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**COMPARISON OF IDIOMS OF THE SAME REFERENCE
IN ENGLISH AND CZECH**

BACHELOR THESIS

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Prohlašuji, že jsem práci vypracovala samostatně s použitím uvedené literatury a zdrojů informací.

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ABSTRACT

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This thesis deals with English idioms and their Czech counterparts. It aims to analyze selected idioms and compare them. The primary assumption is that most idioms are slightly modified and their meaning cannot be understood from the meaning of their components.

This work consists of three parts: theoretical background, methods of analyzing, and the practical part of the analysis. The theoretical background introduces the information crucial for the analysis. The chapter methods of analyzing includes techniques used for material selection, analysis, and comparison of selected idioms. The analysis contains one hundred English idioms compared to their Czech counterparts and comments on their peculiarities.

The initial presupposition was confirmed only partially. Most idioms were indeed slightly modified but they were mostly transparent or semi-transparent, meaning they could be understood with provided context. The research also showed what type of idioms is most common and what are their characteristics.

Keywords: *Idioms, Comparison, Czech, English, Phraseology, Semantics, Lexicology*

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INTRODUCTION

Although idioms are a significant part of everyday communication, they are frequently misinterpreted, especially by non-native speakers, because their meaning cannot be derived from the meaning of their individual components. Translation and use of idioms in different languages can be difficult since they do not necessarily possess any literal meaning and oftentimes must be learnt by heart.

Unsuitable use and/or wrong comprehension (or not being familiar with an idiom) can lead to misunderstandings in communication and awkward situations. People sometimes do not even realize which phrases are idiomatic and they use them in conversations as well as written communication (e.g. online chatting), which can cause problems in understanding for foreigners and students of foreign languages.

The aim of this thesis is to compare English idioms and their Czech counterparts, introduce some interesting differences and origin stories of the analyzed idioms, but mainly to come up with a statistic. The statistic includes how many idioms were identified as analogous, slightly modified, or functionally equivalent, and also division according to their type, syntactical structure, degree of fixity, and degree of transparency.

The thesis consists of three chapters: theoretical background, methodology, and practical part of the analysis of idioms.

The theoretical background is further divided into three subchapters. The first subchapter deals with the introduction to lexicology; the second one with semantics, approaches to meaning and its types. These two first subchapters lay the basic context for understanding idioms. The third subchapter is the most important one because it includes necessary information about idioms, their types, function and usage in language, origin, structure, syntax, and degrees of fixity and transparency. It provides the needed background for the following research.

The second chapter briefly summarizes the methods and processes of analyzing the chosen idioms. It also includes what sources were used for the sample.

The third and last chapter contains the analysis of one hundred chosen idioms. The idioms are divided into three groups (analogous, slightly modified, and functionally equivalent). I expect most idioms to be slightly modified since English and Czech are members of different language families (English being Germanic and Czech Slavic language) but at the same time both are European and people share similar experiences.

I also assume not many idioms will be found semantically transparent; their meaning will not be clear from their components.

The conclusion will sum up the complete analysis of English and Czech idioms and the statistical results.

An alphabetical list of all idioms (including their meaning and division) can be found in Appendix I. There are also tables according to the division in Appendices II-IV, a table with the classifications in Appendix V, and a table with the final results in Appendix VI.

1 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

This chapter will cover the theoretical background of lexicology, semantics, and phraseology, as all of these branches of linguistics provide needed context for understanding idioms, their structure, usage, and function in language.

1.1 LEXICOLOGY

Lexicology is a branch of linguistics that deals with words and phrases and describes the vocabulary of a language. The term lexicology comes from Greek words *lexis* and *logos*, meaning *word* and *learning*. Therefore, it is translated as “the science of word”. According to Ginzburg (1979), “*Lexicology is concerned with words, variable word-groups, phraseological units, and with morphemes which make up words*” and its primary role is “*a study and systematic description of vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and current use*” (p. 7).

Two types of lexicology are distinguished, general lexicology and special lexicology. As the term suggests, general lexicology deals with examining vocabulary independently of any particular elements of a concrete language. Special lexicology studies a certain language (English, French, etc.); it analyzes and describes the vocabulary and its units, and is built on the concept defined by general lexicology (Ginzburg, 1979).

For the purposes of studying the language system, two approaches can be used, diachronic (historical) approach and synchronic (descriptive) approach. When applying the synchronic approach, linguists analyze a language at a certain point in time with no relations to its historical evolution. The diachronic approach is based on the historical development of a given language. The synchronic approach, therefore, perceives language as a static system, whereas the diachronic approach recognizes that language is a dynamic process, and focuses on the origin of words and their changes in meaning and form throughout time (Lipka, 1992).

There are several subfields of lexicology: lexical semantics (semasiology), lexical morphology, phraseology, etymology, and lexicography.

Lexical semantics, or semasiology, is a branch of lexicology that concerns itself with meaning. Semasiology is closely connected to onomasiology, the study of the process of naming concepts. Onomasiology proceeds from concept to word, and semasiology proceeds from word to concept. Hence, the onomasiological approach is applied in the process of creating thesauruses, while dictionaries are products of the semasiological approach (Pepník, 2006).

Lexical morphology is a theoretical model which deals with lexemes, lexicon, word structure and word formation (compounding, derivation).

Phraseology is a field of lexicology that studies word-equivalents, phraseological units, idioms, or set-phrases. These word-groups have certain cohesiveness (semantic and structural) and function as one unit (Ginzburg, 1979). This branch of lexicology will be covered later on in this thesis in more detail.

Etymology deals with the historical development of words, and studies which language they originated from. The approach used in etymology is diachronic.

Lipka (1992) stated that lexicography is “*explained as 'dictionary-making' or 'the writing and making of dictionaries'*” (p. 1). Kvetko (2009b) followed through and declared that “*Lexicography is the study dealing with the principles and procedures involved in writing, editing, or compiling dictionaries*” (p. 110). Nowadays, as the Internet is broadly available, online dictionaries such as *Collins Online Dictionary* or *Merriam-Webster Dictionary* are popular for their accessibility.

1.2 SEMANTICS

Semantics, or semasiology, is the study of meaning, as was already mentioned before. Ginzburg (1979) claimed that “*The scientific definition of meaning ... has been the issue of interminable discussions*” and that “*there is no universally accepted definition of meaning*” (p. 13). There are two approaches to meaning and several types of meaning to be distinguished.

1.2.1 TYPES OF MEANING

Kvetko (2009) distinguished two main types of meaning, grammatical and lexical. Grammatical meaning is expressed by various grammatical means, such as inflectional endings or word order. Inflectional endings can convey the grammatical meaning of tense (the suffix *-ed* in the word form *cooked*), number (the suffix *-s* in the word form *girls*), case (the suffix *-’s* in the word form *boy’s*). The grammatical meaning of certain words which do not have an inflectional paradigm (conjunctions, prepositions) can be indicated only by their word order. For instance, *for* as a preposition (This gift is *for* you.) or conjunction (She asked me to leave, *for* she was busy.).

Lexical meaning is the identical element of meaning that is found recurring in the roots of all inflectional forms of a given lexeme. For example, the linguistic unit *swim* and all its word forms *swims*, *swam*, *swimming*, *swum* possess the same lexical

meaning of “using bodily movement in order to move through water”.

Kvetko (2009b) further identified two components of lexical meaning, denotative (denotational) meaning and connotative (connotational) meaning. Denotative meaning is the component that makes communication realizable; it functions as an object’s name. Denotative meaning can be defined as the conceptual element, the dictionary meaning. Connotative meaning conveys the indications of subjective opinions, emotions or stylistic values, including the standard affiliations. For instance, the denotative meaning of the word *pig* is “an omnivorous mammal with four legs, short prickly hair and a snout, usually kept for its meat”, whereas the connotations of this word might be “dirty, greedy, smells unpleasant”.

In comparison to Kvetko, Leech (1981) categorized meaning into seven types: connotative meaning, social meaning, affective meaning, reflected meaning, collocative meaning, thematic meaning, and the most important of them, logical (conceptual) meaning.

According to Leech (1981), conceptual (denotative, cognitive) meaning is “*assumed to be the central factor in linguistic communication, and ... can be shown to be integral to the essential functioning of language in a way that other types of meaning are not*” (p. 9). It is the literal meaning in the absence of any subtext or context. Conceptual meaning is based on the principle of contrastiveness and the principle of structure. The principle of contrastiveness functions in regards to binary contrasts and considers what attributes a lexeme expresses, and negates those which it does not. To illustrate an example, the word *girl* would be identified as + human, - male, - adult. The principle of structure is the theory by which sentences are built up out of smaller linguistic units and syntactically analysed into elemental parts (Leech, 1981).

Connotative meaning is the expressive significance of a lexeme on the basis of what it denotes beyond its solely cognitive meaning. It represents the subjective value of words which can be negative or positive based on what the speaker intends to convey. Besides the conceptual characteristics of a word (see above, *girl*: + human, - male, - adult), there are other supplemental attributes to a word. These can include stereotypical features, physical appearance, social or psychological characteristics, etc. For the word *girl*, the expressions such as “maternal, caring, gentle” (positive connotation) or “emotional, irrational, sappy” (negative connotation) might be used (Leech, 1981).

Social meaning is closely connected to the context in which an utterance occurs. It is the content by which a linguistic unit communicates the social circumstances in which it is used (Leech, 1981). Social meaning can be understood through dimensions

of situational constraint. Crystal and Davy (2013) determined eight dimensions: individuality, dialect, time, discourse, province, status, modality, and singularity. Out of these eight, Leech (1981) emphasised the following six: dialect, time, province, status, modality, and singularity. Dialect indicates geographical region or location and social class (e.g. Cockney dialect, Glaswegian dialect); time denotes the time period in which the text was produced (e.g. Old English, Middle-Age English); province references to a specific profession or occupational activity (e.g. advertising, business English); status describes the relationship between the producer and their audience (e.g. levels of formality, respect, slang); modality points to the specific purpose of the produced text (e.g. report, essay); and singularity deals with idiosyncrasy, original expressions of an individual (e.g. writing style of Orwell, Austen) (Crystal & Davy, 2013).

Affective meaning takes into consideration the producer's emotions, their personal feelings toward the interlocutor or the topic which is discussed. This meaning can be expressed directly through denotative content but there are indirect ways of conveying one's attitude as well. That is why this meaning must mind the intonation and voice tone; without that, possible sarcasm might go unnoticed which would change the intended meaning of an utterance (Leech, 1981).

Reflected meaning occurs when there is more than one semantic interpretation. When one meaning of a word is highly suggestive by its frequency, the impact of associations or familiarity, it tends to influence another meaning of the word. For instance, taboo words related to sex. Although their original dictionary meaning is innocent, our society perceives them with sexual associations as shameless, profane (Leech, 1981).

Collocative meaning is concerned with words that obtained their associations as a consequence of the meaning of words that often appear in their proximity. It is the habitual connection of two or more words, the syntactic and semantic cohesiveness. For example, *pretty* is associated with the word *woman*, whereas *handsome* is associated with the word *man*. Both of these words (*pretty* and *handsome*) possess the same meaning of "attractive, good-looking" but different associations. However, they are interchangeable in certain contexts where they overlap; *handsome woman* indicates a different sort of appeal than *pretty woman* (Leech, 1981).

Thematic meaning is conditioned by the word order of a sentence that the speaker chooses; it depends on the emphasis and focus of the message. Some of the factors to consider might be active or passive sentences, grammatical constructions, stress,

and intonation (Leech, 1981).

One more thing to mention about Leech's typology is the associative meaning. The associative meaning includes five of the previously mentioned – connotative meaning, reflected meaning, collocative meaning, affective meaning, and social meaning. These meanings all depend on the individual's personal experience and understanding (Leech, 1981).

