

MINISTRY OF SCIENCE AND HIGHER EDUCATION  
OF THE RUSSIAN FEDERATION

PENZA STATE UNIVERSITY

Faculty of History, Languages and  
Literature

Department "Foreign Languages and  
Methods of Teaching Foreign  
Languages"

Study field code and title 45.04.01  
Philology  
Full-time mode of study

Master's programme  
Languages, Culture, Media

GRADUATION QUALIFICATION PAPER

MASTER'S THESIS

"Coverage of Sport Events in Media Publications"

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Penza 2023

## **List of Content**

|                                                                                                                                                               |    |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Introduction .....                                                                                                                                            | 3  |
| Chapter I. Expressive language and concepts .....                                                                                                             | 5  |
| 1.1. Analysis of expressive vocabulary.....                                                                                                                   | 5  |
| 1.1.1. Definition of expressive language. Expression and emotionality.....                                                                                    | 5  |
| 1.1.2. Methods of expression in language.....                                                                                                                 | 9  |
| 1.2. Representation of linguocultural concepts in sports discourse .....                                                                                      | 13 |
| 1.2.1. Definition of linguocultural concept.....                                                                                                              | 13 |
| 1.2.2. Concept of “fair play” .....                                                                                                                           | 18 |
| 1.2.3. Concept of “gentleman” .....                                                                                                                           | 19 |
| 1.2.4. Concept of “Own/Alien” .....                                                                                                                           | 22 |
| Summary of Chapter I.....                                                                                                                                     | 24 |
| Chapter II. Characteristics of sports journalism.....                                                                                                         | 26 |
| 2.1. Development of sports journalism .....                                                                                                                   | 26 |
| 2.1.1 History of sports journalism in Russia.....                                                                                                             | 26 |
| 2.1.2 History of sports journalism in western countries .....                                                                                                 | 31 |
| 2.2. National characteristics of sports journalism.....                                                                                                       | 38 |
| 2.2.1. Features of sports journalism in Russia .....                                                                                                          | 38 |
| 2.2.2 Features of sports journalism in England .....                                                                                                          | 41 |
| Summary of Chapter 2 .....                                                                                                                                    | 45 |
| Chapter 3. Comparative lexical analysis of Russian and British sports media .....                                                                             | 47 |
| 3.1. A comparative analysis of English and Russian media headlines and analysis of the methods of expression. ....                                            | 47 |
| 3.2. Quantitative analysis of texts of English and Russian articles about sports and influence of the linguocultural concepts "Gentleman" "fair play" on them | 52 |
| Summary of Chapter 3 .....                                                                                                                                    | 58 |
| Conclusion.....                                                                                                                                               | 60 |
| List of references .....                                                                                                                                      | 62 |

## Introduction

Sports journalism remains one of the most popular mediums for readers. Even political media write articles about sports, especially about the performances of their country's athletes in international competitions.

This master's thesis is devoted to the characteristics of the coverage of English and Russian soccer teams.

The **relevance** of the thesis is that over the past two years we can see significant changes in the presentation of articles about sports in Russian. Consequently, Russian sports journalists were able to develop new principles of work that differed from their English ones.

The **object** of this study is articles about soccer in the English and Russian media. The **subject** of the research is materials for the year 2023 from the following media outlets: Guardian, BBC and Daily Mail in English and sports.ru, championat.com and sport-express.ru in Russian.

The following **research methods** were chosen: analysis, deduction, classification.

**Purpose of the work:** to study the peculiarities of the coverage of sports events with the participation of national teams in Russian and English and to evaluate the influence of national linguocultural concepts on the texts of the media.

To achieve this goal, the following **tasks** were established:

1. Study the concept of expressiveness and ways of its manifestation in texts.
2. Explore the concept of a "concept" and examine the main ones that will be needed in a comparative analysis.
3. Examine the materials of sports media and conduct a comparative content analysis.
4. Determine the influence of the concepts "fair play", "own/alien" and "gentleman" on the language of texts in the media.

**Research hypothesis:** in English media materials there will be more words with positive emotional coloring due to the developed concepts of gentleman and fair play.

**The novelty of the thesis** lies in the fact that a comparative content analysis of articles about sports has not been performed from a culturological perspective.

**The theoretical basis** of the study are the works of such scholars as Sh. Bally, D.S. Likhachev, E.A. Voitik, V.N. Teliya and more.

**The theoretical significance** of the dissertation lies in the connection of specific linguocultural concepts with media reports.

**The practical value of the thesis** lies in distinguishing the specifics of coverage for audiences in different countries. This will help sports journalists adjust the techniques of their foreign colleagues to the specific mindset of the people for whom they are writing.

**The structure of the graduate qualification paper:** introduction, three chapters, conclusion, list of references. The first chapter defines the term "expressive vocabulary," and a classification of methods of expression in language is given. Also the first chapter outlines the main approaches to the study of concepts and gives insights into some of them.

The second chapter collects the history of the development of sports journalism in England and Russia. In addition, the main genre features of coverage of sports events in these two countries were given.

## **Chapter I. Expressive language and concepts**

### **1.1. Analysis of expressive vocabulary.**

#### **1.1.1. Definition of expressive language. Expression and emotionality.**

Among the many functions of human language, the most important are communication and thinking. Performing them, language acts as a tool of registration in the minds of speakers of the information received from the outside. Besides, language expresses emotions and feelings of speakers by linguistic means (interjections, particles, lexemes, syntactic constructions). Emotions are expressed by extra-linguistic means (mimicry, gestures, intonation) and by linguistic means. The most important role belongs to vocabulary.

In the "Linguistic Encyclopedic Dictionary" expression is defined as "a set of semantic and stylistic features of the language unit, which provide its ability to perform in a communicative act as a tool for the subjective expression of the speaker's attitude to the content or recipient of speech [LED, 1990: 591].

Expressiveness is most often understood as "the non-neutrality of speech, something that gives it an unusual and emphatic quality due to the fact that the signal conveyed by the language expression is amplified and singled out from the general flow [Teliya, 2008: 6].

Over the past twenty years, linguistic scholars have taken a special interest in studying the expression of emotion in language.

The main categories of this linguistic paradigm are the linguistic personality and the concept, providing a set of means for studying the nature of man, which in language "captures" its internal states, its emotions, its intellect, its attitude to the object and non-object world, nature, its relationship to the collective of people and to another person. Accordingly, emotions, worries, feelings, its verbal reflection, are among the leading positions in the focus of scientific interests of modern linguists.

Emotiology, traditionally understood as a cognitive theory of emotion, studies cognitive psychology and linguistics. Interdisciplinary knowledge is

applied to the study of certain issues in relation to the expression of emotion. After processing the data, a linguistic concept of emotion is developed. As a result, by emotiology we mean the science of the verbalization of emotions [Nashhoeva, 2011: 94].

As E.V. Sazhina notes, despite a large number of researches in the field of emotiology and recognition of the importance of the emotional factor for the study of language, the basic problems of this direction of psychological linguistics are still underdeveloped. One of the most controversial issues is the interpretation and use of such related concepts as "emotionality" and "emotivity" [Sazhina, 2019: 566].

As V. I. Shakhovsky notes, it is incorrect to apply the term "emotionality" to language units, because this term characterizes a property of the human psyche and, according to Shakhovsky, is not applicable to language units. In one of his works the scholar explains: "'emotive' is the same as 'emotional', but about language, its units and their semantics. Emotivity is the immanent semantic property of language to express emotionality as a fact of the mind by its system of means..." [Shahovsky, 2009: 145].

No less important is the issue of separating the terms expressivness and emotionality. V. I. Shakhovsky in his article "The problem of distinguishing expressivness and emotionality as a semantic category of linguistics" includes interjections and interjective words, emotionally enhancing adverbs, insulting and affectionate words, emotion-evaluative adjectives to emotive and expressive vocabulary. Expressive vocabulary also includes archaisms, poetisms, slangisms, euphemisms, exotisms, some sound-imitating words, zoolexics in figurative meaning. However, the author tried to distinguish between expressivness and emotionality, calling them "blurred concepts and blurred edges". He believes that expressivness and emotionality can be components of the lexical meaning of a linguistic unit, they belong to the expressive means of language and are a qualitative characteristic of speech. At the same time, he identifies the differential signs of expressivness and emotionality:

1. Expressiveness is associated with representations, and emotionality is associated with feelings, sensations. Expressiveness and emotivity differ in their functions: expressiveness is an increase in the influential, impressive power of a statement, its characterization, and emotivity serves to express a person's feelings, his attitude, his evaluation.
2. Emotivity is closely related to evaluativeness and subjectivity, as it is a manifestation of feelings. Expressiveness is not necessarily related to them.
3. Expressiveness and emotivity also differ in terms of their direction and their dependence on the presence or absence of a referent. Expressiveness assumes its presence because it is directed at it. Emotionality is always directed at a specific referent. It is the result of its fact. Emotivity represents the agent's reaction to that referent, while expressiveness can be less of a reaction than a stimulus for the referent.
4. Expressiveness is measured by intensity, and emotionality by evaluability [Shahovsky, 1975: 60].

O. Krylova, considering "expressiveness" as an increase in expressiveness of speech, an increase in its influential power, notes: "Any speech, if it has emotional and evaluative or figurative connotations, is expressive" [10, p. 85]. At the same time, the researcher points out that expressiveness is not necessarily reduced to emotivity, evaluative and figurative connotations [Krylova, 2006: 204].

One of the main ways of distinguishing between nominative and expressive words is the method of identification, first used by C. Bally. According to him, "to identify an expressive fact is to equate it to a unit of thought, to define it by substituting a simple, unemotional word (word-identifier) corresponding to a representation or concept". He stresses that some expressive units, such as expressive verbs, are related to neutral words. Compare: пить - дуть, хлестать, лакать. A neutral synonym expresses the denotative, "real" content of expressive verbs [Bally, 1961: 154].

There are three main directions in the approach to defining the means that create expression.

The first direction is the stylistic direction. According to this point of view, the semantic dominant, which creates the expressive effect, is the characteristic of the conditions of communication, which is expressed in various kinds of stylistic techniques, in functional and stylistic tones, etc. Representatives of this tendency refer them to "additional" semantic information, correlated with the properties of the denoted reality, rather than with the socio-verbal and normative parameters of communication [Vasiliev, 1962: 107].

The second direction is associated with the attempt to bring the emotional focus under all the vocabulary, which in some way is not neutral, and therefore, is of interest for stylistics. This direction tries first of all to identify the various types of "emotive meanings," from interjections and affective to what is commonly called expressively colored vocabulary; the mechanisms of creating emotionality itself and stylistic coloring are not so important to them.

The third direction is represented by the complex approach to the problem of expressiveness. Proponents of this direction try to determine the types of semantic information that create expressiveness-imagery, emotional and expressive coloring of meanings, as well as their stylistic significance, which are interpreted as a special expressive layer in the meaning of words, completing the denotative, i.e. basic meaning [Galkina, 1958: 138].

