A Comparative Study of Conceptual Metaphors in English and Persian Newspapers

Dr. Farahman Farrokhi
Department of English, University of Tabriz
Iran

Dr. Ali Akbar Ansarin
Department of English, University of Tabriz
Iran

Somaye Ashrafi
(Corresponding Author)
Department of English, University of Tabriz
Iran

ABSTRACT

Metaphors are not simply ornamental rhetorical devices that are used in poetry and literary texts; rather they are indispensable parts of our thinking. This paper seeks to analyze conceptual metaphors (CMs) cross-linguistically in three areas of economics, politics, and health studies in English and Persian newspapers within the framework of cognitive linguistics by means of Lakoff and Johnson’s (1980) CM theory, to determine which language has the more pervasiveness of metaphors and also to find out the similarities and differences of CMs in three areas of newspaper. To this end, MIP (Metaphor Identification Procedure) and Kittay and Lehrer’s (1981) semantic field theory of metaphor were used to properly locate and identify metaphors in the corpus of 1,525,631 words. The results indicate that, despite the cultural differences and differently distributed source domains, the conceptual metaphors in the English and Persian newspapers are not so radically different and this is in line with Lakoff and Johnson’s (1980) claim that the use of metaphor is consistent with the universal structure of human mental conceptualization. There are more CMs in Persian newspapers and in the area of economics. Out of ten source domains, the CMs of the journey, war, body, and nature were found to be some of the most frequently-used CMs in the corpus.

Keywords: Conceptual Metaphor, Culture, Corpus Study, Source Domain, Newspaper

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1. Introduction

The study of metaphor has been the major part of the studies in the field of linguistics because spoken and written texts have been embedded with metaphors to create unforgettable images of their goals in the mind of audiences. Many scholars (Lakoff and Turner (1989), Gibbs (1994), Kövecses (2005)) assert that metaphor is the vital figure of thought that is ubiquitous in many disciplines since it is the predominant feature of all language use and is indispensable from human cognition. A metaphor has the structuring and organizing power of our worldly experiences and through which we are able to “understand a relatively abstract or inherently unstructured subject matter in terms of a more concrete or at least more highly structured subject matter” (Lakoff, 1993, p. 245). Metaphor in cognitive linguistics is not limited to language rather it reveals people’s reasoning and thinking, as stated by Geary (2012) the metaphors are rooted in the mind of an individual before being incorporated into words. Therefore, according to contemporary theory, language does not mainly create metaphors but it is thoughts forming them based on the actions of people.

The metaphor has an important pragmatic function that is related to persuasion, teaching, and provides an explanation for complexity of scientific terms and expressions. The earliest studies of metaphor are associated with rhetorical power of persuasion. Other functions of metaphor are linked to thought processes, a mechanism for structuring conceptual characteristics by which the unfamiliar concepts can be interpreted (Mühlhäusler, 1995). The findings from a metaanalysis of several empirical studies on metaphor from the 1980s and 1990s suggest that
metaphorical language is more persuasive than literal language (Sopory and Dillard, 2002).

Newspapers include real discourse texts and have a greater impact on people’s lives because as Bell (1991) claims “society is pervaded by media language” (p. 1). Metaphors used in the press are considered powerful devices in convincing ideological purposes (Charteris Black, 2004), and have this capability to bring to focus some aspects of a concept while at the same time hiding others (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). The investigation of metaphors in the newspaper is carried out in particular topics such as immigrant discourse (Santa Ana, 1999) and in particular registers such as sports reporting (e.g. Charteris-Black, 2004) or business texts (e.g. Koller, 2004). However, this study investigates the conceptual metaphors in the newspaper as a whole register, which has not yet been given due attention.

Most Newspapers consist of three sections namely economics, politics, and health issues that are of more interest to people. It is expected that there will be many metaphors in these sections as they are much related to people’s daily lives. Newspapers attempt to use a kind of material that is informative and persuasive to readers. This paper aims to apply the CM theory in the terms of ten source domains to give a detailed explanation of how these source domains in the English and Persian newspapers and three areas of economics, politics, and health studies are distributed and it also gives an account of the similarities and differences between the two newspapers.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Definition of Conceptual Metaphor

The classical thought of metaphor differs largely from contemporary understanding of the metaphor. Aristotle maintains that a metaphor includes two main disparate locations, that is, the place where it has come from and the place to which it has been transferred. However, metaphors are not merely used as rhetorical devices and cognitive scientists consider them as part of human thoughts and understanding (Gibbs, 1994; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Lakoff and Johnson (1980) maintain that our conceptual system including our thoughts and actions is intrinsically metaphoric. In addition, they claim that our thinking, our experience, and our everyday actions are greatly influenced by metaphors. These metaphorical conceptual structures are realized in linguistic expressions that reflect our inner beliefs and perspectives. Kos (2019) asserts that metaphor is more helpful in achieving the economy of expression and it is more efficient in cases where literal description might fail to do so.

