University of Algiers 2

Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages

Department of English

Metaphors in Newspapers Business Articles:

A Study of English and Arabic

**Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Magister in Linguistics and Didactics**

Submitted by   **Supervised by**

Ali Belabbes   **Prof. Fatiha Hamitouche**

December, 2014

Examining Board

- Chairman: Professor Zoulikha Bensafi, University of Algiers 2.

- Supervisor: Professor Fatiha Hamitouche, University of Algiers 2.

- Internal Examiner: Doctor Fatma Zohra Nedjai, Algiers High School of Fine Arts

Declaration

I certify that the thesis entitled *Metaphors in Newspapers Business Articles: a Study of English and Arabic* is the result of my own research conducted at the University of Algiers 2, except where otherwise acknowledged.

ALI BELABBES

Aknowledgements

In the first place I would like to thank my supervisor, Prof. Fatiha Hamitouche for her guidance in my research. Without her precise critical remarks and inexhaustible energy I could not have finished this work. I am also grateful to the members of the Examining Board, Professor Zoulikha Bensafi and Doctor Fatma Zohra Nedjai for their careful reading of my dissertation. Special thanks are also due to Prof. Fabiszak_Kaszubski from Poland and Dr. Habib Yahiaoui from Algeria who read chapters of the first draft of this dissertation and made many valuable comments. Although many Arab journalists provided a lot of help in allowing me to interview them, they did not want their names to be mentioned and did not want to be quoted. Their input however is extremely valuable and I owe them a great deal of thanks.

Dedications

❖ I dedicate this piece of work to my parents for their steady belief in my ability and their love, understanding and support.

❖ I would like also to dedicate this work to the memory of my best friend, Mohamed Bouhend, who died shortly before being able to complete his doctorate thesis. His death is a great personal loss to many and a loss also to the world of scholarship.

❖ This work is also dedicated to my nephews, Bahaa Eddine and Amine, who remind me what it is like to see the world with young eyes.

Abstract

A widely held assumption in cognitive linguistics is that words and worldviews are intertwined and that language and thought are related, to the extent that both can be viewed as flip sides of the same coin. This is evidenced in the use of metaphors in discourse. Metaphors function not as mere ornaments, but as a means to structure thought and evoke particular attitudes and actions. Within this framework, this research has a focus on current trends in metaphor research and their implications for the analysis of metaphors in translation. It sheds light on the use of metaphors in a corpus of English and Arabic business/financial news articles published in newspapers between 2008 and 2013. The data analysis procedure for this research has been mainly built on two earlier theories, Cognitive Metaphor Theory as advocated by G. Lakoff and M. Johnson and Critical Metaphor Analysis developed by J. Charteris-Black, Placing metaphor at the crossroads of cognitive linguistics and Critical Metaphor Analysis represents a new perspective in the field of metaphor studies.

News media cultivate and shape our vision of the world. This research provides evidence from newspapers to argue that the choice of metaphor determines writer's opinions and the value system of the culture within which he is reporting. For an adequate characterization of the relation between metaphor and ideology, or in other words, between words and world views, the research takes a second dimension with a focus on Arabic translations in newspapers of extracts from English newspapers for the purpose to explore how the current economic crisis is metaphorically constructed and expressed in Arabic translations.

The research produces some valuable results. Most notably, it shows that there are similarities and differences between English and Arabic at the conceptual and linguistic levels. This result supports the claim that there are universal conceptual metaphors. However, when these metaphors are culturally instantiated, variation emerges. In fact, that is why Arab journalists sometimes adopt the same conceptual metaphorical structures that occur in English and reproduce same metaphors and sometimes do not. They instead delete or converse

metaphors to sense. The research has explained the findings in light of a theoretical framework that combined Cognitive Metaphor Theory and Critical Metaphor Analysis and has confirmed that metaphor is a construct of cultural, ideological and linguistic systems.

Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

Typographical Conventions

SMALL CAPITALS are used for:

– conceptual domains

– conceptual metaphors

– conceptual metonymies

– image schemas

– mental spaces

– thematic roles

Italics are used for:

–titles of works

– important terms which have not been mentioned and explained before

– lexical concepts

– general emphasis

Italics* with an asterisk are used for:

– ad hoc concept

List of Abbreviations

CMA: Critical Metaphor Analysis

CDA: Critical Discourse Analysis

MIP*:* Metaphor Identification Procedure

 WSJ: Wall Street Journal

NYT: New York Times

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

This research deals with worldwide coverage of business, financial and economic news in English and Arabic newspapers. A corpus-based approach has been applied within the framework of cognitive linguistics and critical discourse analysis to investigate metaphors from the source domains of path, war and health and identify the metaphorical expressions associated with them. The aim of this research has been to come to a better understanding of what metaphor is and what it does in language by analyzing its role in corpora selected from the discourse of press reporting. So, the key feature to note about the concept metaphor is that it has linguistic, pragmatic and cognitive characteristics. Metaphor, from a cognitive point of view, refers to a cognitive process of mapping between two domains and to the words that are the outcome of this process. So, a cognitive analysis of metaphor provides a better understanding of the link between the external forms of language and the internal forms of human thought. But thought can be examined only within the context of discourse. Metaphor cannot be studied or understood if divorced from its context. The discourse context is a description of the situation in which the metaphor is used. My principal argument is that metaphor reflects one of the areas where pragmatics—context-specific language choices—impinges deeply on semantics—the linguistic system for the realization of meaning. I will also argue that the pragmatic dimension of metaphor should be analyzed to fortify claims about the socio-cultural and ideological aspects of metaphor usage.This research first investigates the financial linguistic expressions in two American newspapers: *New York Times* and *Wall Street Journal*, and then compares these expressions to homologous or equivalent expressions used in excerpts and translations from English to Arabic in newspapers. The analysis in this research is limited to excerpts which take the form of summary rather rather than translated in extenso.

It reports on how metaphors are used to explore the wake of the present global economic crisis and aims to illustrate how cognitive semantics—a level of cognitive linguistics—may be used to compare the relationship between two rather unrelated languages: English and Arabic.

The selection and presentation of news information is an essential part of the wider print and publication process of news content management. Only a fraction of all "real world" events are selected according to agreed-upon news values. The news editor plays a central role in developing strategies that direct reader's attention to specific issues. Newspapers are one of the most influential medium for influencing the public; therefore, careful choices need to be made in the choice of language and stylistic devices. Metaphors have the potential to help writers and commentators construct new realities for readers. Many metaphors are for the aim not only to embellish and reflect an already present and reconstituted reality for rhetorical purposes, but also to contribute to the social construction and understanding of reality itself. By using particular metaphors, writers can therefore explain their thoughts and ideas to other people and persuade readers to share a belief. Philip Eubanks claims that "no metaphor comes without ideological freight" (1999:419—442). Metaphors have a key role in newspaper texts. By favoring particular metaphors, journalists can reinforce or even create stereotypes in their readers' cognition. But of course whether and how readers interpret metaphors is relative and not absolute.

This simple fact provides the essential rationale of this work. The major reason that has really captivated my interest for writing on this topic is the perceived dominance of path, war and health metaphors in recent business media discourse with language that repeatedly contends that BUSINESS IS MOTION OVER A PATH, TRADE IS WAR, and FINANCIAL CRISIS IS A DISEASE (Conceptual metaphors are printed in capital letters, as opposed to linguistic metaphor with small letters) from which many linguistic expressions evolve, such as the English statements "financial battlefield", "fiscal cliff", "world's financial plague", and "global financial contagion". Such metaphors underlie the conception of life as struggle for existence and survival of the fittest in a Darwinian sense. Selective metaphor usage can establish the way power is manifested and how

individuals see themselves in relation to specific sites of power. With discursive power people set standards, and create norms and values that are exercised over others and deemed legitimate. Enforced usage of metaphors from the source domain of war in English strengthens liberal individualistic values of the West. English business discourse also structures this ideology to think of economy or aspects of it as organism that can live, die, fall ill or recover. Images in disease metaphors produce negative perceptions towards companies and may be intended to impact their sales or affect future marketing strategies.

Reflecting upon language and the role metaphor plays in patterning ideas and thought within the context of discourse about economic crisis, the main research questions are:

- How is the current financial and economic crisis metaphorically constructed and expressed in American newspapers?

- What do metaphors reveal about the dominant values of liberal capitalist economy?

- How is the current financial and economic crisis metaphorically constructed and expressed in Arabic translations of extracts from American newspapers?

Metaphors in news reporting serve ideological purposes. Their goal is to set and strengthen a particular political agenda. By the use of particular metaphors, journalists can reinforce, or even generate, particular world views in their readers' cognition (Koller 2004). For example, the metaphorical construct "flood of refugees" represents refugees in a particular way, dehumanizing them and constructing them negatively as an unwanted natural disaster (Gabrielatos, C, and Baker, P. 2008: 30). As many authors have argued, journalists often introduce culturally alien metaphors through word-for-word translation. When culturally alien metaphors infiltrate into a language they define and redefine readers' mental structures and frame their world views. World views cannot be separable and independent from a language which represents it. Many culturally alien metaphors are used in Arabic news papers. They make their way into the language through absolute literal translations.

This research investigates the use of metaphors from the source domains of paths, war, and health in business press reports. The three source domains would not seem to be necessarily mutually exclusive. Economy is conceptualized as a journey along a path towards a goal. Health metaphors traditionally co-occurred with War metaphors in business discourse. When depicting the enemy as an infectious disease the war against it acquires a positive value as a necessary remedy. Health and War metaphors sometimes are used along with metaphors from the source domain of Path. Path metaphors serve many purposes. They occupy a prominent place in business discourse to refer to the governing ideology. Metaphors of path, war and health are metaphors which reinforce capitalistic world views and also the cultural status quo of domination and subordination. The mapping between these three source domains and business news reporting is likewise seen in Arabic. Specific examples of metaphoric expressions in Arabic that reflect conceptual mappings parallel with those of English will be presented in more detail in Chapter four. The linguistic expression of these conceptual metaphors in both languages may reveal differences between both cultures. In this research I hope to provide evidence that the purpose of the text is an important factor in determining choice of metaphor and the choice of metaphor determines the financial reporter' attitudes towards the events, people, and situations he reports on and the value system of the culture within which he is reporting. In pragmatic terms, metaphor has a central role to play in discourse. It determines the author's intentions and his persuasive role in forming evaluations of the events that are reported. This research combines current intention-based pragmatics with aspects of modern research in cognitive linguistics.

The research conducted has implications for the practice of translation. Translation of metaphors is discussed in the light of Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) and Critical Metaphor Analysis (CMA). In cognitive theory, the locus of metaphor is not in language but in thought. Accordingly, one would do well to keep in mind that the translation of metaphors does not involve only a linguistic shift between two languages but also a conceptual shift between two conceptual thoughts. Perhaps it might be helpful to think of language and thought as more or less

two sides of the same coin. There have been many interpretative studies of such correlations between metaphor use and conceptual thoughts. With a focus on metaphors in business articles and financial reporting, we noticed that there are a large number of metaphorical expressions used in English media that are introduced through translations into Arabic; accordingly, may be redefining readers' mental structures and world views. If the metaphorical language reflects ideologies, language change in translation of metaphors reflects different ideological perspectives.

The present research is divided into five chapters. The broad outline of the chapters is as follows: Chapter one and two combine the main insights and tenets of metaphor views within a framework that link traditional semantic views, where there are no conceptual metaphors, with cognitive approaches to understand metaphor as a part of human thought and pragmatic approaches to help interpret metaphors in the context of language use. Chapter three first introduces the corpus and the methodology for constituting the set of metaphors to be subjected to analysis, and second illustrates how the methods are applied to corpus data. The methodology combines perspectives from cognitive, semantic, and pragmatic theories for classifying, identifying, and interpreting metaphors in language use of business reporters in newspapers. Following the multi-method approach described in chapter three, chapter four breaks the English corpus into smaller parts in order to carry out thorough analyses and clarify the results within Critical Metaphor Analysis (CMA) which is a model that combines Conceptual Metaphor Theory and critical discourse analysis. Chapter five highlights the implications of this analytical model for the investigation of translation of news report in newspapers. The general conclusion summarises the research findings and presents conclusions and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER I

Metaphor: Theoretical Framework

1.1 Introduction

The exploration of metaphor has increased dramatically in recent years. Much of research on the issue revolves around what metaphor is and how it works. There is no clear consensus among researchers about the essential components of a formal definition of metaphor. Scholars with diverse perspectives and interests across disciplines have produced many different views. The scope of this research does not allow for an in-depth review of all existing views. Main views are reviewed for relevance for analyzing metaphor in business discourse. The chapter begins with examination of the dictionary meanings of the word *metaphor* and emphasizes the importance of context for its identifying, then provides a comprehensive background into views of metaphor as studied by leaders in the field. A brief overview of the main views is conducted and evaluated according to insights provided by the current literature. The review incorporates semantic views and pragmatic views, each emphasize different aspects of metaphor. The semantic views would claim that a metaphor is determined by the meaning of the words making up the metaphorical statements. Some linguists argue that semantics cannot provide an adequate account of metaphor because of its concern with meaning out of context. The pragmatic views would claim, instead, that a metaphorical interpretation is context-driven. A long with this review, I will address the major concepts relevant to the issue concerning the linguistic identification of metaphor.

1.2 Defining Metaphor

The word *metaphor* has its origin in classical Greek *metaphorà*, and means "a transfer, especially in meaning, from one word to another". According to *The Cambridge Encyclopedia* (1990), the word metaphor comes from the Greek verb *metaphérein* which means "to transfer something" or "to carry over". It is composed of meta—"over, across" and phérein "carry, bear". *The Concise Oxford Dictionary* defines metaphor as: "application of name or descriptive term to

an object to which it is not literary applicable" (1959:748). *The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary* defines the term metaphor: "the figure of speech in which a name or descriptive term is transferred to some object to which it is not properly applicable." (1998: 875). According to *Webster's Third New International Dictionary* metaphor is "a figure of speech in which a word or a phrase denoting one kind of object or action is used in place of another to suggest a likeness or analogy between them" (1981: 1420). *The American Heritage Dictionary*, Second College Edition defines metaphor as "a figure of speech in which a term is transferred from the object it ordinarily designates to an object it may designate only by implicit comparison or analogy" (1982, 790). Theorists throughout many centuries have attempted to define general rules for the transfer in meaning in metaphors.

Definitions of metaphor in dictionaries have been criticized on a number of grounds. They are often criticized, first, for being too general and in a more restricted sense, and second, for ignoring the potential for speakers to use words as bears of meanings that reflect their intentions (John R Searle in Andrew Ortony 1993; Paul Grice 1967). Linguistic meaning has a privileged position in dictionaries based on the claim that it is the only type of meaning amenable to scientific treatment. Dictionary definitions of metaphor can be criticized for not taking the cognitive, pragmatic or rhetoric aspects of metaphorical use of language. They cannot provide us with an adequate definition. In order to define metaphor more adequately, we must acknowledge that it is a relative rather than an absolute concept for words can change their meanings and acquire different connotations. So, words which once formed a metaphorical utterance may, if the metaphor dies into literalness, come to convey a literal truth, i.e., a word can begin life as a metaphor and become a literal usage. It is also worth noting that metaphor awareness might partly depend on language users, that is, on their experience of language. What is intended as a metaphor may not be interpreted as one. The conveyed interpretations may not congruent with the intended interpretations. To illustrate the point, Rosamund Moon (1998: 248) provides a good example which is the proverb "A rolling stone gathers no moss" which can have

two standard interpretations (a person on the move remains young) and (a person on the move remains poor). The idea then is that there may be many interpretations as to what counts as a metaphor, and also many interpretations as to what it means. Dictionaries, therefore, partially define what metaphor is. Charteris-Black (2004: 20-21) argues that the definition of metaphor needs to include not only linguistic but also pragmatic and cognitive criteria.

1.3 Views of Metaphor

Linguistic research on metaphor tends to fall into two broad categories: there are researchers who view metaphor as a semantic phenomenon—a matter of meaning, and those who view metaphor as a pragmatic occurrence—belonging to the domain of use.

1.3.1 Semantic Approaches to Metaphor

1.3.1.1 The Substitution View

The substitution view of metaphor places the locus of metaphorical meaning on a single word, so that metaphor is simply the substitution of one word for another. The view draws on the assumptions first, that literal language is "normal" or proper, and second, that metaphor involves the exchange of words (Kevin J. Vanhouzer, 1990: 63). This view is the most ancient and least complex theory that attempts to describe how metaphors work. It indicates that a metaphorical expression is used in place of a literal expression. Max Black explains this by indicating that a metaphorical interpretation of a word is used to communicate a meaning that could be expressed literally. Consider Black's example "the chairman ploughed through the discussion," where the word "ploughed" is used as a substitute for some other literal. Here the word "ploughed" is used metaphorically as a substitute for saying "the chairman dealt ruthlessly with objections." In this account the meaning of metaphor is defined in terms of a substitution, which is just a literal equivalent: A can be substituted by B. For the substitution to work, "B" must have some qualities, which are also attributed to "C". In the substitution view, metaphor is merely decorative or rhetorical (aiming at emotive effects).

According to the substitution view, Ricoeur in his *The Rule of Metaphor* states that "the making of metaphor requires the productive imagination of a poetic genius because 'to metaphorize well,' is 'to see resemblance,' 'to see the similar in the dissimilar,' or not merely to 'see' but 'to see as' " (Paul Ricoeur, 1978: 25). Understanding a metaphor, according to such a view, Max Black assumes, is "like deciphering a code or unraveling a riddle" (1962: 177). Thus, this theory considers that it is the hearers' task to guess and figure out the meaning of the metaphor. For example, "to plow" in the sentence "the chairman plowed through the discussion" is a metaphor which may convey different meanings and the hearer has to decipher a meaning. Metaphor is thus indeed more than a mere substitution or ornamentation of speech.

While The Substitution Theory is very simple to postulate, it has some serious limitations. Cornell Way (1991: 34) indicates that this view regards metaphor a decorative device belonging to the sphere of rhetorics. This means that the substitution of a literal term by a metaphorical one is for ornamentation. Besides the reaction of Eileen Cornell Way towards the substitution view, it is also woth noting that such a view failed both in theory and practice to thoroughly explain how people decipher meaning from metaphoric expressions. Furthermore, it does not provide enough detail to account how the metaphoric process of substitution works.

1.3.1.2 The Comparison View

One of the most pervasive views of metaphor is known as the comparison view, which portrays metaphor as a comparison based on similarity. In Kövecses′s definition, "metaphor is a figure of speech in which one thing is compared to another by saying that one is the other" (Kövecses, 2002: vii). This view is open to criticism on formal and methodological grounds. Van der Merwe (1983: 207), for example, indicates that the comparison view also places the locus of metaphorical meaning on the word, and sees the theory presupposes comparison and transfer. For as Alfred I. Tauber (1996: 137) succinctly puts it: "by metaphor I do mean simply a comparison, either by abstraction or by homonymy." Metaphor in such view then is actually a

substitute for a simile. Thus, most modern linguists acknowledge that the substitution view falls short in its ability to provide interpretive value to metaphorical expressions.

In the comparison view, a metaphor is used to express a comparison or similarity between two items. Cornell Way (1991: 34) indicates that this view is more sophisticated in many ways than the substitution. The comparison view holds that metaphor is not a mere substitution of a literal term for one which is metaphorical. Instead, the comparison view implies a more active mode of cognition than the substitution. Max Black (1962) points out that the theory consists of "the presentation of the underlying analogy or similarity". Mogens Stiller Kjärgaard also points out that "in metaphors of the type A is B as expressing an underlying analogy or similarity can be described collectively as representative of the comparison theory [...]" (1986: 97).

The comparison of similarities between two unlike objects in the context of the users' familiar experience is to facilitate understanding. In order to illustrate the comparison approach to metaphor let us now consider a good example from L David Ritchie (2013:4). Ritchie's example is Obama's phrase "the original sin of slavery" in which the phrase "original sin" is a very strong metaphor as it compares America's stain of slavery to Adam and Eve's of disobedience to God in Genesis.

The Comparison Theory states that the comparison is symmetrical i.e., similarity between the tenor and vehicle is a prerequisite for a metaphor. This means A and B are strongly connected if they are exchanged by symmetry. Accordingly, in the statement (from my corpus data) "the global financial plague is poised to return" a financial crisis is a plague should convey the same meaning as "a plague is a financial crisis", but obviously, it does not.

The Comparison Theory fails since it cannot wholly account for all metaphors and explain the asymmetry of many metaphors. Zdravco Radman claims that "the comparison theory, though implying a more active mode of cognition than the simple substitution theory, fails to identify the most interesting sort of metaphors" (1995: 290). The philosopher of language John Searle (1979: 85) also responds to the comparison view. He argues that similarity is not a

necessary condition for a statement to be a metaphor. He exemplifies this with the statement: "Richards is a gorilla". Let us assume that this statement is about Richard who is fierce, nasty, prone to violence, and so forth. The word "gorilla" in the statement, Searl reports, is ill suited since gorillas are not in fact rough, fierce, and violent. This metaphor relies on cultural stereotypes regarding the gorilla*'s* behavior. John Searle does not deny that similarity is important to understand a metaphor. However, arguing against symmetry, Searle also gives the example "Sally is a block of ice". This metaphor attributes to the subject "Sally", being emotionally unresponsive or unemotional (Searle, 979: 95). So "Sally" is only like something that is hard and cold. Searle also argues that it is possible to compare two concepts that may not necessary share attributes. He gives the sentence "Sally is a dragon" does not entail the literal existence of a real dragon, and therefore the sentence does not assert a similarity between Sally and a dragon. In the metaphor "the heart of economy", there is not a real organ that is owned by economy. Therefore, the comparison view does not provide a proper explanation of the metaphor in such cases.

Tourangeau and Stenberg (1982) also criticize the Comparison Theory and point out that the comparison view cannot explain metaphors where the tenor is completely unknown or nonexistent. They explained this with the sentence: "Donald Leavis is the George Wallace of Northen Ireland" in which Donald Leavis is a fictitious person. It is a tenor that has no known features to share with the vehicle George Wallace. Therefore, critics argue that if one referent is unkown then the comparison view cannot explain the literal comparison based on similaties of the two referents. Based on this criticism, the definition of metaphor has been revised. Metaphors, unlike analogies, involve asymmetrical relationships between tenor and vehicle.

1.3.1.3 The Interaction View

A new perception of metaphor and its role in language could be seen in I. A. Richards' book *The Philosophy of Rhetoric*, published in 1936. Richards defines metaphor as "two thoughts of

different things active together and supported by a single word, or phrase, whose meaning is a resultant of of their interaction" (1936: 93). He established a set of foundational concepts for the theory of language and metaphor, which has inspired a generation of philosophers and thinkers and continue to influence contemporary metaphor studies. He addresses, in this seminal book, the relation of context to verbal interaction and was one of the first people to consider the relation between metaphor and thought. He states that "the rest of the discourse" around the metaphor will provide "hints" as to which interpretation, of many, is appropriate for a given metaphor (Richards, 1936:126). That is for Richard, a metaphor only functions as metaphor within its context. The context of a metaphor limits the interpretation and provides the ability of interpreting the intended meaning. Richards also argues that metaphor is "the omnipresent principle of language and of thought" (1936: 92). He states "In the simplest formulation, when we use a metaphor we have two thoughts of different things active together and supported by a single word or phrase, whose meaning is a resultant of their interaction" (Richards, 1936: 93).

I. A. Richards' book *The Philosophy of Rhetoric* is, without a doubt, amongst the most important sources of many pivotal works of 20th and 21st centuries. Lakoff and Johnson have clearly been influenced by Richard's views and have developed the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (1980) where they claim that metaphors reflect people's thought and experience in everyday life. However, Lakoff and Johnson, as Ning Yu (1998) notes, have pushed the argument further ahead. A. Richards (1936) introduced the terms *tenor* and *vehicle* and the relationship between the two, and *the ground* to refer to respectively the subject and the metaphorical term. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) employ the terms *target* and *source* and the relationship between the two, *the mapping*. The Lakoffian theory of metaphor will be discussed in more detail later in this research . It is also worth noting that Max Black's theory (1962) is an extension of Richards' interaction view.

Despite the fact that Richards advances the study of metaphor, he remains vague when it comes to a more detailed explication of the notion of interaction. This notion has other

perspectives in Max Black's theory. Black attempts to fill the gaps left by Richards, by systematically developing his own account of the interaction theory and proposes to classify metaphors as instances of substitution, comparison, or interaction. These theories view metaphor as part of a semantic account of language and not syntax. Black in his turn also introduced his own labels and divided metaphor in two parts: the literal primary subject (similar to Richards's tenor), and the metaphoric secondary subject (which would correspond to Richard's vehicle). In his article *Metaphor* Black defines what he means by metaphor which sometimes, he says, "is being a species of catachresis, which I shall define as the use of a word in some new sense in order to remedy a gap in the vocabulary" (1962: 33).

This view won general acceptance and was subsequently developed by the philosopher Max Black (1962). The interaction theory, proposed by Black (1962; 1979) states that metaphorical meaning is a result of an interaction between a metaphorical expression, he terms *focus* and its surrounding *literal frame* (Black, 1979: 27). The focus of a metaphorical statement refers to the word or words which are used non-literary. The frame refers to the rest of the sentence (which is understood literally). Thus, in the example Blacks gives, "the chairman plowed through the discussion." The word "plowed" is *the focus* while the rest of the sentence constitutes *the frame*. Note that in Black's view it is the combination of both focus and frame which constitutes a metaphor, for (as he writes) "the presence of one frame can result in metaphorical use of the complementary word, while the presence of a different frame for the same word fails to result in a metaphor" (Black, 1979: 27). To take the example Black himself gives "the chairman plowed through the discussion", the focus of the metaphor is the word "plowed" while its frame is the rest of the sentence. In this case we may say that a certain tension between the focus and the form indicates that what we have here is a metaphorical use of the word "plowed". In a different frame, for instance in the sentence "the farmer plowed the field" that tension is absent and the word "plowed" is no longer used metaphorically.

Black's distinction between *focus* and *form* may therefore be regarded as another way of drawing attention to the point made by Richards, namely that metaphor is the result of the interaction of words. It is the result of the use of a word within a particular context. The implication is that careful attention must be paid to the context in the analysis of any metaphorical term. It is the context (the frame) which will determine whether or not a particular word may be described as metaphor.

A metaphorical statement has both a *principal* and a *subsidiary* subject. The principal and subsidiary subjects of a metaphor interact to create new meaning. In a later article Black changes the terminology and uses *primary* and *secondary* subject. Richard's terminology dubbed the principal subject a *tenor* and the secondary a *vehicle*. The secondary subject projects what Black calls of associated implications on the primary subject. Both subjects share a system of commonplaces which are associated with the terms employed. The associated ideas of the secondary subject work as a *filter* because it "selects, emphasizes, suppresses, and organizes features on the primary subject" (Black 1993: 28). The hearer (or reader) selects some of the associations of the secondary subject, and interprets the metaphorical statements by constructing a similar meaning that may fit in the primary subject. It is in this way that Black uses the term filter to explain how the target word or phrase of a metaphor acquires meaning (Irene E. Riegner, 2009: 7). The *filter* is the text surrounding the target word or phrase. It functions to introduce or highlight certain features of the target word and to suppress other features. The literary environment provides the source words for filter. The source, the literary environment, accentuates and directs our understanding of the target used by creating new ways in which to comprehend the target and ultimately the world. Cornell Way (1991: 50) indicates that Max Black uses the notion of *filter* without defining or explaining how it works in the metaphor process.

Black uses many examples to develop his theory of metaphor, one of which is "man is a wolf". One does not need to know the dictionary definition of "wolf" in order to understand the

expression; but one simply needs to be aware of the various characteristics, or related commonplaces of a wolf. A wolf preys upon other animals, is a fierce, a sea verger, etc. the individual who is called a wolf bears some of these traits. Not every trait of a wolf can be associated with a man, for the metaphor acts as a filter by suppressing some details and emphasizing others. When a person calls someone else a wolf, the speaker likely does not mean that the person literally has sharp teeth used for killing prey. The interaction between the primary and secondary subjects results in both the speaker and the hearer engaging, selecting, organizing, and projecting. In a way, interaction takes place both in this the verbal construct between ideas represented by words as well as in the process of communication between the sender and receiver of the metaphor.

The interactive model argues that metaphors have a cognitive and not merely emotive or decorative function. Black begins his work by rejecting what he calls the substitution view of metaphorical meaning which he describes as "any view which holds that a metaphorical expression is used in place of some equivalent literal expression" (Black, 1962: 31). So, no one can afford to ignore that metaphors can convey knowledge the content of which cannot be achieved in a literal form (substitution for) the metaphor. In other words, metaphor cannot be reduced to some literal equivalent.

Black was criticized by Soskice (1985: 41—42) for his failure to explain adequately how the filtering of meaning between the two subjects works. Cornell Way (1991: 44) again observes that Max Black does not specify how the associated implications are structured and interact with each other. Max Black in *More about Metaphor* (1977) cleared up this partial confusion in his theory and says that between primary and secondary subjects, or more precisely between the two implication complexes, an isomorphism of structure (or pattern of relationships) is established. Hence every metaphor may be said to mediate an analogy or structural correspondences Zdravko Radman (1985: 292). This view provides an answer to the question of how filtering may be

controlled. What is surprising is that it sounds close to the comparison model which he had earlier rejected.

Cornell Way puts forward that despite the criticisms, the interaction view has been, in one form or another, the most widely accepted and influential view of metaphor (Cornell Way, 1991: 50). The interaction view is concerned with the overcoming or at least minimizing the major defects of the substitution and comparison views. It is a view which brings out the creative dimensions of metaphorical thought and provides an important framework for investigations.

1.3.1.4 The Salient-Imbalance View

Ortony's Salient-Imbalance view (1979) represents a significant shift in focus and a new direction of investigation into the fundamentals of metaphor theory. His view is based on the imbalance similarity between the attributes of the two terms of a metaphorical expression. The relation between tenor and vehicle is based on the notion of salience (and salience imbalance), not comparison or similarity. Andrew Ortony argues that metaphors involve mapping a salient feature of the vehicle to a low salient feature of the tenor. He says that a metaphorical expression of the type "A is B" is understood by constructing the ground (i.e., the set of shared attributes) by selecting only those attributes that have low salience for the target (=tenor) and high salience for the base (=vehicle) (P. Soporo, 1999: 46). In other words, when statements link elements that share properties of high salience to the second term but of low salience to the first term, a metaphor is born. A lot of studies have confirmed the utility of this approach (e.g. Walters and Wolf 1992; Walters 2005). The sentence "encyclopedias are gold mines" cited in (Walters and Wolf 1992) manipulates different parts of a metaphor. According to Wolters and Wolf, this sentence would be interpreted according to the low salience of the first term, and the high salience of the second term. It is understood by choosing for the ground attributes—possessions. The shared attributes "valuable nuggets" and "dig" in "encyclopedias are gold mines" have a high salience for gold mines and a low salience for encyclopedias. Statements such as

"encyclopedias are goldmines" are not just asymmetric but also irreversible. Encyclopedias can be goldmines, but goldmines cannot be encyclopedias. If the two terms are reversed, then a different set of the shared attributes would be chosen, because the attributes that would be highly salient for encyclopedias would be different. The features "valuable nuggets" and "dig" are stereotypically significant for and hence a highly salient of goldmines but not of encyclopedias.

To distinguish the literal from the metaphorical in statements, Ortony (1979) differentiates many types of mapping relations: one-to-one-mappings (tenor and vehicle have isomorphic features), many-to-one, and one to-many. These types of mapping are well summarized by H. H Wang & J H. Chan, 2010: 97) in the following way: If the common feature salience is both high in the target and source objects, the similarity is literal (e.g., billboards are placards) . The two objects may be almost identical, or one of the objects is obviously the explanation of the other. On the contrary, if it is both low in the target object and source object, similarity is unexpected because such a resemblance is too trivial (e.g., life is death!). If the salience is high in the source object, but low in the target object, the similarity is metaphorical (e.g., her eyes were diamonds). In contrast, if the salience is low in the source object, but high in the target object, it is called reversed metaphorical similarity (e.g., diamonds were her eyes). So what distinguishes metaphor from literal similarity is an asymmetry in the salience of the features that are shared between the target object and the source object.

Ortony uses the labels *target object* and *source object* which are equivalent to Richards' terminology *tenor* and *vehicle*.

Ortony's Salient Imbalance Theory is based on Tversky's (1977) Contrast Theory. It has contributed to developing cognitive linguistic view of metaphor and its symmetry-asymmetry issue is a step forward in accounting for the nature of metaphorical mapping. However, recently, many theorists have criticized this salience imbalance view of metaphor (Gibbs 1994, Glucksberg & Keysar, 1990; Shen, 1982, 1992). They argue that the symmetry and asymmetry distinction in comparative statements does not always distinguish the literal from the

metaphorical in the statements. Raymond W. Gibbs (1994: 241) observes that both types of comparison exhibit symmetric and asymmetric relations. Cornell Way (1991: 156) also reports that the Salient Imbalace Theory fails to explain why and how some features in the metaphor become prominent than others. After Orthony's Salient's-Imbalance Theory, Gentner (1988) tried to account for the unsolved problems in Black's and Orthony's views. She proposes a theoretical framework for metaphors which she calls the Structure-Mapping.

1.3.1.5 The Structure-Mapping View

The Structure-Mapping view (Gentner, 1983; Gentner and Bowdle, 2001) is based on the process of analogy. Gentner argues that metaphors rely on underlying analogies. Analogical reasoning, Dedre Gentner states, is "a mapping of knowledge from one domain (the base) into another (the target) which conveys that a system of relations that holds among the base objects also holds among the target objects" (Gentner, 1983: 48). He explains metaphors in terms of an analogy, where the base domain is mapped structurally onto a target domain. The terms *target domain* and *base domain* are two important terms introduced to metaphor theory by Gentner. They are the equivalence to Richard's vehicle and tenor concepts. The structure mapping view of metaphor has received wide attention in the recent theory of metaphor. It subtly differs from the comparison view in so far as a metaphor does not depend on the overall feature matching, since not all features are equally important in the interpretation of the metaphor. Only a limited number of elements from base and target are mapped, and no element of one domain is mapped onto more than one element of the other. Dedre Gentner (2001 :202) illustrate the Structure-Mapping processes with the metaphor "men are wolves." for which we consider features and dimensions that apply to the topic "men" in that are parallel to those applying to the vehicle "wolves". In this metaphor, the shared relation between target and base is that they both prey on other entities. The author also exemplifies this statement by means of the following sentence: "Brezhnew is a hawk" This metaphor specifies an implicit mapping from the domain of birds (base domain) to the domain of politicians (target domain). This means that the metaphor is

constructed by an analogy between a politician and a hawk. Brezhew's is a politician who is aggressive and focused akin to a hawk. Gentner provides formulas for determining the mapping between domain and target.

She goes further than this and proposes two mapping principals to describe how objects in the source and target domains should be matched. The first principle states that the relation between objects rather than the attributes to these objects are mapped from the base (vehicle) to the target (tenor). The second principle, which is part of the mapping process, contends that the particular relation is determined by systimaticity i.e., making analogies structures are aligned as wholes, as "interconnected systems of relations". Her structure mapping view indicates that the relational structure of the base domain, which is the source of knowledge, is transferred to the target domain. Note that only the relations that are highly interconnected will form a system of connected knowledge. The structure mapping of Gentner is based on establishing isomorphism. "The function f_M is complete if the range of f_M includes the entire source and the domain of f_M includes the entire topic," (J. Hintika (1994 :61). Hence, the best structure mappings are those that approximate an isomorphism.

The central theoretical issue which is the determination of which properties are to be selected for the comparison still remains open in The Structure-Mapping Theory. Moreover, Cornell Way (1991: 144) indicates that this approach, basing itself on the semantic principle, has not specified the mechanisms that link the base to the target, but it only describes metaphor as a product. Gentner was also criticized for the relatively less importance he gave to content. She states: "this discussion is purely structural; the distinctions invoked rely on the syntax of the knowledge presentation, not on the content" (Gentner 1983: 158). The fact that The Structure-Mapping Theory does not consider the content of the domains that form the metaphor is a major limitation, especially because recent research has shown the study of syntax should include content. Metaphor cannot be understood without analyzing the content of the metaphor components and consideration of the interplay of contents and syntax.

In response to the shortcomings of previous metaphorviews, Glucksberg & Keysar (1990) have attempted to provide an alternative view in which they treat metaphor not as a comparison but as a class-inclusion assertion, that is as a categorization. The view is labeled Class Inclusion.

1.3.1.6 The Class Inclusion View

Sam Glucksberg and Boaz Keysar (1990) have advanced a view that states that metaphors are class inclusion statements. The view does not involve mappings, and is therefore obviously not concerned with parallelism. They claim: "understanding similarity is not central to understanding metaphor. The central problem is to understand categorization," (Glucksberg and Keysar 1990: 17). Glusberg and Keysar's categorization theory of metaphor claims that the topic is a member of a category represented by the vehicle. The class-inclusion assertion explores the idea that metaphors can be understood as categorization statements. A category includes items that share with its members some properties. For the category of "birds", for example, a creature must have feathers and a beak and must be able to fly. A prototype is "the category member exhibiting the highest number of attributes shared by all or most members of the category and no or few attributes in common with members of neighboring categories" (A. Barcelona (2009: 366). It is the member whose attributes are more salient or representatives of a category. Metaphor is graded categories that includes members that do not necessary share all of the features of prototypical members. They provide the example "My job is a jail." where job is the target and jail is the vehicle. The intended meaning of this metaphor is understood by assigning the target of the metaphor (my job) to the category of which jail is the prototypical example of any situation that is unpleasant and confining. Glucksberg and Keysar also point out that category relations are more structured than simple comparisons, so that the statement "My job is a jail" has a stronger claim and is quite a bit stronger than "My job is like a jail" in form. They argue metaphors are not understood by contrasting them into similes. Gibbs (2008: 80) also points that similes may not have the same meaning as their corresponding metaphors. For the metaphor "My job is a jail", Keith James Holyoak states, is "an invitation to conceive of a category that

embraces both my job and jails, while the simile only implies that my job has some similarity to the specific concept of a jail" (1996 :221). As metaphors are better understood as class-inclusion and via categorization processes, it is important to understand categorization of the term that forms the metaphor. Without understanding the categorization of jail, for example, we would not be able to understand this metaphor.

