

Analysing Media Discourse

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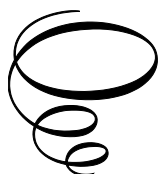
Traditional and New

Edited by

Azad Mammadov

and Barbara Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk

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Analysing Media Discourse: Traditional and New

Edited by Azad Mammadov and Barbara Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk

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INTRODUCTION

AZAD MAMMADOV
AND BARBARA LEWANDOWSKA-TOMASZCZYK

The foundation of the linguistic theory of text and discourse in the middle of the 20th century was in line with broader studies on the communicative nature of language. Recent studies have considered discourse on the level of social and mental processes explained both by linguistic and extra-linguistic factors (Teubert 2010, Hart and Cap 2014, Van Dijk 2014, Van Dijk 2017). The extra-linguistic factors cover the specifics of discourse types, genres, sub-genres and the relevant requirements imposed on them. Therefore, discourse can be defined as a very complex phenomenon with linguistic, psychological, social and cultural dimensions. Traditionally discourses are divided into three broad types: 1) literary; 2) institutional (media, political, etc.); and 3) academic or scientific. According to Fairclough, genre or type may be characterized as a “socially ratified way of using language in connection with a particular type of social activity” (1995: 27). For example, the core of the informative function of language exists in media texts (Wodak and Busch 2004), i.e., topic and extra-linguistic reality, including reported real-life events and stories. Media texts and media discourses are produced, first of all, to inform people by delivering various types of message. According to Pearce, “Mass communication, however, is the process by which a person, group of people, or large organization creates a message and transmits it through some type of medium to a large, anonymous, heterogeneous audience” (Pearce 2009: 623). The crucial factor here is a medium/media (serving as a bridge between the senders of a message and the audience) and its/their type. Furthermore, Pearce writes: “Until recently, defining mass media was easy. Mass media were comprised of eight traditional industries: books, newspapers, magazines, radio, movies, television and the Internet’ (2009: 623). New technologies have made serious changes in this traditional classification of media industries, adding also social networks such as Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp, and Viber, as well as blogs, amongst other media.

There are numerous monographs, textbooks, edited volumes and scholarly papers concerning media discourse from interdisciplinary perspectives including media studies, systemic-functional linguistics, semiotics, discourse analysis, critical discourse analysis and cognitive linguistics (Van Dijk 1988, Fairclough 1995, Downing et al. 2004, Matheson 2005, Talbot 2007, Pearce 2009, Bednarek and Caple 2012, Neiger and Tenenboim-Weinblatt 2016, Sanders and van Krieken 2019). In these and many other studies, media discourse and its numerous genres and sub-genres have been analyzed with the application of various methods and theoretical approaches. Making reference to this solid background, the present volume has a broader aim with an equal focus on a combination of these issues, and especially on a correlation between the traditional and the novel in the media, both in contemporary as well as in historical times. New insights into this area can reshape our understanding of the media, which in turn reflects both life and society and thus can shape distinct or new visions.

There are three main overarching themes pursued in the volume: 1) media discourse and language (literal and figurative); 2) media discourse and genre analysis; and 3) the main trends in new media discourse.

The first part of the volume reflects the strong and longstanding interest in the study of the language of media discourse (Chapters One and Two). It also illustrates the growing tendency among researchers to focus on the role of figurative language in media discourse (Chapter Three). It should be underlined here that while addressing media discourse – whether its genres (such as news, TV reports, and advertising), or its subgenres (such as headlines, articles, and interviews) – most authors focus on its language (Bell 1991, Fowler 1991, Kennedy 2000, Durant and Lambrou 2008, Chovanek 2014, Molek-Kozakowska 2014). Such a linguistic approach can allow a more in-depth analysis of media discourse and can also help us to understand how media discourses are produced not only from linguistic, but also from political, social and cultural perspectives. In general terms, the study of the language of media can shed light on a better understanding of its nature as a social and cultural phenomenon.

In the first paper Ayten Rzayeva discusses the British press, with a special focus on the language of the tabloids. Rzayeva argues that the texts in the British tabloids merit a special interest as they represent a model of national mentality. These texts are also used as the tools to create a new ‘complex of concepts’ typical for a given culture. Elements of literal and figurative language are key in this process.

The contribution by Milana Abasova, Bahman Amani and Afruz Azimova explores the spread of English in the world and how global English affects language choice in societies across the world. Specifically, the authors study the case of Azerbaijan, placing special focus on the qualitative and quantitative analysis of data collected from the country's local traditional and new media discourses. The paper reveals the growing number of Anglicisms used in both media discourses, which is probably a trend all over the world.

The following chapter by Ramila Huseynova is another attempt to analyze the pragmatic effect of the elements of figurative language, such as metaphors and metonymies, in media discourse. She focuses on the advertising discourse of beauty products and the ways the producers in this sphere use various rhetorical devices for pragmatic and cognitive purposes.

