

The Czech Republic as a Holiday Destination in the British and American Press: A Linguistic Analysis

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ABSTRAKT

Tato práce se zabývá lingvistickou analýzou britského a amerického serióznímu tisku, zaměřeného na Českou republiku jako prázdninovou destinaci. Jsou zde analyzovány lingvistické prostředky jako kolokace, idiomy, sémantické vztahy a obrazná pojmenování. Dále bylo provedeno vyhodnocení porovnání britského a amerického seriózního tisku. Kvantitativní studie prokázala nejvíce používané jazykové prostředky ve většině vyhodnocených novin seriózního tisku.

Klíčová slova: lingvistická analýza, Česká republika, prázdninová destinace, žurnalistika, seriózní tisk, americké a britské noviny, kolokace.

ABSTRACT

In this thesis the linguistic analysis of British and American broadsheets devoted to the Czech Republic as a holiday destination was performed. Linguistic terms such as multi-word expressions, semantic relations and figures of speech were found and analyzed in detail. The comparison between British and American broadsheets were defined and evaluated. The results have shown a major use of collocations in both British and American texts. The quantitative study demonstrated the most common used linguistic devices used in majority of reviewed broadsheets.

Keywords: linguistic analysis, Czech Republic, holiday destination, journalism, broadsheet, American and British newspapers, collocations

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

1. BrE – British English
2. AmE – American English

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this bachelor thesis was to analyse the articles from British and American broadsheets concerning the Czech Republic as a holiday destination. The thesis was divided into theoretical and analytical part. The aim of the theoretical part was to define the term journalism and its function, terms broadsheet and tabloid. Also were explained the multi-word expressions, semantic relations and figures of speech.

In the analytical part articles found in British and American broadsheets were studied. The Daily Telegraph, The Guardian, The New York Times and The Chicago Tribune served as sources for the broadsheets. All the articles were mainly focused on the capital of Czech Republic – Prague.

Even the analysis covered the vast majority of related broadsheet articles, the fact must be accepted that they were mostly focused on covering the capital, rather than various places around the country.

I. THEORY

1 JOURNALISM

Journalism influences our everyday life more than we think (Sterling, 2009, 27). As stated by Osvaldová and Halada the term *journalism* comes from a French word *jour* which means day. It indicates that this activity is connected with everyday events. Since the Middle age the period of passing the information about the events is getting shorter and shorter. Now we can compare this time to a flash of a storm. Once something happens we know about that in no time (Osvaldová, Halada, 2007, 7)

1.1 History of Journalism

Journalism as any other different discipline has its own history. This field appeared when the information started to have the value for people (Dočekalová, 2006, 33). Before any printed media people were spreading the news only by word of mouth (Conboy, 2004, 9). According to historians it all began with overseas expeditions. During that time was a big development of the market and the information became an item to sell. Journalism was developing, to that contributed the invention of printing press. 19th and 20th century was a gold age of journalism. During these centuries journalism was divided into branches: politics, economy, society, entertainment, culture, sport, etc. (Dočekalová, 2006, 33).

As it is shown by Endres, journalism or the art of gathering and spreading of news, dates back many centuries, to a period before modern forms of mass communications were invented. The earliest news sheets date back to 59 BC, to ancient Rome where *Acta Diurna Populi Romani* (Daily Acts of Roman People) was launched by Julius Caesar, which was a basic script of news of the empire. As an official publication, the script circulated not only between the rich and powerful of Rome Empire but also was posted at the public places for access of the citizens.

Few centuries later, during the T'ang dynasty (618-907 AD), in Chinese empire a news organ *ti-pao* was developed. It mainly circulated within the governmental figures in the far-flung Chinese empire. Also, five centuries prior to *ti-pao* appearance, papermaking was already developed in China, which later spread to Japan and Korea and with the help of Arabs it reached the Middle East. Few centuries later this breakthrough innovation was finally available to European cultures (Endres, 2002).

The modern type of journalism is assumed to take its roots from the middle ages, when the political information were brought by heralds, couriers and messengers, who read out a decree, communiqués and rescripts, sometimes also with the author's comments.

Due to this reason, many modern newspapers and magazines names, are called after those messengers e.g. *The UNESCO Courier*, *Daily Herald*, or after the places used for spreading those news e.g. *Chicago Tribune*, *Forum* (the square in Rome, where the national assembly *agora* took place). The *Relation aller Furnemmen und gedenckwürdigen Historien* published in 1605 in Strasbourg, is considered as the first newspaper. During that period a vast growth of journalism was noticed in many Germany cities. The first successful daily publication in English language was the British newspaper *The Daily Courant*, which was in print from year 1702 to 1735. Meanwhile, over the time, the press became an influential social tool titled as *The Fourth Estate* (Martin and Copeland, 2003, 101).

1.2 Function of Journalism

According to Ruß-Mohl the journalism has a number of functions which will be explained further (Ruß-Mohl, 2005, 21-25).

- **Informing** – it is expected from the media they will bring us information which we need in our lives. They should help us to decide in decision we make as a participants of the market and as a citizens.
- **Formulating and publishing** – media are making from the events and the problems a public thing. In society media has the role of a watcher of the democracy.
- **Agenda setting** – mass media are forcing us to focus on a few topics which are pushing other events aside. Most likely it is connected with gene technologies, war conflicts, corruption scandals etc. Focusing mainly on one event or topic is called *agenda setting* because according to these events is determined the course of everyone's life.

From another point of view the main topics are not made up only by journalists. There are people called *spin doctors* who are responsible for a work with society. This term comes from an Anglo-Saxon practice and it refers to the people who are mainly from political public relations and media advisers who are paid to “create” events and various *stories* with a target to show the ones from whom they are paid by. Service of a *spin doctors* is for example used by candidates for a president in USA. Their role is to show, in this case a candidate in a good light.

- **Criticizing and controlling** – the same people from a sphere of PR who are giving the news to the journalists are at the same time hiding some of them. Not

everything what is going on in politics, in economy or in society is determined for public. When the journalists get “behind the curtain” they can find out many interesting things which can serve to general good. As mentioned the famous American publisher Joseph Pulitzer, thanks to a fear from the press it was prevented many crimes and cases of corruption. Criticizing and controlling are uncomfortable but necessary and important function of journalism. But its important requirement is the freedom of speech.

- **Entertainment** – during last years the entertainment became much more important than it was before. Still it is counted as a by-product of a quality journalist’s work. On the other side there is expected that media should bring some amusement. Media and the journalism are a part of entertainment industry. Media creates and formulates the entertainment industry itself.
- **Education** – for this function is mainly responsible the education system but another intermediary is media. It is primarily used as a source of information.
- **Socialization and “leading”** – media are influencing people’s behaviour and their view on their surroundings. Some scientific disciplines focused on mass communication say media are a *tool of leading a mass*.
- **Integration** - this function is becoming more and more important nowadays. The media are building up the bridges among different worlds and areas of life.

