



Pedagogická
fakulta
Faculty
of Education

Jihočeská univerzita
v Českých Budějovicích
University of South Bohemia
in České Budějovice

Jihočeská univerzita v Českých Budějovicích
Pedagogická fakulta
Katedra anglistiky

Diplomová práce

Lexicological view of the language of the sport commentaries

Lexikologický pohled na jazyk sportovních
komentátorů

Vypracoval: Marek Mesz
Vedoucí práce: Mgr. Leona Rohrauer

České Budějovice 2014

PROHLÁŠENÍ

Prohlašuji, že svoji diplomovou práci jsem vypracoval/a samostatně pouze s použitím pramenů a literatury uvedených v seznamu citované literatury.

Prohlašuji, že v souladu s § 47b zákona č. 111/1998 Sb. v platném znění souhlasím se zveřejněním své diplomové práce, a to v nezkrácené elektronickou cestou ve veřejně přístupné části databáze STAG provozované Jihočeskou univerzitou v Českých Budějovicích na jejích internetových stránkách, a to se zachováním mého autorského práva k odevzdanému textu této kvalifikační práce. Souhlasím dále s tím, aby toutéž elektronickou cestou byly v souladu s uvedeným ustanovením zákona č. 111/1998 Sb. zveřejněny posudky školitele a oponentů práce i záznam o průběhu a výsledku obhajoby kvalifikační práce. Rovněž souhlasím s porovnáním textu mé kvalifikační práce s databází kvalifikačních prací Theses.cz provozovanou Národním registrem vysokoškolských kvalifikačních prací a systémem na odhalování plagiátů.

V Českých Budějovicích dne 30. 7. 2014

.....

Marek Mesz

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor Mgr. Leona Rohrauer, for her guidance, never ending patience, helpful comments and understanding. I would like to thank also to my family for their support during difficult times.

ABSTRACT

The diploma thesis deals with the speech of sport commentaries and expressions used by sport commentators during sport broadcast. The thesis focuses on the lexicological level of their speech. The theoretical part at first presents a short summary of language of sport journalism and then the major part of the theoretical part is dedicated to meaning. Several different approaches to meaning are presented in this part as well as definition of meaning itself. Theoretical part also defines semantic change and it focuses on polysemy and homonymy and their distinction. The practical part is dedicated to the occurrence of polysemous and homonymous words among arbitrary chosen sport terms. The diploma thesis should contribute to the further study of the language of sport commentaries. The thesis should also be useful for the scientific and public society and it should serve as a link between those two areas.

ANOTACE

Diplomová práce se zabývá výrazy komentářů sportovních událostí, a také výrazy použitými sportovními komentátory během sportovních přenosů. Práce se zaměřuje na lexikologickou stránku sportovních komentářů. Teoretická část podává krátké shrnutí sportovní žurnalistiky, ale hlavní část je věnována významu. V této části jsou prezentovány různé přístupy k významu, společně s definicí a rozdělením významu. Dále jsou zde vysvětleny změny ve významu a jeho rozšíření, následované definicí polysémie, homonymie a jejich rozlišení.

Table of contents:

Introduction	8
Theoretical part.....	10
1. Sport journalism	10
1.1 General Characteristic of Sport Journalism.....	10
1.2 Form	11
1.3 Function.....	11
1.4 Characteristic Features	12
2. Meaning in Language.....	14
2.1 Sign system of Language.....	14
Approaches to meaning and to the sign system.....	14
2.1.1 Saussure’s approach	14
2.1.2 Ogden/Richard’s approach “Semiotic Triangle”	18
2.1.3 Bühler’s “Organon Model”	20
2.1.4 “Holist” approach	21
2.1.5 Monosemic versus polysemic approach.....	21
3. Meaning.....	22
3.1 Types of meaning	23
3.2 Seven types of Meaning (according to Leech)	25

4. Semantic change and Extensions of meaning	27
4.1 Types of semantic change	28
4.2 Causes of semantic change	28
4.3 Types of semantic change	30
4.3.1 Main types of the change.....	30
4.3.2 Lower-level patterns	34
4.3.3 Additional semantic changes	35
5. Polysemy	36
5.1 The basic definition	36
5.2 Variants of Polysemy	37
5.2.1 Linear relations of polysemes.....	37
5.2.2 Non-linear polysemy	39
5.2.3 Systematic polysemy	41
5.3 Approaches to polysemy	42
5.4 The importance of context.....	42
6. Homonymy.....	42
6.1 Classification of Homonyms	43
6.1.1 Proper homonyms.....	43
6.2 Sources of homonymy	44

6.3 Polysemy versus Homonymy	44
Practical part.....	47
7. Methodology.....	47
7.1 Expectations from the research.....	50
8. Usage of metaphor and metonymy	50
8.1 Metaphor in sport	50
8.2 Metonymy in sport	53
9. Hyperbole and pejoration in sport	55
9.1 Hyperbole	55
9.2 Pejoration.....	56
10. Homonymy and polysemy in the language of sport commentators	57
The appearance of homonymy and polysemy in the basketball terminology	58
10.1 Homonymy	58
10.2 Polysemy	60
10.3 The ratio of homonymy and polysemy in the research	64
Conclusion.....	66
Resumé	68
Reference.....	71
Sources	73

Appendix	74
----------------	----

Introduction

The world of sport journalism is an unstable system that changes during the time. There are many new words given to probably almost all languages around the world via this part of journalism. However the topic of neologisms in sport journalism is also very interesting this diploma thesis focuses on words that are somehow connected with the everyday world around each of us. This connection is what this thesis is interested into, to say whether words used in the sport terminology are polysemous or homonymous. The very first part of the theoretical part is dedicated to the definition of sport journalism. It gives a small outlook of the world of sport commentators.

The topic of word meaning and meaning itself is still frequently discussed and it will probably be an interesting topic in the future too. There are many approaches to meaning because meaning is partly a subjective term and every one of us understands it in a different way. There are some approaches to meaning presented in the theoretical part of this thesis. The well-known approach by Ferdinand de Saussure is mentioned in the first place and then there are some other approaches defined too. It is necessary to define meaning itself and its kinds for the thesis and so it is done after the approaches are presented.

The essential part of the theoretical part is the definition of semantic change. The main idea of the diploma thesis is that words used in the sport environment are often also commonly used by public speakers. As the result of that the thesis focuses on semantic change and extensions of meaning and after that it deals with the topic of polysemy and homonymy. The rivalry of polysemy and homonymy is very difficult theme and there has not been made a final statement whether some words are homonymous or polysemous. To simplify the distinction between those terms the theoretical part gives an overview of each term. There are given approaches and classifications of both terms. In the very end of the theoretical part there is a subchapter dedicated to the issue of question how to distinguish between polysemy and homonymy.

The aim of the practical part was to give a view on the language of sport commentators, especially on their lexicon. The main idea was to bring closer two worlds, the world of sport environment and the linguistic world. Both worlds have a different opinion on words registered by our research. Many of those words have meaning that is known only to the one of mentioned worlds. The laic society of the sport environment

probably does not have any idea what is the origin of the terms of sport terminology and how it is connected with the common usage. Whether is there any connection between their usual everyday usage and the sport term or whether those words were formed only for the sport usage. That is one aim of the diploma thesis to bring the world of meaning closer to a laic reader. The other one is to show to scholars that some words from the common use that have other meaning or meanings unknown to them. The new semantic relations can be formed as a result of that and some words can become homonymous. However this thesis is based on a small sample and it cannot be understood as a fact, it can be useful for the future research based on the similar idea.

The output of this diploma thesis is a small vocabulary of sport terms and phrases. The vocabulary can be seen in the Appendix of the thesis and it comprises two hundred words or phrases. Those terms were chosen strictly arbitrary because the aim was to point out the most interesting and the most common terms in the sport terminology of researched sports. The thesis focuses on the terminology of five sports, basketball, American football, ice hockey, tennis and soccer (football). The extension of meaning and the change of meaning is described in the vocabulary. There is also given a vocabulary definition and the definition of the term in the sport terminology.

Theoretical part

1. Sport journalism

It is crucial to highlight main features of the style of sport journalism for better understanding of sport terminology. There is a short excursion to the journalistic or publicist style and its rules. The differences between spoken and written style are also included.

1.1 General Characteristic of Sport Journalism

Sport journalism can be defined as a branch of journalism interested in sport activities, athletes, coaches or the sport management and provides complete news and information. The main focus is on results or on a description of a sport event. The big part of sport journalism is interviewing athletes or their staff.

In the historical view sport journalism is considered as a young part of journalism. It is connected with the development of society and its interest in sport. The interest in leisure activities has been increasing simultaneously with improving standards of living. The boom of the first sport articles can be found somewhere between the end of 19th century and the beginning of 20th century and it is connected with the development of mass media. There were no specialized educated sport journalists and the need of reading articles from sport environment was lacking too. The very first articles were mostly consisted of results or the scorer was mentioned in addition. During the 20th century the interest in sport was increasing and the popularity of each sport too. People were hungry for more sport information and as a result of this development the sport journalism had to change. At first there were short articles but after a while it transformed into a big part of almost every newspaper in the world.

The next big factor which had an effect on sport journalism was the invention of the radio and television. A different field of journalism was introduced with this new form of media. The sport events started to be broadcast and the live commentary was required. The radio commentator had a harder work to do. He needed to provide factual information about the happening on the court or field as well as the visual one. When the television broadcasting appeared the commentator suddenly had an opportunity to use more colourful language and to interact with the audience too. As Crystal and Davy (1969) add “... *the*

need for vivid description is often so strong as to reduce explanation to a minimum.”
(Crystal and Davy; 1969: 125)

Sport journalism is a big part of nowadays society, partly because sport has developed into a mass commercial mechanism influencing a large number of the Earth population. In my opinion sport journalism can be compared to any other branch of journalism and it is as important as for example politics journalism. Its purpose is not just to inform but also to keep cultural legacy and to support patriotism.

1.2 Form

The form of journalistic style is either spoken or written. The most common form is short news, statements, advertisements or announcements. The spoken form is very frequent as well. TV and radio news, internet video-news or interviews are the best field of action of the spoken form.

1.3 Function

Main functions of publicist style are to inform, to instruct the reader, to deliver news or to provide facts and information. Speaking about sport journalism the main function is to inform the reader or the viewer about results of a particular sport event. The recipient wants to know what he is interested in, not to be formed by sport journalists. The present function is different from the function of sport journalism in its beginnings. As was mentioned above, the first articles included more or less the results of a given event. As sport has become more and more popular, the function has changed and in some parts it is losing the sport nature of information. People are more interested in the lives of athletes, their income or affairs. Consequently the sport journalism is becoming so called yellow journalism. The yellow journalism is described by Oxford Dictionary as *“the type of journalism that relies on sensationalism and lurid exaggeration to attract readers.”*¹

The linking of sport journalism to patriotism or influencing of national thinking covers an extraordinary function. It is closely related to the success of a national athlete. If there is some remarkable success the journalists have an opportunity to form the thinking of nation. The massive coverage of articles about the success in a sport event, can cause a growth of patriotism and people start to be proud of their country. The other effect is also possible. With the success comes an expansion of athletes in the particular sport branch. For

¹ <http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/yellow+journalism?s=ts>

example: At recent Olympic games, London, 2012, the British cycling athletes triumphed and due to this success the eminent and enormous interest in cycling was initiated.²

1.4 Characteristic Features

Not only for sport journalists but for all journalists it is essential to be accurate and clear in their utterances. The usage of generally known term is important too. The number of appearance of clichés is high. It is popular among journalist to use some kinds of clichés. On the other hand the journalist who does not use clichés is considered to be more serious and credible. The website uk.askmen.com³ has presented a list of clichés that are hated by the sport community. For example “*There are no easy games in international football.*” more of them can be found at their website.

The language of journalists is well known for a frequent usage of metaphors, euphemisms, emotionally marked words or neologisms. The number of the usage of every mentioned unit is different according to the theme of the article or broadcasting, the lexicon of the journalists is different for articles about politics, military, society or sport. It is connected with a thought which Crystal and Davy (1969) give “... *descriptions, explanations and opinions may, on different occasions, relate to an almost unlimited range of subject matter, it becomes obvious that the term ‘commentary’ has to serve for many kinds of linguistic activity, all of which would need to be represented in any adequate descriptive treatment, and would presumably require separate labels such as ‘exegesis’, ‘political comment’, and so on.*” (Crystal and Davy; 1969:125) The shortest way of expression is required because journalists are trying to put maximum information on as little space as is possible. The usage of abbreviations or polysemy words is a logical result in the light of these requirements.

The next big factor which is important for the commentator to stick to it is fluency and unbroken flow of speech as Crystal and Davy (1969) add. The hearer or the spectator is focused on the sport event and the fluency of the speech keeps him calm and focused on the sport happening. But if the commentator mumbles, snuffles or even stutters it is far more difficult for the spectator to focus on the happening more than on the speech. The speech should be a fluent “accessory” of the sport broadcasting. Prepared written text can

² <http://www.getwestlondon.co.uk/all-about/uxbridge>

³ http://uk.askmen.com/top_10/dating/top-10-most-hated-football-commentary-cliches.html

be a helpful item for the commentary but if he once gets lost in the text, the fluency is broken and so is the speech. The speech does not have to be unbroken in fact there is a little need for some pauses and brakes for the commentator. Crystal and Davy (1969) say that these pauses are typical not only for the speech of commentaries but also for the everyday speech of every one of us.

It is possible to speak about a pattern or a model of commentary of the sport event in the spoken form of sport journalism. The pattern is obliged due to strict rules of each sport discipline and because of those rules the commentary tends to be stereotyped. The commentator describes actions which repeat in almost every contest of the specific discipline. This is typical of team sports such as soccer or basketball which have fixed rules and the happening is repetitive. To keep the broadcasting interesting the sport commentator needs to change the formality of language or use the above mentioned metaphor. The usage of fixed expressions is usually very popular too because it helps them to comment the concrete situation quickly and adequately. It is easier for journalists who write articles about sport. They have time to prepare interesting words or metaphors before their work is mediatized. On the other hand the television or radio broadcaster has a far much more complicated role. The majority of broadcasting is based on improvisation because of this the broadcaster should have a wide knowledge of vocabulary and his mother tongue too. The advantage of a live broadcasting is that the recipient can hear the intonation or emotions of the commentator. Sometimes it can be confusing for the recipient to understand what the journalist is saying. The terminology is often different for each sport and the commentator does not have to provide the explanation of the given term. He expects that the recipient has the knowledge of common terminology of the specific sport. I.e. *play-off* – for the games after the standard phase of league/tournament which have eliminating character, *icing* – the violation in ice hockey, *traveling* – the violation in basketball. But the most of sport terms are commonly known even to a sporadic sport fan.

2. Meaning in Language

It is crucial for this thesis to define what a meaning is because the meaning of words is essentially connected with the topic of the research on which this thesis is based on. Basically we can define meaning as a connection between a sign and forms that it is indicated by. The theory of sign and its approach to meaning will be presented in more detail below. In this thesis Saussure's approach is brought into focus because we think it is still the best and the most specific approach to the meaning of words and the sign system.

There are two types of studies within linguistics that study meaning, semantics and pragmatics. The one we are interested in deals with the meaning of words, phrases and sentences and it is called semantics. It is focused on the way of building complex meanings out of simpler ones. The other one, pragmatics, studies language in particular situations and explains how external factors influence meaning. Fasold (2006)

It is necessary to deal with each type of meaning and define all kinds of meaning for our work. There are many terms in the speech of sport commentaries that have different meaning in sport environment and among wide public knowledge. So it is crucial for us to define those kinds of meaning and their connection. Then we have to define the possibilities of meaning change.

First we will start with the definition of the sign system of language so we can understand the very basic units of meaning and then we can continue with further defining of meaning.

2.1 Sign system of Language

Approaches to meaning and to the sign system

As was said before meaning is a very inconsistent term in linguistic, a laic would say that it is a hot potato for linguists. There are many viewpoints of it and approaches to the meaning and the following part summarizes some of them, probably the most common of them.

2.1.1 Saussure's approach

Before we can speak about polysemy or polysemous words in general it is essential to mention the roots of word meaning and how the system of language works. For this study it is important to define what the sign system of language is so that the research is

grounded in solid theoretical framework. The sign system of language can be described as - *“Any natural human language is a complex sign system, “designed” to ensure infinite expressive capacity – that is to say, there is nothing that is thinkable which cannot in principle be encoded (provided no limit is placed on the complexity of utterances). Each elementary sign is a stable symbolic association between a meaning and a form (phonetic or graphic); elementary signs may combine together in a rule-governed way to form complex signs which convey correspondingly complex meanings.”* (Cruse, 2000: 6). This is one of many interpretations of the given problem. To be more specific we have to go to the very beginning of linguistics, to one of its founders, Ferdinand de Saussure. Who says – *“Language is a system of signs that express ideas, and is therefore comparable to a system of writing, the alphabet of deaf-mutes, symbolic rites, polite formulas, military signals, etc. But it is the most important of all of these systems.”* (Saussure, 1916: 16)

Linguistic sign

The nature of sign can be basically defined as something that represents something else. There is a mutual dependence between concept and sound-image, in other words between signified and signifier. According to Saussure the word consists of a concept and a sound-image. *“The latter is not the material sound, a purely physical thing, but the psychological imprint of the sound, the impression that it makes on our senses. The sound-image is sensor, and if I happen to call it “material, it is only in that sense, and by way of opposing it to the other term of the association, the concept, which is generally more abstract”.* (Saussure, 1916: 66). Sign consists of three characteristic features which are important to mention. It is arbitrariness, conventionality and the linear nature of the signifier.

The arbitrariness and conventionality of a signifier

It is unquestionable that the connection between signifier and signified is purely arbitrary. It can be demonstrated for example on the word *sister* as Saussure pointed out in his work. *“The idea of ‘sister’ is not linked by any inner relationship to the succession of sounds s-oə-r which serves as its signifier in French; that it could be represented equally by just any other sequence is proved by differences among languages and by the very existence of different languages: the signified ‘ox’ has as its signifier b-o-f on one side of the border and o-k-s (Ochs) on the other.”* (Saussure, 1916: 68). He adds that not all of them are that obvious but if we examine them precisely we will find them. By arbitrariness

we do not say that the choice of the signifier is completely up to the speaker, one individual cannot switch a sign in a way he desires. Although arbitrariness is unmotivated and has no natural connection with signified, it is conventional, i.e. obligatory for all speakers of the language. Without the sign being bound by convention, speakers would not be able to understand one another.

The choice of the signifier does not have to be always arbitrary. There are also signs in language whose form is somehow connected with meaning. These signs are called iconic. Cruse gives a good example with Arabic and Roman numerals for “three”: 3 and III. *“The Arabic form gives no clue to its meaning; the Roman version, on the other hand, incorporates ‘threeness’ into its shape, and is thus iconic. Iconicity is a matter of degree, and usually coexists with some degree of arbitrariness. Three horizontal lines would be just as iconic as the Roman III: the fact that in the Roman symbol the lines are vertical is arbitrary, as is the fact that its size corresponds to that of letters.”*(Cruse, 2000: 7). Still the majority of signs in the language are arbitrary however there are some exceptions such as *onomatopoeic words*.

Onomatopoeia can be defined as an act of creating or using words that include sounds that are similar to the noises the words refer to.⁴ Saussure claims that onomatopoeic words can prove that the arbitrariness of the signifier is not dogmatic. Even though there is much smaller amount of them than it was meant. He also says that onomatopoeic words are in some way chosen arbitrarily as well because their form is partly conventional and only an approximate imitation of each sound. Lipka (1992: 48) adds that we can object to this view. For some onomatopoeic words e.g. crash, bang etc., exists a connection between signified and signifier which is completely non-arbitrary.

Nowadays semiotics i.e. the general theory of signs calls a non-arbitrary, motivated, sign “icon” and differs it from the arbitrary sign as “symbol” adds Lyons (1977: 193) to the subject of arbitrariness.

The Linear nature of the signifier

The signifier is auditory and is closely connected with the time in which takes place. From this being said Saussure gives signifier these characteristics: *a) it represents a span and b) the span is measurable in a single dimension.* (Saussure, 1916: 70). Lipka

⁴ <http://www.dictionary.cambridge.org/>

(1992: 42) describes the linearity of the signifier as a chain of temporally successive elements. The fact that an individual person cannot produce several sounds at the same time is another notion in this topic. Sometimes it can be difficult to grasp the linear nature of the signifier because it is not obvious.

The Immutability and mutability of the sign

The Immutability of the sign

However the sign and its connection to its meaning can appear freely chosen, it is not free, it is fixed. It is integrated to the linguistic community system that uses it. Even though we would like to replace the signifier, it is not possible because this signifier is a part of the given language system. Saussure says: *“This fact, which seems to embody a contradiction, might be called colloquially ‘the stacked deck.’ We say to language: ‘Choose!’ but we add: ‘It must be this sign and no other.’”* (Saussure, 1916: 71) In each epoch of human history language occurs as an inheritance of previous era and social environment is causing changes in a language. But some pieces of language are remaining same because each language is based on a tradition. Saussure (1916: 73) comes up with the following historical factors that form the language and they are the main cause why the sign is immutable.

a) The arbitrary nature of the sign

The main notion of the arbitrariness of the sign was mentioned above. The arbitrariness protects language from every possible attempt to change language.

b) The multiplicity of signs necessary to form any language

Each language is made of a great number of signs. There is a limit of letters in a system of writing. It consists of twenty to forty letters which can be replaced by other symbols. This could be applied also in the language system if the number of linguistic signs was limited. But it is not possible because the linguistic signs are numberless.

c) The over-complexity of the system

Every language functions as a system. Sometimes it is not arbitrary but still a language has its rules and even though there were and always will be attempts to change it, they will probably fail every time. The complexity of language

mechanism can be understood only through reflection. The change can be reached through specialists' variations or tests but historical records show us the futility and the failure of their tries.

d) Collective inertia toward innovation

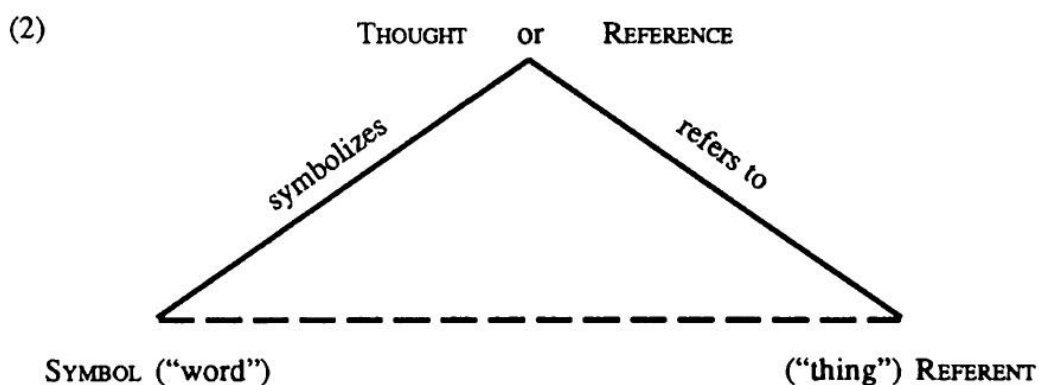
A language is the most importantly the concern of all of us, it is spread and influenced by the society. It cannot be compared to any other institution or system such as law, religion or sports rules. These rules are binding just for a limited circle of people but language always involves everyone deeds and we are still under its influence. The language and our life are inseparably united.