It is important to draw a distinction between conceptual metaphors and linguistic metaphors (also known as metaphorical expressions and linguistic expressions). Deignan (2005) suggests that linguistic metaphors realize conceptual metaphors. For example, the linguistic metaphors of ‘I’m feeling up’, ‘That boosted my spirits’ and so on realize the conceptual metaphor HAPPY IS UP (p. 14). Linguistic metaphors show the existence of conceptual metaphor, because the topic and vehicle in the meaning of linguistic expressions determine the source domain and target domain of conceptual metaphor respectively. The vehicle shows the literal meaning, as in the examples above ‘up’ is literally ‘direction away from the ground’ but the topic has the meaning in the target domain, which consists of metaphorical meaning. The topic is to be happy in the above example (p. 14). The target domain, according to Kövecses (2002), involves “a more abstract concept,” while the source domain tends to encompass “a more concrete or physical concept” (p. 6). Thus, conceptual metaphor serves to connect two conceptual domains whereby the abstract and complicated one is understood in terms of the familiar knowledge of the concrete and clear one. Lakoff (1993) considers conceptual metaphors as “mappings across conceptual domains” where mapping refers to “a fixed set of ontological correspondences between entities in a source domain and entities in a target domain.” (p. 245) Similarly, Knowles and Moon (2006) refer to mapping as “the connections are made between aspects, features, or roles in source and target domains at a conceptual level” (p. 34). According to Goatly (2007), one important feature of CMs is that the mapping of source domain to target domain do not happen haphazardly, but they create patterns and fit into sets which are called CM Themes or CMs (p. 35).

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) provide the first example of conceptual metaphor ARGUMENT IS WAR. There are many examples of expressions in which the conceptual metaphor ARGUMENT IS WAR is used to illustrate how a concept can be metaphorical: Your claims are indefensible.
He attacked every weak point in my argument. His criticisms were right on target. I demolished his argument. (p. 124)

It can be observed from the examples that they are used very frequently and without any rhetorical or aesthetic purposes; they are very common and mundane. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) argue that the numbers of metaphors connected to the conventional metaphors of ordinary language are much more than traditionally assumed. Likewise, Goatly (2007) suggests that ‘The first aspect of metaphor that the conceptual theorists stress is that it is everywhere’ (p. 13). Gibbs (1994) as well confirms that the frequent use of metaphor is inseparable from ordinary language; even all types of language make use of metaphor including science, law, culture, and so forth. Kövecses (2002) also adds that although novel metaphors become conventional with constant use, these kinds of metaphors are not actually dead rather they are alive since they “govern our thought – they are ‘metaphors we live by’ ” (p. ix).

2.2 Metaphor and Culture

The study of metaphor in different languages helps to grasp the mutual understanding of the speakers of that language and facilitates cross-cultural communications by providing a framework for understanding the particular social and physical world. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) state that the structure of metaphor functions as an embodiment of human cognition and understanding, that is, our worldview is reflected in our language and thought. Kövecses (2005) considers the culture as an essential factor in metaphor studies and elaborates on what aspects of metaphor are universal or culture-specific. For Kövecses (2005), universality is the uniformity in the complex metaphors that results from a natural emergence of some “universal correlations in bodily expressions” (p. 38) and variation in metaphor conceptualization or culturally-specific instantiations are resulted from “differential experiences” of people (p. 293). According to Lakoff (1993), “metaphorical mappings vary in universality; some seem to be universal, others are widespread, and some seem to be culture-specific.” (p. 245). Accordingly, Gibbs (1994) claims that conceptual metaphors are rooted in social and cultural experiences, in other words, cognition, and cultural models are inseparable. According to Sharifian (2011), the interaction of human beings in authentic contexts at a particular time and space leads to the emergence of cultural concepts, which provides the members of different groups with “templates” to better understand particular aspects of their lives.

On the one hand, the universality of metaphors can be justified by the fact that all humans have a common biological history. As stated by Boers (1999), human physical experience is almost similar in the world, and this makes image schemas more likely to be universal and shared by many different cultures. On the other hand, living in different communities provides human beings with different political, social, and cultural ideologies and beliefs, which form the basis for the culture-specific aspect of metaphor.