Glucksberg and Keysar (1990) think that metaphors are class-including relations and they are means for categorization; therefore, a source domain and a target domain of a metaphor are not reversible. The statement "trees are plants" is false or anomalous when it is reversed to "plants are trees". Another example Glucksberg (1990) uses: "Sermons are sleeping pills" which makes sense, but "Sleeping pills are sermons" does not. The relationship between the target and the source is asymmetrical in their mappings because they do not keep the same meaning if they are reversed. Metaphors work in only one direction.

Class inclusion view is an important progress forward in the theory of metaphors to show that metaphor processing does not involve identifying similarities but instead involves treating metaphors as class-inclusion statements. However, it has been frequently critiqued for giving insufficient attention to identify the properties of the base that are to be attributed to the target. In other words, Glucksberg and Keysar do not specify precisely the properties included in the base that stand in definite relations to the target. The attributive categorization view discusses this unsolved issue which is at the forefront of metaphor theory and of noise research.

1.3.1.7 The Attributive Categorization View

S.Glucksberg, M. McGlone, and D. Manfredi in their seminal article *Property attribution in metaphor comprehension* (1997) explained metaphor in terms of a property attribution process which involves the selection of one or more properties from the vehicle applied to the topic. They provide examples and thoroughly explain how the topic and vehicle interact in order to convey the metaphoric meaning. Referring to the sentence from S. Glucksberg and his

colleagues's article, "Sam is a pig" the attributive categorization view would try to explain which properties of pig (super ordinate) should be selected as to represent Sam in order to understand the metaphor. In a metaphor which portrays business as a battle field such as "Business is a combat." the metaphoric vehicle "combat" transfers its attributions to the topic of "business". The vehicle "battle" provides various properties for the attributions. In metaphor theory, the relevant properties associated with this vehicle form a super ordinate category. The category in this case is the class of "battle against and survive acts". Businessmen hurl into battles for commercial survival. If a person hears or reads the sentence "Trade is a battle," he understands "battle" as referring to the subordinate category that includes "trade" as a member. It is also important to note that particular attributions of the vehicle are irrelevant and inappropriate to the topic. For example, self-sacrifice and bravery in battle are not relevant to the topic "trade", and furthermore, that aspect must be inhebited. It is worth noting that inhibition is important in the interpretation of metaphor. Metaphors facilitate thinking. The metaphor "Trade is battle" illuminates the conception of many people about what is, and should be, done in business.

It is important to note that culture might figure in the way the vehicle is similar to the topic i.e., the selection of properties from the vehicle applied to the topic. Referring again to the expression "Sam is a pig", "pig" here serves to convey a certain semantic content other than its own meaning. It is likely to transfer properties to "Sam" that are culturally associated with "pigs". The Arab culture, for example, is a culture that abhorred "pigs". They are considered unclean, avaricious, and dangerous. Therefore, we should not only focus on the actual properties of a metaphor but also its culturally relevant properties. For John R Searle (1979), metaphor involves a discrepancy between sentence meaning and speakers' utterance meaning, and the meaning of the metaphor is ascribed to the level of speaker's meaning. According to him, in a metaphoric expression the speaker expresses the thought that S is P and the hearer has to understand the meaning as S is R, where R is the speaker's intended meaning.

Thus, metaphors require knowledge of their cultural context for proper understanding. While there are many available views that stress the importance of context in a semantic organization most researchers take Kittay's semantic field theory as the main interpretive tool to analyze metaphors in discourse.

1.3.1.8 Semantic Fields and the Structure of Metaphor

Semantic Field Theory claims that words are structured into a set of semantic fields. It has had long history in Germany. One of the first linguists to develop semantic field theory was Jost Trier in 1931. This theory has been promoted in English-speaking world above all by John Lyons (1968) and Andrien Leherer (1974). Semantic field Theory claims that words are structured into a set of semantic fields. A semantic field, broadly speaking, is a group of words which share some kind of a relationship. Andrienne Leherer introduces the following definition of a semantic field: "A semantic field is a set of lexemes which cover a certain conceptual domain and which bear certain specifiable relations to one another" (1985: 285). There are several different types of lexical relations which can be analyzed in a semantic field. Each field constitutes a part of the whole of a language's lexicon—inventory. Andrienne Lehrer (1992) points out the ways that field theory contributes a tool for understanding and comparing the lexical inventories of languages. The final aim of field theory is to describe the relations between the members of a field more precisely than has been done in dictionaries (Dieter Kastovsky, 1986: 135).

Semantic Field Theory provides many ways to study the relationships which lexemes hold one to another. In the past few decades a number of technical terms have evolved to name relationships among classes and subclasses; these include, *hyponymy*, *antonymy*, *hyperonymy*, *troponymy*, and *meronymy*. The term *hyponymy* is the relationship of inclusion of the different words in a set under a word that stands for some features of meaning common to the entire set. This word is called *the superordinate* (T.C. Baruah, 1991: 138). For example 'pineapple', 'pear', 'grape', and 'banana' are all hyponyms of the hypernym [FRUIT]*;* 'pansy', 'lupin' and 'dahlia'

are all hyponyms of the superordinate [FLOWER]; 'horse' is a hyponym of [ANIMAL], or 'cockroach' is a hyponym of [INSECT]. Words that share the same superordinate term are co-hyponyms. George Yule (1996: 120) notes that it is not only words for "things" that are hyponyms but also terms for "actions". To illustrate he cites the superordinate term [INJURE] and its co-hyponym 'cut', 'punch', 'shoot', and 'stab'. The term *antonym*, in turn, is defined as "an opposition of senses*"* (Geoffrey N. Leech 1974: 90). Eva Feder Kittay defines antonymy relations in the following words "Antony relations involve different kinds of opposition of meaning. In antonomy properly so called, the assertion of one antonomous term implies the denial of the other but not vice versa," (1987: 241). In this context, she gives a plausible and comprehensible example: "good" and "bad" are gradable. The expression "John is good" implies "John is not bad"*,* but "John is not bad" does not always imply "John is good".

As far as verbs are concerned, membership in semantic classes can be based on a relation called *troponymy* by Fellbaum Christiane (1998b: 79), i.e. one verb denotes a particular way of doing something expressed by another verb. Thus, for example, some of the troponyms of the verb [FIGHT] are 'battle', 'duel', 'feud', 'joust', 'tourney', and 'war'. For example, 'swipe', 'sock', 'smack', and 'tap' are troponyms of [HIT], because they refer to particular ways of hitting that are distinguished according to the degree of force with which someone hits someone or something, the troponyms of [ARRIVE] are: 'land', 'reach', 'flood', 'drive', 'come in', 'light', 'perch', 'force-land', 'beach', 'disembark' (Inderjeet Mani et al, 2012: 20). The meaning of terms is also a function, in part, of the words with which they can collocate. The term *collocation*, as is well known, was first coined in its modern linguistic sense by the British linguist J.R. Firth. Collocation is essentially the study of the syntagmatic relations that hold between words. For Firth, an essential aspect of the meaning of a word is "the company it keeps" (Frank Robert Palmer 1968: 179).

The nature of these semantic relationships, within which discourse arrives at its central meanings, is of considerable interest in identifying linguistic metaphors in discourse. To

understand lexical meaning, as Andrienne Lehrer (1985: 283) claim, it is necessary to look at set of semantically related words, not simply at each word in isolation. Accordingly, understanding metaphors requires recognizing that a label functions not in isolation but as belonging to a "family" for we usually categorize by sets of alternatives. Kittay (1987: 33) defines metaphor as follows:

> Metaphorical transfers of meaning are transfers from the field of the vehicle to the field of the topic of the relations of affinity and opposition that the vehicle term(s) bears to other terms in its field. More precisely, in metaphor what is transferred are the relations which pertain within one semantic field to a second, distinct content domain. That, in short, is how I characterize metaphor.
>
> (F. Kittay, 1987: 33)

Kittay and Lehrer's view of metaphor worked out within Semantic field framework. They argue that it is only in a sentence that we can tell whether a given word is used literally or metaphorically and propose that the unit of metaphor is not a word or a sentence, but a semantic field: "...in metaphor two otherwise unrelated conceptual domains are brought into contact in a manner "specifiable through the use of the linguistic notion of a sentence field" (1982: 31). Their view has its root in the interactive theory of metaphor in which the major claim is that meanings are constructed through lexical relations. It is worth noting here that their theory of semantic fields is an adaptation of what Goodman (1968: 71-72) referred to as "family of labels". Metaphor, Kittay and Lehrer claim, involves a transfer of relations across semantic fields or cross from one conceptual domain to another. They define a semantic field, a notion based on de Saussure's and Bally's earlier concepts, as "a set of lexemes which cover a certain conceptual domain and which bear certain specific relations [paradigmatic or syntagmatic] to one another" (1982: 32). Paradigmatic relations, such as synonymy, hyponymy, meronymy, antonymy and the like exist among terms that substitute for one another in a well-formed syntactic string. Syntagmatic relations hold between words that collocate in a grammatical string and that have

semantic relations (A. Lehrer et al, 2012: 5). Benjamin A. Forman (2011: 11) notes that the set of lexemes or labels in a semantic field may have a paradigmatic relation of affinity (synonymy, hyponymy), or a paradigmatic contrastive relation (incompatibility, antynomous, complementary, converse).

According to E.F. Kittay, "when we use, or apply, any one expression metaphorically, what is transferred are the relations which pertain within one semantic field to a second, distinct content domain" (1987: 36). She introduces this notion with the help of the following example:

> If, for example, I say of basketball player that her playing is 'hot' in this game, 'hot' is the vehicle, and its semantic field is the field of temperatureterms, the domain of the topic is athletics. Hot and cold are graded antonyms in the temperative filed; when they are transferred to sports, we can construe a hot player as one who plays well and scores, while a cold player does not.
>
> (F. Kittay, 1987: 36-37)

The points indicated in Kittay's example are the view that metaphors are dependent on features of context for identification and construal. It is also worth noting that Kittay's approach to metaphor depends on a distinction between first and second-order meaning. A first-order interpretation of an utterance is derived from a valid combination of the first-order meanings of its constituents. Second-order interpretation is a function of first-order interpretation and expresses the intuitive fact that what has to be communicated is not what is indicated by the utterance's literal meaning. Metaphorical meaning is *second-order meaning*. Meaning has a second order when elements of the context indicate that a first order meaning either is not available or that a first order interpretation is not appropriate given the usual conversational conventions of the language community. In this connection Kittay refers to Kenneth Burke, who spoke of metaphor as *perspectival incongruity*. Second-order meaning is a violation of our

common sense assumptions about what properly ought to be. Rules of first-order meaning whose violation signals the potential for a second-order

This research explores the implications of these notions for the analysis of metaphors in business discourse. They will help to identify linguistic expressions as being metaphorical by examining the semantic fields involved. Kittay's Semantic Field Theory provides us with a useful tool to interpret metaphors of path, war, and health in business discourse at least in two points. First, her view helps to delineate the terms path, war, and health in terms of the mechanism of metaphor as the transfer of antonymous relations such fields to the domain of socioeconomic system. Secondly, Kittay's model not only put more stress on the context but also gives a more detail account of the context than any other proponents of the cognitive theory. Her theory enables us to view the context at the level of a semantic field wider than the word, phrase or sentence. It also serves to interpret the metaphor in the socio-cultural context as other cognitive theorists do. An investigation of Kittay's approach to metaphor offers a model of how concepts are mentally organized and how we perceive contrasts between them. It offers tools to establish a methodological approach and criteria for the discovery and identification of metaphors in business discourse.

1.3.2 Pragmatic Approaches to Metaphor

Some theorists develop the argument that semantics cannot provide a full account of what metaphor does or is. Many authors (Jerry Sadock, Paul Grice, John Searle, Daniel Sperber, and Dierde Wilson) argue that the patterning of meaning in its semantic pattern is inadequate if not enough additional analysis is given to its pragmatic aspect.To shed light on the role of metaphor we don't need to consider only what words mean semantically when taken out of context but we also have to consider the meaning of speakers or writers when they use words in contexts. Jerrold Sadock (1979) argues that metaphors do not have determinate interpretations and therefore lie beyond the scope of semantics. He suggests that metaphor ought to fall within the

scope of pragmatics. M. Mey (2005) also argues in more detail against the idea of treating metaphor at the semantic level and claims that

> Metaphors embody our activities, the way we socially interact in the world. By the same token, they indicate what value society puts on those activities, in which terms society interprets our actions and towards what goals it allows us to operate.
>
> (M. Mey, 2005: 61)

John Searle has attempted to extend his influential analysis of speech-acts (1969, 1979) to new areas including metaphor and other figurative language. He claims that "metaphorical meaning is always speaker's utterance meaning" (Searle, 1979: 77) and argues that it could best be accounted for by reference to a theory of pragmatics. He points out that "a speaker says S is P but means metaphorically that S is R. Utterance meaning is arrived at by going through literal sentence meaning" (Searle, 1993: 110). His speech act theory has been widely applied to the study of metaphor and has received support from a wide variety of research findings. Researchers argue that one must consider the context of speech act in which a metaphor stands. The pragmatic approach to metaphor also receives strong support from Stephen C. Levinson (1983: 156), who discusses metaphor within the context of conversational implicature and of indirect (non-literal) speech acts.

> A pragmatic approach will be based on the assumption that the metaphorical content of utterances will not be derived by principles of semantic interpretation; rather the semantics will just provide a characterization of the literal meaning or conventional content of the expressions involved, and from this, together with details of the context, the pragmatics will have to provide the metaphorical interpretation.
>
> (Levinson, 1983: 156)

The basis for pragmaticians is the view of metaphor as a violation of Grice's (1975) Maxim of Quality and the investigation of how context impacts interpretation. According to Grice, in producing a metaphor, the speaker says something blatantly false, thus violating one of the maxims of conversation, the first maxim *of* Quality, i.e., "Do not say what you believe to be false" (Grice, 1989: 27). Violating the maxims lead linguistics with its question for meaning to search for whatever interpretation could reconcile the conflict over meaning between what is said and what is meant. Levinson (1983: 159) also argues that the interpretation of metaphor relies on the ability to think analogically. Remembering that analogy is fundamental to cognition; it is the "ability to think about relational patterns" (Gentner and Kokinov, 2001: 2). It is worth noting here that Levinson's view demonstrates the importance of the integration of pragmatic and cognitive views of metaphor.

Research on metaphor from pragmatic perspectives takes metaphor back to the earliest times of rhetoric's long history. At its essence the study of rhetoric focuses on persuasion. Aristotle called the study of rhetoric "an ability, in each particular case, to see the available means of persuasion". In this respect we shall make the remark that the decisive thing in the interpretation of metaphoric utterances is the presupposed speaker intention. This view opened to the pragmatic approach to metaphor the idea that cognitive approach is part of its concerns and ought to be given more detailed with a focus on identifying the propositions that underlie the cognitive basis of metaphors and reveal the communicative intention underlying a metaphoric utterance. It is therefore important to treat semantic and pragmatic properties of an utterance as mutually "two sides of the same coin" as (Charteris-Black, 2004: 11) claims

One of the limitations of metaphor analysis when the cognitive approach is isolated from the pragmatic one is that the only explanation of metaphor motivation is with reference to an underlying experiential basis. This assumes that metaphor use is an unconscious reflex, whereas a pragmatic view argues that speakers use metaphor to persuade by combing the cognitive and linguistic resources at their

disposal. This conscious goal of persuasion need necessary be integrated within a broader cognitive view of metaphor.

(Charteris-Black , 2004: 11)

The basis for this point of view is that the cognitive and discursive aspects of language interact in order to generate meaning in context. Accordingly, metaphor is not a matter of semantics or pragmatics, but of both.

The pragmatic approach to metaphor gives insights into a broad range of issues to include the analysis of the potential and power of metaphorical language in the articulation of point of views, religious thought, and political ideas. Metaphors play a role in influencing our underlying political and social beliefs. They are often effective tools of promoting and broadcasting the basis for an ideology. As Charteris- Black (2005: 198) puts it, "political identity is construed through metaphor." Central to pragmatic approach is to determine the intentions underlying language use and the mental structures underlying world views. In critical discourse studies the pragmatic approach has become central, since, as Eva Feder Kittay (1989: 41) claims "metaphor is not a unit of discourse, but a use of discourse"

The discourse analyst necessarily takes a pragmatic approach to the study of language in use. Charteris- Black is one of the first scholars to make use of the insights of pragmatic and critical discourse approaches to the analysis of metaphors. He has employed conceptual tools introduced by Lakoff and Johnson to the field of discourse analysis and rhetoric to offer a new approach he calls *Critical Metaphor Analysis*. He claims that "critical analysis of metaphor can provide insight into the beliefs, attitudes and feelings of the discourse in which they occur" (Charteris- Black, 2004: 13). In his seminal, Corpus Approaches to Critical Metaphor Analysis (2004), he raises the question of the role metaphors play in persuasion, suggesting that they are ideologically effective because they are cognitively plausible and evoke in many ways emotional responses. His seminal book provides an alternative (better) way to understand metaphors, especially in relation to the construction of world views and ideologies. Semino (2008) argues

A proper understanding of the phenomenon of metaphor in general requires both a consideration of its manifestations and functions in language, images, etc, and a consideration of its general role as a cognitive tool.

(E. Semino, 2008: 217)

From the same perspective, Koller claims that any critical research into metaphor seeks to convey how dominant metaphors come into being, how they are reified in discourse, and what agendas are met by using them (Koller, 2004: 21).

1.4 Functions of Metaphor

Goatly (1997: 148-166) describes the functions of metaphor in discourse following Halliday's (1984) ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions of language. Due to its inherent ambivalence of meaning, Goatly claims, "metaphors fulfill more than one function simultaneously" (1997: 149). Then he cites the following functions:

1. *Explanation and modelling*: metaphor is useful to explain some relatively abstract concept in terms which are more familiar to the hearers.

2. *Reconceptualization*: metaphors are often designed to view experience from a different perspective by categorizing it with unconventional terms (ibid: 124)

3. *Argument by analogy*: metaphors can be used to argue, persuade and demonstrate through analogy.

4. *Ideology, the latent function*: the ways in which metaphors are used to construct reality as a means of maintaining or challenging power relations in society.

5. *Expressing emotional attitude*: metaphors serve to express and transfer emotional attitudes. This, according to Goatly, is one of the major functions of metaphor.

6. *Decoration, disguise and hyperbole* : metaphors "used, as it were, to dress up concepts in pretty, attention-grabbing, or concealing clothes" (ibid 126)

7. *Cultivating intimacy*: metaphors used to cultivate an intimate relationship with others. (e.g., " I open my heart for you"), ("My Heart is a large kingdom ").

8. *Humour and games*: enigmatic metaphors may contribute to any kind of word puzzle or crosswords, (e.g., "What goes on four legs in the morning, two at midday, and three in the evening?").

9. *Metaphorical calls to action for problem-solving*: metaphors can lead to, or be exploited to achieve, actions of various kinds, as in the example "War is a disease" which structures persons' definitions and actions.

10. *Textual structuring*: metaphorical expressions also have an important role within the scheme of the texts that they frame.

11. *Fiction*: it is possible to regard a literary narrative or a fictional film as one whole extended metaphor. (e.g., "*Not Without My Daughter*") is a film that raises patriotism and anti-Muslim feelings.

12. *Enhancing Memorability*: metaphors usually serve to enhance memory, because of their visual nature.

It is worth noting that the function of a metaphor should always be judged within the context in which it is used.

1.4 Conclusion

The chapter charts the developments in views of metaphor, reflecting on how they have shaped the field. There are many research theories that offer different views on how to approach metaphor. They fall broadly into two clusters: semantic and pragmatic views. From a semantic point of view, the meaning of metaphor is independent of context and its semantic interpretation can be derived from the meaning of its words; but from a pragmatic point of view, metaphorical meaning cannot be adequately discussed without resorting to metaphorical use. Pragmatic views

are about new meaning(s) as a product of the interaction between the literal meaning of metaphor and context. This chapter makes the argument that a semantic view of metaphor must always be complemented by a pragmatic one. This entails a focus on the elements "context", "producer", and "receiver". The chapter then summarizes some of the main points of current semantic and pragmatic approaches that make use of the notions of conceptual/discourse metaphors to provide missing parts in traditional semantic views and also sheds light on the functional variability of metaphors whose analysis are mainly located in discourse analysis.

CHAPTER II

Conceptual Metaphor and Discourse

2.1 Introduction

When working with real language data such as news discourse, it is important to consider not just the language but its context. Discourse is "a complex communicative event that also embodies a social context, featuring participants (and their properties) as well as production and reception processes" (van Dijk, 1988: 2). This view maintains that a text does not exist in a vacuum but is produced by someone for someone else in a certain situation and way for a particular purpose. As Ferguson put it: "every utterance is situated in social context, and the form of the utterance represents a choice on the part of the speaker or writer as to the nature of that context" (1983: 154). Research on discourse suggests that situations provide rich source for investigating the function and dynamics of metaphor. The bulk of this chapter is concerned with the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (or CMT) and its implications for the analysis of discourse. It is only in the last few years that a highly productive space has been created for cognitive theory of metaphor inside discourse analysis (Charteris-Black 2004, Koller 2004, Musolff 2004, 2006). Contemporary theories of metaphor avoid reducing metaphor to language alone and include the human mind and culture in their analysis. The purpose of this chapter is threefold: First, to highlight the contribution of cognitive metaphor theory to discourse analysis; second, to explore the role of cognitive metaphor to disclose various ideological dimensions of texts, and third, to discuss implications of such a view of metaphor for questions concerning its cross-linguistic/ cultural variations.

2.2. Conceptual Metaphor

Conceptual Metaphor Theory has developed within the so-called cognitive approach to language. Metaphor in cognitive linguistics is defined as a cognitive mapping (or set of correspondences) across discrete conceptual domains (Lakoff 1994: 43). He uses the term "metaphor" to refer to

"a cross-domain mapping in the conceptual system", and the term "metaphorical expression" to refer to "a linguistic expression (a word, a phrase, or sentence) that is the surface realization of such a cross-domain mapping" (Lakoff, 1993: 203).Within the cognitive approach to metaphor, as is well known, the focus has been on the conceptual rather than the linguistic level of metaphor analysis.

2.2. 1 Lakoff and Johnson's View of Metaphor

For Lakoff and Johnson, metaphor is central to notions of understanding how we conceptualize nearly all aspects of the world. Lakoff and Johnson's theory was stimulated by the work of the linguist Michael Reddy and his seminal paper *The Conduit Metaphor* first published in (1979). In *Metaphors We Live By*, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) state that human conceptual system is metaphorically structured and defined. They claim that

> The most important claim we have made so far is that metaphor is not just a matter of language, that is, of words. We shall argue that, on the contrary, human thought *process*es are largely metaphorical. This is what we mean when we say that the human conceptual system is metaphorically structured and defined. Metaphors as linguistic expressions are possible precisely because there are metaphors in a person's conceptual system.

> (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980: 4-6, emphasis original)

The way in which we actually understand and experience one kind of thing in terms of another is illustrated by the example ARGUMENT IS WAR (Lakoff and Johnson (1980: 4). Lakoff and Johnson use small capital letters to denote metaphorical concepts. This conceptual metaphor is reflected in our everyday language by a variety of metaphorical expressions, such as "Your claims are indefensible", "He attacked every weak point in my argument", "His criticisms were right on target", "I demolished his argument", "I've never won an argument with him", "You disagree? Okay, shoot!", "If you use that strategy, he'll wipe you out", "He shot down all of my arguments". In the conceptual metaphor ARGUMENT IS WAR, the domain of argument is

understood in terms of the domain of war, so the notation of metaphors used by Lakoff and Johnson generally takes the form the source domain [WAR] is the origin or "root" of the target [ARGUMENT] i.e., We imagine something within one domain of experience in terms of something from another domain of experience. When taking part in a reasonable argument that requires judgment and good sense, we set up positions, we attack and defend and retreat, and we end up winning or losing. Of course if the conceptual metaphor is AN ARGUMENT IS A JOURNEY or ARGUMENTS ARE BUILDINGS it leads to a different interpretation than does ARGUMENT IS WAR,

Another by now well-known example is Lakoff and Johnson's account of the metaphor TIME IS MONEY (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980: 7). This metaphor characterizes, according to Lakoff and Johnson, a coherent system of metaphorical concepts and a corresponding coherent system of metaphorical expressions for these concepts. The metaphorical concepts TIME IS MONEY, TIME IS A RESOURCE, TIME IS A VALUABLE COMMODITY form a single system based on sub-categorization relationships which characterize entailment between the metaphors. Money is a limited resource and limited resources are valuable commodities. This conceptual system is reflected in a variety of linguistic expressions in English: "You're wasting my time", "I don't have time to give you", "How do you spend your holiday?" ,"That meeting *costs* me two hours", "He is running out of time" ,"I've invested a lot of time in painting", "Do put aside some time for your paper" ,"Please budget your time reasonably" ,"You should save enough time to do the next project" ,"She lost a lot of time when she was in university" In everyday situations people often think about their time in terms of its cash value. We talk about time in money terms because time is such an abstract concept that it is difficult to express directly. Recall that the metaphor system is not arbitrary, but is also grounded in experience. The metaphor TIME IS MONEY is not arbitrary, but it is rooted in Western culture. Almost all people in Western cultures make use of everyday experience with money to structure and comprehend the abstract concept [TIME]. Since work is typically associated with the time it takes and the time is precisely

quantified, time in Western culture is not only a limited resource but also a precious and valuable commodity just like money.

In fact, all the expressions listed in Lakoff and Johnson's book, such as those just seen, are conventional metaphors which we use unconsciously. They are constantly used, and effect the way we think and talk every day. That is why, William Littlewood (2003: 273) observes, conventionalized metaphorical expressions are said to be *culturally- loaded expressions*, and furthermore, serve as one of the important means for the transmission of cultural beliefs, values, and attitudes (Chareris-Black2003, William Littlewood 2003).

It is clear now that Lakoff and Johnson's use of the term "metaphor" is to designate an underlying relationship between two concepts. A metaphor is in other words for Lakoff and Johnson not a figure of speech but a figure of thought. Whatever is happening when people use tropes is because they have some general mental ability to do so (R. Honeck, 2013: 56). In fact, this approach has further developed into what is now known as "grounded approach". Lakoff & Tuner (1989: 119) argue that The Literal Meaning Theory is about ordinary conventional language, and not about concepts. This language is regarded as semantically autonomous and forms the basis for metaphor. Of course, they do not at all deny that there are semantically autonomous concepts, but they claim that whatever such concepts they "[...] are grounded in our patterns of bodily and social experience," (Lakoff & Tuner, 1989: 119). In short, their grounding hypothesis deals with concepts as embedded in human experience.

The major thing to stress about grounding is the distinction between an experience and the way we conceptualize it. Lakoff and Johnson claim that "[...] there are natural dimensions of experience and that concepts can be analyzed along these dimensions in more than one way" (1980: 59). One among the many examples in Lakoff and Johnson's book is "fell in love". According to Lakoff and Johnson, "fell in love" is understood, as well as expressed, in many terms. When we use this metaphor we experience love as a container which encloses the lover.

To fall is to move downwards. Accordingly, at the onset of love, the couple is no longer able to control their emotions, as falling through physical space. Lakoff describes the conceptual metaphor LOVE IS A JOURNEY as "a set of ontological correspondences that characterize epistemic correspondences by mapping knowledge about journeys onto knowledge about love" (1993: 207). Hence, When we speak or hear of a dead-end relationship— a relationship that "didn't go anywhere or broke apart" we understand the relationship in terms of the underlying conceptual metaphor LOVE IS A JOURNEY and experience the failure as a cessation of motion without any further act through physical space.

In the literature there are many further examples of conceptual metaphors (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980; Kövecses 2010, Charteris-Black2004; Antonio Barcelona1996) . The basic idea of the Conceptual Metaphor Theory is that a more concrete conceptual domain provides elements and structure allowing us to conceptualize a more abstract one. In a review of Lakoffian theory, Xiu Yu (2013) summarises the basic claims associated with this theory as follows.

- Metaphor is primarily conceptual in nature. It is not merely a matter of words, but also a matter of thought.

- The metaphorical linguistic expression is a surface manifestation of conceptual metaphor.

- Metaphor is the main cognitive mechanism through which abstract concepts are comprehended and abstract reasoning is performed.

- Metaphor allows mankind to understand a relatively abstract or inherently unstructured subject matter in terms of a more concrete or more highly structured subject matter.

Lakoff and his colleagues, with a focus on connecting mental representations to physical human experience, agree with the objectivists' claim that our conceptual systems play a central role in defining our everyday realities and it is only through experience of them they play this role. It is worth noting that our experiences, knowledge, and meanings of the world are so very different

from culture to culture. Metaphors, accordingly, tend to be culture-specific. Our culture, for example, gives us conventional ways of viewing freedom via conventional metaphors.

Lakoff, Johnson, and Tuner incorporate the idea "the automatic and unconscious character of conventional thought and language" in their theory. The conventional aspects of language, Lakoff and Turner claim are "the ones that are most alive, in the sense that they are embodied in our minds, are constantly used, and effect the way we think and talk every day" (2009: 127). Metaphors, they repeatedly claim, are words in an arbitrary order of spontaneous speech and are part of our live conceptual system; accordingly, accommodating dead metaphors, which is a further typological differentiation, within their theory. Dead metaphors are those that are so conventional, whereas live metaphors are those that people are aware of. Lakoffian theory put forward a philosophical account of metaphor which is radically different from those which were currently formulated.

Even though Lakoff and his followers stress the system of conventional conceptual metaphor, of course they do not deny that there are many concepts which literally exist and are understood indepently of metaphor. Lakoff and Turner claim that "a brief survey yield many concepts that are at least partly, if not totally, undertood on their own terms: plants, departures, fire, sleep, location, seeing, and so on" (1989: 133).

Some scholars have criticized the Conceptual Metaphor Theory. They suggest that Lakoffian conceptual metaphor analysis is intuitive that causes them to be lacking in scientific rigor and objectivity. The most important representative of this criticism is is structured by the Pragglejaz Group (2007). A thorough analysis of Pragglejaz Group's approach to metaphor I will do in chapter three of this thesis. When the Pragglejaz Group reviewed the Conceptual Metaphor Theory, they claimed that Lakoff and his followers examined their own mental lexicon or the data found in dictionaries. On the basis of some intuitively found linguistic examples they

arrived at conceptual metaphors. Kövecses 2011: 23) also emphasizes that the data of Lakoff are impoverished and incomplete.

In their review of Lakoff and Turner' *More Than Cool Reason*, Jackendoff and Aaron (1991) point out that the term "metaphor" is used too broadly in the book and its use glosses over important differences. They critically assess Lakoff-Turner view and comment that conventional metaphors do not really deserve the label "metaphor". Jackendoff and Aaron illustrate this point by referring to Lakoff and Turner's example DEATH IS DEPARTURE relating it to the source-path-goal model. They find this metaphor odd and comment that death is handled different ways in different cultures and religions. In many cultures where death is viewed as the soul (or person) passing on to its next existence, DEATH IS DEPARTURE is certainly not a metaphor but a literal belief. Accordingly, they believe that Conceptual Metaphor Theory needs certain modifications. The modifications they recommend include the addition of a criterion of incongruity which they argue constitutes a necessary condition for the analysis of metaphor.

2.2. 2 Ahrens's Conceptual Mapping Model

The Conceptual Mapping Model was proposed by Ahrens (2002) to constrain the contemporary view of metaphor (Lakoff 1993) by many criteria. The criterion she deems most important is that there are specific principles governing the source-target domain mappings. The model is concerned with the linguistic correspondences between a source and target domain in order to determine the underlying reason for the source-target pairings. The model provides empirical investigations that theories must take into account to examine metaphors. Since it was first proposed a number of interesting developments in the theory and applications have been reported. It has been demonstrated conclusively the underlying reasons for the source-target pairings can be formulated in terms of a Mapping Principle— a principle to limit the mappings that may take place between two domains. Ahren uses the example of the metaphorical concept LOVE IS PLANT to illustrate this point and says the Mapping Principle (MP) of "Love is

understood as plant because plants involve physical growth and love involves emotional growth" (2010: 205).

The basic postulate of The Conceptual Mapping Model is a *Mapping Principle Constraint*. Ahrens indicates that "a target domain will select only source domains that involve unique mapping principles" (Ahrens, 2002: 35). He points out that language may use different source domains for a certain target domain, but they do so for different reasons. For example the target domain of (IDEA) uses the source domains of [BUILDING] and [FOOD], each for different reasons. By adding this constraint, Ahrens (2002) shows analytically that the Conceptual Mapping Model can explain the polysemy inherent in a given target domain.

Ahrens postulates that there is a general principle governing how linguistic expressions from a source domain are used to characterize a target. The principle can be determined by examining the lexical correspondences that exist between a source and target domain. She says that the linguistic expressions that are used metaphorically can be analyzed in terms of the entities, qualities and functions that can map structure from the source to target domain

Once the analysis of these conventionalized metaphorical expressions has been made, we then determine an underlying reason for the mappings by comparing them with the real world knowledge that the source domain entails. Ahrens (2002: 37), taking an intuition-based approach, illustrates the Conceptual Mapping Model through the conceptual metaphor IDEA IS BUILDING which does not map many concepts from the source domain to the target. It is only the linguistic expressions relating to the concept of foundation, stability, and construction are mapped while concepts relating to position of the building, internal wiring and plumbing, the exterior of the building, windows and doors are not. Thus the target domain of IDEA uses words from the source domain [BUILDING] in order to emphasize the concept of structure. The mapping principle for IDEA IS BUILDING formulated in Ahrens (2002) is the following: Idea is understood as building because buildings involve a (physical) structure and ideas involve an (abstract) structure. When we try to understand the concept [IDEAS] in terms of [FOOD], rather than some

other concept or concepts, the expressions that are mapped include "ingredient", "spoil", 'flavorless", "full", "taste", "chew", "digest" and "absorb". Thus the target domain of [IDEA] uses words from the source domain [FOOD] in order to emphasize the concept of process. Accordingly, the Mapping Principle for IDEAS ARE FOOD formulated in Ahrens (2002) is the following: Idea is understood as food because food involves being eaten and digested (by the body) and ideas involved being taken in and processed (by the mind) (Ahrens 2002). Thus, [IDEA] uses the source domains of [BUILDING] and [FOOD] for different reasons, namely to convey information related to "structure" or "processing" (i.e. "understanding") respectively. [BUILDING] and [FOOD] are two different source domains that map onto a single target [IDEA] each for different reasons. One to convey information related to "structure" and the other to "processing".

It seems clear therefore that such a model is similar to the Contemporary Metaphor Theory of in the way that it supposes that there exist systematic mappings between a source and target domain. However, The Conceptual Mapping Model goes still further and offers a general perspective on understanding reason for that mapping.

In their attempt to determine frequency criteria for verifying Mapping Principles, Ahrens, Chung & Huang (2002; 2003), Ahrens (2010) argue that their model correctly predicts that conventional metaphors, novel metaphors that follow the mapping principle and novel metaphors that don't follow the mapping principle will be rated differently on interpretability and acceptability rating scales. The Conceptual Mapping Model is designed to operationally define a method to determine the underlying reasons for the source-target domain pairings of a conceptual metaphor.

Ahrens takes matters a step further by integrating the Conceptual Mapping Model with an ontology-based knowledge representation. The most prevalent definition of ontology is Gruber's [Gruber, 1993a] which is "an explicit specification of a conceptualization. Conceptualization, he defines, is "an abstract, simplified view of the world that we wish to represent for some

purpose." It is the relevant informal knowledge one can extract and generalize from experience, observation, or introspection. The specification is the encoding of this knowledge in a representation language.

Ahrens uses The Suggested Upper Merged Ontology (SUMO) tools for managing ontologies and finding correspondences between semantically related entities of different ontologies. Ahrens aims to examine whether the Mapping Principle is a representation of conceptual knowledge in the ontology. To illustrate his point, Ahrens uses the example of the metaphors ECONOMY IS COMPETITION and ECONOMY IS WAR. Corresponding nodes in the two domains have been identified. The knowledge of "competition" has a corresponding node with "contes" in SUMO and "a War is kind of Violent Contest, which in term is a kind of Contest" (Ahrens, Chung and Huang 2003). Therefore, the metaphors ECONOMY IS COMPETITION and ECONOMY IS WAR can be subsumed under the same knowledge representation as a class-concept.

In this research I use Ahrens's model to determine the systematicity between source and target domain pairings in comparing the Mapping Principles for English and Arabic corpora of metaphors in business articles reporting business news. Ahrens, Chung & Huang (2003) propose that each source-target domain pairing will have a prototypical instance of mapping as indicated by a lexical item that is frequently mapped, as compared with other mappings. In line with this approach, the following research investigates representation of source domain knowledge in English and Arabic.

2.3 Discourse Metaphors

As Conceptual Metaphor Theory emphasizes (e.g. Lakoff and Johnson 1999; Kövecses, 2002), many conceptual metaphors are universal at a high level of abstraction. However, many scholars (e.g. Kövecses 2002) have also argued elsewhere that conceptual metaphors vary along certain cultural dimensions. From this point of view, some researchers (Zinken, Hellsten, and Nerlich) have argued that there is a difference between so called conceptual metaphors and what they call discourse metaphors. Zinken (2002) regards language as being in a dialectic relation to society

and defines the notion of "discourse metaphor" as "a relatively stable metaphorical projection that functions as a key framing device within a particular discourse over a certain period of time" (Zinken et al, 2003: 507). Such a view argues that metaphor analysis involves the close examination of how particular metaphors can be used to represent a particular stance. This suggests that metaphor can only be correctly understood, interpreted and analyzed when looking at its context. This hypothesis is based on the following line of reasoning.