The second part of the volume underlines the significance and application of genre analysis in media discourse with a view to shaping discourse participants' perceptions and understanding of the sociological, political, economic and cultural contexts in media discourse. Genre hybridization is one of the most prominent features of media discourse¹. It's a topic discussed at length in this part of the book, and it's a lens which can eventually enable us to understand better the nature of media discourse.

The chapter written by Tamar Mebuke is a new attempt to shed light on genre hybridization by exploring the interaction between various genres of literary discourse. The author pays special attention to the similarities and differences between conventional, linear literary texts and computer mediated texts. The conclusion suggests that electronic or computer mediated literary texts are nonlinear and interactive.

The contribution by Jamila Rasulova deals with the mediatization of political discourse, a subject which draws considerable interest among political and media discourse analysts². Since media became an integral part of social life in the late 19th century, politicians have traditionally used all available tools and mechanisms to get access to media. Gradually a trend of hybridization of political and media discourses has gained momentum. The author claims that modern presidential discourse has become more public and mediatized

¹ See Talbot (2007) for a discussion of genre hybridization in media discourse (2007).

² Fetzer focuses on the phenomenon of "political media discourse" (2013).

as the goal of any presidential communication is more interaction with people.

Shifting the focus to the interaction of media discourse with scientific discourse and business communication, Nigar Madatova first discusses the crucial role of media in society and culture and then explores various common properties shared by media discourse, scientific discourse and business communication. Their differences, mainly related to the language used, are also explored. One prominent difference is the more functionally and stylistically rich media language contrasting the more standardized language used in scientific discourse and business communication.

The third part of the volume deals with the study of new media discourse, which is a relatively new field of study with a huge potential for analysis from diverse perspectives. This part of the volume thus explores various properties of new media and its diverse genres (social networks, blogs, messengers, etc.) using various effective instruments for data analysis such as CDA, pragmatic analysis and visual content analysis.

In their paper, Zorica Traikova Strezovska and Silvana Neshkovska study the narrative in online media outlets in North Macedonia in connection with the COVID-19 vaccination campaign. Applying CDA and pragmatic analysis to this narrative, the authors try to show the changing attitude of the commenters to the vaccination campaign at the beginning and the end of 2021 respectively. In this connection, the lexical, pragmatic and discursive devices are under special focus.

The next two papers deal with the role of images in new media discourse. The contribution by Ágnes Veszelszki, Evelin Horváth and Gábor Kovács first discusses theoretical issues related to new media primarily focusing on literacy and then explores the role of disinformation and misinformation using image manipulation and deepfake technology in new media. The authors conclude that despite the availability of various tools to identify image, digital and other types of manipulation in online media, falsified visual media can still mislead inexperienced viewers.

In the contribution by Alexandra Beni and Admilson Veloso, the authors consider Instagram from the perspective of the ways the visual image of Africa is shaped on this online platform using the techniques of netnography and visual content analysis. The paper demonstrates the role of the visual social platform in the representation of certain geographical locations from various perspectives, including territories, cultures, customs and traditions.

Finally, we would like to express our gratitude to the reviewers for their excellent work. We also thank our authors for their contributions, as well as their patience with our numerous questions and queries.

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PART I

CHAPTER ONE

EXPLORING THE LANGUAGE
OF BRITISH TABLOIDS

AYTEN RZAYEVA

Abstract

The newspaper is a source of education, enlightenment and entertainment. It influences the formation of readers' opinions on many issues. The newspaper text has historically and still remains a model of the English language and a vivid example of national coloring.

The language of newspapers has peculiarities that make it different from scientific literature, the language of fiction, and from colloquial speech.

British newspapers are divided into two large groups: broadsheets and tabloids. The focus of our study is the tabloids. A tabloid is a small-format newspaper designed for a wide range of readers, publishing sensational, low-quality messages with many illustrations. The choice of tabloid newspapers for the study is due to the fact that they are the most interesting papers in terms of language, content and design. They are designed for the mass reader; therefore, they are quite accessible material for study. They represent authentic material, which determines its value and practicality. The "Daily Mail", "Daily Express", "Mirror", "The Sun" are popular or mainstream newspapers. The purpose of the article is to explore the language of British tabloids which contain a wide variety of plots, text types and language styles that are difficult to find in common textbooks. Also, they are characterized by large headlines on the entire front page, short materials, motley page-proofs, lots of photographs.

Key words: language style of tabloids, newspaper text, text types of tabloids, tabloids

Methods of research

During the research and while analyzing the language of British tabloids, we used descriptive and comparative methods of linguistics.

Introduction

In the UK, where the world's most famous and prestigious newspaper publishing houses are situated, the newspaper text was and still is a model of the English language and a vivid example of national coloring.

The newspaper is a source of education, enlightenment and entertainment for its readers. They influence the formation of their opinion on many issues – political, economic, social, etc. For those who did not have television, radio and the Internet, the newspaper was the main source of information.

The language of newspapers has a designated peculiarity that makes it different from scientific literature or the language of fiction, and from colloquial speech.