1.3 Structure of a newspaper article

According to Melton (2008, 48) some writers may consider those forms as inhibiting, meanwhile these formats help to organize and make the information reader-friendly, so one can understand the topic even by very briefly looking through it, and also encourage the reader to continue reading further. There are mainly five formats widely used:

- **The Inverted Pyramid** – it was firstly developed and further widely used during the Civil War, it is mainly used to deliver the hard news. This format of article starts from the introductory paragraph and continues in descending order, so the most important information is followed by less vital details.
- **The Hourglass** – it is based on the inverted pyramid and combines a narrative, is widely used for delivering breaking news and storytelling. The introductory contains 4-6 summary paragraphs, giving answers to the most important questions, this follows with transitional phrase citing the sources of upcoming story - "Police say

the incident occurred after closing last night." The article is usually enclosed with the chronological story.

- **The Nut Graph** – firstly introduced by in 1940 by Wall Street Journal, it starts with an anecdotal the introductory paragraph that catches the reader's attention, this follows by a paragraph that provides wider context for the story and leads the article in that direction. This form allows the reporter investigate larger issues standing behind an incident.
- **The Narrative** – is constructed like a story including beginning, middle, and end. One of the examples is *Truman Capote's In Cold Blood*, which was later published as a novel. However, for the common news articles, it must be short and kept close to the subject, being used only when tilling one's own story helps to broach the point of article. This style is often used by *The New Yorker*.
- **The Five Boxes Story** – basically includes all forms mentioned above. It is effective for sorting a large amount of information and data. The first box contains the introductory paragraph; the second box is composed of paragraph explaining the value of the news story; the third box includes the story mentioned in box one; the fourth box includes additional details e.g. statistics or experts conclusions; box five is composed of a *kicker*, image, quote, or a comment that concludes the story on a strong point.

Kesselman-Turkel and Peterson (2006, 121) explain that while modern newspapers use various styles of article writing, the Inverted Pyramid or The Inverted triangle, remains as one of the most essential formats. Further to above mentioned specifics it must be noticed that typically it is composed of five parts:

- **Headline** – includes a short eye catching statement about the article.
- **By-line** – basically stating information about the article writer.
- **Lead paragraph** – gives answers to the questions like: Who; What; When; Where; Why; How. The writer must try to answer all arising questions in this introductory paragraph.
- **Explanation** – once the introductory paragraph is complete, the writer's task is to decide whether the readers need additional facts or details. In this section writer must include all possible answers to any important questions which readers might

have after initially reading the headline and lead paragraph. As a rule this section also includes quotes from witnesses or bystanders.

- **Additional information** – includes the least important fact and often might be shortened if the main part of article is too long for publishing, without having any effect on it. This section typically includes information on similar happenings.

2 NEWSPAPERS

As said by Danuta Reah, the term *news* is a late Middle English word, its meaning is new information of current events. However this definition has to be a bit narrowed because then anything in the world can be seen as current event. The more appropriate definition would be that *news* is an information about current events which would be interesting for a large group of people and can influence the lives of these people. In this definition are already included differences between national and local newspapers etc.

“The term *newspaper* suggests that the content of a newspaper will be primarily devoted to the news of the day, and some analysis and comment of this news” (Reah, 2002, 3). Moreover newspapers contain a few other items like comments and analysis, entertainment and analyzing. Bigger parts of newspapers are given to other things than news, like advertising and TV listings schedule (Reah, 2002, 3).

2.1 Newspaper Basics

When concerning newspaper basics Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells divided this topic into four groups which will be further analyzed (Moriarty, Mitchell and Wells 2009, 280).

- 1) Dailies – these are mostly published in a bigger cities and towns.
- 2) Weeklies – published in smaller cities. It also includes so called “penny savers” where are advertisements of a local stores.
- 3) Sunday Editions
- 4) Business or Organization Newspapers – this type can be published weekly, monthly, quarterly, every other month or twice a month.

Also four types of edition:

- 1) Morning – it covers yesterday’s events and can mention today’s upcoming events.
- 2) Evening – includes today’s events and info for the upcoming day.
- 3) All-day – frequently updated through the all day.
- 4) Special Interest – this type is concerned for minorities (newspapers in Spanish language, newspapers for Asian people etc.)

The last division is format and size:

- 1) Broadsheet – the usual size is 22 inches deep and 14 inches wide.
- 2) Tabloid – is half of the size of a broadsheet and it has five or six 2-inch columns.

2.2 News Values

As it is stated by Burns (Burns, 2004, 63-64) there are certain *news values* according which the news are picked up and published:

- **Impact** – it is connected with the relations of the news and the life of society. Interesting news can be devoted to everyday events like is favorable weather etc.
- **Time** – connected with the information which helps people to organize their lives. Here belongs the traffic news, urgent weather forecast, informing about new laws and so on.
- **Conflict** - it is considered as one of the most important news values. News has to contain more than one view on the subject. The more views there are the sharper is the conflict between them.
- **Proximity** – states how close is the certain event happening to the reader. For example a car accident during which died 4 people is for the reader more important than the information that 4 000 people died in Somalia.
- **Urgency** - shows how much is the topic in a certain time urgent. If any politics says some racist comments in the parliament it will give the urgency to the race issues.
- **Newness** – news are supposed to bring us some new information which is worthy of our attention.
- **Relativity** – sometimes even the article which has all the features of new is not published. Usually is the news chosen by the attractiveness for its certain media. TV will prefer visual attractive news, printed media will rather spread the complex information where it can be enclosed tables, graphs etc.

2.3 British Newspapers

British newspapers are divided into two groups: *qualities* and *populars*. *Qualities* are the type of newspapers where are found the serious and trustworthy information. On the other hand the *populars* are less trustworthy and they are focusing on topics which can get the attention easily. Between the qualities belong further mentioned newspapers *The Time*, *The Guardian* and *The Daily Telegraph* which are considered as a quality newspapers thank to their high standard of news-reporting (Jucker, 1992, 47). The same division of newspapers is *broadsheets* and *tabloids*. *Broadsheets* bring serious information, they pay

attention to politics, economy, and international affairs. Its readers are not interested in gossip stories about celebrities etc. In comparison *tabloids* are focused on personal stories, show business news and celebrities. When the *tabloids* have any reports connected with politics, government and other serious sphere, they are usually short and less detailed than in *broadsheets* (Elgamri, 2008, 94).

- *The Times*
 - Belongs to the most respected newspapers in the world. It was established more than two hundred years ago, the first issue was published in 1785. The newspapers have foreign correspondents in more than 20 countries. The Times is the number one newspapers for business readers, according to British Business Survey which was done in September 2011 (news.co.uk).

- *The Guardian*
 - Was founded in 1821, until 1836 it was published weekly and in 1855 it has started to publish daily. In the early age of The Guardian there were published advertisements in it since the founder of the newspapers John Edward Taylor was a businessman. The newspaper belongs to the best selling ones in the country and they are focusing on digital operations (theguardian.com).

- *The Daily Telegraph*
 - Established in 1855 in London by Arthur B. Sleight. Since the beginning it was published as a broadsheet which was sold for a very low price which was one of its biggest competitive advantages. Nowadays the newspaper belongs between the best and it the gives report mainly writes about politics, science, arts etc. (Winston, 1998, 58).