> Language is controlled by the social structure, and the social structure is maintained and transmitted through language
>
> (Halliday, M.A.K, 1978: 89)

From this point of view many authors stress the need to focus on discourse analysis in the investigation of the linguistic realizations of conceptual metaphors. Zinken (2004) attempts to combine Conceptual Metaphor Theory with critical discourse analysis and points out that metaphors form intended mental models. They are one among many important language means used for stereotyping, i.e. building a linguistic representation of the world. Nerlich (2005) focuses on discourse metaphors in media language and identifies their characteristics. She argues that discourse metaphors are ideologically biased; they influence social and cultural frames and activate specific emotional commitments. Charteris-Black (2004), as noted in chapter one, places the study of metaphor firmly within a discourse analytic framework, arguing that metaphors create new meaning, rather than simply transporting meaning. By doing so, he argues, metaphors can obfuscate and potentially change thinking. Cameron and Deignan (2006) also refer to discourse approach to metaphor and claim:

> … metaphor, like most other uses of language, is designed for other people and for particular discourse purposes. An important dimension of the dialogics of metaphor is its use to express affect and attitude along with the ideational content
>
> (Cameron – Deignan, 2006: 676)

Accordingly, any critical research into metaphor seeks to convey how dominant metaphors come into being, how they are reified in discourse, and what agendas are met by using them (Koller, 2004: 21).

Marianne van den Boomen (2005) has summarized the main reasons why the notion of discourse metaphor has been introduced by some critics of Conceptual Metaphor Theory. The most compelling reason is that Lakoff and Johnson analysis cannot readily account for cultural differences in concept interpretation and mapping and tends to overlook social transformations in metaphor use overtime. Unlike conceptual metaphors, which appear to be universal and used tacitly, discourse metaphors are deemed to be dependent on language and culture. They are key framing devices within a particular socio-cultural context, seek to highlight salient aspects of language and bring into focus the discursive politics of metaphors.

```
                              Metaphor


        Discourse metaphor              Conceptual metaphor

          Frame social assemblage          Frame cognitive assemblage
          of thought                       of thought
```
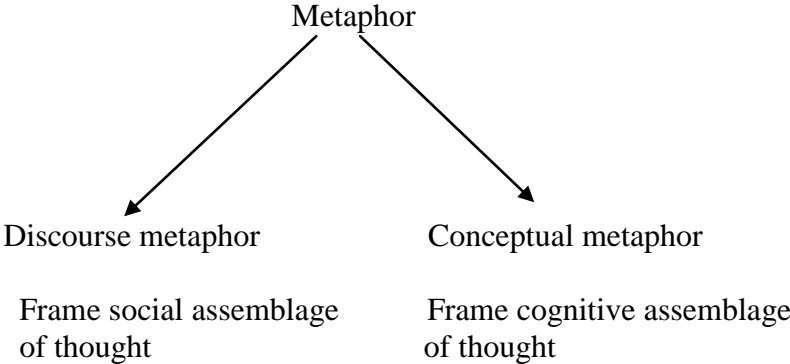
Figure 2.1 Discourse and conceptual metaphor

Discourse approach to metaphor does not reject Conceptual Metaphor Theory entirely, but rather adds or extends its socio-historical focus, as evident in Zinken's claim

> the patterns of figurative language is a process which unfolds in socio-historical time between speakers, rather than constituting a generalised pattern which is licensed by virtue of 'underlying' conceptual metaphors
>
> (Evans – Zinken, 2005: 16)

Such a view acknowledges that a "conceptual metaphor is a shared cognitive, cultural resource" (Eubanks, 2000: 21). Accordingly, once linguistic expressions of metaphor have been identified

in discourse, they still need to be related to the corresponding conceptual structures. Many authors advanced such a view and argue that the interpretation of the metaphoric expression depends not only on the conventional metaphor that may be or may have been underlying it, but also on its interaction with the context, which facilitates the appropriate examination of the concept in question. In fact, the core idea of discourse approach to metaphor is the notion that metaphors are conceptually grounded but their meaning is also shaped by their use at a given time and in the context of a debate about a certain issue. Conceptual metaphors, as many researchers have pointed out, are embedded in discourse formations and are constitutive of world views, of society, of how things work. They reflect people's political, philosophical, social and personal commitments.

The stress on the importance of the socio-cultural dimension of metaphor use has attracted the attention of researchers worldwide. Many theoretical and methodological tools developed in Conceptual Metaphor Theory and its implications for discourse have been extended to deal with metaphor within cross cultural and linguistic framework. Within such a frame metaphors are defined via the notion of comparison.

INDIVIDUAL RESOURCES

COGNITIVE A and AFFECTIVE	PRAGMATIC	LINGUISTIC
(experiencial meaning	(contextual meaning)	(linguistic meaning)

METAPHOR CHOICE IN DISCOURSE → PERSUASION

IDEOLOGY	CULTURE	HISTORY
(e.g. political belief)	(e.g. group identity	(e.g. collective memory)

SOCIAL SOURCES
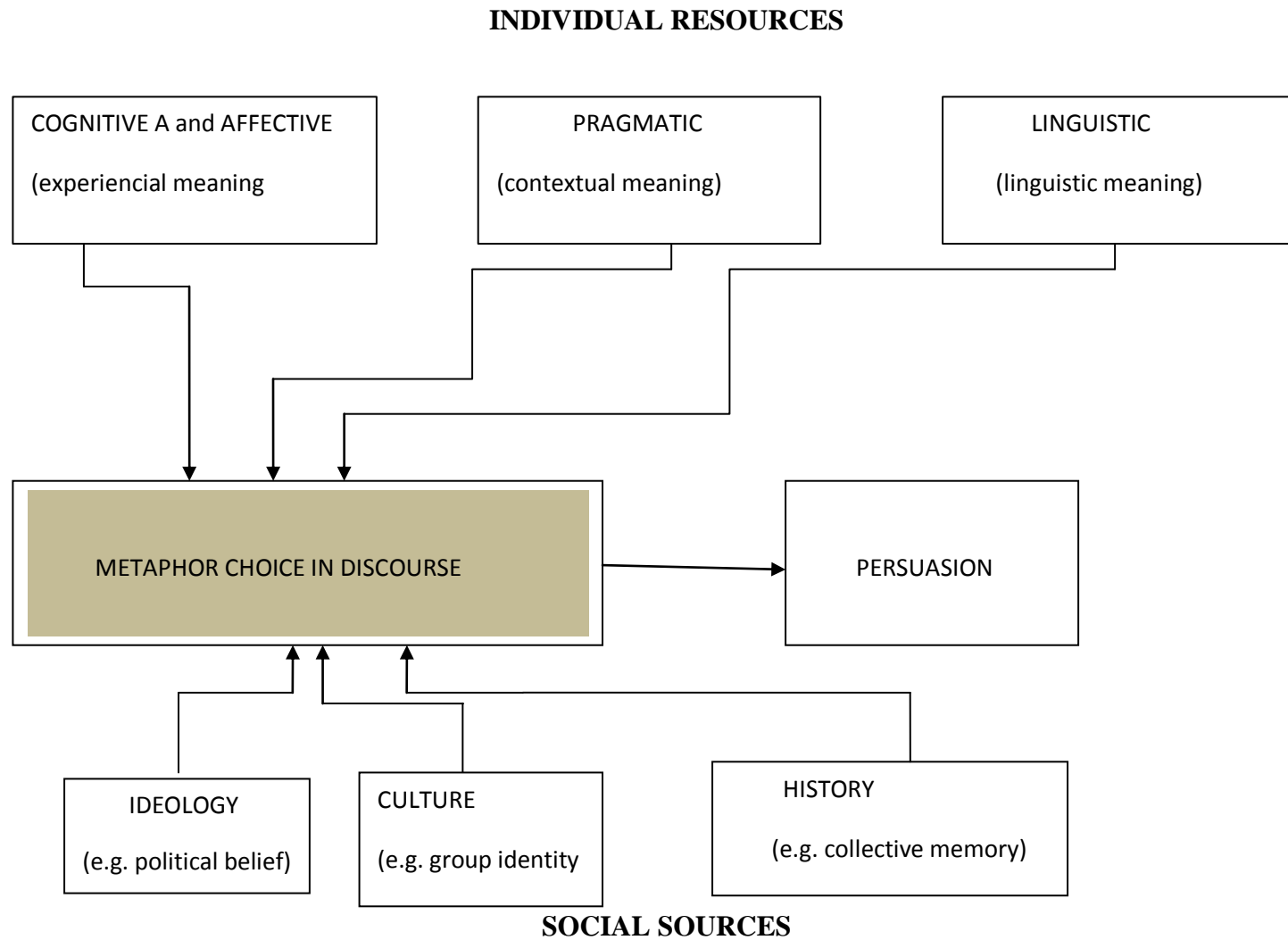
Figure 2.2 A discourse model for metaphor

Source: J. Charteris-Black (2004: 248)

2.4 Cross-Linguistic Research on Metaphor

As has already been mentioned, the major focus of this research is first, on English metaphors, and second on implications of metaphor analysis in translation with a focus on some metaphors that have been translated from English into Arabic in newspapers. Thus, it is of the highest importance that cross-linguistic approach of metaphor should be thoroughly explored. Over many years, many researchers of metaphor have examined and debated the culturally specific and the culturally universal aspects of human cognitive ontogeny.

Many serious studies of metaphor have been carried out by linguistic anthropologists who deny or doubt about the existence of universals of human cognition. This is in contrast to many other studies taken up by researchers working in formalist paradigms who strongly believe in formal linguistic universals. Fernandez (1991) has pointed out that cognitive linguists have the general bias and tendency to overemphasize the universality of the metaphorical structures and ignore the non-universality in metaphorical conceptualization.

2.4.1 Universal vs. Culture- Specific Metaphors

2.4.1.1 Universal Metaphors

Kövecses's book *Metaphor in Culture* (2005) is one of the first serious attempts on the part of a linguist to construct a comprehensive metaphor theory that considers conceptual metaphors, mainly with respect to whether they are universal or specific to a language/ culture. He claims that certain conceptual metaphors "that are based on universal human experience are potentially universal or can be near universal" (Kövecses: 2005, 64). Grady (1997) and Lakoff & Johnson (1999) have suggested that conceptual metaphors can be organized in two categories: primary (a level of highly abstract and foundational cognitive associations which are assumed to be universal) and complex. Several primary metaphors can be joined together to form complex metaphors. Kövecses (2005) argues that the emergence of complex metaphors from primary metaphors is greatly influenced by our culture. He uses Hungarian, English, and Chinese to espouse as a belief that four basic metaphor clusters —emotions, time, event structure and the

inner self—are highly likely to be universal across cultures. Many conceptual metaphors for these four categories have been identified in the literature.

2.4.1.2 Time Metaphors

Time in many languages is conceptualized in terms of space and motion TIME PASSING IS MOTION THROUGH SPACE which means that the vehicle of the metaphor [SPACE] will lend its structure to the topic [TIME] (Lakoff and Johnson 1999, Grady 1997, Moore, 2006). Time is a kind of motion through space or change in location through space, and it is something we can move in like we move in space. In other words, the source domain conceptualization of motion through space is a way of understanding the passage of time. Lakoff's view is illustrated by statements like the following: "time is flying by", "time has long been passed", "the hour clipped by", "one cannot flow the stop of time", and "time for the action has arrived". We can, with Lakoff and Johnson, say that, time metaphor is closely related to path metaphor TIME IS MOTION 0F OBJECTS ALONG A PATH. There are many cases of translating English metaphors which include path source into equivalents in Arabic. The reason might be that space-time paths are universal metaphors.

2.4.1.3 Emotion Metaphors

Kövecses (2005) contends that there are five basic emotions that are felt by all people: anger, sadness, fear, joy, and love. The abstract area of emotions is conceptualized through the body and talked about using body parts in all languages THE BODY IS A CONTAINER FOR THE EMOTIONS. For example, the heart is a symbol of love, the word "blood" may be associated with sadness as in *"making one's blood boil"*. Kövecses (2005) provides many examples showing similarities in the conceptual metaphors underlying emotional expressions in different languages, and suggests that the emotions that they represent and that people tend to experience as inherent in human nature are actually universal. He claims that this is motivated by universal aspects of bodily experience. Matsuki (1995) observes that all the metaphors for anger in English as

analyzed by Lakoff and Kövecses (1987) can also be found in Japanese. Maalej (2003) notes the Body Schema is also found to express emotions in Tunisian Arabic.

2.4.1.4 Event Structure Metaphors

Event Structure metaphors refer to different aspects of events, such as state, change, cause, action, and purpose which are comprehended via a small set of physical concepts: location (bounded region), force, and movement (Kövecses 2005: 43). For example, choosing a means to achieve a goal is choosing a path to a destination; difficulties in life are impediments to motion, and so on. Lakoff (1993: 220) has identified the possible universality of the event structure metaphor. Ning Yu (1998) also did such investigation from Chinese perspectives. The following are Event-Structure metaphors; each is followed by an English example.

- States Are Locations (interiors of bounded regions in space): They *are* in love.

- Changes Are Movements (into or out of bounded regions): He *went* crazy.

- Causes Are Forces: The hit *sent* the crowd into a frenzy.

- Actions Are Self-Propelled Movements: We've taken the first s*tep*.

- Purposes Are Destinations: He finally *reached* his goals.

- Means Are Paths (to destinations): we completed the project *via an unconventional route*.
  .
- Difficulties Are Impediments To Motion: Let's try *to get around* this problem.

- Freedom Of Action Is The Lack Of Impediments To Motion:

- External Events Are Large, Moving Objects (that exert force): The *flow* of history . . .

- Long Term, Purposeful Activities Are Journeys: You should *move on* with your life.

(Kövecses, 2005: 43)

To investigate the possibility of the existence of the English Event Structure metaphor in Chinese, Ning Yu (1998) read the leading Chinese daily newspaper and made note of the cases where he found something like the metaphors above in English. He discovered that the entire system works for Chinese as well. Many Event Structure metaphors have also been identified in

the literature to argue that they are so basic to human experience that they occur across all cultures. Many examples cited above in this research demonstrate that Event Structure*s* are conceptualized both in English and Arabic by means of the same conceptual metaphors. Many English and Arabic expressions use identical source domains.

2.4.1.5 Inner Self Metaphors

Metaphors can be mirrors reflecting inner images of self and others and the self's relation to the others (Richard Kopp, 1995). Lakoff and Johnson identify three different types of essential selves: inner self, external real self and true self. The Inner Self is the "real self", the one compatible with who we really are (Lakoff and Johnson, 1999: 282). They argue that Inner Self Metaphors are universal metaphors used to reason about self and distinguishing an inner (real and true) self from an outer (false and determined) self. Metaphorically, our Inner Self hides inside our Outer Self. i.e. the self is imagined as a person in expressions like "I wasn't myself yesterday", "He lost himself in alcohol", "I destroy myself ","She is punishing herself because of what happened", and "He wavered between the good and the evil residing in him" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1999: 267-287). Inner self must struggle to survive daily life. Metaphors from the source domains of health, for example, create a self which strives to break free the inner self as a dwelling place for the ailing.

2.4.2 Culture-Specific Conceptual Metaphors

Empirical studies of conceptual metaphors have revealed that many conceptual metaphors are characteristic of a particular language and culturally constructed. (Kovecses, 2005) categorized culture-specific conceptual metaphors into taxonomy of 5 types. These are listed below.

2.4.2.1 Unique Metaphors

Unique metaphors are metaphors unique to a specific culture. A culturally unique conceptual metaphor is one that has both a culturally unique source domain and a culturally unique target domain (Kövecses: 2005, 86). They are found in dialects and rooted in the social culture. They reflect worldview of a specific culture or group.

2.4.2.1 Congruent Metaphors

Cognitive linguists differentiate within conceptual metaphors between its generic-level and its specific level one. Kövecses claims "A primary conceptual metaphor is universal which functions at an extremely general level and constitutes a generic schema that is filled out by each culture that has the metaphor" (2005: 68). He notes that the congruent metaphors are culture specific. In other words, the metaphors that are filled out in congruence with the generic schema are called congruent metaphors. In English, economy is understood in terms of a series of metaphors not found in Arabic. The source domain ill-health is used in English and Arabic to describe many different target domains in business discourse. However, many specific metaphors do not exist in one language or the other. For example, (التعفن الاقتصادي) "economic infection" exists in Arabic but not in English.

2.4.2.1 Alternative Metaphors

They are metaphors in which a source domain in one language is used for a particular target domain and a different source for the same target in another language (Kövecses: 2005, 70). Economy is conceptualized as "struggle/war", "ill-health", "game", "path" and in several other ways in English and Arabic. However, many other languages may conceptualize it very differently.

2.4.2.3 The Range of the Target

There can be differences in the range of conceptual metaphors (or, more precisely, the range of source domains) that languages and cultures have available for the conceptualization of particular target domains (Kövecses, 2005: 215). Arabic shares many conceptual metaphors with English in the domain of business to describe economic status. This does not mean, however, that it cannot have metaphors other than the ones we can find in English. Many metaphors in Arabic are from the source domain of fire and market is viewed as a consuming fire.

2.4.2.4 The Scope of Metaphor

Kövecses (2005: 80) introduces the notion *scope of metaphor* to mean the set of target domains to which a particular source domain can apply. Languages differ in respect to the inclusiveness or exclusiveness of the scope of a source domain. (Kövecses, 2005: 72). Kovecses cites many target domains to which the source domain building can apply, including "theories are buildings", "relationships are buildings", "careers are buildings", "a company is a building", "economic systems are buildings", "social groups are buildings", and "a life is a building". In an example Kövecses, with reference to Maalej Zouhair (2001), cites "imagining is building" as a particular Arabic metaphor. The table below summarizes universal and cross-cultural variations in conceptual metaphors.

```
                    ┌──────────────────────┐
                    │ Conceptual Metaphors │
                    └──────────┬───────────┘
              ┌────────────────┴────────────────┐
        ┌───────────┐                    ┌────────────────┐
        │ Universal │                    │ Cross-cultural │
        │           │                    │   Variation    │
        └─────┬─────┘                    └────────┬───────┘
    ┌─────────────────┐              ┌───────────────────────┐
    │ 1. emotions     │              │ 1.unique metaphor     │
    │                 │              │                       │
    │ 2. event        │              │ 2. congruent metaphors│
    │    structure    │              │                       │
    │                 │              │ 3. alternative        │
    │ 3. time         │              │    metaphors          │
    │                 │              │                       │
    │ 4. inner self   │              │ 3. The scope of       │
    │                 │              │    metaphor           │
    │                 │              │                       │
    │                 │              │ 4. unique metaphors   │
    └─────────────────┘              └───────────────────────┘
```
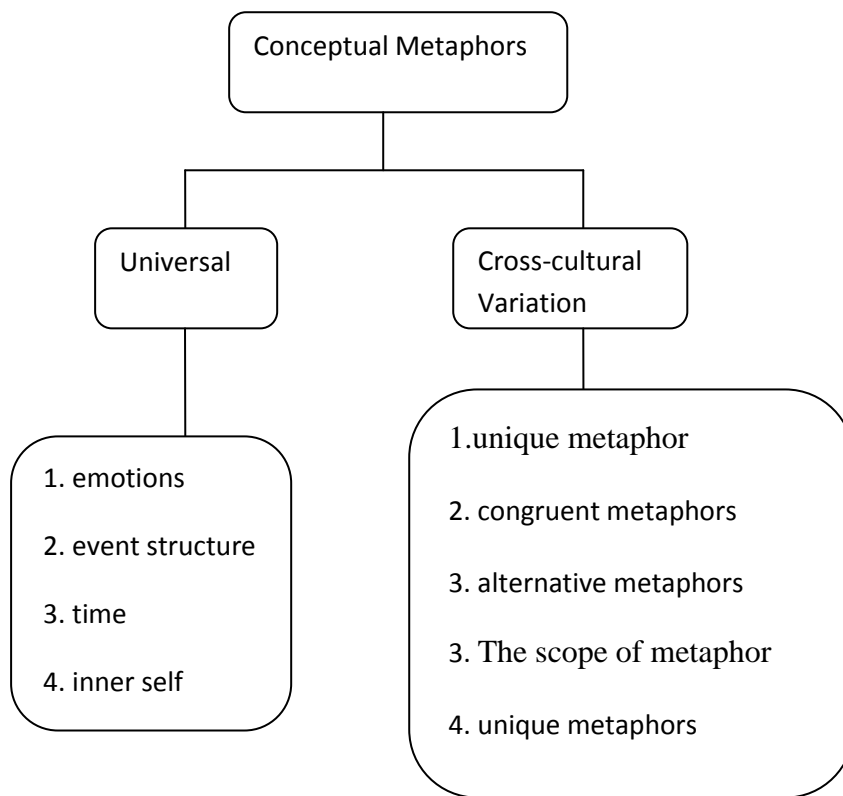
Table.2.2 Universality and variation of metaphors based on Kövecses (2005)

The most important point to notice is that the general findings on cross-cultural variation in conceptual metaphor analysis are the same as findings in other domains of language and thought. That is there are deep similarities in human perception and cognition which are reflected in language. Of course there also significant cultural differences

2.4.3 Previous Research

Cross-linguistic research on metaphor in economic discourse has been expanding rapidly in recent years. Boers and Demecheleer (1997) analyzed metaphors from economic discourse using corpora of English, French and Flemish texts, using detailed frequency counts of the metaphors from various source domains. They found that on the whole the same source domains were used, but with very different levels of frequency across the three languages. Their study reports that journey metaphors are highly used in English discourse as compared to French and Flemish. They also found that national stereotypes are evident in metaphor choice (A. Deignan, 2005; R. Gibbs, 2008). The British texts favour "gardening" metaphors, while the French texts favour the use of "cookery" metaphors. Boers and Demecheleer (1997) also suggest that the speakers' culture influences the choice of metaphor, a finding which confirmed many previous studies by Boers.

A number of other studies have also investigated the role of culture. Charteris-Black (2003) did so, using corpora of English and Malay. In discussing the meaning of his findings, Charteris-Black emphasizes the influence of folk beliefs on metaphor. Popular metaphors reflect traditional folk beliefs. He found that where English tends to use metaphors referring to the heart as the centre of feeling, Malay tends to use the liver, reflecting traditional beliefs in each culture about the role of each organ, Charteris-Black (2003).

Alice Deignan (2005) reports that her review of the existing empirical literature confirms differences in metaphor use across languages. His view challenges a strong belief in the universality of conceptual metaphors. However, this position is certainly not inconsistent with many versions Conceptual Metaphor THeory. Forexample, Lakoff (1993) finds that the most basic metaphors are universal, reflecting our physical experience, and he also notes that the less central metaphors may be more specific. By the same token, Gibbs (1999b) argues that even universal metaphoric categories are culturally shaped and filtered.

Elena Semino (2002), in her corpora of English and Italian newspapers, finds different metaphors used in different languages. She raised another point of importance when she noted that the use of metaphors reflect not only cultural differences but also differences in attitudes towards the topic. She analyzed corpora of English and Italian newspapers from 1999 issues, over the period during which the Euro was introduced and national currencies were withdrawn from circulation. Britain did not adopt the Euro in at the time of writing and was still far from taking a decision regarding that issue. A large number of British people apparently remained strongly opposed for doing so. In Italy, in contrast, there was much enthusiasm to adopt the Euro. Semino (2002) reports that in the Italian corpus, the source domain used were journeys, sport, war and examinations, which reflect the Italians'desire to adopt the Euro, but also their worries toward meeting conditions for Euro entry.

To investigate how the use of metaphor might reflect attitudinal differences towards European integration, Charteis-Black and Mussof (2003) analysed corpora to compare the use of

metaphors for Euro trading in two corpora of financial reporting in newspapers, one British and the other German. Their data was collected by putting Semino's same questions to different samples at different points in time. Their study was undertaken in a weak-euro period, when the Euro was weakening against other major currencies. Like Semino, they found a lot of similarities between the two languages, particularly in the use of metaphors from health domain. Their data indicates that the Euro was perceived passively for the Euro was weak and in need of support to recover from its difficulty and unhealthy conditions. Charteris-Black and Musoff (2003). They also found evidence of a difference in attitudes towards the Euro, in that the German metaphors present the Euro to be viewed as a passive recipient of generous loans from banks, while the English language presents it in war and military vocabulary as an active participant involved in "combat" activities, a language which is not found in the German data.

Cross-linguistic studies of metaphor in economic discourse have shown that the choice of vehicle or source domain used to talk about a particular topic can vary considerably, according to the speakers' language, culture, attitudes towards the topics, and current preoccupations.

2.5 Conclusion

Metaphor is a widely-used literary mechanism which allows for the comparison of seemingly unrelated concepts. In recent years huge strides have been made into developing a scientific understanding of metaphors. It has been thoroughly studied in the linguistics literature with a semantic orientation, a pragmatic orientation, and more recently with both orientations within the field of critical discourse analysis that connects the semantics of databases to that of authentic language. A number of theories of metaphor have been proposed. The theoretical frameworks discussed in this chapter links the cognitive semantic approach to metaphor to a critical study of language and discourse. Based on these views, this research will identify metaphorical uses of lexical items in business discourse, group linguistic metaphors together according to their conceptual mapping, and provide an analysis of their functions in business discourse.

CHAPTER III

Methodology and Data

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the procedures used in this research, including the description of the sources of the data and how they were chosen. It also explains into three main sections the research methods that were used to conduct the research. The first section presents Metaphor Identification Procedures (MIP) and its main tools devised by the Pragglejaz Group in 2007. The focus of the second section is on Lakoffian's taxonomy for categorizing metaphors. In the third section of this chapter the focus is on Charteris-Black's Critical Metaphor Analysis (CMA) which has been used to investigate metaphors in the context of use. The chapter ends with a lexico-semantic analysis which is implemented to classify lexical collocations and patterns that encode semantic relationships.

3.2 The Corpus

This research investigates the use of metaphors in a corpus of English and Arabic reports of the global financial crisis published in printed newspaper texts that have been made available simultaneously on the web. The English corpus consists of business articles taken from the business sections of *New York Times* and *Wall Steet Journal* published between 2008 and 2013, while the Arabic corpus consists of business news translated from *NYT* and *WSJ* and published in several Arabic newspapers. The corpus lines were extracted by search engines from the newspapers in their PDF format.

In the first step of the research we investigated a number of ways to extract metaphors from texts. The literature offers two possible approaches to the corpus study of metaphor: the item approach and the textual approach. The item approach involves searching for specific lexical items, and then examining their non-literal senses and the ways in which these have been used in a set of texts. The textual approach involves identifying the metaphors by reading the

texts and then analyzing the linguistic structure of the metaphors and examining the metaphors in their contexts (Paul Baker, 2010). This research combined both item and textual approaches. The English corpus was extracted from 64 articles (see Appendix A) to achieve the target of 100 metaphors. The principal Arabic corpus on which this research is based consists, as I have already stated above, of short reprinted excerpts expressed through translations from the two English newspapers into Arabic newspapers that are available on the Internet. Due to the limited space allowed for business news in the Arabic daily newspaper the corpus requires a different notion of representativeness. It is taken from *Al-eqtisadia*, Saudi Arabia newspaper, *Echorouk,* Algerian newspaper, *Ahram,* Egyptian newspaper, *alyoum7* Egyptian newspaper, and *Annahar* Lebanese newspaper through their websites. Due to a focus on a large time period (2008 to 2013) the computer is used in this research due to its usefulness to look for items which might have been time consuming to find.

3.3 Methodology

Methodology in this project combines perspectives from Lakoff and Turner's metaphor taxonomy (1989), Pragglejaz Group' MIP (2007, 2010) for identifying metaphor in language at the level of word use, and Charteris-Black' Critical Metaphor Analysis (2004) for interpreting metaphors in language use. These methods can be ordered in two ways. Firstly, metaphor analysis can be approached top-down, i.e. search for conceptual metaphors through linguistic expression (e.g. Chilton, 1996; Koller, 2004; Musolff, 2004). In a bottom-up approach only at a later stage are conceptual metaphors derived from the linguistic expressions that have been identified (Pragglejaz Group, 2007; 2010). In this chapter, we shall begin by defining these methods then we shall consider the application of each method in turn in this project. The project adopts what is known as a bottom-up approach in which linguistic metaphors are first identified and their conceptual affiliation later. This approach fits well corpus-based research. By contrast,

the top-down approach can be characterized as an adaptation of existing models; accordingly, it fits intuitive-based research.

3.3.1 Identification of Metaphors

2.3.1.1 MIP: Metaphor Identification Procedures

Modern linguistics asserts that, in order to continue progressing, it is necessary for researchers to abandon an intuition-based methodology to embrace a corpus-based approach instead. Lakoff's and Johnson (see chapter 2) used examples from their intuited discourse data to construct their Conceptual Metaphor Theory. However, this strong cognitive bias has led to neglect of the linguistic dimension of metaphor C. Rosario (2003: 2006). Recent corpus linguistic approaches put linguistic metaphor identification back on the map (Rodríguez 2006, Cameron 2003, Charteris-Black 2004, Deignan 2005, Goatly 1997, and Koller 2004). Instead of pointing out metaphor on the basis of intuition and subjective criteria, research in metaphor requires a more systematic method for both quantitative and qualitative research.

One group of researchers which has devised a systematic and reliable procedure for the identification of metaphorically used words in texts is the Pragglejaz Group 2007. The word "Pragglejaz" consists of the initial letters of the first names of the participating scholars. The central claim of Pragglejaz Group is the use of real corpora in the course of identifying metaphorical expressions.The Pragglejaz Group demonstrates how their method is applied on the basis of a few examples taken from their database so that researchers can easily use it in doing various kinds of empirical studies. The MIP requires metaphor analysts to work through four systematic steps as follows (Pragglejaz Group, 2007: 3):

1) Read the entire text to establish a general understanding of the meaning.

2) Determine the lexical units in the discourse.

3) (a) Establish the contextual meaning for each unit.

   (b) Establish a more basic contemporary meaning in other contexts than in the given context.

     The basic meaning tends to be more concrete, related to bodily action, more precise or

     historically older.

   (c) Decide whether the more basic meaning and the contextual meaning contrast with each

     other but can be understood in comparison.

4) If yes, mark the lexical unit as metaphorical

Source: Pragglejaz Group. 2007. 'MIP: A Method for Identifying Metaphorically Used Words in Discourse' in *Metaphor and Symbol* 22(1): 1–39

It is interesting to note that these identification procedures are merely used to identify metaphors at their surface level. It is not aimed to identify conceptual metaphors. In order to pursue identification of metaphorical used words in discourse with MIP one must first analyze the basic and contextual meanings of text's lexical unit which is in fact not always an easy task. Accordingly, the PG recommends using a dictionary in step three. For their own case study, they used the *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (2002) as their reference work.

Contemporary views of metaphor make reference to three levels of explanation: (1) surface language; (2) semantic interpretation; and (3) cognitive processes. The PG does not make any assumptions about cognitive processing (Cameron, 2003; Crisp, 2002; Steen et al 2010). They limit themselves with the study of linguistic forms of metaphor rather than its underlying conceptual structures. Linguistic metaphor identification consists in analyzing "the contrast and comparison between textual meaning and basic meanings" (Steen, 2010: 9). From a linguistic perspective, basic lexical units are those that possess a unitary meaning and a referential unit and, therefore, are included in the dictionary. A meaning cannot be more basic if it is not included in a contemporary users' dictionary (Steen et al, 2010: 35).

The contextual meaning of a lexical item is the meaning that the word has in the situation in which it is used (Steen et al, 2010: 33). In other words, it is the referential meaning a lexical unit has considering context and co-text (Graham et al, 2010: 173). The Pragglejaz Group claim

that, after having established the contextual meaning of a lexical unit, the analyst should check whether the unit has a more basic contemporary meaning (Cienki, 2008: 248, Steen et al 2010: 35). There must be a clear-cut contrast between the two meanings. However, the contextual can be understood only in comparison with the basic (Steen et al 2010: 37). At the core of the MIP is that all metaphoric expression must demonstrate contrast between a contextual meaning and a more basic meaning. This suggests that the more basic meaning has to be sufficiently distinct from the contextual meaning for the latter to have different meaning in different context. Context is always important for the meaning of words, for what appears to be the same word may have very different meanings. Hence, before a contrast between the two based and context meanings is grasped both meanings have to be thoroughly identified. Once they have been identified, the semantic distance (semantic distance is the inverse of semantic similarity) between them has to be adequate for the two meanings to be recorded as two separate descriptions in the dictionaries (Steen et al 2010:54). Semantic distances between pairs of words or concepts can be quantified by means of the difference in their feature functions. Metaphor is then a crucially context-dependent linguistic phenomenon.

The Pragglejaz Group' method for identifying metaphorically used words in discourse is only possible by means of careful measurements, by registering semantic distance, rather than by means of interpretations of what is and what is not metaphorical. This method has made a significant contribution within researching metaphor, but it has been criticized for its restriction on confirming the findings with dictionary records. The identification process needs to be done manually. This way, the Pragglejaz Group claim, is in order not to overlook important subtleties of meaning of data. Indeed it is of interest to note that very large corpus projects would clearly be a daunting task (Cienki and Müller, 2008: 246).

The dictionary is a reference tool of both basic meaning and the contextual meaning. However, it should be kept in mind that all dictionaries are inevitably limited in the amount they contain and that they differ concerning their lists of meanings under particular lexemes. This

should not really pose a serious problem for MIP and reduce its effectiveness. To reduce these difficulties The Pragglejaz Group recommends the use of more than one dictionary. Krennmayr (2008: 5) points out that it is not always sufficient to use one dictionary.

A straightforward example of the MIP applied to language data is the sentence "That girl is a dog!" (used from the BNC-Baby corpus) In the sentence a girl is derogatively described as "a dog". The contextual meaning of "dog" that can be found in the *Macmillan dictionary* (step 3a of the MIP) is "someone who is not attractive, especially a woman". The basic meaning of "dog" (step 3b of the MIP) is "an animal kept as a pet, for guarding buildings, or for hunting." In this case, the contextual and basic meanings are distinct: the basic meaning concerns the animal domain, the contextual meaning the human domain. At the same time the contextual and basic meaning can be compared on the basis of non-literal similarity. As a result, we can say that the word "dog" is a metaphorically used lexical unit. MIP has been demonstrated as an effective method of linguistic investigation for its features, as Steen et al (2010) clearly demonstrate, of reliability, validity, rigour and repeatability. Working through the four steps of MIP is also useful and effective linguistic method for small corpus investigation.

It is worth noting, as Graham, L. et al (2010: 166) have already argued, that MIP is not the only metaphor identification procedure that is available, but it is the only procedure, based on analysis of databases of real language examples, that has been formally tested with an objective to make it available as a research tool to a larger audience.

3.3.2 The Classification and Taxonomy of Metaphors

Because of the broad range of metaphors, scholars have attempt their systematization and classification into distinct types. Lakoff's classification is the one most commonly used due to its simplicity and efficiency.

Chapter two describes in details the view of Lakoff and his other co-authors. The relevant aspects of the theory of Lakoff for applications in my research are the valuable taxonomy of metaphor systems that they have constructed. Metaphors in Lakoff and Johnson (1980) and

Lakoff and Turner (1989) are arranged in the sequence of an accepted classification, and are available for-reference for other scientific studies. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) suggest that the broad range of metaphorical processes has led requires attempt of systematization and classification into distinct types. There is undoubtedly an inherent logic in these attempts to systematize metaphors. Lakoff and Johnson claim that "metaphors differ along many parameters [...] often the difference is a matter of degree" (1980: 55). Then they distinguish three types of metaphors according to their cognitive functions: 1) ontological, 2) structural, and 3) orientational.

3. 3.2.1 Ontological Metaphors

The first of these is the ontological metaphors, where concrete entities and substances provide ontological status to abstract targets such as certain events, activities, emotions, or ideas. This function manifests itself in ontological metaphors such as ABSTRACT ARE ENTITIES. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) use the metaphors THEORIES ARE BUILDING and INFLATION IS AN ENTITY to illustrate how ontological metaphors work. The conceptual metaphor THEORIES ARE BUILDING underlies expressions, such as, "We need to buttress the theory with solid arguments", and INFLATION IS AN ENTITY underlies expressions such as "inflation is lowring our standard of living", "we need to combat inflation", "inflation is tracking us into a corner", "bying lands is the best way of dealing with inflation", "inflation makes me sick" (1980: 27). It is our experience with physical objects which provides a basis for a very wide variety of ontological metaphors. Lakoff and Johnson (1980: 33–34) consider personification as a special type of ontological metaphors in which abstract concepts and physical object are specified as being human beings. In other words, it is when human qualities are given to non- human entities. E.g. the conceptual metaphor DESEASES ARE ADVERSARIES underlies linguistic expressions such as "cancer is my enemy".

3. 3.2. 2 Structural Metaphors

Structural metaphors map a particular structure of a source domain onto a more abstract target domain, as in ARGUMENT IS WAR as formulated by Lakoff and Johnson (1980: 14). This structuring metaphor is reflected in statements such as "Your claims are indefensible", "He attacked every weak point in my argument", and "He demolished my argument".

3. 3.2. 3 Orientational Metaphors

A widespread and productive set of metaphors are *orientational metaphors*. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) define orientational metaphors in terms of binary opposite. They have to do with special orientations that are derived from our physical and/or cultural experiences involving [UP /DOWN], [IN/OUT], [FRONT/BACK], [HIGH/LOW], [CENTRAL/PERIPHERAL], and so on. Orientational metaphors relate a spatial dimension to a more abstract concept. Metaphorically, UP is good and DOWN is bad. For example, health and life are up as in "He is at the peak of health.", and sickness and death are down as in "He dropped death."

3. 3.2. 4 Generic-Level Metaphors

Metaphors can also be classified according to their level of generality (Lakoff and Turner 1989). GENERIC IS SPECIFIC is one of the most important metaphors lying at the basis of many conceptual mappings. For instance, EVENTS ARE ACTIONS is a generic-level metaphor while BIRTH IS ARRIVAL and DEATH IS DEPARTURE are specific level metaphors. They are particular instantiations of the former at a more specific level. The source and the target in EVENTS ARE ACTIONS are both generic-level (or super ordinate) concepts. The metaphor entails the understanding of actions performed by agents, but leaves unspecified its details, which are to be furnished by specific-level metaphors. The function of this metaphor is to map a specific-level schema associated with a specific-source domain onto another specific-level schema associated with the same generic-level structure," (Lakoff and Turner 1989: 162). We may thus build a sort of functional hierarchy concerning metaphors. We need generic-level metaphors in order to

understand specific-level metaphors whereas specific-level metaphors are used for understanding abstract domains.