Safarnejad et al. (2014) found that English and Persian share many metaphorical expressions of happiness that are grounded on common bodily experiences. Therefore, the similarities show the universality of conceptual metaphors, whereas differences in metaphorical expressions relate to specific different cultural patterns in English and Persian.

2.3 Research Questions

1. Is there any significant difference between English and Persian newspapers in the use of CMs in three areas namely, politics, economics, and health studies?

2. What CMs are predominating within newspapers of English and Persian language?

3. Methodology

3.1 Material

The present investigation is based on the corpus of English and Persian newspapers collected for the study. It contains 1,525,631 words taken from a body of journalistic writing. The researchers tried to objectify the selection process of newspaper text by randomly selecting texts. The entire corpus considered for analysis was released between 2017 and 2018. The English newspapers are Telegraph, Daily Express, Guardian, and Daily Mail. The Persian corpus consists of the newspaper of Keihan, Iran, Hamshahri, and Jam-E-Jam. The Corpus used in the study refers to the manual collection of a relatively small sample of the newspapers that would be particularly helpful for answering the research questions.
3.2 Reliability

Inter-rater agreement is implemented to ensure that the subjectivity is avoided and the validation of the metaphoricity is enhanced. It examines the extent of agreement between annotators that investigates the accuracy of classification regarding the correct category CMs are assigned. To this end, 300 CMs in their linguistic context are presented to two annotators to analyze the accuracy of metaphoricity of the sample after being trained to do the task. They are native speakers of Persian, one rater is the Ph.D. candidate in TEFL and another is the Ph.D. candidate in Persian language and literature. The agreement of 97.3% is reached between the choices of one annotator and researchers’ with regard to English corpus and the agreement of 95% is obtained in Persian corpus. Therefore, there is a high value of the researcher’s judgments in the classification of the selected CMs with regard to their intended source domain.

3.3 Data Collection Procedure and Data Analysis

This study uses two stages of analysis: metaphor identification and interpretation. Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP) proposed by the Pragglejaz Group (2007) and the semantic field theory of metaphor (Kittay and Lehrer, 1981) are conducted as methodological tools in the stage of metaphor identification to provide a basis for the systematic and definitive categorization of the identified linguistic expressions and their related CMs. Semino (2008) asserts that MIP is a helpful device that provides researchers with the consistent, credible, and precise method that presents valid research findings.

To avoid the purely intuitive determination method and reinforce the validity of the study, the researchers consider the metaphoricity of the word in the actual context and in the authentic ground. Therefore, metaphor identification is conducted by linking the textual meaning of lexical item to its basic, actual meaning. To this end, researchers benefit from the dictionaries as they provide credible information and help them gain valid findings. Steen (2007) maintains that dictionaries are more helpful where researchers with different knowledge backgrounds adopt ‘an independent reflection of what counts as the meanings of words for a particular group of users of English [or a given language]’ (p. 97). We identified the basic meaning of English lexical items with the help of both the Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners and the online Oxford English Dictionary, and for the identification of Persian lexical items, we used Encyclopedic Dictionary of Delkhoda and Persian Dictionary of Mo’in. The Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners is a corpus-based dictionary and Oxford English Dictionary provides a detailed analysis of the basic meaning of a determined lexical item with the origin of the term. The two Persian dictionaries are rather classical words with enriched figurative definitions. According to Semino (2008), in determining metaphoricity of lexical units, one can include both individual words and multiword expressions, when meaning cannot be determined from the words that form them.

The guiding principle for Pragglejaz group (2007) is a dissimilarity between the basic and contextual meaning in the specification of the metaphoricity of lexical items. MIP has four steps as follows:

1. Read the entire text--discourse to establish a general understanding of the meaning.
2. Determine the lexical units in the text--discourse.
3. (a) For each lexical unit in the text, establish its meaning in context, that is, how it applies to an entity, relation, or attribute in the situation evoked by the text (contextual meaning). Take into account what comes before and after the lexical unit.

(b) For each lexical unit, determine if it has a more basic contemporary meaning in other contexts than the one in the given context. For our purposes, basic meanings tend to be:

— More concrete [what they evoke is easier to imagine, see, hear, feel, smell, and taste];
—related to bodily action;
—More precise (as opposed to vague);
—Historically older;

Basic meanings are not necessarily the most frequent meanings of the lexical unit.

(c) If the lexical unit has a more basic current--contemporary meaning in other contexts than the given context, decide whether the contextual meaning contrasts

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Table 1: List of Newspapers Selected for the Corpus

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Newspapers (2017-2018)</th>
<th>Total Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>Telegraph Daily Express</td>
<td>779512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persian</td>
<td>Keshan Iran</td>
<td>766119</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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with the basic meaning and can be understood in comparison with it. 

