

Patterns of Translation of Metaphor in  
Annual Reports in American English and  
Mexican Spanish

By

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## Abstract

The main aim of this study is to identify patterns of translation between American English and Mexican Spanish of metaphors in the specialist language of economics, more specifically in the LSP of annual reports, using a bidirectional American English  $\Leftrightarrow$  Mexican Spanish parallel electronic corpus compiled specifically for the purpose. The chosen framework is Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) since it brings a new perspective: the study of metaphor in translation is no longer simply a matter of finding linguistic correspondences between two different languages, but of finding correspondences between two conceptual systems corresponding to two different cultures.

Annual reports are one of the most frequent means of communication between companies and between companies and their shareholders, investors and financial authorities leading to a growing demand for their translation. Nevertheless, little or no attention has been paid to the study of annual reports from a translation perspective.

Starting from the identification of linguistic metaphors and their underlying conceptual metaphors in the chosen source texts (US English; MX Spanish), the study sets out to explore how the linguistic metaphors identified are translated in the target texts (MX Spanish; US English) and whether the translations of the linguistic metaphors from the source texts (ST) are also instantiations of same conceptual metaphor as in the STs. Other possibilities include instantiations of a different conceptual metaphor, or the neutralisation of the metaphor.

The method used to process the Bidirectional US English  $\Leftrightarrow$  MX Spanish Parallel Corpus (BESPC) is based on the Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP) proposed by the Pragglejaz Group (2007), which has been extended for the purposes of this study to accommodate semi-automatic procedures for the identification of linguistic metaphors in running text and to infer conceptual metaphors.

The study reveals three patterns of metaphor translation, one anticipated and two new patterns. With regard to the conceptual analysis, no cultural differences are identified in the transfer of conceptual metaphors. The analysis also demonstrates that the extended MIP can be used to identify metonymy-motivated conceptual metaphors despite the fact that the procedure was not designed for that purpose.

The first and foremost contribution of this study is that two new patterns of translation of metaphors have been identified. Another important contribution is that the extended MIP allows the semi-automatic identification of linguistic metaphors in a large data resource as well as the inference of the underlying conceptual metaphors in a systematic way. A ready-to-use bidirectional parallel specialised corpus of US English and MX Spanish is also a valuable output of this work for studying other issues in Translation Studies.

*A mi mamá quien es mi mejor amiga y una sobreviviente*

## **Acknowledgements**

Forceville (1996) started his acknowledgments by saying ‘a metaphor is the result of the interaction between two different domains; completing a book on metaphor is the result of the interaction with numerous people.’ This is indeed true for this thesis.

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# Abbreviations and Conventions

## Abbreviations

CMT	= Conceptual Metaphor Theory
CM	= Conceptual Metaphor
LM	= Linguistic Metaphor
MIP	= Metaphor Identification Procedure
TT	= Target Text
ST	= Source Text
TL	= Target Language
SL	= Source Language
US	= American English
MX	= Mexican Spanish
BESPC	= Bidirectional American English ↔ Mexican Spanish Parallel Corpus

## Conventions

Throughout the present thesis, the following typographic conventions have been adopted:

Convention	Purpose
SMALL CAPITALS	= Conceptual metaphors, e.g. TIME IS MONEY; or concepts, e.g. JOURNEY
‘Single inverted commas’	= Quotations and Linguistic metaphors in English
<i>Italics</i>	= Linguistic metaphors in Spanish
[Square brackets]	= Gloss

# Chapter 1

## Introduction

*Understanding how metaphor is used may help us understand better how people think, how they make sense of the world and each other, and how they communicate.*

(Cameron 2003, p. 2)

Economic language is ‘heavily metaphorical,’ according to McCloskey (1983, p. 502). Nevertheless, metaphor research has focused mainly on literary language for a large part of its history. One of the reasons why we should be interested in investigating metaphors in economic language is because this special language<sup>1</sup> is used by companies to communicate with other companies, governments, investors, and so on. One of the means of communication frequently used by companies is annual reports. Annual reports tend to reflect corporate identity, which is in turn based on the cultural and socio-economic system. In addition, the cultural and socio-economic systems also influence the economic language since the latter stems from the language of the culture. To communicate with companies from other cultures that speak a different language in a business setting, other companies need to translate their documentation, including their annual reports, particularly, if they want to be legally registered in another country. For instance, in the United States, the Security and Exchange Commission (2007) (SEC) determines that ‘the annual report on Form 10-K or 10-KSB is required to be filed on [the Electronic Data Gathering, Analysis, and Retrieval System]’ (EDGAR)<sup>2</sup>. In the case of foreign companies, the SEC rules that they need to file the Form 6-K where ‘a full English translation’

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<sup>1</sup>According to Cabré (1999, p. 77), special languages are ‘the subsets of language that are pragmatically characterized by three variables: subject field, type of user, and type of situation in which communication takes place.’

<sup>2</sup>See SEC website <http://www.sec.gov/edgar/searchedgar/aboutedgar.htm>

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of annual reports is required<sup>3</sup>. While the Ley de Sociedades Mercantiles (Mexican Trading Company Act, *my translation*) stipulates that any company should submit their corporate and financial information, including annual reports, if they want to be listed on the Bolsa Mexicana de Valores (BMV, Mexican Stock Exchange, *my translation*), it does not specify the language in which the annual reports should be presented. Nevertheless, it seems that the corporate and financial information is conventionally provided in Spanish by foreign companies.

The importance of having annual reports translated not only serves the requirements of the SEC, the BMV or other authorities, but also helps the company to transmit a corporate identity in that annual reports appear to play a key role in decision-making with respect to investment as well as assessing companies' credit-worthiness and liquidity (Lee 2001). Consequently, the demand for translating annual reports has grown considerably. Despite this increasing demand, little attention has been paid to the study of annual reports from a translation perspective.

Translation in the Americas, Basnett in the forward to Gentzler (2008) affirms, tends 'to be disregarded by scholars in the English and Spanish speaking countries' (Gentzler 2008, p. x). The present study focuses on American English and Mexican Spanish, two language varieties that, to my knowledge, have been ignored by scholars in Translation Studies but that have a very influential role in the business world. American English is considered the language of international business and many foreign companies want to register in the SEC. Whilst the Mexican economy is not as powerful as the American one, it has been recognised as one of the emerging economies in the world<sup>4</sup>. In addition, the Mexican Spanish is the most widely spoken variety of Spanish<sup>5</sup> and one in which international trade appears to be conducted (e.g. North American Free Trade Agreement, Mexico-European Union Free Trade Agreement and Mexico-European Free Trade Association FTA)

The analysis reported in this work investigates metaphor in economic texts, the language of which is metaphorical to a large extent. This study aims to find out more about how metaphor is used in economic texts, particularly annual reports owing to their importance in the financial community, and how metaphor is transferred from a source language text to a target language text.

Metaphor itself was already recognised as a translation issue in the 1970s. Dagut (1976) gives an account of how little had been done in translation until that time. Subsequently, Broeck (1981), Newmark (1981, 1988) and Snell-Hornby (1988) express regret about the lack of inter-

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<sup>3</sup>See <http://www.sec.gov/about/forms/form6-k.pdf>

<sup>4</sup>MacBeath (2007) places Mexico among one of the emerging economies along with Brazil, Russia, India and China.

<sup>5</sup>According to Ethnologue: Languages of the World (2005) approximately 86,211,000 people speak Mexican Spanish.

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est in metaphors in translation. What is more, the limited research that has been carried out on the translation of metaphor is grounded in the idea that metaphor is mainly an ornamental and semantically-deviant linguistic expression. As a consequence, the focus has been on the use of individual metaphors in literary or journalistic texts rather than on the translation of metaphor in economic texts, despite the fact that economic texts have a clear functional use in their community. Chapter 2 expands on this view of metaphor and also on some of the main concerns that translation scholars have expressed regarding metaphor.

In the 1980s in the field of cognitive linguistics, metaphor began to be seen in a different light. In this new light, metaphor is defined as a cognitive phenomenon that helps to structure our knowledge and experiences (Lakoff and Johnson 1980b). In this line of thinking, conceptual metaphors are embodied in the language as metaphorical linguistic expressions. This distinction implies that metaphorical linguistic expressions are not isolated linguistic phenomena, as they had previously been considered by translation scholars; instead, they are realisations of conceptual metaphors which are in a coherence relationship. For instance, a conceptual metaphor is LOVE IS A JOURNEY instantiated by the linguistic metaphor 'I don't think this relationship is *going anywhere*' (Lakoff and Johnson 1980b, p. 44-45; no emphasis added). A special language, which stems from a general language, is not exempt from embodying conceptual metaphors. This perspective on metaphor is currently known as Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT). Gradually, this theory is taking root in Translation Studies. For instance, Mandelblit (1995) and Schäffner (2004) have suggested that by incorporating CMT into translation, the issue of translating metaphor is no longer about finding correspondences between two linguistic systems, but to find correspondences between two conceptual systems corresponding to two different cultures. What CMT is, how CMT can contribute to the study of metaphor from a translation perspective, and what the possible combinations or patterns of translation of conceptual metaphors are between two languages are also discussed in Chapter 2.

Investigating conceptual metaphors in real data, i.e. in running text, specifically in annual reports, presents two major methodological issues. On the one hand, it is necessary to have a collection of electronic texts (a corpus) that allows us to identify conceptual metaphors instantiated by 'real' linguistic metaphors as opposed to linguistic metaphors that seem to have been artificially created, or studied out of context. For instance, earlier works based on CMT, such as Hiraga (1991), Kövecses (2002), Mandelblit (1995) explore conceptual metaphors proposed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980b), whose work has been much criticised since their examples of the existence of conceptual metaphors seem out of context or purposely created. On the other, a specific method of metaphor identification is required.

The use of corpora has been advocated not only by linguists, but also by scholars in Translation Studies since corpora help to test theoretical claims (see, for example, Stefanowitsch 2006a, p.



9; Halverson 1998, p. 1). However, the nature of the study influences the type of corpus to be used. Johansson (2003) offers a typology of corpora to show which type of corpus is suitable for doing research in Translation Studies and/or in Contrastive Linguistics <sup>6</sup> (see Table 1.1).

Table 1.1: Which type of corpus for which type of study after Johansson (2003, p. 38)

	<b>Contrastive Studies</b>	<b>Translation Studies</b>
Multilingual corpora (original texts + their translation)	✓	✓
Multilingual corpora of original texts (matched by genre, time of composition, etc.)	✓	
Monolingual corpora (original texts + translated texts)		✓

For a translation study, it would be, thus, appropriate to have a ‘monolingual corpus’ or a ‘multilingual corpus’ as indicated by Johansson. The term ‘multilingual’ used by Johansson (2003) is rather confusing. In fact, later on, Johansson (2007, p. 9) defines multilingual corpus as ‘a collection of texts in two or more languages put together in a principled way for the purpose of comparative linguistic studies and prepared in electronic form for search and analysis by computer.’ He goes on to say that a multilingual corpus can be either a ‘translation corpora’ or a ‘comparable corpora.’ Whilst the former includes original texts and their translations, the latter contain ‘original texts in two or more languages matched by criteria such as genre, time of publication, etc.’ (Johansson 2007, p. 9). The combination of a translation corpus and a comparable corpus results in a bidirectional parallel corpus. Johansson *et al.* (1999/2002) affirm that both Translation Studies and studies in Contrastive Linguistics can benefit from using a bidirectional parallel corpus. A very well-known bidirectional parallel corpus is the English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus (ENPC) created by Johansson, Ebeling and Oksefjell (1999/2002) and held at the University of Oslo (see Figure 1.1).

With regard to Translation Studies, Johansson, Ebeling and Oksefjell (1999/2002) affirm that this type of corpus allows i) translation problems in either language to be observed, ii) the identification of shifts in the translation that are not triggered by the grammatical structure of the target language (TL), and iii) the identification of paradigms of correspondence between the source text and the target text (Johansson 2007, p. 9) (see the solid horizontal lines in Figure 1.1). The vertical lines in Figure 1.1 illustrate the fact that differences between translated texts in, for instance, Norwegian, and source texts in Norwegian can be brought to light. According to Kenny (2001), these differences help to determine whether a pattern identified in

<sup>6</sup>By contrastive linguistics, Johansson (2003, p. 32) means a ‘a systematic comparison of two or more languages, with the aim of describing their similarities and differences.’

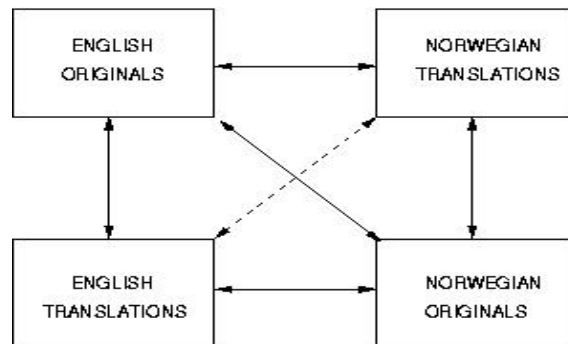


Figure 1.1: The structure of the English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus (Johansson 2003, p.39)

a TT is a particular characteristic of translated texts or of original texts in the TL. Johansson *et al.* (1999/2002) also maintain that general features of translated texts can be explored. This type of comparison is illustrated by a broken diagonal line in the same figure. (Johansson 2007, p. 10) indicates that the solid diagonal line can help to draw ‘conclusions on similarities and differences between the languages compared.’

Using a finance-specialised bidirectional parallel corpus seems to be suitable to meet the aims of this study and, in particular to investigate:

- How the linguistic metaphors identified in the chosen source texts are translated in the target texts,
- Whether the translations of the linguistic metaphors from the source texts (ST) are also instantiations of same conceptual metaphor as in the STs,
- Whether the translations of the linguistic metaphors from the source texts are instantiations of a different conceptual metaphor, or the neutralisation of the conceptual metaphor, and
- Whether the translations of the linguistic metaphors from the source texts are peculiar to the *translated* financial texts or whether they are conventional in *original writing* in the financial language.

To the best of my knowledge, there is no extant corpus which includes American English annual reports and their translations to Mexican Spanish and vice versa. Chapter 3 deals with issues of

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compiling such a bidirectional parallel specialised corpus and what tools are necessary to meet that purpose, and also to analyse the compiled corpus.

The second, but possibly more complex methodological problem, i.e. more complex than the compilation of a suitable corpus is, as Stefanowitsch (2006a) points out, ‘identifying and extracting the relevant data from the corpus’ (p. 1). More specifically, a methodology must be found that allows us to identify linguistic metaphors and infer the underlying conceptual metaphor. A majority of CMT-based studies has as a starting point specific conceptual metaphors previously proposed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980b). Linguistic metaphors that instantiate the chosen conceptual metaphors are then investigated. This approach is known as top to bottom since it starts from the presumption of the existence of the chosen conceptual metaphor. The approach of the present study is bottom-up, that is to say, no conceptual metaphor is presumed. The aim is first to identify linguistic metaphors in the corpus and then infer the underlying conceptual metaphors because translators approach the meaning of a text first through the language. Thus, the challenge is to find or develop a methodology that allows us to identify systematically and semi-automatically<sup>7</sup> linguistic metaphors in a corpus and, in turn, to infer the conceptual metaphors as systematically as possible. These issues will be followed up in detail in Chapter 4.

Chapter 5 describes the analysis of the US English-Mexican Spanish sub-corpus by applying the methodology proposed in Chapter 4. Similarly, Chapter 6 sets out the analysis of the Mexican Spanish-US English sub-corpus. Chapter 7 focuses on the patterns of translation of conceptual metaphors found as a result of the analysis of both subcorpora. In addition, some issues regarding the applicability of the proposed methodology as well as the relationship of conceptual metaphor and conceptual metonymy will be discussed in Chapter 7. The conventionality of linguistic metaphors and their frequency in the Bidirectional US English ⇔ MX Spanish Parallel Corpus is also addressed in this chapter. Finally, Chapter 8 revisits the aims of this study and assesses to what extent these aims were achieved. Additionally, possible avenues of research using the Bidirectional Parallel English⇔Spanish Corpus, with permission, in conjunction with or independently of the work presented in this thesis.

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<sup>7</sup>To ensure that a sufficiently large corpus can be processed

## Chapter 2

# Foundations of a Translation Study on Conceptual Metaphor

*While metaphor is almost certainly a feature of all natural languages, and some conceptual metaphors are common across several cultures and languages, not all linguistic or conceptual metaphors will be shared by any two languages.*

(Deignan *et al.* 1997, p. 353)

This Chapter lays the foundations of a translation study on metaphors. Before exploring the early studies of metaphor in translation, the work of Richards (1936) will be discussed owing to his influential role not only in metaphor research in the field of translation, but also in the field of Cognitive Linguistics, specifically in Conceptual Metaphor Theory. This is followed by a discussion of what Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) involves, on which this study mainly is built, and of what the contributions of CMT are to the analysis of metaphors in the field of Translation Studies. The last part of this Chapter is dedicated to describing some previous studies on patterns of translation of metaphor based on CMT.

### 2.1 I.A. Richards

Richards (1936), an early semanticist, states that the Aristotelian view of metaphor has prevented the study of metaphor ‘from taking the place it deserves among our [rhetorical] studies and from advancing’ (1936, p. 89). Aristotle claims that ‘the greatest thing by far is to have a command of metaphor’ and that ‘it is the mark of genius, for to make good metaphors implies an eye for resemblances’ (quoted by Richards 1936, p. 89). Richards rejects the idea

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that only gifted people are able to establish resemblances or to have ‘the eye for resemblances’ because ‘we all live, and speak, only through our eye for resemblances’ (Richards 1936, p. 89). Contrary to Aristotle, Richards argues that metaphor is not ‘something special and exceptional in the use of language’ (1936, p. 90) and that it should not be treated just as a stylistic resource for writers. In other words, he suggests that metaphor is neither just an ornamental device nor exclusive to literary language.

According to Richards, the traditional theory of rhetoric only perceives metaphor as a matter of language, but he considers that ‘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’ (1936, p. 93). He deems that ‘*thought* is metaphoric, and proceeds by comparison, and the metaphors of language derive therefrom’ (Richards 1936, p. 94; emphasis in the original). This idea is later taken a step further by Lakoff and Johnson (1980b) who establish that ‘most of our normal conceptual system is metaphorically structured’ (1980b, p. 56). However, Richards’ idea of thought as metaphoric seems not to have had resonance for subsequent translation studies of metaphor since Dagut (1976), Broeck (1981) and Newmark (1981, 1988) do not consider it in their discussion of metaphor.

Richards proposes that metaphor is composed of a ‘tenor’ and a ‘vehicle.’ The tenor refers to ‘the underlying idea or principal subject which the vehicle or figure means’ (1936, p. 97), while the term ‘metaphor’ describes ‘the whole double unit’ (1936, p. 96). (Some examples are discussed below.) Richards also mentions that the tenor and the vehicle have common characteristics and he refers to these as ‘the ground of the metaphor’ (1936, p. 97). However, Richards does not seem to consider this ‘ground’ as a third element of a metaphor and he only mentions it in his discussion about the not-always clear relationship between the tenor and the vehicle as in the metaphor ‘leg of a table’ (Richards 1936, p. 117). Richards explains that in the case of ‘the leg of a horse,’ the word ‘leg’ is used literally, while in ‘the leg of a table’ it is used metaphorically, but the common ground is that the ‘leg’ in both cases serves to support. In this case, Richards does not specify what he considers as the tenor and the vehicle of this metaphor; however, this example leads him to state that ‘a word may be simultaneously both literal and metaphoric’ (1936, p. 118) and it also show us that whether a word is metaphorical or literal depends on the co-text.

Richards considers that ‘the metaphors of language derive [from comparison]’ (1936, p. 94), but that comparison is not purely a process of finding likenesses or calling attention to a certain aspect of the tenor through the vehicle. For him, a comparison between the tenor and the vehicle is ‘a study of them both to see how they are like and how unlike one another’ (1936, p.120). To illustrate this, Richards analyses the following poem (1936, p. 121):

O could I flow like thee, and make thy stream  
 My great exemplar as it is my theme!  
 Though deep, yet clear; though gentle yet not dull;  
 Strong without range; without o'erflowing, full. (Denham<sup>1</sup>)

Richards considers that in this poem, the tenor is the flow of the poet's mind and the vehicle a river. Accordingly, the expression 'though deep, yet clear' describes literally the vehicle – the 'river' –, but also describes the tenor in a metaphorical or derivative way. Richards says that there are no resemblances between the vehicle 'river' and the tenor 'mind' but that the river is used for 'saying about the mind something which could not be said about the river' (1936, p. 122). According to his analysis, 'deep' implies 'not easily crossed, dangerous, navigable, and suitable for swimming' for the 'river', while for the 'mind', 'mysterious, a lot going on, rich in knowledge and power, not easily accounted for, acting from serious and important reasons' (1936, p. 122). We assume that for Richards river would not be described as mysterious or rich in knowledge, characteristics that can be attributed to the mind; but even so, river is used for describing the mind. His explanation fails to clarify why the vehicle 'river' having no similarities with the tenor 'mind' can be still used to describe the tenor. We will see that CMT will argue what links these concepts is neither their resemblances nor their differences but the fact that generally an abstract entity is better understood in terms of something concrete.

Richards' attempt to systematise the study of metaphor using the terms 'tenor' and 'vehicle' is nevertheless worthwhile; in fact, subsequent scholars, such as Broeck (1981), Cameron (2003), Dagut (1976), have used 'tenor' and 'vehicle' in their own arguments regarding metaphors. Moreover, Richards' view makes a breakthrough in the long-prevailing view that metaphor is a purely ornamental device and the result of a brilliant mind. Richards also discusses the difficulty of differentiating when a word is used metaphorically or literally and puts forward the idea that metaphor is the result of a cognitive process. Nevertheless, his idea that the tenor and the vehicle are linked to each other through their similarities or dissimilarities is arguable. In addition, Richards sometimes seems to use the term 'vehicle' to refer to a linguistic expression and on other occasions to a concept.

As has been said, the influence of Richards' work can be seen in earlier studies of metaphor in translation. These studies will be discussed in the following section.

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<sup>1</sup>Richards does not offer a full reference, however he mentions his example is Denham' lines about the Thames. We assume that Richards refers to Cooper's Hill written by Sir John Denham in 1642.

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## 2.2 Translation studies on metaphor

The present section will focus on exploring the work of three translation scholars that have been highly influential in the study of metaphors from a translation perspective: Dagut (1976), Broeck (1981) and Newmark (1981, 1988)

### 2.2.1 M.B. Dagut

Contrary to Richards, Dagut (1976) does not challenge Aristotle's definition of metaphor; however, he deems it necessary to specify to what stretch of language the term 'metaphor' should be applied since, he argues, a metaphor cannot be confused with polysemous words or idioms. Thus, Dagut defines metaphor as follows:

An individual flash of imaginative insight, whether in the known creative writer or in the anonymous creative speaker [...] which transcends the existing semantic limits of the language and thereby enlarges the hearers' or readers' emotional and intellectual awareness (Dagut 1976, p. 22).

Since originality is the basis of his definition, Dagut rejects the existence of 'dead metaphor' and 'original metaphor'. This originality also prevents metaphor from being found in a dictionary, according to Dagut (1976, p. 23), who also claims that 'linguistically speaking [...] metaphor is a matter of performance' and not a matter of competence. In other words, metaphor is a phenomenon related to the language in use, but not to the language as a system, something that CMT argues against, as we shall see in section 2.3.

For these reasons and because of his interest in disassociating metaphor from polysemous words and idioms, Dagut (1976, p. 23) suggests and defines three categories of metaphors:

- a) Those that 'prove to be ephemeral and disappear without trace: such are the forgotten metaphors of literature and journalism, and those of extempore oral invention';
- b) Those that are 'unique semantic creations. Such are, for example, the embalmed metaphors of literature'; and
- c) 'Those that are taken up and used (as distinct from quoted) by an ever-increasing number of other speakers, so that they gradually lose their uniqueness and peculiarity, becoming part of the established semantic stock of the language and being recorded as such in the dictionary'.

Dagut considers that metaphors belonging to the third category undergo a shift from performance to competence (1976, p. 23). A subsequent result of this shift is i) a polysemous word, i.e. a 'polyseme' if its origin is a single-word metaphor or ii) idioms if the metaphor that originates the idiom is an expression. To illustrate polysemous words originated by metaphors, Dagut takes 'run' in the expression 'run a business' or 'ties' in 'emotional ties'. According to Dagut, the expressions 'see red' or 'a wild goose chase' are examples of idioms triggered by metaphors. Dagut goes on to say that 'polyseme and idiom are thus seen to stand in a derivative relation to metaphor as effect to cause; but they differ significantly from metaphor in their semantic regularity as against its semantic anomaly' Dagut (1976, p. 23). In other words, Dagut considers that metaphor is a semantic deviation which, when it becomes part of the stock of the language, cannot be considered as a metaphor anymore; or, the other way around, a polysemous word or idiom should not be considered a metaphor, even though they are a by-product of a metaphor.

Dagut's efforts to differentiate metaphor from polyseme and idiom respond to his consideration that the translation of these linguistic elements 'depends essentially on the bilingual competence of the translator' (Dagut 1976, p. 24) because, he goes on to argue, it is a matter of finding the equivalent of the polyseme or idiom in the target language. By contrast, he claims that '[metaphor] can clearly have no existing "equivalence" in TL [target language]' (1976, p. 24) because of its *semantic novelty*. Using Richards' terminology, Dagut sets forth what he conceives to be problematic in the translation of metaphor: whether both 'vehicle and tenor can be translated or only the tenor' (Dagut 1976, p. 24). In addition, Dagut (1976, p. 26) thinks that metaphor represents a translation problem because of its lack of universality and the fact that it cannot be translated word by word. He analyses various passages of a Hebrew novel and their translations into English, concluding that:

the translatability of any given SL [source language] metaphor depends on (1) the particular cultural experiences and semantic associations exploited by it, and (2) the extent to which these can, or cannot, be reproduced non-anomalously in TL [target language], depending on the degree of "overlap" in each particular case (Dagut 1976, p. 32).

In other words, if the cultural experiences and the semantic associations in both source and target languages are common, it is very likely that a metaphor can be reproduced in the target language; however if the cultural experiences are not shared by the speakers of the TL, it is less likely that a metaphor can be translated in a similar way. On the other hand, in his analysis, Dagut spots cases where a metaphor has been translated by what he has classified as a polyseme or an idiom and he expresses disapproval of such translation decisions.



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The importance of Dagut's work in translation studies is undeniable, because he highlights the relevant role of metaphor in translation drawing the attention of other scholars, such as Newmark, to metaphor. He also emphasises culture as a factor to bear in mind in translating metaphor and in using 'parallel' texts, i.e. a source text along with its translated version, to analyse metaphor he lays the foundations of a more systematic evidence-based approach. Although Dagut takes Richards' terms to formulate the question of translatability of metaphor, he holds on to the Aristotelian idea that metaphor is solely a product of a creative mind. Additionally, his definition of metaphor as original or unique by nature seems to be contradicted by his third class of metaphor, which 'are taken up and used (as distinct from quoted) by an ever-increasing number of other speakers, so that they gradually lose their uniqueness and peculiarity' (Dagut 1976, p. 23) and in doing so become part of the language. Whilst Dagut refers to the relationship of polysemy and metaphor, he puts a lot of effort into showing that they are different from each other, as Broeck rightly points out (1981, p. 75). Nevertheless, Dagut unintentionally shows that they have a close relationship when he states that a polyseme derives from a metaphor and therefore his rejection of translating metaphor by a polyseme or idiom as a possible way to transfer the metaphor seems unreasonable.

### 2.2.2 R. van den Broeck

Like Dagut, Broeck (1981) considers metaphor as 'a pivotal issue in translation' (1981, p. 74), and his aim is to establish particular laws of translatability for metaphor, but not to define metaphor. Consequently, he deems it necessary to specify categories, uses and functions of metaphor. Broeck, therefore, categorises metaphor according to its form as follows:

- i) *Lexicalized metaphors* 'have gradually lost their uniqueness and have become part of the established semantic (or "lexicon") stock of the language' (1981, p. 75). While Broeck agrees with Dagut's view of uniqueness of metaphor, he considers that 'the status of a metaphor is not static but a dynamic one' (1981, p. 75). Accordingly, Broeck (1981, p. 75) includes in this category: a) 'formators', such as 'in the face of', 'beforehand', 'everybody'; b) 'lexical items', e.g. 'to harbour' evil thoughts, 'hard' cash; and c) idioms, such as 'have a lark', 'lay heads together', and 'lay a finger on'.
- ii) *Conventional metaphors* 'are more or less "institutionalized" in that they are common to a literary school or generations' (1981, p. 75) To illustrate this type of metaphor, he gives 'rosy-fingered dawn' as a fixed metaphor of the early Greek poet; or 'pearly teeth, ruby lips, golden lads' as Elizabethan metaphors.

- iii) *Private metaphors* are the ‘the so-called “bold”, innovating creations of individual poets’ (1981, p. 75); that is to say, metaphors that are products of the creative mind of a writer.

Translating metaphor needs to take into account both the use of a metaphor and its function according to Broeck (1981). The use of a metaphor is, he goes on, related to the ‘effectiveness of metaphor in actual communication’ whereas its function is related to ‘the communicative purposes [a metaphor] serves’ (Broeck 1981, p. 76). For instance, he says that a ‘lexicalized metaphor’ can be ‘functionally relevant’ in one text, but not in another. Based on the function of metaphor, Broeck distinguishes two types of metaphor: ‘creative’ and ‘decorative’ metaphors. The main difference is that creative metaphors have ‘a deep necessary bond between the “tenor” and the “vehicle” (1981, p. 76) that decorative metaphors do not. He also claims that creative metaphors are typical of what he considers creative writing, e.g. poetry, whereas decorative metaphors are typical of fiction, essays, journalistic articles, etc. In addition, decorative metaphors are easily replaced by metaphorical or non-metaphorical expressions producing a parallel effect on the receiver. As an example of a decorative metaphor, Broeck (1981, p. 76) gives the following extract<sup>2</sup>(emphasis in the original):

- (2.1) The conservative party has a *bullyboy* too, only she’s a lady. She is Margaret Thatcher, 49, who this week shucks off her gloves and barrels into battle against. . .

For argument’s sake, let us imagine that the word ‘bullyboy’ in the above extract is replaced by ‘aggressive man,’ it is very likely that this expression will not have the same effect on the readership because ‘bullyboy’ does not only refer to someone generally of male gender who is aggressive, but also who uses his power against weaker people. Thus, when Broeck claims that decorative metaphor can be substituted without difficulty, he seems to ignore his own idea that a metaphor is functionally relevant. His division of creative writing versus non-creative writing is open to discussion since writing is always an activity that implies creativity; however, if this division is accepted, he does not give any reason why he considers that ‘fiction’ texts are not creative texts. His classification of creative versus decorative metaphors gives to metaphors an ornamental value when they occur in texts other than those he considers ‘creative.’ In addition, his criterion of a ‘necessary bond’ to differentiate creative metaphors from decorative ones is questionable because we assume that there is a need to use a vehicle in order to understand a tenor – in Richards’ terminology. For instance, Richards considers ‘bullyboy’ as a decorative metaphor, but it can be argued that there is a “necessary bond” between the vehicle ‘bullyboy’ and the tenor ‘Margaret Thatcher’ and, therefore, ‘bullyboy’ can also be considered as a ‘creative metaphor’.

<sup>2</sup>Broeck borrows this example from Dagut (1976) who, in turn, extracted it from the *Times* magazine.

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Broeck considers that ‘the theory of translation cannot be expected to specify how metaphors *should* be translated’ (1981, p. 77; emphasis in the original), therefore he suggests and defines the following ‘modes of metaphor translation,’ although no examples are given of any of these modes:

- 1) *Translation ‘sensu stricto’*. Both the tenor and the vehicle in the source language (SL) are transferred into the target language (TL). In the case of lexicalized metaphors, he explains, this mode of translation gives as a result:
  - a) The correspondence between the vehicles in the SL and TL results in an idiomatic metaphor in the TL; and
  - b) The outcome of a non correspondence between the vehicles in SL and TL is a TL metaphor that ‘may be either a semantic anomaly or a daring innovation.’
- 2) *Substitution*. The SL vehicle is replaced by a different one in the TL, but the tenor is more or less kept.
- 3) *Paraphrase*. A metaphor is rendered by a non-metaphorical expression in the target language.