3. 3.2. 5 Great Chain of Being Metaphors

Lakoff and Turner (1989: 160-213) introduce a high level metaphorical schema that they label THE GREAT CHAIN OF BEING. At the onset of this schema is a certain folk theory of how things are related to one another. They claim that the basic [GREAT CHAIN] has the following hierarchical structure from top to bottom:

- HUMANS: higher order attitudes and behavior
- ANIMALS: instinctual attributes and behavior
- PLANTS: biological attributes and behavior
- COMPLEX OBJECTS: structural attributes and functional behavior
- NATURAL PHYSICAL THINGS: natural physical attributes and behavior

They define the THE GREAT CHAIN OF BEING as "a cultural model that concerns kinds of beings and their properties and places them on a vertical scale," (1989: 160-213). In this way human are conceived of as higher order beings if compared to animals, which are in their turn in higher order than plants. For example, business people are often characterized in negative terms. The statement "It's a dog eat dog world" is a metaphorical expression to portray the business milieu. This metaphor underlies our understanding of human attributes in terms corresponding animal attributes.

Lakoff's Taxonomy		Examples from Business Language	
Ontological metaphors	Concrete entities provide ontological status to abstract targets	Financial crisis is a desease / a storm / an earthquake	
Structural metaphors	Map a particular structure of a source domain onto a more abstract target domain	The economic burden of headache / a cancerous tumour in economy	
Orientational metaphors	Have to do with orientation UP/DOWN—IN/OUT FRONT/BACK –HIGH/LOW	Economic slowdown /economic collapse /economic slumps /driving down stock markets / economic downturn racked up so much debts / fiscal cliff	
Generic-level metaphors	The specific-level metaphors are the instantiations of the generic-level ones	Ailing economy	consumptive economy depressed economy feverish economy
The Great Chain of Being Metaphors	Places various kinds of beings on a vertical scale with higher and lower beings and properties	It's a dog-eat-dog world Trade hawks Tigerish rates of economic growth	

Table 3.1. Lakoff's taxonomy, with examples of business metaphor

3. 3. 3 Critical Metaphor Analysis

Charteris-Black (2004) proposes a method of metaphor called Critical Metaphor Analysis (CMA) which is based on discourse analysis. This section describes this method which has been used in our analysis of the texts in our corpus. This method looks beyond the semantic relationships and their lexical variations at higher levels of metaphor studies for implications for critical discourse analysis. Critical Metaphor Analysis (CMA) is one of the several approaches to discourse that derive from critical discourse analysis. It was developed by Jonathan Charteris-Black in 2004. The approach, he claims, "is an approach to the analysis of metaphors that aims to represent the intentions underlying language use". Applying a pragmatic perspective to the discourse analysis, this approach consists mainly of three steps: 1) metaphor identification, 2) metaphor interpretation, and 3) metaphor explanation. To assist in this process Charteris-Black employs the cognitive semantic approach originally described in Lakoff and Johnson works. Charteris-Black' method gives insight into underlying attitudes and ideologies in discourse. His pioneering work on corpus research has drawn attention to the way in which metaphors are deployed persuasively to produce "cognitive frames" that provide a viewpoint on social issues (Andrew Mckinlay, 2009:124). CMA uses both quantitative and qualitative methods for its ends. Quantitative methods are useful to provide important information about the distributions and frequencies of metaphors. Frequency with which a conceptual metaphor occurs in the corpus provides an important criterion of its significance (Charteris- Black, 2004: 26). In its qualitative methods the researcher is the instrument to exploit any clue and cue in the text itself that can shed light on pragmatic meaning of metaphors. Charteris- Black insisted that both approaches have to be combined in a detailed corpus-linguistic analysis. It is hard in many cases to talk about corpus approach to metaphor analysis without reference to Graham Low and Lynne Cameron and their analysis method of metaphor in real-world discourse.

In his CMA, Charteris-Black also first refers to Cameron and Low's three stages in corpus-based metaphor analysis and quotes:

> The methodology of metaphor analysis typically proceeds by collecting examples of linguistic metaphors used to talk about the topic [...] generalizing from them to the conceptual metaphors they exemplify, and using the results to suggest understandings or thought patterns which construct or constrain people's beliefs and actions.

<div align="right">(Cameron and Low, 1999: 88)</div>

Charteris-Black followed this reference with indicating that in many ways Cameron and Low's three stages are similar to Fairclough's (1995: 6) three stages of identification, interpretation and explanation that are, in turn, based on M.A.K. Halliday's (1985) functional linguistics and comprise the methodology of critical discourse analysis. Then, Charteris-Black describes his three stages of Critical Metaphor Analysis: description, interpretation and explanation.

3. 3.3.1 Metaphor Identification

His approach to metaphor identification has two stages: the first requires a close reading of a sample of texts to identify words and concepts that might be candidates for Critical Metaphor Analysis. This is done based on the criteria included in his definition of metaphor. Jonathan Charteris-Black (2004: 21) defines metaphor as "a linguistic representation that results from the shift in the use of word or a phrase from the context or domain in which it is expected to occur to another context or domain where it is not expected to occur, thereby causing semantic tension,". He then argues that the definition of metaphor needs to include linguistic, pragmatic and cognitive criteria. Words that do not satisfy this criterion should be excluded from further analysis and words that are commonly used with a metaphoric sense are then classified as metaphor keywords and it is possible to measure the presence of such keywords quantitatively in the corpus. The second phase of the research is carried out to

further explain or confirm the findings from the first phase. It is a qualitative phase in which corpus contexts are examined to determine whether each use of a key word is metaphoric or literal.

3. 3.3.2 Metaphor Interpretation

The second stage of CMA is interpretation. Interpretation involves establishing a relationship between metaphors and the cognitive and pragmatic factors that determine them. This involves an analysis of metaphors in relation to the identification of conceptual metaphors, and where feasible, *conceptual keys*. A conceptual key in Charteris-Black*'* words is "a formal statement of an underlying idea that accounts for the related figures of speech that occur in different languages." the capital letters are used to identify sub categories of conceptual metaphors that govern groups of individual metaphors. Conceptual keys, Charteris-Black claims*,* "capture metaphoric conceptualizations and explain the relatedness of various linguistic metaphors," (Charteris-Black*,* 2004: 31). The most effective way to test the validity of a particular conceptual key is the extent to which it has the ability to relate a number of figurative phrases to a common idea. Forexample, the conceptual key MONEY IS LIQUID relates the phrases: "liquid resources", "wages freezes", "capital inflow", etc. Charteris-Black (2004) has applied Lakoff's Cognitive Metaphor Theory to generate conceptual keys.

3. 3.3.3 Metaphor Explanation

The third stage of Critical Metaphor Analysis is explaining language use. Explanation of metaphors involves identifying the social agency that is involved in their production and their social role in persuasion. Charteris-Black's method aims to unveil ideological contents of metaphors and describes them in terms of conceptual keys*.* H*e* has explicitly presented his conceptual keys or conceptual metaphors as analytical tools. Words are not innocent; accordingly, understanding thought and world views involve entering into the patterns of language. In such sense, then, it is identifying the discourse function of metaphors that

permits us to establish their ideological and rhetorical motivation. Evidence for the ideological and rhetorical motivation comes from the corpus in which metaphors occur rather than from the intuition of the analyst. He illustrate that this can be aided by comparing the findings for a particular mini-corpus with those for the same metaphors in a much larger corpus or by comparing different sections of the same corpus (2004: 25).

Critical Metaphor Analysis is, therefore, a form of analysis that enables us to explain why some metaphors are chosen – rather than others. Metaphors highlight certain aspects of a concept while they may also hide other aspects. Charteris-Black (2004) has applied the theory developed by Lakoff and Johnson. This research forms the inspiration for the following discourse analytic investigation. In this light it makes good sense to use his studies of political rhetoric as basic for a discourse analytic examination of the discourse of business.

3.4 Application

After we have presented each method used in the current research, we go into more detail to applications of this methodology.

3.4.1 Finding a Point of Entry

A first, and somewhat more sophisticated, procedure which corpus analysis offers is carrying out a keywords analysis. A key-word list includes items that are either significantly frequent (positive key words) or infrequent (negative key words), and is a useful starting point for many corpus linguistic analyses (Mike Scott 1999). A keyword, Paul Baker claims, is "a word which occurs statistically more frequently in a single text or corpus than in another text or corpus" (2010: 134). Accordingly, within the framework of a computer assisted quantitative analysis key word techniques are used to discover frequency differences within and across the corpus of the present study. Key word technique is less time consuming and easier to perform. It is a technique to enter into the main concern and extract relevant points.

For a focus on semantic (meaning) relations between words within sentences, extraction of statements was through the following key entries: 1) statements in which economic being referred to with adjectives {economic +[adjective]} The point of entry into the main concern in the present study is a focus only on some lexical keywords, e.g. adjectives in a phrasal relationship with the noun [economy and iqtissad (Arabic)], nouns in a phrasal relationship with the adjective [economic and iqtissadi], nouns in a phrasal relationship with the adjective [financial and maaliyye], verbs in a clause relationship with the phrase [to revive the economy and in3aach al-iqtissad], see Appendix C and D.

There are good reasons for doing this. The basic reason is that sentences can be understood only by situating words in relation to other words. Furthermore, lexical keywords can help to unravel, understand and explain discursive strategies such as the ways of communicating a certain perspective. For example, verbs occurring immediately before "to survive" mark consequences, corrective action, and desired outcomes. All the sentences which contain the lexical entries to represent them were manually cut and pasted by hand. A further step is selecting sentences from the corpora. In doing so we limited ourselves to sentences in which there are words from war and health semantic fields. The resultant dataset contains 100 words. Research was guided by the use vocabulary from the semantic fields of path, health, and war (see Appendices). They present the most frequent words in each field. The Corpus software *WordSmith Tools* (Scott 2004) was used for searching of the semantic fields of the two words since it offers both basic and advanced tools for handling corpus data. Translated English metaphors into Arabic in newspapers come from a more general body of texts selected on the basis of key words and expressions: "Min Maqqal Noshira Fi Sahifat x" "Ma Taquluhu Sahifat x" (From an article published in x) while (x) refers to *The New York Times* or *The Wall Street Journal.*

3.4.2 Using Dictionaries for Linguistic Metaphor Identification

To identify the issue I address in this research I used MIP procedures presented by the Pragglejaz Group (2007) and published in *Metaphor and Symbol* 22 (1). The focus here is on step 2 and 3: determining the lexical units in the text and establishing the meaning of the lexical unit in context. Linguistic research often depends on the analyst's intuitions rather than being based on empirical analysis of natural texts. It is clear that research on one's native language contrasts with that of one's work as a non-native researcher. Accordingly, for a most efficient method intuitive research must be complemented by discursive reasoning based on a theoretical claim and on a scientific description of the objects of its study. In applying step 2 and 3 of MIP, I used the *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (2007) in its CD-ROM edition and *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2002, 6th edit.): a CD-ROM edition. In keeping with the same metaphor identification procedures used with the English Corpus, the Arabic corpus has been identified using two dictionaries of modern Arabic: *Munjid al-Loughata al-Arabiya* published in 2008 by Dar al-Kitab al-Arabi in partnership with *Munjid fi al-Loughata wa-al-Alam* published in 1997 by Dar al-Kitab al-Arabi. Corpus-based dictionaries are a useful tool for identifying metaphors on a linguistic level. Instead of relying on entirely upon impressions and intuitions or what "feels right", using dictionaries as a reference tool makes identifying linguistic metaphor more reliable.

3.4.3 The Pragglejaz Procedure

The following examples from the data provide greater clarity for how this linguistic method of identifying metaphors works when applied to actual metaphors specifically in the field of business.

Textt. 1 Copus lines for the word "struggling"

"European leaders **struggling to revive** their economies have enthusiastically endorsed the effort," (*The New York times*: February 20, 2013).

1. Read the text
2. Determine the lexical units in the text

a) contextual meaning: In this context, "struggling" indicates policies to improve market framework conditions and to strengthen the capacity of the government to support economic development.

b) basic meaning: The basic meaning of the verb "to struggle", using the *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*, is to use one's physical strength against someone or something, as in "She picked up the child, but he struggled and kicked".

c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: abstract effort, force, attempt and achievement are understood in terms of physical effort, force, attempt and achievement.

3. The statement "struggling to revive their economies", therefore, is interpreted as metaphor depending on the context. If there is a real physical struggle, this statement is not longer a metaphor since it is interpreted literary.

Text 2. Copus lines for the pattern "contagion infecting financial system"

> "The Federal Reserve scrambled to avert an "expected **contagion**" that risked **infecting** the nation's financial system when its took unprecedented actions in mid-March to provide financial backing to Bear Stearns and provide emergency loans to Wall Street firms,"

> (*N.Y T.* June 28, 2008)

1. Read the text

2. Determine the lexical units in the text

a) contextual meaning: In this context, the preposition "contagion" indicates the spreading of an economic crisis from one geographical area to another.

b) basic meaning: (1) contagion: a situation in which a disease can be spread from one person or animal to another through touch or through the air, (2) a situation in which feelings or ideas spread very quickly from one person or place to another.

c) contextual meaning versus basic meaning: The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: a faltering economy in one country spread to the rest of financial sectors and other countries whose economies were previously healthy, in a manner similar to the transmission of a medical disease.

3. the word "contagion" is used metaphorically.

Financial contagion refers to the process that describes the spread of financial difficulties from one economy to others in the same region and beyond (Robert W. Kolb, 2011). The past two decade*s* or so have witnessed a number of financial contagions in many emerging markets as a result of different financial crises. Metaphors, as we have seen in chapter 1, require interpretation and "like all metaphors, the metaphor of financial contagion can both illuminate and mislead" (Robert W. Kolb, 2011: 9). The main financial situation that is referred to by this metaphor is when shocks affect financial institutions and lead to economic crises. Deficit banks have always been viewed as financially sick banks that should be relatively isolated to prevent shocks to other banking markets. However, contagion is often merely employed to refer to the diffusion of financial stress, with no connotations of disease.

Text 3. Copus lines for the word "hurdles"

United States face **hurdles** that are often hard to surmount. (*NYT*, January 20, 2013)

1. Read the text

The *MacMillan English Dictionary* gives the following senses for the noun hurdle:

1. (n)An upright frame that a person or horse must jump over during a race.

2. The sport of racing over hurdles is called hurdling.

3. One of the several problems that you must solve before you can do something succefully.

4. (v) to jump over something such as a wall or fence while you are running.

According to the *MED* the basic sense of both the noun and verb *hurdle* is its path sense. Senses 3 is considered metaphorical extensions of the basic sense along the dimension "speed". When it comes to its sense in example (1), I cannot see any link between this sense and the basic sense. Accordingly, this occurrence can be considered metaphorical. The expression "face hurdles" instantiates the conceptual metaphor "(ECONOMIC) DIFFICULTIES ARE OBSTACLES IN THE WAY" which is derived from the schema "MANNER OF ACTION IS MANNER OF MOTION" within which "DIFFICULTIES ARE IMPEDIMENTS TO MOTION". The word hurdle mostly collocate with "to face" and "to pass", as in "to pass the hurdles". The full data is given in tables below

3.4.4 Identification and Tabulated Data

The tables below give an view of the data in which words from English metaphorical statements are defined each in terms of the literal meaning of its base form and its metaphorical use. The tables also give the number of occurrences of each word in metaphoric expressions in a sample of 64 business articles published in *NYT* and *WSJ* 2008-2013 issues, over the period of global financial crisis.

Word form	Literal meaning of base form	Metaphorical use	Number of occurrence
barrier	a bar or gate that stops people from going somewhere	•barriers to entry and exit in markets •barriers to business entry •remove trade barriers to entry	15
cliff	the steep side of an area of a high land	•to fall off a financial and economic cliff •teetering at the edge of a financial cliff	23
decelerate	to move, progress, or drive more slowly	•decelerate inflation •deceleration of economic growth •a steep deceleration of growth	9
derail	make a train come off its rails	•derail economic recovery	9
descent	the act of moving down to a lower place or position	•descent into financial turmoil, trouble •descent into recession	19
detour	a route away from and longer than a planned or more direct route	•economic downturn took a detour •the most damaging detour along the road to economic recovery	14

divert	to make something move or travel in a different direction	•speed up and divert economic pressures	10
door	a flat objet that is used to close the entance of something such as a room or building	•the current economic crisis has opened the door •close the door on trade and investment	17
drive	control vehicule	•drive economic ups and downs •drive economic growth •drive the global recovery •driving the fiscal failures	18
exit	the door through which you might leave a building	•exit from the current crisis •rush for the exit doors	22
hurdle	frame or fence for jumping over in a race	•clear hurdles before financial executives •to get over the economic hurdles along the way	17
journey	The act of travelling from one place to another	•journey along a path to recovery •journey to the top rungs of economic success •journey along the path to a single financial market	16
march	walk along a road in company	•march toward a single currency •march toward economic reform	14
Path	a way leading from one place to another	•on a path of recovery •along the rocky path of economic recovery •the slow (fast) path of economic recovery •to embark on the same economic growth Path	22
rail	one of the pair of metal bars that a train travels on	•keep the economy from running off the rails	17
reverse gear	.go into reverse .to put a vehicle,mechanism, etc into reverse gear	•pushed the process of economic recovery into a reverse gear	13
road	a way leading from one place to another	•road to economic recovery •on the road to economic revival •the high road of capitalism	18
speed	movement that is very fast	•speed recovery in the short run •to fight the recession and speed up recovery	27

stall	refusal of engine to continue running after restart	•stalling economic progress	17
track	What trains move along	•set the economy back on track •economic policy had fallen seriously off track. • "A Fast Track to Euro Stability"	21
tunnel	an underground passage through which vehicules travel	•moved through a long, dark tunnel of economic reforms •reached the exit of the tunnel of the crisis •have begun to see the light at the end of the tunnel	17
Total			355

Table 3.3 Metaphorical uses of lexical items belonging to the field of path

Word form	Literal meaning of base form	Metaphorical use	Number of Occurrence
assault	a physical attack on someone	•assault on the economic crisis •assault of the market	2
attack	use violence to harm	•programs to attack the crisis effectively and consistently	8
battle	a fight between two armies in a war	•the battle against the financial crisis •the battle to prevent financial collapse •battle to keep the economy going to •battle the recession and the financial crisis •to battle a horrendous economic crisis •the embattled currencies •embattled by the financial crisis	15
battlefield	a place where a battle takes place	•financial battlefield	3
bomb	a weapon made to explode at a particular time or when it hits something	•the fiscal crisis became a time bomb •the debt bomb	6
bombard	to attack a place by dropping a lot of bombs on it	•the economy is constantly bombarded by asymmetric shocks •bombarded with reports of millions of dollars being spirited away	9
combat	fighting during a war	•action to combat the financial turmoil •to combat slowing growth	6

conquer	•take by using force •defeat someone	•to conquer new markets •to conquer the economic crisis •to conquer new frontiers •the conquest of new markets	12
damage	physical harm caused to something so that it is broken, spoiled, or injured	•to inflict large damage on the economy	29
defeat	to win against someone in a game, fight, or election	•a defeat of a market system •a stinging defeat •to defeat the economic crisis	17
defend	protect from attack	•to defend a currency against attack	19
fend off	to defend oneself against an attack	•to fend off cutthroat competition	4
fight	•use weapons •hit / kick / bite each other	•fighting the battle for financial freedom •fighting a war for market share	13
grapple	to fight with someone	•grappling with debt crisis •grapple with a crippling financial crisis	3
invade	to take or send an army into another country in order to get control of it	•to invade the market	7
onslaught	attack	•protect currency from the onslaught	12
revolution	a change in the way a coutry is governed, usually to a different political system and often using violence or war	•fiscal revolution •economic revolution	8
Slug out	to argue or fight untill someone wins	•a slug of bank debt •competitors continue to slug it out •sellers slug it out with each other	2
struggle	to use a lot of effort to defeat someone, prevent something, or achieve something	•struggle against inflation •struggle with financial rescue plan •struggle to survive financial crisis •struggle through a financial crisis	13
survive	to continue to live or exist, especially after coming close to dying or being destroyed or after being in a difficult threatening situation	•struggle to survive financial crisis •survival tactics in response to economic hardship •to survive the painful financial crisis	26
Total			214

Table 3.4 Metaphorical uses of lexical items belonging to the field of war

Word form	Literal meaning of base form	Metaphorical use	Number of Occurrence
addict	a person who cannot stop doing or using something, especially something harmful	•addiction to debts •addicted to oil	4
alleviate	To make something less painful, severe, or serious		1
bleed	when blood flows out	•grievous economic bleeding •the economy continues to bleed to death	17
bug	a bacteria or a virus causing an illness that is usually not serious	•banks catch Lehman bug	7
chronic	a chronic illness or chronic pain is serious and lasts for a long time	•diagnosis of economic malaise •a chronic economic crisis •a chronically inflationary economy	23
cold	a common infection especially in the nose and throat which often causes a cough, a slight fever, and sometimes some pain in the musles	•the banks catch a cold	11
collapse	to suddenly fall down and become very ill or unconscious	•an economy-collapsing banking crisis •financial collapse	20
contagion	when a desease is spread by touching someone or something	•financial contagion •contagious economic crisis •contagious debt crisis	22
cure	a medine or treatment that makes someone who is ill become healthy	•curing a sick economy	6
depression	a mental illness in which a person is very unhappy and anxious	•economic depression •depressed economy •recovery from economic depression	15
diagnosis	a statement about what desease someone has	•diagnosis and remediation of the financial crisis	11
disorder	an illness or medical condition	economic disorder financial disorder	6
fatal	causing someone to die	•fatal blow to the financial system •fatal barrier to entry into business	13

fever	a medical condition in which the body temperature is higher than usual and the heart beats very fast	•fiscal fever •banking fever	7
flu	an infectious illness which is like a very bad cold, but which causes fever	•financial flu •economic flu	11
heal	To make a part of the body healthy again after an injury	to heal from the worst economic downturn healing sick economies	15
health	the condition of the body and the degree to which it is free from illness	•healthy economy •the health of the financial industry •healthy banks	20
incubation	the amount of time that it takes for the signs of an infection to become noticeable	•the incubation of today's crisis financial crisis was incubated •an incubating recession	1
overdose	too much of a drug that someone takes at one time	•financial overdose •an overdose of borrowed money •financial overdose •to overdose on risky loans	9
pain	a feeling that you have in a part of your body when you are hurt or ill	•financial pain •a painful economic collapse •pain threshold	18
pandemic	A disease that affect almost every one in a very large area	...turning a national economic illness into a global financial pandemic.	2
paralysis	when you are unable to move all or part of your body because of illness or injury	•market paralysis and panic •to paralyze the economy •paralysis of banking	9
Parasite	a parasite is an organism that lives on or within some other living organism and maintains itself at the expense of the host	economic parasite	2
plague	Any serious desease which kills many people	•plague and economic crisis •the plague of hyperinflation	5
pneumonia	A serious illness affecting lungs that makes it difficult to breathe	•when the economy catches a cold, small businesses catch pneumonia	2

Table 3.5 Metaphorical uses of lexical items belonging to the field of health

3.5 Concept Inventories

Concept inventories are research-based diagnostic tools used to identify metaphors. An inventory classifies conceptual metaphors into categories based on key terms and schemas. For the purpose of the following research, conceptual metaphors in business articles were identified based on the metaphor inventory developed by Charter-Black (2004). It is combined with elements from Boers' (1997) inventory.Charter-Black's inventory is possibly the most detailed one which is currently available (figure3.1).

Source Domain

1	2	3	4	5	6
MECHANISM	MEDECINE	CONSTRUCTION	FLUIDITY	SPACE	COMPETITION

Conceptual Metaphors

ECONOMI IS MACHINE	ECONOMY IS PATIENT	ECONOMY IS BUILDING	MONEY IS LIQUID	ECONOMIC IS UP AND DOWN	ECONOMIC ACTIVITY IS SPORTS

Examples of Linguistic Metaphors

fuel the economy	injury of the economy	collapse of the economy	liquid resources	economical upturn	market winners and looses
engine of growth	withdrawal contagion	undermine the economy	wages freezes	economical downturn	encroached on each other's territory
injection	barriers to market entry	capital inflow		economical slum up	protection from aggressive players

Figure 3.1 Conceptual metaphors and their source domains for business reporting

3.6 Conclusion

This chapter presents details about the procedures adopted for analyzing the data in this research. First, it outlines how the data were extracted from newspapers. Then, it describes the theoretical framework within which underpinned the empirical investigation. There are multiple methods of approaching the identification of metaphors in discourse. For the present research, the methodological procedures were built on the following works: Metaphor Identification Procedures (MIP) published by the Pragglejaz Group (2007), Lakoff's Conceptual Metaphor Theory and his taxonomy, and Charteris-Black's Critical Metaphor Analysis (2004). The methods complemented each other in a coherent way to shed light on the linguistic level of identifying metaphorically used words in texts and the conceptual level of determining source and target domains and formulating mappings. They were combined for the analysis of metaphorical expressions that conceptualize business news in the language of the press news reporting. The chapter ends with frequent words in the context of phrases that occur in the data that we select to analyze, interpret, and explain.

Many scholars have made serious attempts to identify problems with Metaphor Identification Procedures (for example, Charteris-Black 2004, Partington 2003, Koller and Semino 2009). They argue that there are still unsolved issues that need to be addressed to generate better and accurate identification procedures. The current research used tools from these methods despite their documented scheduling shortcomings.

CHAPTER IV

Analysis and Interpretation of the English Data

4.1 Introduction

With a focus on linguistic construal of the ongoing global business crisis, the methodological framework of this research is grounded in both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis. Within this framework an attempt is made to identify and describe conceptual metaphors from the source domains of path, health, and war. First, the English metaphors identified (see chapter three) are described in terms of conceptual metaphor mappings. Each conceptual metaphor is illustrated with examples from the data. Then, the chapter investigates functions of metaphors within the discourse of business news reports within the frame of Critical Metaphor Analysis.

4.2 Linguistic Analysis

4.2.1 Lexico-Semantic Analysis

Semantic fields consist of semantic associates, words that are related in meaning. According to this approach to the lexicon, the meaning of the lexeme can be inferred only from its paradigmatic sense relations with other neighboring lexical items. Identified according to the procedure outlined in Chapter 3, the lemmas presented in Tables B.1—B.3 (see appendix B) are spread across the three word classes of nouns, verbs and adjectives/adverbs, and incorporate relations of antonymy, hyperonymy, synonymy and metonymy. Hyponymy/hyperonymy relates two elements when the meaning of the one subsumes/is subsumed by the meaning of the other. An example of hyperonymy from Table B.1 is "path", for instance which is the hyperonym of the whole series including "way", "road", "route" and "exit", all of which are co-hyponyms of "path". This in turn shows "road" as a hyponym, which then functions as a hyperonym for "highway" , "causeway", "footpath". Metonymy (whole for part and part for whole) is present in Table B.3 Illness and healing are antonyms in the health field. Antonyms are present in Table B.2 and include "freedom", "liberation", "release", and "unblockage". Finally, synonymy is

present in "fight", "battle" and "contend" as reported in Table B.2. Of course, as Palmer (1977: 60) points out, "there are no real synonyms, that no two words have exactly the same meaning".

For the purpose of the present study words were lemmatized by means of *WordSmith Tools*. Based on a famous definition by W. Nelson Francis and Henry Kucera we understand lemma as a "set of lexical forms having the same stem and belonging to the same major word class, differing only in inflection and/or spelling" (1982: 1). In my research procedure all inflectional variants within one word class were counted as lexemes under one stem or lemma.

4.2.2 Collocational Analysis

After the collection of 200 issues of *Newyork Times* and *Wall Street Journal*, we installed the corpus in the *Wordsmith—*a software tool (Scott 2004). This tool can be used for the automatic identification of typical collocations. Depending on the aim of the analysis, each individual word in a collocation may be seen as either node or collocate. A collocate is a word that occurs frequently within the neighborhood of another word. Sinclair, Jones, and Daley (2004: 10) define node and collocate as follows:

> A node is an item whose total pattern of co-occurrence with other words is under examination; a collocate is any one of the items which appears with the node within a specified span. Essentially there is no difference in status between node and collocate; if word A is a node and word B one of its collocates, when word B is studied as a node, word A will become one of its collocates.
>
> (Sinclair, Jones, and Daley, 2004: 10)

The term "collocate" also denotes the idea that important aspects of the meaning of a word are not contained within the word itself, considered in isolation, but rather subsist in the characteristic associations that the word participates in, alongside other words or structures with which it frequently co-occurs. Firth states that "meaning by collocation is an abstraction at the syntagmatic level and is not directly concerned with the conceptual or idea approach to the

meaning of words" (1968: 196). The evidence for identifying the source domain of metaphors comes precisely from the collocations in which the words in question appear. Accordingly, we carried out a collocation analysis of three main forms: 1) nouns in a phrasal relationship with the adjective [economic], 2) nouns in a phrasal relationship with the adjective [financial], and 3) adjectives in a phrasal relationship with the noun [economy]. Further in-depth analysis can be performed on collocations with other word classes that have not received detailed attention in this work, e.g. verbs in a phrasal relationship with the noun [economy].

Source Domain	economic	financial	economy
[PATH]	economic crossroads (6) economic path (12) economic stumbles (16) economic cliff (10) economic deceleration (2) economic hurdles (10)	financial acceleration (2) financial path (11) financial highway (36)	slumping economy (31) sluggish economy (29) slowing economy (12
[WAR]	economic battle (30) economic devastation economic force (18) economic freedom (36) economic harm (21) economic struggles (63)	financial damage (41) financial bloodbath (18) financial disaster (45) financial battlefield (47) financial empire (9) financial struggle (62)	battered economy (11) tough economy (8) ravaged economy (9) struggling economy (21)
[HEALTH]	economic ailment (11) economic depression (10) economic fissure (8) economic fever (15) economic healing (23) economic headaches (19) economic health (27) economic paralysis (8) economic recovery (30) economic symptoms (13)	financial aches (8) financial epidemic (7) financial contagion (32) financial flu (11) financial folly (9) financial pain(22) financial plague (8) financial revival (21) financial shock (21) financial recovery (30)	healthy economy (30) ailing economy (31) feverish economy (9) sick economy (29) injected economy (5) robust economy (4) sclerotic economy (2) shattered economy (3) debt-chocked economy (5) resilient economy (11) shaky economy (8) wobbly economy (3)

Table.4.1 Collocations of the words "economic" and "financial"

Once the collocates were examined and classified, the corpus was determined to comprise almost 100 words with metaphorical meaning, spread over 64 articles out of the investigation of 200 issues. A further step was the analysis of type token for the purpose to exclude repeat occurrences (tokens) of a single metaphor (type) within a single text from the count.

4.2.3 Type / Token Ratio Analysis

The relationship between the number of types and the number of tokens is known as the type-token ratio (TTR). Type/Token ratio has often been used as a measure of lexical specificity. When calculating the type / token ratio, the number of specific words in a text (types) are put in relation to the number of the total words (tokens). So, for example, a text of 10,000 words but containing only 1000 different words that are variously repeated, would yield a type token ratio of 1000/10000, i.e., 1/10. The type/token ratio is normally represented as a decimal or percentage. A text with 200 types and 400 tokens would have a type / token of 0.5 or 50 %. In corpus linguistics frequency refers to the arithmetic count of the number of tokens within a corpus that belong to each type within a particular classification scheme.

$$\text{type-token ratio} = (\text{number of types/number of tokens}) * 100$$
$$= (200/400) * 100 = 50\%$$

Consequently, a high type / token ration recorded for a text indicates that many different lexical items are used which, in turn, means that a high portion of the words will have a specific meaning. A low ration, on the other hand, shows that few specific words are used while the more general ones are frequent.

Source domain	type	token	type/token ratio
HEALTH	30	76	39, 50%
PATH	31	51	60%
WAR	20	42	47.61%

Table 4.2 The type—token ratio (TTR) for metaphorically used words in the English corpus

Table 3.2 represents the type—token ratio (TTR) for metaphorically used words in the English Corpus. Frequency of metaphors by source domain is presented in tables below. Path metaphors are more frequently used in the English texts than health and war metaphors. The most frequent metaphors from this source domain are (1) "steps toward reviving" (2) "on a slow recovery path" (3) "road to recovery" (4) "face a costly detour" and (5) "revving into gear". It was found that metaphors from war domain are considerably less frequent than metaphors from health in the English corpus. It is fluctuations which include depressions, recessions, and stagnation which evoke a schema for war to argue for more immediate intervention. The most frequent metaphors are (1) "to fend off cutthroat competition" (2) "action to combat the financial turmoil" (3) "to inflict large damage on the economy" and (4) "protect from the onslaught". Current economic situation also evokes health-related schemas. Economic crisis is often associated with a disease that will lead to death. It is a metaphor used to argue against bad economic policy. The five most frequent key words are (1) "fever symptoms of the sick economy" (2) "healing of the financial system" (3) "toxic assets and economic pain" and (4) "financial contagion". As far as word classes are concerned, results convey that nominal metaphoric expressions dominate over others. This finding is in line with Goatly (1997) who claims that nominal metaphors are "either more recognizable as metaphors or yield richer interpretations than ... other word-classes" (Goatly's (1997: 83). These results are described and debated in more detail below.

4.3 Conceptual Analysis

4.3. 1. Identification and Analysis of Source Domains

A metaphor, as we have seen in previous chapters, can be defined as a mapping of image schema from source domain to target domain. This research uses the term *image schema* to denote an internal abstract structure in the human mind which contains represententations and beliefs that are abstracted from experience. Schemas provide the basis of one's interpretation of life experience (M. Johnson, 1987; G. Zaltman, 2003). Schemas mediate the transition between the concrete and the abstract. In order to master abstract concepts, humans systematically

comprehend them in terms of concrete concepts. Metaphors are one of the tools to depict the abstract in terms of the concrete, e.g., "my time is money" we perceive time as both a resource and a quantity.

4.3.1.1 The Source Domain of Path

A major metaphor for thinking about economy and program of economic transformation is ECONOMY IS A PATH. The purposes of the actions of policy makers are conceptualized as the destinations of travelers. In the two cases there is the assumption that we want to attaion a predetermined end. The words *path* refers to the means, method, or approach for achieving some purposes. The ontology of path is an embodied experience of walking along a trail or track to some destination. The everyday frame of understanding of this semantic domain entails a starting point, an end point, and a route to be traversed.
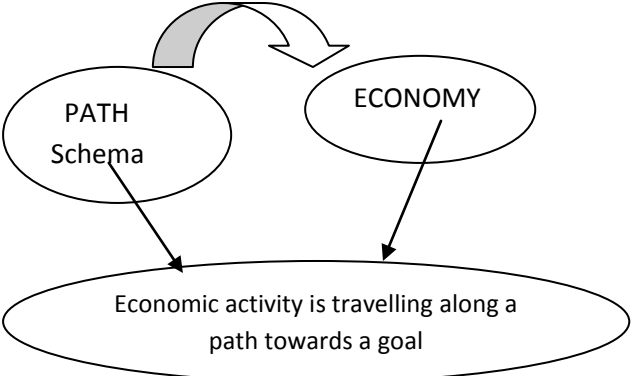
Figure 4.1 the conceptual metaphor ECONOMY IS A PATH

A great number of metaphors can be explained in terms of Path schema which refers to experiences that structure people's spatial and temporal experiences. The Path schema is mapped onto abstract domains through the conceptual key AN ACTIVITY IS MOTION ALONG A PATH. Path metaphors have been the subject of several investigations in economic discourse (Boers and Demecheleer 1997; López Maestre 2000; Eubanks 1999).

Business discourse uses words from the domain of path to describe management goals and policies. Frank Boers claims:

> "[a]ccording to the experiential 'logic' of the PATH schema, for instance, the goal of the path is the desired location that one wants to reach. As a result, motion towards the goal is positively valued, while immobility or motion away from the goal is negatively valued"

> (Frank Boers, 1996: 24)

Like many basic metaphorical schemes, PATH metaphor is grounded in everyday experience of the physical world. Man is not stationary but a reasonable, and therefore a progressing being that moves from one location to another through space. His life is structured as movement along a path, the sequence of its events configured by means of the source-path-goal schema. Accordingly, man's relation to physical space or location would be a good candidate metaphor in more abstract domains such as economics. Many activities and event in economics are abstract, complex, and invisible without the aid of some special metaphorical language which needs to be created and shared for comprehension. Many abstract activities in the field of economics are often conceived as motion of a company, organization, industry, country, etc. over a path towards desired goals.

4.3.1.1.1 SOURCE-PATH- GOAL Schema

Image schemas, as we have already seen, are definable mental representations. They are defined by Mark Johnson as "structures for organizing our experience and comprehension" (1987: 29). They are, Johnson claims, abstract, topological, and pre-conceptual patterns of experience, such as: [UP/DOWN], [IN/OUT], [FRONT/BACK], [ON/OFF], [DEEP/SHALLOW], and [PART/WHOLE] configurations (Johnson 1987: 13-15). These structures constitute the basis of reasoning. From the [MOTION] schema, cognitive scientists claim, derives many conceptual metaphors, most of

which have been developed by George Lakoff and his associates (Lakoff, 1988: 133; Lakoff, 1987: 416-461; Johnson, 1987: 114). They are schematized in figure 4. 2

PATH SCHEMA

↓

Conceptual Metaphors

↓

A IS B

PATH IS END POINT FOCUS

PATH TO DESTINATIONS ARE MEANS

CONSTRAINTS ON ACTION ARE CONSTRAINTS ON MOTION

PURPOSES ARE DESTINATIONS

IMPEDIMENTS TO PURPOSES ARE OBSTACLES TO MOTION
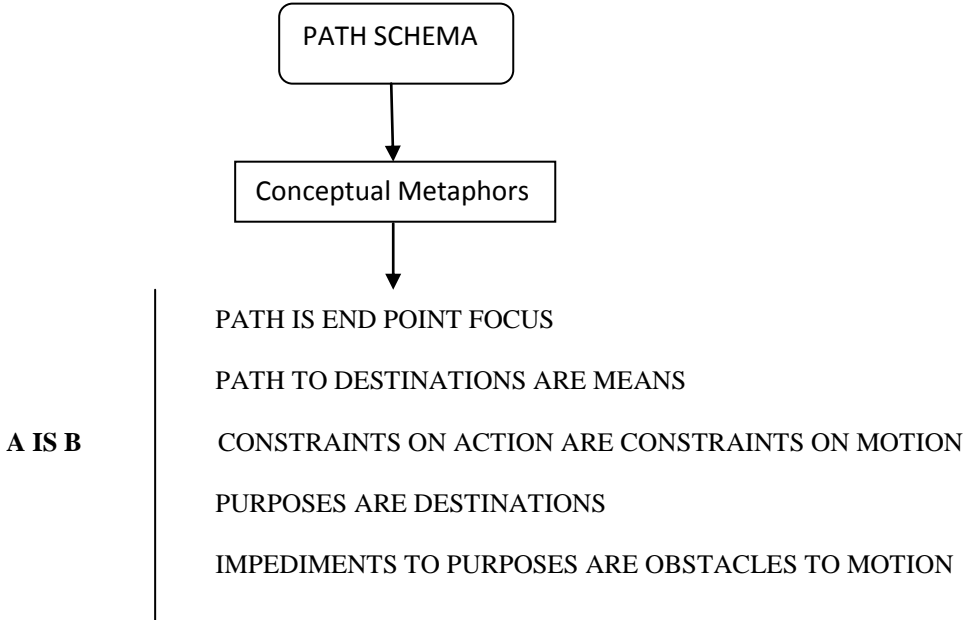
Figure 4.2 Path schema and derivative conceptual metaphors

Conceptual metaphors represent underlying conceptual structure. Metaphoric expressions are linguistic reflections of the underlying conceptual structure. Forexample, the conceptual metaphor PATH IS END POINT FOCUS underlies numerous metaphoric expressions, such as, "on the road to recovery", "taking steps to prop up the economy", "steps toward curing financial problems", and many others.