Newspapers as *Daily Mirror* or *The Sun* are regarded as a *populars* or as *tabloids*. They are determined to a larger readership (Jucker, 1992, 47).

- *Daily Mirror*
 - Founded in 1903 by Alfred Harmsworth. The tabloid is focused on the gossips, personal life of members of royal family and other celebrities. It is easily recognizable by bold font of the headlines which can be easily misinterpreted (Thussu, 2007, 54).
- *The Sun*
 - The Sun was for the first time released in 1964 as a broadsheet. It was designed so it will correspond with a modern age and lifestyle of 60s. In 1969 The Sun was bought by Rupert Murdoch who changed the newspaper from a broadsheet to a tabloid. It started to follow a pattern – sport, sensation and sex. It is not anything unusual, other tabloids were following the same pattern but The Sun started to put topless females on their Page 3. Regardless the reckless content of the newspaper it obtains an eminent political influence (news.bbc.co.uk).

2.4 American Newspapers

Between the successful broadsheets belongs: *The Chicago Tribune*, *The New York Times* and *The Wall Street Journal*. Further is mentioned also one tabloid: *Daily News*.

- *The Chicago Tribune*
 - The Chicago Tribune is American daily broadsheet newspaper based in Chicago, Illinois in the United States founded in 1847. Chicago Tribune is a flag ship of the Chicago Tribune Media Group. Chicago's leading newspaper is read by 1.7 million people every day and trying to be politically objective in other words none of the political parties has all its support (linkedin.com). Chicago Tribune informs daily about national as well as international news, business, sport, entertainment, weather and traffic. It won a The Pulitzer-Prize. The Tribune has Mid-western values and gives importance to government integrity and leading private institutions and individuals (chicagotribune.com).

- *The New York Times*
 - More than 165 years old newspaper which was founded by James Gordon Bennett, Sr. The main purpose of the newspaper is to make a better society by distributing high-quality news. Many of its journalists were rewarded for Pulitzer Prize (nytco.com).

- *Wall Street Journal*
 - Founded by Charles H. Dow in 1899 in New York. The newspaper is focused on the business and the economic and it is highly respected in this field. It also belongs to the most selling newspapers in the USA (online.wsj.com).

- *Daily News*
 - Tabloid newspaper based in 1919. Belongs to the newspaper with the highest circulation in the United States. All the newspaper is colour printed which is one of its biggest competitive advantages among others (nydailynews.com).

3 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN BRITISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH

The most noticeable difference between British and American English is the tune of the language. British and Americans do recognize the other variety of English mainly by the tunes (Algeo, 2006, 2). In every variety of the English there are also dialects. Dialect refers to any language diversity which is shared by a group of people who are using it (Wolfram, Walt and Schilling-Estes, 2006, 2).

Between those two varieties (AmE and BrE of English are also noticeable a vocabulary differences and there is a high number of them (Algeo, 2006, 2). Most of the grammatical differences are concerning the adjectives, prepositions, pronouns, adverbs, auxiliary verbs and the tense (Zhang, Bin, and Zhaofeng Jiang, 2008, 69).

3.1 Differences in verbs

In BrE the past tense of a verb *get* is *got*. AmE usually uses past participle *gotten*. It is shown on an example: *Peter has got a mail from his parents*. This sentence corresponds to BrE. In other example is shown the usage of AmE: *Peter has gotten a mail from his parents*. When there is used *got* in American speech it refers to posses something e.g. *He got a new mobile phone*.

Another difference is regarding the using of a verb *have*. In AmE it is used in sentences similar to that: *Do you have any friends?* In BrE is this verb used like in a following example: *Have you any friends?* (Zhang, Bin, and Zhaofeng Jiang, 2008, 69).

3.2 Differences in tenses

In BrE there is sometimes used a passive present tense to describe a present event e.g. *The house is cleaned by Mary now*. But Americans would describe the same situation using present progressive, the present perfect or a future tense (Algeo, 2006, 24). Present progressive: *Mary is cleaning the house*. Present perfect: *She's cleaned the house*. Future tense: *Mary will clean the house* (Algeo, 2006, 24).

While expressing that something just happened, there is consistently used a past perfect tense in BrE e.g. *I've just come home*. AmE in this case uses past tense e.g. *I came home*. (Zhang, Bin, and Zhaofeng Jiang, 2008, 69).

In English there are two verb signals of future *will* or *shall* and *be going to*, e.g. *I will go home*. or *I am going to go home*. British prefer *will* or *shall*, markedly American rather use *be going to*. In British there is also used the modal future perfect for situations which

happened in the past, more specifically the probable situations. *Will have said* is the equivalent of *have probably left*. Another way of using modal future is to express polite lengthiness instead of standard using of simple present tense e.g. *What was the name of the book?....You'll know the one I mean.* (Algeo, 2006, 26).

3.3 Differences in adjectives

The most of the differences in American and British English concerning the adjectives are connected with exact lexical forms.

a) Adjectives from nouns + -ed

- British and American English distinct in the use of the suffix –ed to shape adjectival modifiers from nominals. British English uses specific forms which American does not use e.g. *booted*. The difference between British and American is not so visible on individual items, it is more visible on more frequent British use of patterns.

Bedded, double/two – bedded used in BrE and *double/two* in AmE

Zipped – used in AmE

b) Adjectives from place names + -an

- Using of adjectives form of certain places are attributives of noun in BrE. In AmE the places have a form of noun adjuncts (e.g. *California, Virginia* etc.) (Algeo, 2006).

3.4 Difference in meanings

The same word can have different meanings in AmE and BrE. There are two types of expressing a different meanings; the first is to add the meaning. When there want to be expressed a new thing in AmE the most comfortable way to do that is to tack a new meaning to the already existing word. So for example *family* means a group of people who are related to each other and its members are mother, father etc. but at the same time it can mean one of the operational units of mafia. The second method is to change a meaning. A plenty of words which come originally from BrE do have a different meaning in AmE, as it is shown the Table 1 (Zhang, Bin, and Zhaofeng Jiang, 2008, 71).

Table 1. The different meanings of a same word in BrE and AmE

Word	AmE	BrE
Bill	A bank note	A demand for payment of a debt
Billion	A thousand million	A million million
Guy	Fellow, any person	A ridiculous figure
Pressman	An operator of a printing office	A newspaper man
Public school	A municipal-run school	A private school

In AmE and BrE there are also words which are different but they carry the same meaning (see Table 2), (Zhang, Bin, and Zhaofeng Jiang, 2008, 72).

Table 2. The different words with the same meaning.

AmE	BrE
Bar	Public house, pub
Can (as a can of soup)	Tin
Candy	Sweets
Cookie	Sweet biscuit, small cake
Cracker	Biscuit (dry)
Long distance call	Trunk call
Package	Parcel
Intersection	Junction, crossroads
Railroad	Railway
Subway	Tube, underground
Superhighway, speedway	Motorway

4 LINGUISTIC DEVICES OF NEWSPAPERS

In the linguistic devices are included the semantic relations and the figures of speech.