On the other hand, Broeck considers that lexicalized, conventional and private metaphors pose different translation problems with respect to each other depending on the texts in which they occur, on the culture and the language as a system. In the case of private metaphor, translation is not just a matter of transferring both a semantic deviation and a linguistic violation into the TL from the SL, but also about observing the socio-cultural norms and aesthetic conventions, according to Broeck. To exemplify this, he takes the following stanza from the poem *For the Union Dead* by the American writer Robert Lowell, where the words ‘savage’, ‘servility’ and ‘grease’ appear, which he considers could have different associations in the culture of the TL from those they have in the culture of the SL:

- (2.2) The Aquarian is gone. Everywhere,  
giant finned cars nose forward like fish;  
a *savage servility* slides by on *grease*. (Emphasis added)

For Broeck, the problem of translating conventional metaphors lies in choosing the appropriate mode, i.e. the adequate procedure to translate metaphors, rather than in their translatability because most conventional metaphors are part of the ‘shared cultural inheritance of civilized

mankind' (1981, p. 81). He exemplifies that with the case of Catullus's *Gnidumque arundinosam* and its literal German translation *Cnidus, das schilfumflüsterte*. Contrary to Dagut, who thinks that polysemes, idioms and formators are not metaphors and that they do not pose any translation problem, Broeck considers them as lexicalized metaphors and the 'main challenge for the translation' (1981, p. 82) because the way in which lexicalized metaphors are treated depends on whether they are functionally relevant or not. Nevertheless, he only considers lexicalized metaphors as a major problem when they occur in creative texts, not when they are embedded in non-creative texts. Another problematic area that Broeck distinguishes is that some expressions can be taken literally or as a lexicalized metaphor. To illustrate this, Broeck (1981, p. 83) uses the expression 'for a lark' in Robert Creeley's poem *Chanson* as an example of when the literal and metaphorical meanings are 'activated':

- (2.3) *As when for a lark*  
 gaily, one hoists up a window  
 shut many years. (Emphasis added)

Broeck does not explain why he considers that 'for a lark' is being used literally and metaphorically simultaneously; however, what he may well mean is that 'for a lark' is a fixed expression that refers to a person who does something for fun, but in this case it can also be understood that someone opens a window to let go – or in – a lark.

Finally, Broeck (1981, p. 84) outlines his four laws, which can be summarized as follows: i) lexicalized metaphors are highly translatable when they appear in non-creative texts; ii) in poems, lexicalized metaphors are highly untranslatable; iii) private metaphors are more translatable than conventional metaphors since the former are less culture-bound; and iv) decorative metaphors do not represent a major problem in translation since they are not very relevant for the communicative function of the text. He also puts forward the idea that 'the translatability of metaphor can stand as a model for translatability with regard to different types of text' (1981, p. 84).

To sum up, Broeck categorises metaphor according to its form in private, conventional and lexicalized metaphors, including in the polyseme, idioms and formators, contrary to Dagut who does not consider polysemes, idioms and formators as metaphors. In addition, Broeck proposes modes of metaphor translation: translation *sensu stricto*, substitution and paraphrase. Their applicability does not depend on whether a metaphor is private, conventional or lexicalized, but on whether it appears in creative or non-creative text and the functional relevance of the metaphor. However, he does not specify how he arrives at these modes, that is to say, it remains uncertain if these modes are patterns of translation that he has identified or solutions

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that he recommends. He also brings our attention to the fact that culture is a potential source of conflict in translating metaphors of all types. In addition, Broeck emphasises the relevance of metaphors in the communicative function of creative texts. Nevertheless, he grants metaphor little importance in non-creative texts in contrast to CMT that considers metaphor has a relevant role in structuring our conceptual system and, consequently, in how we express our thoughts and experiences not only in creative texts, but also in specialised texts or any other discourse. In addition, his classification of text types based on creativeness seems rather simplistic. For instance, a fictional or journalistic text can also be regarded as a creative text, but for Broeck it is not. On the other hand, Broeck considers that metaphor is linked to different levels, e.g. prosodic, grammatical, semantic levels of the language, but he does not consider the relation of metaphors with other metaphors within the same text, as CMT later came to do.

### 2.2.3 P. Newmark

For some scholars, Newmark's work is 'the most practical and wide-ranging account in respect of translation analysis' (Dickins 2005, p. 236). Newmark defines metaphor as 'the figurative word used, which may be one-word, or "extended" over any stretch of language from a collocation to the whole text' (1988, p. 105). Metaphor, according to Newmark, is composed of 'image,' 'object,' and 'sense'. Image, i.e. the vehicle in Richards' terminology, is 'the picture conjured up by the metaphor, which may be *universal* (a "glassy" stare), *cultural* (a "beery" face), or *individual* (a "papery" cheek)' (Newmark 1988, p. 105; emphasis in the original). Object is 'what is described or qualified by the metaphor' (Newmark 1988, p. 105), that is to say, the 'tenor' in Richards' terminology. Newmark illustrates the object of a metaphor with the sentence 'P.J. was binding up his wounds,' where, according to his analysis, the object is *P.J.* implying that the metaphor is 'bind up his wounds.' Due to the lack of context, it is difficult to determine why Newmark considers it as metaphorical since it can be argued that the same expression is not used metaphorically. In other words, the sentence 'P.J. was binding up his wounds' can be understood as P.J. was physically hurt and he was putting on bandages. It can also be understood as P.J. was emotionally hurt and he was 'pulling himself together'. Sense, according to Newmark, is 'the literal meaning of the metaphor; the resemblance or the semantic area overlapping object and image; usually this consists of more than one sense component [...] e.g. "save up for a rainy day" – time of need, financial shortage, gloom, worry, etc.' (Newmark 1988, p. 105), or in Richards' words the 'common ground' between the vehicle and the tenor.

Newmark agrees with Dagut that metaphor implies cultural and personal experiences. In contrast to Dagut but like Broeck, Newmark affirms that metaphor can also be universal, nevertheless, adding that 'cultural metaphors are harder to translate than universal or personal

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metaphors' (Newmark 1988, p. 106). Like Dagut, Newmark considers that the relationship between image and object is based on resemblance, but contrary to Dagut, Newmark affirms that metaphor does not aim to show such resemblance, but rather has two purposes, a referential and a pragmatic purpose. The referential or cognitive purpose, as he also refers to it, of metaphor is 'to describe a mental process or state, a concept, an object, a quality or an action more comprehensively and concisely than is possible in literal or physical language' (Newmark 1988, p. 104). What he refers to as the pragmatic or aesthetic purpose is 'to appeal to the senses, to interest, to clarify "graphically", to please, to delight, to surprise' (Newmark 1988, p. 104).

Contrary to Dagut, who describes and identifies translation patterns of metaphor and also to Broeck, who claims that 'the theory of translation cannot be expected to specify how metaphors should be translated' (1981, p. 77), Newmark does indeed prescribe how metaphor should be translated. He implies that once a metaphor has been identified, the next step of the translating process is to identify what sort of metaphor the translator is dealing with in order to choose the appropriate translation procedure. With this in mind, Newmark proposes the typology below. Newmark's typology includes 'dead metaphors,' expressions that Dagut considers cannot be metaphor because 'those expressions' lack uniqueness, a feature that for Dagut is essential. Additionally, some of the examples provided by Newmark to illustrate his categories are polysemes or idioms, e.g. 'field' and 'keep the pot boiling'.

*Dead metaphors:* These are metaphors that have been used again and again and speakers are therefore hardly aware of the image evoked by the metaphor. As guidance, he says that they very often 'relate to universal terms of space and time, a part of the body, general ecological features, and the main human activities [...] such as: "space", "field", "line", "top", "bottom", "foot," [etc]' (Newmark 1988, p. 106).

*Cliché metaphors:* These are 'metaphors that have perhaps temporarily outlived their usefulness, that are used as a substitute for clear thought, often emotively, but without corresponding to the facts of the matter' (Newmark 1988, p. 107). In a previous work, Newmark offers typical structures of cliché metaphors along with some examples (Newmark 1981, p. 87):

- i) Figurative adjective + literal noun, e.g. 'filthy lucre'
- ii) Figurative verb + figurative noun, e.g. 'explore all avenues'

*Stock or standard metaphors:* These metaphors, as defined by Newmark, are established metaphors and are in his view an efficient and concise method of covering a physical and/or mental situation both referentially and pragmatically. He adds that a metaphor of this kind has a certain

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emotional warmth and is not deadened by overuse [...] e.g. *keep the pot boiling* and *wooden face* (Newmark 1988, p. 108).

*Adapted metaphors:* Newmark does not offer a definition for this type of metaphor, rather he cites former US President Reagan's statement: 'the ball is a little in their court'. From this example, he presumably considers an adapted metaphor as any metaphor with a modification. In this case, the metaphor that apparently serves as a basis is 'the ball is in their court.'

*Recent metaphors:* Newmark uses this term to refer to 'a metaphorical neologism, often "anonymously" coined, which has spread rapidly in the SL [source language] [...] e.g. 'in' or 'with it' for fashionable; 'skint' for 'without money'; and 'groovy' for 'good' (1988, p. 111).

*Original metaphors:* These are '[metaphors] created or quoted by the SL writer' (Newmark 1988, p. 112). He also considers that this type of metaphor 'contain[s] the core of an important writer's message, his personality, his comment on life, and though they may have a more or a less cultural element, these have to be transferred neat' (Newmark 1988, p. 112). He adds that original metaphor enriches the target language. As an example, Newmark gives the following sentence extracted from Wilfred Owen 'We wise who with a thought besmirch Blood over all our soul' along with its translation by Gunter Böhnke: '*Wir weisen, die mit einem Gedanken Blut besudeln unsere Seele.*' Newmark does not specify what the metaphor is within this sentence, therefore we assume that he considers the 'besmirch Blood' as a metaphor.

Compared to Dagut's and Broeck's classification of metaphor, Newmark's typology of metaphor seems to have a broader scope. In addition, Newmark's typology does not depend on the genre of the texts as it is a case of Broeck's conventional metaphors which are those that 'are common to a literary school or generation' (1981, p. 75; emphasis added); or Dagut's second category of metaphor-'the embalmed metaphors of literature' (1976, p. 23; emphasis added). Broeck's private metaphors are creations of individual poets while Newmark's original metaphors are creations of the SL writer regardless of the sort of texts the SL writer produces. Since Newmark's definition of metaphor is not ruled out by the uniqueness of metaphor as Dagut's, Newmark considers expressions that are part of the language system, for example 'bottom', 'foot', or 'explore all the avenues,' and speakers are not aware of their metaphoricality similarly to Broeck; however, Broeck classifies all these metaphorical expressions into a single category—lexicalised metaphors—whereas Newmark categorises them into dead, cliché and stock metaphors. In addition, Newmark includes adapted metaphors and recent metaphors in his typology. Furthermore, Newmark prescribes how a metaphor of a particular kind should be translated and, like Broeck, he links the procedures for translating a certain type of metaphor to the function of the text. Newmark clearly takes into account Bühler's functions of language (Newmark 1988, p. 39), i.e. expressive, informative or vocative (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: Newmark's typology of metaphor and his translating procedures

<i>Type of Metaphor</i>	<i>Translating Procedures</i>
Dead metaphor	To reproduce the same image, provided that the lexical items of the metaphor do not have technical meaning.
Cliché metaphor	To be retained in vocative texts, political speech or any authoritative text. Not to be retained in informative texts, however depending on the purpose of the translation, the sense of cliché metaphor should be retained; simile to sense or to a dead metaphor
Stock or standard metaphor	To reproduce the same image in the TL, only if the frequency and currency of both SL image and TL image are comparable. To replace the SL image with another established TL image, as long as it 'is equally frequent within the register.' (Newmark 1988, p. 109) To reduce it to sense or literal language. To retain the metaphor or to convert it into simile plus the sense. To be reduced to sense To be omitted
Adapted metaphor	To be translated by an equivalent adapted metaphor
Recent metaphor	Literal translation
Original metaphor	To translate it literally in case of authoritative and expressive texts or to reduce it to sense

Newmark's approach is far from being 'the most practical' contrary to what Dickins claims (2005, p. 256). For instance, the division between cliché and stock metaphors is not clear, e.g. as in the expression 'keep the pot boiling' – and as Newmark himself recognises 'cliché and stock metaphors overlap' (1988, p. 108). Dickins points out that 'a cliché metaphor seems rather like a stock metaphor which one happens to particularly dislike' (Dickins 2005, p. 238). Newmark argues that a stock metaphor fulfils both referential and pragmatic purposes in an informal context, which seems to imply that when a stock metaphor occurs in a formal context, one of the purposes is not fulfilled. Let us consider the following sentence, which contains the expression 'keep the pot boiling', extracted from the article untitled *Share Prices Continue Record Run* published in *The Times* in 1985:

(2.4) While the analysts battle it out with the investors, stocks such as Glaxo Holdings



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continue to *keep the pot boiling*. (Emphasis added)

Bearing in mind Newmark's arguments, the expression 'keep the pot boiling' cannot be considered a stock metaphor in this case because it appears in a formal context and, accordingly, one of the purposes is not fulfilled. If one of the purposes is not achieved, then the expression cannot be considered as a metaphor since, according to Newmark, 'the purpose of metaphor is basically twofold [...] referential [...] and pragmatic' (Newmark 1988, p. 104).

Regarding recent metaphors, the problem lies, as Samaniego Fernández (1996, p. 102) rightly points out, in the following: when does a recent metaphor become a stock or dead metaphor? For instance, Newmark illustrates in 1988 this class with the word 'groovy,' which now in 2010 no one would consider as a recent metaphor. The question is whether 22 years is a sufficient period of time to consider an expression as a 'stock metaphor.' Contrary to Dagut, who disapproves the translation of a metaphor by a polysemous word or an idiom, Newmark considers a more diversified range of potential ways of translating metaphors (see Table 2.1), notwithstanding the fact that he does not discuss the relation between polysemous words and metaphor. Newmark's procedures for translating metaphors depend mainly on what type of metaphor is being dealt with and, as has been pointed out, the identification of metaphor according to Newmark's typology is not easy, particularly when it happens to be a case of cliché, stock or dead metaphor, which makes it difficult to choose the appropriate procedure for translating such a metaphor. Another disadvantage of his model is that he takes each metaphor in isolation regardless of its contexts or its relationship with other metaphoric expressions.

#### 2.2.4 Summary

We have seen that metaphor has gradually been gaining relevance in translation research. Metaphor has moved away from being considered a mark of a genius to being recognised as a widespread phenomenon in language. Nevertheless, metaphors are often considered an ornamental device which should be translated mainly if they occur in literary texts. On the other hand, translation scholars have shown concerns about whether linguistic expressions that show a semantic "deviation," such as polysemous words, idioms and other lexical expressions, can be regarded as metaphors. That is to say, the concern is what linguistic expressions can be considered as metaphorical. Other concerns are whether and how metaphors can be translated and if so, whether culture, the function of a metaphor within the text, the function of the text where a metaphor appears and the purpose of the translation need to be taken into account in translation. In addition, we have seen that there is a tendency to look at metaphors and, moreover, translating metaphors on a case-by-case basis without considering not only the possibility of a

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network of metaphors embedded in the same texts but also the potential consequences of this network in translating metaphors, particularly from a cultural point of view. In addition, the use of the term ‘metaphor’ frequently provokes confusion because sometimes scholars seem to use it to refer to a particular linguistic expression and at other times to metaphor as a phenomenon.

## 2.3 Conceptual Metaphor Theory

As has been seen, Richards rejects the Aristotelian view of metaphor as a product of a brilliant mind; he considers that metaphor is the interaction of two thoughts. Like Richards, Lakoff and Johnson (1980b) certainly do not view metaphor as a decorative device in language: they consider metaphor to be a relation of two concepts that occurs in our minds. However, for Lakoff and Johnson (1980b), a particular string of words is not in itself a metaphor but rather a realization of a ‘conceptual metaphor’ which, in turn, is based on our experiences and feelings. Lakoff and Johnson (1980b) claim that ‘one way to find out [our conceptual system] is by looking at language. Since communication is based on the same conceptual system that we use in thinking and acting, language is an important source of evidence for what that system is like’ (1980b, p. 3). This laid the foundations of what later came to be known as Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT). Their main argument is that ‘our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature’ (1980b, p. 3). In other words, how we process experiences and feelings in our mind is metaphorical and our concepts are structured and defined by means of conceptual metaphors. ‘Metaphors as linguistic expressions are possible precisely because there are metaphors in a person’s conceptual system’ (1980b, p. 6). Lakoff and Johnson (1980b) make a distinction between what occurs in our mind – the metaphorical concept – and what occurs at the level of linguistic signs – the metaphorical linguistic expression. Thus, while conceptual metaphors refer to ‘understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain’ (Kövecses 2002, p. 4), metaphorical linguistic expressions are ‘words or other linguistic expressions that come from the language or terminology of the more concrete conceptual domain’ (Kövecses 2002, p. 4). In other words, linguistic metaphors are tied to metaphorical concepts. According to Lakoff and Johnson, LOVE IS A JOURNEY<sup>3</sup> is a conceptual metaphor realized by metaphorical expressions, such as ‘I don’t think this relationship is *going anywhere*’ or ‘We’ll just have to *go our separate ways*’ (Lakoff and Johnson 1980b, p. 44-45; emphasis in the original). Throughout the literature, Lakoff and Johnson’s original terms ‘metaphorical linguistic expression’ and ‘metaphorical concept’ has been modified by scholars; however, their meanings have remained.

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<sup>3</sup>Conventionally small caps are used to write a conceptual metaphor or a conceptual domain.

Thus, some scholars, such as Steen (1994) and Cameron (1999a) currently use ‘linguistic metaphor’ for ‘metaphorical linguistic expression’, and ‘conceptual metaphor’ for ‘metaphorical concept.’ As a result, Lakoff and Johnson’s model is currently known as Conceptual Metaphor Theory. In the present work, the term ‘linguistic metaphor’ will be favoured, since the use of ‘metaphorical linguistic expression’ seems to suggest that the linguistic metaphor always includes several lexical units but this is not the case.

Before going further into what CMT involves, we will review the components of a conceptual metaphor and a linguistic metaphor. According to Lakoff (1987), ‘each [conceptual] metaphor has a source domain, a target domain, and a source-to-target mapping’ (1987, p. 276). The source domain is also known as Vehicle domain and the target domain is also called Tenor or Topic domain. Since in Translation Studies the terms ‘source’ and ‘target’ are normally associated with the language in which a text is written and the language into which the text is translated, respectively, this study will use Vehicle domain and Topic domain instead of source domain and target domain. For instance, the Topic domain in the conceptual metaphor TIME IS MONEY is TIME and the Vehicle domain is MONEY. Kövecses (2002) adds that the Topic domain tends to be more abstract than the Vehicle domain. In addition, Cameron (2003, p. 11) points out that ‘a domain is not just a collection of concepts or entities, visualized as nodes that can be labeled nominally, but also relations between the entities’. As an example, the domain MONEY would include concepts such as *coins, notes*, etc. and relations such as *people invest, spend, earn or save money*. As for source-to-target mappings, they are correspondences of basic constituent elements between Target domain and Vehicle domain, according to Kövecses (2002). The mapping for TIME IS MONEY would be as follows:

TIME IS MONEY		
	Vehicle domain: MONEY	Topic domain: TIME
(2.5)	people spend money	⇒ people spend time
	people invest money	⇒ people invest time
	people earn money	⇒ people earn time
	people save money	⇒ people save time
	coins, notes	⇒ hours, minutes

The mappings between the Topic and Vehicle domains generate linguistic metaphors. Thus, for instance,

(2.6) You’re *wasting* my time.

(2.7) This gadget will *save* you hours.

(2.8) He’s living on *borrowed* time.

are all instances of the conceptual metaphor TIME IS MONEY (Lakoff and Johnson 1980b, p. 7-8).

At the linguistic level, the components of a linguistic metaphor are ‘focus/frame’ and ‘topic/vehicle’. The dichotomy of ‘focus/frame’ has its roots in Black (1979, p. 26), who understands ‘focus’ as the ‘salient word or expression, whose occurrence in the literal frame invests the utterance with metaphorical force.’ This dichotomy is widely used currently in metaphor identification studies; however, metaphor scholars, such as Steen (1997) and Cameron (2003) maintain that ‘frame’ is more than the rest of the utterance or of the sentence where the focus occurs. Cameron (2003, p. 10) suggests conceiving ‘metaphor frame’ as ‘a single stretch of language to a series of frames that work outwards from the focus across the discourse’ and beyond, that is to say, the situation in which the discourse occurs. As an illustration, let us take the example 2.8 where the focus is the lexical unit ‘borrowed’ since it links the Vehicle domain MONEY and the Topic domain TIME. The immediate linguistic frame of the focus is ‘time’ and a wider linguistic frame is the whole sentence. In addition, if a doctor, for instance, says this sentence as part of a conversation with the patient’s relative, then the conversation is another frame that can be considered to identify linguistic metaphors, although this is an extra-linguistic frame.

As for the dichotomy ‘topic/vehicle’<sup>4</sup>, the vehicle is the focus of a linguistic metaphor and ‘topic’ is ‘the content of the on-going discourse’ (Cameron 2003, p. 11). Let us look at the same example 2.8. In line with Cameron, the vehicle is ‘borrowed’, which is also the focus of the linguistic metaphor as discussed above. The topic (tenor) is ‘time’ since what is borrowed is ‘time’ and not money. Steen (1997) and Cameron (1999b) warn us that the topic may or may not be present as a lexical unit and, therefore, sometimes it has to be inferred. (Cameron 1999b, p. 15) adds ‘the non-explicit Topic must be recovered in processing from clues in the surrounding text and context.’ In other words, the topic can be inferred by considering the immediate linguistic frames and also the extra-linguistic frames.

Having clarified the terminology used in CMT, the focus is now on understanding more about what conceptual metaphor involves. As mentioned earlier, conceptual metaphor helps us to understand an abstract concept, such as TIME, LOVE or COMPANY, and structure them by means of one or more concepts. So, some aspects of TIME are understood by means of MONEY, but MOTION highlights other aspects of TIME. Thus, for instance,

(2.9) The time will *come* when. . .

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<sup>4</sup>Note that when ‘topic/vehicle’ are used at the linguistic level, they are conventionally written in lower case, whilst at the conceptual level, they are written with initial capitals – Topic and Vehicle domain.

(2.10) The time has long since *gone* when...

(2.11) The time for action has *arrived*.

(2.12) I'm looking *ahead* to Christmas.

are all instances of the conceptual metaphor TIME IS MOTION (Kövecses 2002, p. 33; emphasis in the original) and they highlight that TIME is a thing that can be in front of the observer (see example 2.12) or can be behind the observer (see example 2.10). Another example is the Target domain COMPANY which can be understood as A PERSON or as A BUILDING. The examples are extracted from Kövecses (2002, pp. 108 and 122, respectively) and no emphasis was added.

(2.13) A COMPANY IS A BUILDING

Ten years ago, he and a partner set up on their own and *built up* a successful fashion company.

(2.14) A COMPANY IS A PERSON

Few ... have the qualifications to *put an ailing company back on its feet*.

Similarly, a Vehicle domain can map different Topic domains. Table 2.2 shows that the Vehicle domain BUILDINGS maps the Topic domains THEORIES, RELATIONSHIPS, CAREERS, COMPANY and ECONOMIC SYSTEMS. The examples are also from Kövecses (2002, p. 122; emphasis in the original).

Table 2.2: Examples of BUILDINGS metaphors

THEORIES ARE BUILDINGS	Increasingly, scientific knowledge <i>is constructed</i> by small numbers of specialized workers.
RELATIONSHIPS ARE BUILDINGS	You can help <i>lay the foundations</i> for a good relationship between your children by preparing your older child in advance for the new baby.
CAREERS ARE BUILDINGS	Her career was <i>in ruins</i> .
A COMPANY IS A BUILDING	Ten years ago, he and a partner set up on their own and <i>built up</i> a successful fashion company.
ECONOMIC SYSTEMS ARE BUILDINGS	With its economy <i>in ruins</i> , it can't afford to involve itself in military action.

So far we have seen conceptual metaphors in which clearly the Topic domains are abstract concepts and the Vehicle domains are concrete concepts. Nevertheless, Lakoff and Johnson (1980b) indicate that there are other conceptual metaphors that are grounded in 'our physical and cultural experience' (Lakoff and Johnson 1980b, p. 14) as illustrated by the conceptual

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metaphors MORE IS UP; LESS IS DOWN and RATIONAL IS UP; EMOTIONAL IS DOWN (Lakoff and Johnson 1980b, pp. 14-17):

(2.15) MORE IS UP; LESS IS DOWN

2.15 a The number of books printed each year keeps going *up*.

2.15 b My income *rose* last year.

2.15 c The amount of artistic activity in this state has gone *down* in the past year.

(2.16) RATIONAL IS UP; EMOTIONAL IS DOWN

2.16 a The discussion *fell to the emotional* level, but I *raised* it back *up to the rational* plane.

2.16 b We put our *feelings* aside and had a *high-level intellectual* discussion of the matter.

According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980b), the conceptual metaphors MORE IS UP and LESS IS DOWN are based on our physical experience that the level of a container or pile goes up if we add more of substance or physical objects. The conceptual metaphors RATIONAL IS UP and EMOTIONAL IS DOWN are based on both physical and cultural experiences. They affirm that this association is also cultural because ‘in our [American] culture people view themselves as being in control over animals, plants, and their physical environment’ (1980b, p. 17) and this controlling power gives human beings a higher status.

Other conceptual metaphors, according to CMT, account for cases of personification. Kövecses considers that the examples 2.17 and 2.18 below show the personification of the abstract entities, such as THEORY and LIFE. He argues that THEORY and LIFE, inanimate entities, are given qualities of a person. Whilst Kövecses does not spell out the underlying conceptual metaphor, following his line of thinking, we can nevertheless assume that the underlying conceptual metaphors are THEORY IS A PERSON and LIFE IS A PERSON because typically a person can explain something and deceive somebody else. Lakoff and Johnson point out that ‘personification is a general category that covers a very wide range of metaphor, each picking out different aspects of a person or ways of looking at a person’ (1980b, p. 34). So, examples 2.19, 2.20 and 2.21 are realisations of the conceptual metaphor INFLATION IS A PERSON, but more specifically INFLATION IS AN ADVERSARY (Lakoff and Johnson 1980b, p. 33; emphasis in the original):

(2.17) His theory *explained* to me the behaviour of chickens raised in factories.

(2.18) Life has *cheated* me.

(2.19) Inflation has *attacked* the foundation of our economy.

(2.20) Our biggest *enemy* right now *is* inflation.

(2.21) The dollar *has been destroyed* by inflation.

### 2.3.1 Summary

So far, we have seen that CMT can help research on metaphor translation to, first of all, avoid the confusion of using the term ‘metaphor’ to refer to both the cognitive phenomenon and the linguistic phenomenon. More importantly, CMT clearly shows that linguistic metaphors are not a purely decorative element in the text, but they reflect how we understand and structure concepts. Consequently, linguistic metaphors cannot be considered in isolation. In addition, the debate started by Dagut (1976) regarding whether a polysemous word can or cannot be metaphorical has faded away since CMT actually considers that linguistic metaphors tend to be polysemous. Another important issue is that CMT does not make distinction between dead, stock or other types of linguistic metaphors; in fact, for CMT that is irrelevant since CMT pays more attention to conceptual metaphors than to linguistic metaphors.

Although Conceptual Metaphor Theory has attracted the attention of scholars from other fields, such as literary theory, legal studies and discourse analysis, teaching English as a second language, the number of studies carried out within translation is limited. Three scholars who have attempted to incorporate CMT into their studies on metaphor translation are Dickins (2005), Mandelblit (1995), Schäffner (2004). From the perspective of teaching translation, Dickins (2005) looks at ‘metaphorical schemata’<sup>5</sup>, but he disregards the key concept of CMT: conceptual metaphor and its implications. Consequently, he is keen to maintain Newmark’s classification of dead metaphor, stock metaphor and so on. As for Schäffner (2004), she rightly points out that thanks to CMT, the issue of ‘translatability is no longer a question of the individual metaphorical expression, as identified in the ST, but it becomes linked to the level of conceptual systems in source and target culture’ (2004, p. 1258). In other words, the focus is no longer on linguistic metaphors, but on the underlying conceptual metaphors. In addition, she considers Conceptual Metaphor Theory instrumental in identifying the ‘procedures to transfer [conceptual metaphors] from a source language into a target language,’ (2004, p. 1256). There have been some attempts to identify combinations of conceptual metaphors between two different languages, although not all of them in the field of translation. Nevertheless, those studies provide a sound platform to identify procedures to transfer conceptual metaphor from a source language into a target language as suggested by Schäffner (2004). These studies will be discussed in the following section.

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<sup>5</sup>Metaphorical schemata is a term coined within CMT, particularly by Lakoff and Johnson (1980b)

## 2.4 Patterns of translation

This section focuses on discussing three cross-linguistic and translation studies that have attempted to draw patterns of translation of metaphors based on CMT.

In 1991, Hiraga carries out a comparative study focusing on American English and Japanese. She argues that in principle there are four possible combinations of conceptual metaphors and linguistic metaphors ‘in terms of the similarity and the difference of two cultures’ (1991, p. 151):

1. Similar conceptual metaphors and similar metaphorical expressions.

	TIME IS MONEY	TOKI-WA KANENARI
(2.22)	You’re wasting my time	<i>Kimi-wa boku-no jikan-o roohishi-te i-ru</i> <sup>6</sup>

2. Similar conceptual metaphors but different metaphorical expressions.

	LIFE IS A BASEBALL GAME	LIFE IS A SUMO GAME
(2.23)	Right off the bat, he asked my age	<i>Ano seijika-wa nanigoto-ni tsuketemo nebari-goshi-gar aru</i> [That politician has a sticky back about everything.] That politician has a lot of grit about everything.

3. Different conceptual metaphors but similar metaphorical expressions.

	SWEET IS GOOD	AMAI [SWEET] IS BAD
(2.24)	You are sweet.	<i>Aitsu-wa amai</i> [You are sweet] You are immature, simple-minded, weak.

4. Different conceptual metaphors and different metaphorical expressions.

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<sup>6</sup>No gloss or translation is offered.



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	IDEAS ARE IN THE MIND	IDEAS ARE IN <i>hara</i> [BELLY]
(2.25)	I'll keep your opinion in mind.	Hayaku hara-o kime-nassai.
		[Decide your belly quickly]
		Make up your mind quickly.

Hiraga's study is of a comparative nature, that is to say she compares conceptual metaphors from two different cultures with the aim of understanding the way of thinking of such cultures. Hiraga states that if we understand the way of thinking of those cultures, then communication between people of these cultures can be improved. Hiraga's examples of each combination seem to have been taken on *ad hoc* basis rather than from comparing American English original texts and Japanese original texts. For instance, the conceptual metaphor TIME IS MONEY along with its linguistic metaphors are taken from Lakoff and Johnson (1980b). Regarding the Japanese expressions, no information about the source is offered. Nevertheless, she points out two important issues. First, a linguistic expression can be translated literally or close to the source language; however, the literal translation can convey a different meaning. See, for instance, the example of pattern (3) where 'sweet' can be easily translated by *amai* [sweet], but the latter entails a different metaphorical meaning. The second issue is that 'it is the level of abstraction which decides whether two cultures share certain metaphorical concepts or not' (Hiraga 1991, p. 162). To illustrate this, let us take the example of pattern (2). The English conceptual metaphor is LIFE IS A BASEBALL GAME while the Japanese conceptual metaphor is LIFE IS A SUMO GAME, what makes these conceptual metaphors similar is the fact that the corresponding Vehicle domains are A SPORT. Thus, a more general or abstract conceptual metaphor is LIFE IS A SPORT and, therefore, it is possible to say that both American and Japanese cultures share the same conceptual metaphor LIFE IS A SPORT. Nevertheless, this generalisation seems to be forced, since the linguistic expressions are drawn from specific sports with different rules and cultural connotations – baseball and *sumo*. It would be appropriate, then, to categorise the pair LIFE IS A BASEBALL GAME and LIFE IS A SUMO GAME along with their corresponding instantiations as an example of pattern 4 - Different conceptual metaphors and different metaphorical expressions.

In contrast to Hiraga (1991), Mandelblit (1995) considers that there are only three patterns of translation of metaphors. The examples accompanying each pattern are from Mandelblit (1995, pp. 484-486).

A. Similar conceptual metaphors<sup>7</sup> and same wording.

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	TIME IS A MOVING OBJECT	TIME IS A MOVING OBJECT
	The time will come when. . .	<i>Le moment viendra où. . .</i>
(2.26)	TIME IS A MOVING OBJECT	TIME IS A MOVING OBJECT
	The time for . . . has arrived.	<i>Le moment de. . . est arrivé</i> <i>Le moment est venu de . . .</i>

## B. Similar conceptual metaphors and different wording.

	TIME IS A MOVING OBJECT	TIME IS A MOVING OBJECT
	The time has passed.	<i>Le temps s'est écoulé.</i>
(2.27)	TIME IS A MOVING OBJECT	TIME IS A MOVING OBJECT
	The time is flying by.	<i>Le temps passe vite.</i>

## C. Different conceptual metaphors.

	TIME AS SPACE	TIME IS A MOVING OBJECT
(2.28)	<i>Je trouve le temps long</i>	Time is passing slowly.

Mandelblit explores these patterns by giving to 4 professional translators and 23 graduate students 23 TIME-related idiomatic expressions in English or in French, depending on which language was their second language, and asking them to translate those expressions into their first language, French or English. By means of this exercise, Mandelblit (1995) aimed to investigate the process of translating metaphors, more specifically the level of difficulty in translating a metaphor by measuring the reaction time of a translator. His findings suggest that ‘the degree of similarity between the metaphorical mappings [conceptual metaphors] that structure the source and target language determines the nature of the translation process’ (Mandelblit 1995, p. 493). In other words, if the conceptual metaphors are similar in the source and target languages, then he found that the translator carries out the translation more easily and in less time than when there is a discrepancy between the source and target conceptual systems. According to Mandelblit, such a discrepancy makes the process of translation difficult, since a translator needs to carry out a conceptual shift between the source conceptual system and the target conceptual system and there is the risk that the translator gets “fixated” to the source

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<sup>7</sup>Mandelblit (1995, p. 484) opts to use the term ‘mapping condition’ rather than ‘conceptual metaphor’ generally used in Cognitive Linguistics. It is unclear the reason for doing that. To avoid confusion, throughout this study the use of the term ‘conceptual metaphor’ is preferred rather than ‘mapping condition’.

language. It is, thus, important to understand the source and target conceptual systems in order to translate metaphors.