4. If yes, mark the lexical unit as metaphorical. (p. 3)

After the stage of identification, we adopted Lakoff and Johnson’s (1980) Conceptual Metaphor theory for the interpretation of the second sage. According to this theory, one can use concrete and physically-based human experiences to explain the abstract and non-physical concepts. Kitch and Lehrer’s (1981) semantic field theory of metaphor is adopted to enhance the systematism of approach for establishing CMs in the context. In this theory, a certain relationship is established between a set of lexemes in this way that the established semantic relationship between fields functioning as a metaphor facilitates the understanding of irrelevant semantic filed. The semantic field of the building domain, for example, can be realized by linguistic expressions like “foundation,” “pillar”, “door,” “structure,” “collapse,” and “ceiling.”

The source-domain-oriented approach, first implemented for corpus texts by Deignan (2005), is used in this research. Researchers deductively investigated the metaphor searching for the available source domains through the whole text to establish their existence. In this approach, the pre-selected lexical items of source domains collected from previous studies and researchers’ own manual metaphor identification through reading the beginning 3000 words in each language were qualitatively investigated to ensure that they are actually used metaphorically. These findings were then applied to a larger corpus to mark the metaphors in their verbal surroundings and obtain more generalized linguistic results. In this study, ten source domains were selected including building &construction, War, Plants, Nature, Health &Illness, Machines &Tools, Journey & transportation, Food & cooking, Body & activities, and Animal.

4. Results

The comparative analysis of conceptual metaphors in the corpus of English and Persian newspapers is presented in this section. Of the newspaper materials investigated, a total number of 10528 metaphors (economics= 4919 politics=3519 heath studies=2090) were found in English newspapers. There are 13646 (economics= 5544 politics=3242 heath studies=2080) metaphors in the corpus of Persian newspapers in the related sections. We used the Chi-square ($\chi^2$) to determine a significant difference in the distribution of CMs among three sections of economics, politics, and health study in English and Persian newspapers. Moreover, the frequency of CMs was calculated per 1000 words.

**Table 2: Computation of $\chi^2$ of CMs in Persian and English Newspapers in Three Sections of Economics, Politics, and Health Studies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>95.392</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>95.411</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>52.645</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>24174</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the table of critical values of $\chi^2$ (Brown, 1988, p. 192), a critical value of $\chi^2$ for 2 degrees of freedom at the 0.05 level is 5.99. The observed value of $\chi^2$ calculated here is 95.39, which is more than the critical value of $\chi^2$:

$\chi^2$ =95.39 > Critical $\chi^2$=5.99

The findings of the test show that the distribution of CMs in economics, politics, and health studies in English and Persian newspapers is statistically significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis regarding the first question is rejected.

The findings from the overall distribution of CMs (table 3) show that the frequency of metaphors per 1,000 words in Persian newspapers (17.81) was higher than the English ones (13.86). The highest frequency belongs to economics and politics sections in Persian newspapers with 21.62 and 20.86 per 1000 words. The frequency of CMs in the economics section of English newspaper is the highest with 19.48 per 1000 words. The lowest frequencies belong to the area of health study with the value of 11.07 and 8.31 per 1000 words in Persian and English newspapers respectively. As it is evident from Figure 1, out of three areas, the section of economics in both languages includes the highest CMs.
A Comparative Study of Conceptual Metaphors in ….

Farahan Farrokhi, Ali Akbar Ansarin & Somaye Ashrafi

Table 3: Frequency of CMs in English and Persian Newspapers per 1000

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metaphor Source Domain</th>
<th>English Newspaper</th>
<th>Persian Newspaper</th>
<th>Total in English</th>
<th>Persian Newspaper</th>
<th>Total in Persian</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Activism</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>437</td>
<td>760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>per 1000</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>2.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts &amp; crafts activities</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>6.60</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>16.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>per 1000</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beauty &amp; Health</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>5.59</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>9.90</td>
<td>14.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>per 1000</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>9.63</td>
<td>7.02</td>
<td>16.65</td>
<td>10.05</td>
<td>26.70</td>
<td>36.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>per 1000</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food &amp; drinks</td>
<td>13.86</td>
<td>10.02</td>
<td>23.88</td>
<td>17.02</td>
<td>40.90</td>
<td>57.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>per 1000</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>2.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home &amp; Transportation</td>
<td>11.02</td>
<td>8.02</td>
<td>19.04</td>
<td>13.02</td>
<td>32.06</td>
<td>45.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>per 1000</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>1.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health &amp; Illness</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>7.10</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>11.38</td>
<td>15.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>per 1000</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1: Distribution of CMs in Persian and English Newspapers

