as many questions for the reader as they can. There is no general rule for the creation of headlines, so every headline has its own specific features, for instance headlines of The Wall Street Journal use capital letters for each word, which makes them very specific and easily recognizable. The only accepted rule they must follow is that the conveyed information must be consistent with the information in the article.

Some newspapers use ledes to elaborate the headline and answer more questions before reading the article and those newspapers are WSJ, G1, G2, DT2.

## CONCLUSION

The aim of my bachelor thesis was to compare and contrast the linguistic differences and similarities of the British and American broadsheet articles concerning the current Ebola epidemic.

The theoretical part began with closer description of Ebola virus, including its origin and characteristics, furthermore continued depicting its appearance in the history of the United States of America and the United Kingdom and focusing on the recently reported cases on the US and the UK soil. The theoretical part also included an introduction to journalism and journalistic style, concentrating on individual components that together create an article, furthermore described newspapers in general and then their concrete types, namely broadsheet, tabloid and berliner, moreover also listed concrete broadsheet newspapers representing the United States of America and the United Kingdom. The last section dealt with the language used in newspaper reporting and gradually continued to introduce typical features used for the creation of articles such as figures of speech and multi-word expressions.

The practical part was based on analyzing twelve articles, six from the British and six from the American broadsheets, which were paired together and each pair introduced a different event that took place during the current Ebola outbreak. All the selected events have a substantial value for every single person, although they happened somewhere else. The articles for the analysis were part of the news section and due to the topic they were written in formal and very serious language, sometimes including highly technical expressions concerning medical sphere.

The articles contained comparable number of collocations and the same numbers of metonymic expressions, surprisingly did not contain euphemisms and the American broadsheets had significantly higher number of modality and direct speech examples. The most frequently used expressions, collocations, very often belonged to a group of words concerning health care.

Finally, the analysis showed that sometimes the American broadsheet articles clearly differ from the ones printed in the British broadsheets. American newspapers often print very long articles written in form of a story, concentrating not only on simply reporting what happened, but also on life of a victim and many times even include thoughts and opinions of the people who surround them. The US is always portrayed as the hero with the best ideas how to stop the epidemic, whereas in the British broadsheets the US is sometimes

criticized and described not so nicely. The articles printed there have a very informative content focusing on describing only what is important and are usually significantly shorter. I hope that this thesis will contribute to people interested in the linguistics and hopefully help with understanding the differences between the American and British approach towards creation of the articles dealing with serious events.

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

EVD            Ebola virus disease

USAMRIID    The United States Army Medical Research Institute of Infectious Diseases

UK             United Kingdom

US             United States

## **APPENDICES**

Corpus of analyzed articles (see the enclosed CD)