Similarly, Deignan *et al.* (1997) found that if learners of English as a second language are not aware of the metaphorical nature of their own language, ‘there may be a tendency to translate such items [English linguistic metaphor] literally into [the second language]’ (1997, p. 355) resulting in misunderstandings. To investigate that, Deignan *et al.* (1997) carried out a cross-linguistic study between English and Polish. The study consisted of asking advanced Polish learners of English to translate English sentences containing metaphors into Polish as naturally as possible. What the researchers meant by “as natural as possible” is that the Polish students should not do a word-by-word translation. As a result of this exercise, four possible ways in which linguistic metaphors can be translated were identified. The examples given for each pattern are offered by Deignan *et al.* (1997, pp. 354-355).

I. Same conceptual metaphor and equivalent linguistic expressions.

(2.29)	RELATIONSHIPS ARE BUILDINGS cement	RELATIONSHIPS ARE BUILDINGS <i>cemtneować</i>
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II. Same conceptual metaphor but different linguistic expressions.

(2.30)	IDEAS ARE FOOD half-baked	IDEAS ARE FOOD <i>niedojrzałe</i> [unripe]
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Both linguistic expressions entail that an idea is not well thought, as indicated by Deignan *et al.* (1997).

III. Different conceptual metaphors used.

(2.31)	RATIONAL IS UP sweep off one’s feet	LOVE IS MAGIC <i>zavroczyć</i> [charm, cast a spell]
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IV. Words and expressions with similar literal meanings but different metaphorical meanings.

(2.32)	No CM given grill	No CM given <i>maglować</i> [mangle]
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### 2.4.1 Summary

Having presented Hiraga's, Mandelblit's and Deignan *et al.*'s patterns of translation of metaphors, it is possible to assume that the following patterns can be found when analysing source texts and target texts.

1. Same conceptual metaphors and similar linguistic metaphors.
2. Same conceptual metaphors but different linguistic metaphors.
3. Different conceptual metaphors but similar linguistic metaphors.
4. Different conceptual metaphors and different linguistic metaphors.

The work of Deignan *et al.* (1997), Hiraga (1991) and Mandelblit (1995) have a top-to-bottom approach. In other words, their starting point is the presumption of the existence of a conceptual metaphor, e.g. SWEET IS GOOD, or a conceptual domain TIME. Thus, it is not clear how to make "the jump" from linguistic metaphors to conceptual metaphors. Nonetheless, their works show that culture can play an important role in how a conceptual metaphor from a conceptual system can be transferred to another conceptual system.

## 2.5 Summary

In this Chapter, we have seen that in the field of Translation Studies, metaphor was at first mainly considered as a purely decorative linguistic device and whether translating a metaphor depended on the type of text a metaphor occurs. Later developments in Cognitive Linguistics opened up new possibilities, CMT affirms that metaphor is both a conceptual phenomenon and a linguistic phenomenon. More importantly, linguistic metaphors are pervasive in the language since they instantiate conceptual metaphors which, according to Lakoff and Johnson, pervade our understanding and shaping of the world around us. Thus, the debate on whether a linguistic metaphor should or should not be translated is irrelevant. What is relevant is to unveil the underlying conceptual metaphors to avoid (i) misunderstandings between speakers of different conceptual systems or (ii) that the translator gets "fixated" to the source language, as indicated by Mandelblit (1995).

However, there are two major methodological issues in researching conceptual metaphor in natural language, particularly in a specialised language of specific language variants. On the one hand, an appropriate US English-MX Spanish parallel corpus is not available. The issues

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of design and creation of a suitable corpus for studying the translation of metaphor in financial texts between American English and Mexican Spanish are discussed in Chapter 3. The second main issue, to be discussed in Chapter 4, is the need for a systematic and less subjective method of identifying conceptual and linguistic metaphors.

## Chapter 3

# Design and Compilation of the Bidirectional US English ⇔ MX Spanish Parallel Corpus

*A carefully matched bidirectional parallel corpus provides a sound basis for both translation and contrastive studies.*

(McEnery and Xiao 2008, p. 27)

In 1990s electronic corpora began to gain greater currency in cross-linguistic and translation studies. The reasons for the use of corpora, and the type of corpora used, vary depending on the nature of the research itself. For instance, Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT), more specifically the work of Lakoff and Johnson (1980b), which is at the heart of CMT, has been criticised because their work ‘relies on idealized cases, disconnected from the context of actual use in natural discourse’ (Quinn 1991, p. 91), that is to say, the examples of linguistic metaphors instantiating conceptual metaphors given by Lakoff and Johnson (1980b) seem to lack authenticity. To counteract this argument, metaphor researchers (see, for instance, Cameron 2003, 2007, Cameron and Deignan 2003, Charteris-Black 2004, Charteris-Black and Ennis 2001, Deignan 1995, 1999, 2005b, Deignan and Potter 2004, Koller 2006, Musolff 2004, Stefanowitsch 2006b, Wikberg 2008) have turned to the use of corpora ‘to provide a much-needed empirical complement to cognitive linguistic theory’ (Musolff 2004, p. 4). Another benefit of using corpora in metaphor research is that the large amount of data contributes to determining the frequencies of linguistic metaphors and identifying the use of linguistic metaphors across word classes, as pointed out by Koller (2006, p. 242). An example of the latter is given by

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Deignan (2005b): she searches 'fox', 'foxes', 'foxing', 'foxed', 'fox' in the corpus of the Bank of English obtaining 461 citations in total. She finds that all 18 instances of 'fox' as a verb are metaphorically used while only three out of 440 instances of 'fox' as noun are metaphorically used. Deignan's analysis of 'fox' shows that using a corpus helps to find out the frequency of a linguistic metaphor as well as whether it goes across word classes.

At the same time, translation scholars, mainly Baker (1993, 1996), Johansson (2003), Laviosa (1998, 2002, 2003) and Olohan (2004) have also advocated the use of corpora, specifically parallel corpora<sup>1</sup> within Translation Studies to develop material for the training of translators as well as to investigate shifts in the translation (target texts) of source texts. However, the comparison of source texts and target texts can lead us to assume that the semantic changes, or the lack of them, in the target texts are influenced by the norms of the source texts rather than by the norms of the target language. Toury (1995) suggests using texts originally written in the target language in order to investigate the influence of the language of the source texts on the translation. A bidirectional parallel corpus seems to be suitable for that purpose since this kind of corpus includes texts in source language, e.g. English and their translation in target language, e.g. Spanish, on the one hand, and on the other, texts originally written in the target language, e.g. Spanish, and their translation in the source language, e.g. English. This kind of corpus, according to Johansson (2007), Johansson, Ebeling and Oksefjell (1999/2002) allows i) translation problems in either language to be observed, ii) the identification of shifts in the translation that are not triggered by the grammatical structure of the target language (TL), and iii) the identification of paradigms of correspondence between the source text and the target text. However, as Váradi rightly observes, the practicality of a bidirectional parallel corpus is 'limited by the relative scarcity of their availability' (2008, p. 168).

As previously stated, the present study aims to investigate patterns of translation of conceptual metaphors in annual reports written in MX Spanish and translated into US English and vice versa; however, to the best of my knowledge, there is no corpus with such a composition. The absence of such a corpus can be considered a methodological setback for this study; however, this presents an opportunity to make an innovative contribution to Translation Studies: the compilation of a Bidirectional American English ⇔ Mexican Spanish Parallel Corpus. Such a corpus will help us not only to investigate the existence of conceptual metaphor instantiated by linguistic metaphors embedded in specialised texts but, more importantly, to identify patterns of translation of such conceptual metaphors. In addition, this corpus can be used to explore other issues in translation or to carry out contrastive studies.

The first part of the present Chapter describes the compilation of the bidirectional parallel

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<sup>1</sup>Olohan (2004, p. 24) defines 'parallel corpus' as a set of texts in one language and their translations in another language.'

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corpus. The second part addresses the issue of tools used to compile the corpus as well as text processing tools employed to make the analysis semiautomatic.

### **3.1 Designing the Bidirectional US English ⇔ Spanish Parallel Corpus**

It is crucial to make as explicit as possible the design criteria of the corpus (notably the selection of texts) in order to deal with the central question of corpus representativeness. Representativeness is an important, but still most problematic feature of a corpus, as widely discussed by scholars such as Ahmad and Rogers (2001), Biber (1993), Laviosa (2002), McEnery *et al.* (2006), Olohan (2004) and Zanettin (2000). The importance of representativeness lies in the fact that it ‘refers to the extent to which a sample includes the full range of variability in a population’ (Biber 1993, p. 243). In other words, the corpus needs to include a range of data indicative of the language variety and genre that the researchers want to study. In this way, the findings derived from the corpus can be generalised in relation to such a population, i.e. language variety and genre if the corpus is specialised. However, as Laviosa (2002, p. 6) observes, ‘[representativeness] is never absolute and complete.’ Nevertheless, she goes on to say that a corpus can be considered representative ‘by identifying and making explicit [...] the design criteria which underlie the choice of texts that make up [that] corpus.’ These criteria, as suggested by Kenny (2001), Laviosa (2002, 2003) and Olohan (2004), among others, are material (written or spoken data); language varieties; genre; corpus size; and the period of time during which the data were produced. In what follows, each criterion will be discussed in relation to the Bidirectional US English ⇔ MX Spanish Parallel Corpus (BESPC) of our own creation.

#### **3.1.1 Material**

The corpus compiled for this project contains only written texts since the present research is concerned with translation.

#### **3.1.2 Language varieties**

The languages, or rather language varieties chosen for the bidirectional parallel corpus are American English (US English) and Mexican Spanish (MX Spanish). The reason for that



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choice is that these two language varieties seem to have received little attention in Translation Studies. In fact, Basnett in the forward to Gentzler (2008) affirms that translation in the Americas tends ‘to be disregarded by scholars in the English and Spanish speaking countries’ (Gentzler 2008, p. x). In addition, these two language varieties have a very influential role in the business world. On the one hand, US English is considered the language of international business and, on the other, MX Spanish is the most widely spoken variety of Spanish, according to *Ethnologue: Languages for the World* (2005): approximately 86,200,000 people speak MX Spanish, more than the number of speakers of Spanish in Spain itself. But it is not the number of speakers that makes MX Spanish worthy of research. The Mexican economy has been recognised as one of the so-called E7 group of emerging economies in the world (see Hawksworth *et al.* 2007, MacBeath 2007). Mexico is also a member of the Group of Twenty (G-20) and has signed several international trade agreements, such as North American Free Trade Agreement, Mexico-European Union Free Trade Agreement and Mexico-European Free Trade Association FTA, among others.

### 3.1.3 Genre

A specialised corpus can be domain- or genre-specific (see McEnery *et al.* 2006). That is to say, a corpus can include texts from a particular domain, for instance business, or include texts only from a particular genre<sup>2</sup>. The BESPC is genre-specific because we are interested in investigating conceptual metaphors in annual reports, which belong to the genre of corporate business communication. Annual reports contain quantitative information in the form of financial statements, but also qualitative information. This qualitative information is included in sections that often accountancy scholars, such as Abrahamson and Amir (1996), Clatworthy and Jones (2003), Collins *et al.* (1993), Gibbins *et al.* (1990), Holmes *et al.* (2005), Lee (2001), and Rutherford (2005), refer to as ‘accounting narration’ or ‘accounting narrative.’ Clatworthy and Jones (2003, p. 171) define ‘accounting narrative’ as sections that ‘present annual performance [of a company] to users in a readily accessible manner.’ In order to understand the relevance of studying those accounting narrations from the translation perspective, let us review briefly the relevance of annual reports in corporate business communication.

Companies need to submit their annual reports to the authorities of a stock exchange of their country of incorporation or of another country where they want to be listed. For instance, in United States, annual reports are required to be filed on the Electronic Data Gathering, Analysis and Retrieval system managed by the US Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC). In the

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<sup>2</sup>Swales (1990, p.98) considers that genre ‘comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes’.

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case of foreign companies, the SEC (2007) rules that they need to file Form 6-K where ‘a full English translation’ of annual reports is requested. In Mexico, the Ley de Sociedades Mercantiles (Mexican Trading Company Act, *my translation*) establishes that a ‘sociedad anónima’ (limited liability company) should submit to their shareholders a report of the corporate and financial information. The law does not specify the language in which annual reports should be presented; however, it seems that the corporate and financial information is customarily provided in Spanish for foreign companies.

Although both American and Mexican law requires the submission of annual reports, the required content differs. According to Clatworthy and Jones (2003) and Collins *et al.* (1993), Letter to Shareholders (LtoS) and the Management Discussion and Analysis (MD&A) are a requirement in any annual report in the United States. Collins *et al.* (1993) point out that the American Institute of Certified Public Accountants introduced these sections in 1973, whereas in the UK, a section equivalent to the MD&A, the Operating and Financial Review (OFR), was legally required until 1992. The main purposes of MD&A and OFR are to comment on the operating results, to review the financial needs and resources and finally to discuss the shareholders’ return and value (Collins *et al.* 1993, p. 123). In contrast, Mexican law is not so rigorous regarding the content, resulting in the occasional absence of the MD&A in the Mexican annual reports; however, Sec. 5, par. 172, Mexican Trading Company Act requires a comment on the company performance during the fiscal year as well as on management policies.

In addition to LtoS and MD&A, annual reports tend to include a company’s mission statement (also called *philosophy* or *core values*). The mission statement makes explicit who the company’s customers are, what products or services the company offers, where the company operates, what technology it uses, how the company responded to the economic situation, its basic beliefs and values, its strengths and competitive advantages, its public image, and its responsibilities towards its employees (see David 1989, Stallworth Williams 2008). Stallworth Williams (2008, p. 100) observes that ‘mission statements are decidedly persuasive’ because they seek to strengthen the loyalties of the company’s shareholders and stakeholders. Annual reports also communicate the philanthropic behaviour of a company, that is to say, how a company helps the development of a community or an individual by voluntary service or sponsoring programmes (see Dawkins and Ngunjiri 2008). Hence, we consider that annual reports are hybrid<sup>3</sup> texts, that is to say, they are persuasive as well as informative. As Lee (2001) and Rutherford (2005) affirm, investors and financial analysts use annual reports to forecast companies’ profitability. Companies, aware of this, use annual reports as a mean to persuade them to buy their products, services and shares. In order to achieve that goal, to my knowledge, companies usually turn to

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<sup>3</sup>Text hybridisation is understood as discussed by Hatim and Mason (1990, 1997) and Hatim (1997). See Nord (1991) and Trosborg (1997) for further discussion on text type and translation.

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their own press department or a media agency to elaborate their annual reports based on the information provided by the company's accountants and auditors. Consequently, it is not possible to assign the authorship to a particular writer, only to the company that issues the annual report. This is not unusual. For instance, Charteris-Black (2004) indicates that the authorship of the US presidential inaugural speeches is publicly assigned to the US president who gave a particular speech; however, as Charteris-Black (2004, p. 88) points out, 'speeches are often written by teams of "ghost" writers.' Despite the fact that the actual writers of an annual report remain anonymous, its authoritative status is undeniable because the company takes responsibility for the production of such an annual report.

In view of the above, we can argue that the importance of translating annual reports is due to two factors. On the one hand, companies have national and international shareholders to whom they want to communicate their financial results, but also they want to capture international investors. On the other, companies look to expand into other markets apart from their own country and, therefore, companies need to translate their annual reports to meet the requirements of the countries where they want to operate. Thus, companies are equally concerned for the production of the translated version of their annual reports. Companies, then, often commission the translations either from their translation department or from translation agencies, blurring the identity of the translator(s) involved. Nevertheless, it is reasonable to assume that companies use specialised translators because companies want to get their message across.

It is worth mentioning that particular emphasis has been placed on determining the authors (including translators) and readers of annual reports for various reasons. From genre studies, Bhatia (1993) suggests that establishing the participants of the specialist communication, in this case corporate business communication, helps to understand why a text is written in the way it is. In addition, the authoritative status of a text also derives from the author and readers (see Ahmad and Rogers 2001). The status, as we will see in the following section, has an impact on the size of a corpus.

### **3.1.4 Corpus size**

The relationship between corpus size and representativeness, as Pearson (1998, p. 58) explains, can be problematic because a corpus can be considered not representative of the language under investigation if such a corpus is too small. As a result, the research conclusions reached if based on a small corpus are at risk of being ignored by other scholars (Pearson 1998, p. 58). However, being "small" is not a disqualification if the nature of the corpus is specialised. Ahmad and Rogers (2001, p. 735-736) suggest, for instance, that the use of small-sized special-language corpora may suffice for terminological purposes because specialised texts enjoy an

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authoritative status and are also lexically dense. This authoritative status is inherited from the producers and receivers of the texts, who are considered to be experts in the field in the case of specialised texts. And more importantly, specialised texts tend to show less lexical and grammatical variation and therefore patterns of language become evident even in a small special-language corpus. Availability of specialised texts also plays an important role in the corpus size. To solve the problem of corpus size, Ahmad and Rogers (2001) suggest at least to set a lower limit, for instance, approximately 100,000 for a highly-specialised corpus. The BESPC includes 42 specialised source texts and 42 translations, amounting to 618,329 words in total (see Table 3.3). It is justifiable to say, then, that the corpus is good sample of the genre.

### **3.1.5 Time span**

The corpus includes annual reports from 2002 to 2006. At the time of collecting the data, the most recent annual reports available were from 2006 and it was decided to include annual reports from this year and the previous four years. Apart from the fact that including a company's annual reports from five years helps to have a corpus of good size, it is reasonable to consider that the annual reports will contain linguistic elements typical of each company. For instance, the lexical item *incremento* has an absolute frequency of 394 instances and 242 of those occur in the annual reports of Televisa, a Mexican broadcasting company.

In addition, Mexico saw an economic growth from 2002 to 2006, as reported by Grant Thornton International Ltd. (2008), followed by a slow decline of the Mexican economy after 2006 following the slowdown of the United States economy. This information can be helpful for corpus users to understand the context in which the annual reports are produced.

### **3.1.6 Collection of texts**

Naturally the collection of annual reports is carried out according to the design criteria. That is to say, the texts to be included need to be:

- annual reports,
- written in US English and translated into MX Spanish,
- written in MX Spanish and translated into US English, and
- from 2002 - 2006.

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Keeping the above in mind, it is necessary to identify companies that produce their annual reports in one of the language varieties and translate them into the other language variety. For this purpose, the list of Mexican companies registered in the SEC was contrasted with the list of companies registered in the Bolsa Mexicana de Valores (BMV, Mexican Stock Exchange). 23 companies appeared to be registered in both the BMV and the SEC. Access to annual reports is not difficult since these documents are publicly available. In fact, as a general rule, companies publish them on their Web sites, specifically on their page for Investor Relations. However, it is crucial to determine in which language the annual reports are originally written due to the nature of the present research. The 23 listed companies were contacted by email. 10 out of those 23 companies replied and granted permission to use their annual reports (AR) for research purposes. The annual reports of one company are not included in the corpus because although they were originally written in US English and then translated into MX Spanish, some parts were originally written in Spanish and it was not possible to determine which parts. 4 out of 9 companies originally wrote their ARs in English, the remaining 5 in Spanish. Table 3.1 shows the companies that produce their annual reports in US English and the translation in MX Spanish indicating the number of words of each source text and that of the target text as well as the corresponding tax year. Similarly, Table 3.2 shows the companies that elaborate their annual reports in MX Spanish and the translation in US English indicating the number of words of each source text and that of the target text as well as the corresponding tax year. It is noteworthy that Vitro, a glass manufacturer, indicates that its annual reports from 2002 to 2005 were originally written in English, but its 2006 annual report was originally written in Spanish. Empresas ICA have indicated that their annual report corresponding to years 2002 and 2004 were not translated.

The total number of collected annual reports are 42, being 19 originally written in US English and 23 in MX Spanish. Table 3.3 shows the final composition of the Bidirectional US English ⇔ MX Spanish Corpus.

All the annual reports gathered are in only-readable electronic format, that is to say in PDF files, and not in a machine-readable format. As a consequence, texts need to be converted from PDF files to machine-readable format in order to process and analyse semi-automatically the texts. The next section describes the tools used to process the texts.

Table 3.1: Composition of the US English  $\Rightarrow$  MX Spanish Parallel Sub-corpus

Company	Year	Words in US source texts	Words in MX target texts
America Móvil, S.A.B. de C.V.	2002	5,145	5,990
	2003	4,461	4,988
	2004	4,072	4,611
	2005	5,115	5,534
	2006	3,904	4,226
GRUMA, S.A.B. de C.V.	2002	7,014	8,069
	2003	8,255	9,509
	2004	5,662	6,508
	2005	7,310	8,388
	2006	8,300	9,339
Vitro, S.A.B. De C.V.	2002	8,636	10,350
	2003	8,713	10,055
	2004	9,200	11,007
	2005	6,768	8,101
A beverage company that prefers to remain anonymous	2002	6,261	6,795
	2003	7,805	8,850
	2004	7,121	8,231
	2005	7,563	8,388
	2006	8,606	9,451

## 3.2 Processing the Bidirectional US English $\Leftrightarrow$ Spanish Parallel Corpus

According to Baker (2004), within corpus linguistics there is a range of statistical procedures that can be implemented in text analysis. As will be explained in the following Chapter, this study does not analyse lexical units instantiating a particular conceptual domain; rather it focuses on lexical units that are distinctive as features of annual reports. To identify these distinctive lexical items, the present research uses WordSmith Tools 4.0. In addition, MultiConcord, a multilingual parallel concordancer is employed to investigate the translation patterns. However, the annual reports are not in a format readable by WordSmith and Multiconcord. Thus, it is necessary to carry out first some clerical work using Abbyy FineReader 7.0, optical character recognition (OCR) software, to convert the texts from an only-readable format into a machine-readable format. How each of these software systems work is described in what follows.

Table 3.2: Composition of the MX Spanish  $\Rightarrow$  US English Parallel Sub-corpus

Company	Year	Words in MX target texts	Words in US source texts
Grupo Bimbo, S.A.B. de C.V.	2002	7,326	6,617
	2003	9,469	8,974
	2004	7,210	6,513
	2005	9,213	8,301
Empresas ICA, S.A.B. de C.V.	2003	1,333	1,157
	2005	1,760	1,528
	2006	2,324	2,150
Teléfonos de México, S.A.B. de C.V.	2002	10,357	8,673
	2003	9,692	8,273
	2004	13,205	10,451
	2005	15,607	12,812
	2006	9,806	8,903
Grupo Televisa, S.A.	2002	13,696	11,693
	2003	10,353	8,666
	2004	7,751	6,326
	2005	10,492	9,133
	2006	9,510	8,136
Vitro, S.A.B. De C.V.	2006	10,221	9,391
Wal-Mart de México, S.A.B. de C.V.	2002	4,168	3,887
	2003	4,390	4,127
	2004	3,594	3,204
	2005	3,545	3,289
	2006	6,627	6,175

Table 3.3: Composition of the Bidirectional American English  $\Leftrightarrow$  Mexican Spanish Corpus

Language	Words in source texts	Words in target texts	Annual Reports No.
US English	129,911	158,379	19
MX Spanish	181,649	148,390	23

### 3.2.1 Abbyy FineReader 7.0

Abbyy FineReader 7.0, optical character recognition (OCR) software, helps to convert texts into a machine-readable format. However, this process is not straightforward. Annual reports

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are rich in visual material, such as graphs, pictures and tables. It is, then, necessary to determine what material is to be included in the analysis and, consequently, to be selected during the digitalisation of the texts. Rutherford (2005) who analyses a corpus of Operating and Financial Review (OFR)<sup>4</sup> to identify genre norms using word frequencies, suggests excluding the material mentioned below (2005, p. 360):

- prose within graphical material and captions,
- tables,
- pull quotes, that is to say, an extract of the text placed outside the running text and it normally spans two columns,
- slogans and similar material displayed outside the main text area, and
- repeated headings.

Account statements are also excluded. Often the running text is presented in two or three columns making the OCR change paragraph or columns sequence. This implies that the selection process of the running text needs to be done manually slowing the recognition process. After having digitalised the texts, it is necessary to compare the digital version with the original since the OCR often does not recognise or misreads certain characters.

### 3.2.2 Oxford WordSmith Tools 4.0

WordSmith Tools comprises three programs: WordList, KeyWords, and Concord. Each of these are heavily used in the metaphor identification procedure described in Chapter 4.

WordList creates word lists or frequency lists, necessary to generate a key key-words (KKWs) database (see further below for an explanation about KKWs). WordList can generate a word list or frequency list indicating the frequency of each word occurring in a text or a set of texts. For instance, WordList can create an individual word list for each one of the MX Spanish annual reports or a merged single word list for all the set of MX Spanish source texts.

KeyWords generates key words (KWs) and key key-word (KKW) databases. Scott (1997, p. 236) defines the term 'key word'<sup>5</sup> as 'a word which occurs with unusual frequency in a given text; unusual frequency by comparison with a reference corpus of some kind.' In other words, a KW appears more frequently than expected in the corpus of financial texts than in the reference

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<sup>4</sup>In the UK, the Operating and Financial Review is legally required to be included in annual reports.

<sup>5</sup>Scott (1997, 2001, 2002) uses key word, not keyword. We will follow his convention.



corpus. We can assume, then, that those words are distinguishing lexical traits of the specialised corpus. To find KWs, KeyWords requires i) to have a word list from a given text or from a set of texts, ii) to set a minimum frequency and iii) to have access to a word list from a reference corpus.

Having created a word list from, for instance, a set of US source texts, the next step is to set a minimum frequency. By minimum frequency is understood the lowest number of occurrences that are expected in that set of texts. The default minimum frequency in KeyWords is 3 (see Scott 2006b, p. 59). The third element necessary to generate the KWs is the word list from a reference corpus. This reference word list indicates ‘how often any given word can be expected to occur in the language or a genre in question’ (Scott 2006b, p. 58). Two issues arise: which corpus will be used as a reference and is the chosen reference corpus available? Scott (2006b) argues that the only requirement for selecting the reference corpus is its appropriateness. By appropriateness, he means that the sample of language included in the reference corpus should be ‘a large one, preferably many thousands of words long and possibly much more’ (Scott 2006b, p. 58). Nevertheless, to obtain a frequency list of a reference corpus is not necessarily straightforward. For instance, a comparison between the word list from the collected MX Spanish source texts and a word list from a larger corpus of Mexican Spanish will enable us to identify those words that are distinguishing features of the genre of annual reports in Mexican Spanish. To this end, we requested the frequency list derived from the corpus compiled to create the *Diccionario del Español Usual de México* (Dictionary of Usual Spanish in Mexico, *my translation*). However, the corpus is not open for public use and, consequently, the word list is not available. Alternatively, we requested the Corpus de Referencia del Español (CREA, Reference Corpus for Spanish language, *my translation*) in March 2008. The list was not made available until July 2009. In the case of English, the frequency list of the British National Corpus (BNC) is freely available online<sup>6</sup>. Although both the CREA and BNC do not deal directly with the language varieties we are studying, they can still help us to identify the key words of the genre in question.

In the next step to generate the KWs list, KeyWords performs a statistical probability procedure. Apart from defining the minimum frequency, it is also necessary to determine the  $p$ -value and the statistical test:  $\chi^2$  test or the Log Likelihood test. According to Baker (2004) and Dunning (1993), a significant amount of data is skewed and does not show a normal distribution, but the log likelihood test helps to overcome skewed data giving more accurate results, particularly if  $p$ -value is below .05. In other words, the lower the  $p$ -value is, log likelihood gives more reliable results regarding the distribution. Scott (2006a) suggests a  $p$ -value of .000001 to obtain fewer

<sup>6</sup>See WordSmith web page <http://www.lexically.net/wordsmith/index.html>

keywords.

Despite the fact that the  $p$ -value is .000001, the resulting KW list, as Berber Sardihna (1999) rightly points out, can be very large and problematic to analyse. For instance, the word list generated from the set of US source texts compared with the BNC word list gives a result of 1,516 KWs, a very large number bearing in mind that those words will be analysed to determine their metaphoricity. Another disadvantage is that a word may be considered as a KW, but it only occurs in few texts. For instance, KeyWords considers ‘corn’ as a KW in the set of US source texts since it has a frequency of 282. However, WordList shows that ‘corn’ only appears in 6 out of 19 US English source texts. Using Concord, the third program of WordSmith and which will be described further below, it is possible to verify that 281 occurrences takes place in the annual reports of GRUMA, a company dedicated to the corn flour and tortilla production, and only one occurrence in an annual report of the beverage company. One possible way to resolve this issue is to create what Scott (1997, 2006a) calls a ‘key key-words database’ (KKWs). A ‘key key-words database’ contains words that ‘are most frequent over a number of files’ (Scott 2006a, p. 123).

To generate a KKWs database, it is necessary i) to produce a frequency list for each one of the annual reports in a batch, ii) to produce a batch of KW lists, and iii) to set two parameters in KeyWords when computing the KKWs database. ‘Batch processing’ in WordSmith Tools means to create separate word lists (or KWs lists) for each one of the texts in the corpus, without the need to create each list individually. It is worth mentioning that the resulting frequency or KWs lists are not merged, but kept separate. After the batch of word lists is generated, the batch of KW lists is then produced.

As mentioned earlier, the user of KeyWords needs to set two parameters in order to obtain the KKW database: a minimum frequency of texts in which the word appears and a minimum number of KWs per text. So, if the minimum frequency for database is set to 5, for example, it means that the program will include only KWs that appear in 5 or more texts; and if the minimum number of key words per text is set to 15, it means that files with fewer than 15 KWs will be ignored. Given that the total number of US annual reports is 19, and 23 for MX annual reports, as shown in Table 3.3 above, and that a word to be considered typical of the texts in each sub-corpus should occur at least in more than a half of the total number of annual reports including in each set of source texts, the minimum frequency has been set to 10 and 12 for the set of US source texts and for the set of MX source texts, respectively. Regarding the minimum number of KWs per texts, it was decided to set this to 1 because the aim is to include all the annual reports in each sub-corpus regardless of the fact that an annual report may have only one KW.

Concord, the third program of WordSmith Tools 4.0, is used to look at a key word in the context where it occurs. Figure 3.1 below illustrates a concordance of ‘sales,’ a key word from the set of US source texts. Looking at a key word and its concordance lines (corpus contexts) will contribute to determining its contextual meaning which is a crucial step in the metaphor identification procedure (for further explanation about contextual meaning see Section 4.3). Concord also allows us to sort the concordance lines of a key word alphabetically making it possible to identify lexical patterns. For instance, the concordance of ‘sales’ shown in Figure 3.1 is sorted alphabetically by the word immediately to the right, then by the word to the left and thirdly by the word in the second position to the left revealing collocation such as ‘sales growth’ or ‘net sales growth’. Finding this kind of lexical pattern will also help us to determine the contextual meaning.

N	Concordance	File
217	wheat flour producer. During 2002, our net sales grew 11%. Operating income also	GRU02.txt
218	results in 2003. Gruma Corporation's net sales grew 12%, and operating profit increased	GRU03.txt
219	during fourth-quarter 2002. NET SALES Net Sales grew by 6.7% in the Mexican territories.	KOF02.txt
220	to the increase. In absolute terms, cost of sales grew 16% due to the increases in wheat	GRU03.txt
221	2003 and 2004 (see Strategic Divestitures)—our sales grew 4.4 percent. During the year, our three	VT04.txt
222	2004 and 2005 (see Strategic Divestitures)—our sales grew 10 percent for the year. Our	VT05.txt
223	from 1.6 percent growth in exports, as well as sales growth from our flat-glass and auto-glass	VT05.txt
224	soft-drink market segments. Our export sales growth primarily came from our wine and	VT05.txt
225	2003. This increase was mainly due to export sales growth in the commercial segment, as well	VT04.txt
226	we have with them and helping to drive future sales growth. The United States The growth of	GRU06.txt
227	performance. Gruma Corporation achieved net sales growth of 14% due to better sales	GRU04.txt
228	country we enjoyed significant volume and net sales growth despite an uncertain political and	GRU03.txt
229	which continued to drive our consolidated net sales growth of 9 percent in 2005. Gruma	GRU05.txt
230	in 2005. Gruma Corporation achieved strong net sales growth of 17 percent during the year and	GRU05.txt
231	our customer-service initiatives that drive our sales growth. Our considerable marketing	GRU06.txt
232	14.3 percent, respectively, year over year. Our sales growth reflected strong demand from the	VT04.txt
233	driver of our consolidated results, with robust sales growth in both existing and new markets.	GRU04.txt
234	glass-containers business showed significant sales growth for the year as a result of greater	VT05.txt
235	value-added products that we expect to spur sales growth in 2007. For example, we introduced	GRU06.txt
236	500 million unit cases. Our Mexican territories sales growth was driven in part by the magic of	KOF02.txt
237	décor party-plan company in the history of direct sales—has risen to one of our five most	VT04.txt
238	example. Since opening our U.K. facility in 2000, sales have grown to more than US\$18 million in	GRU02.txt
239	technology. SG&A as a percentage of net sales improved to 19.1% from 20.4% in 2005, due	GRU06.txt
240	corn chips. Cost of sales as a percentage of net sales improved to 66.0% from 68.7% due to	GRU03.txt
241	volume. Cost of sales as a percentage of net sales improved to 70.2% from 70.7% due	GRU06.txt
242	above. Cost of sales as a percentage of net sales improved to 81.0% from 83.5% in	GRU04.txt
243	net sales. Cost of sales as a percentage of net sales improved to 62.5% from 63.1%, resulting	GRU02.txt
244	GIMSA. Cost of sales as a percentage of net sales improved slightly to 65.2% from 65.3%. The	GRU06.txt

Figure 3.1: An extract of the concordance for ‘sales’

### 3.2.3 MultiConcord

MultiConcord is a multilingual parallel concordancer. This program works in a similar way to that of Concord; however, MultiConcord can handle source texts and target texts at the same time allowing the corpus contexts of a particular word to be matched with their corresponding translation. To illustrate this, see Table 3.4 which shows the parallel concordance of the lexical unit ‘growth’, which is a key word in the US source texts.