The Mutability of the sign

The sign faces alternation because the sign lasts throughout the history in use. Every alternation is influenced by the existence of the previous substance. The principle of continuity is the main notion of the change of a sign. There can be various changes of a sign – phonetic change of a signifier or changes of a connection towards the signified. The result of the change is a shift of a relation between signifier and signified.

2.1.2 Ogden/Richard's approach "Semiotic Triangle"

The model of the linguistic sign developed by Ogden and Richards is represented in modified form:



(Lipka; 1992: 43)

This theory adds to the Saussure's theory one factor – *the thought of reference*. The structure of the sign is formed by three parts, which refers to the peaks of the triangle and by three relationships which refers to the sides of the triangle. The structure of the sign is made by of symbol which is noted by a referent. The dashed line means that the connection

is not direct. Ogden/Richards (Lipka; 1992:43) characterize this connection as “an imputed relation”. The connection is indirect, they are connected by a thought or reference.

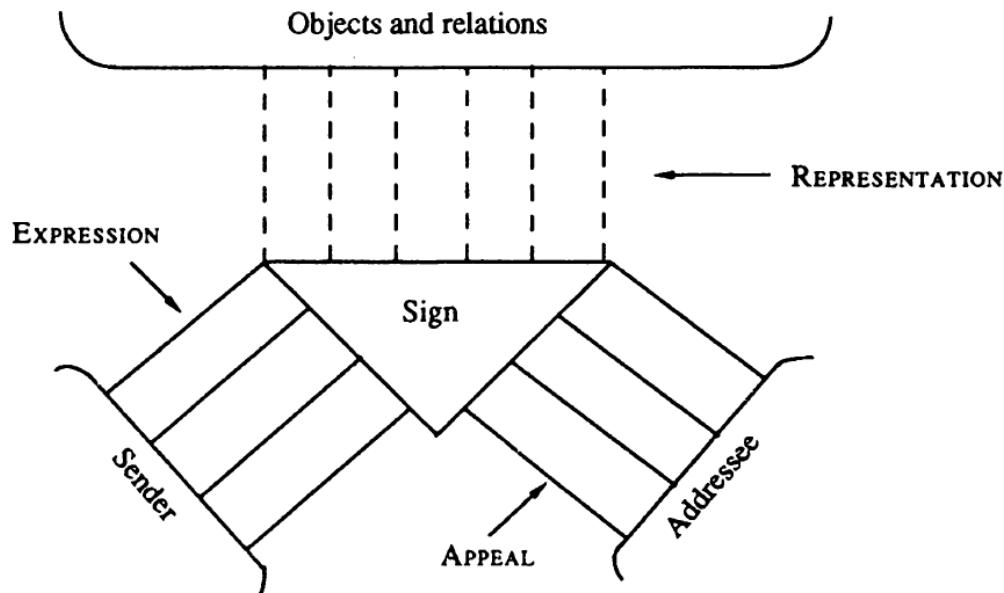
Ogden/Richards (Lipka; 1992:43) used the term reference in a different way than many recent linguistic theories. “*The term is either used for the relation between the full linguistic sign and an extralinguistic referent, or the action of a speaker referring to an extralinguistic object by means of a linguistic sign. According to Ogden/Richards’s semiotic triangle, there is then, for example, no direct relation between the significant (or symbol) dog and a certain class of living beings, or a specific element of this class. They stress the point that the meaning of a linguistic symbol (as a concept or thought) has to be clearly distinguished from the extralinguistic object (or referent) denoted by it. Words, as linguistic signs, are therefore indirectly related to extralinguistic referents.*” (Lipka; 1992:43)

It should be added that the terminology connected with the semiotic triangle is still very diverse and sometimes confused. The mentioned terms, which were given by Ogden/Richards are often altered and their usage is confused. For example *symbol* is altered with *sign* or *referent* is altered with *object*. These alternations would not change the semiotic triangle much but sometimes *thought* is altered with *meaning*. That alternation would give the triangle a new way of the understatement.

2.1.3 Bühler's "Organon Model"

Bühler's theory is inspired by Plato and he views language and its signs as a tool (*organon*), its shape is illustrated in the following scheme.

Bühler's organon model:



(Lipka; 1992:44)

The diagram should be understood in this way. The sign is in the centre of the diagram and it is a connection between a sender (or the speaker) with an addressee (or the hearer) and of course it links the represented objects and relations. The lines which connect the mentioned elements are the sign's functions. *Expression* can be called emotive function, *representation* can be called referential function, and *appeal* can be called conative or vocative function. Bühler says that the language and each sign is an "organon", a tool for the users. The tool is used by the user in every communication, spoken or written. The tool or the instrument also serves for the relations, or the representation of objects. And finally the sign has the function of appeal to the addressee. (Lipka; 1992:44)

If the sign is used by the speaker or writer it is called a *symptom* because of its dependence on the sender. Also it is a *symbol* due to its connection with an extralinguistic referent. And because the sign has direct and controlled relation to an addressee it is a *signal*.

2.1.4 “Holist” approach

The Holistic view of meaning is that we cannot define one meaning without defining all other meanings in language. There is one of approaches to holism by Lyons (1977) presented by Cruse (2000). It is slightly similar to the Saussure’s thinking that meanings are not substantive but relational and are formed by contrasts inside one and the same system. *“Lyons states that the sense of a lexical items consist of the set of sense relations which the item contracts with other items which participate in the same field.”* (Cruse; 2000: 100) Lyons claims that sense relations are not relations between codified senses, but that senses are built from sense relations.

2.1.5 Monosemic versus polysemic approach

Last approach that should be mentioned is the most connected one with our research. It is not exactly the approach to the sign system but to the semantics itself. But it should be mentioned because this work is mostly about polysemy. This approach is mentioned in Cruse (2000: 97). He says that it is about how many meanings we should attach to a word. There are no doubts about homonymy where one meaning is easily recognizable but it focuses on polysemy. The monosemic view says that ideal lexicon of language should have as few meanings of a word as possible and then there can be limitless number of extension but only one should be recorded. The other ones should be ascribed to the operation of lexical rules, *“which in general apply to more than one instance and hence represent systematicity in the lexicon”* (Cruse; 200: 97). This is being rejected by the polysemic approach. It says that there is no need to record them into the lexicon. These rules could only specify potential extensions of meaning and many of them would become conventionalized and others would become nonce forms. According to Cruse (2000) the monosemic approach is more common today.

3. Meaning

After the classification of the basic units of meaning and approaches to the meaning we can now focus on the meaning itself. It is very difficult to define what meaning is and it is probably not possible to define it properly so everyone would be satisfied with the definition. There are many kinds of the meaning and also many approaches to meaning, as we could see in the previous chapter. The meaning of the word can exist on its own as in a vocabulary. But the main notion of a meaning is given by the context. Sometimes there is no context and we have to find out what is the meaning. Especially for words and phrases during the sport commentary is the context needed, without it the phrase can get completely different meaning. This chapter is devoted to the types of context and then to the kinds of meaning. Kvetko (2009: 47) says that there are two types of context *linguistic* and *context of speech situation*. That means following:

Linguistic context

- a) Lexical – it deals with collocations, basically the words that are used with other words or a group of words. I.e. *thick line/ice, thick forest, thick porridge, thick smoke*
- b) Grammatical – meaning is given by the syntactical structure and it serves as a connection to determine different meanings of a polysemous word. I.e. *She will make a good wife.*

Context of speech situation

The meaning of the phrase or the word is given by the specific, concrete (physical) situation. For example deictic expressions; such as *I, you, him, there, etc.*, cannot be interpreted without knowing the context of speech situation. I.e. “*He is there.*” (Kvetko;2009: 53)

There is one more issue that Goddard (1998) points out. We should think that meaning is a reference, that it just identifies something. “... *to see that meaning is distinct from reference, we only have to think of words which do not refer to anything at all, such as nothing, empty, unicorn, and, usually, hullo. These words are not meaningless, so whatever the meaning of a word may be, it must be something other than that the word refers to.*” (Goddard; 1998: 4)

3.1 Types of meaning

We are dealing with meaning throughout the thesis and to differ between each kind of meaning is crucial for further understanding homonymy and polysemy. There are two widely-known types of meaning – *grammatical* and *lexical*. Together they are united in one *proper meaning*. But there are also other types of meaning which will be mentioned later. Cruse (2000: 90) also speaks about word and sentence meaning. The main point is in that the word itself does not say much but if words are connected together to the sentence they build up a meaning. For our research are both meanings very important but sentence meaning will occur much more frequently. He also speaks about utterance meaning which is the purpose of the speaker utterance and its meaning.

Grammatical meaning

For the distinction between homonymous or polysemous lexical units is the grammatical meaning very important and especially sentence meaning. This type of meaning deals with inflectional endings, individual forms etc. According to Arnold (1986) it is more abstract and generalized than lexical meaning. It divides words to large groups such as lexico-grammatical classes or parts of speech. This meaning also includes plurality of words expressed by the ending *-s* or the grammatical forms of tenses i.e. the ending *-ed* and we can add the grammatical expression for case such as *boy's*. Kvetko (2009: 47) adds that some that some words have only one meaning such as prepositions or that their meaning must be recognized only by their distribution i.e. “*be in everyday*” (adverb); *in school* (preposition). The words with grammatical meaning are probably more common in use than words with lexical meaning. Cruse (2000: 89) distinguishes between *closed-set items* and *open-set items*. Closed-set items are parts of small substitution sets and their function is to link the grammatical structures of sentences. They are hardly ever changed but if it is happening it is a really slow procedure. There have not appeared a new unit in English for a long time. So we can say that this category is fixed (closed). The open-set items are parts of much larger substitution sets. There are many changes in their membership and a single user gains and loses many of them during his life.

Lexical meaning

Basically it is the meaning of a lexeme in the knowledge of a language user or the reflection of reality in the knowledge of a speaker. The lexical meaning is not connected with the form of the word, there can be several forms of a word, but the lexical meaning remains unchanged. The best example is some of an irregular verb i.e. *eat-ate-eaten*. The grammatical form and meaning is different but the lexical meaning is same. Speaking about lexical meaning we have to mention its components *denotative* and *connotative meaning*. (Kvetko; 2009: 47)

Denotative meaning

In the most common way the denotative meaning is the literal meaning of a word, “given by the dictionary definition”. To denote things or concepts is one of the essential functions of words. Kvetko (2009; 48) adds “*Denotative meaning covers basic essential components (features) conveyed by the literal use of a word (showing its significative and/or demonstrative function)*. And Arnold (1986; 47) says “*The description of the denotative meaning or meanings is the duty of lexicographers in unilingual explanatory dictionaries.*” This confirms what was said above.

Connotative meaning

On the other hand there is connotative meaning which refers to something external, to some association or to some emotional connection. There can be different connotations throughout the nations or regions. Kvetko (2009: 49) speaks about *emotive charge*. It is a unit of emotive evaluation, it can be positive, neutral or negative. Sometimes it has expressive connotation. Some parts of speech absent the emotive charge such as pronouns or conjunctions. Kvetko (2009: 49) also adds *stylistic reference*. We use many words only in specific situations despite their common meaning. There are *neutral* words but there are also *stylistically marked* words and these are coloured – formal, informal. Arnold (1986: 47) adds two more connotations *evaluative* (express approval or disapproval), *expressive* or *intensifying*.

3.2 Seven types of Meaning (according to Leech)

Leech (1981: 9-20) comes with seven different types of meaning and they will be mentioned in the following part. The meaning distinction by Leech (1981) can be compared to the previous one. The conceptual meaning by Leech is similar to denotative meaning mentioned above. Leech (1981) comes with the term associative meaning which can be compared to the above mentioned connotative meaning because the meanings of words are linked by what we associated with the word. The all seven types he mentions (1981: 9-20) are *conceptual* and six types of the *associative meaning*: *connotative, social, affective, reflected, collocative and thematic meaning*.

Conceptual Meaning

Leech gives the biggest importance among other meanings to the conceptual meaning, according to him it is the central factor in linguistic communication. Two main factors should be said if we are talking about conceptual meaning. It is *contrastiveness* and *the principle of structure*. Contrastive features are the roots for sounds in phonology. And the principle of structure means the way small units are put together to make larger units; this construction is often visualized by the tree-diagram of the sentence. These two factors of contrastiveness and the principle of structure make the way of language organization. The language is structured on more than one “level”, Leech says that there are at least three of them; *phonology, syntax and semantics*. Together they form the meaning of utterances and communications between speakers or language users. Thanks to this “levels” speakers are able to code and decode the main purpose of the utterance. The *conceptual meaning* is considered essential for the language because of this.

Associative meaning

Connotative meaning

This kind of meaning has been mentioned above, but there is other look on this problem by Leech (1981: 12). His basic definition of connotative meaning is “...*the communicative value an expression has by virtue of what it refers to, over and above its purely conceptual content. TO a large extent, the notion of ‘reference’ overlaps with conceptual meaning.*” (Leech; 1981: 12) Every word has not only one conceptual meaning but there are many additional, non-criterial properties that we can add to it; such as physical or psychological characteristics or other logical extensions. And there are also

“putative properties” of the referent, as Leech says, because every single person has different view on the word or thing and is also influenced by the social climate he or she lives in. If we are speaking about connotative meaning we speak about the real world associations and our own experiences what we use or hear. To put connotative meaning in a comparison with conceptual meaning we will find out that connotative meaning is much more unstable and it changes during the history. And as was said above in Kvetko’s definition it is open-ended.

Social and affective meaning

Both of these features of communication are connected with the situation of utterance. “*Social meaning is that which a piece of language conveys about the social circumstances of its use. In part, we ‘decode’ the social meaning of a text through our recognition of different dimensions and levels of style within the same language.*”(Leech; 1981: 14) We also can recognize different types of pronunciation, dialect or if the situation is correct for the use of the concrete word. Some words are used more at formal occasions and other words are used during informal happenings. Then we distinguish the language of social groups such as the language of teenagers or the language of criminals. Leech (1981) refers to Crystal and Davy (1969), *Investigating English Style* and their dimension of socio-stylistic variations. They come with six different categories – *dialect, time, province, status, modality* and *singularity*.

From social environment we move to a more specific one, to the speaker’s personal environment. Every speaker shows his attitude to the hearer or to the thing he or she is talking about and it is called the affective meaning. This attitude can be described by explicit words or on the other hand by politeness. There are some key factors that influenced the utterance such as intonation or voice-timbre. There are also units of language that express emotions without our fault; mostly interjections i.e. Yippee! (Leech; 1981: 16)

Reflected and collocative meaning

These two are less frequent than the meanings earlier mentioned. “*Reflected meaning is the meaning which arises in cases of multiple conceptual meaning, when one sense of a word forms part of our response to another sense.*” (Leech; 1981: 16) and he continues “... *the case where reflected meaning intrudes through the sheer strength of emotive suggestion is most strikingly illustrated by words which have a taboo meaning.*”

Collocative meaning is based on associations that tend to occur in the environment of the word. Leech (1981: 17) gives example of *pretty* and *handsome* which have same meaning but they occur with different nouns i.e. *pretty girl* and *handsome boy*. But we cannot be dogmatic about this, some words co-occur together because of stylistic differences or conceptual differences.

Thematic meaning

The last part of meaning is thematic meaning and it is based on the way of the organization of the message by the speaker or language user. It is basically up to the user which alternation of a grammatical construction he or she uses. An important feature of the thematic meaning is also the stress and intonation. (Leech; 1981: 19-20)

4. Semantic change and Extensions of meaning

The field of sport and sport journalism is an ideal environment for almost every type of semantic change. As was said above, people are often more interested in information around sport than just in information about the particular sport event. For this reason sport journalists and especially broadcasters or commentators have to keep their speech as attractive and entertaining as possible to prevent the recipient from getting bored. The language of sport journalists must be rich in number of used expressions to describe the given situation. In other areas of journalism the utilization of metaphor or metonymy is inappropriate but the sport is the right place to use them. Beside the above mentioned types of change, sport journalists often use irony, informal language or slang.

The semantic change means that new meanings are added or alternated with already existing meaning of given word. (Arnold; 1986: 60) The process of semantic change can be described in many ways. This work provides general overview of semantic change and focus on those processes utilized by sport journalists that will be shown in the practical part.

It is not only in the world of sport journalism but these changes occur in the everyday use. As Cruse (2000) points out we should distinguish between literal and non-literal meaning. When we use phrase like "*Jane's eyes nearly popped out of her head*" (Cruse; 2000: 199) we know that it was not meant literally. We are able to recognize the

difference between literal and figurative use in everyday use but to be precise and define what literal meaning is can be difficult.

4.1 Types of semantic change

From everything that has already been said it is clear that words change their meaning throughout the history and time. But the time is not the only factor that influenced the meaning of the word, there are other causes. These causes and the processes of the semantic change will be the topic of the next chapter.

4.2 Causes of semantic change

To characterize and define all causes of semantic change is very difficult even though there were many studies and linguistic works on this topic, for example in Arnold (1986), Lipka (1992) or Kvetko (2009). It is important to be interested in this problematic because it could lead us to the clearer interpretation of language development. As Arnold (1986; 72) says “*The vocabulary is the most flexible part of the language and it is precisely its semantic aspect that responds most readily to every change in the human activity in whatever sphere it may happen to take place.*” We can distinguish two main levels of the causes of semantic changes, *linguistic* and *extralinguistic* as Arnold (1986: 71-76) did.

Linguistic causes

The semantic change of a word sets off many changes in the environment of related words. Linguistic causes may have syntagmatic and paradigmatic character according to Arnold (1986: 71). If we deal with those terms we also interact with vocabulary units in language and speech, such as distinguishing among synonyms, changes caused by ellipsis or changes which are results of ambiguity in specific contexts. As a one of key factors of linguistic cause Arnold (1986: 71) considers fixed context she demonstrates it on an example of noun *token* which originally meant “sign”, but when it was placed in a competition with the loan word *sign*, its use became more narrow to a small number of set expressions such as *love token*, *token of respect* and the meaning became *specialized*. Other key factor is connected with synonymy. The new meaning can discard the other synonymous items it is often linked with loan words. And Arnold (1986: 72) adds that the differentiation can be in referential, connotative or stylistic meaning. Along similar lines, Hao (2013), speaks about ellipsis and analogy which cause the semantic change too.

Ellipsis usually occurs as a collocation, i.e. *noun + noun*, we omit the second noun and only use the first one without losing the meaning of whole phrase. There is a good example connected with sport – *gold* it stands for *gold medal*.

Extralinguistic causes

The extralinguistic causes are results of the social nature of the language; we can say that the extralinguistic causes are linked with the development of the human mind. Arnold (1986: 73) points several factors that influence languages such as social, political, economic, cultural and technical change. There is a great progress in the aforementioned areas of our lives and with each progress in, for example, a technical, healthcare, science field there comes a new extension of meaning or its change. Arnold (1986: 74) gives many examples, let us adduce one of them to demonstrate the main principle: “*The word space meant ‘extent of time or distance’ or ‘intervening distance’ . Alongside this meaning a new meaning develop ‘the limitless and indefinitely great expanse in which all material objects are located’ . The phrase outer space was quickly ellipted into space. C f. spacecraft, space-suit, space travel, etc.*” (Arnold; 1986: 74) The semantic change is not only connected with new inventions or new discoveries, the psycho-social environment influence the meaning too. For example the upper class and their attitude towards their inferiors gave some words other emotional meaning, usually with negative connotation. Arnold (1986:71) gives example with the French word *villain* which originally meant farm servant but it gained negative meaning scoundrel. As one of the latest semantic effect Deumert (2006) gives the internet and text messaging. Deumert describes this kind of language as a hybrid of speech-like and writing-like features. There are many abbreviations in text because of the language efficiency. And there are many internet communities that use words in their own meanings that are unknown for the common language user. We can say that the extralinguistic causes are limitless and endless because there will always be a progress in any psycho-social field of our life. With this progress the new meanings will be still coming.

4.3 Types of semantic change

Types of semantic change can be differed by two main criteria of their formation. Basically by providing new meanings to the existing words, that would be semasiologically⁵, and also as Geeraertts (2010) claims by onomasiological mechanism. He says “*Onomasiological⁶ innovations couple concepts to words in a way that is not yet part of the lexical inventory of the language.*” (Geeraerts; 2010: 26) It involves a distinction between changes in denotational, referential and connotational meaning. Geeraertts (2010) differs two main groups of semantic change *analogical changes* and *non-analogical changes* it depends on the new meaning whether it copy or does not copy the semantics of related expression. Furthermore he distinguishes four smaller groups of types of the semantic change; *the non-analogical changes, non-denotational meaning changes, analogical changes* and *changes connected with lexicogenetic mechanism*. These groups will be elaborated in this chapter. Arnold (1986: 60) divides types of semantic change in a similar way and follows the diachronic classification of Breal and Paul. Arnold says that there is no need to give new schemes because there is no necessary need for a new classification. We differ between processes of semantic change by their nature if they are paradigmatic or syntagmatic. In the following part the types of semantic change will be distinguish in the way given by Geeraertts (2010) because it is one of the latest works but it will be commented by Arnold’s (1986) and some other’s thoughts.

4.3.1 Main types of the change

The non-analogical changes

Among the non-analogical changes of denotational meaning belongs four types of changes; *specialization, generalization, metonymy* and *metaphor*. Geeraerts (2010) calls them ‘classical’ because they create the core of most classifications.

Specialization and generalization

These two changes are very similar because both types change a lexical unit gets a new meaning that stays in a relationship; subordinative or superordinative, to the previous meaning. But there is a little difference. During specialization the old meaning is being

⁵ Semasiology studies the nature of the form of the given meaning. (Oxford Dictionary)

⁶ Onomasiology studies all possible meanings of one form. (Oxford Dictionary)

substituted by the new meaning. And in the case of generalization the new meaning still includes the previous one. In other words specialization means that the word names fewer objects but in the same time the meaning is enriched because it includes many relevant features to characterize the notion. And the generalization can be define as widening of the scope of the new notion in comparison with the original one. Geeraerts (2010: 26) adds some terminological synonymous terms *restriction* and *narrowing* of meaning equal *specialization* and *expansion, extension, schematization, broadening* of meaning equal *generalization*. However Arnold (1986) does not agree with the usage of the term *narrowing of the meaning*. “... we shall avoid the term ‘narrowing’, since it is somewhat misleading. Actually it is neither the meaning nor the notion, but the scope of the notion that is narrowed.” (Arnold; 1986: 61) The specialization of the meaning often occurs in vocabulary of professional and trade groups. As an example of specialization Geeraerts (2010:27) uses “*queen (originally ‘wife, woman’ now restricted to ‘king’s wife, or female sovereign’)*.” And as an example of generalization he uses *moon*; firstly the earth’s satellite, now extended to any planets satellite. Arnold adds that these changes are done without any intervention of sound or morphological processes.