1.2.2 APPROACHES TO MEANING

There are two approaches to meaning. The first approach, referential approach, describes the relationship between the linguistic sign and reality and is based on the claim that a dependent connection between referent and the meaning exists – the concept is symbolized by a word. This approach can be represented by a triangle scheme known as the Ogden-Richards triangle of reference or semiotic triangle. This idea was published in 1923 in *The Meaning of Meaning* by Charles Kay Ogden and Ivor Armstrong Richards and establishes relation among the three vertices of the triangle – symbol (sound-form), referent, thought (concept).

Since there is no connection between meaning and sound-form, the relationship between these two features is completely arbitrary. This can be proven by studying the alternations of sound-form throughout the historical development of a given word while its meaning stays unchanged. Another evidence is the fact that the same concept can be expressed by different sound-forms in different languages, for example, the word *cat*, in English [kæt], in Czech [kočka], and in Spanish [gato] (Ginzburg, 1979).

Ginzburg (1979) stated that “*concept is a category of human cognition. Concept is the thought of the object that singles out its essential features*” and that “*The precise definition of the content of a concept comes within the sphere of logic*” (p. 15). The general characteristics of the various occurrences and objects of our world are reflected by concepts. Because all concepts are the product of generalisation, they are essentially the same for the entire human race at a certain moment in history (Ginzburg, 1979). Since concepts reflect the perception and experience of an individual, they differ amongst people. For instance, under the lexeme *cat*, everyone imagines a cat of different sizes, colours, and other specifics.

The second approach, functional approach, focuses on the role of a word in communication and is more involved in how meaning functions rather than in what meaning is. Ginzburg (1979) argued that according to this approach,

“the meaning of a linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic-units and not through its relation to either concept or referent” (p. 17). The functional approach studies words in context and examines lexical units in terms of their location and role in a sentence (Ginzburg, 1979).

1.3 PHRASEOLOGY

As it was already mentioned, phraseology is the branch of lexicology that focuses on word-groups whose meaning cannot be understood from its isolated components. These expressions are structurally and semantically inseparable lexical units, such as idioms, set-phrases, word-equivalents, and phraseological units. In this chapter, idioms will be examined in further detail.

1.3.1 DIFFERENT DEFINITIONS OF IDIOM

A universal definition of idiom does not exist; different linguists define idioms differently. Here are some examples:

O’Dell and McCarthy (2010) described idioms as *“a type of formulaic language. Formulaic language consists of fixed expressions which you learn and understand as units rather than as individual words”* and as *“fixed combinations of words whose meaning is often difficult to guess from the meaning of each individual word”* (p. 6).

Griffiths (2006) stated that *“An expression is an idiom if its meaning is not compositional, that is to say it cannot be worked out from knowledge of the meanings of its parts and the way they have been put together. ... Idioms simply have to be learned as wholes”* (p. 19).

According to Seidl (1988), *“An idiom can be defined as a number of words which, when taken together, have a different meaning from the individual meanings of each word”* (pp. 12-13).

Moon (1998) explained an idiom as *“a particular lexical collocation or phrasal lexeme, peculiar to a language”* (p. 3). Then continues to divide the use of idioms into narrower use and broader use. Narrower use limits idiom to a certain sort of unit, *“one that is fixed and semantically opaque or metaphorical, or, traditionally, ‘not the sum of its parts’”* (p. 4). In broader use, *“idiom is a general term for many kinds of multiword item, whether semantically opaque or not”* (p. 4).

Čermák (2011) maintained that idiom is every fixed anomalous combination of two or more elements (morphemes, words, or collocations), of which at least one is a member of an extremely limited and closed paradigm.

Although there are many various definitions, all of them concur that an idiom is a semantically fixed expression that consists of two and more words, and its meaning cannot be assumed from the meaning of its individual components.

1.3.2 TYPES OF IDIOMS

There are many different categorizations of idioms. O'Dell and McCarthy (2010) distinguished five types of idioms: similes, binomials, clichés and fixed statements, proverbs, and euphemisms.

Similes are phrases that equate and contrast two objects. They must contain the word *like* or *as* (O'Dell & McCarthy, 2010). Moon (1998) stated that similes are “*institutionalized comparisons that are typically but not always transparent*” (p. 22). According to Čermák (2007), simile is an idiom that clearly signifies the connection of similarity between the referent provided by the unique circumstance and a model that is a component of that idiom. An example of a simile can be *as thin as a rake* or *run like the wind*.

Binomials are a kind of expression where conjunction (typically *and*) connects two words of the same word-class (or even identical in form) and their word order is fixed. These words can be synonyms (*neat and tidy*), opposites (*hit and miss*), the same word (*neck and neck*), rhyming (*wear and tear*), alliterative (*black and blue*), or joined by other words than *and* (*little by little, give or take*). A similar type of idiom is trinomials, they are a composite of three words (*here, there and everywhere*) (O'Dell & McCarthy, 2010).

Clichés are remarks frequently made in ordinary circumstances. They are comments that the vast majority know about and thus are not unique. Clichés are commonly employed in everyday conversation, as well as in commercial slogans and newspaper headlines. For instance, *look on the bright side, ignorance is bliss, or plenty more fish in the sea*. Fixed statements are oftentimes to be heard and used in commonplace discourse, for example, *I will believe it when I see it* (O'Dell & McCarthy, 2010).

Proverbs are short, fixed statements that allude to an experience most people have had and offer guidance or caution. O'Dell and McCarthy (2010) divided proverbs into three groups: positive situations (*where there is a will there is a way*), negative situations

(*it never rains but it pours*), and other popular proverbs (*better safe than sorry*). Applebee and Rush (1992) defined proverbs as “*wise sayings, often warnings, which have been passed from generation to generation*” (p. 78).

Euphemisms are idioms that lighten, alleviate, embellish, or soften bad or unpleasant facts, or replace vulgarisms. They allow us to avoid saying something that might potentially be offensive. Euphemisms are utilized to refrain from using direct language for biological functions (*to powder one’s nose*), to discuss topics which may agitate or outrage (*to breathe one’s last*), to narrate a story/an anecdote in an amusing way (*in one’s birthday suit*), or by the media or political organizations to soften the impact of a negative situation (*to make the ultimate sacrifice*) (O’Dell & McCarthy, 2010).

Compared with O’Dell’s and McCarthy’s division of types of idioms, Moon (1998) differentiated fixed expressions into the six following categories: grammatically ill-formed collocations, proverbs, sayings, frozen collocations, routine formulae, and similes.

Grammatically ill-formed collocations are phrases that are restricted or which contain a word that is one of a kind to that affiliation. Some might argue that binomials belong to this group because this type of conditioning is obvious with them since each unit appears to be stagnant or fossilized in that collocation.

Sayings are short, terse, usually known expressions which for the most part offer counsel or insight; they are literal, fixed, and discursively meaningful. This category includes truisms and catchphrases (*an eye for an eye*).

Frozen collocations are a type of restricted collocations. They are sets of words that exist together in manners that are more prohibitive than the language’s grammar requires. One of their elements has a literal meaning, the other has a specialized meaning, and is a determinant of restricted collocability.

Routine formulae are phrases whose occurrence is directly linked to habitual social circumstances. They convey social meaning since they provide the language means for managing such circumstances in an approved manner.

The last two remaining categories, proverbs and similes, are described above. From this, it can be deduced that there are many different classifications for types of idioms and their division and that linguists are not unified on the view of their division.

1.3.3 FUNCTIONS AND USAGE OF IDIOMS

Although idioms are used in both written and spoken language, they are more common in the spoken form. They may be employed in practically every occasion, from a business meeting to a friendly talk, because of their expressiveness. Idioms cover a wide range of topics, including emotions, attitudes, humour, relationships, truth, advice, etc. They are an integral aspect of human life and can be used universally or restricted based on geographical or social circumstances.

Moon (1998) distinguished five sorts of functions of idioms: informational, evaluative, situational, modalizing, and organizational. Informational idioms convey information or state proposition (*in the running*). Idioms that possess an evaluative function convey the speaker's attitude or evaluation (*it is an ill wind*). Idioms with situational function react to situations and relate to extralinguistic context (*long time no see*). Modalizing idioms express truth values, requests, advice (*you know what I mean*). Idioms with organizational function signal discourse structure and organize text (*for instance*).

Besides Moon's division, Kvetko (2009a) stated that "*from the point of view of the function of idioms, we can speak roughly about the following basic groups: idioms with a nominative function, a communicative function, a combination of both, or without any of these functions*" (p. 37).

Idioms with nominative function convey notions and names of states, objects, qualities, actions, etc., and have the structure of a phrase (*to pull somebody's leg, as cool as a cucumber*). Idioms with communicative function have the structure of a sentence; they describe situations and express independent statements (*all that glitters is not gold*). Idioms possessing nominative and communicative functions have changeable but limited structure (*to lead somebody by the nose* and *somebody is led by the nose*). Idioms with neither nominative nor a communicative function are usually modal and interjectional idioms, or idioms with a cohesive function (*what on earth, by the way*) (Kvetko, 2009a).

When it comes to idiom usage, it's important to evaluate how frequently people use them. This frequency is substantially lower when compared to other words and expressions because idioms can only be employed in specific situations. The most common idioms are those with minimalistic structure, often used in conversations as organizers (*after all, by the way*). Some idioms are a component of the language core (*make up one's mind*), other idioms are used by the older people more than the younger generation (*what is sauce*

for the goose, is sauce for the gander), though they still might appear in journalism or fiction (Kvetko, 2009a).

In regards to formality, the majority of idioms are implemented in informal situations; they are typically appropriate only for discourse with friends (*to have a go, shut your mouth*). This kind of expression (including phrases with the F-word, *to not give a fuck*) is perceived as vulgar (taboo). In formal contexts, such as serious or official publications, a lesser number of idioms appear (*null and void*). These are stylistic connotations which can be found labelled in dictionaries as informal/colloquial (*to be on the game, to not give a hoot*), very informal/slang (*to be scared shitless, to give somebody a finger*), formal (*act and deed, to fall prey to*), literary (*the land of milk and honey, to lose one's heart to*), old fashioned/archaic (*not on your Nelly, to give up the ghost*), and foreign (*faux pas, persona non grata*) (Kvetko, 2009a).

A lot of idioms have emotional connotations. Emotionally coloured idioms are marked as derogatory/impolite (*wet behind the ears, an old maid*), offensive/vulgar (*to go apeshit, to stick something up your arse*), humorous/jocular (*pardon my French, to be no spring chicken*), ironic (*God's gift to somebody, clear as mud*), or euphemistic (*to spend a penny, to be economical with truth*) (Kvetko, 2009a).

Idioms are frequently used in a different form than their traditional variant. These changes often happen in advertising, satire, or mass media, and are “*the result of stylistic manipulation of lexical components*” (Kvetko, 2009a, p. 43). The manipulation depends on double meanings, figurative meaning of the unit, the literal meaning of individual words, as well as the context in which they're employed. The changes cause modifications of idioms, combination with other units, transforming their structure utterly. This can be achieved by replacing or adding words, switching the word order, paraphrasing or cutting off some parts of the original idiom (Kvetko, 2009a).

Depending on their fixedness and flexibility, idioms can go through some alterations. The most common non-institutionalized manipulations of idioms are addition, substitution, separation, deletion of parts of idioms, blending, and complete disintegration of idioms (Kvetko, 2009a).

Addition is the process of introducing new components (e.g. modifiers). Substitution replaces some elements but the structure continues unchanged. Separation is dividing idioms into sections within the same or many sentences. Deletion lies in the operation of reducing or omitting certain lexical elements. Blending combines

two idioms together. Complete disintegration is the act of destruction of the idiom's structure and a few residual idiom components are used as allusions. These changes may be combined and the speaker can choose which ones and how they use them (Kvetko, 2009a).