The program has three limitations. First, the maximum number of concordances that it can give is 250. It was also observed that despite the fact that the manual indicates that the program can

Table 3.4: An extract from the parallel concordance of ‘growth’

Source text	Target text
Latin America has much to offer in terms of <b>growth</b> and profitability.	América Latina tiene mucho que ofrecer en términos de crecimiento y de rentabilidad.
In 2002 América Móvil attained an enviable balance of <b>growth</b> and free cash flow generation, on the back of a bigger and more profitable array of operations.	En 2002, América Móvil logró la envidiable posición de conjuntar crecimiento con generación de flujo libre de efectivo, soportado en un conjunto más grande y más rentable de operaciones.

handle up to 10 texts, it becomes unstable and the results are unreliable if 10 or more texts are selected. In order to get reliable results, it is then advisable to feed the program with 5 texts at a time, or when the program indicates that it has reached the maximum number of concordances. Another limitation is that Multiconcord only allows us to sort the concordance lines alphabetically by a word either to the left or to the right, which makes it difficult to identify lexical patterns. The third limitation is that Multiconcord concordances a word and only one context word. Thus, it is not possible to investigate, for instance, how the collocation ‘net sales growth’ is translated by searching ‘sales’ with its collocates ‘net’ and ‘growth’. Nevertheless, it is possible to concordance two-words patterns, that is to say it is possible to concordance ‘sales’ and its context word ‘growth’. Despite these limitations, the program facilitates the identification of the translation of a linguistic metaphor and, consequently, the patterns of metaphor translation.

### 3.3 Summary

In this Chapter, two issues have been discussed. On the one hand, the design criteria and compilation of the Bidirectional US English ⇔ MX Spanish Parallel Corpus (BESPC) has been described. Emphasis has been made on the design criteria – material, language varieties, genre, and corpus size – in order to ensure the representativeness of the specialised corpus. In addition, the corpus-processing tools, i.e. WordSmith Tools and Multiconcord have been described with the aim of incorporating these tools in the metaphor identification procedure proposed in the following Chapter to analyse semiautomatically the BESPC.

# Chapter 4

## Methodology

*Deciding what counts as an expression of which [conceptual] metaphor requires explicit criteria and procedures for analysis, both in the area of linguistic form as well as in the area of conceptual structure.*

Steen (2007, p. 329)

One of the most controversial issues in metaphor research is what we count as linguistic metaphors, considering that they are realisations of conceptual metaphors. At the early stages of the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Johnson 1987, Kövecses 2002, Lakoff 1987, Lakoff and Johnson 1980a,b, 1999, Lakoff and Turner 1989, Turner 1987), there was the tendency of first discussing a particular conceptual metaphor and then show its existence by presenting linguistic metaphors, which were not necessarily derived from natural discourse. Nevertheless, in more recent years, linguists such as Cameron (1999b, 2003, 2007), Cameron and Deignan (2003), Deignan (1995, 1999, 2005b), Gibbs (1997), Low *et al.* (2008), Low (2003), Musolff (2004), Semino (2008), Semino *et al.* (2002, 2004), Skorczynska and Deignan (2006), Steen (1994, 1997, 1999), Stefanowitsch (2006b), among others have been engaged in reversing this tendency by analysing “real” data as the one offered by corpora. The previous chapter deals with the benefits of using a large corpus to study different phenomena, particularly metaphor in the natural language. The chapter also focused on discussing the main considerations in creating a bidirectional parallel corpus suitable for a research in Translation Studies, highlighting the fact that having a large corpus allows a researcher to identify widespread patterns in a language rather than focusing on isolated cases. However, a large corpus also has its own constraints; the main constraint is that using a corpus means that it is not feasible to read each text included in the corpus, a common technique used to identify linguistic metaphors in some studies

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(Charteris-Black 2004, Pragglejaz Group 2007, Skorczynska and Deignan 2006); and, therefore, it is necessary to look for other means, apart from reading, for “fishing” those linguistic expressions that realise conceptual metaphors. The present Chapter, therefore, reviews briefly techniques proposed to study metaphors using corpora (section 4.1). Section 4.2 focuses on the Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP), a methodology recently proposed by the Pragglejaz Group (2007) within the field of cognitive linguistics, that aims to reduce the degree of subjectivity involved in metaphor identification. As the Pragglejaz MIP stands it cannot be applied to our data, an extended version of the Pragglejaz MIP is put forward in section 4.3 in order to apply it to i) a large corpus and ii) more importantly to find out translation patterns of conceptual metaphors. The extended MIP benefits from semi-automatic techniques used in corpus linguistics, such as frequency lists, key words lists and concordances, which have been described in greater detail in section 3.2.

## **4.1 Looking for Conceptual Metaphors through Linguistic metaphors**

To benefit from using corpora, Deignan (2005b) states that there are two techniques for studying conceptual metaphors. The first technique follows a top-down approach, that is to say, goes from a conceptual metaphor to the linguistic expressions. This technique consists of investigating a particular conceptual metaphor, identifying lexical units from the source domain of such a conceptual metaphor by using a thesaurus, and then producing a concordance of all the lexical units identified for that source domain to find out their regular occurrence along with their linguistic context. Stefanowitsch (2006a) adds that alternatively a search for lexical units linked to the target domain can be carried out. Either way, Deignan says that a researcher needs to take a decision regarding which citations should be considered metaphorical. To do so, she suggests the use of ‘informed intuition to decide whether a particular citation of a word is metaphorical, within [a researcher’s] own definition of metaphor’ (Deignan 2005b, p. 93). She adds that informed intuition helps ‘to decide whether a linguistic metaphor is a realisation of a particular conceptual metaphor’ (Deignan 2005b, p. 180). Deignan does not define what she means by ‘informed intuition’. Nevertheless, ‘informed intuition’ is apparently when a researcher comes to the decision of considering a citation as metaphorical based on i) the co-text, that is to say, the text that surrounds the metaphorical linguistic expression, ii) his/her knowledge as a speaker and iii) his/her knowledge of conceptual metaphors discussed in previous studies. This idea of using ‘informed intuition’ seems very reasonable but, as the Pragglejaz Group (2007) affirm: ‘researchers often differ in their intuitions about what constitutes a metaphoric

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word or phrase'. Deignan (2005b) points out that a variation on the top-down technique is to study metaphors from previous studies along with their metaphorical linguistic expressions. As an example of this type of study we can take Musolff's work. Musolff (2004) considers a single conceptual metaphor NATION STATE IS A FAMILY, discussed by Lakoff regarding US politics and whose source domain FAMILY has been widely used to map the target domain NATION STATE within political thinking, as indicated by Musolff (2004, pp. 2-4). He starts from the source domain LOVE-MARRIAGE-FAMILY; he then concordances what he describes as 'tokens' or 'instantiations' of that source domain, i.e. lexical units related to the concepts of LOVE, MARRIAGE and FAMILY such as 'love-affair', 'honeymoon', 'courting', 'divorce', 'mother', 'baby' and so on. The next step that Musolff takes is to look at his tokens to learn their regular presence with lexical units from the target domain, e.g. Europe, European Union, European states, European institutions, etc. For this analysis, Musolff uses two general language corpora: the Bank of English, compiled by the University of Birmingham, and COSMAS, a German corpus housed in the Institut für Deutsche Sprache in Mannheim, Germany (Musolff 2004, p. 66). According to Deignan (2005b), this method is useful when a large corpus, as often general language corpora are, is looked at because the search for the predetermined lexical units can be done automatically.

The second technique described by Deignan (2005b) follows a bottom-up approach since it consists of thoroughly examining a small corpus or a sample of a large corpus to gather linguistic metaphors. The linguistic metaphors are subsequently used to search a large-sized corpus. An instance of this technique is the work of Charteris-Black (2004). In his research on sports metaphors in the British press, Charteris-Black (2004, p. 116-117) selects as a sample the *Sun* and *Times* sub-corpus which is part of the Bank of English newspapers sub-corpus. Charteris-Black (2004, 2005) indicates that his metaphor identification procedure has two stages. The first stage involves the identification of candidate (linguistic) metaphors by means of a close reading of a sample of texts. The second stage of his metaphor identification procedure is to look in the corpus for the candidate linguistic metaphors from his sample of texts to find out whether each of their occurrences is metaphorical or not. Deignan (2005b, p. 93) maintains that using either a small corpus or a sample of a large-sized corpus allows a close reading which, in turn, gives access to a detailed information about the surrounding text and so the interpretation of the lexical units is richer. In comparison, using a large corpus makes a close reading unfeasible with a consequence risk of losing information that could help to interpret the linguistic metaphor. Despite that, a large corpus makes the findings of any research more representative because it covers a larger scope of a general or special language. In addition, there is another way to get the information needed to interpret the linguistic metaphor, as discussed in the second part of this chapter.

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Regardless of the approach the metaphor researcher wants to take (top-down or bottom-up), the issue of determining the metaphoricity of a lexical unit free from intuitions or subjectivity still remains.

## 4.2 Pragglejaz Metaphor Identification Procedure

In an effort to fill the gap of a systematic procedure to identify linguistic metaphors, researchers on metaphor, but from different disciplines, get together, now known as the Pragglejaz Group<sup>1</sup>, to design and propose a ‘Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP)’ (Pragglejaz Group 2007, p. 3). The MIP is reproduced here:

1. Read the entire text–discourse to establish a general understanding of the meaning.
2. Determine the lexical units in the text–discourse.
3. This step consists of:
  - (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 meaning tends 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 with the basic meanings but can be understood in comparison with it.
4. If yes, mark the lexical unit as metaphorical.

To demonstrate the applicability of the above procedure, the Pragglejaz Group analyses the sentence below of an article titled “Sonia Ghandi stakes claim for top job with a denunciation

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<sup>1</sup>The group is named after its members: Peter Crisp, Ray Gibbs, Alan Cienki, Graham Low, Gerard Steen, Lynne Cameron, Elena Semino, Joe Grady, Alice Deignan, and Zoltan Kövecses.



of Vajpayee,” published in *The Independent*. They first read the entire article to get an understanding of its meaning, then they identify the lexical units. In the following example, each lexical unit is delimited by slashes.

- (4.1) /For/ years/, Sonia Gandhi/ has/ struggled/ to/  
convince/ Indians/ that/ she/ is/ fit/ to/ wear/  
the/ mantle/ of/ the/ political/ dynasty/ into/  
which/ she/ married/, let alone/ to/ become/  
premier/.

After delimiting the lexical units, the Pragglejaz Group (2007, pp. 4-13) determines the contextual meaning and the basic meaning for each lexical unit, and contrasts them as illustrated as follows:

#### **Sonia Ghandi**

- (a) *Contextual meaning*: The proper name refers to a specific, uniquely identifiable individual in a particular historical and geographical context.
- (b) *Basic meaning*: The proper name does not have a more basic meaning.
- (c) *Contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning is the same as the basic meaning.

*Metaphorically used?* No.

#### **struggled**

- (a) *Contextual meaning*: In this context, “struggled” indicates effort, difficulty and lack of success in achieving a goal, namely changing other people’s negative views and attitudes.
- (b) *Basic meaning*: The basic meaning of the verb to struggle is to use one’s physical strength against someone or something, as in ‘She picked up the child, but he struggled and kicked’. The evidence cited in the etymological dictionary consulted, the Shorter Oxford Dictionary on Historical Principles, also suggests that this meaning is historically prior (p. 2157).
- (c) *Contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and can be understood by comparison with it: We can understand abstract effort, difficulty, opposition and conflict in terms of physical effort, difficulty, opposition and conflict.

*Metaphorically used?* Yes.

The benefits of using the Pragglejazz MIP is that it helps to confirm subjective decisions, such as to decide that proper names and auxiliary verbs are not metaphorical, but it also helps to solve problematic cases. More importantly, this procedure does not presume the existence of a conceptual metaphor, but rather focuses on the language. In fact, the procedure indicates clear steps to identify metaphorically used lexical units. Nevertheless, its application is far from simple and requires further decisions and steps, particularly if the aim of the study is to identify not only linguistic metaphors but also conceptual metaphors across languages.

### **4.3 Metaphor Identification Procedure for a Corpus-based Translation Study**

The present section reviews the Pragglejazz MIP and discusses what steps need to be modified or added in order to apply it to the Bidirectional US English  $\Leftrightarrow$  MX Spanish Parallel Corpus (BESPC) with the aim of identifying the patterns of translation of conceptual metaphors. The first step 1 of the Pragglejazz MIP, i.e. to read the entire text, is not feasible due to the number of texts included in the corpus. Nevertheless, an understanding of the meaning conveyed by a set of texts can be drawn from the knowledge of the characteristics shared by all those texts, if the design criteria of the corpus from which the data will be extracted are clear and well motivated. Being involved in the creation of the corpus is a great advantage since the analyst becomes more familiar with the texts. The characteristics of the annual reports included in this study are described in 3.

After having acquired an understanding of the texts, what follows is to determine the lexical units within the texts (Step 2 of the Pragglejazz MIP). The Pragglejazz Group (2007) do so by determining manually in the text the lexical units to be analysed considering that all the lexical units are single headwords in the Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners (Pragglejazz Group 2007, p. 15). Nevertheless, to do the same as Pragglejazz having more than 300,000 words (129,911 words for US English source texts and 181,649 words for MX Spanish source texts) to analyse is highly impractical. It becomes even more impractical when the study is done by one analyst and, in fact, as far as we are aware, there are no studies where this methodology has been applied by a single researcher. So far the well-known studies applying the Pragglejazz MIP have been carried out by the Pragglejazz Group itself and its offspring, a team of six members at the VU University Amsterdam. This particular study is a relatively large scale study in comparison with the seminal work of the Pragglejazz Group (2007). The group in Amsterdam analyses several texts (189,564 words) in English from different genres (news, academic texts, literary texts and conversations) and extracted from the BNC-Baby;

however, each member analyses a certain number of those texts. The need to narrow down the number of lexical units to be analysed becomes evident. Our goal is to follow a bottom-up approach, that is to say, to go from the linguistic level and then to move up to the conceptual level, but not being constrained to a set of lexical units which belong to a particular conceptual domain. Keeping this in mind, we have resorted to a key-words (KWs) analysis. A key word is a lexical unit that has an unexpectedly high frequency in the set of specialised texts under analysis in comparison with their frequency in a reference corpus. According to Scott (2006b) and McEnery and Xiao (2008), KWs inform us of the aboutness of a set of texts if those texts are samples of a genre. Consequently, KWs reveal salient features of that particular genre. With WordSmith Tools, it is possible to create a KKW database. What a KKW database is and how it is created has been described in Subsection 3.2.2. Here it is enough to say that a KKW database is generated for the set of US English source texts (see Table 5.2 and another for the set of MX Spanish source texts (see Table 6.2).

The next step in the Pragglejaz MIP is to determine the metaphoricity of each of the lexical units by identifying the contextual meaning, then identifying the basic meaning and finally contrasting both meanings. To identify the contextual meaning of each of the lexical units from the KKW databases mentioned above, a technique in corpus linguistics is used: reading concordances or concordance lines in order to establish ‘the way the meaning is constructed with reasonable confidence’ (Sinclair 2003, p. xiv). This technique requires some decisions. The first decision concerns the number of concordance lines (corpus contexts) that should be studied in order to determine the contextual meaning of a lexical unit. A maximum of 1,000 instances seems to be enough due to the size of the corpus. This is a high number in comparison to the recommended number by Deignan (2005a, p. 80) who uses between ‘200 and 500 citations of each inflection of each word, depending on how frequent the word form was as a whole in the corpus’ (although she does recommend a sample of 1,000 citations for a highly polysemous word). Each concordance line of the lexical unit is, then, manually analysed looking at the immediate linguistic frame. But when the immediate frame does not provide the information necessary to determine the contextual meaning, the next frame is considered, i.e. the frame of the sentence, and if still in doubt then the paragraph frame will be looked up. The overall meaning of the texts gathered in Step 1 will also be taken into account, when necessary, to identify the contextual meaning of the lexical unit. How a concordance for a lexical unit is generated has been explained in Subsection 3.2.2.

To determine the basic meaning, the Pragglejaz Group suggests the use of the *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*. Using a dictionary as a reference tool causes some eyebrows to rise. However, Steen (2007) claims that

[It is] convenient to adopt a dictionary as a concrete norm of reference, so that [analysts] have an independent reflection of what counts as the meanings of words for a particular group of users of English (Steen 2007, 97).

In addition, Krennmayr (2008, p. 102)<sup>2</sup> and Steen (2007, p. 98) affirm that a dictionary is a tool that gives an opportunity for ‘checking and replicating decisions’. For instance, both Lakoff and Johnson (1980b) and Deignan (2005b) do not make clear how they identify the literal or basic meaning of the analysed words. The reason for using the *Macmillan Dictionary* is that the Pragglejaz Group (2007, p. 16) aims to identify metaphorically used words in contemporary texts and this dictionary is based on a contemporary English corpus which is relatively recent. Semino (2008) and Krennmayr (2008) recommend to consult the *Oxford English Dictionary* as to determine the historically older meaning of the lexical unit. The dictionary can also give both the contextual meaning and the basic meaning of a lexical unit (Krennmayr 2008, Semino 2008). An example from the data of this study may help to understand this issue:

(4.2) To a lesser extent, Gruma Centro América’s discontinuation of its bread operations also contributed to the consolidated improvement.

The underlined word ‘operations’ is a lexical unit from the KKW’s database generated for the US English source texts. Consulting the *Macmillan English Dictionary: For Advanced Learners of American English* (MED 2008) to determine the basic meaning of ‘operations’, it is found out that the contextual meaning is also included:

**Sense 1.** the way that something such as system or service operates. 1a. used about the way a machine or piece of equipment operates. 1b. used about the way something such as a rule or an idea is used.

**Sense 2.** a company or part of a large company.

Semino (2008, p. x) argues that ‘the fact that the contextual meaning also appears in the dictionary confirms the conventionality of [a] metaphorical expression.’ In addition, (Krennmayr 2008, p. 104) indicates that ‘the main criterion for deciding whether two senses are sufficiently distinct is whether the contextual and the basic sense are listed as two separate, numbered sense

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<sup>2</sup>Krennmayr is one of the six members participating in the research project ‘Metaphor in discourse: Linguistic forms, conceptual structures, and cognitive representations’ at VU University Amsterdam. This project is an offspring of the Pragglejaz Group, consequently their metaphor identification procedure is that of Pragglejaz.

descriptions in the dictionary.’ Another issue to bear in mind as to determine the basic meaning is whether to consider a subsense as the basic meaning or the main sense as the basic meaning. Krennmayr (2008) makes clear that subsenses are regarded as materialisation of the same meaning from the perspective of the Pragglejaz MIP.

It is worth mentioning that special attention is given to the selection of dictionaries as reference tools since this study deals with two language varieties: American English and Mexican Spanish. For the the analysis of US English lexical units, the *Macmillan English Dictionary: For Advanced Learners of American English*(MED 2008) is selected. The reason for choosing this dictionary is that first it is a corpus-based dictionary, as recommended by the Pragglejaz Group, and secondly because it focuses on American English, the language variety under study. However, the *Oxford English Dictionary* (1989, OED) will be also consulted in cases where it is necessary to determine the basic meaning by the criterion of “historically older” in line with the Pragglejaz Group (2007), Semino (2008) and Krennmayr (2008) or the etymology of the word. Concerning the analysis of Mexican Spanish lexical units, the dictionaries to be used are *Diccionario del Español Usual de México* (DEUM *Diccionario del Español Usual de México* 1996) and *Diccionario del Uso del Español de María Moliner* (2007). The *Diccionario del Español Usual de México* is primarily used because it is a corpus-based dictionary focusing on Mexican Spanish. In the event of a particular word is not being found in this dictionary, the *Diccionario del Uso del Español de María Moliner* is then consulted. The reason for using *Diccionario del Uso del Español de María Moliner* (2007) is that it is based not on one corpus, but on several corpora: *Corpus de Referencia del Español Actual* (CREA), *Corpus Diacrónico del Español* (CORDE), *Corpus Gredos de Prensa Literaria*, *Biblioteca Virtual Miguel de Cervantes* and search engines Google and Altavista. Additionally, it includes regional markers which can be very helpful when determining the basic meaning of a lexical item of a particular language variety.

Having identified and contrasted the contextual meaning and the basic meaning of a lexical unit, the last step in the Pragglejaz MIP is to decide whether the lexical unit is used metaphorically. The Pragglejaz MIP has helped us to determine the metaphoricity of a lexical unit at the linguistic level. But, the question of which conceptual metaphor is being instantiated by such a linguistic metaphor remains. This is not a weakness of the procedure since, as pointed out by Krennmayr (2008), Pragglejaz Group (2007), Semino (2008), Steen (2007), the Pragglejaz MIP does not aim to identify conceptual metaphors, but rather to identify metaphorically used words (linguistic metaphors) in text and discourse. How to make the “jump” from linguistic metaphor to conceptual metaphor is a cause of controversy and discussion among scholars, as Steen (1997) and Semino (2008) highlight. However, (Semino 2008, p. 22) suggests that if the basic meaning and the contextual meaning of a metaphorical expression are understood

in terms of an element of a Topic domain and an element of Vehicle domain, respectively, it can help us to infer the underlying conceptual metaphor in conjunction with our knowledge from the literature. To illustrate this, Semino (2008, 11-12) analyses the lexical unit ‘battle’ occurring within the article ‘Half full or half empty?’<sup>3</sup>.

(4.3) In the end, after all the talks, the lobbying and the haggling over words, the G8 summit at Gleneagles came down to a battle of metaphors.

**battle**

- (a) *Contextual meaning*: contrast/difference/disagreement
- (b) *Basic meaning*: a fight between two armies in a war.
- (c) *Contextual meaning versus basic meaning*: The physical battles contrast significantly with differences in the expression of opinions.

*Metaphorically used?* Yes.

So far, Semino’s analysis is in line with the Pragglejaz MIP. Then, Semino (2008) argues that if we see the basic meaning of ‘battle’ as an element of the Vehicle domain WAR and the contextual meaning of ‘battle’, as an element of the Topic domain ARGUMENT, then it is possible to infer that the underlying conceptual metaphor is ARGUMENT IS WAR. In the present study, Semino’s suggestion is, then, incorporated as another step into the MIP.

As our aim is to identify patterns in the translation of conceptual metaphors embedded in annual reports, it is necessary to take further steps after inferring the conceptual metaphor realised in the source texts. By translation pattern, we understand how conceptual metaphors instantiated in the source texts tend to be translated into the target texts.

To identify patterns of translation of conceptual metaphors it is necessary to return to the vehicles of the identified linguistic metaphors and use them to carry out a parallel concordance using MultiConcord. As has been described in Section 3.2.3, this software helps us to align the segment where the linguistic metaphor is embedded and the corresponding translated version. The alignment of the segment of the source language with the segment of the target language allows us to see how the linguistic metaphor is translated. To determine the metaphoricity of the lexical unit in the target language corresponding to the linguistic metaphor in the source language, the former receives the same treatment as a lexical unit in the source language. That is to say, the contextual meaning and the basic meaning of the lexical units in the target language are determined and then contrasted to identify whether they are used metaphorically. If

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<sup>3</sup>An article by James Landale published on 8 July 2005 on the website of the UK version of BBC News. See [http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/uk\\_politics/4665923.stm](http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/uk_politics/4665923.stm)

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so, the underlying conceptual metaphor is, thus, inferred. These last steps in the MIP attempts to investigate whether the patterns described in Section 2.4 occur:

1. Same conceptual metaphors and similar linguistic metaphors.
2. Same conceptual metaphors but different linguistic metaphors.
3. Different conceptual metaphors but similar linguistic metaphors.
4. Different conceptual metaphors and different linguistic metaphors.

## 4.4 Summary

This chapter has reviewed some of the techniques of approaching metaphor using corpora. In particular, the Pragglez Metaphor Identification Procedure has been described and some modifications to it have been proposed in order to be applicable to the texts included in the Bidirectional US English  $\Leftrightarrow$  MX Spanish Corpus. The extended Metaphor Identification Procedure to be applied to our data is then as follows:

1. Understand the overall meaning of the texts by identifying the common characteristics and purposes of a set of texts.
2. Create a keyword database using KeyWords. The resulting keywords will be considered as lexical units that potentially are vehicles of linguistic metaphors.
3. Determine the metaphoricity of the lexical units by:
  - (a) Establishing the meaning in context, i.e. contextual meaning, by reading the concordance lines of each lexical unit.
  - (b) Determining the basic meaning as it is understood by the Pragglez Group, i.e.:
    - 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); or
    - Historically older;
  - (c) Deciding whether the contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meanings but can be understood in comparison with it.
4. If yes, mark the lexical unit as metaphorical.

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5. Infer the conceptual metaphor.
  6. Identify the translation of the source linguistic metaphors by aligning the source texts and the target texts.
  7. Establish whether the translation is metaphorical and, if so, what conceptual metaphor realises.

The analysis of the US English  $\Rightarrow$  MX Spanish sub-corpus is described in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 contains the analysis of the MX Spanish  $\Rightarrow$  US English sub-corpus.



## Chapter 5

### Analysis of US $\Rightarrow$ MX Sub-corpus

*... there is no doubt that metaphor research can indeed gain from corpus analysis. First, the large amounts of data that make exact metaphor identification such a difficult task on the one hand, on the other hand broaden the empirical basis for testing hypotheses.*

(Koller 2006, p. 242)

Having described in the previous chapter both the Pragglejaz Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP) and the additional steps incorporated into it, this chapter focuses on how the extended MIP is applied to the US English  $\Rightarrow$  MX Spanish sub-corpus (US-MX sub-corpus). The US-MX Sub-corpus is part of the Bidirectional English $\Leftrightarrow$ Spanish Parallel Corpus described in Chapter 3 (see Table 3.3). The present chapter is divided according to the steps of the extended MIP. The first section 5.1 describes briefly the characteristics of annual reports to get an understanding of what they want to convey as a whole. Section 5.2 deals with the selection of the lexical units to be analysed from the US English source texts. Section 5.3 reports on the lexical units that are considered metaphorical. It also discusses the inferred conceptual metaphors. Section 5.4 focuses on Steps 6 and 7 of the extended MIP, that is, it gives an account of how the identified metaphorical linguistic expressions have been translated into MX Spanish.

## 5.1 Step 1. Understand the overall meaning of the texts by identifying the common characteristics and purposes of a set of texts

To recapitulate what has been said in Chapter 3 regarding the nature of annual reports, these are financial accounting texts written by specialists, for example company's accountants, and addressed to specialists, such as shareholders, stakeholders, financial governmental authorities, potential investors, financial analysts and so on. Annual reports contain financial statements, but also they forecast a company's progress based on its past performance and current position. In addition, annual reports disclose the philosophy of a company regarding the community where it is established, its employees' welfare, and other issues that might affect the company's economic situation.

## 5.2 Step 2: Create a KKW's database for the US English source texts

As indicated in Chapter 3, KeyWords<sup>1</sup> is used to create a KKW's database for the set of US English source texts. Table 5.1 shows settings for KeyWords to create a KKW's database specifically for the US English source texts. The minimum frequency has been set to 10 (texts) since the total number of the US source texts is 19 and a word should occur in no less than half of the total number of the texts in order to be considered a keyword. The minimum number of KWs per text is set to 1, thereby including all the texts regardless of whether any of those texts contains only one keyword. The  $p$ -value is .000001.

Table 5.1: Settings for KKW's database for US English source texts

Procedure	Log likelihood
$p$ -value	0.000001
Database total files	19
Min. frequency for database	10
Min. keywords per text for database	1

Table 5.2 shows the resulting 31 KWs for the US source texts. The KWs are ranked according to the cumulative frequency or 'overall frequency', as it is called in WordSmith, of the KWs,

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<sup>1</sup>Chapter 3 explains how this program works and what settings need to be configured.

that is to say, the sum of the frequencies of a KW in each US English source text. The table also shows the number of texts in which they occur.

Table 5.2: KWs from the US English source texts

KW	Overall Frequency	Texts	KW	Overall Frequency	Texts
totalled	67	14	increase	228	12
profitability	68	10	financial	241	13
corporate	88	10	debt	259	15
decreased	88	12	income	267	10
strategy	109	10	customers	303	13
margin	121	11	market	319	14
consumers	124	10	products	345	11
distribution	141	11	increased	375	17
expenses	143	11	operations	407	19
percentage	151	10	operating	412	17
markets	164	11	volume	415	11
brand	175	10	net	416	18
value	207	10	company	476	17
consolidated	212	16	growth	573	19
revenues	223	10	sales	819	14
cost	226	12			

Each of the KWs shown in Table 5.2 is then considered as lexical units that are potentially used metaphorically. Those lexical units, therefore, undergo Step 3 of the extended Metaphor Identification Procedure, as described in the next section.

### 5.3 Steps 3, 4 and 5. To be or not to be metaphorical: US English lexical units

Having created the KKW's database for the US English source texts, each lexical unit undergoes Step 3, 4 and 5 of the extended MIP. To exemplify these steps, let us analyse the lexical unit 'debt' which has a frequency of 259. Step 3a consists of establishing the contextual meaning of the lexical unit 'debt' by looking at, in this case, its 259 concordance lines (corpus contexts). See Figure 5.1 which shows an extract of the concordance of 'debt' sorted alphabetically by the word immediately to the right, then by the word to the left and thirdly by the word in the second position to the left. After reading the corpus contexts, it is possible to say that the lexical unit 'debt' refers to money that a company owes to banks or investors. How companies

manage their debt is a very relevant aspect of their management to capture investors. And, as some corpus contexts show, companies receive a rating, leading to companies caring about their profile.

N Concordance	File
25 to use our free cash flow and proceeds from divestitures to reduce our debt and to strengthen our financial ratios. We will also work to improve and	VT02.bt
26 proceeds of US\$130 million from the sale of Vitromatic to reduce our debt and to strengthen our financial position—the transaction enables us to	GRU04.bt
27 the past several years to improve our financial performance and reduce our debt and, consequently, have improved our financial ratios. This year was no	VT05.bt
28 have limited our capacity to generate the cash flow required to reduce our debt and take full advantage of our glass operations' potential. Our primary	VT03.bt
29 31, 2003. Moving forward, we will remain committed to reducing our debt and strengthening our balance sheet. Over the last two years, we ve	KOF02.bt
30 right local strategy; to transfer and replicate core competencies; to reduce debt; and to implement measures through which we expect to realize	GRU03.bt
31 investment-grade companies. We believe our ongoing efforts to reduce debt and to improve leverage and interest-coverage ratios will enable us to	GRU03.bt
32 For 2004, we have committed to use generated cash to continue to reduce debt and to improve leverage and interest-coverage ratios. We also expect to	GRU03.bt
33 financial ratios by significantly increasing cash generation, reducing debt, and maintaining its remaining debt at longer maturities and competitive	GRU02.bt
34 financial ratios by significantly increasing cash generation, reducing debt, and maintaining its remaining debt at longer maturities and competitive	VT03.bt
35 short-term debt at our holding company level represented only 8% of its total debt, and there are no material market maturities until late 2006. Furthermore,	KOF02.bt
36 of approximately US\$905 million of outstanding Panamco consolidated debt as of the end of 2002. We expect to refinance approximately US\$446	KOF03.bt
37 ending the year with Ps. 26,131.9 million (US \$2,326.0 million) of total net debt. As a result, we were able to eliminate refinancing risk related to our	KOF06.bt
38 market conditions to adjust the currency and rate composition of our debt as appropriate, taking advantage of lower rates while managing our	VT05.bt
39 debt profile showed improvement: (i) the average life of the company's debt as of December 31, 2005, was 3.9 years, compared with 3.8 years for	KOF05.bt
40 31, 2004, as a result of cash used to reduce debt levels. Total short-term debt as of December 31, 2005, was Ps. 4,428 million (US\$ 417 million) and	GRU05.bt
41 facility, we have no significant debt maturities until 2010. GRUMA's total debt as of December 31, 2005, was USD650 million, of which 94% was dollar	GRU04.bt
42 Bond by Latin Finance magazine in its February 2005 issue. GRUMA's total debt as of December 31, 2004, was US\$586 million, of which 93% was dollar	GRU06.bt
43 to finance working capital and general corporate purposes. GRUMA's total debt as of December 31, 2006, was US\$600 million, of which 94% was dollar	VT04.bt
44 have reduced our short-term debt from 28 percent to 19 percent of our total debt. As I noted earlier, high natural gas prices are a big issue for our	VT03.bt
45 consolidated debt of approximately US\$22 million to pay down its bank debt at the close of the negotiations. Accordingly, our net proceeds from the	VT05.bt
46 from US\$727 million in 2004. Importantly, we have kept our core businesses' debt at competitive levels. As we did in 2005, we continued to work to lower	GRU03.bt
47 which is US\$79 million (Ps 894 million), or 12%, less than the company's debt at December 31, 2002. GRUMA's indebtedness bears interest at both	VT05.bt
48 US\$1,443 million at year-end 2004. Considering our cash position, our net debt at year-end 2005 was US\$1,218 million compared with US\$1,171 million	KOF04.bt
49 resulting in earnings per share of Ps. 2.93 (US\$2.63perADR). Total net debt at year-end 2004 was approximately US\$1.9 billion. During the year, we	KOF06.bt
50 resulting in earnings per share of Ps. 2.64 (U.S. \$ 2.45 per ADR). = Total net debt at year end was approximately U.S. \$ 1.4 billion. During the year, we	KOF05.bt
51 these events, majority net income would have increased 13.8%. Total net debt at year end was approximately US\$ 1.7 billion. During the year, we	GRU05.bt
52 to keep our cost of capital relatively low. We hold more than half of our debt at competitive, fixed interest rates; the average rate on our debt during	

Figure 5.1: An extract of the concordance for 'debt'

Step 3.b involves determining the basic meaning as it is understood by the Praggeljaz Group. According to the *Macmillan English Dictionary: For Advanced Learners of American English* (MED 2008), 'debt' means 'an amount of money that you owe'.