Metonymy

As a next non-analogical change Geeraerts (2010) adduces *metonymy* and includes *synecdoche* which is an inseparable part of metonymy. The definition of metonymy is described in many ways i.e. in Encyclopaedia Britannica – “*a figure of speech in which the name of an object or concept is replaced with a word closely related or suggested by the original, as ‘crown’ to mean ‘king’ (‘The power of the crown was mortally weakened’) or an author for his works (‘I’m studying Shakespeare’)*. A familiar Shakespearean example is Mark Anthony’s speech in *Julius Caesar* in which he asks of his audience: ‘Lend me your ears.’”⁷ Or Arnold definition “... *this referring to one thing as if it were some other one is based on association of contiguity (a woman – a skirt)*.” (Arnold; 1986: 64) In general we can say that the main difference between metonymy and metaphor (which will be mentioned later) is that metonymy is not based on “an outside” similarity but on an association or logical connection between the new meaning and the original one. This connection is not arbitrary but it is based on a conventional well-known fact. That means that the most of people are able to associate the metonymic sign with the given object or

⁷ <http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/378726/metonymy>

word. The meaning is mostly connected with some activity, material or place. Arnold (1986: 64) adds that metonymy and metaphor differ from specialization and generalization in the way of creation. Metonymy and metaphor are not the result of i.e. a social context but are made on purpose and they transfer one meaning to the other part of reality.

Non-denotational meaning changes

These changes can involve any kind of non-referential meaning. The main kinds that are usually mentioned and are mentioned by Geeraerts (2010) are *pejorative change* and ameliorative *change, euphemism and dysphemism, hyperbole and litotes*. Arnold (1986) speaks about them as “*semantic shift*”.

Pejoration and amelioration

These are changes that depend on the social or individual attitude to the named object. Not only the social attitude but also social evaluation and emotional tone are involved. Both of these changes can or cannot be connected with the denotational changes. Amelioration can be described as a shift towards a positive emotive meaning, as said Geeraerts (2010: 28). Basically, a word has a of a negative charge in history obtained more positive connotation in the course of time. Arnold gives *knight* as an example, which originally meant a servant, but after some time it got a meaning of an honourable man. Pejoration is the opposite to the process of amelioration, a shift towards a negative meaning. The original words was not usually very positive but it got much more negative connotation during the time. Geeraerts gives as an example *silly*, originally meant helpless or simple, but it became “*showing a lack of good judgement or common sense*” Geeraerts (2010: 28). These changes are often confused with *euphemism* and *dysphemism* which are defined below.

Euphemism and dysphemism

Both of these changes influence the intensity of meaning. We have to have in mind that neither euphemism nor dysphemism changes the meaning of the word but only adjusts the emotive value. From this we can say that the main difference between pejoration/amelioration and euphemism/dysphemism is that “... *pejorative change is a diachronic semasiological process, devices such as euphemism and dysphemism primarily involve synchronic choices.*” (Geeraerts; 2010: 29) Euphemism is used to soften an unpleasant concept, to make the phrase inoffensive. Probably the most common example for euphemism is *He passed away*. which stands for *He died*. Dysphemism is a reverse

process, it has very offensive connotation sometimes it can be even expressive. Geeraerts (2010: 29) gives an example of *a boneyard* which stands for *a cemetery*. Both of these semantic modifications are used very often, especially in this time the usage of euphemism is surely on the rise. The society is sometimes “scared” to name things in one way, because of the threats or complains of some ethnicity or minority, and the new milder words come to usage. And of course on the other hand people will probably always insult each other so the usage of dysphemism will ascend too.

Hyperbole and litotes

As Arnold (1986: 65) says hyperbole and litotes are a kind of rhetoric change. We have to bear in mind that these expressions are not literal. Hyperbole is an exaggerated statement, this is probably the attest definition used by the majority of linguists. It is not meant literally but we express ourselves with an intense emotional attitude towards the hearer. It can have both, negative or positive, connotation. Geeraerts (2010: 29) adduces the example of *an absolute genius* which is a name for someone who does not have a bright idea what is going on. Arnold (1986) adds that we should distinguish between a poetic and linguistic hyperbole the difference is that “... *lies in the fact that the former creates an image, whereas in the latter the denotative meaning quickly fades out and the corresponding exaggerating words serve only as general signs of emotion without specifying the emotion itself.*” (Arnold; 1986: 69) The opposite of the hyperbole is called litotes. Easily we can say that it is saying the positive by using the negative of its contrary. I.e. Instead of *very good* is used *not bad*. Sometimes it does not have to contain negations – *I could do with a cup of tea*. Arnold (1986: 69) says about English people that hyperbole is more commonly used by women and litotes by men.

Analogical changes, Semantic calque

As a next type of semantic change Geeraerts (2010; 29-30) speaks about semantic shifts that involves copying the polysemy of one word to another. Geeraerts relates this change with a borrowing of words from different language and with a semantic calque. It can be described as taking one word from a foreign language and adding a new meaning to it in our native language. Geeraerts defines it – “... *the process by means of which a word x in language A that translates the primary meaning of word y in language B copies a secondary meaning of y.*” (Geeraerts; 2010:29) – and also gives example of the Greek

word *angelos* (messenger) which developed to the meaning *angel* using the polysemy of the Hebrew word *ml'k* (human messenger or heavenly messenger).

Lexicogenetic mechanism

Geeraerts (2010: 31) maintains that we should not forget that the semasiological extension of meaning is connected with the mechanism of onomasiological change. This mechanism works in the following way – words are formed by word formation; their sound is transformed (i.e. blending; “*brunch as the merger of breakfast and lunch*” (Geeraerts (2010:31); new expressions are borrowed from other languages; new words are created from a scratch; and finally new expressions can be semantic extensions but with this we are getting where we started.

4.3.2 Lower-level patterns

Synecdoche

The close term to metonymy is synecdoche. Synecdoche is a specific case of metonymy which is based on metonymic transfer of “unit”. There are two possible transfers. The first one, “the pars pro toto”, is when a “part” stands for a “whole” for example the phrase “hired hands” can stand for workmen or the word “wheels” stands for a vehicle. The second one, “totum pro parte”, is when a “whole” stands for a “part” for example the word “police” can stand only for one police patrol or at some sport event can be said “the Czech Republic won a gold medal” that does not mean that the whole country won it but only the team from the Czech Republic. Synecdoche and metonymy are often confusing terms as both of them use a phrase or word to express something else. It is important to realize that synecdoche only works as a part for the whole or the whole for a part. But metonymy is a kind of substitution of one word or phrase by another. As an example can be used the phrase “*The pen is mightier than the sword.*” Where some piece of a written work is substituted by the word “pen”, and violence is substituted by the word “sword”. (Geeraerts; 2010)

Metaphor

This topic will be closely elaborated in the chapter 5 Polysemy. Geeraerts (2010: 34) mentions some types of metaphor: “*metaphors based on similarities of shape and appearance; metaphors based on similarities of structural position; metaphors based on functional similarities; metaphors relating space and time; metaphors relating space and*

quantity; metaphors relating sensory domains and metaphors relating corporeal and cognitive phenomena.” All of them will be specified in the following parts of the text, in the chapter 5.

4.3.3 Additional semantic changes

Even though Geeraerts (2010) gives very detailed point of view of the semantic changes, there are still some changes that should be mentioned too. These semantic changes are not only mentioned by Arnold (1986) but also by several other authors in many studies we came across during the research.

Changes in semantic scope

There are two terms that should not be forgotten even though and those are *terminization* and *determinization*. These terms are important for our thesis because some figures of the speech of the sport commentaries are under the influence of those changes. Terminization means that the word from an everyday use acquires a new meaning in a technical spectrum i.e. salt, mass. On the other hand determinization is the opposite process a word from a technical “environment” gains a meaning in a general language i.e. *complex, spectrum*.⁸

Semantic modification

Also in this area there are two terms which we should mention, because they are commonly used in the speech of the sport commentaries and in the journalism in general. They are called irony and cacophemism. We could add following two terms to the previous mentioned *Non-denotational meaning* changes. We can say that irony is strongly linked with the journalism and some parts of journalism such as tabloid papers, or as mentioned before yellow journalism, would probably not exist without the irony. We can say that we use irony when we state something but we mean the opposite of the literal meaning. Irony excels in the spoken language, because the tone of our speech gives the irony its true face. *I.e.* That’s a nice way to welcome us! On the other side of the coin is cacophemism, or the anti-irony, It is basically the opposite to the irony, we say something little bit touchy or

⁸ přednášky z lexikologie, Mgr. Rohrauer

offensive but we mean it in a positive, humorous way. Or we can say that it is a usage of abusive language for the expression of affection i.e. *You little bastard!*⁹

5. Polysemy

After we dealt with the term meaning there comes another problem, as Cruse (2000) points out, and that it is our interpretation of each word which can vary from one context to another one. We should not forget to mention the term ambiguity which means that the word has several meanings. For this research it is also crucial to define the difference between polysemy and homonymy, because this thesis aims at the exploration of this difference. It can be sometimes very difficult to tell whether we are dealing with the polysemy or homonymy, to make it little bit easier there will be given a short outline of variants of polysemy and homonymy and how we can distinguish these two lexico-semantic phenomena of language. This chapter is dealing with polysemy and the next one with homonymy, but because they are close to each other, the concepts will be often mixed.

5.1 The basic definition

The very basic definition describes polysemy as one word with one pronunciation but two or more distinct related meanings, but that is not enough. Arnold (1986: 39) gives a very nice basic definition of polysemy; maintaining that we can define polysemy as an association of one word or phrase with more than one different meaning. It is usually considered as a feature of an economy and a regulation of expressions. In other words the most rational and common definition of polysemy is that polysemy is one lexical unit with two or more parallel meanings. But if we put polysemic word into a specific context, it becomes monosemic.

Or for example Goddard (1998) defines it as a situation where is one single word with many related meanings. As an example we can use *foot* as in *a foot of a mountain* or *a foot as a part of the human body*. Goddard also adds that polysemy must be distinguished from semantic generality. Which means; one word with one general meaning but used in different situations. He gives as an example word *wrong* in two sentences “*We thought that the war was wrong* and *It was wrong not to thank your host.*” (Goddard; 1998:19) He says

⁹ přednášky z lexikologie, Mgr. Rohrauer

that it is easy to think about it as two different meanings but if we look more detailed, we find out that only one meaning is acceptable in both contexts. He also admits that it is really difficult to distinguish between polysemy and generality.

And as another good definition of polysemy there should be mentioned Apresjan's definition of regular polysemy – "*Polysemy of a word A with the meaning a_i and a_j is called regular if, in the given language, there exists at least one other word B with the meaning b_i and b_j , which are semantically distinguished from each other in exactly the same way as a_i and a_j and if a_i and b_i , a_j and b_j are non-synonymous.*" (Apresjan; 1974:16) The opposite of regular polysemy is irregular polysemy, or non-productive polysemy. We can say that regular polysemy follows some kind of semantic formula, but the irregular polysemy is individual. But the combination of meanings of a single word is so big that it is very difficult to say if it is unique phrase by an individual. Nunberg commented irregular polysemy "*I don't think it is unreasonable to say that English has at least two words land ('nation' and 'ground'). What connection we feel between these uses does seem to owe more to our apprehension of an etymological relation between them than to any synchronic process that derives one use from other.*" (Nunberg; 1979:147) From several studies and quotes we can say that to distinguish between regular and irregular polysemy is useless and so the majority of linguists distinguish only between regular polysemy and homonymy.

5.2 Variants of Polysemy

There are many ways how to differ polysemy. The first look at polysemy in this work is linear and non-linear relations of polysemy and then comes systematic polysemy. These variants were mentioned by Cruse (2000: 110-113).

5.2.1 Linear relations of polysemes

Linear relations means that one of word meanings is a specialization/generalization of the other one (as in hyponymy or meronymy). That means the meaning A is a more specialized term of the meaning B i.e. *flesh* – the original meaning was *food* and the specialized meaning is *muscular*. Or the meaning A is a more basic generalized term of meaning B i.e. *discard* – the original meaning was *to throw out a card* and the generalized meaning is *to reject*. We only speak about polysemy if both meanings remains preserved.

Autohyponymy

As a result of the process of autohyponymy a word can be considered which has a general meaning but if it is set in a specific context its meaning becomes more concrete or specialized. Cruse is giving a following example – “*An example of this is **dog**, which has two senses, a general sense, “member of canine race”, as in Dog and cat owners must register their pets, and a more specific reading, as in That’s not a dog, it’s a bitch. ... Another example is **drink**, whose general reading occurs in You must not drink anything on the day of the operation and whose specific reading is exemplified in John doesn’t drink – he’ll have an orange juice, ...*” (Cruse; 2000:110)

Automeronymy

In short way automeronymy can be described as an association of a basic meaning of a word in a subpart sense. Some cases of metonymy are linear and this is the case of automeronymy. It is often confusing to tell whether the feature is automeronymy or autoholonymy because there is a close boundary between them. Again Cruse is giving an example of automeronymy – “*An example of this may be **door**, which can refer either to the whole set-up, with jambs, lintel, thresholds, hinges, and the leaf panel itself, as in Go through that door, or just to the leaf, as in Take the door off its hinges.*” (Cruse; 2000:111)

Autohyponymy (autosuperordination)

The principle of autohyponymy is when one basic meaning of a word is used in a wider sense. Example which was taken from Cruse – “*...is the use of **cow** to refer to bovines of both sexes, especially when there is a mixed group (as in a field full of cows, which does not exclude the possibility of the odd bull)...*” (Cruse;2000:111) Sometimes the usage of autohyponyms can be perceived inappropriate because of gender problems as in the use of *man* to express the human race.

Autoholonymy

This type can be the contrary of automeronymy and in some cases autosuperordination too. As was said above autoholonymy is often hard to determine, because there appears to be altered default understanding (the first one which we realise without given context). In short way it can be said that autoholonymy is noticing a basic meaning of word in a large part sense. “*Consider the case of **body**, as in Jane loves to show off her body. This surely denotes the whole body, not just the trunk (even though a lot of what Jane presumably enjoys displaying is actually part of the trunk!). But consider She*

received some serious injuries/blows to the body. Here, just the trunk is indicated.”
(Cruse;2000:111) This case is considered as a tentative example by Cruse.

5.2.2 Non-linear polysemy

Two major parts of non-linear polysemy are metaphor and metonymy. Metonymy has been mentioned in the chapter 4. Semantic change, also metaphor has been mentioned but the proper definition and kinds of metaphor will be given here.

Metaphor

The most common definition of metaphor we can get from i.e. Encyclopaedia Britannica “... *a figure of speech that implies comparison between two unlike entities, as distinguished from simile, an explicit comparison signalled by the words “like” or “as.”*¹⁰ But it is not that simple. Arnold (1986: 64) says that it is a hidden comparison. Leech (1981) suggested a formula “*X is like Y in respect of Z*”. Z stands for a ground of the metaphor. This is commented in Cruse (2000) through Richards (1965) these three aspects are vehicle, tenor and the ground. He gives an example with already used *the foot of the mountain*. “*The word foot is the vehicle, the tenor is something like ‘lower portion’, that is, the intended meaning of the vehicle, and the ground is the spatial parallel between the canonical position of the foot relative to the rest of the (human) body, and the lower parts of a mountain relative to the rest of the mountain.*” (Cruse; 2000:202) As we can see in Lakoff and Johnson (2003) metaphors are not only decorative accessory but an essential part of the language. He also claims that our own thoughts are highly metaphorical.

Metaphorical patterns

Metaphor is an extension based on similarities and these similarities are the topic of the next part. These patterns were given by Waag (1906) and are presented in Geeraerts (2010: 33-34).

- **Metaphors based on similarities of shape and appearance**

It is a comparison of concrete objects; common object is compared to the other one. For example body parts are linked to animals, things of everyday use i.e. *ear* and *the ear of a cup*.

- **Metaphors based on similarities of structural position**

¹⁰ <http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/377872/metaphor>

In this case is not important the shape of the object but its position within a structure. Again body parts are greatly used and for an example we can use several times mentioned *foot of the mountain*.

- **Metaphors based on functional similarities**

There we compare the function of the object, it has rather abstract nature. A function of one object is compared to the function of other one. And again we can give example with body part i.e. *head* in the meaning of *the head of state*.

- **Metaphors relating space and time**

These are the spatial or the temporal expressions. Such as *long, short time, the hour comes* etc.

- **Metaphors relating space and quantity**

These expressions indicate intensities and abstract quantities. I.e. *high age, the temperature drops*. It can involve evaluation such as in *his prestige drops*.

- **Metaphors relating sensory domains**

These kinds connect one sensory domain with another one. It is so called crossing of the senses, *synaesthesia*. I.e. *sharp sound, colour hearing*.

- **Metaphors relating corporeal and cognitive phenomena**

Here we deal with metaphors connected with psychological phenomena and our experiences and actions. Such as in an example from Geeraerts (2010) *to see* and *to understand* from visual to the cognitive domain.

Conceptual metaphor

With probably the best formulation of conceptual metaphor and with completely new view on metaphor came Lakoff and Johnson (2003) in *Metaphors We Live By*. They say that the theory of conceptual metaphor depends on three features – “*the view that metaphor is a cognitive phenomenon, rather than a purely lexical one; the view that metaphor should be analysed as a mapping between two domains; the notion that linguistic semantics is experientially grounded.*” Lakoff and Johnson (2003)

Poetic and linguistic metaphor

Poetic metaphor is the invention of an author as Arnold (1986: 64) shows on Shakespeare’s metaphor for England *this precious stone set in the silver sea*. But we should take the term poetic literally because it can be used in other parts of literature art not only in poems, as Arnold adds. Linguistic metaphor, or dead metaphor the comparison

disappeared and the thing named does not have any other name, says Arnold (1986: 65) and gives examples of *foot* (of a mountain), *leg* (of a table).

Close terms to metaphor

As close terms or relative processes of metaphor can be considered *personification* and *proverbs*. As Cruse (2000) says personification depends on “*significant correspondences between the event and implied actions of the agent indicated by the personification.*” (Cruse; 2000: 209) Example of personification is *reaper*, *coachman* for death. Cruse also comments proverbs; they can be metaphorically applied to many events or affairs because they have similar image-schematic structure.

5.2.3 Systematic polysemy

Cruse (2000) or Nunberg (1992) speaks about this kind of polysemy. Cruse says that polysemy is systematic in the sense “... *the relationship between the readings recurs over a range of lexical items that is at least partly predictable on semantic grounds.*” (Cruse; 2000: 113) Nunberg (1992) gives two rules that are essential for systematic polysemy – *lexicological description* and *lexicographical description*. The first one focuses on transfer functions provided by pragmatics. The second “*includes all of the regularities predicted by the licenses and conventions of use of the speech community.*”¹¹ Cruse adds that the least systematic is metaphor, but the basic ones, naturalized metaphor, are probably systematic the most. Apresjan calls the systematic polysemy *productive* and says “*We will call a given ‘A’ – ‘B’ of regular polysemy productive, if for any word which has the meaning ‘A’ it is true that it can be used also in the meaning ‘B’ (if ‘A’, the ‘B’) [...] Consequently, productivity is determined only by totality of scope of the units with given combination of properties; the class itself of such units may be very small.*” (Apresjan; 1992: 214). We can say that polysemy is systematic if two or more words share the same combination. There are some examples of the most common systematic relations from Peters’ (2000:1-2) work i.e. *container/containerful* – *cup*; *animal/food* – *lamb, chicken*; *animal/skin* – *crocodile*; *plant/food* – *banana*; *product/producer* – *newspaper, Honda*; *substance/colour* – *jade, amber*; *object/shape* – *pyramid*; *language/people* – *Spanish*; *music/dance* – *waltz*; *figure/ground* – *door/window* and *place/people* – *city, New York*. We can find a similarity and regularity in the relations of some polysemous words

¹¹ <http://people.ischool.berkeley.edu/~nunberg/Euralex.html>

such as mentioned *plant/food* instead of banana we can say that same relation applies for other kinds of fruit.

5.3 Approaches to polysemy

There are two ways we can study polysemy *synchronically* or *diachronically*. Kvetko (2009: 51) says about synchronic approach that we understand the problem of polysemy as “... *the coexistence of various meanings (senses) of the same word at a certain period...*” (Kvetko; 2009: 51) And about diachronic approach says that we are focused on the relationship between the old and new meanings; between original and derived meaning.

5.4 The importance of context

For some expressions we need context to understand their meaning. We distinguish two main types of context *linguistic* and *the context of speech situation* (context can be derived only by the actual speech situation). Linguistic context is divided to *lexical* (the context comes from a group of words used alongside the given word) and *grammatical* (the syntactical structure determines the context). (Kvetko; 2009: 52) The importance of the context has already been mentioned and defined in chapter 3.

6. Homonymy

As has been said in the beginning of the previous chapter both terms polysemy and homonymy are the essential theme of this thesis. We are trying to distinguish whether the words used by the sport commentators are homonymous or polysemous. So we have said the most important things about polysemy and now we will focus on homonymy. In the end of the chapter there will be a part dedicated to the difference between both terms. Homonymy is closely connected and often confused with polysemy. The following part is dedicated to this term and it is giving the general overview of homonymy.

Characterization of homonymy

There is an important difference between homonymy and polysemy. Polysemy means that one word is associated with two or more related meanings and then the word is called polysemantic. On the other hand, homonymy means that a word is connected with two or more unrelated meanings and the word is called homonym; as Arnold (1986:182) describes. Or Goddard (1998:18) says that homonyms are different words which accidentally have the same form. And according to Quirk (1985: 71) homonyms are words

that have the same orthographic and phonological form, but they are morphologically unrelated. From all what was said we can say that homonymy is a case of coincidence. Commonly homonyms are classified as proper homonyms, homophones and homographs.

6.1 Classification of Homonyms

6.1.1 Proper homonyms

As proper homonyms are considered words identical in spelling and pronunciation such as *fast* or *liver*. The important thing to remember is that homonyms are different words not several different meanings of one word. We divide proper homonyms to absolute homonyms and partial homonyms. The form of absolute homonyms is unrelated in meaning. They share word class, their base form is identical and the word form too. I.e. *match* – a game, *match* – a short wooden stick for producing fire. In partial homonymy the homonyms can differ in one of these features. I.e. *rose* – verb, *rose* – noun.

6.1.2 Homophones

Homophones are not very typical for the speech of the sport commentaries but we can say they are often used by journalists in general. And because of that there is a short definition. The words which sound same but have different meaning are called homophones. Arnold is giving a great example of homophones – “...*In the sentence - The play-wright on my right thinks it right that some conventional rite should symbolize the right of every man to write as he pleases. - the sounds complex [rait] is a noun, an adjective, an adverb and a verb, has four different spellings and six different meanings...*” (Arnold; 1986: 184)

6.1.3 Homographs

Even though homographs are not probably much connected with our work, there should be given at least a short definition of them, as a part of homonymy. The words with the same spelling but with different meaning and pronunciation are called homographs such as *row* [rau], *row* [rou]. Homographs are often argued whether they belong among homonyms or not. According to Arnold (1986) it is not acceptable to keep them apart. “*Because of the effect of education and culture written English is a generalized national form of expression. An average speaker does not separate the written and oral form. On*

the contrary he is more likely to analyse the words in terms of letters than in terms of phonemes with which he is less familiar.” (Arnold; 1986: 185) This is his proof why a linguist must consider all aspects of homographs, the spelling and the pronunciation, to analyse the identity of given word.