One more distinction to mention is geographical variations of idioms. Most English idioms are universal to all English speaking countries (*the coast is clear, to keep an eye on*). However, when comparing British and American idioms, they can be divided into these groups: identical idioms, different idioms, partially different idioms, and idiomatic false friends. Identical idioms are used in both countries and can possess a different stylistic value or a variety of additional meanings (*like a fish out of water*). Different idioms are employed either solely in British English (*to be like chalk and cheese*), or only in American English (*right off the bat*). Partially different idioms differ only in certain parts. They can vary in grammar (*at a loose end* in British English and *at loose ends* in American English), spelling (British *to give somebody a blank cheque* and American *to give somebody a blank check*), or vocabulary (American *a skeleton in the closet* and British *a skeleton in a cupboard*). False friends are an occurrence where idioms of the same form possess a different meaning (*to be on the up and up*, in British English meaning "becoming more successful" and in American English "being honest") (Kvetko, 2009a).

1.3.4 ORIGIN AND FORMATION OF IDIOMS

Applebee and Rush (1992) defined three types of idioms in accordance to their origin: historical idioms, new idioms, and foreign idioms.

Historical idioms were first used to depict common occurrences or circumstances, such as woodcutting or buying food, many years or even centuries ago. Some of these idioms are linked to actual people who were well-known in their day (for example a horse stable owner Thomas Hobson). Although these idioms are historical and their meanings might have altered or evolved, they are still used today. However, many native speakers, who implement these expressions in regular conversations, are not aware of the origin stories behind them. The following are some instances of historical idioms: *Hobson's choice, to bark up the wrong tree, eat humble pie* (Applebee & Rush, 1992).

New idioms have been introduced to the language quite recently. Many inventions have been so popular in the previous ten years (considering *Help with Idioms* was first published in 1992, it is about forty years now) that they have earned a position

in the language. Many of these ideas have been disseminated through the media, particularly newspapers and television. Amongst new idiomatic expressions belong for example *culture shock*, *couch potato*, or *golden parachute* (Applebee & Rush, 1992).

Countless of the words that exist in the English language are borrowed from other languages, which is why the English lexicon is so extensive. These phrases have become ingrained in the English lexicon, though their pronunciation is mostly anglicised (they are mispronounced as if they were English words). Here are some examples of foreign idiomatic language: *faux pas*, *status quo*, *pièce de résistance* (Applebee & Rush, 1992).

Some idioms exist in a number of languages (*it is not my cup of tea* in English, *není to můj šálek čaje* in Czech, *no es mi taza de té* in Spanish). Idioms that are translated into a foreign language literally, word-for-word, are called calques (*it goes without saying* is from French *ça va sans dire*). It is obvious that idioms cannot be translated word for word since they have a figurative meaning. There is the issue of translating meaning from one language to another because, as McLay (1992) maintained, “*all languages have idioms, but an idiom in one language may have no direct equivalent in another*” (p. 3). It may be unachievable to use and translate an idiom of the first language, and the expression must be paraphrased.

Languages evolve over time, with new words and idioms emerging and older ones fading out of usage. Kvetko (2009a) stated that idioms can be formed in one of three ways: idiomatization, idiomatic derivation and borrowing.

Kvetko (2009a) defined idiomatization as a lexicalization and meaning reevaluation process concerning free expressions. Idioms are the final product of a protracted procedure “*in which, for example initially ad hoc (free, variable) word groups become fixed combinations and acquire a new sense*” (p. 23). Idiomatization can happen in three different occurrences: idiomatization of free phrases, fixed expressions/terms, citations.

Free phrases that underwent the process of idiomatization were motivated by nature, humans, and their lives. These idioms (especially of English sources) deal with the topics of farming, animals, house and home, games and sports, business, etc. Some examples of these idioms may be *to be in the same boat*, *to bite the hand that feeds you*, *to move at a snail's pace*, *to play a losing game* (Kvetko, 2009a).

Idiomatization of fixed terms or expressions lies in the expansion of their current, unique meaning into broader areas. For instance, *gold mine*, *blind alley*, or *blank cheque* (Kvetko, 2009a).

Idiomatization of citations is a process in which quotes by famous people or from popular books become a part of everyday idiomatic language. Some of the well-known sources of these idioms are, for example, the Bible (*a wolf in a sheep's clothing, to cast pearls before swine*), William Shakespeare's work (*as good as one's word, without rhyme or reason*), or Jonathan Swift (*to rain cats and dogs*) (Kvetko, 2009a).

Kvetko (2009a) explained idiomatic derivation as “*a process of forming new idioms from the existing ones*” (p. 24). This process is typically accomplished by shortening, extension, conversion, and analogous formation.

When employing shortening, some constituents of an idiomatic phrase (mostly sayings and proverbs) are cut off, so that the idiom is reduced. For instance, *it is the last straw that breaks the camel's back* becomes *the last straw*, or *do not count your chickens before they are hatched* is shortened to *count one's chicken* (Kvetko, 2009a).

Extension, or the addition of more words to already existing idioms, is a less productive process of idiom formation. The set nucleus of the newly formed idiom is usually the original unit. As an example can serve: *green light* is extended to *to give somebody the green light*, *blank cheque* turns into *to give somebody a blank cheque* (Kvetko, 2009a).

Conversion is a procedure comparable to word conversion within the set of idioms with a phrasal structure. This means that an idiom initially having the meaning and function of a noun is employed and acts as a verbal idiom (*a kick in the teeth* and *to kick in the teeth*, *to pat on the back* and *a pat on the back*) (Kvetko, 2009a).

In the analogous formation process, new idioms are produced through analogy to already existing idioms and their patterns. *Pink-collar worker* in comparison to *white-collar worker* or *blue-collar worker* (Kvetko, 2009a).

The last of the three idiom formation ways is borrowing, which is an act of translating or adopting idioms from other languages. Borrowings can be of the original phrases or loan translations. Original phrases borrowed from different languages are mainly from French (*enfant terrible, faux pas*) and Latin (*persona non grata, alma mater*), but also Italian (*prima donna, lingua franca*). Loan translations are foreign expressions translated word for word, taking into consideration the structure of the translated idiom and the fundamental rules of the target language. The following are some examples of loan translations: *blue blood* from Spanish *sangre azul*, *with a grain of salt* from Latin *cum grano solis*, Czech *čas jsou peníze* from English *time is money* (Kvetko, 2009a).

1.3.5 STRUCTURE AND SYNTAX OF IDIOMS

Idioms take a wide range of structures and forms, such as regular structure, irregular structure, or grammatically incorrect structure. The transparency of an idiom is unaffected by its grammatical accuracy (Seidl, 1988). Seidl (1988) divided three groups of idioms according to their structure and meaning transparency: form irregular and meaning clear (*to do the dirty on someone*), form regular and meaning unclear (*to bring the house down*), form irregular and meaning unclear (*to be at daggers drawn*) (p. 13).

The majority of idioms have regular forms and unclear meanings. Even within this category, though, certain idioms are clearer than others. For instance, *to give someone the green light* can be easily understood as “to give someone consent to begin something”. Seidl (1988) claimed that other idioms “*are too difficult to guess because they have no association with the original meaning of the individual words*” (p. 13). An example of this can be *to call the shots*, *to carry the can*, *to drop the brick*. Some fixed idioms cannot be altered in any other way than the tense of the verb (*to get down to business*, *to paint the town red*). Others permit an alternate number of variations (*a hard/tough nut to crack*, *to come to a bad/nasty/no good end*) (Seidl, 1988).

According to the syntactic classification of idioms by Cowie (1985), they can be divided into three categories: phrase idioms, subjectless clauses, and sentence idioms.

Phrase idioms are most frequently occurring in the following phrase patterns: noun phrase (*red herring*), adjective phrase (*green with envy*), prepositional phrase (*in the nick of time*), and adverbial phrase (*down and out*).

The most common patterns for subjectless clauses are:

Verb + Complement (*to turn white*),

Verb + Direct Object (*to have green fingers*),

Verb + Direct Object + Complement (*to keep the flag flying*),

Verb + Indirect Object + Direct Object (*to lend somebody a hand*),

Verb + Direct Object + Adjunct (*to take something amiss*).

The last group of syntactic classification are sentence idioms, for example, *A bird in a hand is worth two in the bush*.

Kvetko (2009a) created a similar stratification (phrasal idioms and sentence idioms). Phrasal idioms with different types of phrase structure are distinguished into two groups (syntagmatic idioms and minimal idioms):

Syntagmatic idioms have a structure of syntagma and are divided into two sections (verbal idioms and non-verbal idioms):

Verbal idioms (semi-clause) are “*idioms with a verbal syntagmatic structure*” (Kvetko, 2009a, p. 27). Most often with the following structures:

Verb + Noun (*to kick the bucket*),

Verb + Preposition + Noun (*to play to the gallery*),

Verb + Adverb (*to break down*),

Verb + Adjective (*to come clean*).

Non-verbal idioms are “*idioms with a different syntagmatic non-verbal structure*” (p. 27). They may have these patterns:

Adjective + Noun (*dark horse*),

(as +) Adjective + as + Noun (*as white as a sheet*),

Adjective + Adjective (*cut and dried*),

Noun + and + Noun (*tooth and nail*),

like + Noun (+ Adjective) + Noun (*like a fish out of water*).

The second type of phrasal idioms, minimal idioms (non-syntagmatic phrasal idioms), are “*expressions containing one full (lexical) word and one or more functional (form, grammatical) words*” (p. 27). For instance, *by the way*, *at all*, *like hell*.

Sentence idioms (full-sentence idioms) have complete sentence/clause structures of diverse sorts (simple, compound, complex, etc.), such as *do not look a gift horse in the mouth*, *all that glitters is not gold*.

1.3.6 DEGREE OF FIXITY AND DEGREE OF SEMANTIC TRANSPARENCY

Most idioms have varying degrees of fixity because the vocabulary or grammar can fluctuate to some extent without affecting comprehension. Cowie (1985) categorized word combinations into four groups (pure idioms, figurative idioms, semi-idioms, and open collocations) based on their invariability on the one hand and their ability to be modified while maintaining their meaning on the other.

Pure idioms are fixed expressions that do not allow their components (words) to be replaced by synonyms/similar words. They possess figurative meaning and are the result of a process of being established via repeated use, expanding

figuratively, and eventually congeal/petrify. They are non-compositional in meaning and must be learnt as a whole; their meaning cannot be derived from the meaning of their individual components. Examples of pure idioms are *to jump out of the skin*, *to rain cats and dogs*.

Figurative idioms possess literal and figurative meaning. The figurative meaning of these expressions is more widespread, while the literal meaning is barely ever used. However, the true meaning of the expression can only be deduced from the context in which it is employed. They rarely vary and pronoun replacement is hardly possible. For instance, individual elements of the idiom *to kill two birds with one stone* cannot be changed without altering the figurative meaning of the idiom. Saying “to kill two dogs with one bullet” would not convey the intended figurative meaning. Nonetheless, the literal meaning permits a change; killing two animals with one bullet is possible if you aim well enough.

Semi-idioms (restricted collocations) consist of words of which some are understood literally and others figuratively. One of the words possesses a figurative meaning that cannot be found outside that restricted context, and the other manifests in a literal meaning. For example, *he is a golden boy* means he is successful, not that he is made of gold. Therefore, *golden* is figurative and *boy* is interpreted literally. Some semi-idioms allow for some lexical variety (*golden heart*, *golden rule*). In phrases where the whole expression has already been used, the literal part can be replaced by a pronoun or completely omitted.