Linguist V.K. Kharchenko stands by the view that "the essence of linguistic expression is to overcome all kinds of patterns, standards, that expression in language acts as irregular, atypical and therefore unusual, fresh, expressive [Kharchenko, 2007: 21].

It seems possible to distinguish two approaches in the study of expressiveness:

1. Representatives of the semasiological approach (Ufimtseva, Gak, Tripolskaya, Lukyanova, Telia, Shakhovsky, Grafova) study the tools of language

(words, expressions, syntactic constructions) capable of expressing the emotions of speech. The main attention in semasiological studies of expressively colored units "is focused on the place of expressively colored vocabulary in the typology of meanings, on the organization of the expressively colored meaning itself, on the system-forming links of units with expressively colored meanings - synonymous, antonymous, as well as nominative mechanisms of meaning formation of this type and on its place in the structure of polysemy meaning, on the allocation of expressively colored lexical and semantic variants"

2) the linguistic-stylistic approach was based on C. Bally, who considered expressivity as a stylistic problem. In similar studies, which we have already mentioned above (Stepanov, Shmelev, Dolinin, Vinokur, Petrishcheva, Karaulov) scientists interpret expressivity as a way of giving speech a singularity and a special expressiveness.

The main tasks of researchers in this regard are:

1. Determining the regularities of the choice of means capable of satisfying the socio-role or emotionally colored intension of the speaker as a subject of speech. The main difficulty for scientists is the fact that expressivity, having a linguistic nature and being realized through the mechanisms of language, usually presents the effect only in speech, going beyond the words and phrases in the text.
2. Analysis of the way the speaker uses to generate an expressive effect (the meaning of his speech) [Chepko, 2015: 304].

### **1.1.2. Methods of expression in language**

Language units are divided into system-linguistic units of expressiveness and system-neutral ones. The last include words and expressions that are not carriers of expressiveness out of context but may take on an expressive function in the occurrence of certain conditions. Thus, expressivity is created with the help of context, and not at the expense of internal expressive potential of a language unit. Means of expressiveness can be traced at different levels of language.

1. The phonological means of expressiveness include the duration of sound, phonetic writing and alliteration, accentuation, special rhythmic and intonational constructions, etc. Most of these devices are reflected graphically and are used in writing. In several situations, it is possible to say that graphic signs become carriers of expressiveness. Rhythm as a carrier of expressiveness is widely used in oral folklore, for example, in proverbs, sayings, and poetry.

2. The morphological means of expressiveness include morphemes. For instance, let's take diminutive, i.e. mitigating suffixes -к-, -ик, -ишк-, -ечк-, -очк-, -чок, -ул-, -ус- in Russian and -kin (princekin), -let (chainlet) in English. Negative evaluation is more clearly represented in the semantics of English derivatives formed with the following suffixes: -ard / -art (coward); -ster (trickster); -eer (profiteer).

The intensifying component of meaning has been identified by scientists in the semantics of the English suffixes -ful and -ous (hateful, gracious).

Along with the intensifying component, there is an extensifying component as a type of enhancing expressiveness, distinguished, for example, in the semantics of the English suffix -ish (baddish). The most striking in the expressive relation are derivatives, in which the intensifying (extensifying) component is combined with the evaluative, and contributes to strengthening (softening) of the expressed evaluation [Adamchuk, 2014: 2].

3. Lexis from the point of view of expressiveness is divided into two groups:

**Functional and stylistic vocabulary** - words of limited use (dialectisms), as well as words of socially limited use (jargonisms, argothisms, etc.)

The main task of this lexicon is expressiveness. It can be general-language and individual-authored words as well. Under the neutral vocabulary it is accepted to represent the main body of words. On this background, other lexical units begin to be perceived as stylistically marked, they are fixed in the use for a certain style, a certain functional variety of written or spoken speech.

**Expressive-emotional vocabulary.** Semantics of a word includes in addition to nominative, grammatical and derivational meaning another emotional

component. Emotional meaning is expressed in all meaningful parts of speech. Such words are considered to be emotionally colored. Emotional coloring can be of two types: morphemically expressed and encapsulated in its lexical meaning. Words similar in the nature of expressiveness are subdivided, on the one hand, into a lexicon that gives a positive evaluation of nominations, and on the other hand to the lexicon which forms a negative evaluation of the nominated concepts. To the first group belong words from high styles of speech, affectionate, partly - humorous; and to the second - ironic, disapproving, swearing, contemptuous, vulgar, etc. The development of expressive nuances in the semantics of a word is also connected with its metaphorization [Yakobson, 1996: 100].

The main expressive syntactic constructions of the modern Russian are:

- ellipsis (syntactic incompleteness),
- Anti-ellipsis (the opposite of ellipsis, based on repetition),
- truncation (incompleteness of structure),
- positional-lexical repetition (lexical repetition as repetition of a lexical position),
- parcellation (phrasal division of a single syntactic position),
- chiasm (combination of antithesis and parallelism),
- syntactic parallelism,
- antithesis.

The main problem of the classification of expressive syntactic means is that researchers often describe expressive forms of syntax both at the level of the sentence and the whole text. These are some of the means of expressive impact traditionally distinguished in linguistics, which go beyond the sentence (the so-called "figures of speech": repetition, syntactic parallelism, etc.). The complexity of systematizing expressive forms also lies in the fact that some constructions can function in neutral and emotionally expressive contexts. For example, ellipsis can be used not only in an expressive sense, but also as a consequence of speech economy. E.N. Vorobyeva suggests E.A. Trofimova's classification as the most successful.

The author identifies a scheme reflecting the general regularity of the formation of expressiveness in a structural way:

1) truncation of the normative structure (implication): implicative infinitive models (To live the place of her childhood), adjectives (Dreadful! / Terrible!) and nouns (Nonsense!);

2) expansion of the normative structure (explication): repetitions (I'll never forgive you, never, never! I am an optimist, I am), insertions (You did love me once, didn't you? By Jove, you have got cynical);

3) Changes in the rhythmic structure of a sentence by moving individual members (inversion): forward and backward order of the main members (Astonishing her dress was);

4) changes in the rhythmic structure of a sentence due to the isolation of its separate. The absence-presence of structural partitioning of the sentence (I took her at her face value. Which is the last thing any woman wants).

Expressiveness as a linguistic category affects all spheres of language, but in Modern linguistics becomes more and more important in the study of expressiveness. The study of expressiveness as a syntactic category, despite the fact that it is more characteristic of written speech. Syntactic expressivity is the ability of a structure to de-automate readers' perception, to stand out in the speech chain.

Emotional syntactic quality is the realization of the emotions of the author of the text, illocutionality. Expressive syntactic quality is the impact on the reader, the manifestation of pragmatic beginning. Often the carriers of expressiveness are the structural elements of the text. This can be concluded in the variation of the form of narration (in the first person, impersonal, etc.), anaphorics, parallelism of the structure of different parts of the text, etc.).

Along with the systemic and linguistic means to create expressiveness, we use paralinguistic: mimicry and pantomimicry (gestures), volume and timbre of the voice in oral speech and iconic means (pictograms, drawings) in written texts.

## **1.2. Representation of linguocultural concepts in sports discourse**

### **1.2.1. Definition of linguocultural concept**

There has been a recent tendency to study language as a productive way of interpreting human culture. In modern linguistics there is a strong tendency to form an entirely new direction - cultural linguistics or linguoculturology. The tasks of linguoculturology include the study and description of the relationship between language and culture, language and ethnicity, language and folk mentality [Stepanov, 1997: 216].

Cognitive linguistics, being an independent science, is an integral part of the so-called cognitive science, which is understood as a complex of sciences, the main object of which is the human mind and way of thinking and those mental (mental, thinking) processes that are associated with them. E.S. Kubryakova gives the following definition of cognitive linguistics: "A linguistic branch, which focuses on language as a general cognitive mechanism, as a cognitive instrument - a system of signs that play a role in representation (coding) and in the transformation of information" [Kubryakova, 2004: 53].

The concept is the main object of research in cognitive linguistics. The term "concept" emerged in the scientific literature only in the middle of the twentieth century, but the use of it was noticed as early as 1928 in the article "Concept and word" by S. A. Askoldov.

As of today, there are dozens of different definitions of the concept, as well as studies analyzing the available definitions.

B. N. Teliya considers "concept" as "all that we know about an object in the entire extension of this knowledge" [Teliya, 1996: 97]. Concept is a significant category of the highest degree of abstraction, including individual values of concretization of the general semantics. Besides, V. N. Teliya emphasizes that a concept is ontologically preceded by categorization, which creates a type image and forms a "prototype".

Examining the essence of the concept, researchers emphasize its belonging to the ethno-cultural world of a person. Its semantic content is interpreted in the context of forms of thought of a native speaker as ethno-cultural representation. Thus, cognition of the concept helps to recreate an ethnocultural image, a special attribute of the mentality of a native speaker. "The concept is an expression of ethnic specificity of thinking, and its verbalization is conditioned by linguocognitive ethnoculturally marked associative competence of the carrier of the conceptual system" [Fesenko, 2000: 142].

Slyshkin G. G. defines a concept as a "conditional-mental unit" and singles out in it, first of all, the primacy of the holistic attitude to the displayed object. The formation of the concept is presented as a process of correlation of the results of experimental knowledge of reality with previously assimilated cultural and value dominants, expressed in religion, art, etc [Slyshkin, 2001: 35].

Babushkin A. P. gives the following definition: "A concept is a discrete meaningful unit of the collective consciousness or the ideal world, stored in the national memory of a native speaker in a verbally denoted form" [Babushkin, 1996: 104].

There are three basic approaches to understanding a concept:

1. Linguistic
2. Cognitive
3. Culturological

The linguistic approach is presented in the works of S. A. Askoldov, D. S. Likhachev, V. V. Kolesov, and V. N. Telia. D. S. Likhachev, following S. A. Askoldov, argues that the concept is present in every lexical meaning, and proposes to consider the concept as an algebraic expression of the meaning. In general, the representatives of this direction understand the concept as the entire potential of the word meaning together with its connotative element [Likhachev, 1991: 282].

Proponents of the cognitive approach refer it to the phenomena of mental nature. So, Z.D. Popova and I.A. Sternin and other representatives of the Voronezh

scientific school rank the concept as a thinking phenomenon, defining it as a global thinking unit, "a quantum of structured knowledge". They understand the concept first of all as "an operative meaningful unit of memory, a mental lexicon".

Representatives of the third approach pay considerable interest to the cultural aspect. According to them, all culture is understood as a certain complex of concepts and connections between them. They see the concept as a central cell of culture in the mental world of an individual. This view is held by Stepanov Y. S., Slyshkin G. G. They are convinced that when analyzing different sides of a concept, attention should be focused on the significance of the cultural information it conveys.

The concept, according to Y. S. Stepanov, includes such components as:

1. The main, actual sign.
2. Additional or several additional, passive signs which are not actual, but historical.
3. The internal form, usually not realized at all, embodied in the external verbal form.