The next step (3.c) involves two stages. First, the basic meaning of the lexical unit is contrasted with the contextual meaning. Subsequently, if the basic meaning is different from the contextual meaning, then it is necessary to determine if the basic meaning helps us to understand the contextual meaning. In the case of 'debt', there is no contrast between the contextual meaning and the basic meaning. This takes us to the following Step 4 which entails determining whether the lexical unit is metaphorical or not. As we conclude in step 3.c that there is no contrast between the contextual meaning and the basic meaning, consequently 'debt' is not metaphorical. Step 5 (to infer the conceptual metaphor) is then redundant.

The following subsections report the analysis of those lexical units that were considered to be linguistic metaphors: 'consolidated', 'growth' and 'operations'. In order to illustrate the contextual meaning, corpus contexts including the lexical unit are presented. Due to space constraint, we can only report a number of concordance lines which are considered to be prototypical for such contextual meaning.

### 5.3.1 Consolidated

The analysis of 220<sup>2</sup> concordances of the lexical unit ‘consolidated’ gives us as a result two contextual meanings.

1. *Contextual meaning.* In 97% of the concordances, ‘consolidated’ entails that things were joined or combined. Example 5.1 illustrates a case where a concrete thing is joined, that is to say the number of manufacturing plants was reduced by merging some of those plants. Examples 5.2 and 5.3 show abstract things being combined, such as debts incurred by either the parent company or its subsidiaries, and the financial results.

(5.1) Since May 2003, we have consolidated 11 manufacturing plants, out of 17,...

(5.2) Our consolidated revenues were Ps. 35.7 billion.

(5.3) The financial results of what is now Claro Dominicana were consolidated with América Móvil’s only that month.

2. *Contextual meaning.* In the remaining 3% of the concordances, the lexical unit ‘consolidated’ implies the strengthening of a company, particularly its position or its presence in a market.

(5.4) In 2002 Telecom Americas consolidated its presence as one of the main wireless operators in Brazil, the third one in terms of subscribers.

(5.5) With these new facilities, we consolidated our growing position in Europe’s value-added architectural and construction glass market.

*Basic meaning.* The most concrete meaning found in MED is ‘to combine several small things, specially companies or organizations, into a large unit’.

*Contextual meaning versus basic meaning.* There is no contrast between the first discussed contextual meaning and the basic meaning. Regarding the second contextual meaning, we consider it contrasts with the basic meaning, although the latter helps us to understand the meaning of ‘consolidated’ in certain contexts such as the ones illustrated above: we understand that a possible aim to combine or join several things is to make them stronger or more efficient. As the position or the presence of a company is something abstract and indivisible, then it is

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<sup>2</sup>In some cases, there is a discrepancy between the overall frequency of a lexical unit given by KeyWords and the number of its concordances resulting from Concordancer. According to Scott (priv. comm.), this is a common error in WordSmith 4.

concluded that the second discussed contextual meaning highlights the aim, that is to say, to strengthen the presence or the position of a company.

*Metaphorical?* The lexical unit ‘consolidated’ is not used metaphorically in most of the corpus contexts. Nevertheless, when ‘consolidated’ modifies ‘presence’ or ‘position’ of a company, then it is used metaphorically.

*Conceptual metaphor:* We consider ‘presence’ and ‘position’ as part of the domain COMPANY and, therefore, the topic of the linguistic metaphor ‘consolidated presence/position’ is COMPANY. Then, we infer that the conceptual metaphor is A CONSOLIDATED COMPANY IS A STRONG ENTITY.

### 5.3.2 Growth

The analysis of 573 corpus contexts for ‘growth’ gives as a result the identification of two contextual meanings:

1. *Contextual meaning 1.* In 61% of the citations, the lexical unit ‘growth’ indicates an increase in the number of something, e.g. sales of products or services, revenues, GDP, or a population and, therefore, it is generally countable, as shown in the examples below.
  - (5.6) Gruma Corporation achieved net sales growth of 14% due to better coverage, expansion into new markets, and the success of our product innovations.
  - (5.7) ... Telcel’s revenues growth outpaced that of total costs by 1.6 times.
  - (5.8) In the Valley of Mexico, we continued to capture growth in returnable presentations — mainly the 1.25-liter returnable glass bottle for brand [X].
2. *Contextual meaning 2.* The lexical unit ‘growth’ entails the development of an inanimate entity, such as a company, a country or a region; or the professional, personal or educational development of an animate entity, e.g. employees and/or communities.
  - (5.9) The company’s organic growth and the consolidation of Celcaribe beginning in February, led...
  - (5.10) Mexico’s tight fiscal and monetary policy contributed to Mexico’s tepid growth in 2003.
  - (5.11) We place a premium on our people’s educational growth and professional development.

*Basic meaning.* The most concrete and body-related sense of ‘growth’ given by MED is ‘an increase in the size or development of a living thing’.

*Contextual meaning versus basic meaning.* The first contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning because while ‘growth’ in the corpus contexts entails an inanimate entity, the basic meaning clearly indicates a living thing that becomes bigger in size or develops. Regarding the second contextual meaning found for ‘growth’, it also contrasts with the basic meaning because the corpus contexts indicate that ‘growth’ refers to the development of an inanimate entity; and, even when it refers to the development of employees, it does not mean that the employees become bigger in size but that they develop at a professional, personal or educational level.

*Metaphorical? Yes.*

*Conceptual metaphors:* When the topic of the linguistic metaphor ‘growth’ is sales, revenues or population, ‘growth’ instantiates the conceptual metaphor INCREASE OF AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS GROWTH OF AN ANIMATE ENTITY. In example 5.9, ‘growth’ is modified by ‘organic’. This modifier makes explicit the nature of the animate entity, that is to say, it is not any kind of animate entity, but a plant that can grow free of fertilizers or herbicides. The organic growth of a company means, thus, that the company is growing naturally and without chemical ‘fertilisers’, that is to say the company is not growing by acquiring new business or companies. The linguistic metaphor ‘organic growth’ instantiates the conceptual metaphor COMPANY IS A PLANT. In addition, when the linguistic metaphor ‘growth’ highlights the development of an inanimate entity or an animate entity, such as employees or communities, then ‘growth’ realises the conceptual metaphor DEVELOPMENT OF AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS GROWTH OF AN ANIMATE ENTITY.

In addition, the analysis reveals that ‘growth’ can also be understood in terms of a prey, either a person or an animal, to be captured or caught as illustrated by example 5.8. In this case, ‘capture’ has a topic ‘growth’ and the underlying conceptual metaphor is GROWTH IS A PREY.

### 5.3.2.1 Operations

After analysing all the concordances of ‘operations’ ( $f = 407$ ), two contextual meanings can be identified.

1. *Contextual meaning.* Five corpus contexts reveal that ‘operations’ entails the work or the action done by an industrial plant or facility, as the extracts below illustrate. The lexical unit ‘operations’ tends to be preceded by the lexical units ‘plant’ and ‘facility’:

(5.12) Our first tortilla plant in China will begin operations in late 2006.

(5.13) The facility is expected to commence operations in the first quarter of 2004 and to satisfy demand in Mexico. . .

(5.14) Located in Toluca, Mexico, this plant will start operations in the first quarter of 2005, with a PET recycling capacity of. . .

2. *Contextual meaning.* ‘Operations’ in 402 corpus contexts indicates the commercial activities of an entity, more specifically a company or its subsidiaries, or a company itself.

(5.15) In 2005 four of the company’s operations — Industria del Álcali, Química M, Vidriera México, and Vitro. . .

(5.16) Sales from non-Mexican operations constituted 68% of consolidated net sales in 2006.

(5.17) . . . appointed president of Mission Foods, Gruma Corporation’s tortilla operations.

*Basic meaning.* The sense which is considered the most concrete among all given by MED is ‘used about the way a machine or piece of equipment operates’; however, this is actually given as a subsense of the main sense: ‘the way that something such as system or service operates’. In line with the policy of Pragglejaz to consider the subsense as a materialisation of the main sense, the basic meaning is, then, considered to be the main sense (see section 4.2).

*Contextual meaning versus basic meaning.* There is no contrast between the first discussed contextual meaning of ‘operations’ and the basic meaning. On the other hand, the second contextual meaning of ‘operations’ contrasts with the basic meaning. The basic meaning of ‘operation’ is *how* a system or service works, while the contextual meaning indicates the commercial activities of a company or its subsidiaries. Then, it can be said that COMPANY is understood in terms of SYSTEM.

*Metaphorical?* Yes.

*Conceptual metaphor:* A COMPANY IS A SYSTEM

### 5.3.3 Metaphorically used collocates

In addition to the lexical units classified above as metaphorical, other lexical units are also identified as linguistic metaphors. These lexical units are not keywords, but collocates of a



keyword. These collocates are identified while reading the corpus contexts of a keyword. In fact, the keywords are the topic of the identified linguistic metaphors. To illustrate this, let us take the case of the lexical unit ‘debt’.

### 5.3.3.1 Debt

As previously said, the lexical unit ‘debt’ is not considered to be metaphorical since the contextual meaning and the basic meaning are the same. However, going through each corpus context for ‘debt’ allowed us to identify that in 11 corpus contexts the length of time that a debt exists is understood in terms of the length of time someone lives as shown in example 5.18 where the vehicle ‘life’ and the topic ‘debt’ occur. In addition, the date when the debt is due is referred to as ‘maturity’ in 18 corpus contexts (see example 5.19). The basic meaning of ‘maturity’ is defined as ‘full growth or completed development’ of an animate entity. As a result, it is possible to infer that at least two elements of the conceptual domain DEBT are understood in terms of the source domain AN ANIMATE ENTITY revealing the conceptual metaphor DEBT IS AN ANIMATE ENTITY.

(5.18) ... debt profile showed improvement: (1) the average life of the company’s debt as December 31, 2005, was 3.9 years, compared with 3.8 years. . .

(5.19) ... with 3.8 years for year-end 2004; (ii) approximately 62 percent of debt maturities due in 2006 are at the operating subsidiary level; (iii) our. . .

Other cases of keywords which are not considered metaphorical, but have metaphorical collocates are: ‘brand’, ‘company’, ‘costs’ and ‘profitability’.

### 5.3.3.2 Brand

After contrasting the contextual meaning with the basic meaning of the lexical unit ‘brand’, we can conclude that ‘brand’ is not metaphorical. However, within all the corpus contexts analysed, two show ‘brand’ in a collocation with the lexical unit ‘year old’ as shown below:

(5.20) ... we significantly improved sales of [X brand]-an enduring 100-year-old brand with a strong local heritage and presence in Mexico.

(5.21) In 2002 we seized the opportunity to satisfy consumers' diverse tastes with a growing portfolio of promising new beverages, such as [the name of three different beverages] ready made iced tea; to rejuvenate a popular 100-year-old brand, [X brand], in Mexico; and to launch a more affordable array of returnable plastic and glass presentations in all our marketplaces.

The expression 'year-old' is considered metaphorical because while the contextual meaning implies the age of a brand, an inanimate entity, the basic meaning of 'year old' is the number of years a person has been alive (as defined by MED). We can then infer that the conceptual metaphor is BRAND IS A PERSON in these two particular contexts. This conceptual metaphor is also realised by the expression 'rejuvenate' (see example 5.21. In this context, 'rejuvenate' means making the brand good or appealing again, but the basic meaning is 'to make someone feel or look younger or have more energy,' as defined by OED. We can conclude that the contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning and, more importantly, can be understood by comparison with it because we understand that brand, an inanimate entity, has been "alive" for several years. Hence, the conceptual metaphor BRAND IS A PERSON is instantiated by the linguistic metaphors 'year-old' and 'to rejuvenate' having as a topic BRAND.

### 5.3.3.3 Company

The lexical unit 'company' is not considered to be metaphorical; however, there are some instances where a company becomes the topic of the linguistic metaphors 'bond', 'life span', and 'years old' (see examples 5.22 and 5.23).

(5.22) By recovering the bond between our company and our customers, we will not only enhance our local market. . .

(5.23) As we entered 2005, América Móvil was a four-year old company that in its brief life span had managed to increase by six times. . .

In the context of example 5.22, the lexical unit 'bond' indicates a relationship between an inanimate entity, a company, and people. In contrast, the basic meaning of 'bond' is 'something that gives people or groups a reason to love one another or feel they have a duty to one another.' Based on the basic meaning, we can understand the contextual meaning and we can also infer that the conceptual metaphor is COMPANY IS A PERSON. In the same way as it was in the examples 5.20 and 5.21), the expression 'year old' in example 5.23 is considered metaphorical since it entails the age of an inanimate entity, in this case a company, in contrast to the basic

meaning which is the age of a person. So, the underlying conceptual metaphor is COMPANY IS A PERSON. In the same example, there is the expression 'life span' indicating that a company has existed for a period of time. According to MED, the basic meaning is 'the length of time that a person or animal lives or is expected to live'. It can be argued here that there are two possible underlying conceptual metaphors: COMPANY IS A PERSON or COMPANY IS AN ANIMAL. Bearing in mind that the linguistic metaphor 'year old', which realises the conceptual metaphor COMPANY IS A PERSON, precedes the linguistic metaphor 'life span', we consider that the active conceptual metaphor is COMPANY IS A PERSON. In addition, it is more likely to humanise a company and, consequently, make it less anonymous.

#### 5.3.3.4 Cost

Since there is no contrast between the contextual meaning and the basic meaning of 'cost', then it is not considered to be metaphorical. Despite that, 'cost' is often a collocate of 'absorption' in the English source texts. The collocation 'fixed-cost absorption' has a frequency of 18 (see examples 5.24, 5.25, and 5.26).

(5.24) In addition, the 3% decline in sales volume negatively affected fixed-cost absorption.

(5.25) ... the above-mentioned sales increase contributed to plant efficiency and furnace utilization, allowing for a higher fixed-cost absorption.

(5.26) ... Ps. 5,520 million, resulting in a 20.7% margin, as a result of lower fixed-cost absorption driven by lower average price per unit case.

In the concordance lines where the collocation occurs, the lexical unit 'absorption' refers to the fact that the costs incurred during the production of goods is assigned to each manufactured product. By contrast, the basic meaning, according to MED, is 'the process by which something takes in a substance, form of energy, or liquid.' The contextual meaning of the lexical unit 'absorption' contrasts with the basic meaning because 'cost', an abstract entity that is neither a substance nor a form of energy, is absorbed or taken in by something else. Thus, we can consider 'absorption' metaphorical.

Keeping in mind the basic meaning of the lexical unit 'absorption', it is reasonable to infer three conceptual metaphors: COST IS A SUBSTANCE, COST IS A FORM OF ENERGY or COST IS A LIQUID. To confirm which conceptual metaphor underlies 'absorption', Barcelona (2003, p. 247) suggests 'look[ing] for additional conventional linguistic expressions of the metaphor.' In other words, it is necessary to look for other instantiations of the above conceptual metaphors.

In line with Barcelona, the concordances of ‘cost’ were reviewed, but they did not shed light on this issue. Considering that the source domain LIQUID includes more tangible entities, such as water than the other source domains, the conceptual metaphor COST IS LIQUID is favoured.

### 5.3.3.5 Profitability

The manual analysis of each concordance of ‘profitability’ allows us to identify four instances where ‘profitability’ collocates with the noun ‘path’ in the expression ‘path to profitability’ resulting in the interpretation of ‘profitability’ as a destination which a company aims to reach (see examples 5.27 and 5.28 below). We can infer, thus, that the conceptual metaphor PROFITABILITY IS A DESTINATION is instantiated in the linguistic metaphor ‘path to profitability’.

(5.27) By forging closer stakeholder relationships, we regained the path to profitability in Brazil, growing consistently every month since we acquired. . .

(5.28) Better asset utilization and higher volume levels toward the second half of the year, helped us regain our path to profitability.

### 5.3.4 Summary

Up to this point we have described cases of lexical units found metaphorically used in the set of US English source texts along with the underlying conceptual metaphors. Table 5.3 summarises all these linguistic metaphors as well as the inferred conceptual metaphors.

## 5.4 Step 6 and 7: I am metaphorical, so how am I translated?

This section focuses on the application of two further steps in the extended MIP:

Step 6, which identifies the translation of the source linguistic metaphors by aligning the source texts and the target texts.

Step 7, which establishes whether the translation is metaphorical and, if so, what conceptual metaphor is realised.

Table 5.3: Linguistic metaphors identified in US source texts along with their underlying conceptual metaphors

consolidated [pre- sence/position]	A CONSOLIDATED COMPANY IS A STRONG ENTITY
growth [sales or revenues]	INCREASE OF AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS GROWTH OF AN ANIMATE ENTITY
organic growth	COMPANY IS A PLANT
capture [growth]	GROWTH IS A PREY
operations	COMPANY IS A SYSTEM
rejuvenate year-old	BRAND IS A PERSON
bond year-old life span	COMPANY IS A PERSON
absorption	COST IS LIQUID
life maturities	DEBT IS AN ANIMATE ENTITY
path	PROFITABILITY IS A DESTINATION

In line with our bottom-up approach, Step 6 is carried out by concordancing in Multiconcord each of the identified linguistic metaphors (see Table 5.3). By using Multiconcord, it is possible to align the sentences where a linguistic metaphor occurs, along with its translation. When appropriate, comparison between the frequency of the source linguistic metaphor and the frequency of its translation in Spanish will be shown. It is assumed that the higher the frequency of a linguistic metaphor, the more conventional a linguistic metaphor is. Nevertheless, meaningful comparison cannot be carried out in all cases due to the low frequency of the source linguistic metaphor.

### 5.4.1 Brand

As previously discussed, the conceptual metaphor BRAND IS A PERSON is instantiated by the linguistic metaphors ‘year-old’ and ‘rejuvenate’, illustrated in examples 5.29 and 5.30. The MX Spanish translations have now been added from the target texts.

(5.29) In 2002 we seized the opportunity to [...] rejuvenate a popular 100-year-old brand, [X brand], in Mexico; and ...

En 2002 aprovechamos la oportunidad de [. . .] rejuvenecer una marca de 100 años de antigüedad, [X marca], en México; y . . .

(5.30) . . . we significantly improved sales of [X brand]-an enduring 100-year-old brand with a strong local heritage and presence in Mexico.

. . . incrementamos significativamente las ventas de [X brand]- una marca con 100 años de historia y fuerte presencia en México.

Carrying out parallel concordances shows that ‘year-old’ has been translated by two different expressions: *años de antigüedad* [years of antiquity] and *años de historia* [years of history]. In contrast to the English expression ‘year-old’, the Spanish expressions do not convey the sense *age of a person*, rather they convey the idea that *something* is old. Although both Spanish translations convey the idea of old, we regard the expression *años de historia* as more neutral than *años de antigüedad*. The reason for that is that *historia* involves a series of events that triggers the development of people or something from its origins to the present, whereas *antigüedad* entails that something, such as a building or an object, was built or created long time ago and has been preserved. Having said that, the expression *años de antigüedad* is, as far as we know, often used to indicate the number of years a person has been working for a company, but not to indicate his/her age. The Spanish expressions are thus not used metaphorically and, consequently, do not instantiate any conceptual metaphor. Consequently, the conceptual metaphor BRAND IS A PERSON realised in the English source text by the linguistic metaphor ‘year old’ is not transferred into the translation and no other conceptual metaphor is used in the Spanish version either.

Regarding the linguistic metaphor ‘rejuvenate’, example 5.29 shows that the translation of ‘rejuvenate’ is *rejuvenecer* [rejuvenate]. Because the contextual meaning indicates the updating of a brand and the basic meaning is to make someone have energy or look younger<sup>3</sup>, it is concluded that the Spanish expression is used metaphorically and realises the conceptual metaphor BRAND IS A PERSON.

From the above, we can observe that there are different translation solutions to the linguistic metaphors ‘year-old’ and ‘rejuvenate’ despite both of them instantiating the conceptual metaphor BRAND IS A PERSON in English.

<sup>3</sup>The basic meaning is determined based on the definition given by *Diccionario del Español Usual de México (DEUM)*.

### 5.4.2 Company

COMPANY is the Topic domain of the conceptual metaphor COMPANY IS A PERSON instantiated by the linguistic metaphors ‘bond’, ‘life span’ and ‘year old’.

Below there are the only two occurrences of ‘bond’ in the English source texts along with their translations:

(5.31) In Brazil and Colombia-two new territories-we’re recovering the bond between our company and our customers by increasing our direct sales to retailers.

En Brasil, Colombia y Venezuela-tres<sup>4</sup> nuevos territorios-estamos recuperando la conexión entre nuestra compañía y nuestros clientes, incrementando el volumen de venta directa a los detallistas.

(5.32) By recovering the bond between our company and our customers, we will not only enhance our local market knowledge, but also expand our market coverage and penetration.

Recuperando el vínculo entre la Compañía y nuestros consumidores, no sólo fortaleceremos nuestro conocimiento del mercado local, sino que al mismo tiempo incrementaremos nuestra cobertura y penetración en el mercado.

These extracts are from two different annual reports, but both are issued by same company leading us to the assumption that the company is interested in not depicting the relationship with their consumers in a purely commercial fashion, but in a close personal way. It would be expected that ‘bond’ would be translated in the same way in both cases. However, the analysis shows that ‘bond’ is translated in two different ways: *conexión* [connection] in example 5.31 and *vínculo* [link] in example 5.32. Both translations succeed in transferring the idea that there is a link between the company and its customers. Nevertheless, whilst *vínculo* conveys the idea of an emotional link between people, *conexión* indicates the union of two things. It is, thus, concluded that *conexión* is not metaphorical in Spanish, whereas *vínculo* realises the conceptual metaphor COMPANY IS A PERSON, since it entails that a commercial relationship between a company and its customers is a bond between people.

In the set of MX Spanish source texts, *conexión* has a frequency of 11, all in annual reports of América Móvil, a telecommunications company. *Conexión* refers to Internet connection and, therefore, it is not used metaphorically. As to *vínculo*, it occurs 6 times and is used metaphorically in all cases. The examples below are from the set of MX source texts.

<sup>4</sup>There is a discrepancy between the source text and the target text. The source text indicates two new territories, but the target text says *tres* [three]. It is uncertain whether this discrepancy is due to a mistake made by the translator or a conscious mistake following an express desire of the client.

(5.33) ... tomando en cuenta nuestro vínculo con la comunidad...

(5.34) ... Grupo Bimbo se ha caracterizado por fomentar un fuerte vínculo con sus colaboradores y con la comunidad.

The examples above represent cases in which *vínculo* instantiates the conceptual metaphor COMPANY IS A PERSON. We assume, then, that the linguistic metaphor *vínculo* is more conventional in this sort of text than *conexión*.

The linguistic metaphor ‘year old’ is translated as *con [x] años* [with X years]. In contrast to the case of ‘year old’ as a collocates of ‘brand’ (see subsection 5.4.1), modifiers such as, *antigüedad* or *historia* (see examples 5.29 and 5.30), have not been added to the expression *con [x] años* in the translation. In the example below, the expression *con [x] años* conveys the idea of age of a person and, in this particular context, of the company. Thus, *con [x] años* is regarded as a linguistic metaphor and realises the conceptual metaphor COMPANY IS A PERSON.

(5.35) As we entered 2005, América Móvil was a four-year old company that in its brief life span had managed to increase by six times ...

Al comenzar 2005, América Móvil era una compañía con cuatro años. En su breve existencia ya había logrado expandir seis veces ...

As has been said before, the conceptual metaphor COMPANY IS A PERSON is also realised by the linguistic metaphor ‘life span’ in example 5.35. The translation given for ‘life span’ is *existencia*. According to DEUM, *existencia* means the period of time that someone lives or how someone lives their life<sup>5</sup>. Bearing in mind that the topic of ‘existencia’ is an inanimate entity, a company, *existencia* is considered a linguistic metaphor instantiating the conceptual metaphor COMPANY IS A PERSON.

### 5.4.3 Consolidated

The linguistic metaphor ‘consolidated’ instantiates the conceptual metaphor A CONSOLIDATED COMPANY IS A STRONG ENTITY. The linguistic metaphor ‘consolidated’ has a frequency of 6 and all are found in annual reports issued by the same company América Móvil. In fact, example 5.37 occur three times in annual reports from different years only with a modification in the number of subscribers (43 million, 61 million and 93 million).

<sup>5</sup>Existencia. ‘tiempo que dura la vida de alguien o manera de vivirla’ (Diccionario del Español Usual de México 1996, p. 419).



- (5.36) In 2002 Telecom Americas consolidated its presence as one of the main wireless operators in Brazil. . .  
Ya en 2002 Telecom Americas se consolidó como uno de los principales operadores de telefonía celular en Brasil. . .
- (5.37) . . . in the Central American region, where América Móvil consolidated its presence as the principal provider of telecommunications services.  
. . . en la región de Centroamérica, donde América Móvil consolidó su presencia como el principal proveedor de servicios de telecomunicaciones.
- (5.38) In 2003 América Móvil consolidated its position as the main telecom player in Central America. . .  
. . . América Móvil consolidó en el 2003 su posición como el grupo de telecomunicaciones más grande de Centroamérica.
- (5.39) América Móvil in 2005 consolidated its position as one of the largest wireless operators in the world. . .  
En 2005 América Móvil consolidó su posición como uno de los operadores celulares más grandes en el mundo.

The translation of ‘consolidated its presence/position’ is the same in almost all instances: *consolidó su presencia/su posición* [consolidated its presence/its position] except for one case (example 5.36). In this particular case, the expression ‘its presence’ is omitted and the verb is made reflexive, as illustrated below. The translation given to the other 5 instances follows very closely the structure of the source text (see examples 5.37 and 5.39).

- (5.40) *Telecom Americas se condolidó* . . .  
Telecom Americas itself consolidated . . .

*Consolidar* means to make something solid and firm, or to make it resistant, as defined by DEUM<sup>6</sup>. Contrasting the basic meaning and the contextual meaning of *consolidó*, it can be concluded that the lexical unit is metaphorical and instantiates the conceptual metaphor A CONSOLIDATED COMPANY IS A STRONG ENTITY.

<sup>6</sup>‘Consolidar’. ‘Dar solidez y firmeza a alguna cosa o asegurar mediante refuerzos la solidez o la resistencia de algo’ Diccionario del Español Usual de México (1996).

#### 5.4.4 Cost

The conceptual metaphor COST IS A LIQUID is widespread in the set of US English source texts and is instantiated by the linguistic metaphor ‘absorption’. We can recall that it occurs in the collocation ‘fixed-cost absorption’ where the topic ‘cost’ is explicit (example 5.41), but occasionally the topic is implicit as example 5.42 illustrates. All the instances of ‘absorption’ are translated as *absorción* which realises the same conceptual metaphor COST IS A LIQUID.

(5.41) Cost of sales as a percentage of net sales improved to 68.8% from 69.5% due to the lower corn costs and better fixed-cost absorption.

El costo de ventas como porcentaje de las ventas netas mejoró a 68.8% de 69.5% debido a menores costos de maíz y una mejor absorción de costos fijos.

(5.42) Cost of sales as a percentage of net sales improved to 66.0% from 68.7% due to better absorption resulting from the growth in sales volume discussed above.

El costo de ventas como porcentaje de ventas netas mejoró a 66.7% debido a la mejor absorción por el incremento en el volumen de ventas mencionado anteriormente.

In the set of MX Spanish source texts, the frequency of *absorción* is 4, and only 3 occur modifying *costos* (see example 5.43).

(5.43) ... una mayor absorción de los costos fijos como consecuencia del crecimiento en las ventas...

Comparatively, the linguistic metaphor ‘absorption’ is more frequent in US English source texts than the linguistic metaphor *absorción* in MX Spanish source texts and therefore, we consider that that the conceptual metaphor COST IS LIQUID is less conventional in MX Spanish in comparison to US English.

#### 5.4.5 Debt

The conceptual metaphor DEBT IS AN ANIMATE ENTITY is instantiated by the linguistic metaphors ‘life’ and ‘maturities’,  $f = 11$  and  $f = 18$ , respectively. The linguistic metaphor ‘life’ occurs once in an annual report of América Móvil and the remaining 10 in annual reports of Vitro. The translation of ‘life’ is *vida* [life] ( $f = 7$ ) and *plazo* [term] ( $f = 4$ ) (see for an example of each 5.44 and 5.45). In Spanish, *vida* realises the conceptual metaphor DEBT IS AN ANIMATE ENTITY. In contrast, *plazo* is not metaphorical, but it does convey the idea of a period of time.

(5.44) The average outstanding life of this debt is 8.2 years.

La vida promedio de la deuda es de 8.2 años.

(5.45) ... (1) and to extend the average life of our debt.

... (1), y extendió el plazo promedio de nuestra deuda.

In the set of MX Spanish source texts there is only one occurrence of *vida* [life] with *deuda* [debt] as Topic. This instance occurs in the 2006 annual report of Vitro. As pointed out in Section 3.1.6, the 2006 annual report is the only report<sup>7</sup> that Vitro produced originally in MX Spanish. This is of particular relevance because 10 out of 11 citations of ‘life’ found in the set of English source texts occur in the 2002-2005 annual reports of the same company. Thus, a possible reason for this unique occurrence of *vida* is that the person or people who put together the Spanish source annual report consulted the Spanish translation of the previous annual reports, where ‘life’ has been translated as *vida*. On the other hand, *plazo* [term] has a frequency of 116 in the MX Spanish source texts. 32 of which are a collocate of *deuda*. This finding leads us to conclude that the use of *plazo* along with *debt* tends to be the norm in MX Spanish and, therefore the conceptual metaphor DEBT IS AN ANIMATE ENTITY is not conventionalised in MX Spanish.

As to ‘maturities’, the most common translation is *vencimientos* [termination of a term] ( $f = 14$ ), as shown in example 5.46. There is also one case of transposition: *vence* [it-expire] (see example 5.47). Neither *vencimiento(s)* nor *vencer* are considered metaphorical in Spanish. The analysis also shows that there are 3 cases of modulation<sup>8</sup> resulting in the omission of the source linguistic metaphor as illustrated by example 5.48.

(5.46) The new syndicated loan also allows the company to extend debt maturities and substantially improve its debt profile.

El nuevo crédito sindicado también permite a la compañía extender sus vencimientos de deuda y mejorar sustancialmente el perfil de la misma.

(5.47) We also expect to extend our maturities on debt coming due at the end of 2005.

Asimismo, esperamos ampliar los plazos de la deuda que vence a fines del 2005.

(5.48) GRUMA obtains a US\$250 million, 5-year syndicated senior credit facility, using the proceeds to extend debt maturities.

GRUMA obtiene un crédito sindicado a cinco años por 250 millones de dólares, utilizando los recursos para refinanciar deuda.

<sup>7</sup>The 2002-2005 annual reports are originally written in English.

<sup>8</sup>Modulation is ‘a variation of the form of the message, obtained by a change in the point of view’, as defined by Vinay and Darbelnet (1995, p. 36).

It is worth mentioning that 7 out of 18 instances of ‘debt maturities’ collocate with the verb ‘extend’ (see, for instance, examples 5.46, 5.47 and 5.48). 3 of those 7 instances are translated as *refinanciar deuda* [to-refinance debt]; 2 instances are translated closely to the structure of the English source: *extender sus vencimientos de deuda* [to spread out debt maturities]; 1 is translated as *alargar los vencimientos de deuda* [to extend debt maturities] and 1, as *ampliar los plazos de la deuda que vence* [to extend the term of a debt when it matures]. The transposition which occurred in example 5.47 (noun to verb) seems to be due to the grammatical rules of Spanish. Whilst the verbs *extender*, *alargar* and *ampliar* convey the idea that the date when the debt is due, is postponed, the verb *refinanciar* seems to be a specialised term which indicates that the debt maturity is extended as a consequence of obtaining another loan.

Based on the above, it can be concluded that the conceptual metaphor DEBT IS AN ANIMATE ENTITY, realised by the linguistic metaphor ‘maturities’ in English, is not instantiated in Spanish. At the linguistic level, ‘maturities’ is translated literally ( $f = 15$ ) and omitted on 3 occasions.