4.1 Semantic relations

Linguistic semantics is a branch of linguistic science which is focused on the meaning of the words with a reference to structure of language which can reveal or restrict the scope of possible language meanings. Anglo-American tradition of linguistic semantics can be considered as younger than one hundred years (Murphy, Lynne, 2010, 2). In semantics relations belong relations as a synonymy, antonymy, homophones, homonyms, hyperonyms and hyponymy (Murphy, 2003, 9-10).

- **Synonymy** – are marking the pairs of words with the same or similar meaning. English has a lot of synonyms and it is ascribed to history – English vocabulary has a lot of sources: Anglo-Saxon, French, Latin and Greek (Palmer, 2001, 88). These words can be substituted in the sentence among each other. To common synonyms belongs *cab/taxi, car/automobile, sofa/couch* etc.

It does not necessarily means that synonym have to have the feature of “total sameness”. There are cases when the word is suitable for the sentence and the synonym to that word would sound strange. For example, when there is used a word *answer* in a sentence *Sandy had only one answer correct on the test*, the word *reply* would sound peculiar. Synonyms can also differ in case formal and informal uses. Sentence *My mother bought a large car* sounds more formal than sentence *My mother bought a big car* (Yule, 2010, 117).

- **Antonymy** – are a pairs of words with an opposite meaning *good/bad, day/night* etc. It is natural and very usual feature of language (Palmer, 2001, 94).

According to Yule (2006, 117-118) antonyms can be divided into two groups to gradable antonyms, non-gradable antonyms:

Gradable antonyms are used in comparison with something. They appear with adverb like *less, more, much* etc and with a suffix –er (e.g. *smaller, happier, richer*). Typical example is *big/small*. The negative form one of a gradable pair does not have to indicate the other. For example, *My dress are not nice*, the negation does not have to mean right the opposite that the dress are beautiful.

With non-gradable antonyms are not used comparative constructions. Between non-gradable antonyms belong antonyms like *single/married*, *true/false* etc. It cannot be said, e.g. *She is more single than Mary*.

On the word of Palmer there is another group of antonyms called *relational antonyms*. The pair of relational antonyms is absolute opposites but the words are additional to each other (e.g. *male/female*, *husband/wife*, *boy/girl*). When there are used antonyms when is word A it cannot be B but in the case of relational antonyms if the word is not A, it must be B (Palmer, 2001, 96).

- **Homophony and Homonymy** – when two or more words have the same pronunciation they are called *homophony*. For example, *meat/meet*, *flour/flower*, *right/write*. The term homonymy is used when two or more words (does not matter if they are written or spoken) have unrelated meanings, e.g. *bank (bank of a river)* – *bank (as a financial institution)* (Yule, 2010, 120).
- **Hyperonymy and Hyponymy** – hyperonyms are words which are superordinate to the hyponyms. As it is mentioned by Palmer (Palmer, 2006, 85) hyponymy requires the notion of inclusion in way that for example *tulip* and *rose* are contained in *flower*.

4.2 Figures of speech

Figures of speech are rhetorical devices which are used to produce a new meaning. Further will be classified the most appeared figures of speech: metaphor, metonymy, simile, synecdoche, hyperbole, personification, hyperbole, euphemism and irony.

4.2.1 Metaphor

Is process of weighing two dissimilar abstract domains. The two different domains are called *target* domain and the *source* domain. The topic we want to describe through the metaphor is the target domain, the source domain refers to the idea from which was gained from for a purpose to make the metaphorical construction. For example: *His voice is music to my ears*. On this example can be seen that the target domain is the understanding of a pleasure, it is a concept which is asked to be expressed by a metaphor (Simpson, 2004, 41).

Peprník explains a metaphor as transfer of a meaning based on external features. The resemblance may require location, colour, shape or a scope.

- a) Shape (*Tooth* of the mouth, of a saw or of a cogwheel)

- b) Location (*Leg* of a human being or a piece of a furniture)
- c) Colour (*Daffodil yellow*)
- d) Extent (*Small: a drop of a liquid, a spot of coffee*) (Peprník, 2003, 53).

4.2.2 Metonymy

Metonymy comes to a contrast with metaphor. By using metonymy, one entity is used to refer to another, which is in connection with the first one (Truscynska. 2003). This is also confirmed by Yule. (Yule, 2010, 121). Peprník defines metonymy as a figure of speech where the name of an attribute of a certain thing is used instead of the thing itself. For example: *lands belonging to the crown, crown* refers to monarchy. Metonymy can be divided into a few patterns:

- a) Transfer Activity – the process is based on a concretization of a abstract nouns, e.g. *defence* can stand for a *ministry* or for a *defence lawyer*.
- b) Transfer Condition – e.g. *antiquity* can refer to ancient times or to a historical sight.
- c) Transfer Activity – transfer of an action on a thing which emerged from the activity. Example: *Work* as an activity and also as a result of the work.

Another type of a metonymy is the contextual one. It consists of transfers from the artist to his work e.g. *read Charles Dickens* (Peprník, 2003, 53).

4.2.3 Simile

Is a figure of speech which is used to compare two units which are not related to each other. Often it is used with *like, as, than* etc. For example: *My layer is like a shark*. In the example is a *layer* compared to a *shark* and it express the *layer* has a qualities of the shark, he is brave and purposeful as the shark is (Glucksberg and McGlone, 2001, 10).

4.2.4 Synecdoche

The synecdoche is based on using a part which refers to the whole e.g. *England =the United Kingdom*. Types of synecdoche:

- a) The whole for a part (*Leeds defeated Manchester*)
- b) The species for the genus (*Cat* refers to any type of a cat)
- c) The genus for the species (*cookie* for a certain type of a cookie, e.g. Oreo)
- d) The name of the material for the thing made out of it (*Boards* for “stage”) (Peprník, 2003, 54).

Palmer explains the synecdoche as a whole/part relation (Palmer, 2001, 9).

4.2.5 Personification

Personification is a type of figurative language, where human characteristics are given to non-human subjects, such as to animals, objects, or to ideas (Bereckeiiová, 2010, 21). For example: *The clouds are dancing on the sky.*

4.2.6 Hyperbole

This figure of speech takes its roots from Greek word for “over-casting”, and it essentially involves an exaggeration of an idea to evoke strong feelings or to create a strong impression. It is often used in day-to-day speech. One of the very common examples is when you meet a friend after a long time saying *I have not seen you for ages*, while most probably you have not met him only for a couple of weeks. The term hyperbole can be summarized as an unreal exaggeration to emphasize the actual situation (Claridge, 2011, 37).

Below are given some other common examples of hyperbole:

She is older than the hills.

I am so hungry; I can eat a horse!

I was so tired; I could sleep for a year.

Your bag weighs a ton! (quizlet.com)

4.2.7 Euphemism

When there is a need to avoid saying something that is unpleasant, offensive or embarrassing, there is used a euphemism. Instead of saying *He died* it is appropriate to use euphemism *He passed away*. Using the euphemism the sentence sounds more polite which is wanted in this case (Enright, 2004, 23).