Open collocations (free-word combinations) are composed of components that normally appear together; each of them possesses its regular literal meaning and can be freely recombined to a significant extent. The words in a collocation are syntactically related to a specific headword. An open collocation's meaning is constituted of the meanings of its individual words. It is feasible to form various composites from the open collocation. *Borrow/buy/read/lend a book* are all viable options but the existence of *bake a book* is highly unlikely; these words do not usually appear together.

The degree of literalness of idioms varies. Some of them are completely idiomatic and their meaning cannot be derived from their constituents. When stripped of their idiomatic meaning, the components would possess no sensible meaning. Other idioms can be made sense of based on their constituents. There are four types to be distinguished: transparent, semi-transparent, semi-opaque, and opaque idioms.

The meaning of transparent idioms (literal idioms) can be deduced from the meaning of their components. Transparent idioms are usually understandable for the speakers without any extensive explanation. For example, *paddle your own canoe*, *to talk behind someone's back*.

Semi-transparent idioms permit idiomatic and literal meaning. These idioms can describe a situation that is similar to or comparable to something that actually exists. They might not always be comprehended by everyone and some explanation could be required. As an example can serve *to kill two birds with one stone*, *to skate on thin ice*.

Semi-opaque idioms are more idiomatic than semi-transparent idioms and their literal meaning is mostly unintelligible. For instance, *now the boot is on the other foot*, *to burn one's bridges*.

Opaque idioms cannot be understood from the meaning of their individual parts, they are entirely idiomatic. They need to be learnt by heart and cannot be decoded without an explanation. Opaque idioms are phrases such as *to pass a buck*, or *to jump down someone's throat*.

Certainly, the mentioned categorization can be discussed since the distinction amongst semi-transparent, semi-opaque, and opaque idioms is not easy to determine. The classification of idioms of these categories depends on the interpreter and their point of view.

2 METHODS OF ANALYZING

This chapter discusses the methodology and the procedures that were employed for material selection, analysis, and comparison of chosen idioms. Prior to conducting the practical analysis, it was necessary to do background research to decide which sources would be appropriate for this work. Four books were chosen. These are *English Idioms* (Rojahn, 2010), *Anglické obrazné fráze a idiomy* (Gulland, 2011), *English Idioms and Phrases* (Rebeková, 2007), *Stručný česko-anglický slovník frází a idiomů* (Chromečka, 2004). One hundred English idioms and their Czech counterparts were selected, from each book approximately twenty-five specimens.

Chosen idioms will be compared as per the following division:

1. Analogous idioms

English idioms with Czech counterparts that possess the same meaning and their lexemes are identical, as may be their structure.

2. Slightly modified idioms

Idioms of the same reference but use slightly different lexis.

3. Functionally equivalent idioms

English and Czech idioms that have the same meaning but completely different lexis.

The analyzed material will be divided into three groups according to the division above (analogous idioms, slightly modified idioms, and functionally equivalent idioms); tables of the alphabetized lists can be found in the Appendices (including the meanings of individual idioms). These groups will be commented on based on the peculiarities of the analyzed idioms (e.g. differences in lexis), and an attempt will be made to categorize them according to the classification as described in the theoretical part, e.g. type, origin, syntax, degree of fixity, etc. (see Appendix V).

The main task of this thesis is to compare English idioms and their Czech counterparts and to discuss their classifications and categories. The result will be a statistic of how many idioms were identified as analogous, slightly modified, and functionally equivalent, and how many of them are of each type (proverb, simile, cliché, saying, binomial, euphemism), syntactical structure (sentence, verbal, non-verbal), degree of fixity (pure, figurative, semi-idiom), and degree of transparency (transparent, semi-transparent, semi-opaque, opaque). Full results can be found in Appendix VI.

3 PRACTICAL PART

There will be three sections in the practical part. Each of them commenting an attempt to analyze idioms of each group (analogous, slightly modified, functionally equivalent). The analysis is subjective to a certain level since the classifications often depend on personal interpretation. All information included in the research are my own conclusions or are summarized from the following sources: *Oxford Idioms Dictionary for Learners of English* (Toby, 2001), *The Oxford Dictionary of Idioms* (Siefiring, 2004), *Help with Idioms* by (Applebee & Rush, 1992), *Dictionary of Idioms and Their Origins* (Flavell & Flavell, 1994), *A Dictionary of Cliches* (Partridge, 1978), *idioms.thefreedictionary.com*, and *theidioms.com*.

3.1 ANALOGOUS IDIOMS

Out of the one hundred analyzed idioms, seventeen were identified as analogous (see Appendix II for the complete list). Analogous idioms are idioms whose counterparts not only possess the same meaning but are composed of the same lexis as well, oftentimes even having the same structure. Seven of the analogous idioms were recognized as clichés, overused and unoriginal phrases (e.g. *a stone's throw away*, *calm before the storm*, *clip one's wings*, *dig deep into one's pocket*); six as similes, idioms involving a comparison using the word *as* or *like* (e.g. *as meek as a lamb*, *as poor as a church mouse*, *fall like a house of cards*). Three were identified as proverbs, well-known phrases offering a piece of advice or stating a universal experience (e.g. *a drowning man will clutch at a straw*, *all's well that ends well*); and one as a saying (*cry over spilt milk*).

Most idioms in general are informal, which has been proven by this research. Sixteen out of seventeen analogous idioms possess informal stylistic connotation; the one remaining, *as poor as a church mouse*, is old-fashioned.

In consideration of syntactical structure, eight idioms were recognized to be semi-clauses (possessing verbal syntagmatic structure). As an example of the "Verb + Direct Object" pattern can serve *clip one's wings*. *Cry over spilt milk* and *spread like wildfire* have structure "Verb + preposition + Noun". Other verbal idioms are *take the wind out of somebody's sails* or *lay cards on the table*. Six idioms would be considered non-verbal. *As meek as a lamb* or *as red as a lobster* with the structure "as + Adjective + as + Noun"; "like + Noun + Adjective + Noun" manifests in the simile *like walking on hot coals*. Some other examples of non-verbal idioms are *a stone's throw away* and *calm before the storm*. The last three idioms

of this group are sentential: *a drowning man will clutch at a straw*, *all that glitters is not gold*, and *all's well that ends well*.

In regards to the degree of fixity, the vast majority (twelve) of analyzed analogous idioms are figurative; they possess literal and figurative meaning. For instance, *dig deep into one's pocket* or *take the wind out of somebody's sails*. Three of them are semi-idioms; these are composed of some words that are understood literally and other words figuratively (*as meek as a lamb*, *as red as a lobster*, *as poor as a church mouse*). The remaining two idioms are pure idioms, they do not allow their components to be replaced by synonyms (*all that glitters is not gold* and *weep crocodile tears*).

Another classification to consider is semantic transparency. Eight of the examined idioms are transparent which means that their meaning can be deduced from the meaning of their components; they are usually understandable without any extensive explanation. Transparent idioms include *a stone's throw away*, *as meek as a lamb*, *calm before the storm*, or *spread like wildfire*. Semi-transparent idioms describe a situation that is similar to or comparable to something that actually exists. In this sample, there are six of them (e.g. *a drowning man will clutch at a straw*, *clip one's wings*, or *fall like a house of cards*). Two idioms are opaque (their meaning cannot be understood from the meaning of their individual parts, they are entirely idiomatic), *All that glitters is not gold*, and *weep crocodile tears*. The last idiom is semi-opaque, more idiomatic than semi-transparent idioms and their literal meaning is often incomprehensible (*cry over spilt milk*).

The last category to be commented on is the origin. All of the origins of the analogous idioms that I was able to find were historical. Here are some interesting origin stories:

A drowning man will clutch at a straw originates in the fourteenth century from John Wycliffe's translation of the Bible. Since then, the expression has evolved from *clutch* to *catch* to *grasp*. The word *straw* in this statement relates to the improbability of achieving success with it due to its frail character. But the goal is to show that even a flimsy option is worth considering, even if it is only used as a last resort.

Despite the fact that *All's well that ends well* appeared in the title of Shakespeare's play, it most certainly predates it. This proverb, which dates back to around 1250, became much more popular as the title of Shakespeare's comedy.

As poor as a church mouse was first recorded in *The royalist a comedy* (1682) by the English author Thomas D'Urfey. Church mice were considered especially poor because they did not have the option to steal some food from the kitchen.

Calm before the storm is probably derived from an ancient Greek proverb *fair weather brings on cloudy weather*. From the year 1200, writers are recorded using *calm will come after a storm*. In current times, the expression is widely used to describe a tense period of peace when conflict appears to be on the horizon. It was so popular in the late 1930s that it had become a cliché.

Weep crocodile tears comes from a legend about crocodiles crying while eating their prey. When crocodiles eat, they expel a lot of air, which can cause their eyes to tear up; they are not actually crying, though. Shakespeare used this idiom in *Othello* (1603).

The final aspect to mention is the possible alterations. These changes may manifest as a difference in nouns: *as meek as a lamb* is derived from a Biblical story about Moses, in which he followed a stray lamb into the hills. From this tale comes an alternative form of this idiom, *as meek as Moses*. Other times, a different verb can occur: both *lay cards on the table* and *put cards on the table* may be used.

3.2 SLIGHTLY MODIFIED IDIOMS

Forty-three idioms were ascertained as slightly modified, having the same reference but different lexis (see Appendix III). Fourteen of these are clichés, e.g. *a storm in a teacup*, *bed of roses*, *kill two birds with one stone*, *rest on one's laurels*, or *wild horses would not make me do it*. There are almost as many similes as proverbs in this group, thirteen. Some examples of slightly modified similes are *as cold as stone*, *as thick as a plank*, *come like a bolt from the blue*, and *like pigs in clover*. Ten idioms were identified as sayings (e.g. *be all ears* or *Break a leg!*). The last six idioms are proverbs: *a bird in a hand is worth two in the bush*, *easy come, easy go*, *his bark is worse than his bite*, *still waters run deep*, and *the early bird catches the worm*.

Regarding the syntactical structure of selected slightly modified idioms, most of them (twenty) are verbal phrases. For instance, the idiom *be skating on a thin ice* is a cliché with syntactic structure “Verb + Adverb” and *could eat a horse* has a pattern “Verb + Noun”. To illustrate other verbal idioms, here are some examples: *twist someone around one's little finger*, *make a mountain out of a molehill*, *take French leave*, *lie in one's teeth*, or *have bats in the belfry*. The second most numerous category are non-verbal phrases. Some of the twelve non-verbal idioms possess

the “as + Adjective + as + Noun”, e.g. *as easy as pie*, *as light as air*, *as tenacious as a bulldog*, or *as ugly as death*. Another structure found amongst the non-verbal slightly modified idioms is “like + Noun + Noun”, e.g. *like a bull in a china shop* and *like talking to a brick wall*. The final group of syntactical divisions are sentence idioms; these are eleven specimens. In particular, *a bird in a hand is worth two in the bush*, *blood is thicker than water*, *cannot see beyond the end of one’s nose*, and *easy come, easy go*.

In accordance with the fixity of idioms, there are twenty-two figurative idioms, fourteen semi-idioms, and seven pure idioms. Figurative idioms are, for instance, *add fuel to the fire*, *be able to do something blindfolded*, *icing on a cake*, *would not like to be in their shoes* or *that was a close shave*. Amongst semi-idioms belong phrases such as *wild horses would not make me do it*, *like talking to a brick wall*, and *lie in one’s teeth*. The third category is pure idioms, e.g. *rest on one’s laurels*, *still waters run deep*, *make mountain out of a molehill*, and *wear sackcloth and ashes*.

Fifteen of the analyzed idioms are transparent, e.g. *as cold as stone*, *be as different as chalk and cheese*, *be as fit as a fiddle*, or *disappear like water on sand*. Just as many are semi-transparent, e.g. *as easy as pie*, *come like a bolt from the blue*, and *his bark is worse than his bite*. Seven of the idioms were identified as semi-opaque (*be all ears*, *bed of roses*, *as thick as a plank*). The remaining six are opaque, for example, *a storm in a teacup*, *break a leg*, or *still waters run deep*.