4.1 Journey & Transportation

This source domain is one of the three frequently-used ones out of ten for describing various target domains. There are 39 subtypes of the source domain of journey in English newspaper (advance, derail, hurdle, obstacle…) and 29 subtypes in Persian newspaper (پیمایی یا پیشرفت مسیر…). The most frequently-used conceptual metaphors in Persian corpus include ECONOMIC ACTION / INITIATIVE IS JOURNEY, (DIFFICULTY IN) CARRYING OUT POLITICAL POLICY IS JOURNEY and HEALTH PROBLEM IS JOURNEY, CAUSE OF ILLNESS IS JOURNEY.

In addition to reporting on the impasse in Saudi Arabia and Emirate’s political schemes, it also points to changes in the equation of war.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IS JOURNEY

Economics is likened to journey so that the process of economic transactions can be visualized. It implies that the only reaching destination is not important and there are times where the path is straightforward and sometimes winding. Right economic policies make the process (path) more manageable.

“This half is the path to growth in the full year and we are very much on track for that,” Mr Reynolds-Smith said (Telegraph, 2018, 3, 23).

4.2 War

English Newspapers contains more war CMs than Persian newspapers. There are 64 subtypes of source domain of war in the English newspapers (aggressive, battle, conquer peace, torpedo, trench…) and 37 subtypes in Persian newspapers (تیر و اسید، به تیر و اسید، به اسید، به تیر و اسید…). In Persian corpus, the more frequent CMs are INTENTION IS WAR, BAD INFLUENCE IS WAR, and HEALTH PROBLEM IS WAR, and in English corpus, they are ECONOMIC RECESSION IS WAR, POLITICAL SUPPORT IS WAR, and ACTIVATING ILLNESS IS WAR.

HEALTH PROBLEM IS WAR

War metaphors are used to highlight the seriousness of diseases and to inform people about health problems and preventive measures.

پرورش‌های نسخه‌های مختلفی از پروتئین‌های مادگی که در همان حالتی که مایع مولتی‌پرتوبرون سبب می‌گردد به دست آمده از مصرف انسان کمک کنند و منجر به بروز بیماری‌های فرسوده و عصبی می‌نمایند (Hamshahrí, 2018, 3, 13).

Prions are a different version of prion proteins that can invade the human brain from the inside, leading to various neurodegenerative diseases.

POLITICAL SUPPORT IS WAR
In order to support the proposals and prevent them from being criticized, one can metaphorically use defend to show that s/he does not give up easily and provides comprehensive support.

The US President was defending his proposed tariffs but Brussels hit back at the proposed tariffs and is gearing up for a bitter trade war with the US. (Daily Express, 2018, 3, 21)

4.3 Body and Its Activities

Persian newspapers contain more body CMs than English newspapers. There are 62 subtypes of source domain of body in Persian newspapers (birth, blood, body, heart, heel, thumb...) and 55 subtypes in English newspapers (Birth, Blood, Body, heart, heel, thumb...). In Persian corpus, the highest CMs are HAVING PROBLEM IS BODY, TO CONTROL IS BODY, and FORMATION OF AN ACTIVITY IS BODY, and in English corpus, the highest CMs are THE EFFECT IS BODY, THE POLITICAL SYSTEM IS BODY, and DEALING WITH HEALTH CHALLENGES IS BODY. TO CONTROL IS BODY

To have something in one’s hand indicates that someone has a complete mastery over something that is not easy to lose.

Since taking power, the military has sought to bolster its position by fomenting ethnic differences.

POLITICAL SYSTEM IS BODY

Body metaphor is used to describe the political institutions so that the writers could be able to refer to unity of organizations and describe their weaknesses and strengths.

Mr Trump also said all peacekeeping missions should have clearly defined goals and metrics for evaluating success as he called for the UN to become a stronger body and a more effective force for peace. (Express mail, 2017, 9, 18)

4.4 Machine and Tools

Although there are 38 subtypes of the source domain of machine and tool in English newspapers (axe, backfire, basket, brake, breakdown, bulldoze, chain...) and 22 subtypes in Persian newspapers (پیوندر، البرز احمدی، هریش انتقاد..), Persian newspapers use more machines and tools CMs. In Persian corpus, ECONOMY IS MACHINE, POLITICAL ORGANIZATION IS MACHINE, and CREATING HEALTH POLICY IS MACHINE, and in English corpus, CREATING ECONOMIC POLICY IS MACHINE, CAUSE OF VIOLENCE IS MACHINE, and TREATING HEALTH PROBLEM IS MACHINE are the most frequently-used conceptual metaphors.