According to the structure and experientially basic logic of the [PATH] schema, paths are typically goal-oriented destinations to move forward from the premise toward the desired goal until that goal is reached (Johnson, 1987; Lakoff 1987; Zoltan Kövecses 2002). It appears in such expressions as "reaching one's goals", "working toward a solution", "step toward a goal", "on the road to economic revival", or "the end being in sight".

It is worth noting that access paths are often not identified and may be left implicit in texts. Frank Boers (1996: 24) has pointed out that the nature of the conceived path often remains implicit through texts and that only the motion is referred to. He gives the example "the moves

towards privatization and liberalization". So the word *the move* is used to mean *change* in general, with no further specification of path of change. When the path is made explicit by putting it into words, it appears in a variety of sets or frames, which denote an activity involving movement from one place to another. Pathway metaphors in English economic discourse draw on the source domain of all forms of transport— air, road, and sea. Transportation refers to transfer across space involving a center of origin (node), a path (link), and a destination (second node). The sentences 1–9 (taken from the *New York Times* and *Wall Street Journal*) illustrate the point.

1. European leaders are committing to **take major steps toward** reviving and reinvigorating the damaged economy from the mortal crisis. (*NYT*, October 20, 2011)
2. The economy is on **a slow recovery path**. (*WSJ*, February 15, 2012)
3. The global economy is projected **to continue on its slow growth path**. (*WSJ*, July 23, 2013)
4. The economy has **a long way to go**, but we're on **the road back**. (*NYT*, August 2, 2010)
5. America's **road to recovery** may face a costly **detour**.... (*WSJ*, October 13, 2013)
6. Many economists are **forecasting a further slowdown** in the second half of the year. (*NYT*, July 30, 2010)
7. Recent developments have **shifted** U.S. industry **into higher gear**. (*WSJ*, December 4. 2013
8. The older engines of growth are **revving into gear** as the most recent sources of growth. (*NYT*, August 14, 2013)
9. China's economic miracle may be about to **come off the rails**. (*NYT*, December 30, 2010)

4.2.1.2 The Source Domain of War

FIGHT/ WAR metaphor involves the personification of the global collapse of the finance markets as a human individual. Economic organizations, trading companies, financial markets, etc. are conceived as human entities (or other animated entities) engaged in a fight, as evidenced by expressions such as "threaten the survival of the global financial system" ,"to unleash brutal price wars", "the lack of financial muscle", "battle for market share" and many others. When grounded in universal human experience an abstract notion is more readily understandable (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980).
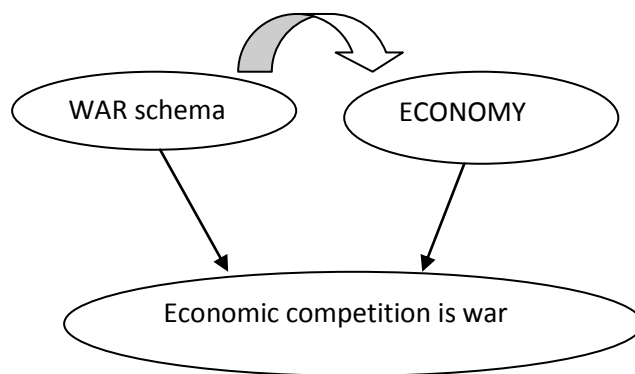
Figure 4.3 The conceptual metaphor TRADE IS WAR

In the conceptual metaphor ECONOMY IS WAR, concepts from the source domain warfare are transferred to the target domain economy. Human conflict is omnipresent and ubiquitous; therefore makes many economic abstract concepts as structured by cultural models more readily understandable. Clausewitz defines *war* as "an act of violence intended to compel our opponent to fulfill our will" (1968, 101). Metaphorically, English business news; include items relating to physical violence such as "posses the financial muscle*,*" "flexing its monopoly muscle," "lack the muscle to withstand world level competition," etc.

10. [...] They, like American companies now, have sought **to fend off cutthroat** competition from companies in emerging economies like South Korea (*NYT*, February 21, 2009)
11. [...] the airline industry is hammered by rising fuel prices and **cutthroat** competition. (*NYT*, March 27, 2012)
12 . [...] Markets **Limp Into** 2009 After a Bruising Year—headline— (*NYT*, January 1,   2009)

4.2.1.2.1 ATTACK / DEFENSE Schema

The war metaphor is realized in the schema [ATTACK / DEFENSE] as causes and [WIN / LOSE] as results. Successful attack and defense result in victory, and failed attack and defense result in loss. It should be well noted that declaring war and mobilizing to fight that war are two entirely different matters. Wars are declared to fight and defeat an enemy perceived as a threat. Fighting in wars is response to attempted invasions or attacks. It seems fairly clear that literally and metaphorically *declare war* and *fight war* underlie different ideologies. The schema [ATTACK / DEFENSE], as Koller (2004) noted, yields the following conceptual metaphors:

```
                    ┌─────────────────┐
                    │   WAR Schema    │
                    └─────────────────┘
                             │
                             ▼
                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │ Conceptual Metaphors│
                    └─────────────────────┘
                             │
                             ▼
```

	ECONOMIC COMPETITIONS ARE WARS
A IS B	MARKETS ARE BATTLEFIELDS
	EMERGING MARKETS ARE NEW FRONTLINES
	INTRODUCING A PRODUCT IS LAUNCHING A WEAPON
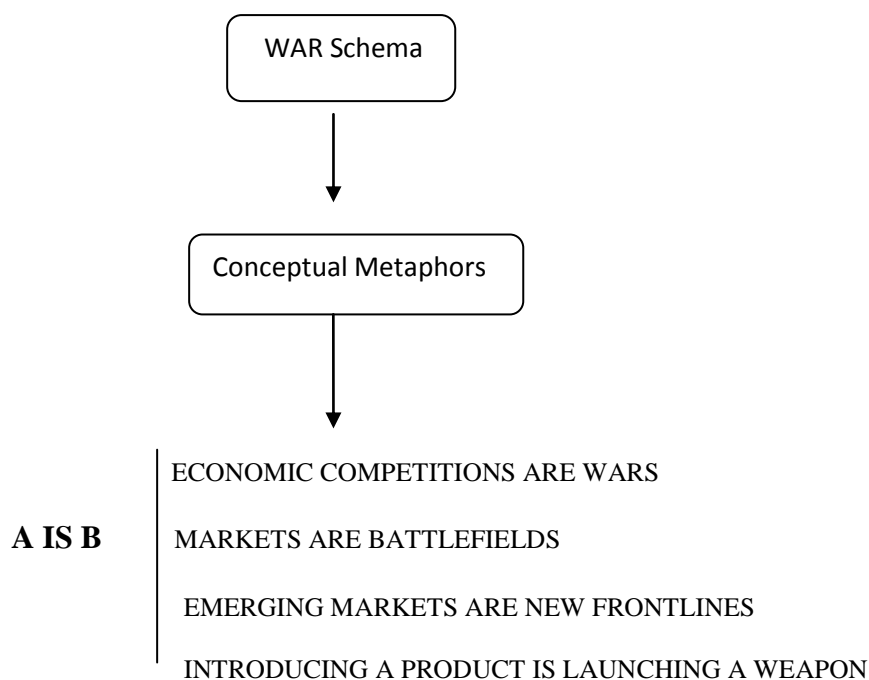
Figure 4.5 War schema and derivative conceptual metaphors

4.2.1.3 The Source Domain of Health

Health vs. illness is another metaphor along the following research theme. Markets and companies are often conceptualized in news reporting as if they were people. They are represented as human body in health and illness. Health and illness refers to "standards of adequacy relative to capacities, feeling states, and biological functioning needed for the performance of these activities expected of members of a society" (A. Twaddle, 1979: 41). Good health equals energetic coherence and harmony while ill health equals incoherence and chaos. In many languages economy is conceptualized in terms of health state of human beings (Charteris-

Black 2004 and Frank Boers 1999). Metaphorically, good economic management is associated with longer life expectancy and better psychological well-being. On the other hand, bad economic performance is associated with illness, injury and pain. A good example would be:

13. America's economy **grew at a healthy pace** in the final months of 2013, boosted by a potent mix of rising exports, consumer spending and business investment. (*WSJ*, January 1, 2014)

4.2.1.3.1 ILLNESS/HEALTH Schema

Conceptualizing economic crisis in terms of health problems and illnesses projects the image schema of illness and doctor-patient relationship. A doctor is a life-saving and patients are at his mercy knowledge. The patient appropriately depends on the doctor's know-how, and the doctor depends on the patient's trust and satisfaction. In the domain of human health, diseases require medical intervention. When a person has an illness he has to be diagnosed and medical treatment prescribed by doctors. Patients with severe disease may undergo surgery if necessary. Persistent or progressive symptoms often require infected tissue or organ removal. If the treatment is successful, the patient will recover or improve. Lack of recovery may be due to failure on the part of the doctor.

Mapped onto the domain of economics, this may be translated in the following way. First, if industrial sickness is not manifested in economy there will no need for governmental intervention in its life. Second, when economic activity slows down and profits fall, diagnosis and the prescription of a course of treatment are required. Third, where there are signs of malfunctioning, sources are to be removed. Forth, Successful treatment program and recovery creates again a profitable growth. From ILLNESS/HEALTH Schema (Mussolf, 2003; Charteris-Black, 2004) derives the following conceptual metaphors:

```
                    ┌─────────────────┐
                    │  HEALTH Schema  │
                    └─────────────────┘
                             │
                             ▼
                    ┌──────────────────────┐
                    │  Conceptual Metaphors │
                    └──────────────────────┘
                             │
                             ▼

                        ECONOMY IS HUMAN BODY

                    MARKET IS STATE OF HEALTH

                    BAD MARKET IS DISCOMFORT / PAIN

          A IS B    ECONOMIC CRISIS IS INFECTIOUS DISEASE

                    DISEASE IS INVASION

                    DISEASE IS OBSTACLE

                    REFORM IS REMEDY
```
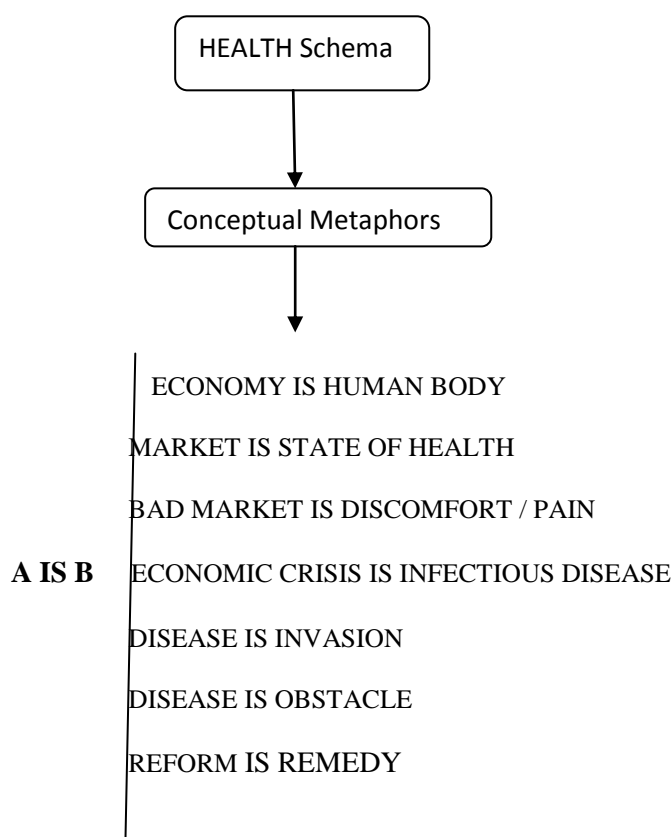
Figure 4.6 Healt Schema and derivative conceptual metaphors

4.3 Interpretation and explanation of Source Domains

The approaches of Lakoff and cognitive linguists, which identify metaphor in terms of experiential schemas grounded in universal human experience, have focused on language in general. Many researchers argue against such universality of conceptual structures and stress that they must differ across languages. Apart from universal schemas, which are shared by humanbeings there are also cultural schemas, which are shared by members of a culture, and idiosyncratic schemas, which are unique to certain individuals. Cognitive schemas do not represent only universal human experience but also the core thoughts, assumptions, and beliefs that reflect an individual's view of the world. Recently Lakoff's Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) has received much attention within critical discourse analysis (CDA). According to this view, metaphor is thought of not only as the reflection of our worldview, but as something that causes and subsumes our worldview. Charteris Black (2004) combines CMT and CDA to discuss

metaphorical expressions in a variety of authentic texts. This research used his model (see chapter three) to explore first the way metaphorical expressions are systematically related on the textual and the conceptual level, then the reasons for choosing certain metaphors. A corpus is a key resourse for the investigation of the semiotics of culture and can provide evidence for the typical connotative meanings of human universal primary experiences. The next sections present thorough details.

4.3.1 Path Metaphors

Business discourse applies metaphorically means of transport in order to map an explicit path between the present and a vision of the future. We can see this metaphor mapping by way of five points:

1. The pathways "land-road", "railway", "seaway", and "airway" perform patterns that are different from but related to patterns performed by pathway. They differ mainly in terms of speed and motion. Therefore, they are metaphorically used to refer to low speed and high-speed or safe and risk strategic path, as illustrated by the following expressions: "navigate through the dangerous waters of complex economic systems", "pave the way for economic recovery", and "the economy flew off the rails".The train is travelling with constant speed fixed to the railway track in a fixed direction. In other words, train tracks limit the movement of a train to essentially one plane. But, the motions of ships sailing in seaway vary so greatly at different times under very various conditions of wind and weather. Road transport has been found to be a rich source domain for business metaphor and conceptualization of business course pathways. However, the distinction between "road" and "way" is an important one. Way is much more extensive and general than road and implies the passage from place to place, whether through the high road or not. A road yields a smooth hard surface and is much more limited and particular, and means the beaten way of travelers from one town or city to another. Different modes of transport differ in terms of the benefits and risks involved.

2. Activities which serve a clear purpose and which yield results fast are always valued positively, as illustrated by the following expressions: "a road to rescue ailing economies", "the economy has been rescued from disaster", "and is on the road to recovery," and many others. Difficulties are often conceived as obstacles on one's goal-oriented path (Frank Boers, 1996: 24). Synonyms for difficulty include "dilemma", "quandary", "obstacle", "predicament", and "problems" in expressions such as "removed obstacles to economic recovery", "obstacles lying in the path of economic growth" , and others. Difficulties are always associated with only negative outcomes. They challenge goals and interests. To reach one's desired destination one has to go round the obstacles that are blocking the achievement of his end goal. One has to climb or jump over barriers or remove them towards achieving an end. News language teems with metaphors to understand an event as a motion along a path toward some destination and difficulties as impediments to motion that should be removed, overcome, or avoided. In such contexts, most frequently used expressions are "stumbling blocks" and "break the logjam". Sentences from the corpus are:

14. United States **face hurdles that are often hard to surmount**. (*NYT*, January 20, 2013)
15. [...] **to break the logjam that has blocked the path of economic growth**. (*NYT*, April 7, 2009)

Lakoff refers to this point of the mapping of the conceptual metaphor path and claims that

> A difficulty is something that impedes motion to such a destination. Metaphorical difficulties of this sort come in five types: blockages; features of the terrain; burdens; counterforces; lack of an energy source
>
> (George Lakoff, 1993: 204)

Path between a source and destination in a network is not unique. Different means of achieving the destination are understood as different paths and different paths may represent very different outcomes. Accordingly, differences between metaphorically used terms represent different forms of economic and political interests.

16. The United States and Europe **chose largely different paths to aiding their economies**. (*NYT,* June 12, 2009)

17. The balance of world economic growth is **tipping in another direction**. (*NYT,* August 14, 2013)

3. A path is long or short; difficult or easy; predictable or unpredictable, as is reflected in English expressions such as "the long-run growth path", "predictable growth path", "follow the well-worn path", "along a destructive path", and so on. Choosing the right path to follow is an important choice. Policymakers always strive to pick the right instrument in the hope of achieving the desired effect. They perceive the outcomes of the choice process as moving in the right direction, as illustrated by the following expressions: "to steer the economy in the right direction", "to point the economy in the right direction", "to move the economy in the right direction", "headed in the right direction", "the thrust in the right direction", "to go a long way in exactly the right direction", "to set back in the right direction", and many others.

18. [...] to take policy decisions **to steer the economy in the right direction** may be delayed. (*WSJ,* April 6, 2011)

19. [...] The government has set out a credible **long-term path** to repairing the budget. (*NYT,* December 17, 2013)

Policymakers may make false starts and move the process of economic policies in a wrong direction. They may use the wrong instruments in trying to move economy forward. metaphorically speaking; for example, "wrong route to economic growth", "provide a wrong compass with which to steer economies", "drive the economy back to the low level", "start on the wrong track," and other.

20. [...] **drive** the American economy **back** into a long depression. (*NYT*, October 21, 2013)

4. One may be confused about or unsure of which direction to pursue. Such an inability reflects indecisiveness, and in this context indecisiveness in pushing through the necessary economic reforms. Indecisiveness is often not appreciated and is valued negatively. Some illustrative examples would be: "stay on course to complete the journey", "there is a beam of hope to see the results", "staying the course on an announced policy", "stay the course for change", "without wavering in that resolve", "must backtrack on reforms", and many others.

23. Obama has settled on a wise **course**, and he must not waver. (*NYT,* July 07, 2011)

5. In physical space, "to reach one's desired destination, one has to move forward, whereas going round in circles implies losing a great deal of energy" (Andreas Langlotz, 2006: 137). The conceptual metaphor PROGRESS IS MOVING FORWARD structures pathway in terms of progress. The literal meaning of the word *progress* is forward movement towards some objective versus regression which is moving backward or back away.

> 21. The field of econometrics **took a giant** step forward. (*NYT,*September 7, 2013)
> 22. One **big step forward** would be the end to the government shutdown (*NYT,* October 11, 2013)

6. Related to path-goal schema is the notion *measurement*. Goals should be measurable. Whatever the goal is, there must be some way of measuring the attainment of this goal. Path schema offers a framework within which to interpret movement toward a state or location where progress will culminate. Within a pathway framework, therefore, it is necessary to measure progress and identify milestones of achievements to control actions toward desired goals and do the next right thing on the pathway. In decision-making situations, partners employ successive approximations each designed to bring them closer to the overall goals, as illustrated by the following expressions: "next frontier for economic growth", "reached another market milestone", "have made major progress", " modest progress in reaching economic", "...with implementing those reforms have made only modest progress"

> 24. The government has set out a credible **long-term path** to repairing the budget. (*NYT*, December 17, 2013)

7. A better understanding of world economy would be through analysis of how physical space and motion are perceived and utilized. The best of pathways are the shortest and quickest ways to the goal chosen. In truth, we cannot tread different paths at once in physical space. There can be other threads running at the same time. Sometimes people tread one path for awhile and then change. The choice of the desired path means abandoning all the other options. Mapped onto the domain of economics, pathway metaphors are based on the transfer of SOURCE-PATH-GOAL

schema into the abstract domain of reasoning about different economic policies. Pursuing one economic policy rather than another is like pursuing one path to the exclusion of the others.

The editorials of the English newspapers under examination reflect differing perspectives on economic issues, banking, and financial market news. Market economies can range from laissez-faire and free market to complete control of the economy. Capitalist principles of development are based on the principal of the Laissez Faire doctrine, implying a system of economic freedom. Democracy is required for a successful free-market economy. In contrast to capitalist countries, socialist countries maintain a centrally planned economy, where the country's vital resources and most of productions are directed and controlled by the government. Newspaper*s* operate within an ideological and political framework. With particular interests and objectives, news papers publishers may support or oppose a government and its policies.

It appears that Path metaphor is deeply rooted in the English language and is largely used in economic news. It can be realized in a great variety of figurative expressions. At its most abstract level of metaphorical mapping, the path metaphor builds directly on the image schema which we use to structure our physical space. This image schema is manifested in the metaphor "purposive action as motion of an object along a path to a goal," (M. Johnson, 1993: 37). This metaphor can be linked up with war metaphors (path for freedom), health metaphors (path to recovery) and with many other ones, which have not been included in this research. Metaphoric language promotes particular worldviews and ideologies. Path metaphor reflects and promote*s* the Westerns' vision of economy which is moving forward rapidly in a more sustainable way to improve long term economic growth.

4.3.2 War Metaphors

From these conceptual metaphors derive expressions , such as "tearing down tariff walls", "to erect trade barriers", "rate under immediate attack on currency markets", "fight over prices", "defend export policies", "to defend the fiscal consolidation", "the chain of fiscal battles", and many others in examples such as the following:

23. [...] **defending** economic growth and strengthening the competitiveness of euro zone countries (*NYT*, August 16, 2011)
24. [...] action **to combat** the financial turmoil that moved beyond Greece and threatened the stability of the region that uses the euro as its currency (*NYT*, May 10, 2010)
25. [...] threatening to **inflict large damage** on the economy (*NYT*, November 1, 2012)

Metaphorically [FIGHT] and [WAR] are frequently used to describe competing ideologies. Traditionally, powerful groups and companies use their financial clout to compel weaker ones to implement policies to reduce the risk of a systemic financial failure. Franke Wilmer claims "War increasingly appears as a metaphor for policies aimed at solving social problems by defeating them" (2003, 221). Metaphorically, governments have several roles in fighting and defeating the global financial crisis. David Zarefsky pointed out that"The war metaphor defines the objective and encourages enlistment in the effort, it identifies the enemy, and it dictates the choice of weapons and tactics with which the struggle will be fought (Zarefsky 1986: 29). Thus, economy is usually described within the conceptual structures MARKET TRADING IS ATTACKING, COMPETITORS ARE ENEMIES, and ADVERTISING IS A WEAPON (Herrera and White 2000, Charteris-Black 2004, Koller 2004)

26. [...] **the struggles** of a small business trying to survive in a tough economy (*NYT*, January 16, 2014)
27. [...] Wall Street banks face an **onslaught of battles** with private investors (*NYT*, November 16, 2012
28. [...] **protect** the euro union **from the onslaught** of the financial markets.
29. [...] new fronts **to fight** international tax competition (*NYT*, November 14, 2013)

War metaphors, in a few words, enable business to be seen as a battle for survival. They emphasize the aspect of both fighting and strategy, and advocate a struggle to overcome weakness; yet as calls to action, they call on a government to fight and defend against inflation, which is viewed as a very dangerous enemy and a dire threat to survival that must be tackled, defeated, and resisted.

4.3.3 Health Metaphors

Some of the most common figurative expressions in business discourse derived from conceptual metaphors of health would be "symptoms of economic disease", "financial contagion", "treatment inflicted on financial situation", "recovering from financial crisis", "bleeding cash reserve", and many others in financial texts, as evidenced in these examples:

30. [...] Policy intervention is even more pressing in the current **weak** economic climate. (*NYT*, August 12, 2013

31. [...] budget deficits and inflation are **fever symptoms** of the sick economy.

32. Without taking the cure, our **sick economy** won't get better

33. [...] **Urgent interventions**, by almost all governments, have been announced to save the banking system

34. [...] the gradual **healing of the financial** system that began in the spring of 2009 continued through the early spring of 2010.

These figurative expressions relate economic crisis to unhealthy behaviors and poor physical health. To do so, they embody representations, propositions or assumptions. Alongside the metaphor of health, it becomes possible for us to understand the different aspects of socio-economic systems in a more comprehensive way, as the following examples illustrate: "facing chronic budget problems", "to plague world financial markets", "causing the company headaches", "Create headache for the bank," and many others.

35. [...] Europe continues **to suffer** major economic troubles with slow fiscal growth and high unemployment rates (*NYT,* December 07, 2011)

36. [...] Like the United States, Europe **suffered a severe slump** in the wake of the global financial meltdown (*NYT,* January 12, 2011)

There are a great many ways in which the domain of health can be mapped through metaphor onto the domains of economics. Injury, mutilation, illness, disease, impairment and disability are always associated with greater discomfort and disruption of the patient's life. They typically undermine patients' energy and mobility. The conceptual metaphor ECONOMIC PROBLEMS ARE

ILLNESSES underlies use of many linguistic expressions such as: "leaving the economy in paralysis", "economy faces many handicaps", "Paralysis in debt markets", and a lot of others.

37. [...] collapse of that bubble and the drawn-out **economic pain** it has brought the Japanese economy **have paralyzed** the bank's decision-making (*NYT*, March 14, 2013)

When health metaphors are applied in business reports, they are often used to describe measures taken by the government to influence the course of economic events. In other words, the language of health is used to represent government control of economic life. C. Rathbun (1999: 356) has pointed out important differences between public health and private health and states "public health is not about making individuals healthy, it is about keeping society healthy by preventing individuals from doing things that endanger others". Public health is, in short, a focus on the health of entire populations rather than individual patients; accordingly, controlling the spread of communicable diseases in society. This conception of public health has mostly been applied to interpreting metaphorical statements about government in controlling the financial system of an economy, as evidenced in these examples:

38. [...] Europe's efforts to stem **financial contagion** (*NYT*, November 9, 2011)
39. **[...] to avert an "expected contagion**" that risked infecting the nation's financial system (*NYT*,June 27, 2008)
40. [...] prevent another **financial shock** from tipping the world (*NYT*, April 23, 2013)
41. A financial firewall might **halt contagion** by backstopping the credit of four other shaky nations — Ireland, Portugal, Spain and Italy. (*NYT*, October 22, 2011)

Health metapho*r*s are not only metaphors for leadership used to control system but also for authority used to describe relations of unequal power. They eliminate an economic means of powerful social groups to monopolize power. One way to convince people that certain policies are economically and politically harmful is to link those policies to health problems. This can be expressed in expressions such as "the need to remedy or prevent injurious pricing", "protection against downturns in the stock market", "protection from market swings", "buffered them against financial contagion", "provide the liquidity to stem the bleeding", "stop the bleeding in the stock market", and there are many other examples.

42. [...] Mr. Sarkozy has administered in hopes of protecting France from **financial contagion** (*NYT*, April 17, 2012)

With reference to health metaphors, Charteris-Black claims that

(…) the underlying notion that The Economy is a Patient implies that the economy is a passive entity whose condition can be influenced by the right decisions; this perception permits the economist to present himself as a doctor or a surgeon who can take an active role in influencing economic events.

(Charteris-Black, 2000: 157, emphase originale)

Disease-related metaphors exclude unwanted others. A phrase such "a financial firewall might halt contagion" represents investors in a particular way, dehumanizing them and constructing them negatively as unwanted people.

It appears that both physical and mental illness may be selected as source domains in health metaphor. Both physical and mental illness produce disability and the sick individual is relieved of responsibilities. However, they incorporate different inference patterns and associations: Mental illness (e.g. depressive disorders, anxiety disorders) does not spread through contact of any form and does not pose the same dangers as physical one. But a mental patient may endanger or injure others by his actions. Metaphor of health in many texts is a metaphor for exclusion and for power and dominance. It is used to face opposition and defend ideologies and social groups; in other words to maintain industrial and economic leadership and keep self competitive in the global economy. Examples would be "financial insanity", "market madness",

"current economic paralysis", "pricing paralysis", "fiscal fever" etc. used to talk about competitors. This plugs into another metaphor theme, DESEASE IS INVASION which is beyond the scope of this research.

4.4 Conclusion

The analysis of the business reports from the 2008s to 2013s published in *New York Times,* and *Wall Street Journal* shows that news in business reports are highly explained by the use of three generic conceptual keys. First, market policies are understood by projecting onto them the image schema of movement along a path towards destinations. Second, bad market is described metaphorically by reference to human body. The orderly work of the human body mirrors the organization of economic activities. Third, talk about growth in market as struggle to survive under free trade is drawn from war experience. These three conceptual sources are instances of personification and description of non-human entities in human terms. They have provided the conceptual frame for the interpretation of a very wide range of metaphors in business reports.

There are six main conclusions drawn from the analysis of the linguistic realizations or manifestations of these underlying conceptual metaphors. First, business press news reports are characterized by a prominent use of nouns and adjectives, whereas adverbs and verbs are a less common feature. Nouns are comparatively more prominent than adjectives, and verbs more prominent than adverbs. Second, from the source domain of [PATH], nouns and verbs are commonly metaphorical, relative to other word classes. The noun "speed" and the verb "to drive" have been shown to be among the most frequently used metaphorical words in business news texts. Third, the source domain of war is characterized by a high frequency of verbs, whereas the use of nouns is less typical. Fourth, the source domain of health is characterized by a high frequency of nouns. Fifth, there are a few cases of business being referred to with adjectives.

CHAPTER V

Translating Metaphors

5.1 Introduction

With regard to practical implications of our research, the final chapter of this research considers implications of the research for the translation of metaphors. Translation in this research is not used in its proper sense, that is the rendition of discourse from one language into another and the text is translated in *extenso,* but in the sense that the text is translated in a summary form, which could also be interpreted as a manipulation. Whatever it may be, the practice is a deconstruction-reconstruction process of a text constructed in another language. Many Arabic newspapers present summary reports from publications in international newspapers and magazines. Not surprisingly to say that reporting the news may be different from making the news, when each is a frame or window on reality. One of the linguistic devices which encode reality specific to one culture is metaphor. Making several observations on the role of metaphor in news reports, critical linguists adopt the view that, reality is described and redescribed through metaphor. The metaphorical redescription of reality generates new conceptualizations or thought. The focus of this chapter is on the way conceptual metaphor and discourse metaphor theories help us to throw light on the translation of metaphor for the purpose to examine the way ideological concerns manipulate the translation of metaphors in reports of business news.

5.2 Definitions of Translation

Translation has been defined in different ways by different authors. Gideon Toury defines it as "a matter of transferring entities, underlying codes, and sets of relationships and signs from one language to another" (G. Toury, 1980: 12). From a different perspective, many authors view translation as a process of communication in which the translator is interposed between a translater and a receiver who uses different languages (e.g., Reddy, 1979; Lakoff & Johnson, 2003) . E. Tanke defines translation as "transfer of a text from a source language into a text in target language, the objective being a perfect equivalence of meaning between the two texts" (E.

Tanke l975). Many scholars define translation as that which preserves the meaning of the original in another language or form (Ross, Stephen 1981: 9). Others define it as an interpretation. George Steiner emphasized that "a translation is always an interpretation of the source text, and as a result a translation is not a faded replica of the original but an expansive transformation of it" (1975: 29). Translation is also defined by many scholars as the final product of problem solving. Juan C Sager defines it as "a complex problem-solving exercise in which a problem is defined, analyzed with reference to a knowledge base, alternative solutions sought and finally a single choice from among possible solutions put forward as the most satisfactory" (1994: 246). For Nida & Taber "Translation is the reproduction in the receptor language of the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning, and second in terms of style" (1969: 210). From a pragmatic perspective, Newmark (1988: 5) defines translation as rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intentended the text." From a different perspective, Robert De Beaugrande believes that translating should not be viewed as a comparison and contrast of two texts, but instead as a process of interaction between author, translator, and reader of the translations (1978, 13). The act of translating is guided by several set of strategies responsive to the directives within the text.

There are many other alternative definitions derived from many different perspectives and through different theoretical lenses. Whatever definitions we come across, almost all of them fall under two classes. The first is the substitution of one writer's text from one language to another in which the main goal of the translator is is to preserve the meaning of the original. The second is the transference of a message communicated from one text into a message communicated in another, with a high degree of attaining pragmatic equivalence of the message.

5.3 Equivalence in Translation

Many scholars define translation in terms of equivalence. However, when it comes to defining what equivalence really means, it seems that it is one of the most controversial issues. The question of the correspondence between the source text and the target text is central to this debate. The concept of *equivalence* has been widely debated by many theoreticians of translation. The German term *Äquivalenz* which corresponded to the English term "equivalence" was introduced into translation science by Susan Bassnett and André Lefevere from mathematics or formal logic, or both in the 1970's. The German term conveyed a component of reversibility— translation by structural correspondences—which is absent from the English equivalence (O. Classe, 2000).

5.3.1 Fomal v.s. Dynamic Equivalence

Formal and dynamic dichotomy was postulated within recent translation theory in 1964 by Eugene Albert Nida in his seminal work *Towards a Science of Translating*. He calls the traditional method *"formal equivalence"* or "formal correspondence", and introduces "dynamic equivalence" or later "functional equivalence" method. Nida defines "formal equivalence" as a method which "focuses attention on the message itself, in both form and content", unlike dynamic equivalence which is "based on the principle of equivalent effect" (1964: 159). In their second edition (1982) of their book, Nida and Catford provide detailed explanation of each type of equivalence. Formal correspondence consists of a target language item which represents the closest equivalent of a source language word or phrase. They argue that there are not always formal completely word-for-word equivalents   between language pairs.

Dynamic equivalence is defined as a translation principle according to which a translator seeks to translate the meaning of the original text in such a way that it produces the same effect on the target language. Nida and Taber argue that

> Frequently, the form of the original text is changed; but as long as the change follows the rules of back transformation in the source language of contextual constituency in the transfer, and of transformation in the receptor language, the message is preserved and the transformation is faithful.
>
> (Nida and Taber,1982: 200)

The word *faithful* in this definition brings attention to ethical considerations in the process of translation. For the sake of ethics, Nida and Catford put an emphasis on the equality of textual effect. They argue that the translator has to determine how to re-say what has been said so that the effect remains the same as it had in its "first voice". They shift attention away from manipulating texts as such to texts as people use them.

5.3.2 Formal Correspondence and Textual Equivalence

The notion of equivalence also occupies a significant area of discussion in Catford's landmark, *A Linguistic Theory of Translation* (1965). He defines translation as "the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)" (1965: 20). He distinguishes between translation equivalence as an empirical phenomenon and the underlying conditions of translation equivalence. He relates translation to the notion of context of situation and argues that the condition for translation equivalence is "interchangeability in a given situation" (1965: 49). Translation equivalence is further differentiated into *textual equivalence* and *formal equivalence*. Textual equivalence, according to him, is "any TL form (text or portion of text) which is observed to be the equivalent of a given SL form (text or portion of text)" and formal equivalence or correspondence as "any TL category which is said to occupy,

as nearly as possible, the "same place" in the economy of the TL as the given SL category occupies in the SL" (Catford 1965: 32).

5.3.3 Functional Equivalence

The view of J. House represents a well established approach to translation. She assumes that the most important requirement for translation equivalence is functional. She based her view on Halliday's Systemic Functional Theory. Translating a text in one language is replaced by a functionally equivalent text in another language. To achieve this functional equivalence between original and translation texts, a "cultural filter" (House 1977, 1997) is used to accommodate for differences in textual and genre conventions in source and target culture. Her view has been a shift in translation studies from linguistically oriented approaches to culturally oriented ones.

> In translation there are many factors which can be controlled by the translator and have nothing to do with translation as a linguistic, procedure or with the translator's lingua-cultural competence such factors are social factors, they concern human agents and socio-political or even ideological constraints that normally have far greater power and influence than the translator"

(J. House, 1977: 118-1)

5.3.4 Equivalence at Different Levels

Baker (1992) adopts a bottom-up or micro-to-macro method and claims that equivalence can be established at various linguistic levels and extralinguistic levels of context of situation and context of culture. He explores the notion at word and above word levels. She investigates grammatical equivalence, textual equivalence, and pragmatic equivalence. The typology incorporates levels beyond the form to include discourse levels.

- The equivalence at word level (lexicons, particles, auxiliary, and modal verbs)
- equivalence above word level (collocations, idioms)
- grammatical equivalence (number. gender, person, tense/aspect, voice, and word order.

- texual equivalence (Theme-Rheme structure which frames the text)

- pragmatic equivalence (the intended meaning of a given message)

- cultural equivalence (the culutral connocations that words have in a given cultural context)

These typologies argue the case that equivalence in translation cannot be reduced to only linguistic equivalence but goes beyond. They indicate that equivalence is a measure of how well a text represents another text across cultural and linguistic boundaries.

At the heart of translation lies the problem of meaning. Translators often find that there is no exact equivalence between the words of one language and the words of another (Larson, 1984:57). Baker gives a detailed description of some of the more common problems of non-equivalence that might be encountered (1992: 21-26) which Roberto A. Valdeón (2007: 110) summarizes in the following way:

- Culture-specific concepts, that is, the concept may be unknown in the target culture

- The source-language concept is not lexicalized in the target language

- The source-language word is semantically complex

- The source and target languages make different distinctions in meaning

- The target language lacks a superordinate or generic term

- The target language lacks a hyponym, or specific term

- Differences in physical or interpersonal perspective

- Differences in expressive meaning

- Differences in form

- Differences in frequency and purpose of using specific forms

- The use of loan words and false friends

Within this theoretical framework the rest of the chapter is devoted to translating metaphors which is one of the problematic issues on the search of equivalence in translation.