This is a consequence of a long selection of linguistic means most favorable to the social task that the newspaper fulfills as the main mass media means. The desire to report the latest news in a short time is reflected both in the nature of communicative tasks and in their speech implementation. The newspaper is designed for a various segment of readers, and should attract their attention. The information in the newspaper is organized in such a way that the message is conveyed, compressed, and to have the intended emotional impact on the reader. As the original informational function of the newspaper is more and more pushed aside by the opposite – the influencing one, the style of the language of the newspaper is increasingly turning into a kind of journalistic style.

The specific conditions for the publication of the newspaper – the timing of the preparation of materials that do not allow it to be thoroughly stylistically worked out, the repetition of the topic and the limited range of topics – lead to the fact that the journalistic style in the newspaper is often simplified and standardized, and undergoes a significant lexical decline.

The presence of the standard gives rise to newspaper cliches, distinctive for newspaper speech. The language of newspaper messages has a number of mutual features that change from era to era, as well as many individual characteristics that belong to the same newspaper genres and publications.

But, in spite of the system of linguistic means used in various newspaper genres, the newspaper style still stands out among the opposite styles of speech by a number of main mutual features. As a rule, news stories are prepared and read quickly, so it is convenient to use repetitive vocabulary, which gradually turns into newspaper clichés.

If to speak about the peculiarities of speech style of British newspapers, they are divided into two large groups: broadsheets and tabloids. We are interested in the latter one. Tabloid is a small-format newspaper designed for a wide range of readers, publishing sensational, low-quality messages with many illustrations. The tabloid newspaper as a subject of study belongs to the journalistic style. The choice of tabloid newspapers is due to the fact that they are the most interesting in terms of language, content and design. They are designed for the mass reader, therefore, they are quite accessible material for study. They represent authentic material, which determines its value and practicality. *The Daily Mail*, *The Daily Express*, *The Mirror* and *The Sun* are popular or mainstream newspapers. They contain a wide variety of plots, text types and language styles that are difficult to find in common textbooks. They are characterized by large headlines on the entire front page, short articles, a motley layout, and lots of photographs.

In the modern world, newspaper-journalistic style acts as the most widespread and most frequently used means of conveying information. Its components are the language of newspapers, the language of political speeches (for instance at summits), reports, and discussions, as well as the language of television and radio broadcasts. Many events taking place in the world are widely covered in the media. Newspapers, despite the existence of the Internet, radio and television, remain an important source of information till today. The most consecrated topics also include events and phenomena in the field of culture, religion, science and ecology. Information content is considered one of the main properties of a newspaper text, since it carries in itself certain new pieces of knowledge. But from the point of view of linguistics, the newspaper text is important as a source of a live, developing language, since it is in it that new words and expressions are often created, and those already known to us acquire new meaning and enrich the composition of the language. In the UK, where the world's most famous and prestigious newspaper publishing houses are situated, newspaper text has traditionally and still is the model of the English language and a bright example of national flavor.

The newspaper is a source of education, enlightenment and entertainment for its readers. It influences the formation of their opinion on many issues –

political, economic, social, etc. For those who do not have a television, listen to the radio or use the Internet, the newspaper is the main source of information. There are a lot of classifications of newspapers according to various features and characteristics. Let's consider the classification proposed by Danuta Reah: 1) large-format newspapers (*The Daily Telegraph*, *The Independent*, *The Times* and *The Guardian*); 2) middle class tabloids (*The Express* and *The Daily Mail*); 3) tabloids (*The Sun*, *The Mirror*, *The Star*) (Reah, 2008: 12). Tabloids and large-format newspapers serve different purposes. Tabloids are the least serious daily or Sunday newspapers, being named for their small format. Today, large-format newspapers are printed in the tabloid format, but they are nevertheless still called large-format or "respectable". It should be noted that the tabloids pay special attention to the private life of famous personalities. Tabloid stories are much smaller in size, use less formal writing style and slang, and dilute the content with photographs and pictures. Large-format newspapers, in contrast, are known as "serious" ("respectable"). Such newspapers are believed to carry more serious news and are read by more educated people. In addition to important news, middle-class tabloids also print sensational stories (Budge, 2013: 93). Two types of news can be found in both large-format newspapers and tabloids: important political news and emotional news.

High-profile political news includes up-to-date information on events and conflicts that have occurred recently or are about to occur, such as fires, crimes, meetings, protests, speeches and testimonies at court hearings. Relevant events are those that occurred 24-48 hours prior to printing. Such news, printed in large-format newspapers, most often covers the main and most significant details of the event. Emotional news serves to entertain and inform readers, is focused on the interests of readers and the novelty of events, and is less relevant.

Unlike important political news, emotional news pays more attention to details such as the personal life of heroes of events, their work, etc. (Rich, 2013: 83). However, the distinction between the two types of newspapers is gradually disappearing, as wide-format newspapers increasingly include entertainment information, and tabloids more serious articles. Despite this, the various tricks, allusions and images in large-format newspapers are mostly used for educational purposes. Because the popularity of each newspaper is determined by its audience, the publishers hope to create a circle of "loyal readers" who will buy the same newspaper every day, year after year.