As it was the case with analogous idioms, so is with slightly modified ones; most of them possess informal stylistic connotation. However, there are some exceptions: *break a leg* comes from theatrical slang (wishing for something bad is supposed to prevent it from happening, according to superstition), *could eat a horse* is a humorous idiom, *have bats in the belfry* is considered old-fashioned, and *icing on the cake* is often used sarcastically.

From the point of view of origin, almost all of the analyzed idioms are historical. Some of them have noteworthy origin stories:

Storm in a teacup was first documented in the work of a Scottish novelist Catherine Sinclair, around the year 1840. However, similar idioms have preceded it, e.g. *storm in a wash-hand basin* or *a storm in a cream-bowl* by the Duke of Ormond in the late seventeenth century.

Wear sackcloth and ashes alludes to the Hebrew ritual of mourning by wearing sackcloth and ashes. The sackcloth was made of black goathair cloth that was used to make grain bags, and to wear it was a gesture of humility.

The origin of the proverb *a bird in a hand is worth two in the bush* can be traced back to medieval falconry; a falcon in hand was worth more than two in the bush. The first recorded usage is from John Capgrave's book from the fifteenth century. The current form of the idiom was first used around 1670 in a book called *A Hand-book of Proverbs* by John Ray.

The simile *be as different as chalk and cheese* allegedly originates from the UK in the thirteenth century. A merchant tampered with his produce to gain more profit. He would swap the cheese for chalk to save some cheese but people caught on and therefore the phrase was coined as a distinction between the two goods.

As fit as a fiddle alludes to musical instruments, particularly violin, that must be maintained in a good state, fit. The idiom was first documented in *Englishmen for my Money* by Haughton William.

The proverb *blood is thicker than water* origins in the twelfth century in the German language. The present form was found in *Guy Mannering* by Sir Walter Scott but its use in English can be traced back to the fifteenth century.

Come like a bolt from the blue is a simile coming from a meteorology environment. Lightning striking in the middle of the day and far from the thunderstorm is an unexpected occurrence. Meteorologists refer to this phenomenon as "bold from the blue" and it is an actual event (bolts travelling miles from the storm before striking the ground) that gave rise to the idiom. However, another theory suggests itself; the idioms might refer to a crossbow projectile used in ancient battles. The crossbows shoot missiles called bolts and have a longer range than normal bows. Therefore, the target might not be able to see the shooter, so the shot landed as a bolt from the blue. The first record of the idiom is in Thomas Carlyle's work *The French Revolution* (1837).

Have bats in the belfry alludes to bats' inconsistent flight in the dark, which is analogous to the ideas fluttering around in one's head. Bats have a long history of being associated with insanity/craziness.

The old English proverb *his bark is worse than his bite* refers to a dog that cannot bite because it is too busy barking. It is not a literal reference to dogs, but rather a metaphor for someone who talks a lot yet does not follow through with the action. In China, Chairman Mao used the phrase *paper tiger*, meaning that western imperialists were an empty threat and no menace. The proverb first appeared in Abel Boyer's *Dictionnaire royal, François-Anglois, et Anglois-François* from 1719.

Take French leave stems from the eighteenth-century custom of leaving an event/party without any parting words to the host. This idiom was first documented after the Seven Years' War. The French equivalent of this phrase *to escape in the style of the English* and Czech *zmizet po anglicku*, both replace *French* with *English*.

Last but not least, some variations must be mentioned. Many slightly modified idioms differ in only one noun change. For instance, *fuel* and *olej* (oil) in *add fuel to the fire* (přilévat oleje do ohně), *pie* and *hračka* (toy) in *as easy as pie* (snadný jako hračka), or *plank* and *poleno* (log) in *as thick as a plank* (tupý jako poleno). Some counterparts vary in a noun and additional word, e.g. *teacup* and *sklenice vody* (glass of water) in *a storm in a teacup* (bouře ve sklenici vody) and *stone* and *psí čumák* (dog nose) in *as cold as stone* (studený jako psí čumák). When an idiom contains an animal, oftentimes there is a different kind of animal in an idiom of a different language, such as *bulldog* and *mezek* in *as tenacious as a bulldog* (tvrdohlavý jako mezek), *horse* and *vlk* (wolf) in *could eat a horse* (mít hlad jako vlk), or *birds* and *mouchy* (flies) in *kill two birds with one stone* (zabít dvě mouchy jednou ranou).

3.3 FUNCTIONALLY EQUIVALENT IDIOMS

Functionally equivalent idioms are idioms that, although having a counterpart of the same reference, have different lexis (see Appendix IV). There are forty of them in the analyzed sample. Eleven of those were identified as clichés, e.g. *be cut from a different cloth*, *be left on a shelf*, or *beat about the bush*. One less, that is ten, are similes (*as bold as brass*, *like a virgin comes to a baby*). There are seven proverbs to be found. For example, *do not count your chickens before they are hatched*, *make hay while the sun shines* or *what goes around comes around*. Six functionally equivalent idioms are sayings, e.g. *that is the snag*, *swallow the pill*, and *be wet behind the ears*. Amongst the five euphemisms belong, for instance, *be six feet under* or *come back from death's door*. The last remaining idiom is binomial, *apples and oranges*.

From the aspect of syntax, most idioms (twenty-one) are verbal, such as *butter somebody up*, *carry coals to Newcastle*, *stick like a leech*. Eleven of them were recognized as sentential idioms, e.g. *it never rains but it pours*, *make hay while the sun shines*, and *there is neither rhyme nor reason*. The last eight phrases are non-verbal with patterns such as "Noun + and + Noun" (*apples and oranges*), "as + Adjective + as + Noun" (*as bold as brass*, *as clear as mud*), or "like + Noun + Noun" (*like a pig in a poke*, *like a stone in a shoe*).

Twenty-two functionally equivalent idioms are figurative, e.g. *bark up the wrong tree*, *be down in the dumps*, *couch potato*, *be as two peas in a pod*, *be left on a shelf*, *like a wallflower*, and *like sitting on a volcano*. Ten idioms are considered pure, like *do not count your chickens before they are hatched*, *it is all Greek to me*. The final group of semi-idioms contains eight of them (*have got mountains of work to go through*, *it is not worth a button*, *that is the snag*).

Concerning semantic transparency, there are thirteen semi-transparent idioms, e.g. *butter somebody up*, *couch potato*, *have skeleton in the cupboard*, *like a pig in a poke*, or *take to one's heels*. Some of the eleven transparent idioms are *what goes around comes around*, *six of one and half a dozen of the other*, or *he thinks he runs the show*. There are ten opaque idioms to be found, e.g. *it never rains but it pours*, *it is all Greek to me*. The remaining six are semi-opaque (*bark up the wrong tree*, *be left on a shelf*, *birds of feather flock together*).

As it was already mentioned, most idioms are informal, but here are some exceptions: *be left on the shelf* is an old-fashioned cliché, *be six feet under* is euphemistic and humorous slang, *be wet behind the ears*, *couch potato*, and *he thinks he runs the show* are disapproving.

All of the analyzed idioms are historical, except for *couch potato* which is a new idiom originating in the 1970s in America. A comic artist drew characters who were lazy and inactive and named them *Couch Potatoes*. After they became popular, people who were spending a lot of time in front of their TV started being called *couch potatoes*.

Bark up the wrong tree comes from the US and refers to hounds hunting raccoons at night. Dogs would chase the prey up a tree and bark below to alert the huntsman. If the quarry outwits the dogs, they are left barking up the wrong tree. The first recorded use in print is from 1832 in *Westward Ho!* by James Kirke Paulding.

Carry coals to Newcastle originates from northern England town Newcastle-upon-Tyne. This town was famous for its abundant reserves of coal in the previous centuries. This has been an expression for doing something unnecessary since the seventeenth century.

Be left on the shelf is an offensive idiom used to describe a woman without the prospect of marriage. This phrase alludes to an article left on the shelf of a store and has been used since the early eighteenth century.

The cliché *there is neither rhyme nor reason* most likely originated in French in the late fifteenth century. However, Thomas More is credited for using this idiom

as a witty remark. The phrase can be found in a proverb collection by John Ray in 1678. William Shakespeare is oftentimes mistakenly quoted as the author; this line has appeared in his *Comedy of Errors* in 1590.

The first mention of the idiom *it is all Greek to me* is from medieval Latin. The word *Greek* meaning “gibberish, unintelligible” was used from the sixteenth century due to the difficulty of translating Greek texts. When Shakespeare introduced the phrase in his play *Julius Caesar* in 1599, it became part of contemporary English. It was first used in the literal meaning, as a non-Greek speaker would say it, but it gradually came to be used for anything incoherent.

The origin of *be wet behind the ears* can be traced back to the birthing process of agricultural animals. Blood covers the calf from head to toe after it is born. The last wet spot, as the animal dries, is behind its ears. As a result, the phrase became synonymous with newborns, and it has been adopted into common usage to refer to someone who is new to something or somewhere.

It never rains but it pours may have originated in either a book by Queen Anne's physician, John Arbuthnot, or an article by Jonathan Swift, both of which were published in 1726 and both titled *It Cannot Rain But It Pours*.

The last two origins to be mentioned are: *wear borrowed plumes* is derived from the fable about a jay that clothed itself in peacock feathers; *six feet under* refers to the usual depth of a grave.

Although only functionally equivalent, some idioms still have similarities. For example, *it is all Greek to me* and *to je pro mě španělskou vesnicí* both contain a word denoting a country. *Like a pig in a poke* and *kupovat zajíce v pytli* include an animal lexeme. *Make hay while the sun shines* and *kuj železo, dokud je žhavé* are idioms coming from everyday agrestic life.

CONCLUSION

Idioms, as has been stated numerous times, are an intrinsic component of language and make speech more fluent and friendly. They are an important part of English language mastery for international students. Idioms are the tools that allow us to describe our surroundings in a unique way, with shapes and colours.

The theoretical framework presents information vital for the analysis. It provides a theoretical understanding of lexicology and focuses mostly on phraseological language, which is the main subject of this thesis. This thesis introduces idioms and their different classifications and aspects. The analysis consists of one hundred idioms that were randomly selected from four books/dictionaries.

Most of the analyzed idioms were slightly modified (43), which is what was expected. This is not surprising, given that English and Czech are two languages from separate language families with diverse cultural origins. That is the reason why it is not common to encounter idiomatic units that would be exactly the same. Modified expressions are easier to find since humans all around the world have similar experiences but not the same language means, so the way they are described varies by language.

These idioms can differ in a noun change (*as easy as pie, snadný jako hračka*), in a noun and an additional word (*as cold as stone, studený jako psí čumák*). Or changes such as differences in the kind of animal used in the phrase (*tenacious as a bulldog, tvrdohlavý jako mezek*).

The second most numerous category is functionally equivalent idioms (40). It often happens that finding analogous or similar idioms in different languages is nearly impossible. However, two idioms of completely different lexis may still possess the same figurative meaning, for example, *plakat na špatném hrobě* and its English equivalent *bark up the wrong tree*.

In the case of functionally equivalent idioms, we search for similarities rather than differences. These might be, for example, words marking a country or nationality (*it is all Greek to me, to je pro mě španělskou vesnici*), or contain an animal lexeme (*like a pig in a poke, kupovat zajíce v pytli*).

The last group with the least specimens is analogous idioms (17). These idioms may be calques or simply just a coincidence; such as idioms that contain a comparison to an animal. Animals usually possess the same traits no matter what culture, therefore a simile like *as meek as a lamb* can be found in various languages;

they do not possess any differences in lexis.