The first component - the main, actual attribute of the concept - is significant, "known" to all speakers of a certain language and culture. Expressed verbally, it is a tool of communication of representatives of a particular ethnic community, nation, people, nationality. In contrast, the second component - an additional, passive sign of the concept - reveals its relevance not for the entire ethnos; it is available to representatives of a particular social group, a particular microcommunity. And, finally, the third component - the etymological attribute or internal form - is the least relevant to the linguistic and concept-carriers of any culture since the history of the life of a word is dealt with mainly by specialists in specific sciences.

Different approaches to the interpretation of the term "concept" show its two-way nature: as the meaning of a linguistic sign (linguistic and cultural approaches) and as the content side of the sign, represented in the mentality (cognitive approach). Such division of interpretations of the concept "concept" is

relative, all of the above interpretations and understandings are connected with each other.

Cognitive and culturological approaches to concept understanding are complementary: a concept as a mental formation in human consciousness is an exit to the conceptsphere (central theoretical concept) of society, i.e. in the final result to culture, and a concept as a cultural unit is a capturing of collective experience, which becomes property of each person. These two approaches differ in their vectors in relation to the native speaker: the cognitive approach to the concept implies a direction from individual consciousness to culture, and the cultural approach implies a direction from culture to individual consciousness [Balmagambetova, 2016: 85].

Despite a variety of existing definitions of the concept, we can identify a common pattern in them: they always emphasize the relevant to modern linguistics idea of the complex study of language, consciousness and culture. Maslova V. A. lists the following invariant features of the concept:

1. It is a minimal unit of human experience in its ideal representation, verbalized by means of a word and having a field structure.
2. It is the basic units of processing, storage and transfer of knowledge.
3. Concept has mobile boundaries and specific functions.
4. Concept is social, its associative field determines its pragmatics.
5. It is the basic cell of culture [Maslova, 2004: 47]

There are various classifications of concepts, which are based on different criteria by different scientists. A. P. Babushkin classifies concepts into lexical and phraseological ones. S.A. Askoldov and V.I. Karasik base their discourse classification on the "principle of ways of understanding" the world - scientific, artistic and routine, and single out scientific, artistic and routine concepts as a separate type [Karasik, 1996: 7].

Another criterion for distinguishing linguocultural concepts is obviously their belonging to the sphere of knowledge or consciousness they serve. Concepts

can be typologized not only structurally and semantically, discursively, but also sociologically. For instance, D.S. Likhachev classifies all concepts into the following groups:

4. universal ("death", "life"),
5. ethnic ("fatherland", "intelligentsia"),
6. group ("stage" for actor and spectator),
7. individual (they fully depend on personal experience, value system, cultural level of a particular person) [Likhachev, 1991: 284].

The conceptosphere of a particular person determines by the degree of cultural possession, i.e. the level of education, upbringing, intellectuality.

To sum up, there are three main approaches to the linguistic understanding of the concept. First, in the broadest sense, the range of concepts includes lexemes, the values of which constitute the content of the national linguistic consciousness and form the 'naive picture of the world' of native speakers. D. S. Likhachev suggests that the totality of such concepts forms the conceptosphere of language, which concentrates the culture of a nation. The way of conceptualization of the world in lexical semantics is crucial in such approach, the basic research tool is the conceptual model which helps to allocate the basic components of semantics of a concept and to reveal stable communications between them.

Secondly, in a narrower sense, Y. S. Stepanov and Neroznak refer to the concepts semantic formations, marked by linguocultural specificity and in some way characterizing the carriers of a particular ethnoculture. The aggregate of such concepts does not form a conceptosphere as some complete and structured semantic space but occupies in it a certain part - a conceptual area.

And, finally, the concepts are referred to only semantic formations, the list of which is relatively limited, and which are key to understanding the national mentality as a specific attitude to the world of its bearers.

### **1.2.2. Concept of “fair play”**

One of the most important English ethnospecific socio-regulatory concepts is the semantic formation "fair play". The Spanish researcher of national characters Salvador de Madariaga singles out characteristic concepts inherent in the English national character. Among them: fair play, self-consciousness, shy, snobbery and others.

“Fair play' refers to the player's fine adjustment to the game. It regulates the player's relationship to his teammates as well as to his opponent. Fair play implies an individual's forgetting himself in the face of the team and forgetting the team in the face of the game. This oblivion, however, does not mean the complete abolition of the self. It creates even more favorable conditions for the effective performance of the individual, because his or her own actions now relate to those of the players in such a way as to form a perfect system of interactions. This intuitive and continuous sense of balance between the individual and the collective is the true essence of fair play” [Madariaga, 2003: 47].

In the 19th century, the middle class becomes a key actor in society. The notion of "fair play" as the most important moral principle and criterion of decency was formed in public schools, which played an important role in the process of socialization of the individual and in the formation of national character. With the strengthening of middle-class positions and spreading of its values and norms, ethical principles, the set of rules of behavior and etiquette of its representatives spread as well. Reputation becomes particularly important.

The concept of fair play is one of the key concepts in the English national mentality, M.V. Tsvetkova notes [Tsvetkova, 2001: 88]. The idea of fair play as a game based on the rules brings to the forefront the importance of agreement and compliance of this agreement. The cultural potential of this concept in English lingo-culture is expressed in the fact that "playing by the rules" emphasizes the role of sports in the life of a gentleman, the importance of compliance with sporting ethics, the inviolability of a verbal gentleman's agreement, bringing the idea of fair play under the requirements of common sense, balance, and responsibility of the

strong for the weak, as well as charity. It is important to know, that this concept has no linguistic expression in Russian.

As the well-known anthropologist Kate Fox writes, the term fair play implies that "everyone should be given an equal opportunity, that no one should enjoy an undeserved advantage or privilege, that people should behave honorably, follow the rules, not cheat and not shirk responsibility”.

In sports, fair play means adhering to the rules, displaying good sportsmanship, and accepting both victory and defeat gracefully. It involves playing the game with integrity, avoiding cheating or unsportsmanlike behavior, and respecting opponents, teammates, officials, and the spirit of the game.

Beyond sports, fair play extends to various aspects of English culture and society. It involves treating others with fairness, honesty, and respect in daily interactions, relationships, and decision-making processes. Fair play implies a sense of equity, where people are given equal opportunities, and decisions are made based on objective criteria rather than favoritism or discrimination.

Fair play is also closely tied to the idea of justice. It implies a belief in the importance of a just and impartial society, where laws are applied equally to all individuals, and everyone has equal access to rights and opportunities.

Overall, fair play is a fundamental value in English culture, promoting integrity, respect, and equality in various domains of life. It reflects a commitment to playing by the rules, treating others fairly, and upholding principles of justice and sportsmanship.

### **1.2.3. Concept of “gentleman”**

In the English national picture of the world there are linguistic units that are important for understanding the mentality, history, and culture of the people. Their use in any discourse causes certain ideas about the nominated concept among the participants of communication. These include the concept gentleman, included in the semantic field of gentleness/nobleness.

This lexeme consists of two roots: gentle and man. The English form of gentle originally derives from the French word gentil, which, in turn, derives from the Latin concept of gentilis, denoting a free-born man who, unlike a slave, had civil rights.

At the time of the collapse of the Roman Empire, the Romans began to use the expression gentiles homines in reference to their conquerors. These words were used to refer to people "of good family," "of noble birth." As was believed in antiquity, nobility of birth and nobility of behavior were inseparably linked [Bezkorovaynaya, 2017: 98].

The semantics of the word gentile in ancient and medieval times assumed belonging to the knighthood - elite warriors in the service of a large, landed aristocracy.

Knighthood originated at the turn of X-XI centuries in Western Europe. By the end of XII century almost all Western European nobility (except those who preferred a spiritual career) goes through a ceremony of initiation to knighthood.

In the XIII century the words "knight" and "nobleman" became almost synonymous. In England the right to initiate as a knight was reserved for the king.

In 1413 was first use of the modern form of the word - gentleman. During this period, according to G. Sitwell, "we find landowners, yeomen and sometimes free landowners of non-noble origin and gentlemen in public records, but the trend for the name gentleman will appear much later". According to G. Sitwell, the title was conferred not by the presence of property or the carrying of a coat of arms, but to those descendants who were always free.

Since 1414 in the judicial English registers the word gentleman was used to denote the youngest son of a nobleman landowner, who could not inherit his father because there was a principle of single inheritance [Sitwell, 1902: 4].

However, almost from the very beginning the concept of "nobility" implied not only a noble origin, but also a noble behavior, which was reflected in the semantics of the lexeme gentleman. As early as the twelfth century texts emphasized that true nobility is not given by noble ancestors but requires ethical

nobility. During the 13th-14th centuries, the concept of "nobility" began to interact with the ideal of a knight, which was established during the Crusades.

In the Renaissance, the concept of "nobility" was implicitly linked to the idea of the virtue and dignity of the nobleman, immanently incorporating the humanistic ideal of *virtu*. The word gentleman nominated both a man of high birth and a man of noble character. One was unthinkable without the other, and this relationship is anchored in a kind of Renaissance gentleman's code, set down in B. Castiglione's famous book *The Courtier* (1528), translated into English by Thomas Goby in 1561. The influence of Italian Renaissance culture on English society was particularly strong at the time, and in the Renaissance context the English word gentleman was quite consistent with Italian *corteziano*. At the same time, the semantics of the word gentleman was broader than just the nomination of a courtier (*corteziano*), because it embraced the humanistic ideal of education and interest in the arts.

The concept of "gentleman" by the late 18th and early 19th centuries is firmly associated with certain distinctive features, namely with the highest noble qualities of man, and the word "gentleman" increasingly means not only born in a noble family, but also a person of noble, with high moral and ethical qualities.

At the end of the XVIII century, the semantics of the lexeme gentleman, denoting the bearer of gentleness, is expanded: the meaning begins to include several qualities, good manners, moral and ethical standards.

An analysis of the most famous books, textbooks, treatises on the history and evolution of the concept gentleman shows that the concept, originally associated with a noble birth, over the centuries acquires additional shades of meaning, becomes synonymous with not only In the Victorian era the gentleman became the ideal to which any Englishman of that time aspired. Described in the novels of Victorian writers of the 19th century, this image expands the semantics of the lexeme gentleman.

In subsequent eras the concept nominates morally rich, reserved, well-mannered and educated man, not necessarily possessing material wealth.

#### **1.2.4. Concept of “Own/Alien”**

The opposition of the Own - Alien is a basic and debatable concept for a number of humanities, in particular, philology, culturology, philosophy, political science, ethnology, sociology, psychology, etc. The complex multilayered nature of the concept "Own - Alien" determines a variety of aspects of its consideration in the scientific literature. In other words, the angle from which this concept is viewed varies depending on the specific humanitarian discipline [Yuldabashev, 2011: 101].