1. Lexical and grammatical features of the language of UK newspapers

The peculiarities of the language of newspapers have been studied in the works of many academics internationally. According to the research of V.G. Kostomarov, two characteristic features can be distinguished in the language of the newspaper: the tendency to use standards and the tendency towards the 'expressive expression' of thought (Kostomarov, 2009: 320).

According to these tendencies when writing articles, different vocabulary is used: neutral language, business terms, special terms, colloquial language etc. To show expressiveness, the authors use expressive means that are more characteristic of the language of fiction. This includes personification, comparisons, metaphors, epithets, phraseological phrases, etc. (Zhuravleva, 2006: 50).

One of the main syntactic features of British newspapers is the frequent use of the passive voice in the texts of articles. This phenomenon is especially typical for news reports. The impersonal forms of verbs are found not only in headlines, but also in articles.

The use of the gerund, the present participle and the past participle make them more logical and informative.

The use of clichés is widespread in newspaper articles. They can be found in articles on any topic: politics, economics, sports, culture, ecology, etc.

Infinitive phrases with the verb *to be* are also common in newspaper articles. When writing articles in British newspapers, authors prefer to use complex and compound sentences, and complex sentences are used much more often. Complex prepositions such as *of course*, *although*, *finally*, *meanwhile*, *however*, *at first glance*, and *therefore*, are among the most common prepositions found in newspaper articles.

Phrasal verbs, popular in colloquial speech and often replacing ordinary verbs with the same meaning, are used with the same frequency in newspaper articles. Phrasal verbs such as *come up*, *turn in*, *draw up*, *dry up*, *carry out*, *cash in*, *stand up*, *sum up*, *put off*, *get by*, or *catch up* are ubiquitous in newspaper articles, both in large-format newspapers and in the tabloids (Shishkova, 2015: 37).

Also, British newspapers are characterized by the use of proverbs, sayings, colloquial vocabulary, abbreviations, contractions and various other tropes.

Due to the peculiarities of the functioning of newspaper information and the frequent use of such language in these texts, the means of expressiveness of the English language can lose its expressiveness and become cliché. Thanks to this, new means of expressiveness appear; this often happens by changing the lexical meaning of a word or expression by using it in a completely different context (Zhuravleva, 2006: 51).

Contractions, which are frequently used in colloquial speech, are increasingly beginning to penetrate newspaper texts; they can especially be found in tabloids. The most commonly used contractions include *aren't*, *haven't*, *won't*, and *doesn't*. The use of contractions can be justified, on the one hand, by the general tendency toward brevity, and on the other hand, by the desire to make the article comprehensible to all readers. In addition, the use of contractions gives the article a more expressive and modern coloring. In the newspaper style, contractions come from everyday life, and therefore readers have no problem understanding them. In turn, it is convenient for journalists to use contractions as synonyms for full forms of words to avoid re-nomination. Due to the fact that the journalistic style is often characterized as “expressiveness against standards”, special terms may appear in it, especially economic and political ones (Shishkova, 2015: 38-39).

The text of any newspaper combines the informative function and the function of influencing the reader. Hence, it becomes necessary to build an article in a certain order: in most cases, simple and understandable language is used, language that makes difficulty understanding the text rare. To add color to the article, the authors use dialectisms, professionalisms, argotisms, neologisms and other highly specialized means of expressiveness (Zhuravleva, 2006: 50). Due to the duality of the function of newspaper texts, it becomes necessary to use two types of evaluative vocabulary – positive and negative. This lexico-semantic tool is a way to demonstrate the author’s assessment of the described events. Value judgments always presuppose the presence of a subject of assessment – both the author of the article and a certain part of society, or indeed society as a whole can act as such.

Evaluation can be expressed both openly and covertly using links. The use of a direct link to the source of the assessment information or its citation is regarded as a manifestation of an openly expressed non-author’s assessment. Indicators of the cited assessment are direct speech, the use of a single word in quotation marks, or indirect speech. If the author of the article, for some reason, does not want to express his own opinion, then the use of the cited assessment will allow him not only to perform the function of influencing

the reader, but also at the same time abstract from the written and avoid demonstrating his own assessment (Wolf, 1985: 228).

A newspaper article, in most cases, is a fairly lengthy text, which deals with a specific event or phenomenon. In this regard, a set of words and expressions with a certain theme are used, which is why it is not always possible to avoid re-nomination. For newspaper style, the repetition of the same word (or words of the same root) within a particular part of the text is unacceptable. In order to avoid multiple repetitions, synonymy is used, i.e., a special type of semantic relation between linguistic units, in which their meanings fully or partially coincide. The following types of synonymies can be found in newspaper publications in Great Britain:

- verb;
- verb-descriptive;
- synonymy of nouns;
- synonymy of adjectives;
- synonymy of prepositional combinations; and
- synonymy of grammatical forms.