6.2 Sources of homonymy

As two main sources of homonymy we can give *convergent development of sound form* and *divergent meaning development*. (Arnold; 1986: 190) The first case means that two or more words had different pronunciation in the origin, but they developed into identical sound forms. And the second case means that different meanings of one word moved aside of each other that they developed as two separate units. I.e. OE¹²*cest* a) chest (a large box); b) chest (body part). There are also other sources of homonymy such as *shortening* (i.e. fanatic → fan – a machine for a cool air or an enthusiast); *sound-imitation* (i.e. bang – a loud sound or a fringe of hair combed over the forehead); *borrowings* (i.e. bank – a shore or a financial institution). (Arnold; 1986: 188-194)

6.3 Polysemy versus Homonymy

And we are getting to the last thing that should be clarified – What is the difference between polysemy and homonymy? We already said that polysemous word has several different meanings and homonymous words have the same form but different meaning, but it is not that simple. Sometimes it is very difficult to say whether the word we are dealing with polysemous word or homonym. This problem has been researched for a long time by many linguists and they will probably focus on it further more. This chapter tries to generalize the idea of the difference between these terms.

Greenbaum (1996) says “*Homonyms are coincidental in language, and might be considered a defect; they may introduce ambiguity without any compensating advantage. Polysemes are essential in language; they immensely reduce the number of words we need to learn and store in our memory.*” (Greenbaum; 1996:430) He continues and says that both of these terms are intentional components of ambiguity in literature and of course we meet them in journalism too.

¹² Old English

Lyons (1968) claims that to distinguish between homonymy and polysemy is arbitrary and indeterminate. He also says that the metaphorical creativity makes polysemy. He also focuses on this problem in Lyons (1981) and says that one criterion to distinguish homonymy from polysemy is etymological, the origin of the word often gives us the solution but sometimes it is not relevant. As he says *“the lexicographer would talk of homonymy, rather than polysemy, and put several different lexical entries in the dictionary. There is a historical dimension to relatedness of meaning; and this complicates the issue. For example, [...] pupil₁ (‘school child’) and pupil₂ (part of the eyeball) are historically connected, though they have diverged through time to the point that no speaker of English would think of them as being synchronically related. .”*(Lyons; 1981: 147) Lyons claims that we cannot say with reliability whether it is polysemy or homonymy. He suggests that the only way to determine the difference between these terms is to abandon semantic criteria of the lexeme and rely upon syntactic and morphological criteria. This would divide given word into two (or more) meanings of the same synchronically polysemous lexeme. But he admits that this method would probably be rejected and so he states this topic as insoluble. But as we can see in Lipka (1992), Lipka agrees with Lyons point of view and he points out that for example Tournier (1985) agrees too, so this theory will be probably discussed several times in the future. Lipka (1992: 139) nicely quotes Tournier *“...polysemy is an eminently economical phenomenon, and that speech communities which did not use metaphor and metonymy would lack imagination, the ability to perceive analogies and to establish rational associations. He concludes that polysemy belongs to the properties which distinguish human language from animal communication.”*

There are three criteria to distinguish between polysemous and homonymous word, as Lipka (1992: 136) says. Those criteria are 1. *etymology*, 2. *formal identity or distinctness*, and 3. *close semantic relatedness*. At first we will have look on the etymology criteria. The origin of the word can help us to distinguish between polysemy and homonymy as in example from Lipka (1992: 136) *Ear₁ ‘organ of hearing’* and *ear₂ ‘head of corn’* these words are considered as homonyms they have different etymology. On the other hand the word *port* is polysemous, according to Lyons (1977: 550) through Lipka (1992: 136), because both meaning *port₁ ‘harbour’* and *port₂ ‘fortified wine’* both come from Latin word *portus*. Even though both words are considered by common speakers as two different things. We have already mentioned Lyons thoughts on the etymology criteria

above. The second criteria which help us to make decision is formal identity or distinctness. Lipka (1992: 138) quotes Hansen (1985) that we can consider words as complete homonyms when they are identical in spoken, written and grammatical identic. If they are not identical in one of these aspects we speak about homophony or homography. As a We have spoken about those terms before in this chapter. We also have already said that homonyms often differ in the word class this is commented by Lipka (1992) “*We can clearly distinguish between can₁, can₂, and can₃ because we have a modal auxiliary in one case, a noun in the second, and a transitive verb with the meaning ‘put into a can’ in the third case. [...] Thus, different word class and meaning must lead to the distinction of homonymous lexemes*“. Lipka (1992:138) Now, we will focus on the last criteria, close semantic relatedness. Lipka (1992: 138) speaks about two cases 1. *semantic inclusion or hypomy*, and 2. *semantic transfer, i.e. metaphor and metonymy*. And he gives as an example lexeme *fox* where we can distinguish three meanings – *wild animal, crafty person* and *fur of fox*. Lipka says that also subjective association determines semantic association, but it is different relation. It is not an objective procedure.

Practical part

The theoretical part gives us an outline of the issue of meaning and its variety. Our account went from defining the basic definition of sign to several approaches to the meaning itself. The theoretical part presented all the categories related to meaning which are relevant for the lexicological analysis of our research. We can now focus on the language of sport commentators and specifications of their lexicon.

In the following part there are comments on the language of sport commentators and their expressions. There were five sports that we examined; basketball, American football, ice hockey, tennis and soccer (football). Each sport is evaluated separately and then all terms are put into a small vocabulary. Each variant of meaning is analysed separately and the analysis is performed through the categories presented in the theoretical part. This research gives a small outlook of lexical units of sport commentators; it especially focuses on homonymous and polysemous expressions.

7. Methodology

The corpus on which this research is based on comprises two hundred terms used by the sport commentators, eighty eight expressions come from basketball, thirty two come from American football, thirty two come from ice hockey, thirty one come from tennis and seventeen come from soccer. Sometimes it is a single word and sometimes it is a phrase or the whole sentence. The interesting units for our research are not only single words as we already know from the theoretical part, for example metaphor can be expressed by a whole sentence. For the analyses we chose various sports and different sport broadcasting television companies. Different sports were chosen to make the research interesting and to point out that some expressions reoccur in different sports. And the different sport channels were picked because we wanted to examine the speech of various commentators. Various sources are important especially for the terminology of common terms. To specify what common terms exactly are, it was necessary to focus on as many sources as possible. Only after that we can say that these terms are commonly used by the majority of the sport journalists. Apart from common terms the analyses registered interesting phrases or words used by a sport commentator. It is very personal issue what is or is not interesting so the presented expressions were interesting for me and I consider them interesting also for the reader.

The enormous size of the English lexicon does not allow us to present and analyse every single expression of the sport commentators. We chose lexical units that are specific and the most important for sport journalism. The work is dealing with lexical units and so we do not look on syntactical or morphological level. Mainly we are dealing with words that help to keep speech up-to-date and sort of automatic; easy to understand for the listener and easy to create for the commentator.

The acquisition itself was done through watching and listening to many different sport broadcasts. Mainly it was focused on sports from the United States of America so the majority of the corpus consists of American English expressions. But the common terms would be heard on any other sport channel in an English speaking country and some of them even in a non-English speaking country. American television companies and sports were chosen because their sport terminology, rules and the environment is closer to the researcher than other ones. The main emphasis was put on basketball and especially on the broadcasting of NBA (National Basketball Association) in the United States of America. It is the result of the researcher's knowledge as well. The researcher knowledge of the basketball environment and terminology is the result of the majority of basketball terms in the sample. English is not the researcher's native language and because of that the research aimed at the environment which is well-known to the researcher. The meaning and the difference between polysemy and homonymy is often difficult even for native speakers so to make the research more reliable it was important to be interested in the given topic and to know the expressions we are dealing with.

The main sources of the research were American television companies and American newspapers on the internet. Majority of the television companies have a large internet database of their past broadcasting and it is accessible for the public readers or viewers. It is really easy nowadays to get these records but some websites require paid access. Another great source of the research were video websites Youtube¹³ and Vimeo¹⁴, many fans upload short or long clips of a sport broadcasting there and it is free to watch for everyone. This way of research was little bit demanding and complicated because it took a while to get something interesting or not heard before. These sites can be recommended for as a resource for research in this field done in future. This research is only a general

¹³ <http://www.youtube.com/>

¹⁴ <http://vimeo.com>

overview of the language of sport commentators and we would highly recommend focusing on the language of sport commentaries of each sport and in each English speaking country. There are many expressions and many differences in each sport that can be studied and all these semantic changes would be interesting for the majority of linguists.

The acquisition of the sample was done through sport videos or broadcasts as was stated above. Most of researched videos were short clips on the internet, those clips were from one minute to fifteen minutes long and from every clip was taken one expression. The reoccurring terms were registered during watching longer videos or broadcasts; those terms were registered and compared with other broadcasts and also with researcher's knowledge of the given sport terminology. The length of the broadcast depends on the given sport; most of these broadcasts are two or three hours long.

There was also one specific and we can say an experimental way of the research. When the research was planned it was meant to present the overview of the expressions but also to find out really interesting and not usual expressions. As mentioned above, the research is done by a non-native English speaker so it was difficult to find out some really interesting expression for native speakers too. That was the point where we decided to ask for help from native speakers. Living in the modern age of the internet it was easy. There are many internet forums where sports fans are meeting and discussing the sport topic and events. There is one of the biggest internet communities on the website called Reddit¹⁵. There are many sub-forums dedicated to each sport or any other interest. So we asked the community of each sport, that we were focusing on, to give us their favourite quotes by sport commentators. The feedback was very impressive and helpful for our research and this community proved that it can be helpful even for scientific research and not only for fun. All users are anonymous and topics are deleted during the time so we would like to give the credit to the whole community of Reddit. This website is also a good source for the researcher of the internet lingo or other interesting parts of language.

The sample was analysed according to the theoretical part. There were done tests whether the expression is homonymous or polysemous according to mentioned criteria by Lipka (1992). Each word was evaluated separately and both its meanings were described; dictionary meaning (DM) and sport meaning (SM). There was also done a comment on each semantic change. Evaluated expressions were distinguish by semantic change and

¹⁵ <http://www.reddit.com/>

then ordered alphabetically. The second part of the research was the dictionary of sport terms registered in our research. The most interesting and probably unknown terms to the wide society were ordered alphabetically in English and in Czech. All expressions in the vocabulary include Czech meaning (CM) and English meaning (EM).

7.1 Expectations from the research

At the very beginning of the research we were discussing how much is the language of sport commentators influenced by semantic change. At first we were thinking about a great amount of metaphor and metonymy usage. We think that this expectation will be confirmed in the research according to our knowledge of the speech of the Czech sport commentators. Also we expect a quite big number of hyperbole usage, sport commentators are often influenced by their emotions and that reflects in their speech, they often overreact in the given situation. But the overreaction is a part of their job and it keeps the listener or viewer interested in the broadcast. There will be probably connections between sport commentator's expressions and the common language. This will be examined and we will look for the origin of some interesting words. The main idea of the research is that these expressions are made by the process of specialization and so we can expect a high number of polysemous relationships. Some of these expressions may be made just for the specific sport usage and thus give rise to homonymy. As in the language in general, it is expected that the number of polysemous words will be much higher than the number of homonymous words.

8. Usage of metaphor and metonymy

As was said before it is expected metaphor and metonymy will occur very often in the speech of sport commentators. Both of these terms are frequently used by the sport commentators to make their speech more entertaining and interesting. We pointed out the main notion of metaphor and metonymy in the theoretical part and also the difference between them. Now we will look at their occurrence in in commentaries of each sport and in the speech of sport commentators in general.

8.1 Metaphor in sport

The relationship in metaphor was presented as the similarity between given words as we claimed in the previous theoretical part. Metaphors found in the speech of sport commentators were evaluated by the rules given in the theoretical part. There can be found

many examples in the research and it is not surprising at all. There are many kinds of the sport equipment that can be compared to something from everyday life. These metaphors are often connected with the ball, basket, net, goal or any other sport equipment. Of course the actions of athletes are being influenced to. There are some examples which were found during our research, the rest can be found in the Appendix.

Basketball

127 to thread a needle – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity between the act of putting a ball through the basket and putting a thread through the eye of a needle

DM – *a very fine slender piece of polished metal with a point at one end and a hole or eye for thread at the other, used in sewing*

SM – *the act of threading a needle is similar to the act of making a shot in basketball*

American Football

131 bootleg – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of smuggling something and smuggling the ball towards the end zone

DM – *an illegally distributed alcohol*

SM – *a secret play with a ball*

Ice hockey

148 Get in the fast lane grandma, the bingo game is ready to roll. – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of starting the game of bingo and preparing for the game of football

DM – *to prepare for the start*

SM – *to prepare for the match*

Tennis

160 can opener – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of the position on the edge

DM – *a tool used to open tins*

SM – *a hit located to the edge of the court*

Football (Soccer)

166 scissor kick – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of the shape

DM – *an instrument used for cutting*

SM – *a kind of kick in which the movement of the legs reminds scissors*

In our corpus the metaphor affects three main word classes – *nouns, verbs and adjectives*. The most common in our sample is metaphor among nouns. It is connected with the problem mentioned above; sport equipment can be compared to a thing from everyday life.

Metaphorical nouns are there basically to keep the speech and the expressions up-to-date and interesting. Commentators use words from every area of everyday life. One interesting example comes from the basketball terminology *he shoots from the downtown* (16) it means that the player takes a shot from behind the three point line. This has nothing to do with the shape of the three point line but with the shape and the form of the basketball court. If we look to the Oxford dictionary noun *downtown* means – *the heart of the city*¹⁶. And if we look on the shape of the basketball court we can see that the player is shooting from the centre or hearth of the court and is aiming to the edge of the court; or to the suburban part of the city to complete this metaphor. There is one more noun that should be mentioned and it is *a screen* in basketball. This word will be analysed later in the Appendix. It is very speculative word. Most of the metaphorical nouns can be used in different sports such as *dagger* (106), *nickel* (116), *trailer* (128) or *blowout* (130).

The next word class that was involved a lot in our research was that of verbs. If the audience is unexperienced, the metaphorical verbs can sound strange but after a while they do not recognize that the commentator is using them. We can see it at terms like *to dunk* (107), *to go fishing* (111) or *to clean the trash* (112). There are also some terms that are not used frequently and commentator use them to entertain the audience; to make a viewer or a listener smile or chuckle is the main point of their usage. As an example of these entertaining terms can serve *slams it down* (10); *he has been undressed by Burress* (134); *sink the buzzer* (124) or *Warner could throw a twinkie into a toaster* (143). These terms cannot be taken literally they only serve as an entertainment for the listener but with a rich commentary like that it is easier for the listener to imagine what really happened on the court.

¹⁶ <http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/downtown?q=downtown>

The following word class that merits further comment are adjectives. One of common types of metaphor was the usage of “crossing senses”, this is explained and commented in the theoretical part 5.2.2. The examples from the research are *sharp shot* (123) or *sweet moves* (153). The adjectives that were found during the research can be used throughout many kinds of sport branch. Examples of other adjectives that are not involved in the Appendix are *sleepy defence*; *sloppy defence*; *unlucky play*; *deadly serve* or *stunning hit*.

So as we can see the usage of metaphor is really common and it can be found in every sport we were researching. Metaphor can be probably found in any other sport area because as we suppose it is often used by sport commentators.

8.2 Metonymy in sport

Speaking about metaphor it is necessary to add metonymy. It describes the contiguity between given words as we stated in the theoretical part. Again this semantic change is commonly used in sport commentaries. The synecdoche is a part of their speech as we will see in the following examples but probably not as common as metonymy. We found out in the research, that commentators were using the name of the team or the name of the state as the agent of the action. This was the most common kind of metonymy in our research. There are some examples from the research and comments if necessary.

Basketball

118 Nuggets aren't quite out of the woods yet – **metonymy**, the word *Nuggets* is used as a term for the whole team and all players

American football

170 There are lot of nervous stomachs in the stadium right now – **metonymy**, one term, *nervous stomachs*, is used for all spectators

Ice hockey

172 The youth is their main advantage. – **metonymy**, the word *youth* is used as term for all young players on their team, being young is their advantage

Tennis

176 the gold goes to Williams – **metonymy**, the material, *gold*, is used instead of gold medal, the product

Football (Soccer)

177 red/yellow metonymy, the colours are used for the red card or the yellow card, which are kinds of punishments

It was said in the beginning of this part that the metonymy is probably very frequent. And we can see that there are some reoccurring patterns in its usage even in our small sample.

One of them has been mentioned above; it is the usage of a club name or a country name as a subject or an originator of the action. As in *Heat are celebrating the victory*; *Russia defeated Sweden*; or *Dolphins remain unbeatable*. It is probably the most common case of metonymy used by sport commentators.

The other one would be connected with the materials of medals. This was mainly registered in ice hockey and in football (soccer) because it is common to get medals during world championships. And there are medals for the first three teams. The commentators are using *gold*, *silver* and *bronze* instead of *gold medal*, *silver medal* and *bronze medal*; i.e. *the Czech Republic is bronze*.

And the last major kind of metonymy was connected with famous athletes and their legendary or well-known tricks, abilities and skills. When some athlete do a remarkable or game changing sport action it is often called and remembered after him or her. These terms are used as a noun. I.e. *he just did a reverse Forsberg* (171).

We came across metaphor and metonymy during our research in all kinds of sports and we believe that it is frequently used also in any other sport. The usage of metonymy can be probably found in every speech of team-sport commentators because they address to the team by the name of the club or the nation. We can expect that metaphor will also occur very frequently because as we have already said it is used to keep the spectator interested in the sport broadcast.

9. Hyperbole and pejoration in sport

9.1 Hyperbole

We classified hyperbole as semantic change which is an exaggerated statement of a common happening. We also said that it is influenced by emotions and it is a result of an overreaction in a given situation.

Hyperbole immerses the tension and keeps the speech of the sport commentators interesting and dynamic. The most common cases of hyperbole in our research were formed by adjectives and with a positive connotation. There are some examples from all sports together.

Basketball

182 another fancy stuff – **hyperbole**, an overreaction of a skilful move

DM – *something amazing*

SM – *a great move in sport*

183 Detroit Pistons – one of the biggest upsets in NBA finals history – **hyperbole**, an overreaction of an unexpected victory

DM – *a negative disturbance*

SM – *an underrated team beat a favourite opponent in a playoff series*

Tennis

187 under tremendous pressure just to stay in the point **hyperbole**, an overreaction of a great offensive play

DM – *very great in intensity of pressure*

SM – *under powerful offence*

Sometimes sport commentators are drawn into the sport happening on the field that they exaggerate the situation and they go to the highest peak of the overreaction. The sport commentators tend to praise every nice move by athletes and to overreact when the move is really skilfully done. But this is what makes a good and an entertaining sport commentator; because closer he or she gets to the mind of the listener, closer they will get to the popularity among sport community and audience.

9.2 Pejoration

It was not expected that many cases of pejoration will occur in our research, because it is mostly used in other part of journalism, mainly in yellow journalism, and the sport environment is not usually connected with negative thoughts. As we know from the theoretical part, pejoration means adding new negative meaning to a word with originally neutral or positive meaning. Sport journalism is considered as a serious part of journalism and we thought that there is no space for the usage of pejoration, but we registered several cases.

The first example comes from the basketball environment and it is the term *ball hog*. It refers to a player who is not very popular among his teammates and also by his coach. His nature is to keep the ball a lot and take many shots, most likely very hard and clutch shots over a defender. The word *hog* has a common meaning of a domesticated pig, especially of a heavy weight. We can see that the word had originally neutral meaning but if we put it in the basketball context it gets a negative meaning.

Another example that should be mentioned is a *jew goal*. It is very controversial and offensive term and it is unthinkable for present journalism to use it. This term is offensive to all adherents of Judaism, but it is frequently used by the football community. Meaning of the *jew goal* is that a team scored very easy or cheap goal. The reason to name it the *jew goal* is connected with the stereotype about Jewish people. The stereotype says that Jewish people spare their money and buy everything that is cheap. There is a clear shift from neutral meaning to negative meaning. There is another example from the Appendix where the rest of the pejorative words can be seen.

178 **brick pejoration**, originally the brick is a neutral word, but in basketball it becomes negative in the meaning of a bad shot

DM – *a small rectangular block typically made of fired clay*

SM – *a bad shot*

10. Homonymy and polysemy in the language of sport commentators

The connection between the language of sport commentators and the language of everyday life was already pointed out in previous chapters of the practical part. Our expectations about metaphor and metonymy were confirmed, because we found many examples of them easily. Now we will look at the other aim of this research. The main impulse to start this research came from our university from lexicology classes. We were discussing the topic of polysemy and we touched some words from the sport area. There was quite a discussion whether the words are polysemous or rather homonymous. As the result of this discussion we will see what is more common in our small sample, but it cannot be understood as a general fact of sport journalism.

We were expecting that the majority of words used by sport commentators are created through the process of narrowing the meaning; this term was defined in the theoretical part in chapter 4. We can expect that the majority of researched words will be polysemous, because of that, but we cannot eliminate the appearance of homonymous expressions. Homonyms will be evaluated separately by each sport, because there are a small number of them. Polysemous words are separated by their semantic relations and of course some polysemous terms have been mentioned above in the chapter 8. We also expect that the relations of systematic polysemy will reoccur and we will probably find some kind of a system in the sport terminology. Then there will be a summative comparison of the appearance of polysemous and homonymous words in the language of sport commentators.

The distinction will be done according to the thoughts from theoretical part. Some words are easily confirmed as polysemous or homonymous but sometimes there are problems to find out the truth. To find out the origin of the word the research will use the etymology dictionary¹⁷. And for the definition of the given words we will use the Oxford dictionary¹⁸ and the Free Dictionary¹⁹ internet database. The most interesting words will be mentioned in the following part and the rest can be found in the Appendix.

¹⁷ <http://www.etymonline.com/index.php>

¹⁸ <http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/>

The appearance of homonymy and polysemy in the basketball terminology

10.1 Homonymy

The very first word that we are dealing with is one of the most common discussed words among linguists. It is the word *bank* there are several ideas whether the word is polysemous or homonymous but they discuss *bank* (188) as a noun. In our research we have the word *bank* as a verb as in *He banks it in*. It means that the player made basket but the ball bounced off the board. There are some other meanings of the word *bank* as verb according to the Oxford dictionary. 1. *Heap (a substance into a mass or mound* 2. *(With reference to an aircraft or vehicle) tilt or cause to tilt sideways in making a turn* 3. *Build (a road, railway higher at the outer edge of a bend to facilitate fast cornering* 4. *British (Of a locomotive) provide additional power for (a train) in ascending an incline* 5. *Succeed in landing a fish*²⁰. And of course our meaning mentioned above. We can see that the meaning is often connected with “angle” and “tilt” so we can assume that the word is polysemous but some meanings are not that specific and the word can be homonymous too. We would say that the word is a partial homonym.

The next word occurs among many collective sports such as basketball, American football or ice hockey. This word is a *bust* (191); as a noun. There are two definitions by the Oxford dictionary. The first one is *a woman’s chest as measured around her breasts or a sculpture of a person’s head, shoulders, and chest*. The second one is *a period of economic difficulties or depression; a raid or arrest by the police or a violent blow*. Any of those meanings is not even close to the meaning of *bust* in sport terminology. The word *bust* is connected with a player that did not reach the excellence which had been expected from him. It is a rather pejorative and negative expression for a player that is not as good as coaches, scouts or fans wanted him to be. It can be considered as the opposite to the word *legend* in any sport. This expression is commonly used with every year’s drafts and there are even lists of the biggest draft busts of each league in the United States of America. For example a list presented by Bleacher Report – *The Biggest Draft Busts in*

¹⁹ <http://www.thefreedictionary.com/>

²⁰ <http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/bank?q=bank>

*each NFL Team's History*²¹. After defining each meaning of the word *bust* it is obvious that we are dealing with a homonymous word.