### 5.4.6 Growth

At the linguistic level, ‘growth’ can act as the topic or as the vehicle of a linguistic metaphor. The lexical item ‘growth’ acts as a vehicle when it indicates an increase in something, e.g. sales of products or services, revenues, GDP, or a population. In these cases, ‘growth’ instantiates INCREASE OF AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS GROWTH OF AN ANIMATE ENTITY.

Table 5.4 shows translations for ‘growth’ as a realisation of INCREASE OF AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS GROWTH OF AN ANIMATE ENTITY, revealed by the parallel concordance. The translations are sorted in order of frequency, as shown below:

Table 5.4: Translations for ‘growth’

Translation	<i>f</i>	Translation	<i>f</i>
crecimiento (n)	297	expansión (n)	4
incremento (n)	32	aumento (n)	3
crecer (v)	13	incrementar (v)	2
incremental (adj.)	11	más (adj)	2
mayor (adj.)	5		

The lexical units *incremento* [increase], *incremental* [incremental], *mayor* [greater number of something], *aumento* [increase], *incrementar* [to increase], *más* [more], *expansión* [expansion] are not metaphorical because their basic meaning and their contextual meaning do not contrast.

That is to say, all of them convey the literal meaning of increasing, as illustrated in the following examples:

(5.49) This volume growth was partially offset by a decline in our jug water volume. . .

El incremento en los volúmenes de refrescos compensó la caída de los volúmenes de agua embotellada en garrafón. . .

(5.50) The EBITDA margin fell to 0.4% for 2004 in light of the strong subscriber growth mentioned above. . .

El margen de EBITDA cayó a 0.4% en 2004 dada la fuerte expansión de suscriptores . . . .

(5.51) Freight expenses increased in connection with (1) growth in sales to corporate customers for whom the company usually pays freight expenses. . .

Los gastos de fletes se incrementaron debido a [1] mayores ventas a clientes corporativos, a los que normalmente se les cubre el flete. . .

As shown in Table 5.4, the most common translation for ‘growth’ is *crecimiento*, as illustrated below:

(5.52) Strong subscriber growth allowed Mexico’s wireless penetration to increase by 6.8 percentage points in 2004 to 36%.

El fuerte crecimiento de suscriptores impulsó un incremento en la penetración móvil en México de 6.8 puntos porcentuales en el 2004, hasta alcanzar 36%.

(5.53) GRUMA’s management is always seeking profitable growth opportunities.

La administración de GRUMA está en constante búsqueda de oportunidades de crecimiento rentable.

The DEUM defines *crecimiento* as the development of a living entity until reaching its maturity<sup>9</sup>. Given the examples above and considering the basic meaning, we suggest that *crecimiento* is an instantiation of the conceptual metaphor INCREASE OF AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS GROWTH OF AN ANIMATE ENTITY. Comparatively, *crecimiento* in MX Spanish source texts is slightly less frequent than ‘growth’ in US English source texts (.19% and .27%, respectively). This leads us to assume that INCREASE OF AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS GROWTH OF AN ANIMATE ENTITY enjoys a certain level of conventionality in both languages.

<sup>9</sup>Crecimiento. ‘Desarrollo de un ser vivo hasta alcanzar su madurez’ (Diccionario del Español Usual de México 1996, p. 295).

The lexical unit ‘growth’ is also the instantiation of the conceptual metaphor COMPANY IS A PLANT when it collocates with ‘organic’. As previously stated, the collocation ‘organic growth’ is seen as a linguistic metaphor with a frequency of 10 in the set of US English source texts. Let us look at some examples that illustrate this linguistic metaphor:

(5.54) Reflecting both the organic growth of the company’s revenues and the incorporation of the firms acquired throughout the year...

... reflejando tanto el crecimiento orgánico de los ingresos de las compañías como la incorporación de las empresas adquiridas a lo largo del año.

(5.55) A significant part of América Móvil’s expansion took place in 2003 as the firm gained 12.1 million new wireless subscribers – approximately two thirds of them through organic growth – and 830 thousand fixed lines.

Una parte significativa de la expansión de América Móvil tuvo lugar en 2003, cuando la firma aumentó en 12.1 millones su base de suscriptores de telefonía inalámbrica – aproximadamente dos terceras partes a través de su crecimiento orgánico – y en 830 mil el número de líneas fijas.

(5.56) We also will continue to concentrate on organic growth and to selectively study investment opportunities in our core glass and packaging markets.

Asimismo, buscaremos crecer orgánicamente y estudiaremos selectivamente las oportunidades de inversión en nuestros mercados clave de vidrio y empaque.

The linguistic metaphor ‘organic growth’ is translated as *crecimiento orgánico* in 7 out of 10 occurrences. The translation is also a realisation of the conceptual metaphor COMPANY IS A PLANT. The remaining three are translated as the verb *crecer orgánicamente* and stem from annual reports from América Móvil, a mobile communications company. A grammatical change can be observed, but not a semantic change; however, whereas in English the topic ‘company’ is implicit, in Spanish the topic is *nosotros* [we] explicitly made by the preceding verb *buscar* in the third person plural. It could be argued that *we* is used metonymically to refer to a company — people for institution — since ‘company’ basically means a group of people that get together for not being alone and/or for doing something together<sup>10</sup>. However, the issue of metonymy goes beyond the scope of this study<sup>11</sup> and, therefore, we conclude that *crecer orgánicamente* does not instantiate the conceptual metaphor COMPANY IS A PLANT.

Concordancing the expression *crecimiento orgánico* in the set of MX Spanish source texts reveals that it has a frequency of 6, 5 of which occur in annual reports of Telmex, a telephone

<sup>10</sup>The basic meaning of ‘company’ was determined by consulting both MED and OED.

<sup>11</sup>The issue of conceptual metaphor and conceptual metonymy is discussed in Section 7.3.

company. This leads us to conclude that the expressions ‘organic growth’ and *crecimiento orgánico* are typical in the business of telecommunications. However, consulting the Dictionary of Accounting (2007), a specialised English dictionary, ‘organic growth’ was found to be an entry. We assume, therefore, that this expression has been conventionalised in the English language of financial accountancy; however, no entry for *crecimiento orgánico* was found in any of the specialised Spanish dictionaries consulted. As a result, we conclude that this translation is a lexical calque and it continues to realise the conceptual metaphor COMPANY IS A PLANT.

As mentioned at the beginning of this subsection, the lexical unit ‘growth’ can be the topic of a linguistic metaphor and, consequently, the topic of a conceptual metaphor. To illustrate this, let us consider the following examples:

(5.57) Our company is financially strong and well positioned to capture the growth in Latin America and to take advantage of the opportunities in the future.

Nuestra compañía es financieramente sólida y está en una excelente posición para captar el crecimiento en América Latina y tomar ventaja de las oportunidades en el futuro.

(5.58) In the Valley of Mexico, we continued to capture growth in returnable presentations . . .

En el Valle de México, continuamos capturando crecimiento en las presentaciones retornables. . .

In examples 5.57 and 5.58, ‘growth’ is the topic of the linguistic metaphor ‘capture’, which instantiates GROWTH IS A PREY. As the examples above show, two different translations are given to ‘capture’: *captar* [to perceive] in example 5.57, and *capturando* [capturing] in example 5.58. We regard the latter as metaphorical, instantiating the same conceptual metaphor as in English: GROWTH IS A PREY. In contrast, *captar* does not instantiate the same conceptual metaphor, but a different conceptual metaphor COMPANY IS A PERSON. The basic meaning of *captar* is to perceive something with our senses, such as sounds or signals, as defined by DEUM<sup>12</sup>. In the context of example 5.57, *captar* entails that a company can receive or perceive growth, but it does not convey the meaning of catching a prey as ‘capture’ entails in English. Hence, it seems that *captar* metaphorically entails that a company is a person and, therefore, is able to perceive growth with its senses .

<sup>12</sup>Captar. Percibir los sentidos de una persona alguna cosa que hay o que sucede a su alrededor: *captar unos cuantos sonidos* (Diccionario del Español Usual de México 1996, p. 214).

### 5.4.7 Operations

The linguistic metaphor ‘operations’ having as a topic COMPANY realises the conceptual metaphor COMPANY IS A SYSTEM in the set of US English source texts. The parallel concordance reveals that the most common translation of ‘operations’ is *operaciones* [operations] ( $f = 300$ ). Table 5.5 shows all the translations in frequency order.

Table 5.5: Translations for ‘operations’

Translation	<i>f</i>	Translation	<i>f</i>
operaciones (pl. n)	300	operar (v)	3
operación (s. n)	23	empresas (pl. n)	2
negocios (pl. n)	7	operadoras (pl. n)	2
subsidiarias (pl. n)	5	instalaciones (pl. n)	1
operativa (adj.)	5	división (s. n)	1
plantas (pl. n)	4		

The lexical units *plantas* [plants] and *instalaciones* [facilities] refer to the industrial facilities that a company has. Therefore they are not considered to be metaphorical. The cases of *negocios* [businesses], *subsidiarias* [subsidiaries], *división* [a company’s department], *empresas* [ventures] and *operadora* [company] are not considered metaphorical either. We consider none of these translations a mistranslation because they make explicit the contextual meaning of ‘operations’, which is a company’s subsidiaries, or a company itself, as shown in the following:

(5.59) ... and the Brazilian operations had also made significant progress in the same direction.

... y las operadoras en Brasil ya estaban encaminadas en la misma dirección.

(5.60) Overall, our Central American operations more than doubled their wireless subscriber base ...

... nuestras subsidiarias en Centro América más que duplicaron la base de suscriptores móviles en comparación al 2003.

Table 5.5 above also indicates that some translations are transpositions<sup>13</sup>, that is to say ‘operations’, which is a noun in English, is translated as *operar*, a verb, and *operativa*, an adjective.

<sup>13</sup>A transposition, as defined by Vinay and Darbelnet (1995, p. 36) ‘involves replacing one word class with another without changing the meaning.’



The lexical unit *operaciones*, the most common translation, is not regarded as metaphorical either. The most concrete sense of *operaciones* given by DEUM, and therefore considered to be the basic meaning, is the act of performing surgery, while the contextual meaning is the commercial activities carried out by a company (see examples 5.61, 5.62 and 5.63). Accordingly, the contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning; however, the latter cannot be understood by comparison with the basic meaning.

The use of *operación* in Spanish seems to be a case of borrowing<sup>14</sup>. In principle, a borrowing is so widely used that the borrowed word is not considered a “foreign word”, but part of the lexicon of the target language. However, by comparing the relative frequency of *operaciones* in the set of MX Spanish source texts and the relative frequency of in US English source texts (.16% and .29%, respectively), it seems that *operaciones* is relatively less used than ‘operations’.

(5.61) By the end of the year América Móvil’s operations served 31.6 million subscribers in seven countries in the Americas, 94% of them in Latin America.

Al cierre de 2 002, las operaciones de América Móvil servían a 31.6 millones de suscriptores en siete países de América, de los cuales el 94% estaban en América Latina.

(5.62) Gruma Corporation is a leading corn flour and tortilla producer and marketer having operations in the United States and Europe.

Gruma Corporation es un productor y comercializador líder de tortillas y harina de maíz con operaciones en Estados Unidos y Europa.

(5.63) ... our Argentine operations achieved the highest operating margin in their history. ...

... nuestras operaciones argentinas alcanzaron el más alto margen de utilidad operativa en la historia. ...

### 5.4.8 Profitability

The linguistic metaphor ‘path’ has a frequency of 4 having as a topic PROFITABILITY as shown below:

(5.64) Path to Profitability

Rumbo a la rentabilidad

<sup>14</sup>According to Vinay and Darbelnet (1995, p. 32), a borrowing is the use of a word or expression from the source language into the target language.

- (5.65) By forging closer stakeholder relationships, we regained the path to profitability in Brazil, growing consistently every month since we acquired the operations.  
Fortaleciendo las relaciones con nuestros empleados, proveedores y clientes, hemos incrementado la rentabilidad de Brasil consistentemente desde que tomamos control de las operaciones.
- (5.66) Better asset utilization and higher volume levels toward the second half of the year, helped us regain our path to profitability in Venezuela.  
Una mayor utilización de activos productivos y mayores volúmenes de venta durante la segunda mitad del año, ayudaron a retomar el camino hacia la rentabilidad en Venezuela.
- (5.67) The implementation of new commercialization and point of sale development strategies improved our packaging and product mix during the year, helping us regain the path to profitability during the second half of 2003.  
Como resultado de la implementación de nuevas estrategias de comercialización y el desarrollo de nuevos puntos de venta, logramos mejorar la mezcla de empaques durante el año, retomando el camino hacia la rentabilidad durante la segunda mitad del año.

The linguistic metaphor ‘path’ is translated as *rumbo* [course] (once), as *camino* [path] (twice) and omitted ( $\emptyset$ ) once. The lexical units *rumbo* and *camino* convey the idea of a place which the company is aiming to reach. As a result, we treat *rumbo* and *camino* as linguistic metaphors instantiating the conceptual metaphor PROFITABILITY IS A DESTINATION. It is important to note that all the instances come from the 2003 annual report of a beverage company. In fact, example 5.64 is the heading of example 5.65 where the source linguistic metaphor is omitted in the target text. This has a particular relevance because, as Cameron (2003, p. 175) points out, ‘the lack of vehicle development in the text may lead to difficulties in making use of the metaphor to restructure topic knowledge.’ For instance, in English the heading ‘Path to profitability’ indicates to the readers what it is coming up and also informs the readers that the company is overcoming their financial troubles. We understand that in the past the company had struggled to make profits, but is now ‘on track’. The use of the expression ‘path to profitability’ in the sentence following the heading reinforces that message. However, in Spanish a lack of repetition of the expression *rumbo a la rentabilidad* makes it difficult to reinforce the message conveyed by the heading. From the translation perspective, the omission of the vehicle or the change of vehicle may fail to convey the pragmatic function of the source linguistic metaphor, as suggested by Wikberg (2004, p. 262). Let us recall that annual reports seek to persuade investors to buy company shares, thus in this particular case the beverage company is interested in emphasising that not making profits in Brazil is water under the bridge

and now it is a profitable business, and therefore there is no risk in investing in it. By repeating the expression ‘path to profitability’, we suggest that the readership is reassured and more likely to be persuaded to invest in the company and, specifically in the Brazilian operations. Although the Spanish translation *incrementado la rentabilidad* [increased profitability] conveys the meaning that profits are higher, we consider that it is not as persuasive as the English source text.

Concordancing *rumbo* and *camino* in the set of MX Spanish source texts, we note that the former is less frequent than the latter,  $f = 2$  and  $f = 13$ , respectively. None of the citations of *rumbo* in the MX source texts are related to profitability, as illustrated in examples 5.68 and 5.69. In addition, we observed that in these contexts *rumbo* conveys the idea of the direction towards which someone or something is going, but not necessarily a final destination, as ‘path’ does in English.

(5.68) Nos sentimos muy orgullosos del rumbo que ha tomado nuestro negocio editorial. . .

(5.69) . . . el rumbo de todas nuestras acciones. . .

(5.70) . . . de retomar el camino de los buenos resultados.

(5.71) En el camino hacia el crecimiento y la rentabilidad nos hemos constituido como una empresa. . .

Given examples 5.70 and 5.71, we suggest that *camino* not only instantiates the conceptual metaphor PROFITABILITY IS A DESTINATION, but it also seems to be more conventional in MX Spanish than *rumbo*.

## 5.5 Summary

The analysis of 31 KWs of the US English source texts applying the extended MIP indicates that the majority of the KWs are not metaphorical. Nevertheless, the KWs approach allows us to identify some linguistic metaphors with high frequency, such as ‘growth’. In addition, looking around the KWs has produced interesting results. For instance, a keyword may not be considered metaphorical, but it can be the topic of a linguistic metaphor, e.g. ‘profitability’. Table 5.6 shows the identified linguistic metaphors along with the underlying conceptual metaphor (left column) and on the right shows the translations given indicating the underlying conceptual metaphor, if any.

Table 5.6: Linguistic metaphors identified in US source texts along with their underlying conceptual metaphors, their translations in MX Spanish and the underlying conceptual metaphor

BRAND IS A PERSON rejuvenate ( $f = 1$ )	BRAND IS A PERSON <i>rejuvenecer</i>
year-old ( $f = 2$ )	No Conceptual Metaphor <i>años de antigüedad</i> <i>años de historia</i>
COMPANY IS A PERSON bond ( $f = 2$ )	COMPANY IS A PERSON <i>vínculo</i>
year-old ( $f = 1$ )	No Conceptual Metaphor <i>conexión</i>
life span ( $f = 1$ )	COMPANY IS A PERSON <i>con X años</i>
A CONSOLIDATED COMPANY IS A STRONG ENTITY consolidated [presence/position] ( $f = 6$ )	COMPANY IS A PERSON <i>existencia</i>
A CONSOLIDATED COMPANY IS A STRONG ENTITY consolidated [presence/position] ( $f = 6$ )	A CONSOLIDATED COMPANY IS A STRONG ENTITY <i>consolidó su presencia/posición</i>
COST IS LIQUID absorption ( $f = 18$ )	COST IS LIQUID <i>absorción</i>
DEBT IS AN ANIMATE ENTITY life ( $f = 11$ )	DEBT IS AN ANIMATE ENTITY <i>vida (f = 7)</i>
maturities ( $f = 18$ )	No conceptual metaphor <i>plazo (f = 4)</i>
INCREASE OF AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS GROWTH OF AN ANIMATE ENTITY growth [sales or revenues]	No conceptual metaphor <i>vencimiento (f = 14), vencer (f = 1), omission (f = 3)</i>
	No Conceptual metaphor <i>aumento, expansión, incremental, incrementar, incremento, más, mayor</i>
<i>continued on next page</i>	

	INCREASE OF AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS GROWTH OF AN ANIMATE ENTITY <i>crecimiento</i> ( $f = 297$ ) <i>crecer</i> ( $f = 13$ )
COMPANY IS A PLANT organic growth ( $f = 10$ )	COMPANY IS A PLANT <i>crecimiento orgánico</i> ( $f = 7$ ) <i>crecer orgánicamente</i> ( $f = 3$ )
GROWTH IS A PREY capture [growth] ( $f = 2$ )	GROWTH IS A PREY <i>capturar</i> ( $f = 1$ ) No Conceptual Metaphor <i>captar</i> ( $f = 1$ )
COMPANY IS A SYSTEM operations ( $f = 300$ )	No Conceptual Metaphor <i>división, empresas, instalaciones, negocios, operación(es), operadora, plantas, subsidiarias</i>
PROFITABILITY IS A DESTINATION path ( $f = 4$ )	PROFITABILITY IS A DESTINATION <i>camino</i> ( $f = 2$ ) <i>rumbo</i> ( $f = 1$ ) omission ( $f = 1$ )

We also observed that those linguistic metaphors with low frequency tend to occur in annual reports of the same company. For instance, the linguistic metaphor ‘path’ is a realisation of PROFITABILITY IS A DESTINATION and occurs only in the 2003 annual report of a beverages company. Hence, conceptual metaphors not only help us to understand and experience a concept in terms of another, but it seems that they also serve pragmatic purposes, such as conveying the company image. Failure to transfer the conceptual metaphor to the target text may affect the pragmatic purpose.

Having a bidirectional parallel corpus allows us to ascertain the conventionality of conceptual metaphors. For instance, DEBT IS AN ANIMATE ENTITY turned out to be not conventionalised in the MX Spanish source texts. Nevertheless, it is hard to establish the conventionality of a conceptual metaphor either in US English or in MX Spanish when its realisation has a very low frequency. For instance, the linguistic metaphor ‘rejuvenate’ occurs only once in the US source texts, then it is not possible to establish its conventionality in US English.

Another issue that can be observed is that a concept can be the Topic of different conceptual metaphors. Let us recall the case of COMPANY which is the Topic of the conceptual metaphors COMPANY IS A PERSON, A CONSOLIDATED COMPANY IS A STRONG ENTITY, COMPANY IS A PLANT and COMPANY IS A SYSTEM. Similarly, a concept can be the Source domain of

different conceptual metaphors. See, for instance, the concept of PERSON in the conceptual metaphors BRAND IS A PERSON and COMPANY IS A PERSON.

Section 5.4 focused on describing how the linguistic metaphors in the US English source texts were translated into MX Spanish. The translation patterns found in the US-MX Sub-corpus will be discussed in detail in Chapter 7 along with the translation patterns identified in the MX-US Sub-corpus.

# Chapter 6

## Analysis of MX $\Rightarrow$ US Sub-corpus

*... translation in the Americas is less something that happens between separate and distinct cultures and more something that is constitutive of those cultures. [...] Despite the fundamental nature of translation in the Americas, translation studies is still an emerging discipline.* (Gentzler 2008, pp. 4-5)

The present chapter contains the analysis of annual reports written originally in Mexican Spanish and translated into American English. This set of data forms part of the Bidirectional English  $\Leftrightarrow$  Spanish Parallel Corpus (see Table 3.3) and will be referred as the Mexican Spanish  $\Rightarrow$  American English sub-corpus (MX-US sub-corpus). The analysis of the MX-US sub-corpus is carried out in the same way as the one carried out with the annual reports originally written in US English and translated into MX Spanish (US-MX sub-corpus), described in Chapter 5. This Chapter follows the same structure as the preceding chapter, following the extended Metaphor Identification Procedure, moving from the linguistic metaphor to the conceptual metaphor.

### **6.1 Step 1: Understand the overall meaning of the texts by identifying the common characteristics and purposes of a set of texts**

As the MX-US sub-corpus contains the same type of texts –annual reports–, the nature of the texts is the same as the annual reports included in the US-MX sub-corpus. See 5.1 for a detailed description.

## 6.2 Step 2: Create a KKW's database for the MX Spanish source texts

As indicated in Chapter 3<sup>1</sup>, KeyWords is used to create a KKW's database, now applied to the Mexican Spanish source texts. Table 6.1 shows settings for KeyWords to create a KKW's database specifically for the MX Spanish source texts. The minimum frequency for the database has been set to 12 (texts). By setting the frequency at 12, KeyWords includes in the KKW database only keywords which appear in more than half of the total number of MX Spanish annual reports (23 texts). The minimum number of KWs per text and the  $p$ -value are the same settings as those used to create the KKW's database for US source texts, 1 and .000001, respectively.

Table 6.1: Settings for KKW's database for MX Spanish source texts

Procedure	Log likelihood
$p$ -value	0.000001
Database total files	23
Min. frequency for database	12
Min. keywords per text for database	1

Table 6.2 shows the resulting 69 KWs for the US source texts. The KWs are ranked in ascending order of cumulative frequency or 'overall frequency', as it is called in WordSmith, of the KWs, that is to say the sum of the frequencies of a KW in each Mexican Spanish source text. The table also shows the number of texts in which the keywords occur. Thus, for instance, *promover* has a frequency of 28 and occurs in 12 annual reports, while *ventas* has a frequency of 559 and occurs in 13 annual reports. The KKW's database (see Table 6.2) includes the singular and plural forms of a lexical unit as two different keywords since the KWs are not lemmatized. This can be observed in the cases of *empresa* [company] and *empresas* [companies] ( $f = 432$  and  $f = 150$ , respectively), *mercado* [market] and *mercados* [markets] ( $f = 342$  and  $f = 77$ , respectively), *negocio* [business] and *negocios* [businesses] ( $f = 226$  and  $f = 149$ , respectively), *operación* [operation] and *operaciones* [operations] ( $f = 422$  and  $f = 322$ , respectively), *proceso* [process] and *procesos* [processes] ( $f = 64$  and  $f = 58$ , respectively), and *programa* [program] and *programas* [programs] ( $f = 105$  and  $f = 190$ , respectively). All these lexical units are nouns and presumably, whether in singular or plural form, have the same contextual meaning. However, to be certain, each form was treated separately in order to establish the contextual meaning (Step 3.a).

<sup>1</sup>Chapter 3 explains how WordSmith 4, including KeyWords works and what settings need to be configured.



Table 6.2: KWs from the MX Spanish source texts

<b>KW</b>	<b>Overall Frequency</b>	<b>Texts</b>	<b>KW</b>	<b>Overall Frequency</b>	<b>Texts</b>
promover	28	12	manera	107	16
condiciones	45	12	menores	111	13
pago	46	12	base	115	17
apoyo	49	13	capacidad	115	21
mantener	49	16	compromiso	116	18
promoción	49	12	promedio	117	13
consumo	53	12	neta	119	14
procesos	58	12	monto	136	14
cabo	59	12	accionistas	138	14
oportunidades	59	13	mayores	144	17
personas	59	16	costo	146	12
reconocimiento	59	17	negocios	149	16
expansión	60	14	empresas	150	16
desempeño	62	15	acceso	164	13
sistemas	62	15	disminución	165	15
tiempo	63	18	aumento	173	15
proceso	64	14	deuda	181	16
sociedad	65	13	programas	190	17
necesidades	71	12	distribución	210	14
acuerdo	72	13	negocio	226	22
comerciales	73	14	acciones	228	21
margen	74	13	comparación	235	12
grandes	75	15	costos	262	18
mundial	75	14	estados	269	19
mercados	77	12	productos	300	18
puntos	79	15	operaciones	322	20
cuenta	80	16	gastos	326	20
mundo	82	16	mercado	342	22
menor	90	12	crecimiento	350	16
proyectos	90	14	incremento	399	18
segmento	90	12	operación	422	18
cambio	97	14	empresa	432	22
consejo	104	15	compañía	460	18
número	104	15	ventas	559	13
programa	105	15			

Each of the keywords in Table 6.2 are lexical units subject to analysis according to the extended Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP).

## 6.3 Step 3, 4 and 5. To be or not to be metaphorical: Spanish lexical units

As noted in Chapter 5, the lexical units included in our KWs list undergo Steps 3, 4 and 5 of the MIP. Let us illustrate these steps by analysing *empresa* [company], a lexical unit which occurs in almost all annual reports (22 out of 23) and has a frequency of 432 in this singular form, and 150 in the plural form (*empresas*[companies]) which occurs in 16 annual reports.

Step 3.a involves concordancing a lexical unit, i.e. a particular word form, and reading each of the corpus contexts (concordance lines). The analysis of the concordance of both *empresa* and *empresas* helps us to determine that *empresa*, either in a singular or plural form, entails an organisation or organisations focused on manufacturing, selling or buying a product, and/or providing a service. To illustrate the contextual meaning, consider the following examples:

- (6.1) Por otro lado, en Ecuador, TELMEX adquirió el 100% de Ecutel, empresa que presta servicios de telecomunicaciones a clientes en el segmento. . .
- (6.2) un monto aproximado de US\$4.8 millones de dólares en OCESA Entretenimiento, la empresa asociada dedicada al entretenimiento en vivo de la cual la Compañía tiene. . .
- (6.3) El 18 de marzo de 2004, la Compañía adquirió las empresas de confitería Joyco de México, S.A. de C.V., Alimentos Duval, S.A. de C.V. y Lolimen, S.A. de C.V. . . .

Step 3.b involves determining the basic meaning as it is understood by the Pragglejazz Group by means of *Diccionario del Español Usual de México* (DEUM 1996) as a primary reference dictionary and *Diccionario de Uso del Español de Marta Moliner* (2007) as a secondary reference dictionary, as indicated in Chapter 4. DEUM defines *empresa* as ‘organización comercial o industrial que se dedica a fabricar objetos, dar servicios o espectáculos, vender cosas, etc.’

Step 3.c consists of i) contrasting the basic meaning and the contextual meaning of each lexical unit and, if they are different, ii) establishing whether the basic meaning helps us to understand the contextual meaning. In the case of *empresa*, there is no contrast between the contextual meaning and the basic meaning. This leads us to the following crucial step (4) which entails determining whether the lexical unit is metaphorical or not. As we conclude in step 3.c that there is no contrast between the contextual meaning and the basic meaning, consequently *empresa* is not metaphorical. Step 5 is then redundant.

The following subsections report those Spanish lexical units that are found to be metaphorical after applying the extended MIP: *compromiso* [commitment] ( $f = 116$ ), *crecimiento* [growth] ( $f = 350$ ), *desempeño* [performance] ( $f = 62$ ) and *reconocimiento* [recognition] ( $f = 59$ ).

### 6.3.1 Compromiso

*Compromiso* [commitment] occurs 116 times in the set of MX Spanish source texts. The analysis of all its occurrences brings to light three contextual meanings:

*Contextual meaning 1.* *compromiso* is when a person or a group of people undertakes an obligation with another person or a group of people. Thus, this contextual meaning tends to be active when the following pattern occurs: a possessive adjective, such as nuestro [our] + *compromiso* + con (with) + people.

(6.4) Señores Accionistas, agradecemos su confianza y reiteramos nuestro compromiso con ustedes y con México.

(6.5) Confirmamos nuestro compromiso con nuestros clientes. . .

(6.6) Consolidando nuestro compromiso con los Clientes

*Contextual meaning 2.* *Compromiso* also entails that a person or a group of people undertakes an obligation with an inanimate entity, such as a country (see example 6.7), quality (see example 6.8) and development (see example 6.9). The pattern that follows this contextual meaning is similar to the one explained above, except that after the preposition *con*, there is an inanimate entity.

(6.7) Nuestro compromiso con México.

(6.8) Consolidando nuestro compromiso con la calidad

(6.9) Estas decisiones estratégicas forman parte de nuestro compromiso con el desarrollo de la empresa.

*Contextual meaning 3.* In addition to the above contextual meanings, *compromiso* entails an obligation undertaken by an inanimate entity, such as a company, a foundation or a country. See, for instance, the following citations:

(6.10) Telmex mantiene su compromiso con la sociedad a través de diversas iniciativas. . .

(6.11) . . . nuestra empresa mantiene y mantendrá vigente su compromiso con el país.

(6.12) De igual forma, una parte importante del compromiso de TELMEX con México es impulsar. . .

For the third contextual meaning, there are two possible patterns: a possessive adjective, such as *su* [its] + *compromiso* + *con* (with) + inanimate entities, or a definite article + *compromiso* + *de* (of indicating ownership) + *con* [with] + an inanimate entity.

*Basic meaning.* DEUM defines *compromiso* as ‘obligación que alguien contrae por haber hecho una promesa, un contrato, un acuerdo, etc.’ Here it is evident that it is a person who makes a promise, a contract or an agreement. This definition also implies that the promise is made to another person.

*Metaphorical?* There is no contrast between the first contextual meaning and the basic meaning. In fact, the basic meaning is the meaning in the examples given: a person made a commitment to someone. In the case of the second contextual meaning, there is a difference. The possessive adjective *nuestro* [our] entails a group of people and, consequently, they are the agent of the commitment; however, the receiver is an inanimate entity. Because of this change, the lexical unit *compromiso* is considered to be used metaphorically regarding the receiver. In the case of the third contextual meaning, *compromiso* is used metaphorically since both the entity which makes the commitment and the receiver of such a commitment are inanimate entities. This is clearly illustrated by example 6.12 where TELMEX, a company, has a commitment to a country, in this case, México.

*Conceptual metaphor?* In line with the above, the underlying conceptual metaphor is, then, AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS A PERSON when *compromiso* appears along with an inanimate entity, such as a company or a country.

### 6.3.2 Crecimiento

The lexical unit *crecimiento* [growth] has a frequency of 350. The analysis of its corpus contexts reveal two contextual meanings:

*Contextual meaning 1.* The less frequent meaning entails the improvement or development of people’s skills. In the only two instances of this meaning (see below), *crecimiento* collocates with the adjective *personal*.

(6.13) ... y promueve su crecimiento personal y profesional, a través de relaciones justas y productivas...

(6.14) El compromiso de Fundación TELMEX también se enfoca en el crecimiento personal del individuo,...

---

*Contextual meaning 2.* The second contextual meaning for *crecimiento* is an increase or expansion of the number of sales, services, facilities, cost, earnings, economy and/or companies. Consequently, *crecimiento* can be measured in percentages or be a parameter to measure the number of sales. See, for instance, the following citations:

(6.15) ... los negocios de acceso a Internet y de redes corporativas continúan mostrando la mayor tasa de crecimiento, 35.3%.

(6.16) ... panificadora del país, líder en el oeste de los Estados Unidos, e impulsó el crecimiento de las ventas, que mostraron un incremento del 73.3% respecto a 2001.

(6.17) Esto nos permite recibir una regalía que ha tenido un crecimiento de dos dígitos en los últimos años, alcanzando US\$105 millones ...

*Basic meaning.* The DEUM defines *crecimiento* as ‘desarrollo de un ser vivo hasta alcanzar su madurez’. This definition entails the physical development of a living entity, either a human being, a plant or an animal. Nevertheless, having in mind that the basic meaning of any lexical unit should be what we relate to bodily action (see Chapter 4), we consider that the basic meaning in this DEUM definition invokes basically a human being.

*Metaphorical?* Yes. The first contextual meaning differs from the basic meaning because although both allude to a human being, they talk about different types of development. The first contextual meaning tells of a development of personal skills, not the physical development of a person. Based on this, *crecimiento* is considered metaphorical.

Regarding the second contextual meaning, *crecimiento* is also considered to be metaphorical because in contrast to the basic meaning, the contextual meaning talks about the increase of an inanimate entity, such as sales or earnings, etc. and not of a person.