Another way of avoiding re-nomination in an English newspaper text is to use professions/titles instead of proper names. A descriptive technique is often used, i.e., synonymy based on an indication of the events due to which the mentioned person, object or phenomenon is known (Zhuravleva, 2006: 51-52).

2. Newspaper vocabulary containing national-cultural information

At present, the language of the press is increasingly being studied not as a closed system, but together with all its numerous connections and functions. New aspects of learning the language of the press are emerging, both cognitive and pragmatic. Since cognitive linguistics is associated with the study of the problem of the relationship between language and consciousness and the role of language in the conceptualization and categorization of the world, its main task is to build a model of language communication as a basis for knowledge exchange.

The cognitive approach to the study of languages is based on the study of a “publicistic” picture of the world, which has a huge impact on people through the use of effective means of influence (Solganik, 2013: 33). The pragmatic aspect is used in the study of the language of the newspaper due

to the fact that the representation of the world depicted in newspapers serves not only to inform readers (the informational function of the newspaper), but also to persuade and influence them (the perlocutionary function). In the pragmatic context, the specificity of the producer of speech and the specificity of the object of speech (sender and addressee) are thoroughly examined. The concept of modality is associated with the specificity of the addressee, i.e., the author's attitude to the content of speech, expressed by the degree of emotionality, imagery, subjectivity / objectivity and evaluativeness. Another important aspect of learning the language of a newspaper is sociolinguistics: it involves an analysis of the functioning of the media and the effectiveness of their impact on different layers of society (Zhuravleva, 2006: 34-35). For non-native English speakers, different kinds of background knowledge are required when studying the cultural identity of a newspaper. There are three types of background knowledge which are prevalent to different degrees: general human background knowledge, regional and geographic background knowledge, and cultural background knowledge, in which the culture of the country is reflected. Cultural background knowledge is characteristic only for a specific nation or nationality and is reflected in the language of a given national community (Vereshchagin, Kostomarov, 2013: 134). In newspaper texts, lexical units are used that carry national and cultural information. Exploring the cultural-specific linguistic facts present in the language of the newspaper, it is necessary to take into account the cumulative function of the language, i.e., its ability to reflect, consolidate and retain information about the reality comprehended by a person, including cultural-specific information inherent only to a given nationality.

Such information appears under the influence of the political, economic, social and geographic characteristics of a particular region and depends on the specific features of all types of its art, science, and life, as well as the customs of the people (Zhuravleva, 2006: 37). The background information covers, first of all, the special facts of history and state structure inherent only in this country, the specific features of its geographical environment, the characteristic objects of material culture of the past and present, and the ethnographic and folklore concepts known as realities. Realities include not only data, facts, phenomena and objects, but also names, words and phrases (Vinogradov, 2014: 38). All these phenomena are present in the language of the newspaper. In addition to the usual realities, expressed through non-equivalent vocabulary, and used in the language of the newspaper, background information is present in special realities – for instance the associative, associated with various national historical and cultural phenomena and fixed in a special way in the language. These realities are

expressed in ordinary words, and not in non-equivalent vocabulary, and their specificity is in the components of the meaning of words, in shades of words, in internal verbal forms, and in emotionally expressive colorations. Connotations, i.e., the stylistic, emotional and semantic shades present in words, do not exist separately, but are combined in a word that has its own material-semantic content, and join to one of its meanings (Vinogradov, 2014, 39).

It is also possible to find lexical units in the language completely consisting of such information: the names of objects of material culture, historical events, government organizations, holidays, television programs, elements of folklore, etc., that are characteristic only for individual nations and peoples. Considering a newspaper text as a source of national and cultural information, one should take into account its most important property – its informative content, i.e., the ability to convey factual, conceptual and subtextual information in its content. When determining the linguistic and cultural specifics of a newspaper text, it is necessary to take into account both linguistic and non-linguistic factors (the goals and objectives of the article; the author's position and the position of the newspaper as a whole; the valuable orientations of the given linguistic community – its social, historical and cultural experience).

Extra-linguistic factors determine the speech structure, the specific linguistic content of the newspaper text, and the selection of lexical means as well. Different elements of the language reflect and hold information about cultural identity to different degrees. First of all, this statement is true for units of the lexical level, since it is the lexical system that is most closely related to the objects of extra-linguistic reality.