Another term that is flowing throughout many sports, especially American sports such as basketball, baseball, American football or ice hockey, is *draft* (190), as a noun and a verb. *Draft* usually comes at the end of the season of American leagues of previous mentioned sports. And it is a process of acquiring new players to the teams of the given league. This term was probably brought to the sport terminology from the military of the United States when the military was *drafting* new recruits to the army during World Wars and then during any other war. There also are other meanings of this word given by the mentioned dictionaries. I.e. *a rough copy, a flow of air, a heavy demand on resources or a written order for payment*. Even the etymology dictionary does not serve any connection among the meanings and in that case we can say that the word *draft* is homonymous as a noun and as a verb. Again we can argue that when army or sport teams are recruiting the new members they are making a rough version, *a draft*, of their future platoons or teams but this is again only an idea and not very reliable to consider *draft* as a polysemous word.

The next word *icing* (194) is frequently used among ice hockey broadcast because this “act” happens several times in every ice hockey match. It is really a common term because it is a name for the violation of an ice hockey rule. The meaning of *icing* in ice hockey terminology is *a violation of the rules in which a player hit the puck with a hockey-stick, and the puck is not played by the goalie and does not go in the goal*.²² There are two different meanings in the common language given by the Oxford dictionary. The first one is *a mixture of sugar with water, egg white, or butter, used as a coating for cakes or biscuits* and *the formation of ice on an aircraft, ship, or other vehicle, or in an engine*. There is a small connection through the material of ice, because ice hockey is played on an iced field but the meaning of the violation and two others are different. There is also no etymological connection among those terms and because of this we can consider the word *icing* homonymous.

The last word that we will look at closely is a noun *draw* (199). As the words mentioned above this term is also widely-known among almost every sport where the score is counted. In the sport terminology the word means that the score is tied for example

²¹ <http://bleacherreport.com/articles/2042858-the-biggest-draft-bust-in-each-nfl-teams-history>

²² <http://www.thefreedictionary.com/icing>

“after the third quarter we have a draw, 86:86”. And this can be applied not only in the basketball or other collective sport but even in tennis “and with this ace Federer force a draw 3-3”. But there are other meanings i.e. *to take out a gun, an act of selecting something to decide the winners (i.e. lottery)* or in golf *a slightly deviated shot*. The origin of the word is not definite, some say that it comes from the word *withdraw*²³, but we do not know it for sure. The word *draw* also exists as a verb but it was not registered during the research and to our knowledge it is not used in the sport terminology. According to previous thoughts we can say that the word *draw* is homonymous.

There was also one case of homophony found during our research. It was little bit surprising that homophones were not used more frequently. The only homophone was used by the ice hockey commentator in the sentence *Oh! How Swede it is?! (196)* It was said after a player from Sweden scored a beautiful goal and decided the game. The word *Swede* represents a native person from Sweden but is used instead of an adjective *sweet* which has similar pronunciation.

We did not expect that we would find any case of homographs and our expectation was fulfilled. It could be expected that a homograph would have appeared during broadcasts in graphics but it was not registered. This can be influenced by only a small sample of researched words. We believe that there exists a homograph in the sport terminology as it probably exists in any other terminology.

As we can see there are some homonymous words in the language of sport commentators, but it is not very common. Most of them are used throughout many sports and we can see a similarity in their usage. Probably the biggest number of homonyms was registered in the area of ice hockey but it can be only also influenced by the small sample we researched.

10.2 Polysemy

Polysemous words and phrases have been already touched upon in chapter 8. The extension of the meaning was done through the metaphor and metonymy and now we focus on the systematic polysemy and its relations. It has been said that we expect some repetition in the occurrence of some semantic relations because we know, from theoretical

²³ http://www.etymonline.com/index.php?term=draw&allowed_in_frame=0

part, that there are some relations reoccurring in the common language and that is why we expect this trend also in the sport terminology.

The most frequent semantic relation in our research is the relation *action/movement*. We registered eleven cases of this relation. This is not a surprise because we have already said that there is often a connection between actions in the everyday life and moves done by athletes and as we can see this does not occur among metaphors. We can describe this relation in the way that the *action* is some kind of a general action in our lives and the *movement* is this action performed during a sport event. For example *to clear a puck* (73) or *to clear the zone* (74) it means that the defending player did well his defensive duty and he remove the puck/ball away from the defensive area or he just stopped the offensive progress by the opponent team. If we compare it to the everyday action, we clear dishes from the table and so we remove unwanted objects. There are some other examples of this semantic relation, the rest is in the Appendix.

77 grounding systematic polysemy, relation action/movement

Both actions are connected with the act of placing something on the ground, in general one puts anything on the floor and in American football it means to put a ball on the football field.

DM – *to place on or cause to touch the ground*

SM – *to throw a ball on the ground*

79 Kolb with the snap systematic polysemy, relation action/movement

The act of breaking the static moment suddenly is related to both terms, in American football it means to suddenly break the quite before a game and start a play.

DM – *to break suddenly and completely*

SM – *a starting pass*

Another very frequent semantic relation in our research is again not very surprising, because we have also said that there is a connection between the things of everyday use and the equipment used in the sport environment. This relation between those two worlds represents the semantic relation *object/shape*. The relation can be described on the similarity of the shape of sport equipment with an object from everyday use. For example the word *bucket* (26) represents some kind of a cylindrical container usually used for trash.

In the sport terminology it means the basketball hoop, if we look on the shape of the hoop plus the net it looks like a bucket and because of that the meaning was systematically derived from the object of everyday use. There are again another examples and the rest can be found in the Appendix.

27 elbow – **systematic polysemy, relation object/shape**

The shape of an elbow as a part of human body is same as the shape of an area on both sides of the basketball court.

DM – *the joint between the forearm and the upper arm*

SM – *an area on both sides of the three point line*

33 triangle – **systematic polysemy, relation object/shape**

The name of the shape of a triangle is used as a term for an offensive play in basketball in which players' position reminds triangle.

DM – *a plane figure with three straight sides and three angles*

SM – *a kind of an offensive play where three players' position reminds triangle*

The next semantic relation is also connected with an object of everyday use but this time it does not relate to the shape but to the space of the sport event court or field. The semantic relation *object/space* is based on the area on the field that is similar to the common object. For example we can describe this relation on the word *wing* (17). In the everyday use it is a forelimb that bears feather and is used for flying or it is a part of the airplane, in both cases it is located on the side of the bird or the airplane. When we use *wing* in the sport terminology we refer to the area on the both sides of the court or the field and from this we can assume this relation as systematic polysemy. We again serve some examples and the rest is in the Appendix.

14 lane **systematic polysemy, relation object/space**

The relation is based on the same narrow movement on the road or on the basketball court through the space between defenders.

DM – *a narrow road*

SM – *a straight move to the basket*

16 Vince Carter from the downtown for the win – **systematic polysemy, relation object/space**

The position in the city and the space on the basketball court is situated in the centre.

DM – *a central part of a city*

SM – *a central part of a basketball field, behind the three point line*

The last semantic relation that reoccurred several times and we would like to mention it, is the relation *help/share*. There are several words that we can use to describe the act of helping somebody in the everyday use and also there many ways to help one's teammate during any kind of team sport. The most common and probably widely-known expression is *to assist* (1). This word is used in many sports, it has one common meaning of passing to a teammate but it is different in each sport. One can assist for a basket, a goal or a point and so the process is slightly different and because of that this word was evaluated from several perspectives. Another example from our research is *to feed* (4). In the sport terminology it means to pass for a basket or a goal but in the everyday use it has meaning of helping somebody with eating. There is the connection of the given help. There are another examples and the rest can be found in the Appendix.

5 to dish **systematic polysemy, relation help/share**

There is a relation based on the similarity in providing help. In general it means to help someone with food but in basketball it means to help someone to score a basket.

DM – *to serve food*

SM - *to assist for a basket*

6 to pass **systematic polysemy, relation help/share**

There is a relation based on the similarity in providing help. In general it means to help someone get something but in sport it means to help someone get a ball.

DM – *to move or cause to move in a specified direction*

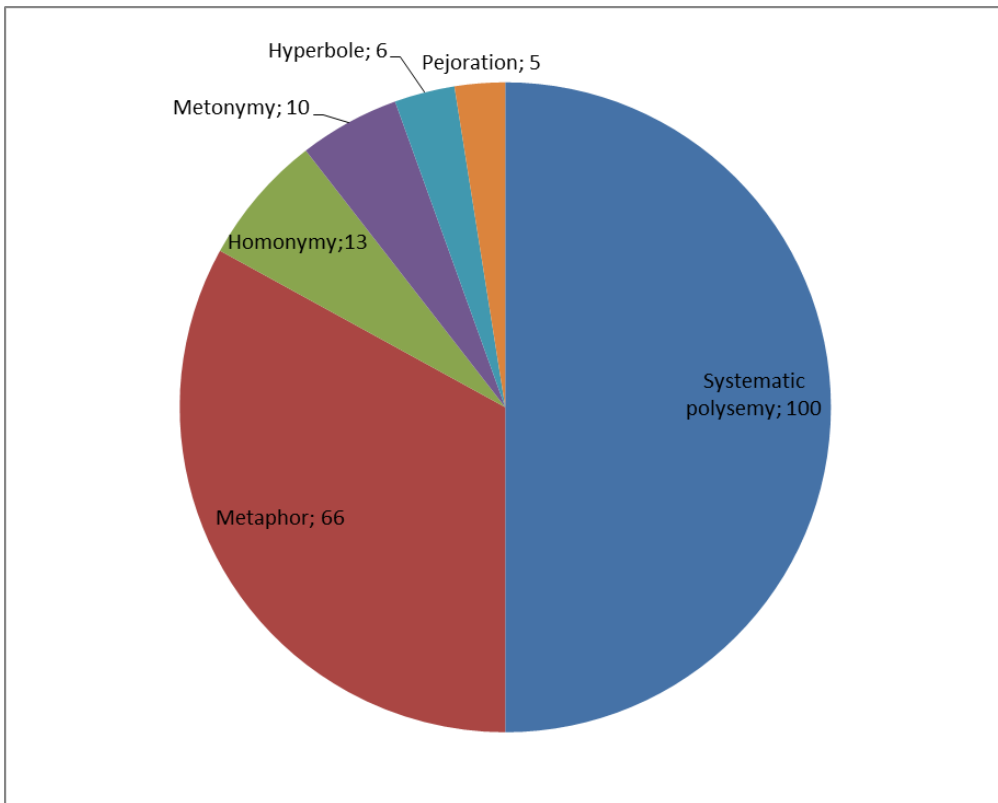
SM – *to move the ball towards the teammate*

Our prediction that there are reoccurring semantic relations was really correct and it is not surprising. We have said that it is common in general language and our research proves that it is common even in the language of the sport commentators; we cannot take it

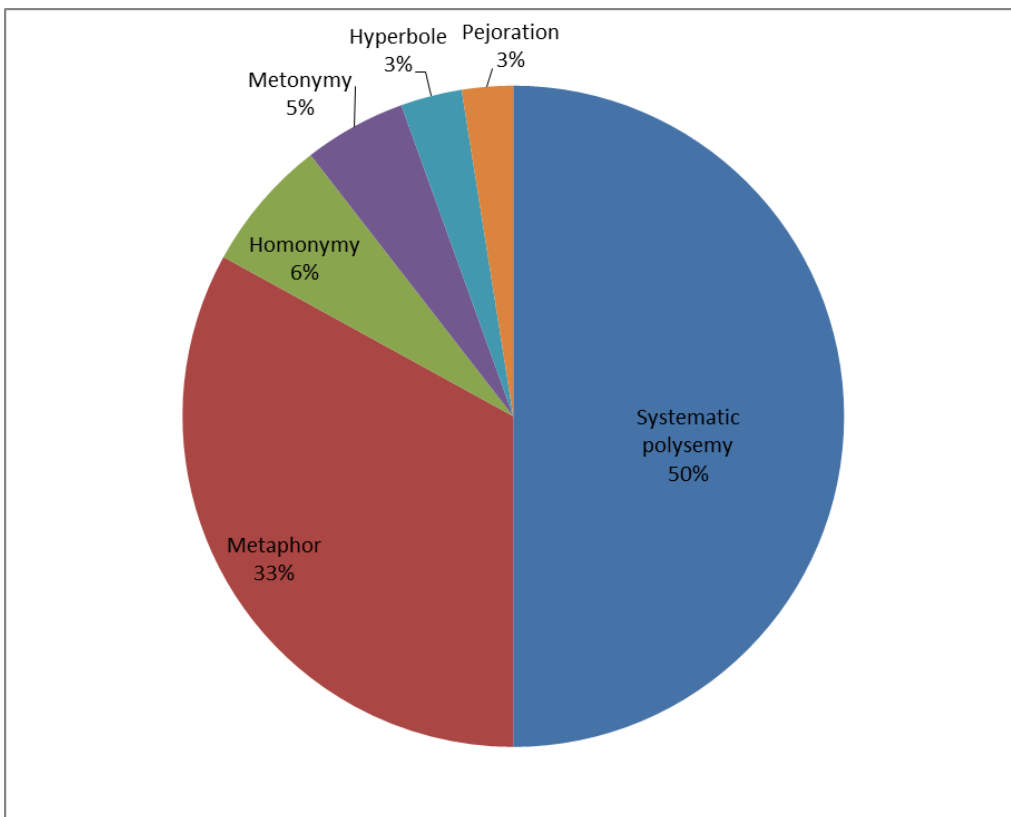
as a fact because of the small sample, but the research can be used for another research in the future. Many semantic relations are connected with objects from everyday use, such as relations *object/space*, *object/shape* or *object/movement*. Other semantic relations are connected with the movement of the athletes during the sport event, such as *action/movement*, *movement/hit* or *place/movement*. Another reoccurring part of the relation is connected with people and athletes themselves, such as *position/person*, *object/person* or *person/player*. The majority of the semantic relation in our research occurs single or in a pair. This might be a result of the small sample, so we can expect that the relations would reoccur in a bigger sample.

10.3 The ratio of homonymy and polysemy in the research

We expected that polysemy would be dominant throughout our research and that homonymous words would be in the minority so the final result is not very surprising. As we have already said polysemy is more common in general so it is not surprising that homonymy did not appear frequently. We cannot say that the polysemy is dominant in the sport terminology as a fact, because our sample is very small and the words or phrases were chosen arbitrarily. Our research also confirmed that metaphor and metonymy are used by sport commentators; even from this arbitrary sample we can see that metaphor is a big part of their language. On the other hand metonymy was more rare case of the extension of meaning. The numbers of each extension can be seen in the following diagram. This diagram covers all words and phrases in our research; so the result must not be taken as a rule for the speech of the sport commentaries in general because of the small sample. It gives a good overview of the semantic relations among chosen words and phrases that I considered interesting. First diagram *The ratio of semantic relations in the sample* includes the numeric representation of each semantic relation in the sample. The sample consist of two hundred expressions. Systematic polysemy was registered in one hundred cases, metaphor in sixty six cases, homonymy in thirteen cases, metonymy in ten cases, hyperbole in six cases and pejoration in five cases. The second diagram includes *The percentage of semantic relations in the sample*. Fifty percent of expressions were registered as systematic polysemy, thirty three percent of expressions were registered as metaphor, six percent of expressions were registered as homonymy, five percent of expressions were registered as metonymy, five percent of expressions were registered as hyperbole as well as pejoration.



The ratio of semantic relations in the sample



The percentage of semantic relations in the sample

Conclusion

The results of the research have been described in previous chapters of this diploma thesis. The research has proved that the meaning of terms of the sport terminology and the language of the everyday life are connected. We can observe this similarity in meaning among words from the research. Even though our sample is small and terms were chosen arbitrary, this research can be considered as a good starting point for the possible future research based on the similar idea.

The theoretical part has described the topic of distinction between homonymy and polysemy and it has also pointed out that there are sometimes difficulties during the process of distinction. This claim has been confirmed during our research, some terms are difficult to define, despite considering all aspects mentioned in the theoretical part. There is still a space for subjective evaluation of the given term and there is a possibility for long discussions about the problematic terms. Meaning itself is a large part of linguistics, there have been presented many approaches to meaning and there probably will be some new in the future too. The field of sport journalism and the sport environment is a very rich area for the future research. The sport terminology is still under development which brings not only new meanings, but also new words, neologisms. The research based on the appearance of neologisms in the sport terminology would be interesting, but before studying neologisms it would be useful to focus on the original terms and find out their origin. This diploma thesis should serve for these mentioned purposes as a general overview of sport terms. Also it should point out the link between the sport terminology and the language of everyday life.

This diploma thesis tries to give an overview of the topic of meaning in language and its possible extensions. It was essential to define the term meaning itself and to serve the most important approaches to meaning. The distinction of the meaning has been done according to Leech (1981), who gives probably the best distinction among types of meaning. Also at first it was important to mention the sign system of the language according to Saussure (1916). The following definitions of polysemy and homonymy were also important. The distinction between those two terms was probably the most crucial for our research.

We expected that polysemy would have dominated among the researched words and this expectation was confirmed, however the number of homonymous words were surprisingly high. Polysemy is represented in the research by metaphor, metonymy and systematic polysemy. There is a tendency that is reoccurring among the semantic relations of systematic polysemy. Some relations were reoccurring or at least other relations were based on the part of another relation. The most common relation among our sample was the relation *action/movement* which was registered eleven times. Relations connected with *movement* were very often as well as relations connected with *object*. It is not a surprising finding because relations between movements from everyday life and movements among athletes could have been expected. The same expectation could have been stated about relations between things of everyday use and sport equipment. The usage of metaphor by sport commentators is a known fact even for a laic person, as it has been mentioned above, because metaphors make the speech of sport commentators interesting for the listener. The small numbers of metonymic terms are probably the result of a small sample. If the research was focused on the frequency of occurrence of metaphor and metonymy in the speech of sport commentators, the numbers of metonymy terms would be higher.

The occurrence of homonymy among the arbitrary chosen sample was quite high we even registered one case of homophony. If the research was focused on one particular sport discipline, the number of homonymy would probably increase, but this is only a guess. Some homonymous terms occur among many sports, however they have slightly different meaning, according to the rules of given sport. The term *draw* is a good example of a reoccurring term among the most of team sports or other sports where a possibility of an equal score after the regular time is.

My research is specific because of its arbitrary choice of the sample, the choice was influenced by my subjective feelings and I chose words that I considered interesting for the research. I wanted to point out terms from sport areas that are closed to me and I would be able to evaluate each expression properly. The best reliability and credibility would be obtained via larger sample and it would be suitable to focus on each sport and its terminology separately. I wanted to show the connection between sport terminology and everyday life through this thesis, because I think that there are meanings unknown to laic community and others may be unknown to the linguist community. This was the reason why I chosen several different sport discipline, to make the research interesting. According

to my knowledge, there are many sports meanings not registered in dictionaries; wrong classifications can be result of that. The most interesting terms I have presented in a short sport vocabulary of sport terms in the appendix, which can be used in a future study.

The distinction between polysemy and homonymy is a large topic which has been discussed for a long time. In my opinion, it would be useful to extend this discussion to the environment of sport and its terminology. This work is only a small example of possible future way of research. The diploma thesis works only with a small sample and it cannot be considered as a fact.

Resumé

Podrobné a detailní výsledky výzkumu jsou popsány v předešlé praktické části této diplomové práce. Spojitost sportovní terminologie a jazyka běžného života je jasně dokázána na vztazích mezi různými významy zaznamenaných slov a frází. Ačkoliv se jedná jen o velmi malý a náhodně vybraný vzorek, můžeme pokládat výzkum jako dobrý základ pro případné práce zaměřené na výskyt homonym a polysémních slov ve sportovním odvětví.

Teoretická část nám přiblížila problematiku rozlišení homonymie a polysemie a upozornila nás na případné těžkosti při rozhodování u některých výrazů. Toto tvrzení se nám potvrdilo při výzkumu, některé výrazy jsou opravdu sporné, i když zvážíme všechna hlediska uvedená v teoretické části. Stále zde zůstává prostor pro osobní hodnocení daného výrazu a v některých případech by se daly vést dlouhé diskuze ohledně původu významu slova. Význam jako takový je rozsáhlá disciplína, které se dá věnovat z mnoha pohledů, jak už tomu bylo v minulosti a jistě tomu tak bude i nadále v budoucnosti. Právě oblast sportovní žurnalistiky a sportovního prostředí je velmi bohatá oblast pro budoucí výzkum. Sportovní terminologie je stále se rozrůstající oblast přinášející nejen nové významy ale také nová slova, neologismy. Výzkum zaměřený na neologismy ve sportovní terminologii by byl jistě také velmi přínosný, ale před zkoumáním nových slov by bylo dobré se věnovat výrazům původním a zjistit jejich původ. Pro takové účely by měla sloužit tato práce jako všeobecný přehled sportovních termínů a pohled do řeči sportovních komentátorů. Zároveň by také měla upozornit na zajímavé provázání sportovní terminologie a jazyka všedního dne.

Tato diplomová práce se snaží poskytnout pohled na význam slov v jazyce a jeho různá rozšíření. Důležité bylo ze začátku definovat pojem význam jako takový a uvést nejzajímavější a nejdůležitější přístupy k významu. Rozlišení druhů významů bylo provedeno podle Leech (1981), který nejlépe podává rozdíly mezi jednotlivými významy. Nejprve však bylo vhodné zmínit se o povaze jazykové znaku, kterou přinesl Saussure (1916). Následná definice polysemie a homonymie a jejich klasifikace byla pro výzkum stejně tak důležitá. Nejdůležitější však bylo přinést pohled na možné rozlišení mezi těmito termíny, podle kterého se pak řídil výzkum samotný.

Podle předpokladů byla ve výzkumu nejvíce zastoupena polysemie, nicméně počet homonymních výrazů byl poměrně překvapivě vysoký. Polysemie je ve výzkumu zastoupena systematickou polysemií, metaforou a metonymií. V systematické polysemii se dá pozorovat určitý trend v sémantických vztazích. Některé vztahy se opakovaly, a nebo alespoň jejich část se často objevovala. Nejčastějším sémantickým vztahem byl vztah *action/movement*, který byl zaznamenán jedenáctkrát. Vztahy spojené s *movement* se také velmi často objevovaly, stejně tak vztahy spojené s *object*. Není to nic překvapivého, protože vztahy mezi pohyby v běžném životě a ve sportovním prostředí se daly očekávat. To samé platí pro vztahy mezi věcmi, které používáme v normálních situacích a věcmi či sportovním náčiním ze sportovní oblasti. Užití metafor sportovními komentátory je i z laického pohledu běžná věc, jak již bylo několikrát zmíněno, jejich použití dělá komentář zajímavý pro posluchače. Není tedy nic překvapivého na vysokém zastoupení metafory i v tomto výzkumu. Malý počet metonymických výrazů také není překvapivý, protože jsem pracoval s malým vzorkem. Pokud by se výzkum zaměřil na porovnání výskytu metafory a metonymie v řeči sportovních komentátorů, určitě by čísla byla daleko více vyrovnaná.

Výskyt homonymních výrazů mezi náhodně vybraným vzorkem byl poměrně vysoký a dokonce byl zaznamenán i jeden případ homofonie. Pokud by se výzkum zaměřil na jednotlivé sporty odděleně, nejspíše by počty homonymních výrazů ještě o kousek narostly, ale to už jsou jen číré odhady. Některé výrazy se vyskytují napříč sporty, i když mohou mít pozměněný význam, aby vyhovoval pravidlům daného sportu. Například výraz *draw* se bude vyskytovat ve většině týmových sportů nebo v jiných sportech, kde je možné, že sportovní klání skončí remízou.