In their everyday, practical life each person cannot completely abstract from the separation of cultural phenomena and processes into "their own" (traditional, constantly repeated in the surrounding reality) and "alien" (breaking the tradition, exclusive and relatively rare in the native environment for an individual), and therefore, in many ways unconsciously, "squeezes" their cultural impressions into the rigid dichotomy of the Own - Alien.

The "ours" and the "alien" is one of the central concepts of culture. These concepts have a universal character as they are inherent in artistic creativity, scientific and everyday thinking. As it was already noted, at the basis of all comparison there are mechanisms of identity and distinction of own and another's.

The comparison of these concepts includes:

- 1) comprehension of “own” against the background of “alien”.
- 2) "defamiliarization" of own and giving "personal" to alien.

When comparing, direct and inverse connections come into play. It is also important when "its own" is removed and "alien" is moved closer.

The opposition "Own/Alien" penetrates the whole culture and has a universal character, as the mechanisms of identity and distinction between a stranger and a foreign are the basis of all collective, mass, folk and national perception of the world.

In his dictionary Y. S. Stepanov speaks about the real, objectively existing, difference between people on the line of "their own" and "alien" [Stepanov 1997:472].

For English-speakers, there is a clearer distinction between what is one's own and what is not. The notions of privacy and private property in English have much more weight than, for example, in Russian, where there is a certain collectivity and community. For the English language, personal interest and personal space are above all, and then any social needs (which is naturally determined by cultural realities and living standards of native speakers).

Э. Бенвенист believes that the concept of "own" originally is an awareness of blood kinship of some group of people (family, clan) within which a person simultaneously represents himself "free from birth, free by birth" and opposes himself to "aliens, enemies, slaves". Thus, it turns out that the concepts of "his own and a free man" are originally related, and it is directly reflected in the connection of the corresponding roots in the Russian language [Benvenist, 1995: 74].

The concept Own/Alien includes a lot of notions. In Russian culture such concepts include homeland, kin, home, family, relatives, etc. [Kolesov 1986: 70]. The conceptual component of the Own/Alien can be present in a huge number of words in a certain context, which implies the distinction between the own and the alien.

A united text with its own picture of the world, which in a special way reflects the folk representations forms the folklore space.

In such a text the 'Our Own' are endowed with positive traits: "they are hard-working citizens", have high morals, are optimists, and they are in the majority. It is 'our own' that one sympathizes and empathizes with, as they are 'destitute' and 'battered by life'.

## **Summary of Chapter I**

Expressiveness is most often understood as "the non-neutrality of speech, something that gives it an unusual and emphatic quality due to the fact that the signal conveyed by the language expression is amplified and singled out from the general flow. It is important to distinguish between the concepts of expressiveness and emotionality.

There are three main directions in the approach to defining the means that create expression:

1. The first direction is the stylistic direction.
2. The second direction is associated with the attempt to bring the emotional focus under all the vocabulary, which in some way is not neutral, and therefore, is of interest for stylistics.
3. The third direction is represented by the complex approach to the problem of expressiveness.

The main ways of expression in Russian and English were investigated. It was found that expression can appear at all linguistic levels:

- The phonological means of expressiveness include the duration of sound, phonetic writing and alliteration, accentuation, special rhythmic and intonational constructions.
- The morphological means of expressiveness include morphemes.
- Lexis from the point of view of expressiveness is divided into two groups: functional and stylistic vocabulary and expressive-emotional vocabulary.
- The main expressive syntactic constructions of the modern Russian are – ellipsis, truncation, parcellation, syntactic parallelism, and antithesis.

A concept is a discrete meaningful unit of the collective consciousness or the ideal world, stored in the national memory of a native speaker in a verbally denoted form".

There are three basic approaches to understanding a concept:

1. Linguistic
2. Cognitive

### 3. Culturological

The basic concepts necessary to analyze texts in sports media were studied: gentleman, fair play, and own/alien.

The history of these concepts and the conditions of their emergence in culture are investigated.

## **Chapter II. Characteristics of sports journalism**

### **2.1. Development of sports journalism**

#### **2.1.1 History of sports journalism in Russia**

The genre diversity of sports journalism has evolved over the past 200 years. The starting point for sports journalism in Russia is 1823, when the first issue of the "Weekly for Hunters to Horses" was published in Moscow. It is interesting that the first time the word "sport" appears in newspapers was in 1828 in the 'Severnaya Bee' [Alexeev, 2018: 70]. However, there were other journals which presented sports as a leisure pastime (including games, physical exercises), and on the basis of this feature they can also be attributed to sports. For example, the historian V.F. Asaulov suggests including even earlier editions - "Sea Notes" (1800), "Patriot" (1804) and even "Useful with pleasant" (1769), in which one can find publications and chronicles of physical culture and sports character [Asaulov, 1989: 12]

E.A. Voitik notes that in the middle of the 19th century, new sports media were rare. For example, from 1830 to 1870 only seven new newspapers and magazines appeared, but by the end of the century, the sports press was on the rise. Over the next 30 years, 50 newspapers and magazines appeared, among which can be distinguished both daily and weekly editions, as well as magazines published once a year. [Voitik, 2013: 60] It is important to note that daily newspapers mainly included newspapers about horse races and general sports, while quarterly and annual newspapers were devoted to chess ("Chess Sheet" and "Chess").

Despite the diversity of the press about sports, researchers talk about the instability of the press. 80% of all 19th-century newspapers and magazines about sports in Russia closed within five years. Only two newspapers of that time lasted 10 years - Russian Sport (1882-1894) and Samokat (1894-1904).

In Russia from the late 19th century to the beginning of the 20th century, the specialized sports press was an integral part of the entire press system of that time. The sports press played an essential role in the formation of sport as a social

institution. Until 1913, according to calculations by G.A. Duperon, about three thousand publications on sports topics were written [Duperon, 1915].

In 1909 the first issue of the magazine "Russian Sport" was created, dedicated to the problems of physical culture and sports, and a weekly magazine "To Sport" appeared in 1911 [Sunik, 2004: 163]. On the pages of these magazines the reader could find both the results of sports competitions, as well as reports from the events, essays on the history of sports and even biographies of athletes. "To Sport", unlike "Russian Sport", consisted mainly of short articles, but they had colorful illustrations for that time. Special attention was paid to the Olympic movement, from reviews of the phenomenon to program articles about Russia's disappointing results at the Fifth Olympic Games in Stockholm [Voronkevich, 1980: 85].

By the beginning of the First World War, sports journalism in the Russian Empire functioned as an effective system, characterized by a stable structure of relations and unity with a great typological diversity of its constituent elements. The World War made the publishing process of the sports editions very difficult; for many of them these conditions turned out to be critical and resulted in their closure. Nevertheless, by the time of the February Revolution about 20 newspapers had been published in Russia that had managed to survive despite the hard economic situation caused by the war time, which proves the quality, durability and relevance of the system of the pre-revolutionary sports press. The periodicals lost most of their former employees, were published in a reduced format and volume, were printed on low-quality paper, endured other difficulties of the typographical crisis, but continued to contribute to the development of Russian sport [Alexeev, 2015: 106]

After the two revolutions of 1917, the surviving sports publications were divided. Most of them enthusiastically embraced the February revolution. The undisputed leader of the sports press segment, the magazine Russian Sport, literally cheered in March 1917: "Welcoming a liberated Russia and a new way of political

life, the editorial board expresses full confidence that <...> the new, created by a free people government will not forget the needs of physical development and education of this people"

A smaller part of the sports press, reflecting other attitudes in the sports community, met the February events quite indifferently. So, the editor-publisher of the magazine "Horse breeding and sports" V. V. Generozov believed: "Horse breeding and sport" is a special magazine: its content is determined by its title and therefore it has always stood apart from political trends <...> A horse is always needed everywhere, under any system".

The political struggle of the Revolution and Civil War in Russia passed over sports, almost untouched. Only in the 1920s the new government pay attention to sports and physical education, realizing the importance of them in the process of its own influence on society [Tolstoy, 2009: 17].

The specialized physical culture and sports press in the pre-war period was represented mainly by the magazine type of editions. Only a few of these magazines were continued later in the postwar period: "Fizkultura i sport" (1928-present), and "The Theory and Practice of Physical Culture" (1925-present).

The newspapers were not as numerous, but their impact on Soviet sports journalism cannot be overestimated, since most of the publications had an extensive history, especially the newspapers territorially bound to a particular republic. They persisted throughout the Soviet period. Specialized publications issued at least once a week existed in almost all the capitals of the Soviet republics, as well as in Ural, Dagestan, Stalingrad, Leningrad, and other regions [Tulenkov, 2005: 207].

Generally, such genres as reportage, information note, chronicle, article, and report were used in newspapers. The newspapers also included photographs of past sporting events, caricatures (these were usually used to illustrate materials about the world of bourgeois sport), or drawings. Another important part of the

newspapers ("Red Sport" for instance), were slogans. They could be found in the text, as headlines, or simply placed in any part of the page. Slogans could be anything from Mayakovsky's lines "Train your muscles, your breath, and your body for the benefit of the war cause" to quotations from Party leaders.

By the end of the 1930s there were fewer and fewer materials on the pages of specialized physical culture and sports magazines that were not loaded with ideological and military content. In expectation of the coming war, the leadership set a clear course for the training of fighter athletes. The entire physical education and sports press of the USSR concentrated on demonstrating the indestructible power of the Soviet people, their boundless devotion to the Communist Party and the Soviet government, their ability to defend the socialist homeland and their peace against any enemy.

During the Soviet period, sports journalism set itself the task of popularizing sports to improve the physical fitness of Soviet citizens. In this connection, new genres appeared - lectures on physical education topics, instructions, and exercises on the pages of newspapers and magazines. The daily newspaper "Red Sport" becomes the flagship of sports journalism of that period, the first issue of which came out in 1933. It was the only specialized sports media outlet that did not cease its work during the Second World War. At the same time in the 1930s, the central newspapers of the USSR gave out special pages devoted to sports news, and the first reports from the sports events appeared on the radio. Thus, was born the genre of oral reportage, known to us by the work of commentators on television during the Olympics, international and important national competitions.

The next stage in the development of sports journalism and sports in the postwar Soviet Union is the moment when the athletes of the Soviet country began to perform at the Olympic Games. Consequently, a reorganization of the sports press was needed. Now it had to take a focus on more educational and methodological articles. [Alexeev, 2013: 139]

In March 1946, the newspaper "Red Sport" changed its name to "Soviet Sport", under which it still exists today. Also, since that year the newspaper increased its circulation and began to come out twice a week, on eight pages. Accordingly, the number of articles doubled, which was a huge benefit, as the citizens of the Soviet Union started to receive more information about physical culture and sports.

The content of the "Soviet Sport" was really about sports. Methodical materials ("The Subtlety of Cross-Country," "The Basketball Grounds," "The Punching Ball") coexisted with sports reports and interviews, tables of Soviet standards and records in various sports ("Motorcycling", "Diving", "Norms for the badge "Tourist of the USSR"), notes on sporting events ("Victory of Sagarejo fighters", "Victories of Oleg Karpov and Maria Izvekov"), reports from the most interesting competitions ("The volleyball match of the three cities. Double Block", "Fourteen Stages. Running, biking, boating and motorcycling"). Occasionally, information about the sports facilities that are being built and restored is published [Ovsepyan, 2005: 244].