Most of the idioms were identified as clichés (32), overused and unoriginal phrases. There are twenty-nine similes in the sample; phrases that compare or contrast two entities. Seventeen idioms are sayings and sixteen are proverbs, phrases giving advice or insight. Five euphemisms have occurred, and only one binomial. From this, it can be assumed that most idioms are used daily and frequently.

Verbal idioms make up almost half of the analyzed material, there are forty-nine of them. Twenty-six idioms possess a non-verbal structure, and twenty-five are sentences. Ergo, more idioms contain a verb than not.

Fifty-six specimens are figurative idioms, meaning they possess not only idiomatic meaning but literal meaning (to a certain extent) as well; their meaning can be deduced from the context. Semi-idioms make up a quarter of the analyzed idioms (25). These are mostly similes that contain some lexis that is meant literally in the context (*as red as a lobster*). The rest of the idioms are pure (19); their meaning cannot be derived from their components and must be learnt by heart.

There is the same amount of transparent (34) and semi-transparent idioms (34). Transparent idioms are literal, their meaning can be deduced from their individual components and the context. Semi-transparent idioms possess idiomatic and literal meaning; they can describe a situation that is similar to or comparable to something that actually exists. Eighteen idioms were identified as opaque; they are fully idiomatic and their meaning cannot be deduced. The last fourteen idioms are semi-opaque which means they are more idiomatic than semi-transparent idioms. The distinction between semi-transparent and semi-opaque idioms is dependent on how a speaker interprets them. Most idioms in this sample can be understood from their components and given context, which is the opposite of what the presupposition was.

Idioms are a very significant part of the language. Not only are they often misinterpreted, but also do not have clear linguistic distinctions, so their classifications often depend on individual linguists. However, that is not to discourage anyone from learning idioms or working with them. They are a considerable part of every language that provides everyday communication with colourful expressions.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: ALPHABETICAL LIST OF ANALYZED IDIOMS

No.	English idiom	Meaning	Czech idiom	Division
1.	A bird in a hand is worth two in the bush.	it is preferable to keep what one has rather than risk losing it in the pursuit of something better	Lepší vrabec v hrsti než holub na střeše.	slightly modified idioms
2.	A drowning man will clutch at a straw.	when in desperate situation, a person will do anything that could help	Tonoucí se stébla chytá.	analogous idioms
3.	a stone's throw away	short distance, nearby	co by kamenem dohodil	analogous idioms
4.	a storm in a teacup	a small problem that has been exaggerated out of proportion	bouře ve sklenici vody	slightly modified idioms
5.	add fuel to the fire	to make a bad situation even worse	přilévat oleje do ohně	slightly modified idioms
6.	All that glitters is not gold.	things that appear to be attractive on the outside are often not as appealing on the inside	Není všechno zlato, co se třpytí.	analogous idioms
7.	All's well that ends well.	if the outcome of a situation is positive, it makes up for any hardship that occurred previously	Konec dobrý, všechno dobré.	analogous idioms
8.	apples and oranges	two unlike entities	nebe a dudy	functionally equivalent idioms

9.	as bold as brass	impudent, bold to the point of rudeness	drzý jako opice	functionally equivalent idioms
10.	as clear as mud	not clear, difficult to understand	páté přes deváté	functionally equivalent idioms
11.	as cold as stone	totally devoid of any emotion	studený jako psí čumák	slightly modified idioms
12.	as easy as pie	very easy	snadný jako hračka	slightly modified idioms
13.	as light as air	very light	lehký jako pírko	slightly modified idioms
14.	as meek as a lamb	very patient, mild, quiet, shy	mírný jako jehňátko	analogous idioms
15.	as poor as a church mouse	to have no money	být chudý jako kostelní myš	analogous idioms
16.	as red as a lobster	very red (sunburnt)	rudý jako rak	analogous idioms
17.	as tenacious as a bulldog	very determined, stubborn	tvrdohlavý jako mezek	slightly modified idioms
18.	as thick as a plank	very stupid	tupý jako poleno	slightly modified idioms
19.	as ugly as death	hideous	ošklivý jako noc	slightly modified idioms
20.	bark up the wrong tree	wasting time and effort on the incorrect thing or path	plakat na špatném hrobě	functionally equivalent idioms
21.	be able to do something blindfolded	to do something effortlessly, with no difficulty	zvládnout něco levou rukou	slightly modified idioms

22.	be all ears	to be willing to eagerly listen to something	být jedno velké ucho	slightly modified idioms
23.	be as different as chalk and cheese	very different from one another	lišit se jako den a noc	slightly modified idioms
24.	be as fit as a fiddle	to be in good health	být zdravý jako ryba	slightly modified idioms
25.	be as two peas in a pod	very similar, nearly indistinguishable	podobat se jako vejce vejci	functionally equivalent idioms
26.	be cut from a different cloth	to be the exact opposite	být z jiného těsta	functionally equivalent idioms
27.	be down in the dumps	to be sad/unhappy over a tininess	něco mu přeletělo přes nos	functionally equivalent idioms
28.	be left on the shelf	to be unwanted	zůstat na ocet	functionally equivalent idioms
29.	be six feet under	to be dead	být pod drnem	functionally equivalent idioms
30.	be skating on thin ice	doing something dangerous/risky	pohybovat se na tenkém ledě	slightly modified idioms
31.	be wet behind the ears	inexperienced, young	mít mléko na bradě	functionally equivalent idioms
32.	beat about the bush	to avoid saying something directly	chodit okolo horké kaše	functionally equivalent idioms
33.	bed of roses	an effortless, comfortable situation/option	procházka růžovým sadem	slightly modified idioms
34.	Birds of feather flock together.	people who share similar interests tend to form groups	Vrána k vráně sedá.	functionally equivalent idioms

35.	Blood is thicker than water.	family bond is the strongest and most important one	Krev není voda.	slightly modified idioms
36.	Break a leg!	to wish good luck	Zlom vaz!	slightly modified idioms
37.	butter somebody up	flattering someone before asking them for a favour	mazat někomu med kolem pusy	functionally equivalent idioms
38.	calm before the storm	a period of unnatural calm before an attack/violent activity	ticho před bouří	analogous idioms
39.	Cannot see beyond the end of one's nose.	to be self-centered and envisioning only immediate problems	nevidět si na špičku nosu	slightly modified idioms
40.	carry coals to Newcastle	to do something redundant, unnecessary	nosit sovy do Atén	functionally equivalent idioms
41.	clip one's wings	to restrict one's freedom	přistříhnout někomu křídla	analogous idioms
42.	come back from death's door	to recover from a state close to death	utéct hrobníkovi z lopaty	functionally equivalent idioms
43.	come like a bolt from the blue	to happen suddenly, unexpectedly	přijít jako blesk z čistého nebe	slightly modified idioms
44.	couch potato	a lazy person who spends most of their time watching TV	pecivál	functionally equivalent idioms
45.	could eat a horse	very hungry	mít hlad jako vlk	slightly modified idioms

46.	cry over spilt milk	to be upset over something that cannot be fixed	plakat nad rozlitym mlékem	analogous idioms
47.	dig deep into one's pocket	to spend a lot of money	sáhnout si hluboko do kapsy	analogous idioms
48.	disappear like water on sand	to vanish without a trace	zmizet jako pára nad hrncem	slightly modified idioms
49.	Do not count your chickens before they are hatched.	you should not make plans that depend on something good happening before you know that it has actually happened	Nechval dne před večerem.	functionally equivalent idioms
50.	Easy come, easy go.	what is easily attained is also easily lost	Lehko nabyl, lehkou pozbyl.	slightly modified idioms
51.	fall like a house of cards	to fail completely due to poor organization	sesypat se jako domeček z karet	analogous idioms
52.	have a skeleton in the cupboard (BrE), have a skeleton in the closet (AmE)	to have an incriminating secret from one's past	mít máslo na hlavě	functionally equivalent idioms
53.	have bats in the belfry	being eccentric, crazy	strašit někomu na věži	slightly modified idioms
54.	have got mountains of work to go through	to have a lot of work	mít práce jako na kostele	functionally equivalent idioms
55.	he thinks he runs the show	to think one is the most important person	myslí si, že je pupek světa	functionally equivalent idioms

56.	His bark is worse than his bite.	someone seems more aggressive than they actually are	Pes, který štěká, nekouše.	slightly modified idioms
57.	icing on the cake (BrE), frosting on the cake (AmE)	something that improves already favorable situation	třešnička na dortu	slightly modified idioms
58.	it is all Greek to me	cannot understand at all	to je pro mě španělskou vesnicí	functionally equivalent idioms
59.	it is not worth a button	completely worthless	nestojí to za fajfku tabáku	functionally equivalent idioms
60.	It is the same old story!	negative situation/behaviour that does not change and keeps recurring	To je pořád ta samá písnička!	slightly modified idioms
61.	It never rains but it pours.	when something bad happens, other bad things often follow	Neštěstí nechodí nikdy samo.	functionally equivalent idioms
62.	kill two birds with one stone	to complete two tasks at the same time	zabít dvě mouchy jednou ranou	slightly modified idioms
63.	laugh in one's hand	to cover up one's laugh	smát se pod vousy	slightly modified idioms
64.	lay cards on the table	being honest with others and telling them one's plans, thoughts	vyložit karty na stůl	analogous idioms
65.	lie in one's teeth	to lie unabashedly	lhát, až se hory zelenají	slightly modified idioms

66.	like a bull in a china shop	to be aggressively reckless/clumsy in a situation that requires care/delicacy	jako slon v porcelánu	slightly modified idioms
67.	like a pig in a poke	something that is purchased without having been thoroughly inspected	kupovat zajíce v pytli	functionally equivalent idioms
68.	like a stone in the shoe	something that is causing irritation, creating problems	jako trn v oku	functionally equivalent idioms
69.	like a virgin comes to a child	to gain something inadvertently	přijít k něčemu jako slepý k houslím	functionally equivalent idioms
70.	like a wallflower	to observe but not engage in a social event, particularly a dance or party, because they are shy or disliked	jako pecka	functionally equivalent idioms
71.	like locking the stable door after the horse has bolted	to try to prevent something but be too late to prevent the damage	přijít s křížkem po funuse	functionally equivalent idioms
72.	like pigs in clover	very happy and content	jako prase v žitě	slightly modified idioms
73.	like sitting on a volcano	to be in a place where trouble/danger may come suddenly	jako tančit s vlky	functionally equivalent idioms
74.	like talking to a brick wall	the person one is talking to does not listen	jako když člověk mluví do dubu	slightly modified idioms

75.	like walking on hot coals	to be in a volatile situation	jako chodit po žhavém uhlí	analogous idioms
76.	make a mountain out of a molehill	to exaggerate, make something minor into a serious issue	dělat z komára velblouda	slightly modified idioms
77.	Make hay while the sun shines.	to take advantage of favorable conditions	Kuj železo, dokud je žhavé.	functionally equivalent idioms
78.	put a spoke in somebody's wheel	to sabotage one's plan/project	házet někomu klacky pod nohy	functionally equivalent idioms
79.	Put that in your pipe and smoke it.	to remember what was said	Zapiš si to za uši.	functionally equivalent idioms
80.	rest on one's laurels	to stop participating because of satisfaction with past achievements	usnout na vavřínech	slightly modified idioms
81.	six of one and half a dozen of the other	difference between two options is irrelevant	prašť jako uhoď	functionally equivalent idioms
82.	spread like wildfire	to spread very quickly	šířit se jako lesní požár	analogous idioms
83.	stick like a leech	being persistently present	držet se jako klíště	functionally equivalent idioms
84.	Still waters run deep.	quiet people are often very interesting, complex, profound	Tichá voda břehy mele.	slightly modified idioms
85.	swallow the pill	to accept a difficult or unpleasant fact or situation	kousnout do kyselého jablka	functionally equivalent idioms