4.2.8 Irony

According to Bryant and Fox Tree, it is a language device, in both spoken and written form, expressing contrast between what is said and what is actually meant, what is written and what was done, what is forthcoming or planned and what actually happens. Irony can be classified into five types:

- a) Verbal irony – when the speaker says one thing, but actually meaning another.

- b) Dramatic irony – situation when the person is less aware of additional meaning of words or actions that take place, then the audience does.
- c) Irony of fate – a misfortune often connected with chance, fate or God's will.
- d) Situational irony - when expectations brought by a situation are reversed e.g. *The armor which was initially intended for protection, is what ended up causing the deaths.*
- e) Socratic irony - named after Socrates' teaching method, where he assumes openness and ignorance to opposing points of view which prove to be foolish.

Meanwhile, irony is often confused with sarcasm and satire. Sarcasm – it is assumed to be a form of a verbal argument. Sarcasm mainly involves an anger, as a desire to humiliate and put down someone's feelings e.g. *This is my genius daughter, who failed her test.*

Satire is the expression of the sin, follies or absurdity of a person, a group, an institution, an idea, a society, etc., as a rule with an intension to correcting or improving it. Satirists often use irony (Bryant and Fox Tree, 2002, 100-103).

4.3 Multi-Word Expressions

Multi – Word Expressions refer to groups of words whose meaning is not foreseeable every time. Further are mentioned the most common ones: Collocations and Idioms.

4.3.1 Collocations

According to McCarthy and O'Dell, the collocations are a lexical phenomenon consisting of a pair or a group of words which are often used together e.g. *fast cars, fast food, a quick glance, a quick meal*. Such combinations are often difficult to understand for non-native speakers, and sometimes may also sound wrong for native English speakers.

There are many types of collocations; meanwhile 6 main types are differentiated:

- Adjective + noun - adjectives are often used with particular nouns e.g. *This guy always wears red or yellow or other bright colour.*
- Noun + noun (such as collective nouns) - there are many collocations with a structure *a... of... .* E.g. *Every parent feels a sense of a pride when there a child succeed or wins something.*
- Verb + noun - often both standing together, e.g. *The economy boomed in 2000's.* (The economy was very strong).

- Adverb + adjective - adjectives usually having particular adverbs which often collocate with them, e.g. *They are happily married*.
- Verbs + prepositional phrase (phrasal verbs) - often verbs collocate with particular prepositional expressions e.g. *As David went on stage to receive his gold medal for Judo competition you could see his parents swelling with pride*. (Looking extremely proud).
- Verb + adverb - some verbs have particular adverbs which often collocate with them, e.g. *She smiled proudly as she looked on the photo of her new granddaughter* (McCarthy and O'Dell, 2005, 6- 12).

4.3.2 Idioms

In any language cannot be predicted whether some meaning can be expressed by a one word only or by a group of words. Idioms concern collocation of a special type. E.g. *Kick the bucket* – to die, *fly off the handle* – to get angry, *spill the beans* – to reveal the secret, *red herring* – a manoeuvre catching the attention on a fictional thing while hiding the main happening (Palmer, 2001, 79).

Sera defined the idioms as informal expressions which are used in everyday speech. They are units of words which have different meaning than the word would have if it would stand alone. Idioms belong to one of the hardest thing to learn in English. Non-native speakers have usually problem with learning idioms because they have a tendency to translate them literally (Sera, 2004, 5).

II. ANALYSIS

5 INTRODUCTION TO THE ANALYTICAL PART

The aim of the analysis is to focus on the frequency of semantic relations, the figures of speech and mainly the multi-word expressions. For the broadsheet newspapers is typical not to have a high number of figures of speech, which the thesis will try to confirm. Number of articles was chosen for an analysis from the British broadsheets – ten articles from The Guardian and then articles from the Daily Telegraph. From the American broadsheets were analyzed eight articles – four from the New York Times and four from the Chicago Tribune.

A corpus has been done out of chosen articles which are reporting on the Czech Republic as a holiday destination. The work is focused on the articles which describe the country capital – Prague. All studied articles were obtained from the official websites of the newspapers and because of this is not possible to focus on the visual aspect of the articles.

Each article includes a brief introduction to give a reader an overview of described article. Afterwards the multi-word expressions will be studied as well as semantic relations, figures of speech and the headlines.

In the end of the thesis will be evaluated the results concerning the number of the appeared features, which will confirm or disprove lack of the figures of speech in the broadsheets articles. There will be as well a comparison between American and British broadsheets and their using the same/different features to describe the Czech Republic.

The bachelor thesis includes a CD where all the analyzed articles are enclosed.

6 ARTICLES FROM A BRITISH NEWSPAPERS

In this chapter there will be analyzed ten articles from the British broadsheets. All of these articles are concerning Prague due to the fact a Czech republic is not a frequent topic in a foreign press. It contains number of ten articles, five of them is from The Telegraph another set of five articles comes from The Guardian. The articles from The Telegraph are enclosed on a CD under the names T1-5, as well as articles from The Guardian G1-5.

6.1.1 The Telegraph: Prague: Romance, revolutions – and beer (T1)

The headline of the article already gives a picture what reader can expected from the article and in a certain way it characterises the Prague. The author of the article is promoting Prague as an ideal place for a short winter break. He is giving reasons why to visit Prague, where to stay there (giving tips for the good hotels) and where to go, where to go for a lunch or for a dinner, good places for shopping and clubbing. In the end of the article is giving an advice to avoid the visit of Charles Bridge due to the fact this place is very crowded and under renovation works. In the article mostly appeared the collocations connected with describing the places in Prague e.g. *fairytale castle, famous sights* etc. There were found no figures of speech since the author was more just briefly describing and not using flowery language.

- Multi-word expressions
 - Collocations – *fairytale architecture, medieval heart, architectural legacy, fairytale castle, Christmas market, communist secret police, Augustinian monastery, landmark sight, Jewish cemetery, Czech specialities, impromptu performance, wooden toys, wooden puppets, communist era, famous sights, good views, programme details, central location.*
 - Idioms – *work your way through, blow away, in full swing.*
- Semantic relations
 - Synonymy – *wonderful, good, gorgeous, attractive, great.*

6.1.2 The Telegraph: Prague: Glad tidings from abroad (T2)

The by-line of the article reveals the content of the article. Author is narrating a story of his Christmas holidays in Prague and a gateway to a Czech countryside. In the article is used a plenty of collocations e.g. *old town, main street* etc. There were also found figures of speech: simile and personification.

- Multi-word expressions
 - Collocations: *clear night, crisp night, romantic break, windless air, freezing water, Christmas Eve, fairytale atmosphere, deep forest, warm welcome, wood-and-stone houses, good luck, good fortune, Christmas dinner, mid-priced hotel, old town, local wine, main street.*

 - Idioms: *pace up and down*

- Semantic relations
 - Synonymy: *cold – freezing, big- huge, large, fat*

- Figures of speech
 - Simile: *the stars glow like cold candles, snow sparkle like diamonds.*

 - Personification: *drunkenly leaning gravestones, big fat snowflakes were falling, road began to climb, the sun casting blue shadows in the hollows of drifts.*

6.1.3 The Telegraph: Prague city break guide (T3)

The headline already gives a description of the aim of the article, there will be found tips how to arrange a trip to Prague and what not to miss during the visit. By-line gives additional information by naming the topics which can be found in the text. The author gives a exact tips (with addresses, phone numbers, prices) where to go for lunch, where to hire a car etc. In the article appear a high number of collocations and not surprisingly any figures of speech because the text of the article is very brief and factual.