With the beginning of the Cold War, the role of sports as a tool for agitation and propaganda of the Soviet way of life increased greatly. Victories in international competitions were frequently used as an effective ideological weapon in the confrontation between the two socio-political systems to demonstrate the advantages and superiority of each of them. Now the most important task for the Soviet athletes was to win the lead in international competitions. The specialized sports press had the task of providing comprehensive support for the athletes of the Soviet country.

In the 1950s, the genres in the Soviet sports media were conditioned by the task assigned to them. The leadership of the Soviet Union turned its attention to high-performance sports, and this led to the development of competition broadcasts and, consequently, the development of the reportage genre. In addition, an important event in the history of sports journalism was the emergence of

specialized thematic magazines and newspapers: "Football. Hockey", "Athletics", "Chess Review", etc.

At the end of the 1990s and beginning of the 21st century, specialized sports media were rapidly developing in Russia. In 1998, Sports.ru, the first representative of electronic specialized media, appeared. At the same time, the NTV channel's sports editorial appeared, offering viewers new genres of sports coverage, such as post-match studios and digests.

The era of information technology has given a powerful boost to the development of sports journalism, which is currently one of the most popular areas of journalistic activity, covering all channels of mass communication. Sports life of society in the early XXI century is reflected in a various way in specialized and socio-political media, which aim not only to provide relevant information, but also to have a pragmatic impact on the mass audience, the formation of cultural values of society and the individual. "Currently, most countries of the world have their own infrastructure of sports media, which includes both print and electronic channels of information. This phenomenon is related to constantly increasing public attention to sports issues and to the largest world competitions too, which require in-depth and professional coverage" [Donskoy, 2008: 191].

In 2015, MATCH TV was created, offering round-the-clock coverage of sporting events and programs about different sports. New to the domestic market here will be sports talk shows ("Cult of the Tour", "There's a theme") and the broadcasting of documentaries about Russian athletes. The viewer is entertained not only by the tournaments and matches themselves, but also by pre-prepared programs.

It can be observed that the popularity of certain genres in domestic sports journalism is highly dependent on the historical period and context.

### **2.1.2 History of sports journalism in western countries**

The preconditions for the emergence of sports journalism were:

- The development of the material and technical base of the press.
- The publication of press laws.
- The ideology of English gentlemanliness (D. Locke).
- The appearance of modern sports and the transformation of sports spectacle into a commercial enterprise (betting, wagering, transactions).
- The appearance of sports clubs and societies (1666. - cricket club, 1742 - Edinburgh Skating Club, etc.).
- The organization of various competitions, matches, races on a regular basis. [Lagutina, 2015: 76].

Therefore, people needed information about such events.

During the Victorian era, sport underwent what has been described as a ‘sporting revolution’. What had been largely recreation pastimes that were organized on an informal basis with few written rules was transformed into a hugely popular, mass spectator entertainment industry that was national, and at times international, in geographical scale. Sport became codified, commercialized, and institutionalized with a significant increase in the number of sports clubs, competitions, governing bodies, and spectators attending events. A key component of this ‘sporting revolution’ was the role played by the written press.

During the 19th century, people started to realize that the excitement, debate, contentiousness, and prominent personalities that came with sports were well-suited to the style of reporting known as "New Journalism". Furthermore, there was a growing public interest in sports news. Consequently, sports became an increasingly significant topic within newspapers, as it had the potential to increase readership and circulation. Additionally, a separate press focused on sports journalism, with titles like the *Sporting Chronicle* and *Athletic News*, began to emerge alongside traditional newspapers.

The press were not merely commentators and observers of sport. Whilst publications did tend to focus their coverage on reporting matches, events and

competitions they also took a more significant role in its development and dissemination. Newspapers advertised meetings, fixtures and events whilst also providing a forum for discussion and debate through printing letters sent in by promoters, athletes and members of the public. Some publications took a more central role in the development and dissemination of sport, as exemplified by Bell's Life in London and Sporting Gazette which acting as a sporting-concierge in the mid-nineteenth century by using its pages to arrange events and acted as a stakeholder, holding prize-money and bets.

The media played a more active role than just observing and reporting on sports. While their coverage did focus on reporting on matches, events, and competitions, they also played a significant role in promoting and publicizing sports. Newspapers advertised upcoming events, fixtures, and meetings, and also facilitated discussion and debate through printing letters from promoters, athletes, and members of the public. Some publications even took a leading role in developing and popularizing new sports.

"Bell's Life in London, and Sporting Chronicle" (1822-1886) was the first weekly newspaper to make sports a major topic. It reported on amateur and professional boxing duels, horse racing, cricket, and rowing. The paper published reports from sports organizations, news about politics, the royal family, international news, theatrical reviews, crime, and the incidents of the day. The newspaper was illustrated. The first issue of the paper was published in 1822 by the printer and newspaperman Robert Bell. The paper flourished, being attractive to both respectable gentlemen and commoners, and became an authoritative source on the sports history of nineteenth-century Britain. The paper collaborated with Charles Dickens, Robert Curtis. It served as a source of information: it published schedules and results of competitions, challenges to competitions, and answers to various questions about sports and games.

The newspaper lasted 64 years, with 3,799 issues. In 1886 *Bell's Life in London*, and *Sporting Chronicle* was absorbed into *The Sporting Life* [Brake, 2009: 83].

Among European countries, sports journalism was most developed in Great Britain. The study of the history of sports journalism in this country allows for a deeper disclosure of the communicative functions of sports journalism. In Great Britain, sports were actively promoted not only by journalists, but also by famous writers, who increased the effectiveness of communication between the subjects of sports and the target audience, especially fans.

In England, cricket, somewhat like baseball in the United States, became widespread in the early 19th century. Cricket had its rightful place in society, and that is why it attracted the most famous writers and journalists. A British daily newspaper founded in Manchester in 1821 called *The Manchester Guardian* hired Neville Cardus as its cricket correspondent as well as its music critic. Cardus was later knighted for services to journalism. One of his successors, John Arlott became a worldwide favorite because of his sports radio commentary for the BBC. He was also known as a connoisseur of poetic phraseology, which he applied successfully in his cricket commentary [Sharkov, 2018: 28].

In the late-nineteenth and early-twentieth century some publications in Britain, and across the globe, took it upon themselves to establish sporting competitions and events. In 1892 the *Staffordshire Sentinel*, a regional newspaper located in Stoke-on-Trent, created the self-titled *Sentinel Cup*, a knock-out association football competition that was contested by junior players under the age of 21. In Europe, the first cycle road-race between Paris and Raven was organized by *Le Vélocipède* whilst *Le Petit Journal* facilitated multiple cycle, motorcar and long-distance running races in the final decade of the nineteenth century. Furthermore, the emergence of professional baseball in Japan was facilitated by almost by the press, with four out of the seven teams that founded the Japanese Baseball league in 1936 being owned by newspaper companies.

From the standpoint of covering traditions of sports reporting in England, the First London Olympics of 1908 are of interest, as they aroused widespread public interest. Many newspapers invited their best-known writers and journalists to the event. The Daily Mail even invited Sir Arthur Conan Doyle to portray the finish line of the first 26-mile, 385-yard marathon at White City Stadium. The race was dramatic: Dorando Pietri collapsed at the very finish line, after which Conan Doyle led a public campaign to support him. The gallant Italian was disqualified and lost his gold medal. Thanks to public support organized by Arthur Conan Doyle through a subscription, Dorando Pietri was awarded a special silver cup, which was presented by Queen Alexandra. And public opinion was so good that the annual races in Boston, Massachusetts, and London, as well as the future Olympics, were run on the same, 26-mile, 385-yard course, a distance that has been maintained around the world to this day.

The tradition of sports coverage by the best writers and journalists continues in relation to sports such as soccer, cricket, track and field, and rugby, which were similar to what we imagine these games to be today.

One of the first people to write columns about sports and soccer was Walter Chounchy Camp (1859–1925) [Smith, 1990: 41]. He, along with several other reporters, is considered the father of sports journalism. Most of Camp's introductions are still in effect today.

Camp was a popularizer and leading promoter for a game. Thanks to his articles, readers wanted to learn even more about football. Matches between college teams were attended by more spectators. Camp was the first to start highlighting the best players, grouping them into symbolic teams [Donskoy, 2008:91].

During the late 19th and early 20th centuries, certain publications in Britain and beyond took the initiative to establish their own sporting competitions and events. For instance, in 1892, the Staffordshire Sentinel, a regional newspaper in

Stoke-on-Trent, created the Sentinel Cup, a knock-out football tournament for players under 21 years old. In Europe, *Le Vélocipède* organized the first cycle road-race between Paris and Raven, while *Le Petit Journal* sponsored numerous cycle, motorcar, and long-distance running races in the late 1800s. Additionally, in Japan, professional baseball was developed with the help of the press, as four out of the seven teams that founded the Japanese Baseball League in 1936 were owned by newspaper companies.

Before the birth of television, the early 1900s saw sports journalists begin to forge a mainstream professional identity of their own. They began to distinguish themselves from other newspaper writers, with the coverage of cricket an important element of this process in the United Kingdom. At the start of the twentieth century, “sports writers themselves were emerging as a specialist breed of journalist.” Journalists’ elaborate and evocative style sought to elevate sports writing into an almost romantic art form, and while his writings might at times look over-florid to the modern eye and ear, he set the pattern for a tradition of cultured, literary prose that still persists in some corners of the British media.

The media has played a significant role in shaping not only the presentation of sports but also the rules and formats of various competitions. The impact was most pronounced during the advent of television in the West during the late 1950s and the 1960s. Television had a transformative effect on sports, especially in the United States and the United Kingdom. For instance, in 1958, golf’s PGA Championship switched from match play to stroke play because TV executives wanted more players on the camera for the final round. Two years later, the American Football League was created with the objective of being TV-friendly. The league introduced several changes to achieve this goal, including player names printed on shirts, a countdown clock, and the two-point conversion. In England, cricket responded to falling attendance by launching a one-day competition that was deemed more suitable for attracting high TV ratings. The relationship between television and sports was mutually beneficial, with sport’s popularity fueling the

growth of television, and TV, in turn, promoting sports to a wider audience. Some in the television industry even argue that television would not have been as successful in its early years without sports [Bradshaw, 2019: 30].

The growth in digital technology has brought about a new paradigm – or framework – within which Western society communicates and interacts, and this has given rise to what has been called networked media sport, “a term capturing the movement away from broadcast and print media towards digitized content distributed via networked communications technologies”. In simpler language, online and social media content has moved increasingly, while more traditional forms of media – particularly paper-based ones – have, as a rule, been fading. In some respects, these are unsettling times for sports journalists. More is being asked of sports journalists across more platforms than ever before, yet the number of sports journalists working for traditional titles – particularly newspapers and their associated websites – has been in steady decline.