*Conceptual metaphor?* The lexical unit *crecimiento* instantiates two conceptual metaphors according to the context where it occurs. In examples 6.13 and 6.14 where *growth* entails the personal development of an animate entity, the underlying conceptual metaphor is DEVELOPMENT OF AN ANIMATE ENTITY IS GROWTH OF A PERSON. When *crecimiento* is used as illustrated in examples 6.15, 6.16 and 6.17, the underlying conceptual metaphor is INCREASE OF AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS GROWTH OF A PERSON

### 6.3.3 Desempeño

The lexical unit *desempeño* occurs 64<sup>2</sup> times in the set of Spanish source texts and two contextual meanings can be identified after analysing each of its concordance lines.

*Contextual meaning 1.* 22% of the occurrences of *desempeño* indicate how people, e.g. staff or directors, perform. The following two examples illustrate this sense:

(6.18) Supervisar el desempeño de los altos directivos.

(6.19) En Vitro, todos los programas internos se orientan a ser cada día mejores en nuestro desempeño como personas...

*Contextual meaning 2.* The remaining 78% of the occurrences of *desempeño* indicate how well a brand, a product or a company did in economic terms, that is, how well the company sells its products or services. The sentences below are a sample of this second contextual meaning.

(6.20) Me complace informar a ustedes que el desempeño del Grupo durante el año 2004 fue muy satisfactorio.

(6.21) ... los productos con mejor desempeño fueron Barritas, Príncipe y Sponch.

(6.22) el NYSE World Leaders es un índice que mide el desempeño de las 200 empresas líderes en 10 sectores industriales...

*Basic meaning:* According to DEUM, *desempeño* means ‘acto de desempeñar o desempeñarse. Whilst there is circularity in this definition, DEUM defines *desempeñar* as ‘hacer uno la tarea, el trabajo o el papel a que ha sido destinado u obligado.’ Here it is clear that the agent who carries out a task or work is a person.

Contrasting the first contextual meaning with the basic meaning, no difference is found; however, there is a contrast between the second contextual meaning and the basic meaning. While an inanimate entity is the agent of the action in the second contextual meaning, a person is the agent of the action in the basic meaning.

*Metaphorical?* Yes, but only where *desempeño* is used according to the second contextual meaning, which happens to be the predominant meaning in the set of MX Spanish source texts.

*Conceptual metaphor.* AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS A PERSON entailing that an inanimate entity, such as a company or a brand, can perform as a person.

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<sup>2</sup>In some cases, there is a discrepancy between the overall frequency of a lexical unit given by KeyWords and the number of its concordances resulting from Concordancer. According to Scott (priv. comm.), this is a common error in WordSmith 4.

### 6.3.4 Reconocimiento

The lexical unit *reconocimiento* occurs 59 times. The analysis reveals two contextual meanings:

*Contextual meaning 1.* The lexical unit *reconocimiento* indicates that cost, taxes, inflation effects, decreased value of assets or expenses are clearly stated in a company's statements, as illustrated in the following citations:

- (6.23) De acuerdo con los lineamientos establecidos en el Boletín B-10, “Reconocimiento de los efectos de la inflación en la información financiera” ...
- (6.24) Este gasto deriva principalmente del reconocimiento de impuestos diferidos negativos al amortizar pérdidas fiscales. . .
- (6.25) Este incremento refleja principalmente el reconocimiento de las pérdidas adicionales en la asociación de DTH. . .

*Contextual meaning 2.* Examples below illustrate when *reconocimiento* is understood as a company which receives praise or approval from another company or institution, owing to the quality of its products or its good actions towards a community.

- (6.26) ... TELMEX recibió con orgullo el reconocimiento como Empresa Socialmente Responsable, por parte del Centro Mexicano para la Filantropía.
- (6.27) Igualmente, destacó el hecho de haber recibido el reconocimiento como “Mejor Proveedor del Año 2003”, que otorga la división de panadería de Wal-Mart. . .
- (6.28) Reconocimiento a Empresas ICA por parte de la Fedecámaras Bolívar, en Venezuela en la categoría de Calidad.

*Basic meaning:* DEUM includes two senses for *reconocimiento*. The first sense –‘acto de reconocer’– is a redundancy. The second sense is ‘manifestación de agradecimiento a alguien por el esfuerzo que se tomó por algo, por alguien o por la ayuda que dio.’ Since the second sense is not circular, that is the one considered as a basic meaning.

*Metaphorical?* No, when *reconocimiento* is used as illustrated in examples 6.23, 6.24 and 6.25. Whilst there is a difference between the first contextual meaning and the basic meaning, the basic meaning does not help us to understand the contextual meaning in those examples. That is to say, knowing the basic meaning does not allow us to understand what the author means, for example, by *reconocimiento de impuestos diferidos negativos*; it is only by looking at various

occurrences of *reconocimiento* in similar contexts in conjunction with a specialised knowledge of the Mexican accountancy system that it is possible to understand its meaning. Consequently, *reconocimiento* is not considered to be metaphorical in these contexts. Nevertheless, *reconocimiento* is metaphorical when it is used as shown in examples 6.26, 6.27 and 6.28 since the basic meaning clearly indicates that a person receives a token of appreciation for doing something and, presumably, this token of appreciation is given by someone. In contrast, the contextual meaning of *reconocimiento* involves two inanimate entities, the company who receives the token of appreciation and the company or institution who grants it.

*Conceptual metaphor:* The underlining conceptual metaphor is A COMPANY IS A PERSON entailing that a company as a person can receive awards.

### 6.3.5 Metaphorically used collocates

In addition to the lexical units discussed above as metaphorical, other lexical units which are not keywords, have also been identified as metaphorical but for different reasons. These lexical units co-occur with a keyword and are identified while reading the concordance lines of a keyword. To illustrate this, let us take the case of the lexical unit *empresa*.

#### 6.3.5.1 Empresa

The lexical unit *empresa* [company] is not considered metaphorical as discussed on page 93; however, it has metaphorically used collocates. Figure 6.1 shows an extract of the concordance of *empresa* sorted alphabetically by the word immediately to the left, then by the word to the right and thirdly by the word in the second position to the right.

In the concordance lines 53 and 54 shown in Figure 6.1, *empresa* has as collocates the lexical units *sana* and *fuerte*. In the concordance lines 64-68, *comprometida* is the collocate of *empresa*, and the concordance lines 70 and 71 shows the collocation *con alma*. The following list sorted alphabetically includes all the identified collocates of *empresa* and their frequency:

<i>admirada</i> [admired] ( <i>f</i> = 2)	<i>inteligente</i> [intelligent] ( <i>f</i> = 1)
<i>alma</i> [soul] ( <i>f</i> = 2)	<i>líder</i> [leader] ( <i>f</i> = 13)
<i>comprometida</i> [committed] ( <i>f</i> = 7)	<i>responsable</i> [responsible] ( <i>f</i> = 18)
<i>desempeño</i> [performance] ( <i>f</i> = 1)	<i>sana</i> [healthy] ( <i>f</i> = 3)
<i>fuerte</i> [strong] ( <i>f</i> = 2)	<i>valores</i> [values] ( <i>f</i> = 1)
<i>gratitud</i> [gratitude] ( <i>f</i> = 1)	<i>visión</i> [vision] ( <i>f</i> = 1)



N	Concordance	File
52	DE LO ANTERIOR, WAL-MART DE MÉXICO ES UNA EMPRESA CADA DÍA Más RENTABLE: DURANTE EL AÑO	r_wal04.b4
53	DE 60 AÑOS DE CRECIMIENTO, GRUPO BIMBO ES UNA EMPRESA CADA VEZ Más SANA Y FUERTE, CON TODA	bmb05.b4
54	RENTABILIDAD NOS HEMOS CONSTITUIDO COMO UNA EMPRESA CADA VEZ Más SANA, FUERTE Y	bmb05.b4
55	de las operaciones del oeste de Estados Unidos de la empresa canadiense George Weston Ltd.	bmb05.b4
56	se encuentran las funciones de planeación estratégica de la empresa.	r_wal06.b4
57	de tal manera que se mantenga la fortaleza financiera de la empresa.	ar_tx02.b4
58	sin el apoyo incondicional tanto de la gente que trabaja en la empresa, como de ustedes, los accionistas de Grupo	r_tla04.b4
59	2004 la prioridad fue el avance tecnológico y confirmar a la empresa como el proveedor líder de las telecomunicaciones	ar_tx04.b4
60	y les ofrecemos, tanto oportunidades de crecimiento en la empresa, como incentivos económicos vinculados al esfuerzo	r_wal05.b4
61	El esfuerzo realizado, tanto por nuestra empresa, como por nuestros mismos asociados, resultó en la	r_wal06.b4
62	nuevamente alcanzaron su nivel más bajo en la historia de la empresa, como porcentaje de las ventas.	r_wal03.b4
63	Años más tarde, Bimbo termina por adquirir a la empresa competidora.	bmb05.b4
64	cada vez un mayor número de clientes, pero también, como empresa comprometida con el desarrollo de México, hemos	ar_tx06.b4
65	En Vitro somos una empresa comprometida con el cliente, que ofrece productos y	r_vit06.b4
66	por parte del Instituto Nacional de las Mujeres por ser una empresa comprometida con el modelo de Equidad de Género	r_wal03.b4
67	otorgado por el Instituto Nacional de las Mujeres, por ser una empresa comprometida con el modelo de Equidad de	r_wal03.b4
68	del consumidor, cada vez con mayor impulso, como una empresa comprometida con la nutrición y la salud a través del	bmb02.b4
69	sección de Nutrición de su página de internet corporativa, la empresa comunica mensajes nutricionales de manera	bmb03.b4
70	constatar que se mantiene y se incrementa el espíritu de empresa con alma que hemos querido tener.	bmb05.b4
71	Grupo Bimbo como un lugar extraordinario para trabajar, una empresa con alma, que proporciona a sus colaboradores las	bmb05.b4
72	aplicar medidas de reducción sin afectar la operación de la empresa.	ar_tx03.b4
73	En Argentina se llevó a cabo una reestructuración de la empresa, con el objetivo de cambiar las tendencias.	bmb04.b4
74	una absoluta transparencia en nuestras decisiones como empresa.	r_vit06.b4
75	Somos una empresa con gran capacidad para generar valor y aprovechar	bmb04.b4
76	de México (TELMEX), nos hemos ocupado en construir una empresa con la plataforma tecnológica, la solidez financiera y	ar_tx02.b4
77	establecer el ritmo y la dirección de la industria como una empresa con marcas confiables para sus consumidores,	bmb05.b4

Figure 6.1: An extract of the concordance for *empresa*

Applying Steps 3 and 4 of the MIP to the above lexical units leads us to the conclusion that they are linguistic metaphors. In the contexts where these lexical units occur, they have in common the topic EMPRESA, an inanimate entity. On the other hand, the basic meanings of the collocates are feelings, characteristics or features mainly associated with a person. This leads us to assume that EMPRESA [company] is understood in terms of A PERSON and, thus, the underlying conceptual metaphor is COMPANY IS A PERSON (Step 5 of MIP).

Other keywords the analysis did not identify as metaphorical, but which turn out to have metaphorically used collocates are: *gastos* [expenses] and *mercado* [market].

### 6.3.5.2 Gastos

The lexical unit *gastos* [expenses] is considered not to be metaphorical since the contextual meaning and the basic meaning are the same. However, there is one citation (see below) where *costos* becomes the topic of a metaphorically used unit: *comportamiento* [behaviour].

(6.29) El comportamiento de los gastos de distribución y venta se atribuye principalmente a la especialización . . .

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In the above citation, *comportamiento* indicates how expenses behave in response to certain factors, such as the specialisation of the distribution network. According to DEUM, *comportamiento* means the way that a person behaves or conducts him/herself. Consequently, *comportamiento* is considered to be metaphorical, realising the conceptual metaphor EXPENSES IS A PERSON.

### 6.3.5.3 Mercado

The metaphorically used collocates of *mercado(s)* [market(s)] are *deprimido* [depressed] ( $f = 1$ ) and *confían* [to have trust, 3rd person plural] ( $f = 1$ ). According to DEUM, *deprimido* is when someone suffers depression, sadness or discouragement, while *confiar* means to be sure that someone is going to act in certain way, that something happens or works in the expected way. What these two meanings have in common is that a person is the ‘experiencer’ – the one who feels or is sure about the expected behaviour of another person. In contrast, *mercado*, an inanimate entity, is the ‘experiencer’ – the one who feels depressed or trusts somebody or something.

(6.30) El 2003 fue un año difícil para la industria de la panificación en Estados Unidos debido a un mercado deprimido, ...

(6.31) De manera adicional, hay que resaltar que no sólo los mercados de deuda confían en nosotros ...

Consequently, *deprimido* and *confían* are considered to be metaphorical realising the conceptual metaphor MARKET IS A PERSON.

### 6.3.6 Summary

So far we have reported the linguistic metaphors found in our data and the underlying conceptual metaphors. Table 6.3 summarises all these linguistic metaphors as well as the inferred conceptual metaphors.

Table 6.3: Linguistic metaphors identified in MX source texts along with their underlying conceptual metaphors

compromiso	AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS A PERSON
crecimiento	DEVELOPMENT OF AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS GROWTH OF A PERSON
crecimiento	INCREASE OF AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS GROWTH OF A PERSON
desempeño	AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS A PERSON
reconocimiento	COMPANY IS A PERSON
admirada, alma, comprometida, desempeño, fuerte, gratitud, inteligente, líder, responsable, sana, valores, visión	COMPANY IS A PERSON
comportamiento	EXPENSES IS A PERSON
deprimido confían	MARKET IS A PERSON

## 6.4 Steps 6 and 7: I am metaphorical, so how am I translated?

The previous section has described those lexical units that are considered linguistic metaphors and what conceptual metaphors underlie the linguistic metaphors. The present section focuses on analysing the translation of the identified linguistic metaphors (Step 6) and investigating whether the translation realises a conceptual metaphor, if any (Step 7). Step 6 is carried out by re-running concordances of the identified linguistic metaphors, but this time by using Multi-concord since, as discussed in Chapter 3, it allows us to generate parallel concordances.

### 6.4.1 Compromiso

As described in subsection 6.3.1, the lexical unit *compromiso* can occur in two different patterns *compromiso + con* and *compromiso + de*. These patterns were concordanced separately. The parallel concordance of *compromiso + con* reveals that the most common translation is ‘commitment to’ ( $f = 35$ ) followed by ‘commitment with’ ( $f = 3$ ), ‘being committed to’ ( $f = 2$ ), ‘commitment in’ ( $f = 1$ ) and ‘commitment towards’ ( $f = 1$ ). On one occasion, a para-

graph where *compromiso con* occurs is omitted in the translation. On another occasion, a new metaphorical expression is introduced (see example 6.33).

- (6.32) ... nuestra empresa mantiene y mantendrá vigente su compromiso con el país.  
... our Company honors and shall continue to honor our commitment to this great country.
- (6.33) Para ICA Fluor, el compromiso con la seguridad no tiene límites.  
For ICA Fluor, the race for safety does not have a finish line.
- (6.34) Fundación TELMEX: compromiso con la sociedad.  
Fundación TELMEX: commitment with society.
- (6.35) Nuestro compromiso con México.  
Our commitment in Mexico.
- (6.36) Estas decisiones estratégicas forman parte de nuestro compromiso con el desarrollo de la empresa.  
These strategic decisions are part of our commitment towards the company's development.
- (6.37) Compromiso con México y sus habitantes es invertir...  
Being committed to Mexico and its inhabitants implies investing ...

The cases of 'commitment to' and 'commitment with' are considered to be metaphorical since both cases entail a duty or responsibility that a person has agreed to carry out, although the use of the preposition 'with' after 'commitment' seems to be an interference from Spanish. According to MED, 'commitment' should be followed by 'to' rather than by 'with'. The translation 'being committed to' is also considered metaphorical despite the fact there is a transposition, that is, from noun to adjective. However, it is metaphorical because the expression 'being committed to' has implicitly a company – an inanimate entity – as a topic. The case 6.35 where *compromiso* is considered metaphorical since the commitment is between people and a country becomes not metaphorical in English due to the change of the preposition 'in'. This change could be interpreted to mean that Mexico is not treated as a person, just as a place, and therefore it is not metaphorical; however, it is hard to be conclusive with only one example. Similarly, the translation 'commitment towards' is considered to be not metaphorical because 'towards' indicates in which direction someone or something is going.

The parallel concordance of *compromiso + de* gives as a result five instances where the pattern is *compromiso + de* + an inanimate entity (a company). The translations given are 'company's

commitment' ( $f = 2$ ), 'we [...] are committed to' ( $f = 1$ ) and 'our commitment' ( $f = 1$ ). There is also a case where *compromiso* is omitted. The cases where the possessive suffix 's' is used are considered metaphorical since they still entail that an inanimate entity is treated as a person. In contrast, the cases where the first person plural and the possessive adjective of the first person plural are introduced are considered not to be metaphorical because the topic is no longer an inanimate entity, such as a company, but people expressed by 'we' and 'our'.

In the English source texts, 'commitment to' has a frequency of 53; 'commitment with', 1 and 'committed to', 21. The expression 'commitment to' is used metaphorically on 36 occasions, either because people are committed to an inanimate entity (see examples 6.38 and 6.39) or because an animate entity, a company, is committed to an animate entity (see examples 6.40 and 6.41).

(6.38) Our commitment to social responsibility is an integral part...

(6.39) Thank you again for your commitment to GRUMA.

(6.40) ... company's commitment to attaining the highest benchmark...

(6.41) América Móvil reinforced its commitment to the region.

The only occurrence of the expression 'commitment with' is also considered metaphorical since a group of people undertakes an obligation with the Brazilian market, an inanimate entity, as illustrated below:

(6.42) We have a profound commitment with the Brazilian market...

As mentioned above, the expression 'committed to' has frequency of 21, 13 of which are considered metaphorical since they entail that either people have a commitment to an inanimate entity, or an inanimate entity has a commitment, as the following examples show:

(6.43) ... we are committed to social responsibility, environmental stewardship, and...

(6.44) ... [a company] is committed to managing that impact in a positive manner.

In view of the above, it can be concluded that the conceptual metaphor AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS A PERSON realised by the English linguistic expression 'commitment to' or 'committed to', is relatively common in English source texts.

## 6.4.2 Crecimiento

As described in subsection 6.3.2, the conceptual metaphor INCREASE OF AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS GROWTH OF A PERSON is instantiated by the linguistic metaphor the lexical unit *crecimiento* when it entails an increase in the number of sales, services, facilities, economy and companies. The translations for *crecimiento* into English revealed by the parallel concordances, are shown in Table 6.4. The translations are sorted in order of frequency, as shown below.

Table 6.4: Translations for ‘crecimiento’

Translation	<i>f</i>	Translation	<i>f</i>
growth (n)	186	development	2
increase (n)	37	more	2
grow (v)	12	go up (v)	1
increase (v)	10	improvement	1
higher (adj.)	5	rise (n)	1
expansion (n)	4	rise (v)	1
growing (adj)	4		

The lexical units ‘increase’ (either as a noun or a verb), ‘higher’, ‘expansion’, ‘development’, ‘more’, ‘go up’ and ‘rise’ (either as a noun or a verb) are not considered metaphorical because their basic meaning and their contextual meaning do not contrast. That is to say, all of them convey the literal meaning of increasing, as illustrated in the following examples:

(6.45) ...el 65.3% de la inversión se destinó al crecimiento y a la modernización ...

... of which 65.3% was for expansion and modernization,...

(6.46) Estas ganancias fueron el reflejo del crecimiento de las ventas netas, un menor costo de ventas y una reducción en los gastos de operación.

These gains reflected higher net sales, lower cost of goods sold and lower operating expenses.

(6.47) De esta forma, la utilidad de operación registró un crecimiento acumulado de 11.1%

...

Consequently, operating income registered an accumulated increase of 11.1% ...

As shown in Table 6.4, the most common translation for *crecimiento* is ‘growth’, as illustrated below:

- (6.48) Las Ventas domésticas experimentaron una sólida tendencia de crecimiento, al alcanzar un total de 27,924, ...  
Domestic sales posted solid growth, reaching a total of Ps. 27,964, or 6.3...
- (6.49) El tamaño y crecimiento acelerado de este mercado ...  
Given the size and rapid growth of this market ...
- (6.50) ... como nuevas inversiones financieras y operativas que permitan asegurar el crecimiento futuro de TELMEX.  
... new financial and operating investments that ensure the future growth of TELMEX.

As mentioned in subsection 5.3.2, the lexical unit ‘growth’ is considered to be metaphorical when it entails that an inanimate entity becomes bigger in size. In addition, it has been established that the conceptual metaphor INCREASE OF AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS GROWTH OF AN ANIMATE ENTITY enjoys a similar level of conventionality in MX Spanish and in US English.

### 6.4.3 Desempeño

The lexical unit *desempeño* is considered metaphorical when it has as a topic an inanimate entity such as tax year, operations, company, products, sales, services or businesses. The parallel concordance shows that *desempeño* tends to be translated as ‘performance’ (83%). In five instances, *desempeño* is omitted. In addition, the translation of *desempeño* is on two occasions the past tense of the verb ‘to perform’, and on another occasion it is translated by ‘performer’.

The contextual meaning of ‘performance’ is how well a company or a tax year does in economic terms. In contrast, the basic meaning is ‘the process of doing a job or an action,’ according to MED. This sense is ambiguous because it does not indicate the agent of that action which can be either an animate or inanimate entity. This ambiguity makes it problematic to determine a possible source domain. In addition, the difference arising from contrasting the basic meaning and the contextual meaning is that the contextual meaning puts emphasis on the effectiveness with which the job is done. Therefore, the contextual meaning could be considered to be in a metonymic relationship with the basic meaning. Based on this, ‘performance’ is not considered metaphorical. Similarly, ‘perform’ is considered not metaphorical because there is no contrast between the contextual meaning and the basic meaning (‘to complete an action or activity, especially a complicated one’).

The lexical unit ‘performer’ is not considered metaphorical either. The reason for this is that although the basic meaning is ‘someone who does something with a particular amount of success,’ as defined by MED, the contextual meaning is a subsense of the definition given by MED.

As indicated by the Pragglejaz Group, subsenses are regarded as materialisation of the same meaning from the perspective of the Pragglejaz MIP.

#### 6.4.4 Reconocimiento

As has been said previously, *reconocimiento* is considered to be metaphorical in a particular context: when *reconocimiento* means that a company receives praise or approval from another company or institution, due to the quality of its products or its good actions towards a community. The translations for *reconocimiento* into English are: ‘recognition’ ( $f = 8$ ), ‘award’ ( $f = 8$ ), ‘recognized’ (past vb) ( $f = 2$ ), ‘commendation’ ( $f = 1$ ), ‘distinguished’ (past vb) ( $f = 1$ ), and ‘named’ (past vb) ( $f = 1$ ).

Having contrasted the contextual meaning of each of the translations with the basic meaning, it is possible to conclude that ‘recognition, award, commendation’ and ‘to recognize’ are used metaphorically. The reason for this is that these lexical units entail in English that a company receives praise from someone else or another institution in the contexts where they occur; on the other hand, each lexical item basically means that a person receives praise from another person. Consequently, there is a contrast between the contextual meaning and the basic meaning. In addition, they realise the conceptual metaphor A COMPANY IS A PERSON, similar to its counterpart in Spanish *reconocimiento*. To illustrate this, see the examples as follows:

- (6.51) ... TELMEX recibió con orgullo el reconocimiento como Empresa Socialmente Responsable, por parte del Centro Mexicano para la Filantropía.  
TELMEX proudly received the ESR award, in recognition of the company’s social responsibility, from the Mexican Center of Philanthropy (Centro Mexicano de Filantropía, AC).
- (6.52) Igualmente, destacó el hecho de haber recibido el reconocimiento como “Mejor Proveedor del Año 2003”, que otorga la división de panadería de Wal-Mart...  
Additionally, BBU was distinguished by Wal-Mart Stores, Inc. as “2003 Supplier of the Year” by their commercial bakery division ...
- (6.53) Reconocimiento a Empresas ICA por parte de la Fedecámaras Bolívar, en Venezuela en la categoría de Calidad.  
An award to Empresas ICA for its quality by the Fedecámaras Bolívar, in Venezuela.
- (6.54) En el caso de México, el Centro Mexicano para la Filantropía entrega el reconocimiento “Empresa Socialmente Responsable” a las empresas que se distinguen por su vinculación con la comunidad...



In the case of Mexico, the Mexican Center for Philanthropy awards a “Socially Responsible Company” recognition to companies that distinguish themselves for their ties to the community . . .

In contrast, ‘name’ and ‘distinguish’ are not considered metaphorical. The reason for this conclusion is that the basic meaning of each lexical item does not convey such a relation between two people, at least not in a definite way. For instance, the basic meaning of ‘distinguish’ according to MED is ‘to be a feature that makes *someone* or *something* clearly different from other similar people or things’ (emphasis added). And the basic meaning of ‘name’ is ‘to give *someone* or *something* a name’ (MED 2008, emphasis added).

### 6.4.5 Empresa

As discussed earlier in subsection 6.3.5.1, *empresa* is considered not to be metaphorical; however, it is the topic of several linguistic metaphors, which are shown in Table 6.5 in alphabetical order along with their corresponding translations.

Table 6.5: Linguistic metaphors identified having *empresa* as a topic and their corresponding translations.

Linguistic metaphor	Translation	Linguistic metaphor	Translation
admirada ( $f = 2$ )	admired	inteligente ( $f = 1$ )	sophisticated
alma ( $f = 2$ )	soul	líder ( $f = 13$ )	leading (adj) ( $f = 7$ ) leader ( $f = 6$ )
comprometida ( $f = 7$ )	committed ( $f = 6$ ) our commitment	responsable ( $f = 18$ )	responsible ( $f = 15$ ) responsibility ( $f = 3$ )
desempeño ( $f = 1$ )	performance	sana ( $f = 3$ )	healthy ( $f = 2$ ) solid ( $f = 1$ )
fuerte ( $f = 2$ )	strong	valores ( $f = 1$ )	values
gratitud ( $f = 1$ )	gratitude	visión ( $f = 1$ )	vision

The table above shows that *admirada* is translated by a similar linguistic expression in English, ‘admired’ in both instances. Likewise, the lexical items *alma*, *fuerte*, *gratitud*, *valores* and *visión* are translated into similar English linguistic expressions: ‘soul’, ‘strong’, ‘gratitude’, ‘values’ and ‘vision’, respectively. Contrasting the contextual meaning with the basic meaning of each of them, we conclude that they are metaphorically used and realise the conceptual metaphor COMPANY IS A PERSON.

The translation of *desempeño* is ‘performance’. The lexical unit ‘performance’ has been discussed previously in section 6.4.3 and is not considered metaphorical.

In the case of *comprometida*, two translations are given. The most common is ‘committed’ (*f* = 6) which is considered to be metaphorical having as a topic COMPANY. To illustrate this, see example 6.55. On the other hand, the other translation of *compromiso* is not considered metaphorical. As can be observed in example 6.56, ‘commitment’ is modified by the possessive adjective ‘our’ indicating a group of people. As the basic meaning of ‘commitment’ is a duty or responsibility that a person has agreed to do and the contextual meaning is that a group of people has agreed to do something, there is no contrast and thus ‘commitment’ is not metaphorical in this case.

(6.55) La empresa está comprometida en promover los beneficios de la buena alimentación, así como las bondades nutricionales del pan.

The Company is committed to promoting the benefits of a healthy diet as well as the nutritional benefits derived from bread.

(6.56) Motivo de gran orgullo es el reconocimiento otorgado por el Instituto Nacional de las Mujeres, por ser una empresa comprometida con el modelo de Equidad de Género.

The recognition awarded our company by the National Women’s Institute because of our commitment to the model of Gender Equality is a great source of pride to us.

The citation below includes the only occurrence of *inteligente* and one of the three occurrences of *sana* in relation to *empresa*:

(6.57) Al término del ejercicio, por demás positivo, en Grupo Bimbo reafirmamos nuestra imagen de empresa sana e inteligente en su manejo financiero.

Following this highly satisfactory year, Grupo Bimbo’s standing as a solid, financially sophisticated company has been reaffirmed.

The translation does not follow the source sentence closely. For instance, there is a change in the subject of the sentence from *nosotros* indicated in the present tense of the verb *reafirmar* [to reaffirm] in third person plural, to ‘Grupo Bimbo’s standing’ as a subject of the passive perfect tense of the verb ‘to reaffirm’. Another change is the adverbial phrase *en su manejo financiero* to the adverb ‘financially’ modifying the adjective ‘sophisticated’. The lexical unit ‘sophisticated’ is not an obvious translation for *inteligente* or at least an option given by a bilingual dictionary such as the Oxford English-Spanish dictionary. According to the MED, ‘sophisticated’ basically means ‘knowing and understanding a lot about a complicated subject.’ This sense implies that person is one who knows and understands a lot about a finances, while the contextual meaning is a company who knows and understands finances. This leads us to

conclude that ‘sophisticated’ is metaphorical and realises the conceptual metaphor COMPANY IS A PERSON.

As for ‘solid’, MED offers seven senses which makes it harder to pinpoint which one is the most concrete or the most closely related to a body action. Therefore, OED was consulted. Based on the OED, the basic meaning of ‘solid’ is something that does not have any holes or empty spaces inside it. The contextual meaning of ‘solid’ is that a company is strong. Contrasting the contextual meaning and the basic meaning, it is possible to appreciate a relationship between both senses. If something does not have holes or empty spaces, then it does not get damaged or broken very easily, in other words, something is strong. In view of this, ‘solid’ is not considered metaphorical.

In the case of *líder*, both translations ‘leading’ and ‘leader’ have almost the same frequency and stem from the same word family, ‘lead’. The obvious difference is that one functions as an adjective and the other as a noun. In addition, ‘leader’ means that someone is responsible for or in control of a group, organization, country, etc., according to MED, while ‘leading’ indicates that someone or something is the most important or most successful. Both senses are closely related, but ‘leader’ clearly indicates that the agent is a person. Based on this, ‘leader’ is considered metaphorical realising the conceptual metaphor A COMPANY IS A PERSON. In contrast, ‘leading’ is not considered to be metaphorical because the basic meaning is ambiguous in relation to who or what is the most important or most successful.

Regarding *responsable*, the most common translation is ‘responsible’ and the least common is ‘responsibility’. According to OED, ‘responsibility’ derives from ‘responsible + ity’. Consulting MED, ‘responsible’ means that someone ‘is in charge of them and must make sure that what they do or what happens to them is right or satisfactory.’ On these grounds, both translations are considered to be metaphorical since their contextual meaning entails an inanimate entity, specifically a company, which is in charge of something, in contrast to the basic meaning which clearly states that it is a person who is in charge. The conceptual metaphor COMPANY IS A PERSON underlies both ‘responsible’ and ‘responsibility’.

### 6.4.6 Gastos

Similar to the case of *empresa*, the lexical unit *gastos* is not considered metaphorical, but it is the topic of the linguistic metaphor *comportamiento*. The latter is translated into English as ‘performance’. As mentioned earlier, the basic meaning of ‘performance’ is ambiguous and therefore not considered to be metaphorical.

### 6.4.7 Mercado

The lexical unit *mercado* is the topic of the linguistic metaphors *deprimido* and *confían*. In the case of *confían*, the first part of the sentence where it occurs is omitted in English. As for *mercado deprimido*, the translation is ‘depressed market’ as shown in the example below:

(6.58)

(6.59) El 2003 fue un año difícil para la industria de la panificación en Estados Unidos debido a un mercado deprimido . . .

The year 2003 was difficult for the baking industry in the United States due to a depressed market . . .

MED includes two senses that could be the basic meaning: a) ‘if you are depressed, you feel very unhappy because of a difficult or unpleasant situation that you feel you cannot change’ or b) ‘a depressed level, amount, or price is lower than usual.’ To determine which is the older sense, OED was consulted. OED indicates that the older of these two senses is (b). Thus, the basic meaning is that an inanimate entity, such as price, amount or level, is depressed when it is lower than usual. The contextual meaning is that the financial market has a low level of commercial activity. Contrasting the contextual meaning and the basic meaning leads us to conclude that there is no contrast and, therefore, it is not metaphorical.

## 6.5 Summary

By applying the extended MIP to 69 MX Spanish keywords, the analysis points to the lexical units *compromiso* [commitment], *crecimiento* [growth], *desempeño* [performance] and *reconocimiento* [recognition] being metaphorical. The remaining 65 were not considered metaphorical. Nevertheless, there were cases, such as *empresa* [company], *gastos* [expenses] and *mercado* [market], that despite not being considered metaphorical were identified as the topic of linguistic metaphors. This was achieved by investigating the co-text of these lexical units. Table 6.6 shows the identified linguistic metaphors along with the underlying conceptual metaphor (left column) and on the right shows the translations given indicating the underlying conceptual metaphor, if any.