Můj výzkum je specifický svým náhodným výběrem, při kterém jsem dal hodně na subjektivní pocity. Chtěl jsem vybrat zajímavé termíny ze sportovních prostředí, která mi jsou blízká a budu tak moci co nejlépe porovnávat významy jednotlivých výrazů. Pro větší důvěryhodnost a spolehlivost výsledku výzkumu by bylo dobré výzkum zaměřit jen na jednu sportovní disciplínu a věnovat se celého její terminologii. Chtěl jsem tímto výzkumem poukázat na provázání sportovního prostředí a běžného života, které si nejspíše většina laické veřejnosti neuvědomuje. Proto jsem také vybral více sportovních odvětví, aby byl výzkum rozmanitý. Dle mé vlastní zkušenosti, není velká část sportovních významů slov z výzkumu uvedena ve slovnících, a tak může docházet ke špatné klasifikaci. Ty nejzajímavější termíny jsem uvedl do malého slovníku sportovních termínů v příloze, který by mohl sloužit pro budoucí práce na toto téma.

Rozlišení mezi polysemií a homonymií je již dlouhou dobu velmi diskutované široké téma. Podle mého názoru by bylo dobré tuto diskuzi rozvést také do sportovního prostředí a jeho terminologie. Ovšem tato práce pracuje jen se zanedbatelným vzorkem ze sportovní terminologie, a proto nemůže být brána jako určující fakt.

Reference

- Apresjan, Ju. D.** 1974. 'Regular Polysemy'. In *Linguistics* 142, pp. 5-32
- Arnold, I. V.** 1986. *The English Word*. Moscow: VysSaja Skola.
- Cruse, A.** 1997. *Lexical Semantics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cruse, A.** 2000. *Meaning in Language. An introduction to Semantics and Pragmatics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Fasold Ralph W.** 2006. *An Introduction to Language and Linguistics*, Cambridge University Press
- Geeraerts D.** 2010. *Theories of Lexical Semantic*, Oxford University Press
- Goddard C.** 1998. *Semantic Analysis*, Oxford University Press
- Greenbaum S.** 1996. *English Grammar*, Oxford University Press
- Hao Y.** 2013. *Analysis of English Semantic Change*, Changchun University of Science and Technology
- Kvetko, P.** 2009. *English Lexicology in Theory and Practice*. Trnava: Univerzita sv. Cyrila a Metoda.
- Lakoff G., and Johnson M.** 2003, *Metaphors we live by*. London: The University of Chicago Press
- Leech, G.** 1981. *Semantics. The Study of Meaning*. London: Penguin Books.
- Lipka, L.** 1992. *An Outline of English Lexicology: Lexical Structure, Word Semantics, and Word-Formation*. Tübingen: Niemeyer.
- Lyons, J.** 1968. *Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lyons, J. 1981. *Language and Linguistics. An introduction.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lyons, J. 1977. *Semantics. Volume 1.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lyons, J. 1977. *Semantics. Volume 2.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nunberg, G. 1979, *The non-uniqueness of semantic solutions: polysemy.* In: *Linguistics and Philosophy*, 3.1, 1979.

Quirk R. 1985, *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, London: Longman

Peters, W. 2000. *Lexicalised Systematic Polysemy in WordNet*, University of Sheffield

Saussure F. 1916. *Course in General Linguistics*, Paris: Payot

Internet sources:

<http://www.britannica.com/>

<http://bleacherreport.com/>

<http://dictionary.cambridge.org/>

<ftp://ftp.cogsci.ed.ac.uk/pub/kversp/html/node152.html>

<http://www.getwestlondon.co.uk/>

<http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/>

<http://people.ischool.berkeley.edu/~nunberg/Euralex.html>

<http://www.reddit.com/>

<http://www.thefreedictionary.com/>

<http://www.youtube.com/>

<http://uk.askmen.com/>

<http://vimeo.com/>

Sources

ABC

CSN

ESPN

ETN

EuroleagueTV

FOX Sports

NBATV

NFLTV

NHLTV

Reddit

TennisTV

TNT

Vimeo

Youtube

Appendix

Part I Sample analysis

DM – dictionary meaning

SM – sport meaning

Polysemy

Systematic polysemy

relation help/share

1 to assist₁ – systematic polysemy, relation help/share

There is a relation based on the similarity in providing help. In general it means to help someone but in soccer it means to help someone to score a goal.

DM – *to help someone*

SM – *to pass for a goal*

(personal communication)

2 to assist₂ systematic polysemy, relation help/share

There is a relation based on the similarity in providing help. In general it means to help someone but in American football it means to help someone to score a touchdown.

DM – *to help someone*

SM – *to pass for a touch down*

(personal communication)

3 to assist₃ systematic polysemy, relation help/share

There is a relation based on the similarity in providing help. In general it means to help someone but in basketball it means to help someone to score a basket.

DM – *to help someone, typically by doing a share of the work*

SM – *to pass someone for a basket*

(personal communication)

4 CP3 feeds DeAndre – **systematic polysemy, relation help/share**

There is a relation based on the similarity in providing help. In general it means to help someone eat but in basketball it means to help someone to score a basket.

DM – *give food to someone*

SM - *to assist*

(NBATV, 28.11. 2012, MIN vs LAC)

5 to dish **systematic polysemy, relation help/share**

There is a relation based on the similarity in providing help. In general it means to help someone with food but in basketball it means to help someone to score a basket.

DM – *to serve food*

SM - *to assist for a basket*

(personal communication)

6 to pass **systematic polysemy, relation help/share**

There is a relation based on the similarity in providing help. In general it means to help someone get something but in sport it means to help someone get a ball.

DM – *to move or cause to move in a specified direction*

SM – *to move the ball towards the teammate*

(personal communication)

relation movement/hit

7 lob – **systematic polysemy, relation movement/hit**

There is a relation between a general movement into high places and a sport hit that moves ball high over an opponent.

DM – *to throw or hit in a high arc*

SM – *to hit a ball high over an opponent*

(personal communication)

8 monster jam – **hyperbole, systematic polysemy, relation movement/hit**

There is a relation between a general movement of becoming stuck somewhere and a sport hit that stuck to ball into the basketball rim.

DM – *an instance of a thing seizing or becoming stuck*

SM – *a powerful and aggressive way of scoring in basketball*

(personal communication)

9 spin **systematic polysemy, relation movement/hit**

The relation is based on spinning, in general it means a turning movement and in sport it means a hit that makes ball spinning.

DM – *a rapid turning*

SM – *a kind of a hit that makes ball spinning*

(personal communication)

10 to slam it down – **systematic polysemy, relation movement/hit**

The relation is based on the same powerful movement in general and a powerful hit that leads to scoring a basket.

DM – *to put, throw, or otherwise forcefully move*

SM – *to score a basket from above with a powerful move*

(ABC, 2001)

11 topspin **systematic polysemy, relation movement/hit**

The relation is based on spinning, in general it means a fast turning movement and in sport it means a hit that makes ball spinning and it bounces in an unexpected direction.

DM – *a fast forward spinning motion*

SM – *a kind of a hit that makes ball spin and bounce in an unexpected way*

(personal communication)

relation object/space

12 inside/outside the box₁ **systematic polysemy, relation object/space**

The relation is based on the general object box its shape and is same as the area under the basketball rim.

DM – *a container with a flat base and side, typically square or rectangular*

SM – *an area under the basket of a rectangular shape*

(personal communication)

13 box₂ **systematic polysemy, relation object/space**

The relation is based on the general object box its shape and is same as the marked area in front of a goal on the soccer field.

DM – *a container with a flat base and side, typically square or rectangular*

SM – *an area in front of a goal*

(personal communication)

14 lane **systematic polysemy, relation object/space**

The relation is based on the same narrow movement on the road or on the basketball court through the space between defenders.

DM – *a narrow road*

SM – *a straight move to the basket*

(personal communication)

15 paint **systematic polysemy, relation object/space**

The relation is based on the paint itself, once it means a thin dry film and in basketball it represents a painted area under the basketball rim. This area is cover with a thin dry film.

DM – *the thin dry film formed by such a mixture when applied to a surface*

SM – *a painted area under the basket*

(personal communication)

16 Vince Carter from the downtown for the win – **systematic polysemy, relation object/space**

The position in the city and the space on the basketball court is situated in the centre.

DM – *a central part of a city*

SM – *a central part of a basketball field, behind the three point line*

(NBATV, 2007, NETS vs JAZZ)

17 wing **systematic polysemy, relation object/space**

The relation is based on being on the side. The wing of a bird is on both sides of its body and the wing in basketball is on both sides of the basketball court.

DM – *a forelimb that bears large feathers and is used for flying*

SM – *an area on each side of the field*

(personal communication)

relation status/position

18 iso (isolation) **systematic polysemy, relation status/position**

The feeling of being alone in personal life and the position of being alone on the basketball court is the relation that connects those terms.

DM – *a process or fact of isolating or being isolated*

SM – *a type of play when one player is left alone on one side*

(personal communication)

relation place/movement

19 backdoor **systematic polysemy, relation secret place/movement**

Backdoors in general are doors situated in the back and the backdoor in sport is a movement also situated in the back, in fact behind defender's back.

DM – *the rear door of a building*

SM – *a movement behind the back of the defender*

(personal communication)

20 center₁ **systematic polysemy, relation place/movement**

The act of passing to the running teammate in the centre of field during American football and the place situated in the centre are the connection of this relation.

DM - *the point that is equally distant from every point on the circumference of a circle or sphere*

SM – *a pass to the running teammate*

(personal communication)

21 center₂ – **systematic polysemy, relation place/movement**

The act of passing to the centre of the happening during a soccer match and the place situated in the centre are the connection of this relation.

DM - *the point that is equally distant from every point on the circumference of a circle or sphere*

SM – *a pass to the centre of the happening*

(personal communication)

22 down **systematic polysemy, relation place/movement**

The position in lower places and the movement in American football that give that means a progress for the offensive team is the relation of those terms.

DM – *lower position*

SM – *a movement that gives team better position*

(ETN, 8.9. 2012, Steelers vs Eagles)

23 offside **systematic polysemy, relation place/movement**

The relation is based on the same position, to be off a side. In British English it means the side off a sidewalk and in ice hockey it is an illegal movement.

DM – *the side of a vehicle nearest the centre of the road*

SM – *an illegal movement in which an attacking player crosses the line before the puck does*

(personal communication)

24 pivot **systematic polysemy, relation place/movement**

The central point on which a mechanism turns is the same as the leg on which the player turns and that creates the relation between those words.

DM – *the central point, pin, or shaft on which a mechanism turns or oscillates*

SM – *a movement in which a player holding the ball may move in any direction with one foot, while keeping the other unmoved*

(personal communication)

relation object/shape

25 bowl **systematic polysemy, relation object/shape**

The shape of a general bowl is same as the shape of the basketball rim and the net.

DM – *a round, deep dish*

SM – *a basketball hoop*

(personal communication)

26 bucket **systematic polysemy, relation object/shape**

The shape of a bucket is same as the shape of the basketball rim and the net.

DM – *a roughly cylindrical open container with a handle*

SM – *a basketball hoop*

(personal communication)

27 elbow – **systematic polysemy, relation object/shape**

The shape of an elbow as a part of human body is same as the shape of an area on both sides of the basketball court.

DM – *the joint between the forearm and the upper arm*

SM – *an area on both sides of the three point line*

(personal communication)

28 to go to the hole **systematic polysemy, relation object/shape**

The shape of a hole in general is like the hole inside the basketball rim.

DM – *a hollow place in a solid body or surface*

SM – *a basketball hoop*

(personal communication)

29 hoop **systematic polysemy, relation object/shape**

The shape of a hoop used for example by children and the shape of basketball rim is same.

DM – *a circular band*

SM – *a basketball rim*

(personal communication)

30 Jason Richardson to the cup – **systematic polysemy, relation object/shape**

The shape of a cup used for drinking is similar to the shape of the basketball rim and the net.

DM – *a small bowl-shaped container*

SM – *a basketball rim*

(NBATV, 2010 playoffs game 6, LAL vs SUNS)

31 net₁ – **systematic polysemy, relation object/shape**

The net used for catching fish is visually similar to the net that is inside the goal on the soccer field.

DM – *a piece of open-meshed material made of twine, cord, or something similar, used typically for catching fish*

SM – *a goal*

(personal communication)

32 net – **systematic polysemy, relation object/shape**

The net used for catching fish is visually similar to the net that is used to divide the tennis court.

DM - *a piece of open-meshed material made of twine, cord, or something similar, used typically for catching fish*

SM – *a net in the middle of a tennis court that divides the playing area*

(personal communication)

33 triangle – **systematic polysemy, relation object/shape**

The name of the shape of a triangle is used as a term for an offensive play in basketball in which players' position reminds triangle.

DM – *a plane figure with three straight sides and three angles*

SM – *a kind of an offensive play where three players' position reminds triangle*

(personal communication)

34 wall **systematic polysemy, relation object/shape**

The position of soccer players during a free kick is reminding the wall because players are standing side by side.

DM – *a continuous vertical brick or stone structure*

SM – *a position of several players standing side by side*

(personal communication)

35 stick – **systematic polysemy, relation object/shape**

A hockey-stick is made from wood and it has similar shape to the stick that fell off a tree.

DM – *a thin piece of wood that has fallen or been cut off a tree*

SM – *an instrument used by ice hockey players*

(personal communication)

relation stop/obstacle

36 block **systematic polysemy, relation stop/obstacle**

An object used to stop i.e. traffic and the defensive play during i.e. basketball both means putting an obstacle to stop something.

DM – *an obstacle to the normal progress or functioning of something*

SM – *a defensive play that stops the opponent's shot*

(personal communication)

37 to reject **systematic polysemy, relation stop/obstacle**

The act of refusing someone because one does not want him there is related to the act of stopping a shot.

DM – *to refuse*

SM – *to stop the opponent's shot*

(personal communication)

38 to save – **systematic polysemy, relation stop/obstacle**

To save someone from danger means to stop the danger and it is the same as to prevent from scoring.

DM – *to rescue*

SM – *to prevent from scoring*

(personal communication)

39 tackle **systematic polysemy, relation stop/obstacle**

To tackle someone is same in the way of stopping someone in general and also in sport but in sport it means to hit someone during stopping.

DM – *an act of stopping*

SM – *a defensive play that stops the opponent*

(personal communication)

40 trap **systematic polysemy, relation stop/obstacle**

A trap is used to catch an animal and in sport it means a defensive play that catches an offender with the ball.

DM – *a device designated to catch and retain animals*

SM – *a type of play designated to catch and stop the attacking opponent*

(personal communication)

relation sound/a kind of shot

41 buzzer **systematic polysemy, relation sound/a kind of shot**

A sound of a buzzer is connected with the shot that is performed during the sound of a buzzer indicating the end of playing time.

DM – *an electrical device that makes a buzzing noise*

SM – *a shot made during the sound of a buzzer*

(personal communication)

relation position/person

42 center₃ **systematic polysemy, relation position/person**

The position situated in the centre of somewhere is the same area where a basketball player (*center*) plays, it is the central part of the field.

DM - *the point that is equally distant from every point on the circumference of a circle or sphere*

SM – *a player that place in the centre of the offensive part of the field*

(personal communication)

43 center₄ – **systematic polysemy, relation position/person**

The position situated in the centre of somewhere is the same area where an ice hockey player plays in the given rotation.

DM – *the point that is equally distant from every point on the circumference of a circle or sphere*

SM – *a player who plays in the middle of the rotation*

(personal communication)

relation jump/bounce

44 carom **systematic polysemy, relation jump/bounce**

The act of bouncing and ricocheting connects these two terms.

DM – *a ricochet*

SM – *a bounced puck*

(personal communication)

45 rebound₁ – **systematic polysemy, relation jump/bounce**

The act of bouncing and ricocheting connects these two terms.

DM – *to bounce back through the air after hitting something hard*

SM – *a bounced puck*

(personal communication)

46 rebound₂ **systematic polysemy, relation jump/bounce**

The act of bouncing and ricocheting and the act of catching the bounced ball connects those expressions.

DM – *bounce back through the air after hitting something hard*

SM – *to catch a bounced ball after a missed shot*

(personal communication)

relation move/run

47 drive – **systematic polysemy, relation move/run**

The systematic relation is based on the movement via car and the similar movement by a player towards the defence.

DM – *a trip or journey in a car*

SM – *a move into the opponent defence*

(personal communication)

48 to penetrate – **systematic polysemy, move/run**

The relation is based on the same act of penetrating something in general it means to move into something with force and in sport it means to move into the defence aggressively.

DM – *to go into or through something, especially with force or effort*

SM – *to move aggressively into the defence*

(personal communication)

49 to travel **systematic polysemy, relation move/run**

The relation is based on the same act of getting somewhere in general to go somewhere on a journey and in sport it means to go around the court without dribbling the basketball.

DM – *to make a journey*

SM – *to walk without a dribbling the basketball*

(personal communication)

relation shape/space

50 alley₁ **systematic polysemy, relation shape/space**

The shape that is between buildings is the same as the shape of the space between defenders and because of that these terms are related.

DM – *a narrow passageway between or behind buildings*

SM – *a narrow space between two defenders*

(personal communication)

51 alley₂ – **systematic polysemy, relation shape/space**

The shape that is between buildings is the same as the shape of the space between lines on both sides of the tennis court and that makes these terms related.

DM – *a narrow passageway between or behind buildings*

SM – *areas on each sides of the court*

(personal communication)

52 baseline **systematic polysemy, relation shape/space**

There is a straight connection between those two terms both are used as lines that marks some area or a basis for calculation.

DM – *a line serving as a basis for measurement, calculation, or location*

SM – *a boundary of a field*

(personal communication)

53 field **systematic polysemy, relation shape/space**

The open character of both terms is what connects them, the field in general is used for agriculture purposes but in sport it is used as a pitch or a court.

DM – *an area of open land*

SM – *an area where the sport event takes place*

(personal communication)

54 out – **systematic polysemy, relation shape/space**

There is an obvious connection between those terms and their meaning of being outside of marked area.

DM – *in a direction away from the inside*

SM – *the area around the court*

(personal communication)

55 behind the arc **systematic polysemy, relation shape/space**

The shape of the arc in general is same as the shape of the area behind the three point line on the basketball court.

DM – *a part of a curve, especially a part of the circumference of a circle*

SM – *an area behind the three point line*

(personal communication)

relation object/person

56 bench **systematic polysemy, relation object/person**

Players that start the game on the bench are called as the object that they used for sitting.

DM – *a long seat for several people*

SM – *players coming to the game of the bench*

(personal communication)

57 striker – **systematic polysemy, relation object/person**

The general meaning is a device that is used to strike and in soccer it is used for a player that is used to strike in offence, to score goals.

DM – *any part in a mechanical device that strikes something, such as pin of a gun*

SM – *an attacking player*

(personal communication)

58 substitute **systematic polysemy, relation object/person**

There is a clear connection between general meaning and sport meaning in both areas this terms refers to a person who is used to serve in place of other person.

DM – *a person or thing acting or serving in place of another*

SM – *a player who substitute his teammate during the game*

(personal communication)

relation object/movement

59 board **systematic polysemy, relation object/movement**

The act in which a player rebounds a bounced ball of the board is called a board and here we can see a clear relation between those terms.

DM – *a long flat slab of sawed lumber*

SM – *an act of catching a bounced ball after a missed shot*

(personal communication)

60 bomb **systematic polysemy, relation object/movement**

Both terms are used for something explosive, the object that brings the explosion and a movement that leads to an explosive (powerful) pass.

DM – *an explosive device*

SM – *an explosive, powerful pass*

(personal communication)

61 charging **systematic polysemy, relation object/movement**

The relation is based on a violation of rules. In general if one does something against the law he is charged and it is same in basketball.

DM – *an expense, cost*

SM – *an illegal movement against the defender*

(personal communication)

62 corner **systematic polysemy, relation object/movement**

The position in the corner connects both terms once it is used as a part of a house and in sport it is used as a play performed from the edge of the football field.

DM – *a place or angle where two sides or edges meet*

SM – *a play done from the corner of the football field*

(personal communication)

63 hook₁ – **systematic polysemy, relation object/movement**

The relation is based on the similar shape of the object used usually for catching fish and of the movement of a basketball player during shooting.

DM – *a piece of metal or other hard material curved or bent back at an angle*

SM – *a kind of shot in which player's hand looks like a hook*

(personal communication)

64 hook₂ **systematic polysemy, relation object/movement**

The relation is based on the similar shape of the object used usually for catching fish and of the movement of a soccer player during receiving the ball.

DM – *a piece of metal or other hard material curved or bent back at an angle*

SM – *a movement with a foot*

(personal communication)

65 screen **systematic polysemy, relation object/movement**

The relation is based on the act of protecting something or someone. The general usage is to protect a person from danger and to make a screen around him. In sport it means to protect a teammate from defenders.

DM – *a shelter or a person that serves to protect, conceal, or divide*

SM – *a movement that makes open position for a teammate*

(personal communication)

relation advantage/addition

66 bonus **systematic polysemy, relation advantage/addition**

The act of getting something unexpected and positive connects those two terms. Generally one gets an advantage as a reward for his deeds and in basketball the team gets a free throw as a reward for their performance.

DM – *something given or paid in addition to what is usual or expected*

SM – *an additional free throw after the opponent team commits more than specific number of fouls*

(personal communication)

relation defender/watchman

67 guard **systematic polysemy, relation defender/watchman**

The relation is based on the act of protecting something or someone of danger. In basketball the danger means the offensive play or the offensive player himself.

DM – *a person who keeps watch*

SM – *a defensive player*

(personal communication)

relation extra-work/additional time

68 overtime **systematic polysemy, relation extra-work/additional time**

Both terms means the extra time that is added to the regular working or playing time, both terms are usually not welcomed by people in general or by players in sports.

DM – *time worked in addition to one's normal working hours*

SM – *extra time played when the game is tied after the regular time*

(personal communication)

relation request/hope

69 prayer **systematic polysemy, relation request/hope**

The moment during hard times in which a person is praying and looking for a supernatural help connects those terms, once a person prays for help in hard times of his life and in sport player prays because he wants his shot to be successful.

DM – *a solemn request for help or expression of thanks addressed to God*

SM – *a shot that is important for the game, especially in last seconds of the game*

(personal communication)

relation movement/person

70 rotation – **systematic polysemy, relation movement/person**

The rotating movement of an device is similar as the movement of the players on the bench and on the court, they are rotating in a specific order.

DM – *the action of rotating about an axis or centre*

SM – *the current roster in the match*

(personal communication)

relation action/movement

71 blitz **systematic polysemy, relation action/movement**

Both terms are used for a sudden attack once in military terminology and in sport especially in American football it is a surprising offensive play.

DM – *an intensive or sudden military attack*

SM – *an offensive play in football*

(personal communication)

72 charge **systematic polysemy, relation action/movement**

Both terms are used for a sudden attack once in military terminology and in sport especially in team sports it is a surprising offensive play.

DM – *a violent attack*

SM – *a sudden attack*

(personal communication)

73 to clear the puck **systematic polysemy, relation action/movement**

Both terms are used in a situation when something is needed to be removed. In ice hockey it means to remove the puck from the opponents' possession.