POLITICAL ORGANIZATION IS MACHINE

In the Persian newspapers, the metaphor of the machine is used to describe political organizations to point out that the components of organization work together to achieve the same goal and this shows their integrity and unity.

Government’s emphasis on integration of smart cards ...mandated the Ministry of Interior to co-ordinate the executive bodies in this meeting.

TREATING HEALTH PROBLEM IS MACHINE

The resemblance of the body to the machine gives rise to the notion that the body consists of tangible components of the machine that health treatment like tools can fix health problems.

Indeed low-salt diets may be causing brittle bones and memory loss and more salt could fix diabetes, he claims. (Guardian, 2017, 8, 8)

4.5 Nature

Persian newspapers include more nature CMs than English newspapers. Economics in English newspapers and politics in Persian newspapers contain the highest frequency of CMs. There are 55 subtypes of the source domain of nature in English newspapers (bleak, blizzard, bubble, buffet, catastrophic, chill...) and 48 subtypes in Persian newspapers (پیوندر، پیوندر، البرز احمدی..). In Persian corpus, AWARENESS IS NATURE, CLARITY IS NATURE, and THE BASIS OF AN ACTIVITY IS NATURE, and in English corpus, UNREAL ECONOMIC PRICE IS NATURE, POLITICAL CRITICISM IS NATURE, and THE LARGE NUMBER IS NATURE are the highest in frequency.

AWARENESS IS NATURE

Using the metaphor in the flow means being aware of the issues of the day. This means that people are aware of the government’s policies.
One of the issues that is on the government’s agenda and the people are aware of is the resistive economy.

POLITICAL CRITICISM IS NATURE

The metaphor of under fire is used to show a higher degree of political criticism and dissatisfaction for exerting pressure on the individual.

He’s a little monarch’ Emmanuel Macron under fire for ‘cheating’ France. (Express Mail, 2017, 9, 19).

4.6 Building & Construction

Persian newspapers contain a higher number of building CMs than English newspaper. Politics in Persian newspapers and economics in English newspapers include the highest number. There are 26 subtypes of source domains of building in English newspapers (Architecture, bedrock, brick, bridge...) and 36 subtypes in Persian newspapers (استکه اوهر بیفتی ویلور...). In Persian corpus, the highest frequencies of CMs belong to LIMIT IS BUILDING, MAIN POLITICAL POLICY (OR DEAL) IS BUILDING, and BODY ORGANS ARE BUILDING, and in English corpus, this belongs to CMs like END OF THE FIRM’S ACTIVITIES IS BUILDING, (STRENGTHENING) POLITICAL POSITION IS BUILDING, and PROVING HEALTH STUDY FINDING IS BUILDING.

BODY ORGANS ARE BUILDING

To illustrate the seriousness of an unhealthy diet or irrational treatment and its effects on the body, writers make use of the building destruction metaphor to make the issue more visible and tangible to the readers.

לע יאד דאתי וארש מברך טולאני ממד ערכ

Kasani موجچ چراپ در عروق شبکه و افت فشار خون می شود، پس در استفاده از آن زیاده روی نکنید. (Iran, 2018, 3, 5)

Remember that long-term consumption of chicory perspiration can damage the retinal vessels and lower blood pressure, so do not overdo it.

(STRENGTHENING) POLITICAL POSITION IS BUILDING

The use of building metaphors refers to the robustness of government activities and institutions that through well-planned policies they will be able to survive longer.

The displacement deal will bring the campaign in eastern Ghouta... closer to conclusion, and it will cement the regime’s hold on central and western Syria. (Guardian, 2018, 3, 23)

4.7 Plant

Persian newspapers contain a higher number of plant CMs than English newspapers. Economics in both languages includes the highest number of CMs. There are 17 subtypes of source domains of plant in English newspapers (Barren, blossom, branch, cherry-pick...) and 13 subtypes in Persian newspapers (نکورانی پیچی و پر، گرگوش، کونار...). In Persian corpus, economic DEVELOPMENT IS PLANT. (BAD) RESULT IS PLANT, and THE MAIN REASON OF ILLNESS IS PLANT, and in English corpus, ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IS PLANT, DIVISION OF POLITICAL ORGANIZATION IS PLANT, and GETTING HEALTH BENEFIT IS PLANT are the most frequently-used conceptual metaphors.

THE MAIN REASON OF ILLNESS IS PLANT

Root metaphor has been used to describe the long-standing problems so that the audience gets the realization that solving problem requires a great deal of thinking and effort.