The territorial variants of the language have their own norms of functioning of linguistic means, and this is most noticeably expressed at the lexical level (Zhuravleva, 2006: 38-39). Newspaper text in different parts of the UK differs in content and structure. It reflects the various linguistic and cultural characteristics of each region. Articles of different newspapers may differ not only in size, but also in the set of linguistic means: their number may vary depending on the communicative and pragmatic norms of the national variants of the English language. Each territorial variant of the language has lexical, grammatical and stylistic norms inherent in it alone. But they are formed on a single linguistic norm, common to all English-language texts. Each version is based on it and on its basis various territorial linguistic norms develop. The linguistic norm itself is understood as “the aggregate of the most stable traditional implementations of the linguistic system, selected

and fixed in the process of linguistic communication” (Linguistic Encyclopedic Dictionary, 2008: 337). The linguistic means included in the concept of the norm are rather heterogeneous, and therefore many synonymous series and their variants are preserved in the linguistic norm. The degree of territorial variability depends on the existing language situation. Different types of norms differ in the composition of the phenomena included: for example, the basis of the literary norm is stylistically neutral and widely used linguistic phenomena, and its periphery includes archaic and new phenomena along with functionally and territorially marked phenomena (Zhuravleva, 2006: 69). The complex of all territorial variants and the words and fixed expressions used in these norms constitutes the lexical corpus of the British variant of the English language (Vinogradov, 2014: 83). The general English features of the language of the newspaper include grammar rules and the basic vocabulary. The special territorial-specific features inherent in each region are manifested to a greater extent at the lexical level and become a distinctive feature of each dialect and territorial variant of the language. Newspapers, both broadsheets and tabloids, are formal publications of the public type. Therefore, it appears that, in most cases, they are printed in a standard format. In Scotland, for example, where a predominantly English-Scottish dialect is spoken, this language is unlikely to be used often in a newspaper taking into account its low status and general lack of acceptance as a standard form. However, some special words of the Anglo-Scottish dialect are still used in articles, more often in a narrow context (Douglas F., 2007: 47).

3. The national-cultural component of linguistic means in British newspapers

Various linguistic means used in newspaper texts in Great Britain often express the national and cultural peculiarities of the country. The most widely used of them are non-equivalent and background vocabulary, phraseological units, metaphors, precedent phenomena, formulas of speech etiquette and borrowings. National and cultural peculiarity is expressed through the nominative means of the language because of the use of lexical units that are directly related to extra-linguistic reality. National and cultural features of the nominative units of the language are expressed in the existence of not only non-equivalent units, but also their varieties – lacunas, i.e., words and meanings that have no expression in other languages (Zhuravleva, 2006: 77). The term “logoepistem”, developed by V. G. Kostomarov and E. M. Vereshchagin (Vereshchagin & Kostomarov, 2012: 168) is used for these language means. The logoepistem can be defined as

“multilevel linguistic and cultural units” – concept words, set-expressions, phraseological units, precedent texts, “speaking” names and names that are the standard type of a native speaker’s linguistic response to external stimuli (Kostomarov & Burvikova, 2011: 37). For a complete understanding and comprehension of the logoepistem, it is necessary to have knowledge both in the field of language and in the field of transmitted information. The logoepistem is also a linguistic expression of the trace of the reflection of reality in the minds of native speakers fixed by social memory as a result of their comprehension or creation of spiritual values of national and world cultures. Through the logoepistem, “national spirituality, historical memory and the foundations of ethnic and cultural mentality materialize” (Kostomarov & Burvikova, 2011: 38). The imagery of speech in a newspaper text has an established character. Various phraseological units, metaphors, comparisons and other linguistic means come into it from the general linguistic fund of expressive means (Galperin, 2016: 306).

A layer of non-equivalent and background vocabulary, where there is a national-cultural component, is formed in a specific ethno-cultural and national-linguistic group. In the process of its formation, linguistic deficiency may arise, meaning the absence of an equivalent for expressing a particular concept or phenomenon. This is often caused by the absence of the concept itself: the language contains words the content plan of which is not comparable with lexical concepts in other languages. They denote realities that are unique to the given culture and language. To transfer these realities into the target language, the concepts denoting them are borrowed through transcription and transliteration (Vereshchagin, Kostomarov, 2012: 30). The background vocabulary is formed by lexical units used to designate objects of national culture (holidays, household items, clothing items, dishes of national cuisine, names of television programs, etc.), as well as political, social and technical terms. The phenomenon known as incomplete equivalence occurs when the same concept is expressed in different languages with different degrees of reliability. Many researchers are of the opinion that most of the words in different languages are equivalent, as they are based on an interlingual concept: they have an equal amount of conceptual material and reflect the same element of reality. Despite this, the semantics of words differs due to the influence of many factors on it, such as differences in the actual linguistic information, different lexical and phraseological compatibility, and the sociolinguistic connotation elements determined by the culture, customs and traditions of different peoples. Due to such differences, the question of the existence of interlingual synonyms and equivalents seems to be very problematic (Zhuravleva, 2006: 79-80). The background vocabulary used in newspaper and journalistic texts in

Great Britain can be represented in the form of an extralinguistic thematic classification, which includes the following groups: various unions and associations and their abbreviations; private and public companies; government agencies and positions; objects and phenomena of traditional life; national currency, measures of weight and length; holidays; and flora and fauna. These groups are not the only ones and can be supplemented by many similar ones. Let's move on to a review of these groups and their examples presented in the UK national press.

1) The names of periodicals and news agencies, publishing houses, and television and radio companies:

The Sun says Boris Johnson's Plan A for getting through Covid winter looks reasonable but he must avoid Plan B at all costs (<https://www.thesun.co.uk>) – The Sun, the name of periodical.