86.	take French leave	to leave without an announcement or permission	zmizet po anglicku	slightly modified idioms
87.	take the wind out of somebody's sails	to stifle one's enthusiasm, excitement	vzít někomu vítr z plachet	analogous idioms
88.	take to one's heels	to flee, run away	vzít do zaječích	functionally equivalent idioms
89.	That is the snag.	that is the problem	Tady je zakopaný pes.	functionally equivalent idioms
90.	That was a close shave.	a narrow escape from danger or disaster	To bylo o vlásek.	slightly modified idioms
91.	The early bird catches the worm.	the one who starts early has a better chance of success	Ranní ptáče dál doskáče.	slightly modified idioms
92.	There is neither rhyme nor reason in that.	no sense, logic, meaning	Nemá to hlavu ani patu.	functionally equivalent idioms
93.	tread on someone's toes	to upset, insult someone	šlápnout někomu na kuří oko	slightly modified idioms
94.	twist someone around one's little finger	to gain control over someone	omotat si někoho kolem prstu	slightly modified idioms
95.	wear borrowed plumes	to claim something that is rightfully someone else's	chlubit se cizím peřím	functionally equivalent idioms
96.	wear sackcloth and ashes	to act in a way that expresses regret or penitence for one's wrongdoings or bad behaviour	sypat si popel na hlavu	slightly modified idioms

97.	weep crocodile tears	to show insincere remorse	ronit krokodýlí slzy	analogous idioms
98.	What goes around comes around.	one's actions or behavior will eventually have consequences	Jak se do lesa volá, tak se z lesa ozývá.	functionally equivalent idioms
99.	Wild horses would not make me do it.	will not do something no matter how much someone else forces them	Ani párem koní mě k tomu nedonutí.	slightly modified idioms
100.	would not like to be in their shoes	someone else is in an unpleasant, bad situation and you would not want to trade places with them	nechtěl bych být v jeho kůži	slightly modified idioms

APPENDIX II: ANALOGOUS IDIOMS

No.	English idiom	Meaning	Czech idiom
1.	A drowning man will clutch at a straw.	when in desperate situation, a person will do anything that could help	Tonoucí se stébla chytá.
2.	a stone's throw away	short distance, nearby	co by kamenem dohodil
3.	All that glitters is not gold.	things that appear to be attractive on the outside are often not as appealing on the inside	Není všechno zlato, co se třpytí.
4.	All's well that ends well.	if the outcome of a situation is positive, it makes up for any hardship that occurred previously	Konec dobrý, všechno dobré.

5.	as meek as a lamb	very patient, mild, quiet, shy	mírný jako jehňátko
6.	as poor as a church mouse	to have no money	být chudý jako kostelní myš
7.	as red as a lobster	very red (sunburnt)	rudý jako rak
8.	calm before the storm	a period of unnatural calm before an attack/violent activity	ticho před bouří
9.	clip one's wings	to restrict one's freedom	přistříhnout někomu křídla
10.	cry over spilt milk	to be upset over something that cannot be fixed	plakat nad rozlitym mlékem
11.	dig deep into one's pocket	to spend a lot of money	sáhnout si hluboko do kapsy
12.	fall like a house of cards	to fail completely due to poor organization	sesypat se jako domeček z karet
13.	lay cards on the table	being honest with others and telling them one's plans, thoughts, intentions	vyložit karty na stůl
14.	like walking on hot coals	to be in a volatile situation	jako chodit po žhavém uhlí
15.	spread like wildfire	to spread very quickly	šířit se jako lesní požár
16.	take the wind out of somebody's sails	to stifle one's enthusiasm, excitement	vzít někomu vítr z plachet

17.	weep crocodile tears	to show insincere remorse	ronit krokodýlí slzy
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APPENDIX III: SLIGHTLY MODIFIED IDIOMS

No.	English idiom	Meaning	Czech idiom
1.	A bird in a hand is worth two in the bush.	it is preferable to keep what one has rather than risk losing it in the pursuit of something better	Lepší vrabec v hrsti než holub na střeše.
2.	a storm in a teacup	a small problem that has been exaggerated out of proportion	bouře ve sklenici vody
3.	add fuel to the fire	to make a bad situation even worse	přilévat oleje do ohně
4.	as cold as stone	totally devoid of any emotion	studený jako psí čumák
5.	as easy as pie	very easy	snadný jako hračka
6.	as light as air	very light	lehký jako pírko
7.	as tenacious as a bulldog	very determined, stubborn	tvrdohlavý jako mezek
8.	as thick as a plank	very stupid	tupý jako poleno
9.	as ugly as death	hideous	ošklivý jako noc
10.	be able to do something blindfolded	to do something effortlessly, with no difficulty	zvládnout něco levou rukou

11.	be all ears	to be willing to eagerly listen to something	být jedno velké ucho
12.	be as different as chalk and cheese	very different from one another	lišit se jako den a noc
13.	be as fit as a fiddle	to be in good health	být zdravý jako ryba
14.	be skating on thin ice	doing something dangerous/risky	pohybovat se na tenkém ledě
15.	bed of roses	an effortless, comfortable situation/option	procházka růžovým sadem
16.	Blood is thicker than water.	family bond is the strongest and most important one	Krev není voda.
17.	Break a leg!	to wish good luck	Zlom vaz!
18.	Cannot see beyond the end of one's nose.	to be self-centered and envisioning only immediate problems	nevidět si na špičku nosu
19.	come like a bolt from the blue	to happen suddenly, unexpectedly	přijít jako blesk z čistého nebe
20.	could eat a horse	very hungry	mít hlad jako vlk
21.	disappear like water on sand	to vanish without a trace	zmizet jako pára nad hrncem
22.	Easy come, easy go.	what is easily attained is also easily lost	Lehko nabyt, lehko pozbyl.
23.	have bats in the belfry	being eccentric, crazy	strašit někomu na věži

24.	His bark is worse than his bite.	someone seems more aggressive than they actually are	Pes, který štěká, nekouše.
25.	icing on the cake (BrE), frosting on the cake (AmE)	something that improves already favorable situation	třešnička na dortu
26.	It is the same old story!	negative situation/behaviour that does not change and keeps recurring	To je pořád ta samá písnička!
27.	kill two birds with one stone	to complete two tasks at the same time	zabít dvě mouchy jednou ranou
28.	laugh in one's hand	to cover up one's laugh	smát se pod vousy
29.	lie in one's teeth	to lie unabashedly	lhát, až se hory zelenají
30.	like a bull in a china shop	to be aggressively reckless/clumsy in a situation that requires care/delicacy	jako slon v porcelánu
31.	like pigs in clover	very happy and content	jako prase v žitě
32.	like talking to a brick wall	the person one is talking to does not listen	jako když člověk mluví do dubu
33.	make a mountain out of a molehill	to exaggerate, make something minor into a serious issue	dělat z komára velblouda

34.	rest on one's laurels	to stop participating because of satisfaction with past achievements	usnout na vavřínech
35.	Still waters run deep.	quiet people are often very interesting, complex, profound	Tichá voda břehy mele.
36.	take French leave	to leave without an announcement or permission	zmizet po anglicku
37.	That was a close shave.	a narrow escape from danger or disaster	To bylo o vlásek.
38.	The early bird catches the worm.	the one who starts early has a better chance of success	Ranní ptáče dál doskáče.
39.	tread on someone's toes	to upset, insult someone	šlápnout někomu na kuří oko
40.	twist someone around one's little finger	to gain control over someone	omotat si někoho kolem prstu
41.	wear sackcloth and ashes	to act in a way that expresses regret or penitence for one's wrongdoings or bad behaviour	sypat si popel na hlavu
42.	Wild horses would not make me do it.	will not do something no matter how much someone else forces them	Ani párem koní mě k tomu nedonutí.

43.	would not like to be in their shoes	someone else is in an unpleasant, bad situation and you would not want to trade places with them	nechtěl bych být v jeho kůži
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APPENDIX IV: FUNCTIONALLY EQUIVALENT IDIOMS

No.	English idiom	Meaning	Czech idiom
1.	apples and oranges	two unlike entities	nebe a dudy
2.	as bold as brass	impudent, bold to the point of rudeness	drzý jako opice
3.	as clear as mud	not clear, difficult to understand	páté přes deváté
4.	bark up the wrong tree	wasting time and effort on the incorrect thing or path	plakat na špatném hrobě
5.	be as two peas in a pod	very similar, nearly indistinguishable	podobat se jako vejce vejci
6.	be cut from a different cloth	to be the exact opposite	být z jiného těsta
7.	be down in the dumps	to be sad/unhappy over a tininess	něco mu přeletělo přes nos
8.	be left on the shelf	to be unwanted	zůstat na ocet
9.	be six feet under	to be dead	být pod drnem
10.	be wet behind the ears	inexperienced, young	mít mléko na bradě
11.	beat about the bush	to avoid saying something directly	chodit okolo horké kaše

12.	Birds of feather flock together.	people who share similar interests tend to form groups	Vrána k vráně sedá.
13.	butter somebody up	flattering someone before asking them for a favour	mazat někomu med kolem pusy
14.	carry coals to Newcastle	to do something redundant, unnecessary	nosit sovy do Atén
15.	come back from death's door	to recover from a state close to death	utéct hrobníkovi z lopaty
16.	couch potato	a lazy person who spends most of their time watching TV	pecivál
17.	Do not count your chickens before they are hatched.	you should not make plans that depend on something good happening before you know that it has actually happened	Nechval dne před večerem.
18.	have a skeleton in the cupboard (BrE), have a skeleton in the closet (AmE)	to have an incriminating secret from one's past	mít máslo na hlavě
19.	have got mountains of work to go through	to have a lot of work	mít práce jako na kostele
20.	he thinks he runs the show	to think one is the most important person	myslí si, že je pupek světa
21.	it is all Greek to me	cannot understand at all	to je pro mě španělskou vesnicí

22.	it is not worth a button	completely worthless	nestojí to za fajfku tabáku
23.	It never rains but it pours.	when something bad happens, other bad things often follow	Neštěstí nechodí nikdy samo.
24.	like a pig in a poke	something that is purchased without having been thoroughly inspected	kupovat zajíce v pytli
25.	like a stone in the shoe	something that is causing irritation, creating problems	jako trn v oku
26.	like a virgin comes to a child	to gain something inadvertently	přijít k něčemu jako slepý k houslím
27.	like a wallflower	to observe but not engage in a social event, particularly a dance or party, because they are shy or disliked	jako pecka
28.	like locking the stable door after the horse has bolted	to try to prevent something but be too late to prevent the damage	přijít s křížkem po funuse
29.	like sitting on a volcano	to be in a place where trouble/danger may come suddenly	jako tančit s vlky
30.	Make hay while the sun shines.	to take advantage of favorable conditions	Kuj železo, dokud je žhavé.
31.	put a spoke in somebody's wheel	to sabotage one's plan/project	házet někomu klacky pod nohy

32.	Put that in your pipe and smoke it.	to remember what was said	Zapiš si to za uši.
33.	six of one and half a dozen of the other	difference between two options is irrelevant	praš' jako uhoď
34.	stick like a leech	being persistently present	držet se jako klíště
35.	swallow the pill	to accept a difficult or unpleasant fact or situation	kousnout do kyselého jablka
36.	take to one's heels	to flee, run away	vzít do zaječích
37.	That is the snag.	that is the problem	Tady je zakopaný pes.
38.	There is neither rhyme nor reason in that.	no sense, logic, meaning	Nemá to hlavu ani patu.
39.	wear borrowed plumes	to claim something that is rightfully someone else's	chlubit se cizím peřím
40.	What goes around comes around.	one's actions or behavior will eventually have consequences	Jak se do lesa volá, tak se z lesa ozývá.