- Multi-word expressions
 - Collocations: *Iron Curtain, fashion shops, stone bridges, green river, best hotels, tourist-free, city bus, bus stop, transit system, Soviet normalisation, Soviet agent, Metro stop, excellent English, lunch hours, public drinking, smoking law, pub visits, competitive rates.*

- Semantic relations
 - Synonymy: *lovely-cool.*

6.1.4 The Telegraph: Prague attractions: what to see and do in autumn (T4)

Studying the headline of the article, it is very brief and clear what the article will focus on. By-line explains what the article will focus mainly, on the cultural events which worth to attend and suggesting the places where to stay during the visit. In the article do not appear figures of speech, as it was in the previous article. A high number of collocations were analyzed, they mostly cover the culture and the appearance of the city itself.

- Multi-word expressions
 - Collocations: *best exhibitions, gorgeous architecture, affordable city, cultural life, great spot, views of the city, royal orchards, tram ticket, mirror maze, eastern Prague, retrospective exhibition, collection of drawings, Czech architecture, unique photographs, great views, opening concerts, cheap hotel, stylish rooms, theatre performances, video art.*

- Semantic relations
 - Synonymy: *lovely-cool, affordable-cheap.*

6.1.5 The Telegraph: Prague Spring music festival: discovering a city's soul (T5)

As the headline indicates the article is focused on a Prague during the time of a Prague Spring music festival. The writer attended the music festival about which he reports as well as about the places which are worth to visit in Prague. In the article appear collocations

connected with the look of the capital e.g. *architectural chameleon*, *Baroque statues*. Collocations referring to the Czech history: *Communist repression*, *Nazi repression*, *communist government* etc. There were also found figures of speech as an irony, personification or simile.

- Multi-word expressions
 - Collocations: *music festival*, *hot tickets*, *Communist repression*, *Nazi repression*, *good fortune*, *notice board*, *important events*, *opening concert*, *independence movement*, *communist government*, *state-controlled media*, *audio guide*, *architectural chameleon*, *luxury brand*, *Baroque statues*.
- Figures of speech
 - Irony: *We are only nationalists now when we play ice-hockey*.
 - Personification: *City's soul*
 - Simile: *Music acts as a kind of stethoscope*.

6.1.6 The Guardian: Top 10 Prague surprises (G1)

The headline reveals the aim of the article, to describe the top ten places where to go in Prague. In the by-line can the phrase *kitsch museum* sound a bit offensive but further in the article is it clear the writer likes the museum and she encourages people to visit some of them. In the article are found two collocations concerning the night life in Prague: *gay bars* and *lesbian scene*. Further collocations connected with the museums: *Wellington-boot porcelain*, *wine glasses* etc. From the figures of speech were found only two metaphors it is very common for broadsheets there is not many figures of speech.

- Multi-word expressions
 - Collocations: *hidden sculptures*, *kitsch museum*, *quirky carnivals*, *online guide*, *vantage points*, *carnival city*, *costume parade*, *Wellington-boot porcelain*, *wine glasses*, *plastic cups*, *five-star hotel*, *gay bars*, *lesbian scene*, *design hotels*, *veggie restaurants*, *homemade pasta*

- Idioms: *stag party*
- Figures of speech
 - Simile: *buildings like concrete origami*
 - Metaphor: *chairs with spiders' legs*

6.1.7 The Guardian: Instant weekend ... Prague (G2)

The article describes step by step why to go to Prague, what to do there, where to eat etc.

It gives exact information including the phone numbers, web pages and addresses of the place which should not be dropped out during the visit of Prague. In the text are collocations referring to St Matthew's Fair: *spring fair, Easter markets*. Twice is mentioned the collocation *wooden toys*, which seems to be very popular among the foreign visitors. Only one metaphor was in this article: *smoky and atmospheric night life*.

- Multi-word expressions
 - Collocations: *spring fair, Easter markets, wooden toys, chain's bars, hidden streets, quiet corners, bohemian art, cafe culture, small restaurants, old town, hand-glazed kitchenware, hand-blown glass, jazz scene, same-day tickets*.
 - Idioms: *hit the spot*
- Figures of speech
 - Metaphor: *smoky and atmospheric night life*

6.1.8 The Guardian: 20 perfect getaways for Valentine's Day (G3)

The article does not include only Prague but also another 19 cities, which is obvious from the headline. The part which is dedicated to Prague, contains a tip for a hotel and information about air-tickets.

- Multi-word expressions
 - Collocations: *luxury hotels, music recitals, underground bars, comfort food, red whines, wine cellar, elegant restaurant.*
 - Idioms: *stag party*

6.1.9 The Guardian: Is the Prague the new Prague? (G4)

The headline of the article is arousing the curiosity of the reader because it is not much clear what is meant by the name. The author is focusing mainly on the topic of stag parties and where it is possible to avoid a stag group. Idioms *stag party* and *stag groups* appear several times in the text.

- Multi-word expressions
 - Collocations: *chick hotels, cellar bars, cheap flights, cheaper beer, new 'design' hotels, mass tourism, wine bar, party city, traditional restaurants, quiet streets, rich history, cafe culture, gourmet cuisine*
 - Idioms: *spot of shopping, stag party, stag groups, well-heeled crowd*
- Figures of speech
 - Metaphor: *candy-coloured, raspberry-coloured walls*

6.1.10 The Guardian: Reality Czech: an artist's tour of Prague (G5)

The author complains of the Prague is spoiled by the tourism. But still he admits there can be still found the Prague. He recommends visiting the certain bars and galleries. The reader can found the exact addresses and web pages referring to these places.

- Multi-word expressions
 - Collocations: *art scene, design hotel, metro ride, animation techniques, calm paintings, free exhibition, easy walk, art stars, exhibition space, antique shops, laptop cafes.*

 - Idioms: *lip service*

- Figures of speech
 - Metaphor: *In the heart of the old town, seduced by the city's art, writer's heaven*

7 ARTICLES FROM AMERICAN NEWSPAPERS

Further will be analyzed eight articles from American newspapers which are focused on a capital Prague. Four Articles come from The New York Times and another set of four comes from The Chicago Tribune. The articles from The New York Times are on the enclosed CD under the names NY1-NY4 and the articles from The Chicago Tribune under C1-C4.

7.1.1 The New York Times: What's doing in; Prague (NY1)

The headline of the article gives direct clues, what to expect from the content of the article. Author of the article is commenting the fact the Prague is overcrowded and he is trying to give tips how to avoid the crowds and enjoy the stay in Prague. There is also briefly mentioned a history of the Czech Republic e.g. *Communist times, Socialist era*. As in the British articles are found here the contact information of hotels, cafes and restaurants. Due to that fact there are also written approximate prices.