5.4 Implications for News Reporting

Research on the conceptual system that underlies metaphors in discourse has important implications for translation. The rest of this chapter is devoted to the investigation of Arabic metaphors in translated news reports from *NYT and WSJ*. The analysis is conducted within the same framework as that of chapter three. Words and their translation equivalents are examined first to attempt to determine if they underlie the same set of conceptual systems, and second to see if they can fulfill the same functions in news reports in newspapers. When using discourse analysis researchers can identify the functions of metaphors that pattern thought, attitudes, and action. With implications for translation, critical discourse analysis provides researchers the way translation paves the way for ideological thought patterns.

Translated English metaphors into Arabic in newspapers come from a more general body of texts downloaded from websites. They were selected on the basis of key words and expressions, such as "min maqaal noshira fi sahifat x", "ma taquluhu sahifat x" (from an article published in x), while (x) refers to *New York Times* or *Wall Street Journal*. Then, the texts were compared with comparable originals. Table (5.1) shows the most frequent words in the corpus which involves the comparison of translated corpora and comparable originals.

PATH		
ECONOMY IS A JOURNEY ALONG A PATH PATH IS END POINT FOCUS PATH TO DESTINATIONS ARE MEANS CONSTRAINTS ON ACTION ARE CONSTRAINTS ON MOTION PURPOSES ARE DESTINATIONS IMPEDIMENTS TO PURPOSES ARE OBSTACLES TO MOTION	the path of economic recovery	مسار الانتعاش الاقتصادي
	the economy is on a slow recovery path	ا لاقتصاد في طريقه إلى انتعاش بطيء
	drive the economy on a wrong path	الإقتصاد يسير في الطريق الخطأ
	to steer the economy in the right direction	سير الاقتصاد في الاتجاه الصحيح
	the economy continues to move ahead at a steady pace	الاقتصاد يسير بخطى ثابتة
	drive the American economy back into a long recession	دفع الاقتصاد الأمريكي نحو الكساد مرة أخرى
	a turning point for global economy	الاقتصد العالمي في منعطف طريق
	hasty and ill-considered steps	خطوات متسرعة وغير مدروسة
	pushing the economy toward the abyss	الاقتصد على شفر الهاوية على فوهة بركان

WAR		
Conceptual Metaphors	English	Arabic
ECONOMY IS A TRUGGLE TO SURVIVAL ECONOMY IS WAR TRADE NEGOTIATIONS ARE BATTLES ECONOMIC PROBLEM IS COMBAT ECONOMIC COMPETITIONS ARE WARS MARKETS ARE BATTLEFIELS EMERGING MARKETS ARE NEW FRONTLINES INTRODUCING A PRODUCT IS LAUNCHING A WEAPON	the battle against the economic crisis	مواجهة الأزمة الاقتصادية
	the battle to prevent financial crisis	الجهد المبذول للحفاظ على الاقتصاد
	the battle to prevent financial collapse	السعي إلى منع حدوث انهيار اقتصادي
	to defend a currency against attack	للدفاع عن ضعف العملة
	struggle against inflation	محاربة // النضال ضد التضخم
	struggle to survive financial crisis	الصمود في وجه الأزمة المالية التحرك لمواجهة الأزمة المالية
	to survive the painful financial crisis	النجاة من الأزمة المالية المؤلمة
	to combat the financial turmoil	مكافحة الازمة الاقتصادية
	grappling with debt crisis	تصارع أزمة الديون
	grappling with debt	التخبّط في أزمة خانقة
	the debt bomb	قنبلة الديون
	to defeat the economic crisis	لتجاوز الأزمة المالية
	to invade the market	اقتحام السوق

114

HEALTH		
ECONOMY IS HUMAN BODY MARKET IS STATE OF HEALTH BAD MARKET IS DISCOMFORT/ PAIN ECONOMIC CRISIS IS INFECTIOUS DISEASE DISEASE IS INVASION DISEASE IS OBSTACLE REFORM IS REMEDY	strike at the heart of the economy // financial headache //the free flow of capital is the life-blood of sustainable economic growth	الأزمة ضربة في قلب الاقتصاد / صداع في رأس الاقتصاد // أزمة نخرت جسم الاقتصاد //
	a healthy economy // an ailing economy// chronic economic malaise	إقتصاد سليم// اقتصاد صحي// الأزمة الاقتصادية المزمنة // اقتصاد معتل
	the financial injury // the chronic inflation that has plagued the economy// chronic deficits	إصابة الأسواق بالشلل// التعصب الاقتصادي الاقتصاد يعاني أمراضا بعضها مزمن
	the pain of the financial crisis	آلام الأزمات الاقتصادية // الأزمة الاقتصادية وجع رأس عالمي
	financial contagion the shock of financial turmoil recovering from the shock of the financial crisis	عدوى الأزمات المالية// صدمة أزمة القطاع المالي // التعافى من صدمة الأزمة المالية
	a severe economic set-back	الاقتصاد يتعافى من كبوة شديدة
	diagnosis of the economic crisis to inject money into the economy // the cure for the disease that affects the economy // economic recovery program // an economy in convalescence	إصلاح لعلاج الاقتصاد المنهار // حقن فيروس التضخم في الاقتصاد// حقن الأسواق برؤوس الأموال لمنع حالة الانهيار // إعادة عافية الاقتصاد// الاقتصاد العالمي في مرحلة النقاهة// تشخيص المشكلة الاقتصادية

Table 5.1 Metaphors in Arabic news reports translated from *NYT* and *WSJ*

The results reported in table 5.1 can be summarized in the following points. First, economic crisis is metaphorically structured in terms of path, war, and health in English and also in Arabic. In many examples, Arabic translation from English uses the same conceptual metaphors and equivalent linguistic expressions. In other examples translators adopt the same conceptual metaphorical structures that occur in English and reproduce same metaphors.This result supports the claim that systems of conceptual metaphors exist independently of language. Lakoff explain the universality of conceptual metaphors in terms of human experience which basically goes through certain similar streams all over the world. Second, despite universality in metaphorical conceptualization, there is a great deal of cross-cultural differences in metaphor usage. The table offers many examples in which Arabic translation from English uses figurative meanings expressed by words with different literal meanings that belong to the same conceptual system. This result gives a support to Zoltán Kövecses's claim that there are two analytical levels of conceptual metaphors. A conceptual metaphor is universal or near universal on a generic level, while the same conceptual metaphor shows cultural variation at the specific level. For example, the word "battle" is not literally translated into [maaraka], but instead into related words from the same semantic field of meanings which function differently. The different senses of the used words, even if they fit into the same semantic field, correspond to different conceptual domains. There are plenty of Arabic words denoting armed combat, such as [harb] (war), [maaraka] (battle) [siraʹa] (combat), or [qital] (killing), which the translators could easily have used, but did not under certain constraints. We will discuss this point further in the next section. The three domains described in this research are nearly universal aspects of human experience, but experience within each domain is culturally defined. Forexample, people do not share the same experience of war in the same way. Every conceptual metaphor is a variant of a wider sense of conceptual pattern just as every culture is a variant of a universal culture pattern. Together, these findings imply that translation is a strategic process that is driven by many

linguistic and non-linguistic constraints at different levels of text related to its context. These aspects are further analyzed in the next sections.

5.5 Strategies for Translating Metaphors

Translating metaphors has been the object of heated debate in translating studies since the 1980's due to density of the linguistic, cognitive and cultural elements that independently of each other are simultaneously in play (Ian MacKenzie, 2013). There are two extremes concerning the issue of translation, which can be illustrated with reference to the views of Rolf Kloepfer (1967) and Katharina Reiss (1971) as representing the no-problem approach to the translation of metaphor in contrast to the views of Menachim Dagut (1967) and Karl Simms (1997) as representing an approach which deals with metaphor translation as a problem.

For Kloepfer (1967: 116), metaphor would cause no problem for translation because of the shared ownership of "fields of imagery" which are supposedly universal among human beings. Snell- Hornby takes the same line of argument and argues that the "structures of fantasy" are the same for all humans (1979: 116). Furthermore, he argues that the bolder and more creative the metaphor, the easier it is to repeat it in other languages. The implications of Kloepfer's views were eagerly taken up by scholars in Germany, including Katerina Reiss (1971) who adopts a more functionally-oriented approach to translation and states that metaphors should not pose any great problem from the point of view of the translating process. Reiss (1971) classifies texts into informative texts (e.g. news or scientific articles), expressive texts (e.g. works of literature) and operative texts (e.g. advertisement). She then offers criteria for translation according to the respective text-type. She claims that, unless there is some good reason to do otherwise, metaphors in predominantly expressive texts are best rendered metaphorically, whereas those in predominantly informative texts may be modified or entirely jettisoned (Reiss, 1971: 62).

Menachim Dagut severely criticized Kloepfer's thesis and defined metaphors as "individual flash of imaginative insight" (1976: 22), a creative product of violating the linguistic system, and thus are to a large extent culture specific, and hence have no existing equivalents in other languages. In his own words he claims:

> What determines the translatability of a source language metaphor is not its 'boldness' or 'originality', but rather the extent to which the cultural experience and semantic associations on which it draws are shared by speakers of the particular target language
>
> (M. Dagut, 1976: 28)

Dagut (1976) focuses on perspectives to explain the relationship between language-specific properties, cultural influence, and metaphorical expressions. Karl Simms (1997: 6) expresses the same idea and provides some further arguments that amount to basically the same view. He argues that inter language translation is impossible in a pure form, just as there is no such thing as pure synonymy within a language, there is no such thing as pure lexical equivalence between languages. McKeown and Radov argue that "substituting a synonym for one of the words in a collocational word pair may result in an infelicitous lexical combination" (2000: 510). For example to translate from English "time is money" into Arabic [al-waqt huwa al-maal] (هو المال الوقت), the two words do not collocate to generate an acceptable metaphor. In doing so, the Arabic translation fails to invoke the same mental picture as its English counterpart. By the same token, to translate the English metaphor "economic crash" in Arabic into [tahatom aliqtisad] (تحطم الاقتصاد) instead of (انهيار الاقتصاد) gives an infelicitous lexical combination due to a clash between two incongruent domains.

David Katan (1999) also argues that metaphors may or may not be transferable across languages. He states that the inherent difficulty of metaphor translation is not the absence of an equivalent lexical item in the target language, but rather the diversity of cultural conceptualization of the world in both communities whose languages are involved in translation. For example, "fever in the market**"** in English means "inability to sell all one would like"

whereas in Arabic means "too much purchase and consumption". It seems then that although equivalence can usually be obtained to some extent, it is influenced by a variety of linguistic and cultural factors and is therefore always relative (Mona Baker, 1992: 6). In response to such difficulty, the notion of "approximation" has become the dominant criterion in translation studies. It is approximation rather than equivalence which the translator should achieve. These views seem plausible. But neither Dagut nor Simms did explore in detail strategies for rendering metaphors.

Van den Broeck (1983), Newmark (1988), as well as Walter (1990) went a step further to put forward a detailed set of metaphor translation approaches, aiming to provide a framework of strategies for the practice of translation of metaphors. They argued, in essence, that it is a fallacy to assume that two metaphors in two languages have identical meaning and same impact in two different languages.

The contribution of Raymond van den Broeck (1981) in the field of translation studies cannot be overstressed. He provides more specifications for the operational definition of metaphor whose transferred meaning depend on examining its categories, uses, and functions. Translating metaphor, van den Broeck emphasizes, should be considered in relation to its functional relevance to the communicative situation. He proposes a scheme of three possible modes of metaphor translation: (1) translation "senso stricto" when both source language "tenor" and source language "vehicle" are transferred into target language, (2) substitution, and (3) paraphrase. He claims that it is easier to translate live metaphors than dead metaphor and he formulates a basic law which in his words is that "translatability keeps an inverse proportion with the quantity of information manifested by the metaphor and the degree to which this information is structured in a text" (Van den Broeck 1988: 84). His findings, as summed up by Olive Classe, 2000: 942), indicate that translatability of metaphors is high

- When a pair or languages are of a close basic type
- When there is contact between the source and target languages

- When the cultural evolutions in the source and target proceeds on parallel lines, and

- When translation involves no more than a single kind of information.

Peter Newmark (1988) seems to offer a much more comprehensive approach. He discusses various kinds of metaphor and matches these with various translation strategies to choose from for an appropriate translation. The types of metaphor which he considers are: dead metaphors, cliché metaphors, stock metaphors, recent metaphors, and original (or innovative metaphors). In his later account (1995) he introduces the sixth type which he calls adopted metaphors. He believes that metaphor is culturally specific and should be translated according to the context requirements, which may require it to be modified, omitted or substituted with another metaphor.

Newmark (1988: 111-112) suggests the following approaches for the translation of each particular type of metaphor.

- Dead metaphors could be translated literally to reproduce the same image.

- The stock SL metaphor can be reduced to sense or replaced with a stock TL metaphor having a different vehicle.

- For the translation of stock metaphors, the SL image should be legitimately reproduced in the TL

- An adapted metaphor should, where possible, be translated by an equivalent adapted metaphor or reduced to sense.

- Recent metaphors (metaphorical neologism) should be translated on the basis of componential analysis and a decision be taken between literal translation, reduction to sense, or modification of the metaphor.

- Original metaphors should be translated literally as they "contain the core of an important writer's message..."

Many linguists are uncomfortable with Newmark's strategies. They are prescriptive strategies which indicate his orientation towards "semantic" over "communicative" translation. The principal shortcoming of prescriptive translation theories is their complete disregard of the sociocultural conditions of texts. Corpus linguistic techniques and methodologies have shed new light on translation theories and mark a turn away from prescriptive approaches to translation studies toward descriptive approaches to interpretation. In order to produce a communicative translation, then, translators have at their disposal various strategies which might help them in their task to interact with texts. Texts contain semiotic strategies and/or certain linguistic features "that encourage and elicit interpretive choices" (Eco, 1990: 50). The view of meaning of metaphor as a function of context is only a step in the communicative translation recipe which cannot be clearly analysed without recognizing its relationship to mind. Accordingly, Conceptual Metaphor Theory has been attractive to many translators in their efforts to arrive at explanations of the conceptual metaphors that discourse is based upon.

5.6 Conceptual Metaphor Theory and Translation

From the point of view of cognitive semantics, the phenomenon of metaphor has been described as a process of mapping between two different conceptual domains. Johnson (1987) focuses on the grounding of such mapping in terms of image schemata, which he defines as an internal structure to constrain people's understanding and reasoning. Previous chapters of this research provide a more detailed description of this theory. Cognitive linguistic theory of conceptual metaphor during the past two decades has been extended to associated fields such as translation and led to a prototype based approach to metaphor translation based on the notion of conceptual metaphor. Translation can make differences in conceptual metaphors, using alternative mental images. In line with Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) view of metaphor as a matter of thought, Schaffner (1995) discussed some implications for a cognitive theory of metaphor to translating metaphor and concludes that

Translation of conventional metaphors...may involve, in addition to linguistic shift, a conceptual shift between different conceptual ontologies" Mandelblit

(Schaffner, 1995: 486)

Within the cognitive approach to metaphor translation, the focus has been on the conceptual level with the identification of schema rather than only the surface level with the identification of the metaphorical expressions. The translation analysis can start with looking at the two levels of the source text first and then see how the phenomenon has been handeled in the levels of the target text; i.e. whether the same (or equivalent) metaphorical expressions have been and /or whether the same conceptual metaphors be activated. The application of Lakoff's Conceptual Metaphor Theory has proved useful in helping to reduce the number of problems introduced during translation.

The cognitive view of metaphor and its implications for translation is illustrated in an example below. If the same basic conceptual metaphors occur in both languages, translated metaphorical expressions retain an identical meaning and serve similar functions. Accordingly, the use of a different conceptual schema across a different conceptual metaphor invokes a different function. Functions of metaphor are described and illustrated with examples in chapter one of this research. It is needless to elaborate on that point. An article published under the title "*Fear of Contagion*" in *New York Times* (November 9, 2011) was summarized in numerous Arabic newspapers. In one way the statement "Europe's efforts to stem financial contagion" was translated into

- [الجهود الاروبية المبذولة لإزالة انتقال عدوى الأزمة المالية]

and in other way into

- [الجهود الاروبية المبذولة لإزالة العقبات المالية]

The first translation illustrates that the same conceptual metaphor [ECONOMIC CRISIS IS INFECTIOUS DISEASE] exists in source and target culture with identical metaphorical expressions. The translation in the second way makes the statement loses some of its pragmatic discursive function.

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│   ECONOMIC  CRISIS  IS  INFECTIOUS  DISEASE       │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      ↓↑
      "Europe's efforts to stem financial contagion"          ⟩ Translation

┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  IMPEDIMENTS TO PURPOSES ARE OBSTACLES TO MOTION  │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      ↓↑
        [ الجهود الاروبية المبذولة لإزالة العقبات المالية ]
```
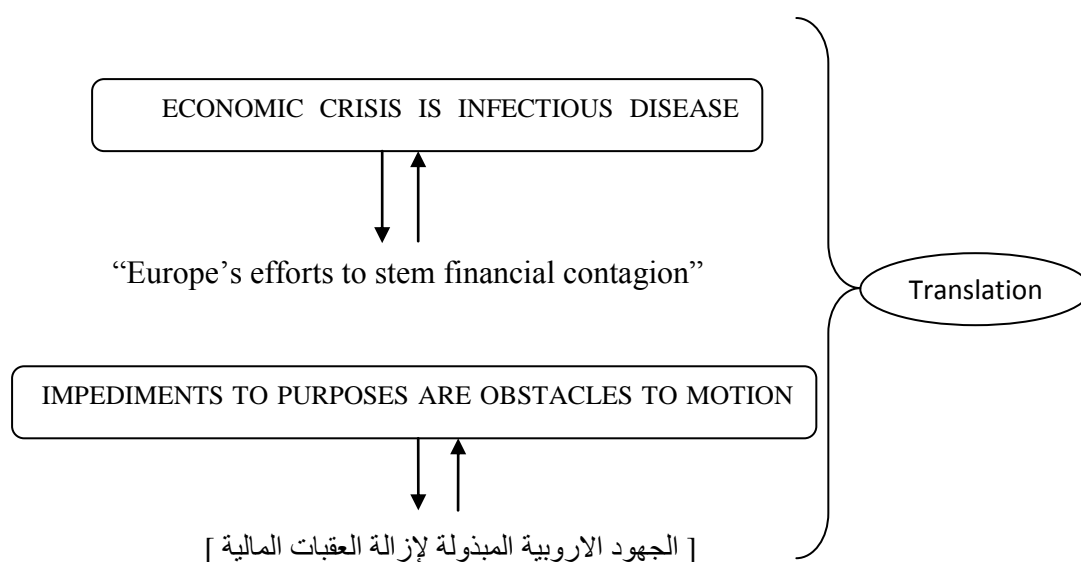
The Arabic and English sentences are representations of different underlying conceptual metaphors, each invoking specific mental images. In the Arabic sentence the crisis is conceptualized as a road on which there are obstacles.The Arabic word [alaqaba] (العقبة) means "rough road". The crisis is conceptualized differently in the English sentence. The image of an infectious disease is projected in the sentence. The word *contagion* in English and *rough* road in Arabic are used metaphorically to refer to obstacle to faster progress toward the goals. However, the Arabic translation does not seem to have the same kind of referential and pragmatic effects as the English one. Fear of contagion makes social contact more difficult. The word "contagion" is used metaphorically to indicate attitude towards the future of Europe in the light of the recent crisis. It stands for something negative, bad, and above all threatening, something that absolutely has to be avoided.

In a second example we can observe the conceptual, cultural, and linguistic differences that may exist in cross-equivalents from the same conceptual domains. In translating the expression "the battle for survival in the global marketplace" into

- [مواجهة المنافسة القوية في الاسواق العالمية]

The Arabic and English expressions are representations of the same underlying conceptual key, each invoking a specific conceptual metaphor. It should be mentioned that a conceptual key is a higher level of metaphor which explains how several metaphors are related (Charteis-Black, 2004).

KEY CONCEPT

ECONOMY IS STRUGGLE FOR SURVIVAL

CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS

COMPETITION IS WAR

COMPETITION IS A FIGHT

The battle for survival in the global marketplace

[مواجهة المنافسة القوية في الاسواق العالمية]
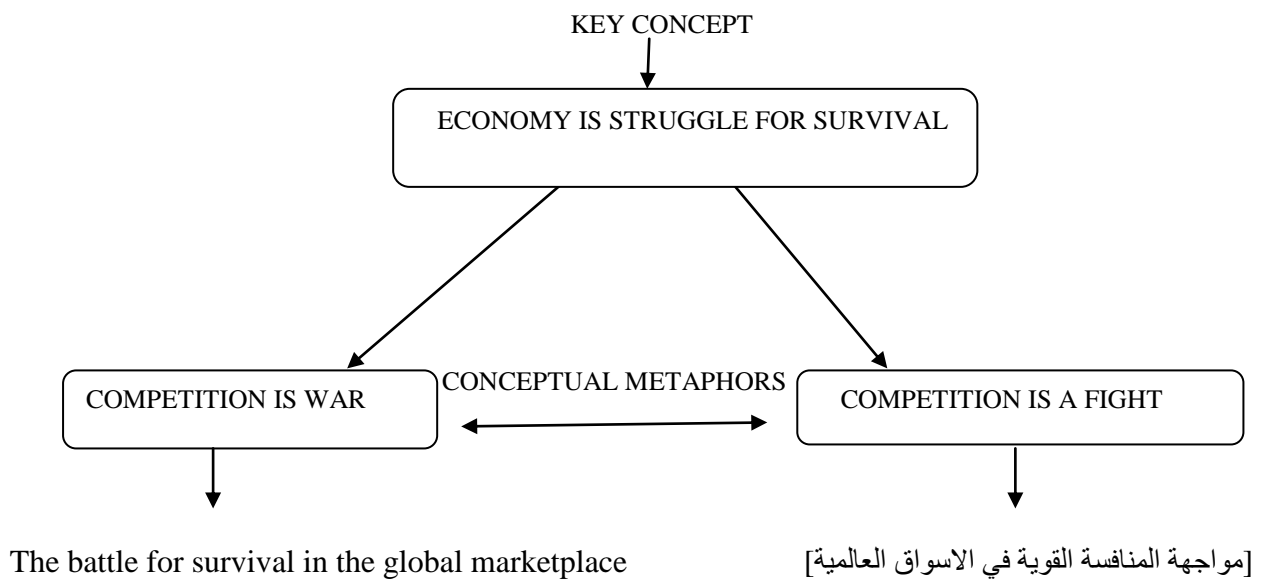
Before discussing this translation in detail, it is worth noting that the two words *war* and *fight* are not synonymous. Humanbeings either declare or fight war. They do not fight war as an end in itself but out of necessity especially for the sake of peace or self-preservation.

In example two the English noun "battle" is used metaphorically to mean "compete against". It is translated into the Arabic noun [muwaajaha] (مواجهة) which carries, in the most general sense, the meaning "to confront with courage or boldness" . According to *Al-Munjid Al Waseet Arabic Dictionary*, the noun [muwajaha] (مواجهة) is a regularly derived noun from the verb [waajaha] (واجه) which means (1) facing the truth and dealing with it, (2) resistance— particularly in face of the enemy, and (3) facing of new challenges. The English word "battle" and its Arabic translation into an alternative equivalent reflect the different attitudes held by the two cultures towards the current economic crisis. The conceptual metaphor CRISIS IS WAR is triggered by the semantic markers of the noun "battle". Within a battle people fight in physical violence to win the struggle and gain power. This metaphorical use reflects the ideological grounds of liberalism and capitalism which encourage individualism and self-interest based on Adam Smith's Phylosophy. In line with this view, John Mackey and Rajendra Sisodia Claim:

> Most companies do not think of their competitors as stakeholders; they view them as enemies to be crushed in the marketplace. Companies commonly use war metaphors in thinking about competitors.

<div align="center">J. Mackey and R. Sisodia (2014: 154)</div>

In the context of business news reports, the English word *battle* has the meaning of "competition" which is rooted in the conceptual metaphors [ECONOMY IS SURVIVAL] and [SURVIVAL IS WAR]. Operating in the same conceptual domain, the word [muwajaha] (مواجهة) gives a slightly different "twist" to the meaning conveyed by the translation. It reflects a cultural difference in thought patterns. The word *battle* refers to war and war may refer either to "fight war against" or "declare war on" as I have already pointed. It has negative connotations, which are rooted in the very history of the Arab world. The Arabs see wars against them as an act of aggression from those foreign armies who want to occupy their land by force. On the basis of this view, people have right to engage in fighting a war declared against them. The meaning of

the word [muwaajaha] (مواجهة) has positive connotation, while battle negative in its broad meaning.

The main insights of Conceptual Metaphor Theory are somewhat at odds with most conclusions and findings which have been reached by translation scholars over the last two decades. While most theories of conceptual metaphor emphasize the universality of metaphor, translation studies emphasize its particularity which cannot really be held apart from its universality. Many authors continue to draw on at least some of the methodologies and concepts of conceptual views of metaphor while recognizing that metaphors also differ across cultures (Gibbs 1999, Kovesces 2005).

The identification of conceptual metaphors can lead to a more satisfactory way to translate metaphors. Cognitive schema, as we have defined it, is a mental representation of thought, assumptions, and beliefs that reflect an individual's view of the world which is expressed in linguistic forms, and often expressed through a range of other communicative devices. One's views of the world are inferred from his use of linguistic patterns. Accordingly, cognitive schema, which is the epistemic system that contains knowledge and views of the world, is possibly the most important level of research regarding the analysis of world view in metaphor use. For example, the dominant usage of the expression "business is a battle for survival" by journalists indeed helps to shape mental models of business. Metaphors, according to Hatim and Mason, 1990: 69) are intended and maintained (pragmatics) in the interests of serving a given ideological stance (semiotics). The context of metaphor is the crucial factor in deciding how it should be translated, since its use conveys meaning beyond the linguistic level. Hatim and Mason discuss problems of metaphor translation and argue that:

> Solutions to problems of translating metaphor should, in the first
> instance, be related to rhetorical function, and should seek to understand
> the writer's whole world view

> (Hatim and Mason, 1990: 233)

A metaphor conveys an image which serves as a bridge or a filter through which intended communication happens. Interesting translation works that has sought to incorporate concepts and insights from CMT includes Alexieva, Bistra (1997) and James, Dickins (2005). The significance of these studies lies in that they move translation theory beyond its linguistic levels. The approach to translation from a cognitive perspective continues to grow in importance, being an examinable topic.

5.7 Discourse Metaphor and Translation

Using Lakoff and Johnson's Conceptual Metaphor can provide an account of metaphor use with reference to the knowledge schemas that are activated or constructed in language users's minds as they engage with discourse, both in production and comprehension. Many efforts have been made to bridge the gap between the cognitive and the cultural in metaphor use to devise strategies for its translation.

Newmark's strategies are the most widely used and accepted model for translating metaphors. However, many translators resort to other strategies and go beyond the language level of analysis. Such practice makes it useful for researchers to study translator's strategies used in different social contexts for different types of texts. The translator does more than transferring the linguistic content of messages. In line with this view, Lefevere confirms that "translators function in a given culture at a given time. The way they understand themselves and their culture is one of the factors that may influence the way in which they translate." (Lefevere, 1992: 14) Working within the discourse paradigm many theories in translation studies are based on a functionalist approach, comparing the functions of translations and their source texts (Nord, C. 1991, 1997). As Nord states, "Translation allows a communicative act to take place which because of existing linguistic and cultural barriers would not have been possible without it" (1991: 28). Translation is a respond to the demands of the target situation.

Within discourse paradigm, translation obtains a further dimension to shed light on the function of discourse to legitimate social practices and on the discursive practices through which the text is developed. What is relevant to the present discussion is that metaphor analysis requires a focus on ideologies that underlie language use within discourse. Many metaphors are ideologically grounded (see Andrew Goatly 2006, 2007). Ideology can be defined as a"set of beliefs about the proper order of society and how it can be achieved" (Erikson & Tedin, 1988: 64). In line with such a view, Bono, James J. argues that the function of metaphor "is not so much to represent features of the world, as to invite us to act upon the world as if it were configured in a specific way like that of some already known entity or process" (Bono, J. 2001: 227). Accordingly, ideological factors often intervene to shape the textual make up of translations. Nord Christiane (1997) claimed that the purpose of the target text and not the linguistic surface structure of the sourse text is the starting point of any translation. For Levine also translation plays an ideological role.

> Translation should be a critical act, however, creating doubt, posing
> questions to its reader, recontexualizing the ideology of the original
> text. Since a good translation, as with all rhetoric, aims to (re) produce
> an effect, to persuade a reader, it is, in the broadest terms, a political
> act
>
> (Levine, 1991: 3-4)

Translation especially of political discourse plays a major role in the reproduction of ideologies. According to Tymoczko "the ideology of translation resides not simply in the text translated, but in the voicing and stance of the translator, and in its relevance to the receiving audience" (2003, 183). Translation is not a neutral act (Alvarez and Vidal 1996: 5). Translators as members of agencies have their own political ideology and this effect can be presented in their translation. Baumgarten & Gagnon (2005), when studying translation of political discourse, reveal the following translation strategies "omission of sensitive political material, an overall

flattering of the rhetorical style, shifts in register and the non-translation or adulteration of some linguistic features" (Baumgarten & Gagnon, 2005: 29). The recourse to such strategies robs the metaphor of its power of persuasion. Metaphors have power to shape opinion. Yet from our perspective, omitting a metaphor in translation is often a strategy used to counter the argument of those who use it.

5.8 Metaphor and Power in News Reporting

Proponents of critical discourse analysis question the legitimacy of the power relationships in which people are involved. In line with this view, this research started from the premise that social, economic and political realities are created, sustained and unraveled in in all forms of media, including news press discourse (Fairclough 2003, 2006; Fairclough and Wodak 1997; Schudson 2003; Van Dijk 1998; Weiss and Wodak 2003). In this regard Schudson (2003) claims:

> News is not a mirror of reality. It is a representation of the world, and all representations are selective. This means that some human beings must do the selecting; certain people make decisions about what to present as news and how to present it.
>
> (Schudson 2003: 33)

Fairclough (2003: 8) also claims that "texts do not mirror reality; they constitute it and this depends on the social positions and interests of those who produce them." Texts can bring about changes in our knowledge, our beliefs, our attitudes, values and so forth.

By subjecting text to the translation process, translators may participate in the construction of the legitimate world. Due to its function as an ideological construct, metaphor plays in texts a central role in contrasting social and political reality, as evidenced by the sorts of metaphor which appear in business texts. It contributes to stabilizing or destabilizing the existing political hierarchies of legitimate power. An economy may be healthy, sick, ailing, contaminated, or

moribund. It may need assistance, a shot in the arm or an injection of cash to boost its energy. An economy may also be under attack and need a strategy for fighting back. To fight back when being attacked is one of the most important components of self-defense. Both attacks and illness are obstacles to be overcome for completing a relatively long journey. Metaphors from these source domains mirror power relations which are often represented explicitly or implicitly as categories of powerful versus powerless. As examples: "the economy is still on the right track" or "the economy run off the track", "a speedy recovery of the economy" or "the economy is on a slow recovery path", and "to bring the economy on the right path" or "to drive the economy on a wrong path". Metaphors in news reports, as these examples illustrate, reflect alternative views on policies. Critical analyses of policies include inquiry into underlying issues of power and ideology embedded within language use. Power relations always need to be analysed through an understanding of who is doing what to whom. As an example,

- remedies for the market's woes ⟶ for what advantage ?

  from whom?   of whom ?

Drawing on critical discourse analysis, an examination of a selection of translated passages illustrates the way in which strategies of translation can be ideologically motivated.

(1)   China's economic miracle may be about to **come off the rails**

الخوف من أن تكون المعجزة الصينية **على وشك التحطم**

The phrase "come off the rails" refers to train travel and that it has been shifted across. English business discourse uses the rail (or rather railway accidents) metaphor to deem particular economic policies to be unwise. The word *crash* is used to translate "come off the rails". At its surface structure, syntax reveals a dynamic rhythmic structure equivalent to the source. The

Arabic sentence uses words that belong to the same conceptual metaphor—ECONOMY IS A MOVING VEHICLE, but within the generic macro-domain with its use of the word *crash*. Empirical studies of metaphor assume that at the *macro* level of language, conceptual metaphors posited to be universal, but at the *micro* level of situated text and talk, they are sometimes culture-and language-conditioned. Speakers and writers also tailor conceptual metaphors in ways that reflect individual differences in cognitive styles. The Arabic translation tries to approximate the source at its macro level by maintaining the concrete reference to a crash, but the problem is that the word "economy" does not convey the same idea presented in the original text (English) when combined with the expression "come off the rails". The Arabic expression [soqouT al-Iqtisad mina alqoDbaan] (من القضبان سقوط الاقتصاد) has no sense. The result is that the Arabic translations, which just refer to crash, seem more successful. This example, then, may serve to illustrate the importance of preserving the source language vehicle in the target language when a metaphor is translated. Changing the source of the metaphor in translation renders the metaphor out of scope and increases the possibility of a distorted rendering of the message (A. Darwich (2010: 209). It is worth noting that the word "fear" in the Arabic translation is an addition which is not used in the source language. The phenomenon of addition in translation reflects the translator's mediation in a text in terms of his own interpretation or view point. This strategy is ideologically motivated and makes explicit some of the critical attitude that is implicit in the English sentence.

(2)   Many economists are **forecasting a further slowdown** in the second half of the year

العديد من الاقتصاديين **يتوقع مزيدا من الصعوبات** في النصف الثاني من هذا العام

In the English sentence, the word *slowdown* realizes one of the most important clusters of conceptual metaphors in the English language. This word means literally "vehicles that are moving more slowly than other vehicles" it is a dead metaphor, now literal in the context of business. It is used to depict the economy in motion. Economy is like a vehicle moves along a

path. The "manner" of the motion is marked by words like creep, crawl, rush, fly, slow down, speed up, float, stumble, etc. The intensity or rate at which a business activity takes place is then associated with speed (pace, quick, fast, rapid, swift, brisk). Dead metaphors, which being unconscious, underlie beliefs. The equation of "speeding up" with success and "slowing down" with failure has a similar effect to the equation of *power* with *height*. The words *slow down* and *speed up* in English are markers of the values of competitive individualism and hierarchy. In contrast, the Arab culture displays a favor for the values of co-operation and continual interchanges between people. In this sentence "slowdown" is translated from English to Arabic as [su9uubat] (difficulties) — a word which conveys the same basic meaning and is in rhythm with the expressions.

(3) To Revive a **Sick Economy**

لإحياء **الاقتصاد البطيء**

The Arabic verb *to revive* means (1) "the raising of the body after death" (the rebirth of our souls), (2) "to fertilize the agricultural soil", and (3) "to recover a heritage". It is an attribute of God in sense one. In English the word "to revive" means (1) To cause to come back to life or consciousness, (2) To bring something back to health, existence, or use. It does not carry identical meaning in both languages. Therefore, it does not collocate with "sick" in Arabic. The literal word-for-word translation of the expression "revive the sick economy" challenges existing knowledge and creates dissonance between the epistemic knowledge and linguistic forms. It can clearly be seen that it is impossible to translate "to revive a sick economy" into [Ihyaa al-Iqtisad almariiD] (لإحياء الاقتصاد المريض). Accordingly, the word *sick* in this expression is translated into *slow*. The source domain of "plants" instead of "health" is projected in the translation. The word *slow* invokes the same meaning as its English counterpart in the same context.

(4) Europe's efforts to stem **financial contagion.**

إجراءات أوروبية لمنع **العدوى المالية الأميركية**

The role of contagion as a metaphor has already been described in previous sections. The word-for-word translation of the phrase "financial contagion" has been widely used by news editors and reporters. It is interesting to note that the translation of the expression (4) into Arabic adds the adjective [alamrikia] (the American) to modify the phrase "financial contagion". This manipulative strategy is for ideological rather than linguistic reasons. The English sentence presents financial contagion across Europe without a responsible agent. In the Arabic translated sentence, the American economy is constructed as a threat to European communities. Addition in translation opens the way to observe elements which are implicit in the original text. It also serves to express attitude towards areas of socio-cultural practice.

(5)   ...face economic battle

...يواجه تحديات اقتصادية

The English word "battle" is translated into [altahadi] (the challenge) in its plural form (challenges) in this expression. The word "battle", as defined by *the Oxford English Dictionary,* means "fight between two armies", and the word "challenge" is defined as "something needing great mental or physical effort in order to be done successfully". The translation is done with a polysemous word whose senses extend well beyond the range of its English equivalent. Battle is a metaphor derived from the domain of war. It a compelling metaphor used for a competitive individualism. The fundamental feature of war is killing or being killed, the destruction of life and property, not security. Therefore, the use of the source domain of war does not fit a belief in cooperation and collectivist culture. War metaphors pose one of the greatest challenges in translation. They are viewed as "unpeaceful" metaphors. In a better world there would be no wars.

(6)   When the U.S. sneezes, the rest of the world catches a cold.

حين تعطس الولايات المتحدة، يصاب بقية العالم بالزكام

Language is a powerful way of legitimating imperialism and metaphor has been one important tool for Westerns to achieve this goal. An example of such imperialistic metaphors is the sentence (6). It is a new metaphor widely used in mass-media news reports. It is often elided in translations for ideological purposes. Metaphors such as this serve to perpetuate structures of dominance and subservience.

5.9 Conclusion

We have seen in this chapter that much significance is attached to metaphor in translation. I have analysed a sample of English translated metaphoric expressions into Arabic in newspapers. This was to complete the analysis of metaphors in English business press reports undertaken in chapter four. In comparing metaphoric expressions in English busness reports with that of their translation into Arabic by Arab journalists we have found that both texts show more similarity than dissimilarity in terms of metaphoric key domains and conceptual metaphors. Both languages have a set of metaphors based on conceptual metaphors from the source domains of path, war, and health such as ECONOMY IS A JOURNEY ALONG A PATH, MARKET IS STATE OF HEALTH, and ECONOMIC COMPETITIONS ARE WARS. They underly universal experiences, but nevertheless expressed through cultural filters. The research provides evidence that Arab journalists sometimes adopt the same conceptual metaphorical structures that occur in English and reproduce same metaphors. There is also evidence of deletion or conversion of metaphors to sense or use of other metaphors helpful to frame the original message in a way that is not intended in the source text. The set of translations have been investigated within the framework of Conceptual Metaphor Theory and Critical Metaphor Analysis. The underlying assumption for working within such a frame is the view that each translation situation calls for a different translation strategy, and a translation into an alternate metaphor changes the reader's perception

of the offered image. It has been found that metaphors derived from the source domain of war are abundant in English and present challenge to translation into Arabic. Metaphors from the lexical fields of path and health have been found to be much more commonly used in Arabic texts with literal translation. It becomes critically important, then, to know that metaphor is an interpretive tool for the critical policy analysis. Journalists as members of agencies have their own political ideology and this effect can be presented in their use of metaphors in both news reporting and translation mediation of news reports. In the light of this view, we can say that metaphors are rarely ideologically neutral, and translation is never a neutral act, as it is charged with ideology and "games of power", with the result that translation of metaphors needs to be critically investigated.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

This research was motivated by an interest in identification of how metaphor has a vital heuristic and pragmatic role in determining the author's stance in relation to the worst financial and economic crisis that the world now faces. The focus of the research has been on the metaphors which underlie business discourse with the intention to demonstrate how the use of such metaphoric language serves political and economic purposes.

In recent times the number of attempts to explore conceptual metaphors focusing on business discourse has proliferated greatly (Koller, 2004; Brone & Feyaerts, 2003; Herrera-Soler et al., 2006; White & Herrera-Soler, 2003; Charteris-Black & Ennis, 2001). However, understanding metaphors in financial news from a critical perspective still remains relatively unexplored axis of analysis. In the current era of globalization and economic changes, the language of finance and economic news has been subject to constant changes and innovations. Competitive pressures of a results-oriented and breakneck-speed culture have been deeply influential in the language of media, including newspapers. Media frame the news but does not reflect reality but frames reality through their selection and rejection of what is covered and how it is covered (Hackett & Zhao, 1994). Even if media communicate reality there is no single reality or objective truth (Johnston-Cartee, 2005). Media shape power of one culture upon another culture. Studies distinguish between prestige (quality, elite*)* news media and popular (quantity, mass) media. Elite media influence the public discourse with their framing of events, particularly *New York Times* which "serves as a guide, even, guru, for the rest of the press," whose frames are frequently "adopted and adapted by other news outlets," (Paletz 2002, 72). There has been considerable research on the content of news reporting in the Arab journalism. Arab news media have been viewed as having been influenced by Western news values. Journalists from the Arab world usually adopt materials translated from English. Many studies confirm that metaphorical language in news texts pose a big problem for translators who have to

deal not only with metaphor's linguistic aspect but also the socio-cultural and ideological aspects of its usage which is not always easy to render into a different language. In this research we aimed to carry out an investigation of conceptual metaphors in English and Arabic business language. Following the current trend of corpus approaches to metaphor analysis (Charteris-Black, 2003; Deignan, 2005; Stefanowitsch and Gries, 2006). We based our study on a corpus of authentic English and Arabic financial articles. In English, the articles have been selected from those published since 2008 in the *New York Times* and *Wall Street Journal*. The research first investigated the financial linguistic expressions in the English newspapers, and then compared those expressions to homologous or equivalent expressions used in excerpts translated by Arab journalists from *New York Times* and *Wall Street Journal* into various newspapers that are being digitized and made available online. We first analyzed the conceptual metaphors found in the English corpus from which we used keywords to find Arabic data. The procedures for researching were as follows: 1) Generate the key word list and use of WordSmith 4.0. This tool has been used, among tools, to identify collocates of words retrieve patterns, 2) Determining the expressions that are metaphorical by the so-called MIP, the Metaphor Identification Procedure (Pragglejaz Group 2007), 3) metaphor explanation to determine what metaphors are used, 4) metaphor interpretation to determine how metaphors are deployed, and 5) metaphor explanation to determine why certain metaphors are used. We attempted then to identify possible similarities and differences between both languages in terms of the underlying conceptual metaphors and their linguistic or lexical expression. In general terms, the source domains (path, war, health) were used in English with different levels of frequency. The analysis of the corpus has revealed great similarity between the conceptual metaphors and their linguistic expressions in both languages. However, some differences in the frequency of use of particular linguistic metaphors have been identified. One important finding from the corpus analysis is that some conceptual metaphors exist in English with no equivalent in Arabic. These findings were explained and discussed with reference to previous empirical studies which have revealed that some conceptual

metaphor are universal among human cultures and others culture specific (Kövecses 1987). The dichotomy of universal vs. culture- specific metaphors naturally raises questions about strategies of translating metaphors. Accordingly, another important aspect of this research was the discussion of the implications of comparative analysis which might have for the practice of translation. Due to its pervasive nature, the translation of metaphor is one of the major problems translators face in their daily task. It is also one of the issues that are considered topical in the area of translation. Recent research has identified two main approaches to the translation of metaphor. The more traditional and prescriptive approach as opposed to a more descriptive methodology which seems to acknowledge the role of conceptual metaphor as a cognitive tool that contributes to structure the way we think. The implication is that the existence (or successful identification) of significant conceptual metaphors can help the translator to decide how to deal with metaphorical expressions. In this research, both descriptive and prescriptive approaches were combined to consider translated English metaphors in Arabic news papers. In this regard, translating metaphors could be reduced to three wide-ranging strategies: a) to use a metaphor which is equivalent in form and meaning, b) to use a metaphor with a different form but similar meaning, and c) to paraphrase the meaning. The finding of primary importance was the omission of metaphor as a translation strategy. The latter finding led to a conclusion that translation is not only linguistically and culturally determined but also ideologically governed. Ideology particularly manipulates the translation of political discourse in news media. The influence of ideology on the translation process may be traced in additions, omissions and substantial changes.

In short, a major claim of it is that going through a qualitative analysis of metaphors in a corpus is helpful to better understand the conceptual level of metaphor and how this relates to underlying ideological dimension. In other words, the ability to decode the underlying ideology of a metaphor is probably based on a thorough analysis of its conceptual level. The principle of understanding an underlying conceptual framework to get a better grasp of intended meaning has

been the focus of several studies. Cognitive views of metaphor made a distinction between conceptual metaphors, which represent underlying conceptual structure, and metaphoric expressions, which are understood as linguistic reflections of the underlying conceptual structure. Metaphors are a process brought about by the interaction of various different levels of a hierarchically organized unity. They are hierarchically organized into conceptual keys, conceptual metaphors and metaphors (Charteris-Black, 2004: 13). Lakoff and Johnson (1980) argue that metaphorical expressions in language express underlying conceptual metaphors. They used the term conceptual metaphor to describe general structures of our cognitive system. Charteris-Black extended the Cognitive Theory of Metaphor and introduced the concept "conceptual key"—a deeper cognitive level underlying conceptual metaphors to provide a deeper level of explanation. . A conceptual key, he claims, is inferred from a number of conceptual metaphors and is, therefore, a deeper level metaphor that explains how several conceptual metaphors are related (Charteris-Black, 2004: 16). He provides good evidence for conceptual keys and conceptual metaphors based on various corpus based studies. In his view, intention in using metaphor can only be explained with reference to an underlying cognitive basis.

What seems clear is that conceptual metaphors and conceptual keys are abstract inferences from the linguistic evidence provided by particular metaphors. Metaphor choice is motivated by ideology. The choice in discourse is governed by the rhetorical aim of persuasion i.e., to persuade receivers to think and feel or act in a particular way. Identification and description of metaphors at their conceptual levels play a fundamental role in understanding their ideology production and identity construction.

In many instances in the corpus, different aspects of the source domain were found to correspond with different ideological outlooks. For instance, choice of attack metaphors or struggle metaphors is motivated by ideological outlook. With a focus on the functions of metaphors as ideological devices, the interaction of cognitive metaphor theory and critical discourse analysis has recently emerged as a major focus of research. Cognitive semantics

provides a better explanation of how metaphors are understood rather than why they are chosen in a particular type of discourse. Therefore, if any complete theory could be framed to analyze metaphor, such a theory must also incorporate a pragmatic perspective to interpret metaphor choice with reference to the purposes of use within specific discourse contexts. In this regard Forceville (1996) claims that "the production and interpretation of metaphor include reference to many contextual elements that are at best only partly linguistic in character. Since situational context plays such a dominant role in metaphor, a semantic view of metaphor must always be complemented by a pragmatic one." (Charles Forceville, 1996: 35) Such perspectives claim that metaphor is a choice governed by cognitive, semantic and pragmatic considerations and by ideological, cultural and historical ones. Metaphors, the theorist Londa Schiebinger writes "are not innocent literary devices used to spice up texts" (2001: 147). Thus, cultural values, ideological interest, and affective motivation combine together in order to make the metaphor persuasive according to the communicative purpose. Charteris-Black (2004) put a focus on metaphor to compare cognitive linguistic analysis and critical discourse analysis, and come to the conclusion that both provide complementary perspectives. Accordingly, he formulated his Critical Metaphor Analysis (CMA). He observes that the cognitive and linguistic views of metaphor provide an excellent way to examine metaphor interpretation, but fail to explain why metaphor choice. Evidently, in the face of such shortcoming a new kind of theory is needed, one that is able to identify the motivation that underlies the choice of one metaphor rather than another. CMA has the potential to enable researchers to activate knowledge often hidden within discourse, and has the potential to create awareness of the rhetorical skills that underlie metaphor use. The purpose of Critical Metaphor Analysis is to gain better understanding of how language functions in constituting and transmitting knowledge, in organizing social institutions, and in exercising power. Since metaphor is a means of patterning ideas and thought and creating attitudes and world views, by changing the metaphor we may change the way that we think and feel about something. Metaphor has the power to alter emotions. According to Lakoff and

Johnson (1980, 145) "If a new metaphor enters the conceptual system that we base our actions on, it will alter that conceptual system and the perceptions and actions that the system gives rise to."

Metaphors are keys that unlock a culture's construction of reality. Changing the metaphor can change the reality. Its translation can provide alternative lenses through which to view the world. This view partially explains the choice of deletion as a translation strategy through which translators express their resistance to dominant discourse and develop alternative model of thought. Deletion is a rejection of a world view in favor of an alternative world view. In this respect, Philip Eubank (2000) claims that by "ascribing a metaphor to an opponent we rob the metaphor of its power of persuasion." Accordingly, we can say with a degree of certainty that not only linguistic factors but also ideological ones shape the textual make up of metaphor translation.

These findings and conclusions need to be read in awareness of the limitations and boundaries of this research. The results of this research were based on a sample of daily newspapers and they are not fully representative of press news.

Implications and Future Directions

This research produces several tangible benefits directed at both research and practice in three related fields: first, translation studies; second journalism and media studies; third language teaching. It will also be of interest to all those involved in discourse analysis and intercultural studies.

1. This thesis can give directions in the area of translation studies. It makes students of translation aware that translations are made under a number of constraints of which language is arguably not the most important.

2. This research promotes the view of translation as a cross-cultural practice in order to minimize the cultural imperialism of Western institutions.

3. The results of the present research have provided insights which could encourage language teachers to provide opportunities for learners to explore metaphors in news discourse for the critical meanings embedded within.

4. This research has important implications for teaching. It provides teachers with ways in which cognitive linguistic insights into metaphor can facilitate the teaching and learning of words and phrases in a second or foreign language.

5. This thesis can give directions in the area of intercultural communication training. This research gives opportunities to students to explore cultural assumptions and values, which metaphors embody, for effective communication in English across-cultures.

6. This research has also generated important findings that have practical implications for policy making. Metaphors are not neutral, but contain ideologies, create world views, and direct attention to preferred interpretations of events. Such a view encourages the integration of critical discourse analysis in the language curriculum to empower students by providing them with the opportunities to critically examine received input texts.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

1. There is a need for more extensive use of larger corpora to explore further the questions raised in this research.

2. Further research is necessary to investigate metaphor as an important tool to achieve ideological ends.

3. There is also a need to question the extent to which writers of Business Reports are consciously employing metaphors or whether their metaphors are intuitive tools that reflect unconscious rhetorical and stylistic preferences.

4. Another direction any future analysis could take would be to carry out a contrastive analysis by examining metaphor in other media (radio or television) or other newspapers. Such analysis would help to provide further evidence that certain linguistic or discursive constructions are unusually frequent in particular texts, and thus worthy of comment.

5. The present research has devoted a part to the domain of WAR as a source of metaphors in business discourse. A further research could be a focus on peace metaphors.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Sources of the English Extracts

1. Alan Wheatley|Reuters,"Asian Economies Recalibrate to Address Inequality" *New York Times*, May 9, 2011

2. Andrews E. Kramer, "U.S. Companies Worry About Impact of Russia Joining W.T.O." *New York Times*, August 21, 2012

3. Andrews E. Kramer,"A Bounce in Russia Is Easing Pressure For Economic Change" *New York Times*,June 4, 2009

4. Annie Lowrey, "World Bank Warns Developing Nations of Slowing Growth," *New York Times*, January 17, 2012

5. Annie Lowrey, "World Bank Warns Developing Nations of Slowing Growth" *New York Times*, January 17, 2012

6. Bedmund L. Andrews, "Fed Shrugged as Subprime Crisis Spread" *New York Times*, December 18, 2007

7. Bettina Wassener, "New Data Shows China's Growth Is Slowing" *New York Times*, June 30, 2010

8. Bettina Wassener, "Recovery in Asia Begins to Gather Steam" *New York Times*, August 12, 2009

9. Bettina Wassener, "Slowdown in China Appears to Have Ended, for Now" *New York Times*, October 18, 2012

10. Bettina Wassener,"Recovery in Asia Begins to Gather Steam" *New York Times*, August 12, 2009

11. Blinder, Alan S. "In Defense of Ben Bernanke," Wall Street Journal, November 15, 2010

12. By Paul Krugman,"Boring Cruel Romantics," *New York Times*, November 20, 2011

13. Chris Mayer. "First, Let's Stabilize Home Prices," *Wall Street Journal* , October 2, 2008.

14. Christine Hauser, "Inflation Slowed in August, Reflecting a Weak Economy," *New York Times*, September 15, 2011

15. Clifford Krauss and Jad Mouawad, "Uncertainty Drives Up Oil Prices," *New York Times*,March 1, 2011

16. Cogan, John F., John B. Taylor, and Volker Wieland. "The Stimulus Didn't Work," *Wall Street Journal,* September 17, 2009

17. Conrad De Aenlle ,"Looking to Frontier Markets for Next Big Thing in Investing," *New York Times*, April 29, 2012

18. David Jolly and Landon Thomas Jr., "As Markets Slip, Worries About Borrowing in Europe," *New York Times*, May 5, 2010

19. David Wessel, "A Source of Our Bubble Trouble," *Wall Street Journal*, January. 17, 2008

20. David Wessel, "Three Theories on Solving the 'Too Big to Fail' Problem," Wall Street Journal, October 29, 2009

21. Edmund L. Andrews and Michael M. Grynbaum, "Fed Weighs Bid to Spur Economy as Markets Plummet Worldwide," *New York Times*, November, October 7, 2008

22. Edmund L. Andrews, "Recession Began Last December, Economists Say," *New York Times*, December 2, 2008

23. Eduardo Porter, "Germany Will Pay Up To Save Euro," *New York Times*, June 26, 2012

24. Eric Dash, "Gloom Grips World's Financial Capitals: Banking Sector Punished Over European Debt," *New York Times*, August 10, 2011

25. Floyd Norris,"Revenue Up, Deficit Falls: Fiscal Cliff Gets Credit" *New York Times*, December 13, 2012

26. Gretchen Morgenson, "The Debt Crisis, Where It's Least Expected," *New York Times*, December 30, 2007

27. Gretchen Morgenson, "This Crisis Won't Stop Moving," *New York Times*, February 7, 2010

28. Hugo Dixon | Reuters, "5 Years Later, Risk of Repeat of Lehman," *New York Times*, September 15, 2013

29. Jack Ewing and Liz Alderman, "A Europe Tired of Cutbacks Has Few Alternatives," *New York Times*, April 23, 2012

30. Jack Ewing, "In Europe, Focus Begins To Shift to the Speed Of a Nascent Recovery," *New York Times*,December 30, 2012

31. Jack Ewing, "In Europe, Focus Begins To Shift to the Speed Of a Nascent Recovery," *New York Times*, December 30, 2012

32. Jack Ewing, "U.S. Growth Is Tepid, but It's the Envy of Europe," *New York Times*, April 28, 2012

33. Jad Mouawad, "Oil Prices Continue Their Push Higher," *New York Times*, April 15, 2008

34. Keith Bradsher, "China's Economy Is Starting to Slow, but Threat of Inflation Looms," *New York Times*, May 30, 2011

35. Keith Bradsher, "In Downturn, China Exploits Path to Growth," *New York Times*, March 17, 2009

36. Keith Bradsher, "Muted Fears of Contagion As Asian Currencies Fall," August 22, 2013

37. Keith Bradsher,"Muted Fears of Contagion As Asian Currencies Fall ," *New York Times* August 22, 2013

38. Kevin M. Warsh, "The New Malaise and How to End It," *Wall Street Journal*, Nov. 8, 2010

39. Landon Thomas Jr. "Spanish Construction Rivals Battle on New York Turf," *New York Times*, August 14, 2012

40. Landon Thomas Jr., "Spain Waits, and Europe Frets," *New York Times*, October 15, 2012

41. Marc Champion, Joanna Slater and Carrick Mollenkamp "Banks Reel On Eastern Europe's Bad News," *Wall Street Journal*, February 18, 2009

42. Marc Champion, Joanna Slater and Carrick Mollenkamp, "Banks Reel On Eastern Europe's Bad News," *Wall Street Journal*, February. 18, 2009

43. Mark Lander and Binyamin Appelbaum, "U.S., Anxious On Debt Crisis, Presses Europe," *New York Times*, September 23, 2011

44. Mark Landler, "At a Tipping Point," *New York Times*, November October 1, 2008

45. Mark Landler, "World Leaders Vow Joint Push to Aid Economy," *New York Times*, November 15, 2008

46. Mark Maremont And Tom McGinty, "Why Jet Owners Don't Want to Be Tracked," *Wall Street Journal*, April 18, 2013

47. Matthew Saltmarsh,"In South Africa, a Push for Industrial Growth" *New York Times*, August 2, 2010

48. Nathaniel Popper,"Even With Fiscal Agreement, Investors Facing Imminent Obstacles," *New York Times*, January 1, 2013

49. Nelson D. Schwartz, "In Spain's Falling Prices, Early Fears of Deflation," *New York Times*, April 21, 2009

50. Nelson D. Schwartz,"U.S. Recovery Could Outstrip Europe's Pace," *New York Times*, June 12, 2009

51. Nelsond. Schwartz ,"U.S. Recovery Could Outstrip Europe's Pace," *New York Times*,June 12, 2009

52. Paul J. Lim, "A U-Turn On Market Risk," *New York Times*, July 5, 2009

53. Peter S. Goodman, "This Is the Sound of a Bubble Bursting," *New York Times*, December 23, 2007

54. Richard Barley , "financial Contagion Stalks Europe," Wall Street Journal, June 27, 2011

55. Richard Barley, "Euro Zone Still Has Growing Pains, *Wall Street Journal*, "November 14, 2013

56. Sewell Chan, "U.S. Plans for Trade Are Stalled," *New York Times*, February 28, 2011

57. Stephen Castle, "Talk of Exit From Union Raises Alarm In Britain," *New York Times*, November 19, 2012

58. Steve Lohr,"Ailing Banks And U.S. Aid," *New York Times*, February 12, 2009

59. Steven R. Weisman,"Signs of Stability, Even Upturn, for Dollar," *New York Times*, May 7, 2008