APPENDIX V: CLASSIFICATION OF ANALYZED IDIOMS

No.	English idiom	Division	Type	Syntax	Degree of fixity	Degree of transparency
1.	A bird in a hand is worth two in the bush.	slightly modified idioms	proverb	sentence	figurative	semi-transparent
2.	A drowning man will clutch at a straw.	analogous idioms	proverb	sentence	figurative	semi-transparent

3.	a stone's throw away	analogous idioms	cliché	non-verbal	figurative	transparent
4.	a storm in a teacup	slightly modified idioms	cliché	non-verbal	pure	opaque
5.	add fuel to the fire	slightly modified idioms	cliché	verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
6.	All that glitters is not gold.	analogous idioms	proverb	sentence	pure	opaque
7.	All's well that ends well.	analogous idioms	proverb	sentence	figurative	semi-transparent
8.	apples and oranges	functionally equivalent idioms	binomial	non-verbal	figurative	opaque
9.	as bold as brass	functionally equivalent idioms	simile	non-verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
10.	as clear as mud	functionally equivalent idioms	simile	non-verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
11.	as cold as stone	slightly modified idioms	simile	non-verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
12.	as easy as pie	slightly modified idioms	simile	non-verbal	semi-idiom	semi-transparent

13.	as light as air	slightly modified idioms	simile	non-verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
14.	as meek as a lamb	analogous idioms	simile	non-verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
15.	as poor as a church mouse	analogous idioms	simile	non-verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
16.	as red as a lobster	analogous idioms	simile	non-verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
17.	as tenacious as a bulldog	slightly modified idioms	simile	non-verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
18.	as thick as a plank	slightly modified idioms	simile	non-verbal	semi-idiom	semi-opaque
19.	as ugly as death	slightly modified idioms	simile	non-verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
20.	bark up the wrong tree	functionally equivalent idioms	proverb	verbal	figurative	semi-opaque
21.	be able to do something blindfolded	slightly modified idioms	saying	verbal	figurative	semi-opaque
22.	be all ears	slightly modified idioms	saying	verbal	figurative	semi-opaque

23.	be as different as chalk and cheese	slightly modified idioms	simile	verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
24.	be as fit as a fiddle	slightly modified idioms	simile	verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
25.	be as two peas in a pod	functionally equivalent idioms	simile	verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
26.	be cut from a different cloth	functionally equivalent idioms	cliché	verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
27.	be down in the dumps	functionally equivalent idioms	euphemism	verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
28.	be left on the shelf	functionally equivalent idioms	cliché	verbal	figurative	semi-opaque
29.	be six feet under	functionally equivalent idioms	euphemism	verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
30.	be skating on thin ice	slightly modified idioms	cliché	verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
31.	be wet behind the ears	functionally equivalent idioms	saying	verbal	pure	opaque

32.	beat about the bush	functionally equivalent idioms	cliché	verbal	pure	opaque
33.	bed of roses	slightly modified idioms	cliché	non-verbal	figurative	semi-opaque
34.	Birds of feather flock together.	functionally equivalent idioms	proverb	sentence	pure	semi-opaque
35.	Blood is thicker than water.	slightly modified idioms	proverb	sentence	pure	opaque
36.	Break a leg!	slightly modified idioms	saying	sentence	figurative	opaque
37.	butter somebody up	functionally equivalent idioms	cliché	verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
38.	calm before the storm	analogous idioms	cliché	non-verbal	figurative	transparent
39.	Cannot see beyond the end of one's nose.	slightly modified idioms	saying	sentence	figurative	semi-opaque
40.	carry coals to Newcastle	functionally equivalent idioms	proverb	verbal	pure	opaque
41.	clip one's wings	analogous idioms	cliché	verbal	figurative	semi-transparent

42.	come back from death's door	functionally equivalent idioms	euphemism	verbal	figurative	transparent
43.	come like a bolt from the blue	slightly modified idioms	simile	verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
44.	couch potato	functionally equivalent idioms	euphemism	non-verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
45.	could eat a horse	slightly modified idioms	saying	verbal	figurative	transparent
46.	cry over spilt milk	analogous idioms	saying	verbal	figurative	semi-opaque
47.	dig deep into one's pocket	analogous idioms	cliché	verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
48.	disappear like water on sand	slightly modified idioms	simile	verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
49.	Do not count your chickens before they are hatched.	functionally equivalent idioms	proverb	sentence	pure	opaque
50.	Easy come, easy go.	slightly modified idioms	proverb	sentence	figurative	transparent
51.	fall like a house of cards	analogous idioms	simile	verbal	figurative	semi-transparent

52.	have a skeleton in the cupboard (BrE), have a skeleton in the closet (AmE)	functionally equivalent idioms	cliché	verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
53.	have bats in the belfry	slightly modified idioms	saying	verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
54.	have got mountains of work to go through	functionally equivalent idioms	saying	verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
55.	he thinks he runs the show	functionally equivalent idioms	saying	sentence	figurative	transparent
56.	His bark is worse than his bite.	slightly modified idioms	proverb	sentence	pure	opaque
57.	icing on the cake (BrE), frosting on the cake (AmE)	slightly modified idioms	cliché	non-verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
58.	it is all Greek to me	functionally equivalent idioms	cliché	sentence	pure	opaque
59.	it is not worth a button	functionally equivalent idioms	euphemism	sentence	semi-idiom	transparent

60.	It is the same old story!	slightly modified idioms	cliché	sentence	semi-idiom	transparent
61.	It never rains but it pours.	functionally equivalent idioms	proverb	sentence	pure	opaque
62.	kill two birds with one stone	slightly modified idioms	cliché	verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
63.	laugh in one's hand	slightly modified idioms	cliché	verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
64.	lay cards on the table	analogous idioms	cliché	verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
65.	lie in one's teeth	slightly modified idioms	saying	verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
66.	like a bull in a china shop	slightly modified idioms	simile	non-verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
67.	like a pig in a poke	functionally equivalent idioms	simile	non-verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
68.	like a stone in the shoe	functionally equivalent idioms	simile	non-verbal	figurative	semi-transparent

69.	like a virgin comes to a child	functionally equivalent idioms	simile	verbal	figurative	semi-opaque
70.	like a wallflower	functionally equivalent idioms	simile	non-verbal	figurative	opaque
71.	like locking the stable door after the horse has bolted	functionally equivalent idioms	simile	verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
72.	like pigs in clover	slightly modified idioms	simile	non-verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
73.	like sitting on a volcano	functionally equivalent idioms	simile	verbal	figurative	semi-transparent
74.	like talking to a brick wall	slightly modified idioms	simile	verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
75.	like walking on hot coals	analogous idioms	simile	verbal	figurative	transparent
76.	make a mountain out of a molehill	slightly modified idioms	cliché	verbal	pure	semi-opaque
77.	Make hay while the sun shines.	functionally equivalent idioms	proverb	sentence	figurative	semi-opaque

78.	put a spoke in somebody's wheel	functionally equivalent idioms	cliché	verbal	figurative	semi-opaque
79.	Put that in your pipe and smoke it.	functionally equivalent idioms	saying	sentence	pure	opaque
80.	rest on one's laurels	slightly modified idioms	cliché	verbal	pure	opaque
81.	six of one and half a dozen of the other	functionally equivalent idioms	cliché	non-verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
82.	spread like wildfire	analogous idioms	simile	verbal	figurative	transparent
83.	stick like a leech	functionally equivalent idioms	simile	verbal	semi-idiom	transparent
84.	Still waters run deep.	slightly modified idioms	proverb	sentence	pure	opaque
85.	swallow the pill	functionally equivalent idioms	saying	verbal	pure	semi-transparent
86.	take French leave	slightly modified idioms	cliché	verbal	figurative	semi-opaque

87.	take the wind out of somebody's sails	analogous idioms	cliché	verbal	figurative	semi- transparent
88.	take to one's heels	functionally equivalent idioms	cliché	verbal	figurative	semi- transparent
89.	That is the snag.	functionally equivalent idioms	saying	sentence	semi-idiom	transparent
90.	That was a close shave.	slightly modified idioms	saying	sentence	figurative	semi- transparent
91.	The early bird catches the worm.	slightly modified idioms	proverb	sentence	figurative	semi-opaque
92.	There is neither rhyme nor reason in that.	functionally equivalent idioms	cliché	sentence	figurative	semi- transparent
93.	tread on someone's toes	slightly modified idioms	cliché	verbal	figurative	semi- transparent
94.	twist someone around one's little finger	slightly modified idioms	cliché	verbal	figurative	semi- transparent
95.	wear borrowed plumes	functionally equivalent idioms	cliché	verbal	pure	opaque

96.	wear sackcloth and ashes	slightly modified idioms	saying	verbal	pure	opaque
97.	weep crocodile tears	analogous idioms	cliché	verbal	pure	opaque
98.	What goes around comes around.	functionally equivalent idioms	proverb	sentence	figurative	transparent
99.	Wild horses would not make me do it.	slightly modified idioms	cliché	sentence	semi-idiom	transparent
100.	would not like to be in their shoes	slightly modified idioms	saying	verbal	figurative	semi-transparent

APPENDIX VI: RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH

		Analogous idioms (17)		Slightly modified idioms (43)		Functionally equivalent idioms (40)		Overall (100)
		Number	Percents	Number	Percents	Number	Percents	Number
Type	Proverb	3	18 %	6	14 %	7	18 %	16
	Simile	6	35 %	13	30 %	10	25 %	29
	Cliché	7	41 %	14	33 %	11	27 %	32
	Saying	1	6 %	10	23 %	6	15 %	17
	Binomial	0	0 %	0	0 %	1	3 %	1
	Euphemism	0	0 %	0	0 %	5	12 %	5
Syntax	Sentence	3	18 %	11	25 %	11	27 %	25
	Non-verbal	6	35 %	12	28 %	8	20 %	26
	Verbal	8	47 %	20	47 %	21	47 %	49
Degree of fixity	Pure	2	12 %	7	16 %	10	25 %	19
	Figurative	12	70 %	22	51 %	22	55 %	56
	Semi-idiom	3	18 %	8	33 %	8	20 %	25

Degree of transparency	Transparent	8	47 %	15	35 %	11	28 %	34
	Semi-transparent	6	35 %	15	35 %	13	32 %	34
	Semi-opaque	1	6 %	7	16 %	6	15 %	14
	Opaque	2	12 %	6	14 %	10	25 %	18

SUMMARY IN CZECH

Tato práce se zabývá anglickými idiomy a jejich českými protějšky. Jejím cílem je analyzovat vybrané idiomy a porovnat je. Primárním předpokladem je, že většina idiomů je mírně pozměněna a jejich význam nelze pochopit z významu jejich komponentů.

Práce se skládá ze tří částí: teoretické části, metodologie analýzy a praktické analýzy idiomů. Teoretická část se zaměřuje na informace zásadní pro analýzu. Metody analýzy zahrnují techniky používané pro výběr materiálu, analýzu a porovnání vybraných idiomů. Analýza obsahuje sto anglických idiomů, srovnání s jejich českými protějšky a komentáře k jejich zvláštěm.

Počáteční předpoklad byl potvrzen pouze částečně. Většina idiomů byla skutečně mírně pozměněna, ale byly většinou transparentní nebo semi-transparentní, což znamená, že jim bylo možné porozumět díky kontextu, ve kterém se vyskytují. Výzkum také ukázal, jaký typ idiomů je nejběžnější a jaké jsou jejich vlastnosti.

Klíčová slova: *idiomy, porovnání, čeština, angličtina, frazeologie, sémantika, lexikologie*