- Multi-word expressions

- Collocations: *Velvet Revolution, day trippers, side effects, well-known areas, intact architecture, souvenir hawkers, country code, Stalinist era, Warsaw Pact, Communist times, pub life, love life, pedestrian bridges, Moravian sparkling wine, French champagne, boat tour, Czech food, full bottle, local whites, Eastern Europe, wine list, basic menu, traditional Czech dishes, Czech ingredients, Western European style, light meals, Socialist era, continental breakfast, quiet street, historic house, small restaurant, excellent service, piano bar, modern-self service restaurant, short walk, around the corner, five-star hotel.*

- Idioms: *off the beaten track*

- Semantic relations

- Synonymy: *Reasonably priced – very expensive, moderately priced – less expensive*

- Figures of speech
 - Simile: *Kampa island seems more like a quiet stretch of riverside park*

7.1.2 The New York Times: Affordable Europe: Prague (NY2)

According the headline is the reader able to judge what the article will be about. The author is giving tips for cheap places to eat, where to accommodate, money saving tips for transport, best things to do for free in Prague etc. Except the collocations, there was studied one metaphor: *Prague still does its best cooking with liquids*. It refers to the fact the Czech Republic is well known for its beer and it is a big attraction for the tourists.

- Multi-word expressions
 - Collocations: *post-Communist capitals, modern era, higher prices, touristy zone, beer drinkers, best beers, front door, smoked pork, spicy mustard, English-style ham, central-city, summer high season, buffet breakfast, golden hour, magical touch, public transportation, travel pass, every corner of the city, mass transit, stillness of the city.*
- Figures of speech
 - Metaphor: *Prague still does its best cooking with liquids.*

7.1.3 The New York Times: 36 Hours in Prague (NY3)

The article does not contain a by-line, reader has to rely on the headline to get a clue what the article will be about. In the case of this article reader can predict, it will be about very quick visit of Prague.

- Multi-word expressions
 - Collocations: *cheap beer, great beer, boring restaurants, art galleries, Asian spice, entire weekend, classic attractions, across the street, good taste, dinner for two, hotel coffee, tourist attractions, quality wine, wine bar, lunch for two, cultural life, exhibition*

space, gallery space, street wear, retro style, vintage clothing, comfort food, in the very centre.

- Figures of speech
 - Metaphor: *street has blossomed*

7.1.4 The New York Times: Prague (NY4)

The headline is very minimalistic and brief; it does not provide any further information. There is not included any by-line which would introduce the content of the article. Mostly were studied the collocations concerning the history e.g. *Communist rule, Soviet bloc* etc. From the figure of speech there were found two metaphors: *lollipop-pink facade* and *sunflower-yellow trim*, which refer to the renovations in Prague.

- Multi-word expressions
 - Collocations: *tourist boom, The Culture Ministry, Western consumerism, Communist rule, post-modern architecture, Soviet bloc, Bohemian tradition, wall paintings.*
- Figures of speech
 - Metaphor: *lollipop-pink facade, sunflower-yellow trim*

7.1.5 The Chicago Tribune: Walk across Prague (C1)

The headline of the article is clear, the reader knows what to expect from the article. The headline is in this case not followed by the by-line which would state some more detailed information. In the texts were not found any semantic relations or figures of speech, which is typical for an article from broadsheet newspapers.

- Multi-word expressions
 - Collocations: *historic churches, historic synagogues, meeting point, Czech history, Soviet Union's Invasion, Velvet Revolution, Czechoslovak state, communist government, short walk, taxi cab,*

architectural style, pedestrian-only bridge, castle complex, travel guidebooks, tourist information, beer hall, transportation system.

7.1.6 The Chicago Tribune: Delectable Prague (C2)

The headline of the article arouses the curiosity in the reader. By-line already explains what the article will be about and it is gastronomy. The author is calling the changes in gastronomy as a *second velvet revolution*. The collocations analyzed in the article are referring to the food e.g. *street food, sweet dessert, vanilla ice-cream, wine list* etc.

- Multi-word expressions

- Collocations: *culinary techniques, restaurant scene, street food, “traditional” Czech dishes, degustation menu, degustation size-portion, wine list, olive oil, sweet dessert, wine shop, vanilla ice-cream, Czech wines, Italian wines, French wines.*

7.1.7 The Chicago Tribune: What’s brewing in Prague (C3)

A short article, in which the headline is eye-catching for the tourists who aim to visit Prague mainly for drinking the Czech beer. Due the fact that the article is very short, there is no additional information to find. It does not appear a by-line to introduce the article.

- Multi-word expressions

- Collocations: *best brews, beer lovers, vacation package, daily breakfast, round trip, no extra charge.*

7.1.8 The Chicago Tribune: Homeless tours show visitors “dark side” of Prague (C4)

The headline of the article may awake curiosity of the reader, who can wonder what is meant by the *dark side* (only the homeless people, or is there anything more?). There is no by-line, it forces the reader to start to read the article further.

- Multi-word expressions
 - Collocations: *tour guide, average visitor, evening tour, railway station, cartons of wine, ex-Communist countries, euro zone, homeless camp, EU members, drug dealers, extra money*

- Semantic relations
 - Synonymy: *old – well worn, dark places – dark side*

7.2 Summary of an analytical part

All of the studied articles were focused on the same topic – Prague. Mainly it was a due to the reason the Czech Republic is very rarely mentioned in the British and American broadsheets or in press in general.

In the analytical part were studied the multi – word expressions, semantic relations and figures of speech. The number of individual features was calculated separately in the chosen British and American articles.

In the analyzed particles from the British broadsheets mostly appeared collocations (149) which were followed by idioms (12), synonymy (6) and by figures of speech (appearance of Simile (4), Personification (5), Irony (1) and Metaphor (7)).

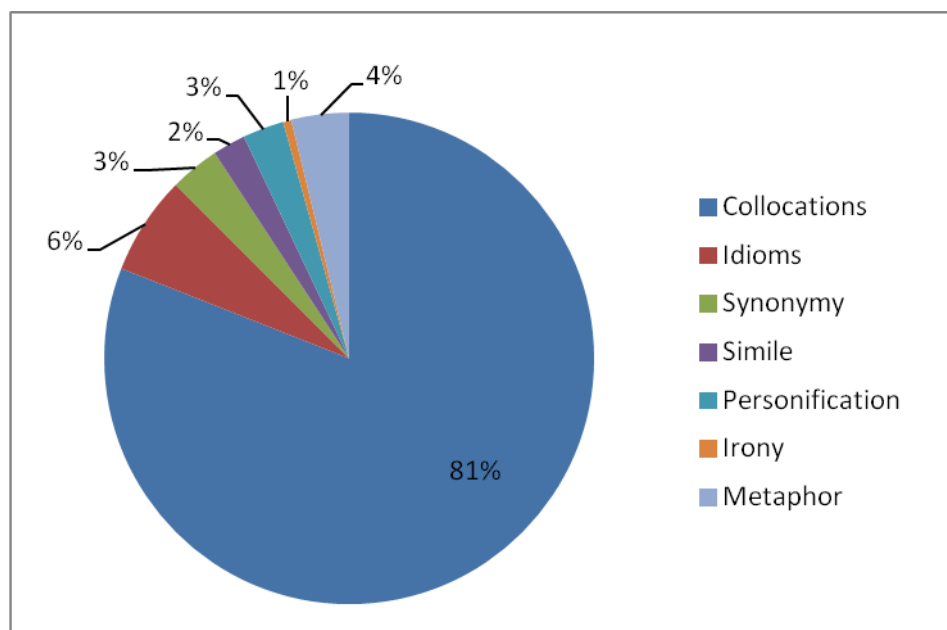


Figure 1. Percentage of linguistic features as appeared in the analyzed articles from British broadsheets.