It is important, though, to appreciate the upsides of the digital revolution for sports journalism. In many respects, it has made the role of the sports journalist more varied, more challenging, and more exciting. There is the need to be multiskilled and to push oneself to embrace new technologies, and there is scope to become a brand in one’s own right with an audience that exceeds the size of even one’s employer.

The proliferation of rumor on social media has also changed the caution exercised by traditional sports broadcasters and outlets. Sky Sports News has established a news team whose task, alongside breaking exclusive stories, is to verify the rumors that originate on social media. Significantly, Sky will now broadcast material that remains unsubstantiated rumor [Bradshaw, 2019: 9].

## **2.2. National characteristics of sports journalism**

### **2.2.1. Features of sports journalism in Russia**

At present, sports journalism includes several main thematic fields that closely interact with different areas of public life: politics, economics, business, culture and others. Thus, the development of sports journalism is facilitated not only by internal but also by external factors, which primarily include mediatization - the convergence of the mass media with social phenomena.

Undoubtedly, topics closely related to the political life of society are of high relevance since sports successes are essential in the "competition" between the superpowers. Sports journalism has always had political overtones, but in recent years sports media texts have become even more politicized. It is quite natural that sport now acts as a universal ideologeme of the sports-political discursive space [Listogaeva, 2018: 2].

Voitik offers the next sport classification, that used in modern Russian media:

1. Olympic (hockey, soccer, figure skating, basketball, volleyball, tennis, etc.).
2. Non-Olympic (golf, billiards, bowling, fitness, etc.).
3. National (dog-sled races).
4. Extreme (alpinism, parachuting, gliding, diving).
5. Sport as hobby (rope pulling, nordic walking).
6. Sport as professional contest (radio sports, firefighting sports) [Voitik, 2013:192]

The media pays more attention to Olympic sports than to other sports. This applies both to the preparatory period, when qualifying competitions are held, which include regional, regional and national competitions, as well as various cups and stages of world (European) championships, and the Olympic Games themselves. They are the main source of information for the specialized mass

media. Information about these events can be found not only in specialized publications, TV, and radio broadcasts, on the websites, but also in media, far from the subject of sports. If we consider the topic of sports information through the popularity of a particular Olympic sport, the leader by far is football [Slyusarenko, 2003:105]. There are nearly 50 newspapers and magazines about football in Russia, including some regional media, such as "Football-Primorie (Vladivostok), " Football-Hockey of the South Urals" (Chelyabinsk), "Football-Hockey NN" (Nizhny Novgorod), "Football Ivanovo", "Football Smolensk", "Football Courier" (Rostov-on-Don).

In terms of journalistic practices, the competitive part can be presented in full in the form of television broadcasts (live or recorded) or in fragments. In the first case, the sporting event can be seen in its entirety. Thanks to television broadcasts, it is possible to follow the main part of the competition practically from the beginning (start) to the end (finish). Although, even here there is some fragmentation, as a picture showing sports events depends on the views of the operator and director of broadcasting. The cameraman, shooting from a certain point, sees only a part of the competition. The director, when switching from one camera to another, can "lose" some moments of the sporting event.

Fragmentation is usually presented in other media (print, radio, partly on the Internet). Here the "story" about a sports competition consists of a brief overview of the main points, and presented through the subjective view of the author, concentrating attention to the " comfortable" facts for him. In particular, the Russian journalist will present the competition from the perspective of the performance of the Russian team, while a representative of the media from another country will from the point of view of his team's performance.

News is the second most popular genre of sports journalism in Russia. It belongs to the group of "summaries" because it communicates the core of the event clearly and briefly. News is used on all platforms. The key feature of this genre is relevance. This is what has made the Internet the leader, especially in contrast with

print media. Online publications are the first to publish news about completed events. Television and radio are also on time, thanks to hourly news summaries. Print, on the other hand, is at a disadvantage in advance, so newspapers focus on the events surrounding the competition rather than on the immediate outcome.

Interviews are the third most popular genre of sports journalism with both authors and audiences. There are a huge number of varieties of interviews, and each can be relevant. One of the most popular types is the blitz interview, which is actively used during the breaks of the competition or immediately after the event. The interest to this genre is explained by the fact that the audience not only gets a chance to feel closer to the competition, but also to "look into the head" of the athlete. It is worth noting that, regardless of the media platform, neither the content nor the form of the interview changes.

The report is a purely informational genre. It certainly belongs to the group of "summaries". Its disadvantage is that the report is nothing more than a compressed summary of the competition. The audience receives raw statistics, i.e. an overview of the event, rather than an impression. This genre is most often used in print media - match reports inform about the results instead of news items. On the one hand, the report is no less informative. All the key information is presented very briefly - for example, the score and the authors of the goals scored in a soccer match. On the other hand, several reports on the same page allow the reader to get an overview of the situation, for example, in the annual championships of the key soccer powers.

The review is an analytical genre and therefore belongs to the post-analysis group. It allows to summarize the results of an event. This genre is most actively used on television in a discussion format, where several experts or journalists analyze in detail the completed event [Shershneva, 2016: 55].

On the one hand, in modern society the sports sphere is one of the priorities of development, and on the other hand, the interest of the Russian society to sport,

the ontological content of which is characterized by agonality (competitiveness), has remained quite high for many decades. According to E.G. Malysheva, the author of the linguocognitive research of the sport media discourse, "the texts, explicated in the sport discourse, the essential characteristic of which is their lexico-semantic characteristic, reflect the multiaspect phenomena of the human activity in the sport sphere. That includes universal and nationally specific perceptions of sport and its components as basic cultural and ideological values" [Malysheva, 2011: 115].

### **2.2.2 Features of sports journalism in England**

In the western tradition, sports journalism has done a long way to become independent. For years, sports journalism has been the object of taunt from within journalism, where it has been seen as the 'sandbox' or 'toy department' of the newsroom [Rowe, 2007: 387].

Raymond Boyle found a paradox at the heart of sports journalism. Sports journalism is often perceived as a less rigorous and less credible form of journalism compared to other "hard" journalism practices. Historically, sports journalism has been seen as more supportive and promotional of sports and its culture rather than holding powerful figures in the sports industry accountable. In general, sports journalism tends to ask simpler and less significant questions rather than digging deeper and asking more challenging questions. Paradoxically, even though sports journalism was often considered a less rigorous and credible form of journalism, it was frequently one of the most commercially significant segments of the newspaper industry [Boyle, 2017: 493].

Media is a driver of interest in British sport. Existence of satellite television has brought the high price tags for rights to broadcast major sporting events. Thus, the income of sports clubs and sports men and women has been increased. That is how sport became big business. Farrington claim that "sports journalism has moved from the toy department to the finance department... ..it is now seen as

crucial to the incomes and audiences of many media organizations.” [Farrington, 2012: 1]

A correct style of sports reporting is a discussed topic among western researchers. In contrast with Russian tradition, there are many proponents of an unbiased reporting of sports events in England, even when reporting on the England national team. The slogan “The journalist must kill the fan in himself” is popular in the major sports media. Brad Schultz claim that ‘the opposite side of homerism [i.e., siding with the home team] is criticism, or the sports journalist as provocateur. While homers try to sympathize with the audience, critics are fully negative. [Schultz, 2005: 25].

Many researchers tried to recognize, how people imagine an ideal coverage of sport. As one of possible ways, they studied articles that are assessed for journalistic awards. Deuze, for example, notes that better quality journalism is commonly thought to be ‘objective’ and ‘timely’, to have a ‘public service component’, being produced by individuals who are free from conflicts of interest and adhering to a clear and well-considered code of ethics [Deuze, 2005: 446].

Shapiro, in his comprehensive review of research on the topic, indicates that ‘best practice’ journalism is often associated with:

1. Independent observation.
2. Efforts to ensure accuracy.
3. Openness to appraisal (enabling the audience to identify and assess sources of information and opinions).
4. Editing (the work is part of an unfolding account to which others contribute).
5. Presentation that is uncensored by sources, owners, advertisers, and others [Shapiro, 2014: 559].

Along with politicization, the commercialization of sports has intensified considerably in recent years, drawing it into the sphere of advertising and business

and at the same time forcing it to deal with pressing economic issues. Commercialization, in turn, affects the moral and ethical side, which also becomes the subject of attention for sports journalism, which still fulfills an educational function.

Given the general trends in the mass media, sports journalism takes an increased interest in the private lives of the subjects of sports discourse - athletes and coaches, many of whom are media personalities. But if traditional sports journalism, which develops on the pages of quality media, tries to make sense of the life and activities of an outstanding athlete as a unique individual, choosing to solve this problem truly publicist genres – articles and essays, then sports pseudo-journalism, revealing details from the personal life of a famous athlete, creates nothing but information noise [Lyapun, 2019: 157].

The titles of articles in the English-language press will be different from those in materials in Russian. O. Schmidt notes that Ogilvy's 13 headline tips are at the heart of headline writing, 10 of which can be applied to sports:

1. Headlines are read by five times more people than the main text.
2. Headlines that promise some kind of benefit sell much better.
3. The most effective headlines are those that contain some kind of news. News headlines are remembered by 27% more people than non-news headlines.
4. Headlines that provide useful information get the attention of potential readers faster.
5. It is necessary to include "brand-name" in the headlines. In sports journalism, the concept of "brand-name" is replaced by the concept of "newsmaker" - this is usually the name of teams, famous athletes, or sports functionaries.
6. Headlines with more than ten words, attract less attention than short headlines.
7. Concrete information interests the reader better than abstract concepts.

8. A headline taken in quotation marks is 28% better memorized.
9. Psychologists have found that out of hundreds of words, that were shown in front of focus groups on the screen, the most emotional response was from the word "expensive".
10. Complex wordplay, jargon, and "first-shelf" metaphors should not be overused [Schmidt, 2014: 242].

In contrast to the Russian tradition of studying sports journalism, in England it is accepted to define genres by the purpose of the text. Thus, there are several genres within the realm of sports journalism, each with a specific focus and tone.

**News reporting.** This genre focuses on covering the most recent events in the world of sports. News reporters are tasked with delivering information about games, results, and player statistics.

**Feature writing.** This genre focuses on telling the stories of athletes and teams. Feature writers delve into the personal lives, backgrounds, and motivations of sports figures to give readers a more in-depth look at the people behind the stats.

**Opinion writing.** This genre is characterized by the writer's personal perspectives and opinions on the events and topics they cover. Opinion writers often use their writing to make arguments, express preferences, and offer advice to readers.

**Game analysis and commentary.** This genre focuses on breaking down the strategies, tactics, and key moments of a particular game. Game analysts use their expertise to provide insights and context to readers.

**Investigative journalism.** This genre focuses on uncovering and reporting on the often-hidden aspects of the sports world. Investigative journalists may focus on issues such as performance-enhancing drugs, corruption, and exploitation.