پیامری های غیر واقع ریشه در فرهنگ ما

In Persian newspapers (Iran, 2018, 3, 23) and 13 subtypes in English newspapers (Guardian, 2018, 3, 15).

Contagious diseases are rooted in our culture. The four risk factors include unhealthy diet, sedentary lifestyle, smoking, and alcohol that are all risk factors.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IS PLANT.

In this example, the economy is likened to a plant so that its development can be illustrated in the form of plant growth and that if one fails to deal with economy, it will be damaged or in other words, the economy will be in crisis.

When the housing market is in the doldrums – as now – growth suffers. (Guardian, 2018, 3, 15)

4.8 Animal and Its Activities

English newspapers contain the higher number of animal CMs than Persian newspapers. Economics in English newspapers and politics in Persian newspapers contain the most CMs. There are 24 subtypes of source domains of animal in English newspapers (Beast, bird, bull, chicken, defang, dog, dove, ...) and 24 subtypes in Persian newspapers (فارسی پیچی، گرگوش، کونار...). In Persian corpus, the most frequently-used CMs are BIG BUSINESS IS ANIMAL, CONTROL IS ANIMAL, and DEALING WITH
PROBLEMS IS ANIMAL, and in English corpus, they are ECONOMY DEVELOPMENT IS ANIMAL, POLITICAL PARTY IS ANIMAL, and MONITORING HEALTH-RELATED POLICIES IS ANIMAL.

CONTROL IS ANIMAL

The use of bridle metaphor in Persian newspapers implies that Americans have the power and ability to control ISIS in accordance with their desires so that they could achieve their goals in the region.

The Americans, who saw ISIS as the ultimate victor in the field, did not need to restrain them and did not help Kurdistan. ECONOMY DEVELOPMENT IS ANIMAL

The metaphor paralyze implies that the measures taken by authorities are so severe or irrational that the political system will not be able to function normally.

Washington may block the appointment of new judges next year, a move that would paralyze the system and undermine the WTO … (Express Mail, 2018, 3, 19)

4.10 Food and Cooking

The CMs of food in Persian newspapers outnumber the ones in English newspapers. There are 19 subtypes of the source domain of food in the English newspapers (appetite, bitter, boil, bread, brew, carrot …) and 22 subtypes in Persian ones (آمیتی تغییر، تغییر تغییر، …). In Persian corpus, the highest numbers of CMs are SHOPPING POWER IS FOOD, FACT IDENTIFICATION IS FOOD, and PROVIDING FINANCE IS FOOD. The table (sofreh) refers to the peoples’ economic power or their ability to afford their expenses, which may directly be related to the wrong economic policies that threaten people's welfare. There are 34 subtypes of the source domain of food in the English newspapers. For example, the lexical metaphors in English newspapers include acute, ailing, antidote, blind, chronic … and the examples in Persian newspapers are: ذبًْازٍ ذبًْازٍ کَ ػبهل اصلی اًظجبم (keihan, 2017, 9, 13)

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According to the Central Bank’s report, increasing expenses shrink households’ tables.

ACHIEVING RESULTS IS FOOD

We use the fruit metaphor when we achieve the goals of political actions that have involved a great deal of effort.

Griveaux says Macron’s team has learned from these historic mistakes, getting on with the job immediately while the president is strong, his enemies weak and his term of office long enough to see the reforms bear fruit. (Telegraph, 2017, 9 16)
The target audience of newspapers is not just a specific group of people. Journalists, therefore, need to be attentive to all their audiences’ needs so that they can succeed in conveying their intended concepts. One of the better ways to convey the concepts efficiently is the use of CMs. Newspapers give their readers a clear picture by means of conceptual metaphors and convey the content to the reader as they want.

As it was evident from the result section, there is a significant difference between English and Persian newspapers in the use of CMs in three areas namely, politics, economics, and health studies. The frequent use of metaphors in economics and politics is in line with the findings of Biria1 and Nkel, 2002; Ox (1994) and can easily use war metaphors, journey & transportation, or animals to achieve their goals. As per the fact is that English speakers discuss the topic directly and they can easily use war metaphors, journey & transportation, or animals to achieve their intended goal. English writers reflect the spirit of critical thinking that is based on individualistic and adversarial practices (Atkinson (1997); Fox (1994)). Birial and Yakhbi (2013) assert that English professional writers in their argumentative texts show the technique of refutation and adversary because they believe that “the writer of an argumentative must not only explain and support his proposition but also anticipate and overcome objections that the opposition might raise.” (p. 8)

However, Persian speakers try to deal with the subject indirectly. On the same basis, Sharifi et al. (2012) state that in general the Persian speakers and in particular the politicians tend to have indirect speech and the language is presented in a layered conceptualization because it gives the politicians an opportunity to change their goals and views according to different situations. Researchers (Becker, 1986; Hinkel, 2002; Kaplan, 1966; Matalene, 1985) believe that Asian writers follow the rhetoric based on collectivism culture in which the achieving general harmony, social cohesion and avoiding any contentious forms of argument is of utmost importance. Accordingly, Persian writers usually tend to criticize less and to more conservative so that they could maintain their politeness, social cohesion, and general harmony.