In articles from American broadsheets also mostly appeared collocations (136), followed by idioms (1), synonymy (4) and figures of speech: simile (1) and metaphor (4). The results in the percentage can be seen in Fig. 2.

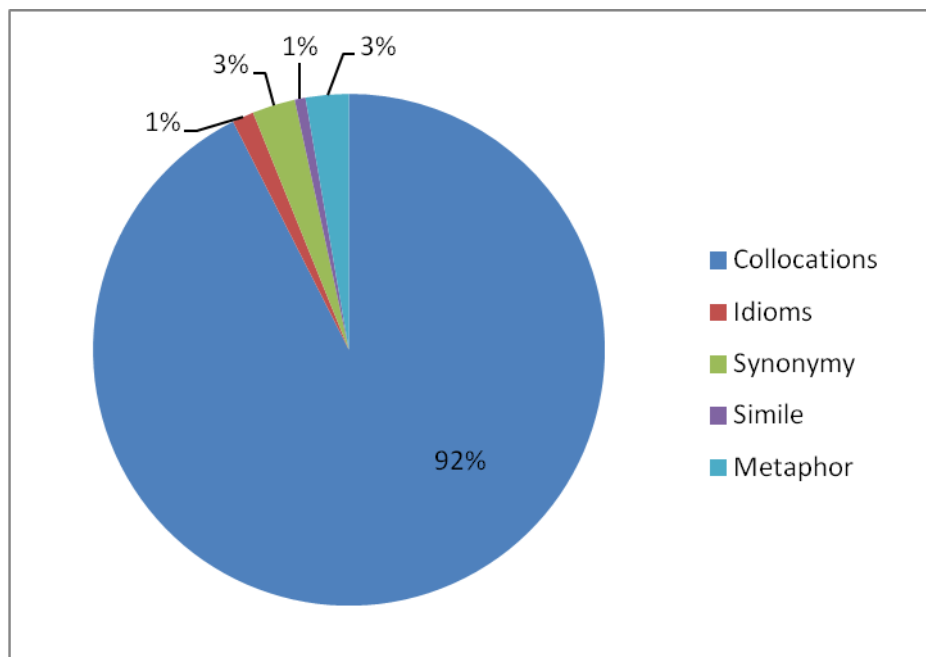


Figure 2. Percentage of linguistic features as appeared in the analyzed articles from American broadsheets.

The analysis proved the fact there is not a high frequent of appearance of figures of speech in the broadsheets articles. Broadsheets articles must be objective, serious and without any emotions which is proved by the results of the analysis.

In Fig. 3 the quantity linguistic features of British and American broadsheets are compared.

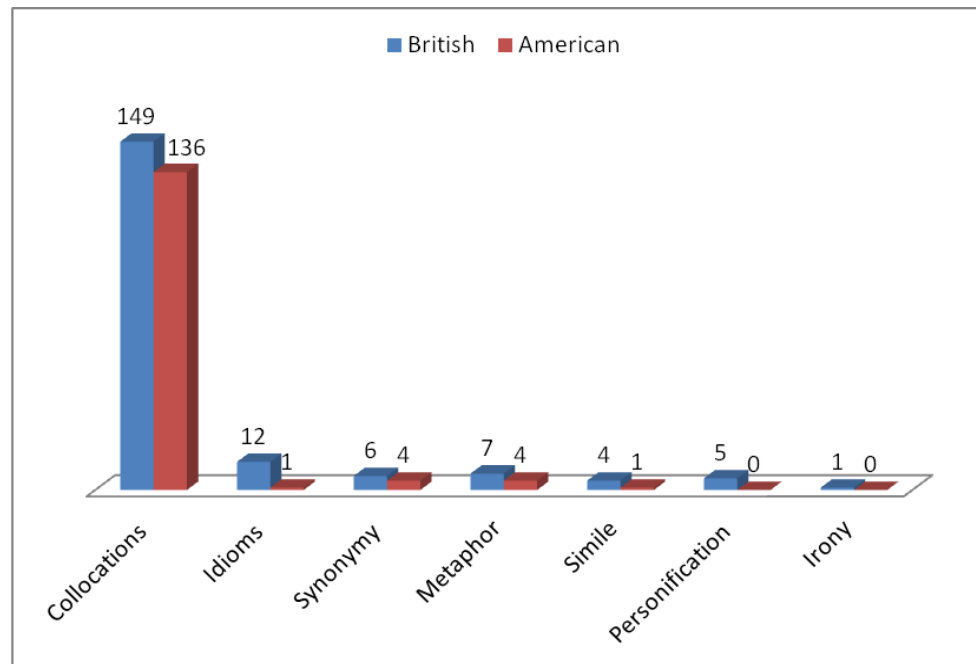


Figure 3. Comparison of linguistic features in British and American broadsheets.

Despite the fact there was used ten British articles and eight American ones, the number of collocations is almost the same. In the British articles was founded higher number of idioms than in American ones, numbers of figures of speech are very close to each other. It shows there are no significant differences between linguistic features used in British and American broadsheets.

CONCLUSION

Linguistic analysis of the newspaper articles is an effective way to understand the language devices which are typically used in mass media in different countries.

The analysis describes the use of multi-word expressions, semantic relations and figures of speech. Even this kind of analyses provides very useful information it will always be limited by the focus of the topic. This is mainly due to the fact that the linguistic terms are highly dependent on the aim of the written article. Meanwhile the analysis of the texts associated with description of a country as a holiday destination are consist of a specific linguistic terms. The articles also differed in a quantity of used linguistic devices. Four articles included four to five different types of linguistic devices while in contrast two others contained only one in each.

Due to the reason the tabloids did not cover topics concerning holidays abroad e.g. Czech Republic, which is mainly because that they are generally orientated on gossips about celebrities and royal family.

Overall, the collocations presented the vast majority of the linguistic devices found in broadsheets. The least used ones were the figures of speech, since they are more typical to tabloids rather than broadsheets.

This analysis allowed to understand the variation of used linguistic devices in broadsheets covering Czech Republic as a holiday destination, however further analysis would be useful to understand the trends and the changes of used linguistic terms.

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APPENDICES

P 1 Corpus of analysed articles (attached CD)