## **Summary of Chapter 2**

Sports journalism has come a long way to arrive at its current state and genre diversity. The paths of the formation of sports journalism in Russia and England are different. While in the Russian tradition texts about sports have long served as propaganda for a healthy lifestyle, in Great Britain sports journalism was seen as a business. Many non-core newspapers opened a sports section for the sake of attracting readers and better sales. In addition to its educational function, the press in Britain became an important player in the development of regional sports: it sponsored teams and even entire tournaments.

It was found that newspapers in 19th-century Russia and England preferred to cover different sports. While British journalists focused on national team sports, in Russia they preferred to write about horse racing and chess.

In Soviet times, sports journalism served to glorify the achievements of the best athletes; the success of the national team was a priority. For this reason, the most covered sports in the Soviet Union were Olympic sports. This tradition continues to this day. In the West, other problems were addressed: the commercialization of sports became the main growth driver for media about events. In the English sports press, however, there is more frequent unbiased coverage of tournaments with the presence of athletes from England. This is related to the reader's idea of high-quality journalism.

Differences in the approach to journalistic sports texts were found even at the level of headlines: Russian headlines favor metaphors, wordplay, and are often abstract. Headlines in England have historically sought to entice the reader by offering the most striking quotes and facts from the article.

Five main genres of journalism in England have been identified: these are news reporting, feature writing, opinion writing, game analysis and investigative journalism.

The development of electronic technology has transformed sports coverage in both countries. The Internet, where bloggers operate alongside journalists, has become the main source of breaking news, while television and print have been left to analysis and interviews. However, online sports journalism does not limit itself to informational genres and offers an analytical and journalistic material.

## Chapter 3. Comparative lexical analysis of Russian and British sports media

### 3.1. A comparative analysis of English and Russian media headlines and analysis of the methods of expression.

For the analysis we chose the materials of the sites sports.ru, championat.com and sport-express.ru for 2022-2023 in Russian and bbc.com, theguardian.com and skysports.com in English.

Not all material about the national soccer teams was included in the analysis. We did not include news articles and interviews in the list of articles we studied. There is no room for expressive language in news articles, since their main task is to report information without evaluation. In interviews, the expressive vocabulary will belong to the speaker, not to the journalist.

A total of 30 texts in Russian and 30 texts in English were studied - 10 for each media.

First, we did a headline analysis. Often authors, when writing headlines, try to attract the reader with vivid comparisons, metaphors, and methods of expression.

When we analyzed the headlines of Guardian articles, we found that words with negative and positive connotations were equally distributed. Out of 10 articles, words with positive expression were found in four:

*Jordan Pickford's invisible saves are England's **secret** World Cup **weapon**.*

*Brendan Rodgers an ideal upgrade for England if Southgate walks away.*

*Cruel on Kane but England should feel no disgrace at losing to world's best.*

*Harry Kane reels in Rooney for England goals record like a hunter with its prey.*

For 10 articles, there were four headlines with a negative evaluation of the author:

*England have spent years **copying France**. Now can they dethrone them?*

*Gareth Southgate's last dance begins to the soundtrack of England **fans' toxic rage**.*

*Gareth Southgate fears successor will face **shortage of English players**.*

***Cruel on Kane but England should feel no disgrace at losing to world's best***

As you could see, in one of the headlines there is a negative and a positive connotation at the same time. This is a deliberate trick of the journalist, who decided to confront the negative emotions after the defeat of his national soccer team with the reality in which the French team, according to the author, is the best team in the world.

Three headlines out of ten did not contain expressive language:

*England v France: a heavyweight contest to define the Southgate era.*

*Southgate must be ruthless to elevate England – starting with Harry Maguire.*

*James Maddison in line to make his full England debut against Ukraine.*

In BBC headlines we can see a more moderate headline style with less expression. For example, only one headline out of ten contained an obvious negative connotation:

***A brutal outcome as Three Lions exit feels even more painful.***

Only two headlines contained a positive emotional assessment:

***England future brighter now than it was in 2018.***

*Pets, banter and Robbie Williams - inside World Cup camp with Three Lions.*

The seven remaining headlines are written in such a way that the author's emotions step aside and give way to facts.

*Why fine margins matter when you are marking Kylian Mbappe?*

*Key battles that may decide World Cup quarter-final.*

*Gareth Southgate should remain England boss because he has unfinished business.*

*Reality check: Is Gareth Southgate right about the lack of English players?*

*Kane breaks record as 10-man England beat Italy.*

*Gareth Southgate sticks with players he trusts for Euro 2024 qualifiers against Italy and Ukraine.*

*England beat Senegal to set up France quarter-final.*

Two important things to note about The Telegraph's headlines are:

1. Expression is much more common here than in other British media.
2. Almost all the expressive language in the headlines has positive connotations. In 7 out of 10 articles studied, a positive emotional evaluation was found.

*Why **Jude Bellingham** is the future of English football.*

***Deft politician** but limited tactician – Gareth Southgate must get ruthless.*

*Tyrone Mings' **comeback** deserves to be recognised with England recall.*

*Make no mistake, **Bukayo Saka** is world class.*

*England player ratings vs Ukraine: **Maddison** justifies selection as **Saka** shines again.*

*Gareth Southgate **has solved** two thirds of England's **perennial midfield problem**.*

*England have one foot in Euro 2024 after first win in Italy for 62 years.*

At the same time, in only two headlines was negative connotation detected without the presence of a positive side.

*Italy vs England player ratings: **Maguire mishap**, **Shaw's mad minute***

*Gareth **Southgate squanders chance** to identify Plan B beyond Harry Kane.*

The only neutral headline was found in a column about England's soccer goals:

*England and Gareth Southgate's task is clear: win Euro 2024, no excuses.*

In the headlines of Sports.ru, the first media studied in Russian, we found more frequent use of negative expressive language. In five articles out of ten, we see striking examples:

*Очень средний матч сборной в Кыргызстане: 1 удар в створ за тайм и победный гол на последних минутах.*

*Россия сыграет с Таджикистаном в Душанбе. Похоже, это вместо матчей с Ираном и Боснией.*

*Вы наверняка упустили: сыграла сборная России. 0:0 второй раз подряд.*

*Поражение от Японии на ЧМ-2002 – боль. Нас лишили чистого пенальти, а на Манежке устроили погром (17-летнего парня убили тесаком).*

*К сожалению, сборная России – это фантом.*

Interestingly, Sports.ru journalists often use hidden expressions that can only be understood by readers who are deeply immersed in the context of events related to the Russian national team. Let's look at the second headline. The construction «*Россия сыграет с Таджикистаном... ...вместо матчей с Ираном и Боснией*» seems neutral at first glance, but the soccer-interested reader will understand the true meaning of the comparison. The fact is that the Tajik team is ranked lower in the FIFA rankings than Bosnia and Iran, hence the value of the match decreases.

Moreover, even two neutral headlines without expressive language set the reader up for criticism within the articles.

*В чем проблема сборной Валерия Карпина?*

*Почему отказ России от азиатского турнира – плохая новость?*

The headlines on championat.com also almost always contain expression. What distinguishes them from other media is the degree of expression - journalists do not shy away from bright metaphors (including those with negative connotations).

*Футбол в России убьют во вторник*

*Футбол Карпина не способствует успехам сборной России. Игра с Ираном — ниже всякой критики*

*Пиняев вошёл в историю. Первый гол Сергея за сборную России — чистый восторг!*

A total of ten headlines contained 5 headlines with negative connotations, 4 with positive connotations, and two neutral headlines (one headline contained both types of expression simultaneously):

*Сборная России, которую хочется увидеть летом. Пять главных тезисов.*

*Карпин ответил на жёсткую критику министра. А потом тренера сборной поддержал Дюков.*

As for the sport-express.ru headlines, the methods and volumes of expression in them are comparable to those in championat.com. The difference will be the almost total absence of titles with positive connotations (one title out of ten):

*Матч с Камеруном — топ-вариант для сборной России. Он точно лучше поездки на турнир в Азию.*

But in six headlines at once we can detect a strongly negative connotation:

*Иран заставил сборную России отбиваться и терпеть. Теперь мы понимаем свой нынешний уровень*

*Еще один невнятный матч сборной России. Но игра с Ираном — другой уровень по сравнению с осенними мучениями*

*Сборная России впервые может ощутить, что она жива. Потянут ли против участника ЧМ-2022 Пиняев с Захаряном?*

*В марте российский футбол похоронят. Подготовка к траурным мероприятиям пройдет в пятницу*

*России не нужны товарищеские матчи во время бана. Игра с Ираком — очередное мучение для игроков и фанатов?*

*Пора прекращать разговоры о мотивации. Матчи за сборную России — слабый стимул?*

To summarize, there are two main differences in the headlines in English and Russian sports media:

1. In English headlines expressive vocabulary is used a little less often, the main emphasis is on the facts about the event or on the marking of the subject of the article.

2. Russian headlines are dominated by negatively colored vocabulary and more bright metaphors.

### **3.2. Quantitative analysis of texts of English and Russian articles about sports and influence of the linguocultural concepts "Gentleman" "fair play" on them**

One of the most important stages of our research was a quantitative comparative lexical analysis of media texts in Russian and English.

A total of 30 materials in Russian containing 16,642 words were studied. There were 562 words or phrases containing bright emotional coloring. Of these, 325 were negatively evaluated, and only 237 were positively evaluated.

As for the articles by The Guardian, The Telegraph and the BBC, there were 13,409 words for 30 stories. Of these, only 270 words were found to have either positive or negative connotations - 18.

|               | Number of emotionally coloured words/phrases | Percentage of total words |
|---------------|----------------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| English media | 270                                          | 2,01%                     |
| Russian media | 562                                          | 3,38%                     |

The next step was to assign positive and negative emotional colouring. It was found that 165 of the 270 words found in the English sports press belonged to words with positive expression. This represents 61% of all emotionally coloured words.

As for materials about the national football team in Russian, an increased content of words with negative connotations was detected. Thus, only 45.6% of emotionally coloured words in the Russian articles about the football team were words with positive expressions, while 54.4% contained negative connotations.

More detailed data on the individual media are presented in the table below.

|               | Number of emotionally coloured words/phrases | Positive | Negative |
|---------------|----------------------------------------------|----------|----------|
| The Guardian  | 112                                          | 69       | 43       |
| The Telegraph | 77                                           | 50       | 27       |

|                  |     |    |     |
|------------------|-----|----|-----|
| BBC              | 81  | 44 | 37  |
| Sports.ru        | 159 | 75 | 84  |
| Championat.com   | 207 | 92 | 115 |
| Sport-express.ru | 196 | 89 | 107 |

It is important to note that the rule of distribution of emotionally coloured words is valid for all six media studied. Even though in the English sports press the proportions will differ (for example, in The Telegraph the share of words with positive connotations reaches 65%, while in the BBC it is "only" 54.3%), the general principle remains the same. There are always more words with positive emotional connotations on the pages of the British media. Only four articles out of 30 were found where the negative connotations outnumbered the positive ones.