DM – *to remove from somewhere*

SM – *to defend, to steal the puck from the opponent*

(personal communication)

74 clear the zone – **systematic polysemy, relation to action/movement**

Both terms are used in a situation when something is needed to be removed. In soccer it means to remove the ball from the area in front of the goal.

DM - *to remove from somewhere*

SM – *to defend the area in front of the goal*

(personal communication)

75 completion **systematic polysemy, relation action/movement**

Both terms covers the process of finishing something, in sport it means that the bass by a quarterback finished in the possession of his teammate.

DM – *the action or process of completing or finishing something*

SM – *a successfully caught pass*

(personal communication)

76 dribble **systematic polysemy, action/movement**

The relation is based on the same repetitive cycle of dropping on the floor or ground, in sport it does not drop on the floor but on the player's feet, but the movement remains same.

DM – *to fall slowly in drops*

SM – *to touch the ball repeatedly with foot*

(personal communication)

77 grounding **systematic polysemy, relation action/movement**

Both actions are connected with the act of placing something on the ground, in general one puts anything on the floor and in American football it means to put a ball on the football field.

DM – *to place on or cause to touch the ground*

SM – *to throw a ball on the ground*

(personal communication)

78 header **systematic polysemy, action/movement**

The act of moving with one's head connects those terms, in general it means to jump somewhere headlong and in soccer it means to jump headlong for a ball.

DM – *a headlong fall or dive*

SM – *to score a goal with the head*

(personal communication)

79 Kolb with the snap **systematic polysemy, relation action/movement**

The act of breaking the static moment suddenly is related to both terms, in American football it means to suddenly break the quiet before a game and start a play.

DM – *to break suddenly and completely*

SM – *a starting pass*

(ESPN, 2010, Eagles vs Giants)

80 power play **systematic polysemy, relation action/movement**

Both terms are connected with an offensive move towards the opponent's side. I.e. in politics it is performed through words and threats and in ice hockey it is performed through an offensive play.

DM – *a strategic manoeuvre, as in politics or diplomacy, based on the use of threats*

SM – *an offensive play in which one team has a numerical advantage*

(personal communication)

81 press **systematic polysemy, relation to make action/movement**

The act of pressing and applying pressure on something or someone is the same for both terms, in sport it means a very aggressive defensive play against opponents

DM – *a device for applying pressure*

SM – *a defensive type of play when an opponent is under a pressure*

(personal communication)

82 random cut **systematic polysemy, relation act of action/movement**

Both terms connect the act of penetrating something, in general it means to cut through some material and in sport it means to cut through defensive players

DM – *a result of cutting something*

SM – *a movement through the defence*

(NBATV, 2010)

83 shot **systematic polysemy, relation action of an action/movement**

There is an obvious connection between those terms based on a quick movement caused by a gun, in general, and by a player's foot in soccer.

DM – *the firing of a gun or cannon*

SM – *a kicked ball*

(personal communication)

relation person/player

84 receiver₁ **systematic polysemy, relation person/player**

The relation between those terms is based on getting something, in general one receives i.e. a present and in American football it is a player who receives a ball during an offensive play.

DM – *a person who gets something*

SM – *a kind of an offensive player who is waiting for a pass*

(personal communication)

85 receiver₂ **systematic polysemy, relation person/player**

The relation between those terms is based on getting something, in general one receives i.e. a present and in tennis a player receives a serve from his opponent.

DM - *a person who gets something*

SM – *a player who receives a serve*

(personal communication)

relation to score into a basket/to score between the goal posts

Both terms do not have a general meaning but they differ in the way of execution. Both terms are connected by the act of successful offensive play.

86 field goal₁ **systematic polysemy, relation to score into a basket/to score between the goal posts**

- there is probably no meaning in a common sense but there is a difference among sport meanings

SM₁ – *to score a basket in basketball*

(personal communication)

87 field goal₂ **systematic polysemy, relation to score into a basket/to score between the goal posts**

- there is probably no meaning in a common sense but there is a difference among sport meanings

SM₂ – *to score a goal in football or soccer*

(personal communication)

relation successful venture/successful strike

88 great hit by Hanson – **systematic polysemy, relation successful venture/successful strike**

Both terms have got same successful nature. Both terms are popular among fans and people and that creates the relation.

DM – *a successful venture*

SM – *a successful defensive play*

(ETN, 8.9. 2012, Steelers vs Eagles)

gunshot decision/ice hockey decision

89 shootout **systematic polysemy, relation gunshot decision/ice hockey decision**

During both actions a dramatic and an important moment needs to be decided. Guns are used to make the decision in a common life and in sport the decision is made through specific plays defined by rules of a given sport.

DM – *a decisive gun battle*

SM – *a decisive plays in ice hockey*

(personal communication)

relation better position/lead

90 advantage – **systematic polysemy, relation better position/lead**

The relation is based on a condition that puts one in a favourable position and it is same for a general person as well as for a tennis player. Both persons did something that puts them into the favourable position.

DM – *a condition that puts one in a favourable position*

SM – *the first point scored after deuce*

(personal communication)

relation failure/bad serve

91 fault – **systematic polysemy, relation failure/bad serve**

The act of failing connects both terms. When a person or a tennis player fails in their deeds they both are put in an uncomfortable position.

DM – *an unattractive or unsatisfactory feature*

SM – *an unsuccessful serve*

(personal communication)

relation steal/outrun

92 poach – **systematic polysemy, relation steal/outrun**

The process of stealing something from someone is similar to the process of stealing a teammate's hit. Even in tennis the expression has a negative connotation.

DM – *to steal from another's property*

SM – *to take a hit before one's teammate, in doubles tennis*

(personal communication)

person/a kind of game

93 singles – **systematic polysemy, relation person/a kind of game**

There is a clear connection between both terms based on the status of being single or alone. A person living on his own is like a tennis player playing on his own.

DM – *an individual person or thing rather than part of a pair or a group*

SM – *a game between two players*

(personal communication)

94 winner – **systematic polysemy, relation person/a kind of play**

The nature of being first or to win something is what creates the relation between those terms. In tennis it has a specific meaning for a shot that wins a fifteen or a point.

DM – *a person or thing that wins something*

SM – *a shot that beats an opponent*

(personal communication)

relation time/space

95 long – **systematic polysemy, relation time/space**

Both terms are connected by the nature of being longer than it was expected. In general we mean a long period of time and in tennis it means a hit that is too long.

DM – *a long period*

SM – *a ball that is hit behind the court*

(personal communication)

meeting/multiple exchange

96 rally **systematic polysemy, relation meeting/multiple exchange**

The act of gathering of people or something creates the link between those terms. In general it means a large gathering of people and in tennis it means a gathering of exchanges between players.

DM – *a mass meeting*

SM – *a multiple exchange of hits by both players*

(personal communication)

relation give/start

97 serve **systematic polysemy, relation give/start**

The process of starting something connects those terms. I.e. food is served and it starts dinner and in tennis a ball is served and it starts the game.

DM – *to provide with a product or service*

SM – *to start a tennis play*

(personal communication)

relation the best possibility/hit

98 ace **systematic polysemy, relation the best possibility/hit**

The nature of excellence connects those terms. Being great in some everyday action is same like a great serve during a tennis match.

DM – *an excellent possibility*

SM – *to score from the serve*

(personal communication)

relation interruption/sudden attack

99 break - **systematic polysemy, relation interruption/sudden attack**

The act of sudden interruption of a continuous process connects those terms. In sport it means that a continuous play is interrupted by a sudden attack of an opponent's team.

DM – *an interruption of continuity or uniformity*

SM – *a quick and sudden attack*

(personal communication)

relation to jump into water/to flop

100 to dive **systematic polysemy, relation to jump into water/to flop**

The relation is based on the same movement during jumping to the water and during jumping on the court. The player that pretends to be fouled makes similar movements as a person who is jumping into water.

DM – *to plunge head first into water with one's arms raised over one's head*

SM – *to pretend being fouled*

(personal communication)

Metaphor

Basketball

101 blooper shot – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of an embarrassing moment

DM – *an embarrassing error*

SM – *a shot made by a coincidence*

(personal communication)

102 circus shot – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of a funny moment

DM – *a public entertainment*

SM – *a shot made with a stroke of luck*

(personal communication)

103 clutch shot – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of a clutch and critical moment

DM – *to grasp something tightly*

SM – *very difficult shot over a good defence*

(personal communication)

104 crossover – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of the meaning of crossing something

DM – *a point or place of crossing from one side to the other*

SM – *a tricky move with the ball and crossing from one side to the other*

(personal communication)

105 crunch time – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of grinding noise; people crunch their teeth when they are nervous

DM – *to crush with the teeth, making a loud grinding sound*

SM – *the critical part of the sport event*

(NBATV, 17.11. 2012, MIA vs PHX)

106 dagger – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of the insidious nature. Dagger is used for a sneaky murder in general and during a sport event it is a last shot that “kills” the opponent’s team when they do not expect it.

DM – *a short knife with a pointed and edged blade*

SM – *a decisive shot in last seconds*

(personal communication)

107 dunk – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of the movement, the act of putting ball inside the basket (bowl) is similar to the act of dipping food into a bowl filled with a liquid.

DM – *to dip into a liquid*

SM – *to score a basket from above with a powerful move*

(personal communication)

108 elevator play – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of the movement of the elevator’s door

DM – *a platform or compartment housed in a shaft for raising a and lowering people or things to different levels*

SM – *a kind of an offensive play where two players blocks an opponent defender to make space for their teammate, their movement looks like movement of the door of the elevator*

(personal communication)

109 face up – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of a face movement

DM – *to turn face up*

SM – *a type of a fake shot that forces opponent to turn the face up*

(personal communication)

110 garbage time – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of worthlessness

DM – *worthless or nonsensical matter*

SM – *a part of the match when the game is already decided and uninteresting for the spectator*

(personal communication)

111 to go fishing – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of having free time

DM – *to go catch fish*

SM – *to be eliminated from playoffs*

(personal communication)

112 Haslem cleaning the trash – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of cleaning something

DM – *to free from dirt, marks, or stains*

SM – *to defend*

(ABC, 13.6. 2006, MAVS vs MIA)

113 I want some nasty – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of offence

DM – *very bad or unpleasant*

SM – *aggressive in defence*

(NBATV, 2013)

114 key – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of shape

DM – *a small piece of shaped metal with incisions cut to fit the wards of a lock*

SM – *an area under the basket which has the shape of key*

(personal communication)

115 kill the clock – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of irreversible actions

DM – *to cause the death of someone*

SM – *to make a shot while the time ran out*

(personal communication)

116 to lead by a nickel – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the quantity of the coin nickel, the team leads by five points

DM – *a five coin cent*

SM – *to lead by five points*

(NBATV, 7.1. 2012, DEN vs SAS)

117 money in the bank – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity in benefiting from both actions

DM – *to save money in the bank to benefit from it in the future*

SM – *to score a basket, a team benefits from it*

(EuroleagueTV, 13.5. 2012, CSKA vs Olympiakos)

118 Nuggets aren't quite out of the woods yet – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of the meaning of getting out of a trouble

DM – *to get out of the trouble*

SM – *to get back to the contact in score*

(NBATV, POR vs DEN)

119 open man – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of an open space

DM – *allowing access, an empty space*

SM – *an unguarded player*

(personal communication)

120 open shot – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of an open space

DM – *allowing access, an empty space, not closed or blocked*

SM – *an uncontested shot*

(personal communication)

121 to posterize – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of making a poster

DM – *to print or display (a photograph or other image) using only a small number of different tones*

SM – *to dunk over someone superbly that the play is worth making a poster of its picture*

(personal communication)

122 pump fake – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the shape and the movement of a pump

DM – *a mechanical device using suction or pressure to raise or move liquids*

SM – *a kind of a fake shot when player pumps with the ball up and down to trick the opponent*

(personal communication)

123 sharp shot – there is a **metaphorical relation, synaesthesia**, the sharpness of a shot does not mean that it is able to cut anything but that it is accurate.

DM – *having an edge or point that is able to cut or pierce something*

SM – *an accurate shot*

(personal communication)

124 to sink the buzzer – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of the appearance of the sinking

DM – *to go down below the surface of something*

SM – *to make a basket*

(personal communication)

125 to sweep₁ – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of sweeping something away

DM – *to clean an area by brushing away dirt or litter*

SM – *to win a playoff series 4:0*

(personal communication)

126 to sweep₂ – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of sweeping something away

DM – *to clean an area by brushing away dirt or litter*

SM – *to play a good defence*

(personal communication)

127 to thread a needle – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity between the act of putting a ball through the basket and putting a thread through the eye of a needle

DM – *a very fine slender piece of polished metal with a point at one end and a hole or eye for thread at the other, used in sewing*

SM – *the act of threading a needle is similar to the act of making a shot in basketball*

(NBATV, 29.1. 2012, MIA vs CHI)

128 trailer – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the appearance of being back

DM – *an unpowered vehicle towed by another*

SM – *a player running from behind to the fast break*

(personal communication)

129 Vince Carter to the rescue – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of the feeling of saving

DM – *to save someone from a dangerous or difficult situation*

SM – *to shoot a game winning basket*

(NBATV, 2007, NETS vs BOB)

American football

130 blowout – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of bursting out

DM – *an occasion when a tyre on a vehicle bursts*

SM – *an embarrassing defeat, the defence bursts*

(personal communication)

131 bootleg – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of smuggling something and smuggling the ball towards the end zone

DM – *an illegally distributed alcohol*

SM – *a secret play with a ball*

(personal communication)

132 clipping – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of the movement of two things towards each other.

DM – *a small piece trimmed from something*

SM – *two defenders hit an opponent in the same time, it reminds scissors*

(personal communication)

133 dead ball – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of inactivity

DM – *no longer alive*

SM – *not a playable ball*

(personal communication)

134 he could take it to the house – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of place where one feels secure

DM – *a building for human habitation*

SM – *the end zone of the football field*

(NFLTV, 2012, Colts vs Ravens)

134 He has been undressed by Burress – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of the movement

DM – *wearing no clothes, not prepared*

SM – *to hit someone hard*

(NFLTV, 2008, Packers vs Giants)

136 He's got getting away from the cops speed. Pigs have flown, hell has frozen over, the Saints are on the way to the Super Bowl. – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of an impossible event

DM – *something impossible happened*

SM – *a complete outsider beats a favourite team*

(NFLTV, 2010, Minnesota vs New Orleans)

137 He sets Seahawks right on the redskins doorstep. – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of place

DM – *a step leading up to the outer door of a house*

SM – *an area close to the end zone*

(NFLTV, 2012, Seahawks vs Redskins)

138 live ball – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of activity

DM – *remain alive*

SM – *a playable ball, game can continue*

(personal communication)

139 lose ball – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of being lost

DM – *to become unable to find something*

SM – *to lost the possession of the ball*

(personal communication)

140 The Patriots just came into the Dolphins house, went to their fridge and took a whole can of whoop-ass. – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of being embarrassed

DM – *to embarrassed someone*

SM – *to embarrassingly defeat an opponent's team*

(ESPN, Patriot vs Dolphins)

141 someone put a tent over this circus – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of a comic event

DM – *a public entertainment*

SM – *a comic moment after bad officiating*

(NFLTV, 2010, Bears vs Giants)

142 that certainly got the Bengals some life into their blood – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of the act of the recovery

DM – *to start feeling happy*

SM – *a good play that lifts team's confidence*

(NFLTV, 2012, Bengals vs Texans)

143 Warner could throw a twinkie into a toaster – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of the appearance

DM – *to prepare food*

SM – *to almost score a touch down*

(NFLTV, 2010)

Ice hockey

144 back-to-back – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of being continuous

DM – *a continuous terrace of houses backing on to another terrace, with a party wall*

SM – *to play two games in two days*

(personal communication)

145 boarding – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of getting on the board

DM – *the action of getting on or into a ship, aircraft or other vehicle*

SM – *the action of getting an opponent on the barrier*

(personal communication)

146 Fasten your seatbelts folks. – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of starting a ride or a game

DM – *to prepare for the ride*

SM – *to prepare for the match*

(NHLTV, 1996, Blackhawks vs Avalanche)

147 flip shot – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of flipping

DM – *a sudden quick movement*

SM – *a kind of shot made by wrist flipping*

(personal communication)

148 Get in the fast lane grandma, the bingo game is ready to roll. – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of starting a ride or a game

DM – *to prepare for the start*

SM – *to prepare for the match*

(PenguinsTV, 2006)

149 a rented mule. – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of being in a bad condition

DM – *to be in a bad condition*

SM – *to hit the opponent hard*

(PenguinsTV)

150 He's as cool as a cucumber – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of being boring

DM – *to be out of date, not famous or entertaining*

SM – *to be an unpopular player*

(NHLTV, Blues vs Pens)

151 Look at his butcher's dog smile. – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of being happy

DM – *to be happy*

SM – *to perform a satisfying play*

(PenguinsTV)

152 He shoots it top shelf where your mama used to hide the cookie jar – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the position in high

DM – *a highest point of the shelf*

SM – *the top area in the goal under the top pole*

(PenguinsTV)

153 How are you supposed to stop this? Great skating, sweet moves right here, forehand, backhand, head fake, body fake? – there is a **metaphorical relation, synaesthesia**, the sweetness of moves does not mean that it has a taste of sugar but that these moves were done skilfully and it is a pleasure to watch it.

DM – *having the pleasant taste characteristic of sugar or honey*

SM – *a skilful move*

(CSN, 2009, WASH vs NJD)

154 If he had another hair on his back he'd be up a tree. – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of being hairy

DM - *to be hairy as a monkey*

SM – There is not a sport meaning but the sport commentator was making fun of the player.

(NHLTV, 1994)

155 on-the-fly – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of being in progress

DM – *while in motion*

SM – *during the game time, i.e. to substitute during the game without stopping the time*

156 This crowd is in the 7th heaven. – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of being happy

DM – *to be in an extremely pleasant place*

SM – *to be happy that someone's favourite team is winning*

(NHLTV, 2003, St. Louis vs Vancouver)

157 This was a deadly wound for the Canucks. – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of critical moment

DM – *a deadly injury*

SM – *a decisive moment in the match*

158 bambi – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of moves

DM – *a baby deer*

SM – *a player who is not stable on his feet*

(NHLTV, 2006, SENS vs BRU)

159 trailer – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the appearance of being back

DM – *an unpowered vehicle towed by another*

SM – *a player skating from behind to the fast break*

(personal communication)

Tennis

160 can opener – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of the position on the edge

DM – *a tool used to open tins*

SM – *a hit located to the edge of the court*

(personal communication)

161 Her errors are story of the game – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of the repetitive continuity of a story and a game of tennis

(personal communication)

162 love – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of positive feelings, based on the origin of the word.

DM – *a strong feeling of affection*

SM – *no score (this meaning comes from the phrase “playing for love” → for nothing)*

(personal communication)

163 to tape it – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of the shape

DM – *to fasten or attach with adhesive tape*

SM – *to hit the ball on the line*

(personal communication)

Soccer

164 banana kick – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of shape

DM – *a long curved fruit*

SM – *a kind of curved shot*

(personal communication)

165 despite he was doubled he scores – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of quantity

DM – *consisting of two equal, identical, or similar parts*

SM – *to be under the pressure of two opponents at once*

(FOX Sports, 28.8. 2011, MANU vs ARS)

166 scissor kick – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of the shape

DM – *an instrument used for cutting*

SM – *a kind of kick in which the movement of the legs reminds scissors*

(personal communication)

167 small window – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of shape

DM – *an opening in the wall of a building*

SM – *an opening in the defence*

(personal communication)

Metonymy

Basketball

167 Nuggets aren't quite out of the woods yet – **metonymy**, the word *Nuggets* is used as a term for the whole team and all players

American football

168 that certainly got the Bengals some life into their blood – **metonymy**, one word, *Bengals*, is used as a term for the whole team and all players

(NFLTV, 2012, Bengals vs Texans)

169 The Patriots just came into the Dolphins house, went to their fridge and took a whole can of whoop-ass. – **metonymy**, the terms *Patriots* and *Dolphins* are used as a term for the whole team and all players

(ESPN, Patriot vs Dolphins)

170 There are lot of nervous stomachs in the stadium right now – **metonymy**, one term, *nervous stomachs*, is used for all spectators

(NFLTV, 2010, Eagles vs Giants)

Ice hockey

171 He just did a reverse Forsberg – **metonymy**, the name of the famous player is used for his identical move performed by another player

(CSN, 2009, BOS vs TOR)

172 The youth is their main advantage. – **metonymy**, the word *youth* is used as term for all young players on their team, being young is their advantage

(personal communication)

173 This was a deadly wound for the Canucks. – **metonymy**, the word *Canucks* is used as a term for the whole team and all players

(personal communication)

Tennis

174 Blake is the best American today – **metonymy**, the term American represents all American players in the tournament

(personal communication)

175 Her errors are story of the game – there is a **metaphorical relation** based on the similarity of the continuity

(personal communication)

176 the gold goes to Williams – **metonymy**, the material, *gold*, is used instead of gold medal

(personal communication)

Soccer

177 red/yellow metonymy, the colours are used for the red card or the yellow card, which are kinds of punishments

(personal communication)

Pejoration

Basketball

178 ball hog **pejoration**, the original expression has got a neutral connotation and it means a pig, but in basketball it gets a negative connotation and it is a name for a selfish player

DM – *a domesticated pig*

SM – *a player who does not share the ball with teammates*

(personal communication)

178 brick **pejoration**, originally the brick is a neutral word, but in basketball it becomes negative in the meaning of a bad shot

DM – *a small rectangular block typically made of fired clay*

SM – *a bad shot*

(personal communication)

179 bricklayer **pejoration**, a name for a person who builds walls has got neutral meaning, but in basketball it becomes a negative name for a bad shooting player

DM – *a person whose job is to build walls, houses etc.*

SM – *a player who is shooting badly*

(personal communication)

180 facial – **pejoration**, there is a shift from positive meaning of being treated nicely to negative meaning of being embarrassed by opponent's aggressive play

DM – *a beauty treatment for the face*

SM – *to score in someone's face aggressively*

(personal communication)

Soccer

181 jew goal **pejoration**, neutral meaning of the name for an adherent of Judaism becomes negative in soccer. It is caused by the prejudice that Jews only get cheap things and that they save their money.