With regard to the abundance of other source domains in Persian newspapers compared to English newspapers, one can refer to the writing styles of each group. Ahmad Khan Beigi and Ahmadi (2011) in their study about the similarities and differences in English and Persian argumentative texts found that while rhetorical features used by English speakers in their essay are linearity and explicitness, Persian speakers’ dominant rhetorical features are circularity and a higher degree of metaphoricity. Accordingly, Persian language like other elaborative languages, Arabic (Ostler, 1987) and Chinese texts (Matalene, 1985) use frequent metaphors, idioms, set phrases, or proverbs in their writings. English journalists adopt the succinct style in which they attempt to express what is exactly necessary.

The results show that in Persian newspapers most of the conceptual metaphors are derived from the source domain of the body and its related activities, while in English the body is in third place after the source domains of journey and war. The fact is that out of all the tangible source domains that exist in the outside world, the body source domain is more prominent than...
any other in producing conceptual metaphors. The reason is that the human body is more concrete and tangible than other source domains, and it is what humans are in constant contact with. In other words, humans see their organs closer to themselves because that is the first thing they get to know. In English newspapers, journey metaphors are the most frequent, indicating that English newspapers are focused on emphasizing the process of getting things done.

In cross-linguistic comparison, the process of using conceptual metaphors is such that there are many commonalities in the use of conceptual metaphors, for example in the health domain in both languages using the journey source domain try to highlight illnesses, their treatment, and healthy diet. Or both languages have attempted to refer to economic developments, recession, inflation and constant change in the field of economics by using the source domain of war. The findings of this study are consistent with the principle of metaphor universality introduced by Lakoff and Johnson (1980), who point out that some metaphors are universal regardless of the time and place they occur. It is one of the most underlying presuppositions of the metaphorical view that the universality of the metaphor is related to the claim that the human experience is universal. In summary, given the similarities and differences in the use of metaphor in this study, we find that most of the conceptual metaphors that structure health, medical, and economics sections are the same in English and Persian. Thus, it can be noted that the cultural differences of both languages are more likely to be highlighted in linguistic metaphors, which reflect different perspectives on phenomena, but in conceptual metaphors in both languages, linguistic metaphors are usually used to describe and clarify the specific target domains. This is line with the findings of Safarnejad et al. (2014) who consider the root of difference in metaphorical expressions in specific different cultural patterns in English and Persian. Therefore, this claim is in line with the statements of contemporary cognitive linguists who state that mental conceptualization is related both to the physical experiences found in all languages and to the “local culture” that is specific to a particular language. (Kövecses, 2010, p. 204).

6. Conclusion
This study adopts the contemporary theory of metaphor to investigate the use of conceptual metaphor in English and Persian newspapers in three areas of economics, politics, and health study. Ten types of source domains that are concrete and tangible from the real world are investigated for their related metaphorical mappings. Three source domains of journey, war, and animals are widely used in English newspapers, pointing to the fact that English-speakers speak in a direct way and care about the processes and methods of implementation of the phenomena. In general, this article is in line with Lakoff and Johnson’s (1980) claim that the use of metaphor is consistent with the universal structure of human mental conceptualization. In both languages, for example, source domains are generally used to highlight the target domains of economic growth, economic transactions, economic recession, and economic crises in the field of economics, or in the field of politics, they are used to describe the target domains of political relationship, performance of political organization, and the ways political policies are implemented. In the field of health sciences, most source domains are used to bring to focus some aspects of target domains like the function of body organs, healthy lifestyle, illnesses, and their treatments. The results of the study show that not all source domains necessarily refer to target domains with the specialized conceptualization related to the field in which they occur; they may refer to general issues such as influence, intention, viewpoint, etc. The results of this study can inform the students about the linguistic metaphors and also the conceptual metaphors of each language to get the clear picture of what is intended by speakers of related language.

References
A Comparative Study of Conceptual Metaphors in ….

Farahman Farrokhi, Ali Akbar Ansarin & Somaye Ashrafi