Only 8 out of 30 articles in Russian were found to have a preponderance of words with a positive emotional evaluation.

This distribution cannot be linked to the immediate results of the England and Russian football teams. Material on the England team following the defeat by France and the victories over Italy and Ukraine were chosen for analysis. At the same time, the articles about the Russian team described a victory over Iraq and a draw against Iran.

It is common in English culture to hide emotions from outsiders - there is a separate phraseology and linguocultural concept "stiff upper lip" to describe this phenomenon. A person who is said to have a stiff upper lip displays fortitude and stoicism in the face of adversity or exercises great self-restraint in the expression of emotion. The phrase is most commonly heard as part of the idiom "keep a stiff upper lip", and has traditionally been used to describe an attribute of British people in remaining resolute and unemotional when faced with adversity.

A true gentleman never lets his emotions get the better of him and will behave honourably, even when the situation is not in his favour. That is why, even in defeats, football journalists, instead of harsh criticism, focus on what worked well and on the competent actions of the opponent.

The influence of the linguocultural concept of "gentleman" may also be the reason why British journalists are less likely to use expressive language.

In addition, the impact of the concept of "gentleman" can be traced back in other ways.

It was decided to trace the influence of the linguocultural concept "gentleman" by comparing the used expressive vocabulary in the narrative about the opponent.

It was found that in the texts of Russian articles about sports there are many phrases referring pejoratively to the opponent in a soccer match.

*Россия ожидаемо победила скромный Ирак*

*Наши после грубых ошибок в обороне (и при выходе из нее ногами вратаря Песьякова) вполне могли пропустить и два, и три от соперника, далекого от топового уровня.*

*Во-вторых, Иран — это все же не Киргизия, Таджикистан и Узбекистан (при всем к ним уважении)*

The methods of underestimating the strength of the opponent were:

1. Epithet.
2. Comparison.

Phrases with positive emotional coloring of the opponent are rarely found in Russian language sports articles. Moreover, it was found that most of them are used in antithesis in opposition to the Russian team:

*Но после забитого мяча сборная России немного поплыла, а вот Иран нащупал свою игру и бесповоротно прибрал инициативу себе. Тут же стала видна разница в сыгранности — иранцы использовали много заготовок на стандартах, даже при аутах.*

That said, if we look at articles in the English press, we see that journalists often describe the virtues of opponents - both future and those the England national team has just played.

*Few teams rival France's ability to accelerate through the gears, to turn patience to impatience, ice to fire, verse to chorus.*

*They sit, they settle, they absorb, they go quiet. Then they attack with sudden and concussive speed, a sensory overload that short-circuits a defence in seconds.*

*France know how to defend a lead and they know how to chase one.*

Even after the World Cup defeat, journalists focus not on the miss of Harry Kane, the England striker, but on the superior play of the opponent, France.

And the reality is France were winning this game before they even started winning it. They just looked stronger, more comfortable, smoother, able to make up the play. There is a rare balance of power and skill and basic football processing capacity in every one of these French players. It is a tribute to a system.

France have been the best at this for 20 years now. This is a wonderful, generational team. England will keep striving to produce something like it.

The influence of the concept of fair play can be traced in those sections of the text where direct comparisons between teams and interpretations of the rules of the game are described. There are three main principles on which fair play is based:

1. Equality of all participants before the rules of the game.
2. Equality of conditions.
3. Mutual respect, understanding the opponent as an equal.

In English texts, we can easily find several examples of fair play principles being implemented. In pre-match analysis of The Guardian, the columnist does not single out the favourites or praise his own team. Instead, he stresses that the outcome of the games will depend on specific actions and countermoves.

*Opponents push up the pitch, squeeze the space, force England to punt up the flanks. If Kyle Walker's supervision of Mbappé is the most important duel on the pitch, then Tchouaméni against Kane is a close second.*

*Here the roles of Bellingham and Antoine Griezmann will be vital: sniffing out space, creating supremacies out wide, making dangerous runs beyond the backline, snuffing out counterattacks at source.*

It is shown that rivals are equal in front of each other.

*A tight, structured game probably suits England; if it stretches, France can usually be trusted to score one goal more than you.*

Concept of “Gentleman” can also be traced by comparison of the level of expression in the articles. It is important to pay attention to the influence of the concept gentleman on English articles about football. As a true gentleman is not allowed to express vivid emotions in public, on the pages of The Telegraph we see a rather moderate vocabulary where Russian journalists are not shy about using brightly coloured words.

*There had been moments when England could have done better.*

The same can be said of the way British journalists describe their opponent's weaknesses. The Telegraph's journalist, for example, noting the old age of the two Italian midfielders by football standards, does it with caveats and without any emotionally coloured vocabulary.

*Mancini's two centre-halves Francesco Acerbi and Rafael Toloi are 35 and 32 respectively. Not necessarily a bad thing when one considers some of the vintage greats who have played that position for Italy. Yet these two are not giants of the Italy team – they have 40 caps between them.*

In the tradition of Russian sports journalism, it is customary to use a brighter vocabulary, harsher words to describe failures.

*Сезон-2022/23 – худший в истории современной сборной России.*

*Да, было много боли: непопадание на ЧМ-2006, Марибор-2009, Греция-2012 и жуткий отрезок между Уэльсом-2016 и Саудовской Аравией-2018.*

*Нынешнее поколение – очень талантливое, и ужасные матчи сборной точно не показатель его силы.*

*Но и из игры вечно выходит какая-то ерунда.*

*Все то же бултыхание в мучительной бессмысленности.*

*Кошмарные вопросы, ответов на которые нет.*

Interestingly, in Russian analytical articles, initially neutral words take on a negative connotation. A favourite technique of journalists is to turn the word "average" into a word with negative connotations.

*Первый тайм получился очень средним – Кыргызстан перебил Россию по ударам (8/4), но уступил по владению (48% против 52%). За 45 минут сборная России пробила в створ лишь один раз – гол Соболева с пенальти.*

*«Ростов» с очень средним набором футболистов играет в непростой футбол: постоянно вовлекает Сергея Песьякова в розыгрыши от ворот, контролирует мяч на своей трети.*

*Прессинг работает очень средне; хорошие атаки получаются только благодаря индивидуальным скиллам*

Often non-obvious metaphors are used to emphasise the author's frustration.  
For example:

*Поэтому матчи сборной России – фантом. Коллективный ритуал воскрешения чего-то важного: РФС собирает команду, футболисты летят в Тегеран, Карпин старается что-то придумать, «Матч ТВ» все показывает, люди садятся на диваны... И все страдают.*

### **Summary of Chapter 3**

Sixty articles on national football teams in Russian and English were analyzed. The aim of the analysis was to identify patterns in the use of expressive vocabulary.

The first stage of the study, examining the headlines of the articles, established that:

1. Emotional words are less common in English media headlines than in articles in Russian.
2. Words with negative emotional connotations predominate in Russian headlines.

In the second stage of the study, a quantitative lexical analysis of the texts was carried out. The following conclusions were drawn from the results:

1. The number of emotionally coloured words in Russian language sports articles is almost twice as high as in British media materials. This may be due to the tendency of the British to suppress emotions partially or completely. The British are used to not showing emotions and to hiding them from the public.
2. In Russian texts about football, the opponents are often portrayed as weak, as players that the Russian team is supposed to beat under any circumstances. The opponents of the Russian team, according to the articles, are not the same as the Russian team itself.
3. In English sports press texts, opponents are described as equal opponents in strength, and much more time and words are devoted to their positive traits.
4. A peculiarity of articles in Russian will be the use of initially neutral words in such a way that they become words with negative connotations.

Two main methods of expression were identified - through metaphor and epithet.

Articles in Russian gravitate towards a more striking vocabulary. They often contain superlative comparisons, strongly coloured words and rhetorical exclamations and questions that emphasise the author's attitude.

## **Conclusion**

The purpose of the thesis was to study the peculiarities of the coverage of sports events with the participation of national teams in Russian and English languages and to evaluate the influence of national linguocultural concepts on the texts of the media. To address this, material produced by the following media outlets was studied:

1. Sports.ru.
2. Championat.com.
3. Sport-express.ru.
4. The Guardian.
5. The Telegraph.
6. BBC.

The first chapter defined the concept of expressive vocabulary. It is a set of semantic and stylistic features of the language unit, which provide its ability to perform in a communicative act as a tool for the subjective expression of the speaker's attitude to the content or recipient of speech. Methods of expression in language at different language levels have been identified.

In addition, the term "concept" is defined and the main concepts needed for further work - fair play, gentleman and own/alien - are given.

The second chapter examined in detail the history of domestic sports journalism and sports journalism in England. The history of texts about sports goes back more than 200 years, and during that time it has developed into one of the most popular forms of journalism. The main differences in the approaches to sports journalism in the two countries under study were also presented.

The third chapter analyzed Russian and English media texts. In examining the headlines, we found that words with strong emotional connotations are more common in Russian articles about football.

The quantitative lexical analysis showed that in the texts of the English media words with positive emotional connotations are more common, while in the Russian media words with negative connotations are more common.

The influence of the concept "gentleman" on British media texts was revealed on the example of text fragments describing the author's attitude towards his opponent. The concept of "fair play" was studied on the material, in which a direct comparison of teams is given, showing their equality before the game and its rules.

The hypothesis presented in the introduction to the paper is proven.

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Empirical material

Сборная России, которую хочется увидеть летом. Пять главных тезисов <https://www.championat.com/football/article-5047587-budushee-sbornoj-rossii-lidery-trener-perspektivy-s-kem-sygrayut-mnenie.html>

Футбол Карпина не способствует успехам сборной России. Игра с Ираном — ниже всякой критики <https://www.championat.com/football/article-5043189-iran-rossiya-1-1-igrovaya-model-valeriya-karpina-ne-rabotaet-v-nacionalnoj-komande-taktika-razbor.html>

Пиняев — лучший игрок сборной России. Повлияло необычное решение Карпина <https://www.championat.com/football/article-5046593-rossiya-irak-2-0-resheniya-karpina-goly-pinyaeva-i-miranchuka-taktika-razbor-statistika-video.html>

Карпин ответил на жёсткую критику министра. А потом тренера сборной поддержал Дюков <https://www.championat.com/football/article-5046533-rossiya-irak-2-0-26-marta-2023-slova-valeriya-karpina-i-aleksandra-dyukova-posle-matcha-otvet-ministru-matycinu.html>

Долгожданная победа сборной России! Но первый тайм с Ираком хочется забыть <https://www.championat.com/football/article-5046361-rossiya-irak-2-0-obzor-tovarischeskogo-matcha-video-golov-miranchuk-i-pinyaev-udalenie-kuzyaeva-26-marta-2023-goda.html>

Пиняев вошёл в историю. Первый гол Сергея за сборную России — чистый восторг! <https://www.championat.com/football/article-5045421-rossiya-irak-pryamaya-onlajn-translyaciya-gde-smotret-tovarisheskij-match-video-golov-26-marta-2023-goda.html>