DM – *an adherent of Judaism as a religion or culture*

SM – *very expressive and offensive name for a cheap goal*

(personal communication)

Hyperbole

Basketball

182 another fancy stuff – **hyperbole**, an overreaction of a skilful move

DM – *something amazing*

SM – *a great move in sport*

(TNT, NBA allstar game 2006)

183 Detroit Pistons – one of the biggest upsets in NBA finals history – **hyperbole**, an overreaction of an unexpected victory

DM – *a negative disturbance*

SM – *an underrated team beat a favourite opponent in a playoff series*

(NBATV, 2004)

184 monster jam – **hyperbole, systematic polysemy, relation becoming stuck/scoring a basket**, an overreaction of a skilful move in basketball

DM – *an instance of a thing seizing or becoming stuck*

SM – *a powerful and aggressive way of scoring in basketball*

(personal communication)

Ice hockey

185 He was hit so hard his kids will be boom dizzy. – **hyperbole**, an overreaction of a powerful hit

DM – *an overreaction for a big hit*

SM – *a powerful hit on the opponent player*

(personal communication)

Tennis

186 spectacular shot by Berdych – **hyperbole**, an overreaction of a skilful shot in tennis

DM – *beautiful in a dramatic and eye-catching way*

SM – *a skilful play*

(personal communication)

187 under tremendous pressure just to stay in the point **hyperbole**, an overreaction of a great offensive play

DM – *very great in intensity of pressure*

SM – *under powerful offence*

(TennisTV, Gonzales vs Verdasco)

Homonymy

Basket

188 to bank – a partial homonym, the difference is in the part of speech

as a noun **DM** – *the land alongside a river or a financial establishment in which money are kept*

as a verb **SM** – *to bounce ball of the board to the hoop*

(NBATV, 2010 playoffs game 3, LAL vs BOS)

189 dime – a proper homonym, words have same sound and spelling and differ in their meaning, the origin is different too

DM – *a coin*

SM – *an act of passing*

(personal communication)

190 draft – a proper homonym, words have same sound and spelling and differ in their meaning, the origin is different too

DM – *a preliminary version of a piece of writing*

SM – *a recruitment of new players*

(personal communication)

American football

191 bust – a proper homonym, words have same sound and spelling and differ in their meaning, the origin is different too

DM – *an upper part of human body*

SM – *a disappointing player*

(personal communication)

192 draft – proper homonym, words have same sound and spelling and differ in their meaning, the origin is different too

DM – *a preliminary version of a piece of writing*

SM – *a recruitment of new players*

(personal communication)

Ice hockey

193 bully – a proper homonym, words have same sound and spelling and differ in their meaning, the origin is different too

DM – *a person who is habitually cruel to smaller or weaker people*

SM – *an inbound by a referee*

(personal communication)

194 icing – a proper homonym, words have same sound and spelling and differ in their meaning, the origin is different too

DM – *a sweet glaze made of sugar*

SM – *a violation of the rules in which the puck crosses all lines without a touch of any other player*

(personal communication)

195 screen shot – a proper homonym, words have same sound and spelling and differ in their meaning, the origin is different too

DM – *an image created by copying part or all of the display on a computer screen*

SM – *a kind of shot that is hidden behind a teammate block*

(personal communication)

196 How Swede it is! – homophone, there is similar pronunciation of words sweet and Swede

meaning of sweet – *having the pleasant taste characteristic of sugar or honey*

meaning of Swede – *a native of Sweden*

(NHLTV, 1998)

Tennis

197 deuce – a proper homonym, words have same sound and spelling and differ in their meaning, the origin is different too

DM – *a roll of two in dice*

SM – *a tied score in tennis, 40-40*

198 let – a proper homonym, words have same sound and spelling and differ in their meaning, the origin is different too

DM - *an obstacle*

SM - *an invalid stroke*

Soccer

199 draw – a proper homonym, words have same sound and spelling and differ in their meaning, the origin is different too

DM – *to produce a picture by making lines and marks on paper*

SM – *a tied score*

(personal communication)

200 screening – a proper homonym, words have same sound and spelling and differ in their meaning, the origin is different too

DM – *the showing of a motion picture*

SM – *an act blocking a defender's view to make good position for teammates*

(personal communication)

Part II

Sport terms and their meaning

CM – Czech meaning

EM – English meaning

English – Czech part

A

alley – ulice

CM – *prostor mezi dvěma obránci, “ulice”*

EM – *a narrow space between two defenders*

to assist₁ – přihrát

CM – *přihrát na gól*

EM – *to pass for a goal*

to assist₂ – přihrát

CM – *přihrát na touch down*

EM – *to pass for a touch down*

to assist₃ – přihrát

CM – *přihrát na koš*

EM – *to pass someone for a basket*

B

ball hog – sólista

CM – *hráč hrající hodně sám na sebe*

EM – *a player who does not share the ball with teammates*

backdoor – backdoor

CM – *pohyb za zády obránce*

EM – *a movement behind the back of the defender*

back-to-back – dvojzápas

CM – *dva zápasy během dvou dní*

EM – *to play two games in two days*

banana kick – zakroucená střela

CM – *střela se zakřivenou dráhou letu*

EM – *a kind of curved shot*

to bank – střílet o desku, “o prkno”

CM – *vstřelit koš odrazem o desku*

EM – *to bounce ball of the board to the hoop*

behind the arc – za trojkou

CM – *místo za trojkovou čarou*

EM – *an area behind the three point line*

bench – lavička

CM – *hráči začínající utkání na lavičce*

EM – *players coming to the game of the bench*

blooper shot – haluz

CM – *náhodně úspěšná střela*

EM – *a shot made by a coincidence*

blowout – výprask

CM – *ostudná porážka*

EM – *an embarrassing defeat, the defence bursts*

bootleg – bootleg

CM – *signál, při kterém je míč tajně přemístněn*

EM – *a secret play with a ball*

bowl – koš

CM – *basketbalová obroučka*

EM – *a basketball hoop*

box – vápno

CM – *vyhrazené území před brankou, “vápno”*

EM – *an area in front of a goal*

brick – cihla

CM – *velmi nepovedená střela*

EM – *a bad shot*

bricklayer – palič

CM – *špatně střílející hráč*

EM – *a player who is shooting bad*

bucket – koš

CM – *basketbalová obroučka*

EM – *a basketball hoop*

bust - zklamání

CM – *hráč nenaplnující očekávání*

EM – *a disappointing player*

bully – buly

CM – *vhazování v ledním hokeji*

EM – *an inbound by a referee*

buzzer - buzzer

CM – *střela která padne se zazněním zvukového signálu*

EM – *a shot made during the sound of a buzzer*

C

can opener - lajna

CM – *úder zahraný na okraj hřiště*

EM – *a hit located to the edge of the court*

carom - odražený puk

CM – *odražený puk*

EM – *a bounced puck*

center₁ – centr

CM – *dlouhá přihrávka*

EM – *a pass to the centre of the happening*

center₂ – pivot

CM – *hráč hrající na pozici pivota nebo uprostřed rozestavení*

EM – *a player that place in the centre of the offensive part of the field*

charging – průraz

CM – *nedovolený pohyb útočníka směrem k obránci*

EM – *an illegal movement against the defender*

circus shot – haluz

CM – *střela proměněná díky šťastným okolnostem*

EM – *a shot made with a stroke of luck*

clutch shot – těžká střela

CM – *těžká střela přes obránce*

EM – *very difficult shot over a good defence*

crossover – crossover

CM – *matoucí pohyb, hráč naznačí pohyb na jednu stranu a jde na druhou*

EM – *a tricky move with the ball and crossing from one side to the other*

crunch time – bod zlomu

CM – *rozhodující část utkání*

EM – *the critical part of the sport event*

cup – koš

CM – *basketbalová obroučka*

EM – *a basketball rim*

D

dagger – poslední hřebíček do rakve

CM – *rozhodující střela v posledních sekundách zápasu*

EM – *a decisive shot in last seconds*

dime - přihrávka

CM – *přihrávka*

EM – *an act of passing*

to dish – přihrát

CM – *přihrát na koš*

EM - *to assist for a basket*

to dive – simulovat

CM – *hráč předstírá, že je faulován*

EM – *to pretend being fouled*

down – down

CM – *pohyb který umožňuje postup týmu*

EM – *a movement that gives team better position*

downtown – za trojkou

CM – *místo za trojkovou čárou*

EM – *a central part of a basketball field, behind the three point line*

draft – draft

CM – *nábor nových hráčů*

EM – *a recruitment of new players*

draw – remíza, plichta

CM – *remíza*

EM – *a tied score*

drive – nájezd

CM – *útočný pohyb do obrany soupeře*

EM – *a move into the opponent defence*

E

elbow – pětačtyřicítka

CM – *prostor na tříbodové čáře*

EM – *an area on both sides of the three point line*

elevator play – kleště, parohy

CM – *signál při kterém se dva spoluhráči vytvoří prostor pro třetího, jejich pohyb připomíná pohyb dveří výtahu*

EM – *a kind of an offensive play where two players blocks an opponent defender to make space for their teammate, their movement looks like movement of the door of the elevator*

F

facial – smeč do obličeje

CM – *zakončení v basketbale přes hráče, “do obličeje”*

EM – *to score in someone's face aggressively*

to feed – přihrát

CM – přihrát na koš

EM - *to assist*

G

garbage time – dohrání z povinnosti

CM – část utkání, při které je již rozhodnuto o výsledku

EM – *a part of the match when the game is already decided and uninteresting for the spectator*

to go fishing – jít se klouzat

CM – být vyřazen z playoff

EM – *to be eliminated from playoffs*

grounding – grounding

CM – zahodit míč na zem při americkém fotbale

EM – *to throw a ball on the ground*

H

hook – hák

CM – střela přes hlavu v basketbale

EM – *a kind of shot in which player's hand looks like a hook*

I

icing – zakázané uvolnění

CM – zakázané uvolnění

EM – *a violation of the rules in which the puck crosses all lines without a touch of any other player*

inside/outside the box – uvnitř bedny nebo mimo bednu

CM – *místo pod košem, obdelnikového tvar*

EM – *an area under the basket of a rectangular shape*

iso (isolation) - izolace

CM – *signál při kterém zůstane hráč s míčem osamocen na jedné straně hřiště*

EM – *a type of play when one player is left alone on one side*

J

jew goal – šmudla

CM – *laciný gól*

EM – *very expressive and offensive name for a cheap goal*

L

lane – nájezd

CM – *pohyb přímo do koše*

EM – *a straight move to the basket*

lob – lob

CM – *zahrát míč vysoko přes hráče*

EM – *to hit a ball high over an opponent*

M

monster jam – smeč

CM – *agresivní způsob zakončení v basketbale*

EM – *a powerful and aggressive way of scoring in basketball*

N

net₁ – branka

CM – *branka (konstrukce) ve fotbale či ledním hokeji*

EM – *a goal*

net₂ – síť

CM – *tenisová síť*

EM – *a net in the middle of a tennis court that divides the playing area*

O

offside – ofsajd

CM – *postavení mimo hru*

EM – *an illegal movement in which an attacking player crosses the line before the puck does*

on-the-fly – za letu

CM – *střídat během hry*

EM – *during the game time, i.e. to substitute during the game without stopping the time*

P

paint – bedna

CM – *vyznačené místo pod košem*

EM – *a painted area under the basket*

to pass – přihrát

CM – *přihrát spoluhráči*

SM – *to move the ball towards the teammate*

to posterize – zasměčovat přes hráče

CM – *agresivně zakončit přes protihráče v basketbale, fotografie tohoto zakončení je vhodná jako vzor pro plakát*

EM – *to dunk over someone superbly that the play is worth making a poster of its picture*

power play – přesilovka

CM – *přesilová situace*

EM – *an offensive play in which one team has an numerical advantage*

prayer – rozhodující střela

CM – *rozhodující střela v posledních sekundách utkání*

EM – *a shot that is important for the game, especially in last seconds of the game*

press – pres

CM – *agresivní obrana*

EM – *a defensive type of play when the opponent is under a pressure*

R

random cut – nájezd, únik

CM – *pohyb skrz obranu*

EM – *a movement through the defence*

rebound – doskok

CM – *doskočit míč po střele*

EM – *to catch a bounced ball after a missed shot*

to reject – zblokovat

CM – *zablokovat protihráčovu střelu*

EM – *to stop the opponent's shot*

S

scissor kick – nůžky

CM – *kop přes hlavu*

EM – *a kind of kick in which the movement of the legs reminds scissors*

screen – clona

CM – *bránící hráč zastaví obránce svého spoluhráče a tím mu vytvoří prostor*

EM – *a movement that makes open position for a teammate*

screen shot – střela za clonou

CM – *střela skrytá za spoluhráčem*

EM – *a kind of shot that is hidden behind a teammate block*

to slam it down – zasměčovat, zatlout

CM – *způsob zakončení v basketbale, “zasměčovat”*

EM – *to score a basket from above with a powerful move*

to snap – rozehrát

CM – *rozehrát při americkém fotbale*

EM – *a starting pass*

shootout – nájezdy

CM – *rozhodující část útkání, “rozstřel”*

EM – *a decisive plays in ice hockey*

spin – točený úder

CM – *dát míčku rotaci*

EM – *a kind of a hit that makes ball whirl*

to sweep₁ – hladce postoupit

CM – *vyhrát sérii playoff 4:0*

EM – *to win a playoff series 4:0*

to sweep – ubránit

CM – zahrát dobře v obraně

EM – to play a good defence

T

to thread a needle – dlouhá střela

CM – dát koš z dlouhé střely

EM – the act of threading a needle is similar to the act of making a shot in basketball

topspin – točený úder

CM – silný úder po kterém se míček odrazí v nečekaném směru

EM – a kind of a hit that makes ball spin and bounce in an unexpected way

trailer - trajler

CM – hráč dobíhající do útoku ze zadních pozic

EM – a player running from behind to the fast break

triangle – trojúhelník, triangl

CM – signál při kterém jsou hráči rozestaveni do tvaru trojúhelníku

EM – a kind of an offensive play where three players' position reminds triangle

U

upset – překvapení

CM – podceňovaný tým poráží favorita

EM – an underrated team beat a favourite opponent in a playoff series

W

wing – křídlo

CM – prostor na obou stranách hřiště

EM – an area on each side of the field

winner – vítězný úder

CM – *vítězný úder*

EM – *a shot that beats an opponent*

Czech – English part

B

backdoor – backdoor

CM – *pohyb za zády obránce*

EM – *a movement behind the back of the defender*

bedna – paint

CM – *vyznačené místo pod košem*

EM – *a painted area under the basket*

bod zlomu – crunch time

CM – *rozhodující část utkání*

EM – *the critical part of the sport event*

bootleg – bootleg

CM – *signál, při kterém je míč tajně přemístněn*

EM – *a secret play with a ball*

branka – net₁

CM – *branka (konstrukce) ve fotbale či ledním hokeji*

EM – *a goal*

bully – bully

CM – *vhazování v ledním hokeji*

EM – *an inbound by a referee*

buzzer - buzzer

CM – *střela která padne se zazněním zvukového signálu*

EM – *a shot made during the sound of a buzzer*

C

centr – center₁

CM – *dlouhá přihrávka*

EM – *a pass to the centre of the happening*

cihla - brick

CM – *velmi nepovedená střela*

EM – *a bad shot*

clona – screen

CM – *bránící hráč zastaví obránce svého spoluhráče a tím mu vytvoří prostor*

EM – *a movement that makes open position for a teammate*

crossover – crossover

CM – *matoucí pohyb, hráč naznačí pohyb na jednu stranu a jde na druhou*

EM – *a tricky move with the ball and crossing from one side to the other*

D

dlouhá střela – to thread a needle

CM – *dát koš z dlouhé střely*

EM – *the act of threading a needle is similar to the act of making a shot in basketball*

dohrání z povinnosti – dohrání z povinnosti

CM – *část utkání, při které je již rozhodnuto o výsledku*

EM – *a part of the match when the game is already decided and uninteresting for the spectator*

doskok – rebound

CM – *doskočit míč po střele*

EM – *to catch a bounced ball after a missed shot*

down – down

CM – *pohyb který umožňuje postup týmu*

EM – *a movement that gives team better position*

draft – draft

CM – *nábor nových hráčů*

EM – *a recruitment of new players*

dvojzápas – back-to-back

CM – *dva zápasy během dvou dní*

EM – *to play two games in two days*

G

grounding – grounding

CM – *zahodit míč na zem při americkém fotbale*

EM – *to throw a ball on the ground*

H

hák – hook

CM – *střela přes hlavu v basketbale*

EM – *a kind of shot in which player's hand looks like a hook*

haluz₁ – blooper shot

CM – *náhodně úspěšná střela*

EM – *a shot made by a coincidence*

haluz₂ – circus shot

CM – *střela proměněná díky šťastným okolnostem*

EM – *a shot made with a stroke of luck*

hladce postoupit –to sweep₁

CM – *vyhrát sérii playoff 4:0*

EM – *to win a playoff series 4:0*

I

izolace – iso (isolation)

CM – *signál při kterém zůstane hráč s míčem osamocen na jedné straně hřiště*

EM – *a type of play when one player is left alone on one side*

J

jít se klouzat – to go fishing

CM – *být vyřazen z playoff*

EM – *to be eliminated from playoffs*

K

kleště – elevator play

CM – *signál při kterém se dva spoluhráči vytvoří prostor pro třetího, jejich pohyb připomíná pohyb dveří výtahu*

EM – *a kind of an offensive play where two players blocks an opponent defender to make space for their teammate, their movement looks like movement of the door of the elevator*

koš₁ - bowl

CM – *basketbalová obroučka*

EM – *a basketball hoop*

koš₂ - bucket

CM – *basketbalová obroučka*

EM – *a basketball hoop*

koš₃ – cup

CM – *basketbalová obroučka*

EM – *a basketball rim*

křídlo – wing

CM – *prostor na obou stranách hřiště*

EM – *an area on each side of the field*

L

lajna – can opener

CM – *úder zahraný na okraj hřiště*

EM – *a hit located to the edge of the court*

lavička – bench

CM – *hráči začínající utkání na lavičce*

EM – *players coming to the game of the bench*

lob – lob

CM – *zahrát míč vysoko přes hráče*

EM – *to hit a ball high over an opponent*

N

nájezd₁ – drive

CM – *útočný pohyb do obrany soupeře*

EM – *a move into the opponent defence*

nájezd₂ – lane

CM – *pohyb přímo do koše*

EM – *a straight move to the basket*

nájezd₃ – random cut

CM – *pohyb skrz obranu*

EM – *a movement through the defence*

nájezdy – shootout

CM – *rozhodující část útkání, “rozstřel”*

EM – *a decisive plays in ice hockey*

nůžky – scissor kick

CM – *kop přes hlavu*

EM – *a kind of kick in which the movement of the legs reminds scissors*

O

odražený puk – carom

CM – *odražený puk*

EM – *a bounced puck*

ofsajd - offside

CM – *postavení mimo hru*

EM – *an illegal movement in which an attacking player crosses the line before the puck does*

P

palič - bricklayer

CM – *špatně střílející hráč*

EM – *a player who is shooting bad*

pivot – center₂

CM – hráč hrající na pozici pivota nebo uprostřed rozestavení

EM – a player that place in the centre of the offensive part of the field

pětačtyřicítka - elbow

CM – prostor na tříbodové čáře

EM – an area on both sides of the three point line

poslední hřebíček do rakve – dagger

CM – rozhodující střela v posledních sekundách zápasu

EM – a decisive shot in last seconds

pres – press

CM – agresivní obrana

EM – a defensive type of play when the opponent is under a pressure

průraz – charging

CM – nedovolený pohyb útočníka směrem k obránci

EM – an illegal movement against the defender

překvapení – upset

CM – podceňovaný tým poráží favorita

EM – an underrated team beat a favourite opponent in a playoff series

přesilovka – power play

CM – přesilová situace

EM – an offensive play in which one team has an numerical advantage

přihrávka – dime

CM – přihrávka

EM – an act of passing

přihrát₁ – to assist₁

CM – *přihrát na gól*

EM – *to pass for a goal*

přihrát₂ – to assist₂

CM – *přihrát na touch down*

EM – *to pass for a touch down*

přihrát₃ – to assist₃

CM – *přihrát na koš*

EM – *to pass someone for a basket*

přihrát₄ – to dish

CM – *přihrát na koš*

EM - *to assist for a basket*

přihrát₅ – to feed

CM – *přihrát na koš*

EM - *to assist*

přihrát₆ – to pass

CM – *přihrát spoluhráči*

SM – *to move the ball towards the teammate*

R

remíza, plichta – draw

CM – *remíza*

EM – *a tied score*

rozehrát – to snap

CM – *rozehrát při americkém fotbale*

EM – *a starting pass*

rozhodující střela - prayer

CM – rozhodující střela v posledních sekundách utkání

EM – a shot that is important for the game, especially in last seconds of the game

S

simulovat – to dive

CM – hráč předstírá, že je faulován

EM – to pretend being fouled

síť – net₂

CM – tenisová síť

EM – a net in the middle of a tennis court that divides the playing area

smeč – monster jam

CM – agresivní způsob zakončení v basketbale

EM – a powerful and aggressive way of scoring in basketball

smeč do obličeje – facial

CM – zakončení v basketbale přes hráče, “do obličeje”

EM – to score in someone’s face aggressively

sólista – ball hog

CM – hráč hrající hodně sám na sebe

EM – a player who does not share the ball with teammates

střela za clonou – screen shot

CM – střela skrytá za spoluhráčem

EM – a kind of shot that is hidden behind a teammate block

střílet o desku, “o prkno” – to bank

CM – vstřelit koš odrazem o desku

EM – to bounce ball of the board to the hoop

Š

šmudla – jew goal

CM – *laciný gól*

EM – *very expressive and offensive name for a cheap goal*

T

těžká střela – clutch shot

CM – *těžká střela přes obránce*

EM – *very difficult shot over a good defence*

točený úder₁ – spin

CM – *dát míčku rotaci*

EM – *a kind of a hit that makes ball whirl*

točený úder₂ – topspin

CM – *silný úder po kterém se míček odrazí v nečekaném směru*

EM – *a kind of a hit that makes ball spin and bounce in an unexpected way*

trajler - trailer

CM – *hráč dobíhající do útoku ze zadních pozic*

EM – *a player running from behind to the fast break*

trojúhelník – triangle

CM – *signál při kterém jsou hráči rozestaveni do tvaru trojúhelníku*

EM – *a kind of an offensive play where three players' position reminds triangle*

U

ubránit – to sweep₂

CM – *zahrát dobře v obraně*

EM – *to play a good defence*

ulice – alley

CM – *prostor mezi dvěma obránci, “ulice”*

EM – *a narrow space between two defenders*

uvnitř bedny nebo mimo bednu – inside/outside the box

CM – *místo pod košem, obdelníkového tvar*

EM – *an area under the basket of a rectangular shape*

V

vápno – box

CM – *vyhrazené území před brankou, “vápno”*

EM – *an area in front of a goal*

vítězný úder – winner

CM – *vítězný úder*

EM – *a shot that beats an opponent*

výprask - blowout

CM – *ostudná porážka*

EM – *an embarrassing defeat, the defence bursts*

Z

zakázané uvolnění – icing

CM – *zakázané uvolnění*

EM – *a violation of the rules in which the puck crosses all lines without a touch of any other player*

zakroucená střela – banana kick

CM – *střela se zakřivenou dráhou letu*

EM – *a kind of curved shot*

za letu – on-the-fly

CM – *střídat během hry*

EM – *during the game time, i.e. to substitute during the game without stopping the time*

zasměčovat – to slam it down

CM – *způsob zakončení v basketbale, “zasměčovat”*

EM – *to score a basket from above with a powerful move*

zasměčovat přes hráče – to posterize

CM – *agresivně zakončit přes protihráče v basketbale, fotografie tohoto zakončení je vhodná jako vzor pro plakát*

EM – *to dunk over someone superbly that the play is worth making a poster of its picture*

za trojkou₁ – behind the arc

CM – *místo za trojkovou čárou*

EM – *an area behind the three point line*

za trojkou₂ – downtown

CM – *místo za trojkovou čárou*

EM – *a central part of a basketball field, behind the three point line*

zblokovat – to reject

CM – *zablokovat protihráčovu střelu*

EM – *to stop the opponent's shot*

zklamání – bust

CM – *hráč nenaplňující očekávání*

EM – *a disappointing player*