Launching in early 2022, talkTV will be available to all Brits – both live and on-demand. (<https://www.thesun.co.uk>) – talkTV, British TV channel

2) The names of various associations, unions, movements, and political parties (national, religious, political, public), including abbreviations:

Labour's leader Keir Starmer, who challenged the PM while claimants protested outside Parliament against the cut, accused Tory MPs of branding his question about working hours "silly". (<https://www.mirror.co.uk>) – Labour and the Tories are political parties; MP – abbreviation for Member of Parliament.

3) Names of private and public companies:

"But Apple has decided not to deviate from its 18-hour battery life. The faster charging will be welcomed, but for those wanting to track their sleep it would be far easier to offer a battery that lasts a couple of days." (<https://www.thesun.co.uk>)

"They tried feebly to rebrand Delta the "Johnson Variant".
<https://www.thesun.co.uk/news/15812828/health-official-reveals-signs-delta-variant-original-covid/>

'They said he had "lost control" and was driving us unstoppably towards 100,000 infections a day.' (<https://www.thesun.co.uk>)

4) Names of government agencies, official positions:

“The PM will strike a cautious note as he unveils a package of measures designed to prevent a winter wave overwhelming the NHS.”

(<https://www.thesun.co.uk>)

5) The names of objects and phenomena of traditional life. This group of lexical units can be divided into the following subgroups:

A) the names of national songs and dances, as well as national musical instruments; and

B) the name of objects and phenomena of national life.

6) National currency, measures of weight and length

7) Names of national holidays:

A) Religious holidays

B) Holidays not related to the church.

The number of lexical units marked by national and cultural features varies in different newspapers and depends on their type, the headings and sections of the newspaper, the method of presenting information, its ideological orientation and historically established traditions. Therefore, for example, in news articles and chronicles, abbreviations, names of firms, organizations, unions and government agencies will be used much more often. Mentions of household items and national holidays, on the contrary, will be found in the sections devoted to the cultural life of the country. The presented groups of lexical units are established historical, social, cultural, political and economic determined signs of the situation, in which the national-cultural specificity of the English language is most noticeably manifested. They are most closely related to those stereotypes formed among native speakers of English, as well as with the associative perception of objects and environmental phenomena. In order to adequately perceive and interpret these stereotypes, it is necessary to have an idea of the associative connotations of each of them.

4. Phraseology in British newspaper texts

National culture is closely related to the use of lexical units of the phraseological fund of the language. National realities are expressed in

idioms, which are an indicator of the identity of the people and constitute the national picture of the world. The emergence of phraseological units is associated with the need to figuratively represent the world around us and reflect in this representation the empirical and spiritual experience of the population of the country. Phraseological units are a reflection of all aspects of the material and spiritual world of the nation. In addition, their structure also reflects moral and psychological characteristics and assessments that express the concept of a national spirit and a national personality. The layer of idiomatic vocabulary that we can observe today is a historical projection of the culture and mentality of the people. Often the basis of a phraseological unit, idiom, proverb or saying is a metaphor. In poetic language, together with metaphor and other figurative means, symbolism is widely used. Due to the versatility of its mechanism, even the most complex artistic metaphor will be comprehensible to a native speaker. At the interlanguage level, a skilled translator would be required, a professional whose task it would be to find a different, equally expressive metaphor, but in a different language. Although, it is highly likely that even in a literal translation this metaphor would be understood by representatives of another language group. Those metaphors that represent historical symbols originated from various legends, myths and traditions. These symbols have their own peculiarity: they do not use the transfer of meaning, as in tropes, but reflect the picture of the world and background knowledge. Phraseological units arise not so much to describe the world as to interpret it, evaluate it, and express a subjective attitude. This is a distinctive feature of phraseological units and metaphors from other nominative units (Maslova, 2014: 82). The internal form of most phraseological units contains concepts that reflect national and cultural specifics. The semantics of such phraseological units can be analyzed from the standpoint of valuable attitudes and stereotypes inherent in the mentality of the nation, i.e., in national culture. Phraseologies and idiomatic expressions containing national and cultural specifics can be found in newspaper articles. Let's illustrate this with examples:

“Retired police bosses and politicians yesterday poured scorn on New Scotland Yard advice to women to flag down a bus if they fear for their safety while being arrested” (The Daily Mail, October 2, 2021, p. 11)

‘Boris Johnson last night ordered the authorities to “come down hard” on officers found guilty of misconduct over the Sarah Everard case’ (The Daily Mail, October 2, 2021, p. 10)

“Naturally, people were jumping up and down and frothing at the mouth, saying they were unable to fill their plant pots and carrier bags with petrol and that he’d been incredibly selfish” (The Sun, October 2, 2021, p. 17)

Phraseologies existing in the language differ in their structure and origin, therefore, they can be divided into several groups. Culture is reflected in different phraseological units in different ways. The easiest way to understand and explain the cultural aspect of phraseological units in terms of their meaning is by exploring the denotative aspect, which plays an important role.