60. Tim Arango, "What Would Henry Luce Do? Looking Forward at Time Warner," *New York Times*, December 24, 2007

61. Tim Geithner, "Financial Crisis Amnesia," *Wall Street Journal*, March 1, 2012

62. Timothy Heritage, "Crisis Exposes Fragility of European Unity," *New York Times*, May 3, 2010

63. Tom Zeller Jr. and Stefan Milkowski,"Coal Is Returning to Home Furnaces," *New York Times*, December 26, 2008

64. Tyler Cowen, "Three Rocky Roads To a Bank Rescue," *New York Times*, March 1, 2009

Appedix B

Table B.1 Words from the Lexical Field of "path"

Noun	Verb	Adjective / Adverb
advance	Advance	advance
alley	/	/
causeway	/	/
coach	coach	/
course	course	course
descent	/	/
detour	Detour	/
diversion	divert	diverted
door	/	/
entrance	entrance	/
exit	exit	/
Footpath	/	/
fore	/	fore
forward	forward	forward
gate	/	/
go ahead	go ahead	go ahead
headway	make headway	/
high road	/	/
highway	/	/
lane	/	/
maze	/	/
pass	Pass	/
passage	/	/
path (pathway)		/
/	/	/
railway	pursue	/
ramp	/	/
road	ramp	/
roadway	/	/
route		en route
	/	/

side road	/	/
step		/
stream	/	/
throughway	step	----- /
track	stream	/
trail	throughway	/ /
tramway	track	
turning	trail	turning
turnpike	/	/ /
way diversion	turn	
	/ /	

Table B.2 Words from the Lexical Field of "war"

Noun	Verb	Adjective / Adverb
assault	to assault	/
attack	to attack	/
battle,(battle)field,	to battle	embattled
blitz	to blitz	/
blood	to bleed	/
bomb, bombshell	to bomb,to bombard	bloody
bruise	to bruise	/
brutality	/	brutal
campaign	to campaign	/
combat	to combat	/
conqueror,conquest	to conquer	combative
defeat	to defeat	/

Noun	Verb	Adjective / adverb
depreciation	depreciate	/
enemy	/	/
fight, fighter	to fight	/
killer, killing	to kill	inimical
survival, survivor	to survive	/
target	to target	/
war, warfare, warrior	/	/
weapon, weaponry	/	/
/	/	warlike

Table B.3 Words from the Lexical Field of "health"

Noun	Verb	Adjective / adverb
ache	Ache	/
addict	/	addictive
blood	bleed	bleedin
burn	burn	/
cancer	/	cancerous
/	/	chronic / chronically
contagion	/	contagious
cure	cure	/
diagnosis	diagnose	diagnostic
emergency	emerge	emergency
flu	/	fatal

health	hurt	healthy
hurt	incubate	hurt / hurt
incubation	overdose	incubator
overdose	remedy	/
remedy	/	remedial
suffocation	suffocate	suffocating
tumor	pain	/
pain	paralyze	painful/painfully
paralysis	/	paralytic
parasite	/	parasitic
pressure	pressure	pressured
Infection	infect	Infectious, infected
relief	relieve	relieved
respire	respirate	respiratory
shock	shock	shocked
sick/ sickness	sick	sick
surgery	/	surgical
symptom	/	symptomatic
vaccine	vaccinate	/
wound	wound	Wounded

Appendix C

Table C.1 Nouns in a Phrasal Relationship with the Adjective [economic]

1. economic aches
2. economic ailment
3. economic anxiety
4. economic backdrop
5. economic behemoth
6. economic bleeding
7. economic bloc
8. economic blues
9. economic boom
10. economic brinkmanship
11. economic burden
12. economic bust
13. economic catastrophe
14. economic chaos
15. economic climate
16. economic collapse
17. economic contagion
18. economic contraction
19. economic crisis
20. economic crossroads
21. economic crunch
22. economic cure
23. economic damage
24. economic dead zones
25. economic decline
26. economic dependence
27. economic destiny
28. economic deterioration
29. economic devastation
30. economic diagnosis
31. economic disaster
32. economic disorder
33. economic disruption
34. economic distress
35. economic doldrums
36. economic doom
37. economic downfall
38. economic downturn
39. economic drift
40. economic emergency
41. economic engine
42. economic fallout
43. economic fissure
44. economic fluctuations
45. economic force
46. economic freedom
47. economic freeze
48. economic genius
49. economic growth
50. economic hardship
51. economic harm
52. economic healing
53. economic headaches
54. economic health
55. economic homicide
56. economic incentives
57. economic inflation
58. economic intimidation
59. economic liberty
60. economic life
61. economic loss
62. economic malady

63. economic malaise

64. economic meltdown

65. economic miracle

66. economic optimism

67. economic outlook

68. economic overhauls

69. economic pain

70. economic paralysis

71. economic path

72. economic peril

73. economic power

74. economic powerhouse

75. economic pressure

76. economic prosperity

77. economic pundit

78. economic rebalancing

79. economic rebound

80. economic recovery

81. economic revitalization

82. economic revival

83. economic ripples

84. economic ruin

85. economic sentiment

86. economic shock

87. economic shutdown

88. economic skimp

89. economic slowdown

90. economic slump

91. economic squeeze

92. economic stagnation

93. economic stakes

94. economic strength

95. economic strength

96. economic stress

97. economic struggles

98. economic symptoms

99. economic tailwind

100. economic trouble

101. economic turmoil

102. economic typhoon

103. economic tyranny

104. economic unrest

105. economic upheaval

106. economic vagaries

107. economic volatility

108. economic warfare

109. economic weakness

110. economic woes

111. economic wound

112. economic relapse

113. economic stumbles

Table C.2 Nouns in a Phrasal Relationship with the Adjective [financial]

1. financial aid
2. financial avalanche
3. financial battlefield
4. financial bind
5. financial boom
6. financial bubbles
7. financial burden
8. financial catastrophe
9. financial collapse
10. financial contagion
11. financial crash
12. financial crimes
13. financial damage
14. financial dependence
15. financial disaster
16. financial distress
17. financial empire
18. financial epidemic
19. financial fears
20. financial flood
21. financial flow
22. financial folly
23. financial forecast
24. financial fraud
25. financial freedom
26. financial gloomy
27. financial health
28. financial hub
29. financial implosion
30. financial impropriety
31. financial panic
32. financial pariah
33. financial plague
34. financial pressure
35. financial protection
36. financial recessions
37. financial repression
38. financial risk
39. financial sacrifice
40. financial sanctions
41. financial scandals
42. financial security
43. financial shock
44. financial shortfalls
45. financial spigot
46. financial stability
47. financial stake
48. financial strain
49. financial straits
50. financial terror / terrorism
51. financial thriller
52. financial tremors
53. financial troubles
54. financial tune-up
55. financial turmoil
56. financial virus
57. financial war
58. financial watchdog
59. financial weakness
60. financial wizardry

Table C.3 Adjectives in a Phrasal Relationship with the Noun [economy]

1. ailing economy
2. battered economy
3. beaten-down economy
4. booming economy
5. broken economy
6. bubble economy
7. crumbling economy
8. debt-chocked economy
9. decelerating economy
10. depressed economy
11. devastated economy
12. distressed economy
13. faltering economy
14. feverish economy
15. flagging economy
16. gloomy economy
17. healthy economy
18. insoluble economy
19. limping economy
20. malfunctioning economy
21. miniature economy
22. moribund economy
23. ravaged economy
24. robust economy
25. sclerotic economy
26. shattered economy
27. sick economy
28. slowing economy
29. sluggish economy
30. sluggish economy
31. slumping economy
32. slumping economy
33. solid economy
34. sputtering economy
35. stagnant economy
36. stalled economy
37. struggling economy
38. tough economy
39. troubled economy
40. viable economy
41. vibrant economy

Appendix D

Metaphors from the Source Domain of Path, War, and Health in Arabic newspapers

Translated English metaphors into Arabic in newspapers come from a more general body of texts extracted from Arabic online newspapers. They were selected on the basis of key words and expressions which refer to the source texts such as the expressions:x ذكرت صحيفة x نشرت صحيفة

في تعليق نشرته صحيفة , while (x) refers to *The New York Times* or *The Wall Street Journal.*

المواجهة والتحدي للازمة الاقتصادية

للقضاء على الأزمة المالية

المعركة ضد الأزمة المالية

تفجر أزمة الديون

مكافحة أزمة ديون

مكافحة النشاط الاقتصادي المحموم

محاربة تبييض الأموال

على طريق التعافي الاقتصادي

تسير بخطي جيدة علي طريق الإصلاح الاقتصادي

الطريق الصعب

لا نطرق الطريق الصعب

الخروج من النفق المظلم

إخراج الاقتصاد من النفق المظلم

إعاقة خارطة الطريق

المسار البطيء للتعافي الاقتصادي

المسار التصاعدي للانتعاش الاقتصادي

يقود إلى ميناء الانتعاش

ثمرة استئناف النمو الاقتصادي

تسابق الزمن لتفادي الانهيار المالي

يقف على حافة الانهيار المالي

دفع الوجع الاقتصادي إلى حافة الانهيار

حماية العملة من النزيف

حماية العملة من أمراض التضخم

إجراءات دولية لمواجهة الأزمة

طوارئ لمواجهة انعكاسات الأزمة

تسعى للحصول على حصة

تسعى إلي الحصول على نصيب فى السوق

من أجل حل الأزمة المالية

التعاون من أجل حل

للعمل من أجل حل الأزمة

للعمل من أجل اختصار آلام الأزمة والخروج منها بأسرع

التخطيط العملي لحل الأزمة

تفجر أزمة مصرفية شديدة للبنوك

البحث عن أسواق جديدة

اكتساب أسواق جديدة

التدفق الداخلي لرأس المال

جهود مجابهة الأزمة

تحديات تباطؤ النمو الاقتصادي

يواجه خطر تباطؤ النمو الاقتصادي

التأقلم مع تباطؤ النمو الاقتصادي

تباطؤ النمو الاقتصادي

تراجع النمو الاقتصادي

يواجه خطر تباطؤ النمو الاقتصادي

تصارع أوروبا أزمة الدين

ساحة معركة المنافسة

ساحة المنافسة الاقتصادية

مواجهة الأزمة الاقتصادية العنيفة

الاقتصاد تعرض لهزات عنيفة

قنبلة اجتماعية موقوتة تنذر بالانفجار في أية لحظة

غزو السوق

عدوى الأزمات المالية

تتفاوت السرعات التي يتعافى بها النشاط الاقتصادي العالمي

إصابة الأسواق بالشلل

آلام الأزمات الاقتصادية

صدمة أزمة القطاع المالي

وجع الاقتصاد

نزيف الخسائر

رئة الاقتصاد المُصابة بالسرطان

اقتصاد مصاب بالعجز

أزمة اقتصادية خانقة

تشخيص لأهم الأمراض التي أصيب بها الجسد الاقتصادي

تعثر الوضع الاقتصادي دفع عجلة النمو

الهبوط الاقتصادي العالمي

اتجاه الاقتصاد تصاعدي

الاقتصاد يستدعي خطوة جديدة إلى الأمام

الهبوط الذي شهده الاقتصاد العالمي

الاقتصاد الامريكى يجر قاطرة الاقتصاد العالمي

قاطرة للنمو الاقتصادى العالمى

إلحاق ضرر كبير'بالأسواق المالية

تحديات المنافسة الدولية

للوقوف على أقدامها في وجه المنافسة الأجنبية

كقوة منافسة في الأسواق الدولية

الاقتصاد العالمي الذي وصل إلى شفير الهاوية

السير في طريق التعافي والانتعاش

Table D.1 Arabic Adjectives in a Phrasal Relationship with the Noun "economy" اقتصـاد [iqtissad]

inert economic	اقتصاد خامل
healthy economy	اقتصاد معافى
faltering economy	اقتصاد تعثرم
pulse of economic life	اقتصاد نابض بالحياة
prosperous economy	اقتصاد مزدهر
stagnant economy	اقتصاد راكد
sickly economy	اقتصاد واهن
static economy	اقتصاد ساكن
limping economy	اقتصاد أعرج
broken economy	اقتصاد هشيم
moribund economy	اقتصاد محتضر
hot economy	اقتصاد نشيط
ailing economy	اقتصاد معتل

gloomy economy	اقتصاد كئيب
stagnant economy	اقتصاد راكد
slowing economy	اقتصاد متباطئ

Table D.2 Arabic Nouns in a Phrasal Relationship with the Noun "economy" اقتصاد [iqtissad]

economy in ruins	خراب الإقتصاد
fragmented economy	تفتت الاقتصاد
faltering economy	تعثر اقتصاد
strength in economy	قوة الاقتصاد
destroyed the economy	تهدم الاقتصاد
economic fatigue	إرهاق الإقتصاد
deterioration of economy	تدهور الاقتصاد
contraction of the economy	انكماش الاقتصاد
hit the economy	ضرب الاقتصاد
economic recession	كساد الاقتصاد
economy shrinking	اقتصاد متضائل

Sources of the the Extracts

http://www.aleqt.com/

http://www.echoroukonline.com/

www.ahram.org

www.youm7.com

www.annahar.com

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Ahrens, K., Chung S.F., & Huang, C. (2003). Conceptual metaphors: Ontology-based representation and corporate driven mapping principles. In *Proceedings of the ACL workshop on the lexicon and figurative language*. Retrieved from http://www.kathleenahrens.com/images/Conceptual_Metaphors-_Ontology based_Representation_and_Corpora_Driven_Mapping_Principles.pdf

Alfred I. Tauber (1994). *The Immune Self: Theory or Metaphor*? Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Baker, P. (2006). *Using Corpora in Discourse Analysis*. London: Continuum.

Baker, P. (2010). *Sociolinguistics and Corpus Linguistics*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Barcelona, Antonio (ed.). (2000). *Metaphor and Metonymy at the Crossroads: A Cognitive Perspective*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter

Baumgarten, S. and Gagnon, C. (2005). Written political discourse in translation: A critical discourse perspective on Mein Kampf. In W. Thiele, J. Schwend and C. Todenhagen (eds) *Political Discourse: Different Media, Different Intentions, New Reflections*.Tubingen: Stauffenburg.

Black, M. (1962). *Models and metaphor*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.

Boers, F. (1996).*Spatial Prepositions and Metaphor*: *A Cognitive-semantic Journey along the UP DOWN and the FRONT-BACK Dimensions*, Tiibingen: Gunter Narr Verlag

Boers, Frank and Murielle Demecheleer (1997). A few metaphorical models in (Western*)* economic discourse. In W. Liebert, G. Redeker & L. Waugh, eds., *Discourse and Perspective in Cognitive Linguistics*, 115 129.

Boers, F. (1999). When a bodily source domain becomes prominent. In R. Gibbs and G. Steen (eds.). *Metaphor in cognitive linguistics* Amsterdam: John Benjamins

Black, M. (1993). More about metaphor. In Ortony, A. (ed.), *Metaphor and thought*, (2nd edn.) Cambridge University Press

Bowdle, B. F., and Gentner, D. (2005). The career of metaphor. *Psychological Review*, 112, 193–216.

Boyed, R. (1979). Metaphor and theory change: What is a metaphor for? In Ortony, A. (ed.) *Metaphor and thought*. Cambridge University Press.

Brône, Geert and Kurt Feyaerts (2005). Headlines and cartoons in the economic press*:* Double grounding as a discourse supportive strategy". In Guido Erreygers and Geert Jacobs, (eds.) *Language, communication and the economy*: John Benjamins Publishing Company

Caballero, Rosario (2003). Metaphor and genre: The presence and role of metaphor in the building review. *Applied Linguistics* 24: 145–167.

Caballero Rodriguez, R. (2006). *Re-Viewing Space: Figurative Language in Architects' Assessment of Built Space*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Cameron, L. J. (2003). *Metaphor in educational discourse*. London: Continuum.

Cameron, L. J (2008). Metaphor and talk. In Gibbs, R.W., Jr. (ed.), *The Cambridge handbook of metaphor and thought*. Cambridge University Press.

Casasanto, D. (2009a). When is a linguistic metaphor a conceptual metaphor? In V. Evans and S. Pourcel (eds.), 127–45, *New Directions in Cognitive Linguistics*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Charles Forceville, (1996). *Pictorial Metaphor in Advertising*, Routledge University Press

Charteris-Black, Jonathan, and Timothy Ennis (2001). A comparative study of metaphor in Spanish and English financial reporting. *English for Specific Purposes* 20: 249–66.

Charteris-Black, J. (2004). *Corpus Approaches to Critical Metaphor Analysis*, BasingstokeHants: Palgrave Macmillan.

Charteris-Black, J. (2005). *Politicians and rhetoric: The persuasive power of metaphor*. Basingstoke, Hants: Palgrave Macmillan.

Charteris-Black, Jonathan and Andreas Musolff (2003). Battered 'hero' or 'innocent victim'? A comparative study of metaphor for euro trading in British and German financial reporting.

English for Specific Purposes 22: 153–176

Chomsky, Noam. (1968). *Language and mind*. New York: Harcourt Brace & World, Inc

Cienki, A. and Muller, C. (2008). Metaphor, gesture and thought. In Gibbs, R. W. (ed.) *The Cambridge Handbook of Metaphor and Thought*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cienki, A. (2000). *The production of metaphoric gestures: Evidence for on-line cognitive processing of metaphoric mappings*. Unpublished manuscript.

Clark, H. H. (1996). *Using language*. Cambridge University Press.

Clausewitz, Carl von. (1968). *On War*. Edited by Anatol Rapoport. Translated by J. J. Graham. London: Penguin.

Crisp, P. (2002). Metaphorical propositions: A rationale. *Language and Literature*, 11(1), 7–16.

Dagut, Menachim B. (1976). Can 'Metaphor' be Translated? *Babel* 22 (1), 21–33.

Deignan, A. (2005). *Metaphor and corpus linguistics*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Deignan, A., and Semino, E. (2010). Corpus techniques for metaphor analysis. In *Metaphor analysis: Research practice in applied linguistics, social sciences and the humanities*. London: Equinox.

E. Cornell Way (1991). *Knowledge representation and Metaphor*, Kluwer Academic Publisher

Eubanks, Philip (2000). *A War of Words in the Discourse of Trade: The Rhetorical Constitution of Metaphor*, *Carbondale*, IL: Southern Illinois University Press

Fairclough, N. (1989). *Language and Power*. London: Longman.

Fairclough, N. (1995). *Media Discourse*. Edward Arnold

Fauconnier, G. (1994). *Mental spaces: Aspects of meaning construction in natural language*. Cambridge University Press.

Ferguson, Charles. 1983 Sports announcer talk: Syntactic aspects of register variation. *Language in Society* 12/2: 153-72.

Forceville, C. (2002). The identification of target and source in pictorial metaphors, *journal of Pragmatics* 34:1-14.

Forceville, C.(1996). *Pictorial metaphor in advertising*. New York: Routledge.

Foreman, Benjamin A. (2011). *Animal metaphors* and the *people* of *Israel in the book of Jeremiah*. Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht

Fouconnier, Gilles & Mark Turner (2002). *The Way We Think : Conceptual Blending and the Mind's Hidden Complexities*. New York: Basic Books

Francis, W. Nelson & Henry Kucera (1982). *Frequency Analysis of English Usage: Lexicon and grammar*.Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.

Gentner, D. (1983). Structure-mapping: A theoretical framework for analogy. *Cognitive Science*, 7, 155–170.

Gentner, D., and Bowdle, B. F. (2001). Convention, form, and figurative language processing. *Metaphor and Symbol*, 16, 223–247.

Gentner, D., Holyoak, K., Kokinov, B., eds. (2001). The Analogical Mind: Perspectives from Cognitive Science. MIT Press.

Goatly, Andrew. (1997). *The Language of Metaphors*. London: Routledge.

Goodman N. (1968), *Languages of Art*, Indianapolis-New York

Gibbs, R. W., Jr. (1994). Figurative thought and figurative language. In Gernsbacher, M. A. (ed.), *Handbook of Psycholinguistics*. New York: Academic Press.

Gibbs, R. W., Jr. (2008). Metaphor and thought: The state of the art. In Gibbs, R. W. Jr. (ed.), *The Cambridge handbook of metaphor and thought*. Cambridge University Press.

Glucksberg, S., McGlone, M.S., Manfredi, D. (1997). Property attribution in metaphor comprehension, *Journal of Memory and Language*, 36, 50-67.

Glucksberg, S. (2001). *Understanding figurative language*. Oxford University Press.

Graham Low, Zazie Todd, Alice Deignan and Lynne Cameron, eds. (2010). *Researching and Applying Metaphor in the Real World*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins

Grice, H.P. (1967). Logic and conversation (William James Lectures). In H.P. Grice (1989), *Studies in the way of words*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 3–143.

Grice, H.P. (1969a). Utterer's meaning and intentions. *Philosophical Review*, 78, 147–77.

Halliday, M. (1985). *An introduction to functionnal grammar*. London *:* Amold HARNER, L.

Harrera, H. and M. White (2000). Business is War or the Language of Takeover. *Panorama Actual de la Linguistica Aplicaa*, 1, 231-40.

Hackett, Robert A. & Zhao, Yuezhi (1994). Challenging a Master Narrative: Peace Protest and Opinion Editorial Discourse in the United-States Press During the Gulf-War. *Discourse & Society*, 5/4,509-541.

Hackett, Robert A., and Yuezhi Zhao, (eds.) (2005). *Democratizing Global Media*: *One World*, *Many Struggles*. Lanham, MD: Rowman and Littlefield

Hackett, Robert A. & Yuezhi Zhao (1998). Sustaining democracy? *Journalism and the politics of objectivity*. Toronto: Garamond Press.

Honeck, R.P. (2013), *A Proverb in Mind - The Cognitive Science of Proverbial Wit and Wisdom*. Mahwah, N.

Jackendoff, R. (1992). *Languages of the Mind: Essays on Mental Representation*. Cambridge, Mass.:

MIT Press.

Jackendoff, R., and D. Aaron (1991). Review of Lakoff and Turner (1989). *Language 67*, 320-338.

Johnson-Cartee, K. (2005). *News Narratives and News Framing: Constructing Political Reality*, Lanham,MD: Rowman & Littlefield.

Johnson M. (1987). *The body in the mind*: *the bodily basis of meaning, imagination and reason*, Chicago, The University of Chicago

J. Sinclair, *S*. Jones and R Daley (2004 [1970]). *English Collocational Studies*; London, Continuum.

Karl Simms (1994). *Translating Sensitive Texts*: *Linguistic Aspects*, Amsterdam: Rodopi

Katan, David (1999). *Translating Cultures*: *An Introduction for Translators*, *Interpreters* and

Mediators.Manchester UK: St. Jerome Publishing.

Kevin J. Vanhoozer, *Biblical Narrative in the Philosophy of Paul Ricoeur* Cambridge:
  Cambridge Univ. Press, *1990*), 163-64.

Kjärgaard, Mogens Stiller (1986). *Metaphor and Parable*: *A systematic analysis of the specific structure and*
  cognitive function of the synoptic similes and parables *qua metaphors* Leiden, E.J. Brill

Kloepfer, Rolf (1980). Dynamic Structures in Narrative Literature. The Dialogic Principle'. *Poetics*
  *Today,*4, 115-134.

Koller, V. *(*2003). *Metaphor clusters in business media discourse: A social cognition approach*, Vienne,
  University of Vienna, doctorate thesis

Koller, V. (2004). *Metaphor and Gender in Business Media Discourse: A Critical Cognitive Study*,
  Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan

Kopp, Richard R. (1995). *Metaphor Therapy*. New York: Brunner/Mazel.

Kövecses, Z. (2002). *Metaphor: A practical introduction*. Oxford University Press.

Kövecses, Z. (2005). *Metaphor in culture: Universality and variation*. Cambridge University Press.

Kittay, E. F. (1987). Metaphor. Its cognitive force and linguistic structure. Oxford: ClarendonPress.

Lakoff, G. (1993). The contemporary theory of metaphor. In Ortony, A. (ed.), *Metaphor and thought*
  (2nd edn.). Cambridge University Press.

Lakoff, G. (1996). *Moral politics: What conservatives know that liberals don't*. University of Chicago Press.

Lakoff, G., and Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors we live by*. University of Chicago Press.

Lakoff, G., and Johnson, M(1999). *Philosophy in the flesh: The embodied mind and its challenge to*
  western thought. New York: Basic Books.

Lakoff, G., and Turner, M. (1989). *More than cool reason: A field guide to poetic metaphor*.
  University of Chicago Press.

Lefever, A. (1992). *Translation—History, Culture: ASource Book*. London: Routlege

Lehrer, A. (1981). Semantic Fields and the structure of metaphor, *Studies in Language* 5: 31-63

Levinson, Stephen C. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Londa Schiebinger (2000). *The Mind Has No Sex*? ,Harvard University Press

López Maestre (2000). The Business of Cognitive Stylistics: a survey of Conceptual Metaphors in Business
  English. *Atlantis*, vol. 22 47/69

Maalej, Zouhair (2001). Processing pictorial metaphor in advertising: A cross-cultural perspective.

  Academic Research 1: 19–42 [Sfax, Tunisia]

Medhurst M. J. (1990). *Rhetoric* and *Cold War*: *A Strategic Approach.* Greenwood Press.

Mey, Jacob (2005). Metaphors and Activity. *DELTA, 22* (Special issue: Essays on Metaphor in Language and Thought), 45–65.

Moon, Rosamund (1998). *Fixed expressions and idioms in English - a corpus-based approach*, Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Musolff, A. (2003). Ideological functions of metaphor: The conceptual metaphors of *health* and *illness* in public discourse. In: René. Dirven, Roslyn Frank and Martin Pütz (eds.), *Cognitive Models in Language and Thought.*Muttonde Gruyter

Musolff, A. (2004). *Metaphor and political discourse: Analogical reasoning in debates about Europe*. Basingstoke, Hants: Palgrave Macmillan.

Nerlich, Brigitte, Craig A. Hamilton & Victoria Rowe (2002). Conceptualising Foot and Mouth Disease: The socio-cultural role of metaphors, frames and narratives. *metaphorik. de* 02. 90-108.

Newmark, P. (1981). *Approaches to Translation.* Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Newmark, Peter (1987). *A Text book of Translation.* Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall.

Newmark, P. (1991). *About Translation.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Ning Yu, 1998. *The contemporary* theory *of metaphor*: *A perspective from Chinese*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins

Ortony, A. (1993). Metaphor, language, and thought. In Ortony, A. (ed.), *Metaphor and thought* (2nd edn.). Cambridge University Press.

Paletz, David L. (2002). *The Media in American Politics. Contents and Consequences*. New York, Longman.

Paul Ricoeur (1975).*The Rule of Metaphor*. *Multi-Disciplinary Studies in the Creation of Meaning*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1978.

Pragglejaz Group (2007). MIP: A method for identifying metaphorically used words in discourse. *Metaphor and Symbol*, 22, 1–39.

Raymond van den, B. (1988). Translation theory after deconstruction". *Linguistica Antverpiensia* 22, 266-288.

Reiss, K. (2000). *Translation Criticism – The Potentials and Limitations*: *Categories and Criteria for Translation Quality Assessment*. Manchester*:* St. Jerome.

Richards, I. A. (1936). *The philosophy of rhetoric*. London: Oxford University Press.

Ritchie, L. D. (2013). Metaphor. Cambridge University Press.

Sadock, Jerrold M. 1979. Figurative speech and linguistics. In *Metaphor and Thought*, Andrew Ortony (ed.), 46–64. Cambridge: CUP.

Schiebinger L. (1999). *Has Feminism Changed Science*? Cambridge Mass, Harvard University Press.

Searle, J. (1993). Metaphor. In A. Ortony (ed.), *Metaphor and thought*. Second edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 83–111.

Semino, Elena (2002). A sturdy baby or a derailing train? Metaphorical representations of the euro in British and Italian newspapers. *Text 22*: 107-139

Semino, E. (2008). *Metaphor in discourse*. Cambridge University Press.

Scott, M. (2004). *WordSmith Tools*, version 3.0. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Solomon, Robert C., and Kathleen M. Higgins (2013). *The Big Questions: A Short Introduction to Philosophy*. Solomon University of Texas

Sinclair, J., Jones, S., Daley, R. and Krishnamurthy, R. (2004). *English Collocational Studies: The OSTI Report*. London: Continuum.

Steen, Gerard J., Ewa A. Biernacka et al (2010). Pragglejaz in practice: Finding metaphorically used words in natural discourse. In G. Low, Z. Todd, A. Deignan, & L. Cameron, eds., *Researching and Applying Metaphor in the Real World*, 165–184. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: Benjamins.

Stefanowitsch, Anatol (2006). Words and their metaphors: A corpus-based approach. In Anatol

Stefanowitsch, A. & Gries, S.Th. (eds.) (2006). *Corpus-based approaches to metaphor and metonymy*. Berlin: de Gruyter

Stern, J. (1997). Metaphors in pictures. *Philosophical Topics*, 25, 255–94.

Stern, J. (1998). *Metaphor and philosophy of language*. In M. Kelly (ed.), *Oxford encyclopedia of aesthetics*, 4 vols. Oxford: Oxford University Press, vol. 3, 212–15.

Stern, J. (2000). *Metaphor in context*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Stubbs, M. (1996). *Texts and Corpus Analysis*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Tourangeau, R. and Sternberg R. J. (1982). Understanding and Appreciating Metaphors, *Cognition*, 11, 203/244.

Turner, Mark (1992). Language is a virus. *Poetics Today*, 13, 725-736

Turner, Mark (1996). *The Literary Mind*. Oxford University Press

van Dijk, T.A. (1988). *News Analysis: Case Studies of International and National News in the Press*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

White M., Herrera-Soler H. (2003). Metaphor and ideology in the press coverage of telecom corporate

      consolidations. In R. Dirven, R. Frank & M. Pütz (eds.). *Cognitive Models in Language and Thought*:

      Ideology, Metaphors and Meanings. Berlin – New York: Mouton de Gruyter

Wilmer, Franke (2003). Ce n'est pas une Guerre/This Is Not a war: The International Language and Practice of

      Political Violence. In François Debrix, (ed.). *Language, Agency, and Politics in a Constructed World*.

      Armonk, NY: M.E. Sharpe.

Zaltman, Gerald (2003). *How Customers Think*: *Essential Insights into the Mind of the Market*, Cambridge,

      MA: Harvard

Zarefsky, David. (1986). *President Johnson's War on Poverty*: Rhetoric and History. Alabama

      University Press.

Zinken, J. (2007). 'Discourse metaphors: the link between figurative language and habitual analogies',
Cognitive Linguistics, 18, 3.

SUMMARY IN ARABIC

ملخص باللغة العربية

الاستعارة هي تلك الظاهرة اللغوية التي نلجأ إليها إذ ما أردنا الحديث عن شيء من خلال استخدام شيء آخر و تعتبر من أهم المشاكل في عالم الترجمة النظري والعملي. الاستعارة تعدّ أداة لتطوير المفاهيم، ووسيلة لخلق واقع، وليست لتزيين الواقع كما هو الحال في البلاغة القديمة. فالاستعارات كما تم تعريفها من قبل جورج لاكوف ومارك جونسون " ليست تزيينا للكلام وليست آليات اتصالية لوصف موضوعات يصعب وصفها باللغة الحرفية. ولكنها تعكس آليات عقلية يستعملها الناس لتمكنهم من تصور مجالات مجردة أو غامضة في المعرفة الإنسانية من مثل الزمن والسببية والاتجاهات المكانية والأفكار والعواطف باستخدامهم تعبيرات من مجالات معرفية محددة ومألوفة." إن اللسانيات الإدراكية و العملية توفر مستويين من الاستعارة هما الاستعارة الذهنية و الاستعارة اللغوية. حيث يعد النوع الأول هو الأساس المعرفي و الدلالي الذي يتخذ شكل (الحقل الهدف هو / كالحقل المصدر) ؛ في حين أن الاستعارة اللغوية هي مظهر في الأشكال الكتابية و المنطوقة, أي أن الاستعارة أساسا ليست من أمر اللغة و إنما هي ظاهرة ذهنية قبل أن تكون لغوية.

من الأمور البارزة في تحليل الاستعارة آن لهذه الخاصية اللغوية أبعاد ليس فقط جمالية ومعرفية بل حتى إيديولوجية. فالخطاب الصحفي للجريدة له منطلق أيديولوجي ثقافي فيصبح السرد عبارة عن نظام من التواصل وليس مجرد عرض للأحداث. تؤكد العديد من الدراسات النقدية أن استخدامات الاستعارة في لغة الصحافة حتما لها تطبيقات إيديولوجية ، فعلى سبيل المثال توظف للتبرير و الإقناع. في هذا الإطار يتناول هذا البحث تحليلا للاستعارة في مقالات من الصحف العربية والإنجليزية عن الأزمة الاقتصادية العالمية الحالية. إن التركيز في هذا البحث يدور حول استخدام أو استعارة أسماء من مجالات أخرى مثل الحركة والتنقل الحرب و الصحة لشرح المفاهيم المجرد ة وأيضا لأغراض أيديولوجية. وقد أجريت هذه الدراسة في إطار علم اللغة المعرفي وتحليل الخطاب النقدي. فقد استند بحثنا في المقام الأول على التعبيرات اللغوية المالية في الصحف الإنجليزية على وجه الخصوص نيويورك تايمز وصحيفة وول ستريت جورنال. ثم تمت

مقارنة هذه التعبيرات مع تعبيرات متماثلة في اللغة العربية في مقتطفات ترجمت من الإنجليزية إلى العربية في الصحف بشأن تغطية الأخبار المالية والأزمة الاقتصادية الحالية. ولمّا كانت اللغة مرآة أهلها ووعاء " فكرها فإن الترجمة الحرفية للتعابير الإنجليزية إلى اللغة العربية أحيانا تعكس حالة التردي الفكري واللغوي. على حد قول ، فهذا التعبير إن أثبت شيئاً فإنه يثبت صحة هذه المقولة. فهو " ساحة المعركة الإقتصادية ترجمة حرفية للتعبير الإنجليزي « economic battlefield »بالتأكيد، استعارة معركة يولد عددا من الصور السلبية. الكلمة تشير إلى وجود متصارعيْن أو متحاربين. يرى بعض المترجمين التعبير الساحة الاقتصادية من أقرب الاستعارات لتوصيف الوضع

تعد الصحافة وسيلة إعلام فاعلة لما تقدمه من معلومات كاملة لجمهور ملم بالقراءة، والصحافة تعد سلطة رابعة. وبالتالي اختيار اللغة يجب أن يكون بعناية وحذر. يؤكد كثير من اللغويين أن الاستعارة هي وسيلة لنقل الأفكار الأيديولوجية والحقائق الجديدة للقراء. باستخدام استعارات معينة يمكن بالتالي للكتاب شرح أفكارهم إلى الآخرين وإقناع القراء لقبول معتقدات معينة. من خلال الاستعارات، يمكن للصحفيين تعزيز أو حتى خلق صور نمطية قد بتناقلها القراء بدون إدراك وبطريقة لا واعية. الوظيفة الأيديولوجية للاستعارة هي الموضوع الرئيسي لهذه الدراسة.

في هذا السياق المعرفي يمكن مساءلة العلاقة بين النص المستعار منه والنص المستعار له.
أسئلة البحث هي على النحو التالي
كيف تصف الصحف الأمريكية الأزمة المالية بمعنى مجازي ؟

ماذا تكشف الاستعارات حول قيم الديمقراطية الرأسمالية الليبرالية السائدة في الغرب؟

كيف تصف الصحف العربية الأزمة المالية والاقتصادية الراهنة في مقتطفات مترجمة من الصحف الإنجليزية؟

الخطوط العريضة للدراسة

بالإضافة إلى المقدمة والخاتمة وملصق خاص بأهم المصطلحات، تضم الدراسة أربعة فصول، الفصل الأول يجمع بين الأفكار والمبادئ الرئيسية لنظرية الاستعارة في إطار النهج الذي يربط الدلالة المعرفية للاستعارة بدراسة نقدية في اللغة والخطاب وهذا لدراسة استخدام الاستعارة في الأخبار الإنجليزية والعربية في هذه الحقبة من الأزمة الاقتصادية العالمية. الفصل الثاني يعرض المنهجية المتبعة في الدراسة ويوضح كيفية تطبيق أساليب جمع البيانات وتحليلها، فمنهجية البحث تجمع بين نظريات المعرفية والدلالية في تصنيف وتحديد وتفسير الاستعارات في الخطاب. وفقا للمنهجية المحددة الفصل الثالث عبارة عن تحليل المعطيات من أجل إجراء تحليلات مقارنة كما يوضح أيضا نتائج البيانات كما ونوعا ويعرض للمناقشة استنتاجات الدراسة.

الإطار النظري للدراسة

تناولنا في الفصل الأول نظريات الاستعارة بحيث تعرضنا فيه إلى التصور التفاعلي للاستعارة في مقابل التصور الاستبدالي فقدمنا الانتقادات الموجهة لهذا النموذج وتبيان قصوره وهو ما أفضى للأخذ بالتصور التفاعلي الذي يعتبر الاستعارة حصيلة تفاعل فكرين نشيطين لا مجرد كلمات معزولة فالاستعارة ليست استبداله ونقلا، وإنما هي تفاعل بين الدلالات. من خلال ذالك رصدنا تصور بلاك باعتباره أول من أرسى هذا الاتجاه ثم ألحقناه بتصور ريتشاردز Richards الذي يشكل العتبة التي انطلق منها لاكوف وجونسون في تأسيس نموذجهم وتقسيماتهم الكبرى للاستعارة واستغلالهم لمفاهيم علم النفس الجشطالتي وهو ما جعل من نظريتهم تفاعلية تجريبية، دون أن نغفل تصور بول ريكور الذي ربط الاستعارة بالرمز. ووفق هذا الطرح، فإنه يمكننا أن نميز في تحليل الاستعارة بين الأخذ بالمقومات الذي شاع مع النموذج الاستبدالي بتفكيك أجزاء الاستعارة والاعتماد على محدودية القاموس، وبين المتبني للنموذج التحليلي المعرفي الذي ارتبط بالموسوعة وتفاعل مختلف العلوم مع الإلمام بالسياق التداولي للخطاب، وهو ما يشكل ذخيرة لتأويل الاستعارة والكشف عن كيفية اشتغالها وفاعليتها.ونظرا لما يحيط

مفهوم التأويل من تعدد دلالي وكثرة الاستعمال وبحكم طبيعة الاستعارة وانفتاحها على سلسلة من التأويل، ارتأينا أن نتعرض إلى أهمية العنصر التداولي في تأويل الاستعارة، وكذا دور التجارب والمضامين المعرفية المتعددة واستثمارها في عملية التحليل الاستعاري، وذلك وفق ما تطرحه نظرية جورج لاكوف George Lakoff التي تهتم بمختلف التجارب والمعارف التي يتفاعل معها الفرد فحاولنا أن نطبقها في تحليل القول الاستعاري الوارد في الخطاب الاقتصادي. لقد اعتبر" لايكوف وجونسون"، أن الاستعارة تعتمد أساسا على التجربة الحياتية للإنسان، ذلك أن ملامسته للأشياء، وتفاعله معها تكون لديه تجربة عادة ما ينقلها ويسقطها على تصوراته، محاولة منه فهم المجرد انطلاقا من المحسوس، وهو ما يشكل عتبة لفهم هذه المجردات بالاعتماد على خصائص الأشياء المادية وكيفية اشتغالها وانطلاقا من هذا المبدأ، سندرس النسق الاستعاري المكون لمفهوم الأزمة، و المنافسة وصناعة السلطة في النص الصحفي، اعتمادا على التجارب المستمدة من المجال الطبيعي.

كما رصدنا أيضا طرح نظرية جوناثان تشرتيرس بلاك التحليل النقدي للاستعارة وهو أحد المنهجيات المتقدمة في دراسة الاستعارة والتي تتعامل مع اللغة كأحد أشكال الممارسات الاجتماعية وتدرس كيف تساهم الاستعارة في الإقناع و خلق السلطة الاجتماعية والسياسية. إذ تناولت نظريته تحليل الاستعارة في إطار تحليل الخطاب النقدي، إذ يذهب إلى إثبات أن الاستعارة تعكس نظرة تقييميه و لا يمكن تحليلها خارج السياق.

يتناول هذا الفصل أيضا جانب تطبيقي وهو ترجمة الاستعارات والغرض من دراسته عرض رأي البعض الذي يرى بأن الاستعارة وسيلة كونية أي تشترك فيها كل اللغات والثقافات ولذا فإن من الواجب ترجمتها حرفيا بينما يرى آخرون أن الترجمة الحرفية تؤدي الى نتائج خالية من أي معنى، ولذا يرى نايدا مثلا أن الاستعارة يجب ترجمتها كـ «غير استعارة». هنا ينصح مناصير مترجم النص العربي بدراسة امكانية تقبل اللغة المترجم اليها للصورة الثقافية التي تحملها الاستعارة . ظهرت قضية مشكلة الاستعارة في الترجمة في ميدان البحث الحديث على يد داجوت ونظرية داجوت في ترجمة الاستعارة

تعتمد أساسا على منظوره لماهية الاستعارة والتي هي في نظره كسر للحواجز الدلالية للكلمات، أي أنه قصر الاستعارة على ما يسميه كثير من الباحثين بـ«الاستعارة الأصيلة». فقد ربط داجوت بين الاستعارة وبين وقع الاستعارة في نفس القارىء، أو ما يسمى بالتأثير الجمالي لتلك الاستعارة حيث يشعر القارىء من خلال هذا الربط غير المسبوق لدلالتي المستعار والمستعار له بأنه أمام رؤية جديدة لم يتعرض لها من قبل مما ينتج نوعا من التقبل الجمالي لهذا الكسر لقوانين الدلالة اللغوية. أما فيما يتعلق بالترجمة فالأمر ينقسم الى قسمين. الأول يرتبط بما يجب على المترجم فعله. وهنا يرى داجوت أن على مترجم النص الأدبي مهمة أساسية تتمثل في محاولة اعادة انتاج النص في اللغة المترجم اليها على نحو يمكن القارىء في اللغة المترجم اليها من الوصول الى نفس المشاعر الجمالية التي يثيرها النص في القارىء باللغة الأصلية. وهذا يفترض أن داجوت يعمل ما يسمى بالتقابل الدايناميكي equivalence dynamic الذي طوره يوجين نايدا U. Nida في العديد من دراساته في الترجمة ويفترض هذا المفهوم أن على المترجم أن يقوم بإنتاج مقابل للنص الأصلي في لغة الترجمة بحيث يكون هذا المقابل قادرا على خلق استجابة مشابهة لتلك الاستجابة التي ابداها قاريء النص في لغته الأصلية. أما الأمر الثاني المهم في رؤية داجوت لترجمة الاستعارة فيتعلق بالمشاكل التي تقابل المترجم حينما يواجه استعارة تستعصي على "الترجمة الحرفية". وهنا يطرح داجوت رأيا القائل بأن ترجمة الاستعارة (أي على نحو يتم به خلق تأثير جمالي مشابه) تعتمد على مدى اشتراك لغة الاصل ولغة الترجمة في الجوانب الدلالية والثقافية المشكلة للاستعارة، وهذا يعني أن عدم اشتراك اللغتين في هذه الجوانب يقود الى وضع يسمى في دراسات الترجمة بعدم قابلية الترجمة Untranslatability أي استحالة الترجمة عمليا.

تؤكد الأبحاث أن لغة الصحافة العربية اقترضت عدد كثير من الاستعارات الإنجليزية من خلال إعداد التقارير الإخبارية والترجمة الحرفية والنقطة التي يجب التشديد عليها هنا هي أن الاستعارة تعمل على تعزيز القيم السائدة و وجهات نظر العالم و حتما سيؤدي ذلك إلى تحديد طرق التفكير و تثبيت سلوكيات معينة. و الملاحظ في عملية الترجمة وجود أحيانا نزعة إلى ترجمة أو تعريب كافة الكلمات الدخيلة، إلاّ أنها لا تنجح في كل الأحيان. نتيجة ذالك تعاني اللغة العربية الحديثة حالةً من الاستغراب والاستلاب في

الأنماط اللغوية والفكرية.

تناولنا في الفصل الثاني خطوات البحث مع التفاصيل. يعرض الفصل أولا سردا مفصلا للخصائص النحوية والدلالية والبراغماتية لكل من كلمة 'سبيل ' ، 'حرب'، 'صحة' فهي الكلمات التي تمثل المجال المستعار منه. وتركز الدراسة علي تحليل الحقل المعجمي: (مجموعة ألفاظ في النص تدور حول موضوع معين يليها المترادفات والاشتقاقات) وظائف الحقل المفهومي (يتناول كلمات وألفاظ متقاربة بمعانيها ومدلولاتها).فهي ممثلة في جداول ويمثل خطوة ضرورية في بحثنا . تستخدم الدراسة طريقة تعرف باسم(MIP— Metaphor Identification Procedure; Pragglejaz Group 2007) لتحديد نطاق الاستعارة في اللغة على مستوى استخدام الكلمة. حيث يتم البحث عن الكلمة وتحديد المعنى المقصود في السياق. تستخدم الدراسة منهجية التحليل النقدي للاستعارة التي أسسها Charteris-Black كنموذج . و هي تستند على ثلاث خطوات التحليل التّفسير و التأويل.

هذه دراسة مقارنة لتعبيرات في لغة المال و التجارة. تهدف إلى تحليل لغوي لاستعارات في المجاميع من الصحف مع التركيز على التقارير المالية والمعلومات الاقتصادية الواردة بمحتواها.

محاولة لاستخلاص المفاهيم المركزية التي تحكم هذه العبارات تنحصر الدراسة في تحليل عبارات لغوية حيث المستعار منه مستمد من ميدان الحرب، الصحة و الحركة والتنقل نجد ذالك في عبارات مثل "الخروج بصلابة من نفق الأزمة"، " أزمة مالية مزمنة"، " معركة إنعاش الاقتصاد من الغيبوبة". يعد الصراع ظاهرة عامة نلحظ في مختلف مظاهر للحياة الاجتماعية وفى الاقتصد والسياسة إن كلمة "العدو" تربط بين الحقول الدلالية المحيطة بكلمة حرب و مفرداتها والحقول الدلالية المحيطة بمفردات عن الحالة الصحية للإنسان. عند تشبيه العدو بالمرض الخبيث أو المعدي، الحرب ضده يكتسب قيمة موجبة كعلاج ضروري. استخدام الحرب والصحية كمشبه به في الاستعارة هو من أجل التعبير عن المنافسة و لتعزيز الليبرالية والرأسمالية. فالاستعارة هي لهدف ليس فقط للتجميل اللغوي. صحيح اللغة تعكس الثقافة وتنقل الأيديولوجيات لكن ما يلاحظ هو وجود استعارات متطابقة في الصحف العربية

والإنجليزية،أعني مستمدة من استعارات مفاهيمية متطابقة. رغم هذا التطابق قد تكشف هذه الدراسة عن اختلافات بين الثقافتين العربية والإنجليزية. في جزء من هذه الدراسة آمل أن أجد أدلة على أن الغرض من النص هو عامل مهم في تحديد اختيار الاستعارة. واختيار الاستعارة يحدد آراء الصحفي اتجاه الأحداث. الاستعارة لها دور محوري في الخطاب إذ أنها تحدد نوايا المؤلف. أحاول في هذه الدراسة أن اجمع بين البراغماتية مع جوانب البحوث الحديثة في علم اللغة المعرفي من الناحية النظرية المعرفية، موضع الاستعارة ليست في اللغة ولكن في الفكر. وفقا لذلك، ينبغي لنا أن نأخذ في الاعتبار أن ترجمة الاستعارة لا تنطوي سوى على التحول اللغوي بين لغتين ولكن أيضا التحول المفاهيمي بين اثنين من الأفكار المفاهيمية. ربما قد يكون من المفيد أن نفكر في اللغة والفكر كما لو أنهما وجهان لعملة واحدة. فهناك العديد من الدراسات التفسيرية لمثل هذه العلاقة المتبادلة بين الاستعارة والفكر. مع التركيز على الاستعارات في التقارير المالية في الصحف ، لاحظنا أن هناك عدد كبير من التعبيرات المجازية المستخدمة في وسائل الإعلام الإنجليزية التي تزحف من خلال الترجمات إلى العربية. وفقا لذلك، قد يتم إعادة الهياكل العقلية للقراء وجهات النظر العالم. إذا كانت اللغة المجازية تعكس الأيديولوجيات، مقارنة الاستعارات تعكس وجهات نظر وأيديولوجيات مختلفة. لغة الإعلام أداة من أدوات السلطة و الامبريالية كما يصفها البعض، الترجمة الحرفية أحيانا تساهم في تعزيز أديولوجيات تحملها اللغة الأصل بين طياتها.

تشير نتائج الدراسة أولا إلى وجود استعارات في الإنجليزية والعربية التي لها نفس الأساس ألمفاهيمي و نفس المفردات، ثانيا استعارات التي لها أشكال لغوية متشابهة في اللغة الإنجليزية والعربية ولكن التي لها أساس مفاهيمي مختلف تماما، وبالتالي معنى مختلف. تعكس هذه النتائج استراتيجيات ترجمة الاستعارات. والترجمة أنواع فهناك الترجمة الحرفية والاستعارية والمعدلة والحرة. إن الترجمة الحرفية قد لا تنتج ترجمة مقبولة في كثير من الحالات. فترجمت العبارة التالية « when **America sneezes**, Europe catches a cold. » الى العربية حرفيا ستنتج جملة خالية من المعنى. فيجب أن تكون الترجمة

اصطلاحية وممتعة، ليس للباحث وحسب، بل مقبولة من القارئ أيضا. العنصرالسيميائي والدلالي في تحليل الخطاب يلعب دورا مهما في في تحديد الكيفية التي ينبغي أن تترجم بها الاستعارة. يلاحظ مؤخرا، وبالتحديد في العديد من الأبحاث الأكاديمية والمقالات المنشورة أن الترجمة قبل كل شيء هي فهم وجهة نظر الكاتب فهي الواقع المعرفي الذي ينبغي ان يكون في تطابق مع الواقع اللغوي و المخطط المعرفي أو المعتقد Schema. الاستعارة تلعب دورا مهما في خلق الحقائق النفسية الاجتماعية الثقافية. فالاستعارات المفاهيمية لا تعكس فقط تمازج الثقافات لكن تساهم بدورها في خلق القيم الثقافية للمجتمعات البشرية. بناء على هذا المفهوم و دور الاستعارة الهام في تنمية الجوانب العقلية والنفسية و اللغوية والمعرفية أصبحت تشكل إشكالية في الترجمة. ترتبط المعرفة باللغة ارتباطا وثيقا، فالأفكار لا توجد بشكل مستقل عن اللغة. بناء على هذه الفكرة قد تكون هناك علاقة تناقض وتعارض بين الاستعارة والفكر في حالة الترجمة الحرفية. هناك بعض الاستعارات والمقارنات المعتادة في كتابة الأخبار تستخدم بشكل خاطئ والصور الذهنية قد لا يتم اختيارها بعناية. عندما يحدث هذا فهناك مشاكل تعطل فعالية التواصل. وبناء على ذلك قدم البحث شواهد مأخوذة من الصحف الأمريكية وذلك لمحاولة رصد وتتبع فاعلية الاستعارات الواردة في الصفحة الاقتصادية من صحيفة نيويورك تايمز وصحيفة وول ستريت جورنال. كما تعرض البحث لتحليل الصحافة العربية و تغطيتها للأخبار التجارية والاقتصادية بمقتطفات مترجمة من الصحف الأمريكية وذالك في إطار تحليل الخطاب النقدي. فكما يذكرنا روبرت فيليبسون في كتابه " الإمبريالية اللغوية" أن اتصال اللغة قد يفرض هياكل عقلية جديدة و يؤكد علي درويش في نفس الصياغ أن الاستعارات هي أساليب مهم في الكتابة الصحفية لأنها تخلق صوراً ذهنية قوية من الحياة اليومية والمصادر الثقافية و لذالك الاستعارة من اللغات الأخرى قد يؤدي إلى تعزيز الهيمنة الثقافية. بما أن الاستعارات هي أدوات قوية يجب استعمالها بعناية كثيراً ما يفضل عدم استخدامها وأن يتم وصف أو شرح الأشياء بطريقة أخرى.

الاستعارة علاقة لغوية تقوم على المقارنة، شأنها في ذلك شأن التشبيه، ولكنها تتمايز عنه بأنها تعتمد على الاستبدال، أو الانتقال بين الدلالات الثابتة للكلمات المختلفة، أي أن المعنى لا يقدم بطريقة مباشرة، بل يقارن أو يستبدل بغيره على أساس من التشابه. بعض نظريات الاستعارة هي النظرية الاستبدالية النظرية التفاعلية، والسياقية، والحدسية،إننا نجد مع جورج لاكوف ومارك جونسون نظرية في غاية الأهمية حول الاستعارة. الأطروحة الأساس في هذا الكتاب هي أن الاستعارة ليست أمرا لغويا صرفا تحل فيه كلمة محل أخرى على أساس تشبيه بين دلالتي الكلمتين, بل أن الاستعارة في الحقيقة عملية ذهنية يسقط فيها مجال حياتي معين على مجال أخر ,وحيث أن الاستعارة من أمر الذهن فإن التعابير التي تعارف الناس عليها باعتبارها استعارات ما هي إلا انعكاسات لغوية لعملية الإسقاط الذهني .فالتعبير «لقد وصلت المفاوضات إلى طريق مسدود »هو تعبير لغوي عن استعارة ذهنية هي استعارة [المفاوضات تحرك]التي يتم فيها إسقاط مجال الحركة من موقع إلى أخر, كما نخبرها في التجربة المادية الصرفة, على مجال المفاوضات السياسية التي ينظر إليها حسب الاستعارة على أنها تحرك مشترك بين المتفاوضين من «الموقف »الحالي «إلى »أخر, وحسب هذه الاستعارة فإن عدم الوصول إلى حل للمشكلة التي يتم التفاوض حولها يغدو توقفا لمسيرة المفاوضات إليها حسب الاستعارة على أنها تحرك مشترك بين المتفاوضين من «الموقف» الحالي «إلى» أخر, وحسب هذه الاستعارة فإن عدم الوصول إلى حل للمشكلة التي يتم التفاوض حولها يغدو توقفا لمسيرة المفاوضات أو انه يعتبر حركة في غير الطريق المستحبة لذا يبدأ البعض في الدعوة إلى «إعادة المفاوضات إلى طريقها المرسوم» وتجاوز «العثرات» التي تعترض «سير» المفاوضات. إن كل هذه الكلمات تعكس مجتمعة الإسقاط الذهني الذي لا يشعر به في العادة من مجال الحركة إلى مجال التفاوض, وهذا المثال يعكس مجانبة النظريات التقليدية للصواب في جعل التشبيه شرطا للاستعارة, فلا وجه شبه أصلا بين الحركة المادية من موقع نحو آخر وبين التفاوض, فالحركة تجربة مادية صرفة بينما المفاوضات عملية سياسية تعتمد على المصالح ولا تتطلب بالضرورة اشتراك المتفاوضين في «هدف» مشترك ينبغي أن ;يصلوا« إليه معا.

وقول النظرية المفهومية للاستعارة بأن الاستعارة أمر ذهني صرف, وليس لغة فحسب, وان اللغة انعكاس لما يدور من عمليات إسقاط ذهنية, ينقل قضية الاستعارة برمتها من الدراسات اللسانية والنقدية التي احتكرت الاستعارة لقرون متعاقبة إلى دراسات علم الذهن .

و خلاصة القول أهمية الاستعارة أنها تعمل على مستويين: الذهن واللغة . الاستعارات تختلف من كونها شمولية   universal مستمدة من من الإدراك البشري أو ثقافية   culture-specific تختلف عبر الثقافات مركزاتها واقعة في تجربتنا الثقافية، وواقعة في تعاملاتنا اليومية.

لهذا السبب الاستعارة واحدة من المشاكل الملحة التي تواجه الترجمة. الاستنتاج الأساسي من هذه الدراسة هو أن معظم الاستعارات قد تم تغيير صورتها في الترجمة أو أنها قد حولت إلى المعنى دون الاحتفاظ بالصورة الأصلية.مما يثبت أن الاستعارة من أهم المشاكل في عالم الترجمة النظري والعملي ، فالكثير من الاستعارات تبقى خارج نطاق قدرة المترجم على ترجمتها من لغتها الأصلية إلى لغة أخرى والأسباب الرئيسية وراء ذلك هي العوامل اللغوية والثقافية التي تشكل الاستعارة وتجعلها مرتبطة باللغة الأصلية وقرائها ارتباطا وثيقا مما قد يجعل أمر ترجمتها إلى إي لغة أخرى مستحيلا أو صعبا على اقل تقدير، ويهدف هذا البحث إلى تبيان العوامل التي تحكم آلية ترجمة الاستعارة عموما وترجمة الاستعارة العربية إلى اللغة الانجليزية على وجه التحديد. إن هدفنا الأساسي في هذه الدراسة كان استعراض بعض الآراء الحديثة في موضوع «ترجمة الاستعارة» ساعين من خلال هذا الاستعراض إلى تبيان ربط هذه الآراء بالتطورات في دراسات الاستعارة والتطورات في حقول اللسانيات الأخرى.