These phraseological units contain regional knowledge: the names of objects of national culture, references to events from the history of the people, national proper names, etc. In order to understand their meaning, it is necessary to have knowledge of specific historical facts. Another group includes figurative-emotive phraseological units. National and cultural information is in their internal form, in which there is a reflection of culture – myths, archetypes, customs, traditions, historical events and elements of material culture.

Those images that are used to form figurative-emotive phraseological units must have a connection with national-cultural stereotypes, standards and symbols. Examples of phraseological units of both types found in newspaper articles include:

A) the names of objects of national culture, history of the people, national proper names, i.e., regional knowledge; and

B) reflections of culture – myths, archetypes, customs, traditions, historical events and elements of material culture.

English phraseological units, which include comparative phrases, can also be divided into several groups:

1) Phraseological units based on comparison with animals and plants.

2) Phraseologies based on comparison with objects, phenomena and substances.

Thus, we can conclude that phraseological units are the richest units of national and cultural information used in British national newspapers. They reflect previous cultures, their customs and traditions, historical events and elements of everyday life. The composition of English phraseological units

includes various national and cultural components, as the meaning of phraseological units has a close connection with the background knowledge of native speakers, with the practical experience of the individual, and with the cultural and historical traditions of the people for whom this language is a mother tongue.

5. Metaphors and imagery in the British press

Metaphor is a universal phenomenon for any language. Its emergence is associated with the conceptual system of native speakers, with their well-established ideas about the world order/structure and with the use of a certain system of assessments. The metaphor is the subject of study in the works of such scholars as J. Lakoff, M. Johnson, V. I. Telia, and Y. S. Stepanov et al. The process of metaphorical creativity is the basis of many semantic processes: the creation of 50 synonymous means, polysemy, the emergence of new meanings, the development of systems of terminology and emotionally expressive vocabulary.

In texts belonging to the newspaper-journalistic style, the role of metaphor in the aspect of the national-cultural specifics of the English language should be considered through cultural, pragmatic and cognitive approaches. From this point of view, the metaphor is investigated not only as a way of carrying out the nomination, but also as a cultural paradigm that combines the background knowledge of all mankind and a separate cultural and ethnic community (Temnova, 2014: 20). Due to the accumulation of cognitive and cultural information, the metaphor is able to vividly reflect the essence of social transformations. It significantly influences the worldview of native speakers and participates in the creation of “ideological myths”, thereby performing the perlocutionary function of the newspaper-journalistic style, i.e., the function of influence and persuasion (Zhuravleva, 2006: 149). In the material of newspaper articles studied here, the conceptual metaphor is most often encountered. Its main role is to comprehend and designate events, phenomena and concepts related to the world of ideas. With its help, new concepts of already existing concepts are created (by “concept” we mean those meanings that are used by a person in the process of thinking). According to Stepanov, a cultural concept is a clot of culture in the mind of a person, a “bundle” of ideas, concepts, knowledge, and associations that accompanies the word, affected by cultural-mental-linguistic education (2011: 40-41).

In the UK, newspaper articles also use nominative, figurative metaphors.

Particular attention should be paid to the use of the individual author's metaphor in newspaper texts. The semantics of words, which creates a metaphorical meaning, evokes subjective associations in the mind of the reader, depending on personal characteristics and mental makeup. The individual author's metaphor is created by transforming and modifying the national picture of the world in accordance with the author's own worldview.

In the English press metaphorized terms are most often used in articles with political and sociocultural topics, and less often in articles on economic topics. When discussing the most important and relevant topics, the authors increase the number of metaphorical expressions used to help reveal the importance of the problem being described. It is important to emphasize that the metaphor contains the key to understanding the foundations of not only a nationally specific vision of the world, but also its universal image. Many metaphorical models have spread throughout the world and acquired an international character. This is due to the enormous influence of the world press, as well as the importance of metaphor in socio-political texts.

Conclusion

In this study, an attempt was made to study the characteristics of British national newspapers through their linguistic and stylistic devices. A characteristic feature of the newspaper-journalistic style is the function of influencing the feelings of the reader. To achieve this goal, highly expressive lexical and grammatical means are used in the texts of newspaper articles. Newspaper-journalistic text containing national and cultural specifics is intended primarily for representatives of a particular society. It represents a model of national mentality and is used as a tool for creating a new set of concepts in a given cultural society with its own ideology. A characteristic feature of the newspaper-journalistic text is that not all available language means can be used in it. In the English language there is a phenomenon of the territorial variant of the language, i.e., the presence of several variants of English used in different parts of the UK. Varying within a single English language is possible due to the presence in it of a variety of non-linguistic, cultural, historical and social features. Based on the study, we can conclude that the national and cultural characteristics of each of the territorial variants do not violate the unity of the general English language, but only contribute to its enrichment. Articles on different topics in British newspapers use an unequal number of lexical units with national and