Table 6.6: Linguistic metaphors identified in MX source texts along with their underlying conceptual metaphors, their translations in MX Spanish and the underlying conceptual metaphor

AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS A PERSON  <i>compromiso</i> ( $f = 5$ )	AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS A PERSON company's commitment ( $f = 2$ ) No Conceptual Metaphor we [ . . . ] are committed to ( $f = 1$ ) our commitment ( $f = 1$ ) Omission ( $f = 1$ )
INCREASE OF AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS GROWTH OF A PERSON  <i>crecimiento</i> (ventas, etc.)	INCREASE OF AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS GROWTH OF A PERSON growth ( $f = 186$ ), grow ( $f = 12$ ) No Conceptual Metaphor increase (n) ( $f = 37$ ), more ( $f = 2$ ), increase (v) ( $f = 10$ ), higher (adj.) ( $f = 5$ ), expansion (n) ( $f = 4$ ), growing (adj) ( $f = 4$ ), go up (v) ( $f = 1$ ), improvement ( $f = 1$ ), rise (n) ( $f = 1$ ), rise (v) ( $f = 1$ )
AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS A PERSON  <i>desempeño</i> (compañía, marca)	No Conceptual metaphor performance ( $f = 50$ ) to perform (past vb) ( $f = 2$ ) performer ( $f = 1$ ) omission ( $f = 5$ )
COMPANY IS A PERSON  <i>reconocimiento</i> ( $f = 21$ )	COMPANY IS A PERSON recognition ( $f = 8$ ) award ( $f = 8$ ) recognized (past vb) ( $f = 2$ ) commendation ( $f = 1$ ) No Conceptual Metaphor distinguished (past vb) ( $f = 1$ ), named (past vb) ( $f = 1$ )
COMPANY IS A PERSON <i>admirada</i> ( $f = 2$ )	COMPANY IS A PERSON admired
<i>continued on next page</i>	

COMPANY IS A PERSON alma ( $f = 2$ )	COMPANY IS A PERSON soul
COMPANY IS A PERSON comprometida ( $f = 7$ )	COMPANY IS A PERSON committed ( $f = 6$ ) No conceptual metaphor our commitment ( $f = 1$ )
COMPANY IS A PERSON desempeño ( $f = 1$ )	No conceptual metaphor performance
COMPANY IS A PERSON fuerte ( $f = 2$ )	COMPANY IS A PERSON strong
COMPANY IS A PERSON gratitud ( $f = 1$ )	COMPANY IS A PERSON gratitude
COMPANY IS A PERSON inteligente ( $f = 1$ )	COMPANY IS A PERSON sophisticated
COMPANY IS A PERSON líder ( $f = 13$ )	No conceptual metaphor leading (adj) ( $f = 7$ ) COMPANY IS A PERSON leader ( $f = 6$ )
COMPANY IS A PERSON responsable ( $f = 18$ )	COMPANY IS A PERSON responsible ( $f = 15$ ) responsibility ( $f = 3$ )
COMPANY IS A PERSON sana ( $f = 3$ )	COMPANY IS A PERSON healthy ( $f = 2$ ) No conceptual metaphor solid ( $f = 1$ )
COMPANY IS A PERSON valores ( $f = 1$ )	COMPANY IS A PERSON values
COMPANY IS A PERSON visión ( $f = 1$ )	COMPANY IS A PERSON vision
EXPENSES IS A PERSON <i>comportamiento</i> (gastos)	No Conceptual Metaphor performance
MARKET IS A PERSON	

*continued on next page*

<i>confían</i> (f = 1)	Omission
<i>deprimido</i> (f = 1)	No conceptual metaphor depressed

Table 6.6 shows that the main source domain is A PERSON. In fact, all the conceptual metaphors identified have as a source domain A PERSON. A possible reason for that is that companies are interested in portraying themselves in a way that customers, investors, and so on can relate to easily. Having said that, we do not assume that A PERSON is the only source domain used since there is the possibility that the texts contain other linguistic metaphors and, consequently, other conceptual metaphors with lower frequency than the ones identified in this study.

It was observed that a source linguistic metaphor with higher frequency shows different patterns of translation, that is to say, a source linguistic metaphor can be literally translated and/or omitted. See, for example, the cases of *compromiso*, *desempeño* and *reconocimiento*. A literal translation of the source linguistic metaphor does not necessarily mean that such a literal translation is also metaphorical. For instance, in some cases, *compromiso* and *desempeño* are translated literally; however, the literal translation is not metaphorical. The reason for that is that either the translation is not metaphorical in English or there is a change of the topic, e.g. from an inanimate entity to an animate entity.

The omission of a source linguistic metaphor, such *compromiso*, *desempeño* and *confían*, is due to different reasons: an overall change of the structure of the sentence in English or the part where the source linguistic metaphor occurs is completely deleted from the target text.

A detailed discussion of the translation patterns found in the MX-US sub-corpus will be presented in Chapter 7. The chapter will also deal with the translation patterns found in the US-MX sub-corpus.

# Chapter 7

## Discussion

*Understanding the metaphors of a language provides both a fascinating insight into that culture and an essential key to improved communications.*

(Hiraga 1991, p. 149)

The present Chapter focuses on discussing the patterns which have emerged from the analysis of the translation of conceptual metaphors in the Bidirectional US English ⇔ MX Spanish Parallel Corpus (section 7.1) as well as some methodological problems, as the thesis is also concerned with establishing a viable semi-automatic identification procedure. In section 7.2, some issues are explored regarding the applicability of the extended Metaphor Identification Procedures to the data, particularly the use of dictionaries and the identification of conceptual metaphors. The relationship between metaphor and metonymy will be discussed in section 7.3, since despite the fact that metonymy is beyond the scope of this study and the fact that MIP was not designed to identify metonymy, the application of the extended MIP resulted in identifying conceptual metonymy in certain cases. Finally, this chapter will address the relationship between the conventionality of linguistic metaphors and their frequency in a corpus (section 7.4).

### 7.1 Patterns of translation in the BESPC

At the beginning of this study, I set out to investigate how the linguistic expressions realising conceptual metaphors in financial texts, more specifically in annual reports published in American English and Mexican Spanish, are translated. As discussed in section 2.4, four patterns of translation of conceptual metaphors can in principle be found:



1. Same conceptual metaphors and similar linguistic metaphors.
2. Same conceptual metaphors but different linguistic metaphors.
3. Different conceptual metaphors but similar linguistic metaphors.
4. Different conceptual metaphors and different linguistic metaphors.

The only pattern identified from the above in the present data was pattern 1 (section 7.1.1). The absence of patterns 2, 3 and 4 after analysing the Bidirectional English ⇔ Spanish Parallel Corpus does not mean that these patterns do not occur at all. A possible explanation for this absence is that the extended MIP was applied only on lexical units that are considered keywords for US English source texts and MX Spanish source texts and therefore only patterns with high frequency were identified. Nevertheless, two other patterns were found which will be described below (sections 7.1.2 and 7.1.3).

### 7.1.1 Pattern 1

As has been said previously, pattern 1 emerges when the conceptual metaphor in the source language is the same as in the target language and, furthermore, their respective instantiations are similar linguistic metaphors. This pattern is shown by the examples below. Examples 7.1 and 7.2 are derived from the US-MX sub-corpus, and examples 7.3 and 7.4, from the MX-US sub-corpus.

	BRAND IS A PERSON	BRAND IS A PERSON
(7.1)	...to <u>rejuvenate</u> a popular 100-year-old <u>brand</u> , [X <u>marca</u> ], in Mexico ...	... <u>rejuvenecer</u> una <u>marca</u> de 100 años de antigüedad, [X <u>marca</u> ], en México; y ...

	COMPANY IS A PLANT	COMPANY IS A PLANT
(7.2)	Reflecting both the <u>organic growth</u> of the company's revenues and the incorporation of the firms acquired throughout the year...	...reflejando tanto el <u>crecimiento orgánico</u> de los ingresos de las compañías como la incorporación de las empresas adquiridas a lo largo del año.

	COMPANY IS A PERSON	COMPANY IS A PERSON
(7.3)	... TELMEX recibió con orgullo el <u>reconocimiento</u> como Empresa Socialmente Responsable, por parte del Centro Mexicano para la Filantropía.	TELMEX proudly received the ESR <u>award</u> , in recognition of the company's social responsibility, from the Mexican Center of Philanthropy (Centro Mexicano de Filantropía, AC).
	AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS A PERSON	AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS A PERSON
(7.4)	<u>Compromiso</u> con México y sus habitantes es invertir...	Being <u>committed</u> to Mexico and its inhabitants implies investing....

As illustrated by examples above, the conceptual metaphors are the same in the source texts and in the target texts. In addition, the linguistic metaphors tend to have the same grammatical function, such as *reconocimiento* and 'award' in example 7.3 – both are nouns – and/or to be similar in form, such as 'rejuvenate' and *rejuvenecer* in example 7.1 – both are verbs – or 'organic' and *orgánico* in example 7.2 – both are adjectives. There are some exceptions where the linguistic metaphors have different grammatical functions such as the Spanish linguistic metaphor *compromiso* and the English linguistic metaphor 'committed' as shown in example 7.4. Despite the grammatical change, a semantic change is not observed, therefore cases where there is a grammatical, but not a semantic change are considered similar linguistic metaphors.

### 7.1.2 Pattern 5

The first new pattern found occurs when:

5. A conceptual metaphor is instantiated by a linguistic metaphor in the source text, but the translation of the source linguistic metaphor is not metaphorical and, in turn, no conceptual metaphor is instantiated.

This pattern can be exemplified by the examples below. Examples 7.5 and 7.6 are from the US-MX Spanish sub-corpus, and examples 7.7 and 7.8, from the MX-US English sub-corpus.

	DEBT IS AN ANIMATE ENTITY	No Conceptual Metaphor
(7.5)	The new syndicated loan also allows the company to extend <u>debt maturities</u> and substantially improve its debt profile.	El nuevo crédito sindicado también permite a la compañía extender sus <u>vencimientos de deuda</u> y mejorar sustancialmente el perfil de la misma.
	GROWTH IS A PREY	No Conceptual Metaphor
(7.6)	Our company is financially strong and well positioned to <u>capture</u> the growth in Latin America and to take advantage of the opportunities in the future.	Nuestra compañía es financieramente sólida y está en una excelente posición para <u>captar</u> el crecimiento en América Latina y tomar ventaja de las oportunidades en el futuro.
	AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS A PERSON	No Conceptual Metaphor
(7.7)	Las políticas de pago de dividendo en efectivo y de recompra de acciones propias muestran el <u>comprosoimo de TELMEX</u> con sus accionistas . . .	TELMEX also has demonstrated <u>our commitment</u> to shareholders by paying cash dividends and repurchasing shares. . .
	COMPANY IS A PERSON	No Conceptual Metaphor
(7.8)	Igualmente, destacó el hecho de haber recibido el <u>reconocimiento</u> como “Mejor Proveedor del Año 2003”, que otorga la división de panadería de Wal-Mart. . .	Additionally, BBU was <u>distinguished</u> by Wal-Mart Stores, Inc. as “2003 Supplier of the Year” by their commercial bakery division . . . .

Culture, according to Dagut (1976) and Broeck (1981), can play a role in influencing the translation of the linguistic metaphors; and Kövecses (2005, p. 2) maintains that ‘[conceptual] metaphors may be an inherent part of culture.’ Nevertheless, none of the cases where the translation is not considered to be metaphorical indicates that culture is the reason for the lack of metaphoricity of the translation and, in turn, the absence of a conceptual metaphor.

The analysis shows that there are two possible reasons for which the translation of the source linguistic metaphor is no longer metaphorical in the target texts. First, the topic of the source

linguistic metaphor has changed in the translation. For instance, example 7.7 shows that the linguistic expression in the target text is a literal translation of the linguistic metaphor in the source text: *compromiso* - ‘commitment’; however, the linguistic metaphor in the source text has as a topic an inanimate entity –TELMEX, a company– whereas in the target text the possessive adjective of the first person plural (our) is introduced and the topic is no longer an inanimate entity. Second, the translation of the source linguistic expression is considered to be not metaphorical in the target text after applying the extended MIP, as illustrated by examples 7.5, 7.6 and 7.8.

### 7.1.3 Pattern 6

The second new pattern emerges when:

6. A conceptual metaphor is instantiated by a linguistic metaphor in the source text, but the source linguistic metaphor is not translated at all (omitted) in the target text.

To illustrate this pattern, see example 7.9 and 7.10 extracted from the MX-US sub-corpus, and example 7.11 from the US-MX sub-corpus. In example 7.9, *desempeño* is omitted, but the aspect on which the company, Botanas Barcel, has performed well is made explicit: outstanding sales. Similarly, in example 7.10 *desempeño* is omitted in the translation and the emphasis is on ‘operating income’. Example 7.11 illustrates one of the three occasions where the linguistic metaphor ‘debt maturities’ is omitted. As discussed in subsection 5.4.5, in all those three instances ‘debt maturities’ is omitted when it collocates with the verb ‘to extend’. The translation *refinanciar deuda* [to refinance the debt] seems to be the specialised term for *extender el vencimiento de una deuda* [to extend the due date of a debt]. It is worth mentioning that this could not be confirmed although several specialised Spanish-English dictionaries were consulted.

<p>AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS A PERSON</p> <p>(7.9) Botanas Barcel, cuya estrategia ha sido diferenciar sus productos frente a la competencia con un mayor valor agregado y mejor precio, tuvo un <u>desempeño</u> sobresaliente en el año, a pesar del comportamiento del mercado.</p>	<p>Omission</p> <p>Despite market behavior, Barcel had outstanding sales during the year, due in large part to its strategy of differentiating itself from the competition by providing added value at a better price.</p>
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	AN INANIMATE ENTITY IS A PERSON	Omission
(7.10)	El mejor <u>desempeño</u> de la utilidad de operación en 2004, es consecuencia fundamentalmente del ...	The higher operating income in 2004 was a result of strict control of commercial, administrative and general expenses as well as the lower level of depreciation.
	DEBT IS AN ANIMATE ENTITY	Omission
(7.11)	GRUMA obtains a US\$250 million, 5-year syndicated senior credit facility, using the proceeds to extend <u>debt maturities</u>	GRUMA obtiene un crédito sindicado a cinco años por 250 millones de dólares, utilizando los recursos para refinanciar deuda.

Pattern 6 has a relative frequency of .4% in the US-MX sub-corpus and of 5% in the MX-US sub-corpus. If the relative frequencies of this pattern is compared with the relative frequencies<sup>1</sup> of patterns 1 and 5, it is possible to say that pattern 6 is the least common pattern and when it occurs is mainly due to a modulation<sup>2</sup>. There was only one case of omission that the entire paragraph where the linguistic metaphor *compromiso* occurs in the MX Spanish source text was omitted in US English. It is uncertain whether this was a conscious omission on the part of the translator or was a mistake. This leads to the conclusion that the absence of conceptual metaphor in target texts seems not to be as a result of intercultural differences.

## 7.2 The extended MIP: Some issues

The use of the extended MIP in processing the BESPC helped to distinguish which lexical units were linguistic metaphors. In addition, the extended MIP helps to identify the underlying conceptual metaphor in a systematic way. For instance, some lexical units, such as ‘strategy’ and ‘volume’ were not considered to be linguistic metaphors, although they have been traditionally considered as instantiations of conceptual metaphors in the relevant literature. For instance, Lakoff and Johnson (1980b) argue that the conceptual metaphor ARGUMENT IS WAR

<sup>1</sup>The relative frequency of pattern 1 in the US-MX sub-corpus is 53% whilst in the MX-US sub-corpus is 48%, whereas pattern 5 has a relative frequency of 45% in the US-MX sub-corpus and of 46% in the MX-US sub-corpus.

<sup>2</sup>Modulation is ‘a variation of the form of the message, obtained by a change in the point of view’, as defined by Vinay and Darbelnet (1995, p. 36).

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is realised by ‘strategy’ in ‘If you use that *strategy*, he’ll *wipe you out* (p. 4, emphasis in the original). A plausible reason for that is that the original Pragglejazz MIP aims to identify contemporary metaphorically used lexical units, not historical metaphorically used lexical units. But the application of the extended MIP is not without problems. Some of the difficulties are the use of dictionaries and the identification of the Vehicle domain which depends to a large extent on the basic meaning of the lexical unit which is identified by means of dictionaries. These issues will be discussed in the following subsections 7.2.1 and 7.2.2.

### 7.2.1 Use of dictionaries

As mentioned in section 4.3, dictionaries are a useful tool to check and replicate a decision regarding whether a linguistic expression is metaphorical or not. Nevertheless, their use is not straightforward. First, researchers who work with two languages either for comparative or translation purposes need to find dictionaries in both languages with similar characteristics, such as whether dictionaries are based on a corpus or whether they address the same type of audience, e.g. learner’s dictionary or general language dictionary. This is not easy to achieve since the development on lexicography may differ from one language, or language variety, to another. For instance, there are at least three well-known corpus-based dictionaries in contemporary English: Macmillan English Dictionary, Longman English Dictionary and Collins English Dictionary. In addition, Macmillan, Pearson Longman and Collins offer dictionaries for learners of American English or British English. Table 7.1 summarises the characteristics of the corpus-based dictionaries for advanced learners. In contrast, the number of corpus-based dictionaries in Spanish are limited. For instance, Table 7.2 shows that there is only one corpus-based dictionary in MX Spanish and two in standard Spanish. Thus, a possible solution to use dictionaries in both languages with similar characteristics is consulting two dictionaries for a particular language instead of one. As described in Chapter 4, the dictionaries used to analyse the MX Spanish source texts were *Diccionario del Español Usual de México* (1996) and *Diccionario del Uso del Español de María Moliner* (2007).

Having decided which dictionaries could be used, a second issue emerges when the basic meaning is determined. If a word is polysemous, lexicographers decide which senses are included in the dictionary and how to group them according to the audience and the purpose of the dictionary (see Sterkenburg 2003). This has an impact on how the senses are ordered in a dictionary and, consequently, this can have an effect on the decision-making on which sense is the basic meaning of a lexical unit. To facilitate the identification of the basic meaning among the various senses given by a dictionary for a lexical unit, Pragglejazz Group (2007) indicates that a researcher needs to consider which one is the more concrete, related to a bodily action,

Table 7.1: Corpus-based Dictionaries in English

<i>Dictionary</i>	<i>Corpus</i>	<i>Audience</i>	<i>Language Variety</i>
Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners of American English	World English Corpus. (220 million words written and spoken texts)	Advanced learners	American English
Longman Contemporary English Dictionary	Longman Corpus Network (330 million words from a wide range of real-life sources such as books, newspapers and magazines)	Advanced Learners	English, Geographical information included British, American
Collins COBUILD English Dictionary for Advanced Learners	Bank of English (400 million words)	Advanced Learners	Geographical information included, British American

Table 7.2: Corpus-based Dictionaries in Spanish

<i>Dictionary</i>	<i>Corpus</i>	<i>Audience</i>	<i>Language Variety</i>
Diccionario del Español Usual en México	Synchronic corpus (2 million words written and spoken data from 1921 -1974)	Advanced learners and Spanish speakers	Mexican Spanish
Diccionario de Uso del Español María Moliner	CREA, CORDE, Corpus Gredos de Prensa Literaria, Biblioteca Virtual Miguel de Cervantes, search engines Google and Altavista	Spanish learners and Spanish speakers	Spanish, but it includes regional markers
Gran Diccionario de Uso del Español Actual Aquilino Sánchez Pérez	Corpus Cumbre (10 millions words from Peninsular and Latin American texts)	Advanced Spanish learners and Spanish speakers	Spanish, but it includes regional markers

more precise and historically older. However, the application of these criteria is not without complications. For instance, MED offers 6 senses for the lexical unit ‘operations’, a keyword for the US source texts; however, the more concrete is actually a subsense: ‘used about the way a machine or piece of equipment operates’. This subsense is under the sense: ‘the way

that something such as a system or service operates'. The question is whether to consider a subsense to be the basic meaning since we assume that lexicographers consider the subsense semantically very close to the sense under which it is grouped. According to Steen (2007, p. 89), a researcher should consider the subsense a separate sense from the main sense since the main sense and the subsense are different descriptions. In contrast, Krennmayr (2008, p. 104) affirms that 'sense descriptions that are subsumed under one single sense are regarded as manifestations of the same meaning.' Steen, Dorst, Herrmann, Kaal, Krennmayr and Pasma (2010, p. 37) seem to agree with Krennmayr (2008) as they indicate that in their modified version of MIP, known as MIPVU, 'when a lexical unit has more than one separate, numbered sense description within its grammatical category, these senses are regarded as sufficiently distinct.' It is, then, up to the analyst to decide which approach to take and, consequently, this will have an impact on the decision of whether a lexical unit is metaphorical or not. For the purpose of this study, it was decided to follow Krennmayr (2008) since it would have been possible that a main sense of a lexical unit is the contextual meaning<sup>3</sup> and therefore there would be insufficient contrast between the contextual meaning and the basic meaning to determine the metaphoricity of the lexical unit.

### 7.2.2 Identification of Vehicle domains

The identification of a conceptual metaphor depends greatly on the identification of the Vehicle domain in the basic meaning and this can be affected by the ambiguity and vagueness of a sense given by a dictionary. The ambiguity of a sense can be caused by the inclusion of both an animate entity and inanimate entity in the same sense making it difficult to identify the basic meaning. For instance, the Spanish lexical unit *capacidad* was not considered metaphorical because the sense given by DEUM includes both an animate entity, specifically a person, and an inanimate entity: '*aptitud o conjunto de aptitudes o cualidades que le permite a alguien o a algo realizar una acción determinada*' (emphasis added). Similar cases in English are 'to name' and 'to distinguish' as discussed in subsection 6.4.4.

The issue of vagueness of a sense is illustrated by the Spanish lexical unit *expansión*. DEUM defines *expansión* as '*acto de expandir algo o expandirse*' [the action of something expanding]. Two issues arise here. First, the sense description indicates that something [algo] expands and this 'something' could be either a concrete or abstract entity and this is reflected by the examples given by the dictionary: '*la expansión del acero*' [the expansion of the steel], '*la expansión de una moda*' [the expansion of a fashion], '*la expansión de la ciudad de México*' [the

<sup>3</sup>Although the contextual meaning is established by looking at the concordance lines of a lexical unit, it is likely that such a meaning is also included in the consulted dictionary.



expansion of the city of Mexico], *la expansión industrial* [the industrial expansion]. Secondly, the sense description is redundant. A possible solution to overcome these issues, particularly the redundancy of a sense, is to consult a second dictionary. In this case, the *Diccionario de Uso del Español María Moliner* (DUEMM, 2007). Nevertheless, the sense given by DUEMM is also circular and leads us to the definition of *expandir* [to expand]. The *Diccionario de la lengua española* (DLE, 2001) is, then, consulted. DLE's definition for *expansión* is also circular: *acción y efecto de extenderse o dilatarse*, leading us to look at *expandir* and *dilatar*:

***expandir*** *Hacer que algo, aumentando su superficie, ocupe más lugar o espacio que el que antes ocupaba.*

***dilatar*** *Extender, alargar y hacer mayor algo, o que ocupe más lugar o tiempo.*

*Diccionario de la lengua española*

Both senses indicate that 'something' increases in size but, more importantly, both senses indicate that such a thing occupies more space as it increases in size. We can, then, assume that such a thing is a concrete entity, although we cannot pinpoint a specific concrete entity and, therefore, a particular Vehicle domain. Nevertheless, we can say that the basic meaning of *expansión* is the process of a concrete entity increasing its size and occupying more space. The contextual meaning of *expansión* is that companies or their operations expand or grow by entering new markets, acquiring other business and so on. The basic meaning contrasts with the contextual meaning since the former indicates a concrete entity, whilst the contextual meaning entails an abstract entity, such as a company or an operation. Thus, a relationship of concrete versus abstract can be observed, and it can be argued that the lexical unit is metaphorically used. However, it is still hard to identify a Vehicle domain and, therefore, a conceptual metaphor, unless we opt for a general conceptual metaphor such as AN ABSTRACT ENTITY IS A CONCRETE ENTITY which does not seem to deliver relevant information for translation purposes. Bearing this in mind, it was decided that when the definitions given by the dictionaries are vague and lead us to a concrete versus abstract relationship, the lexical units are not considered metaphorical because, as mentioned earlier, no detailed information is given.

## 7.3 Metaphor and Metonymy

Neither the Pragglejaz MIP nor the extended MIP developed in the thesis aim to identify metonymy. Nevertheless, the application of the extended MIP has shown that it is possible to

identify cases of metonymy and also that a metonymy can be at the root of a conceptual metaphor, as argued by several cognitive linguists, e.g. Barcelona (2003), Croft (2003), Goossens (2003). To illustrate this, let us see the analysis of the lexical unit ‘company’, which was not considered metaphorical and, therefore, not discussed previously. In order to see how metonymy emerges from the analysis, the preliminary stages also need to be presented.

The lexical unit ‘company’ has a frequency of 368 occurrences<sup>4</sup>; however, in 59 out of 368 citations, ‘company’ is part of the proper name of a company, as shown in example 7.12 and 7.13<sup>5</sup> below. Consequently, those 59 concordances were not taken into account in determining the contextual meaning of ‘company’ because a name cannot realise a conceptual metaphor.

(7.12) In partnership with The [X] Company and ALPLA, a manufacturer of PET bottles, we have begun...

(7.13) Hence, we are working closely with The [X] Company to satisfy consumer’s growing demand for water through ...

*Contextual meaning:* Having analysed the remaining 309 concordances of ‘company’, it is possible to determine that ‘company’ refers to an inanimate entity able to manufacture, sell and buy products or services, and make investments.

(7.14) In October 2006 we acquired Pride Valley Foods, a company based in Newcastle, England, that manufactures tortilla,...

(7.15) The company began to sell only digital phones in 2002 ...

(7.16) ... that to be competitive and remain competitive it is necessary for a company to invest, that without adequate investments in infrastructure, ...

*Basic meaning:* The MED includes two senses which can be considered equally concrete:

**Sense 1.** a group of actors, singers or dancers who perform together.

**Sense 2.** people you are with

<sup>4</sup>In some cases, there is a discrepancy between the overall frequency of a lexical unit given by KeyWords and the number of its concordances resulting from Concordancer. According to Scott (priv. comm.), this is a common error in WordSmith 4.

<sup>5</sup>To comply with the company’ request to remain anonymous, part of the name is replaced by an ‘X’

As on previous occasions, the OED was consulted to determine which sense is historically older. According to OED, the oldest sense is “companionship, fellowship, society; also *transf.* of things. in company in the society of others, amidst other people, as opposed to *alone*; also, altogether, in all”. This can be compared to sense 2 given by MED. Sense 1 in MED is a subsense of the sixth sense given by OED: ‘a body of persons combined or incorporated for some common object, or for the joint execution or performance of anything; *esp.* a mediæval trade guild, and hence, a corporation historically representing such, as in the London ‘City Companies’.’

Keeping in mind the above, it was concluded that the basic meaning is a group of people that get together in order not to be alone and/or do something together.

*Contextual meaning versus basic meaning:* The basic meaning is not that of the contextual meaning which refers to an inanimate entity, i.e. a legally constituted for-profit institution, and not to the group of people that form the company.

*Metaphorical?* No, because although there is a difference between the basic meaning and the contextual meaning, a relationship of association between them can also be observed. Thus, the lexical unit ‘company’ can be considered to be metonymic because ‘company’ stands for “group of people” and also is understood as an inanimate entity, although retaining some characteristics of being a person, such as to be proud. Thus, it can be considered that ‘company’ instantiates a conceptual metonymy: REPRESENTED FOR REPRESENTATIVE<sup>6</sup>. The metonymic nature of ‘company’ seems to explain why the pronouns ‘we’ and ‘us’ or the possessive adjective ‘our’ are often used instead of ‘company’. See, for instance, example 7.14, where ‘we’ is used to indicate that GRUMA, a tortilla making company, acquired another company. Examples 7.17 and 7.18 below are from the 2003 and 2004 annual reports of Vitro, a glass manufacturer company, and they also illustrate the use of ‘we’ for ‘company’. Cases where the verb gives animation to a company, an inanimate entity, as illustrated by examples 7.19 and 7.20, are also regarded as instantiation of the metonymic nature of ‘company’. However, it can also be argued that ‘worked hard’ and ‘prides’ instantiates the conceptual metaphor COMPANY IS A PERSON. This phenomenon seems to be echoed in Mexican Spanish as examples 7.21 and 7.22 show.

(7.17) Vitro has served as a proud sponsor of Museo del Vidrio . . .

(7.18) We are the founder and proud sponsor of Museo del Vidrio, the first and only onsite glass museum in Latin America.

<sup>6</sup>see Cruse (2004) for a list of types of metonymy

- (7.19) In the past year, the company has worked hard to increase profitability and strengthen its core business. . .
- (7.20) X company prides itself on its standards of corporate governance and the quality of its disclosures.
- (7.21) . . . TELMEX recibió con orgullo el reconocimiento como Empresa Socialmente Responsable, por parte del Centro Mexicano para la Filantropía.
- (7.22) Nos sentimos orgullosos de haber recibido por 5<sup>o</sup> año consecutivo el reconocimiento como Empresa Socialmente Responsable, otorgado por el Centro Mexicano de la Filantropía.

The findings discussed here do not present a conclusive picture of metonymy-motivated conceptual metaphors, but they show the need to investigate this phenomenon further and also to find out what is the impact of this on translation, if any, as metonymy, just as metaphor, does not necessarily map neatly across source and target languages and cultures.

## 7.4 Conventionality of metaphors

The conventionality of a conceptual metaphor involves ‘how well established or well entrenched a [conceptual metaphor] is in everyday use by ordinary people for everyday purposes (Kövecses 2002, p. 29). Moreover, conventionality, as Kövecses points out, is a feature that affects both conceptual metaphors and linguistic metaphors.

Kövecses argues that LIFE IS A JOURNEY, a classic example of Lakoff and Johnson (1980b), is a highly conventional metaphor and can be realised by highly conventionalised metaphorical linguistic expressions, such as ‘He had a *head start* in life’ but also by highly unconventionalised metaphorical linguistic expressions, as in the following poem (Kövecses 2002, p. 31):

Two roads diverged in a wood, and I-  
I took the one less travelled by,  
And that has made all the difference. (Robert Frost’s *The Road Not Taken*)

Kövecses maintains that the writer uses linguistic expressions – ‘two roads diverged’ and ‘I took the one [road] less traveled by’ – derived from the domain JOURNEY but which are not conventionalised in English. Despite the plausibility of this argument, there seem to be

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no quantitative data that can support the conventionality of a conceptual metaphor and/or the conventionality of a linguistic metaphor.

The aim of the present study was never to determine the conventionality of a particular conceptual metaphor and/or the conventionality of a particular linguistic metaphor<sup>7</sup>. Nevertheless, there was the interest of exploring the conventionality of the translation given to a source linguistic metaphor in the target language, particularly if the translation is considered a linguistic metaphor.

It is assumed that the frequency of a linguistic metaphor in a particular genre, such as annual reports, indicates how well established or conventional such a linguistic metaphor is. Thus, the source linguistic metaphor 'growth' which has a relative frequency of .27% is considered to be conventional in the genre of annual reports. The question that arises is whether *crecimiento*, which is the most frequent translation of 'growth' is as conventional in MX Spanish as its frequency of occurrence in the MX Spanish target texts seems to suggest. Having texts translated into, for instance, MX Spanish and source texts in MX Spanish allows the comparison of the relative frequency of the occurrence of the translation, e.g. *crecimiento* and the relative frequency of the the same lexical unit, e.g. *crecimiento* in source texts. The relative frequency of the linguistic metaphor *crecimiento* in MX Spanish target texts is .2% and the relative frequency of the linguistic metaphor *crecimiento* in MX Spanish source texts is .19%. Thus, it is possible to say that the linguistic metaphor *crecimiento* is relatively conventional in Spanish. Furthermore, the linguistic metaphors 'growth' and *crecimiento* enjoy nearly the same level of distribution and hence, of conventionality.

Nevertheless, a meaningful comparison cannot be made in all cases owing to the frequency of occurrences of the source linguistic metaphor. Consider, for instance, the case of the linguistic metaphor 'rejuvenate' which only occurs once in the US English source texts and not at all in the MX Spanish source texts. Thus, it is not possible to affirm its conventionality either in the source language or in the target language. Nonetheless, it is possible to distinguish the conventionality of a source linguistic metaphor and the unconventionality of the target linguistic metaphor. To exemplify this, let us take the case of the source linguistic metaphor 'life of a debt' which has a relative frequency of .0085%. Its most frequent translation *vida de una deuda*, which was considered metaphorical, has a relative frequency of .0074% in the MX Spanish target texts, but its relative frequency in MX Spanish source texts is .0005%. It is possible to say, then, that the linguistic metaphor *vida de una deuda* in MX Spanish is unconventional.

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<sup>7</sup>Semino (2008) argues that the conventionality of a linguistic metaphor is evident when the metaphorical sense of a polysemous word is also included in a dictionary.

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The findings above lead to the conclusion that it is possible to ascertain the relative conventionality of a linguistic metaphor depending on its frequency.

## 7.5 Summary

In this Chapter, it has been argued that the bottom-up analysis of the Bidirectional English⇔Spanish Parallel Corpus revealed two new patterns of metaphor translation:

**Pattern 5.** A conceptual metaphor is instantiated by a linguistic metaphor in the source text, but the translation of the source linguistic metaphor is not metaphorical and, in turn, no conceptual metaphor is instantiated.

**Pattern 6.** A conceptual metaphor is instantiated by a linguistic metaphor in the source text, but the source linguistic metaphor is omitted in the target text.

In addition, the analysis showed that whilst patterns 2, 3 and 4 were not found, pattern 1 is very common: Same conceptual metaphors and similar linguistic metaphors.

The Chapter also discussed certain difficulties in applying the extended MIP to the BESPC, more concretely the use of dictionaries to determine ‘basic sense.’ But, it also raised awareness that although the extended MIP attempts to be systematic in order to avoid subjectivity, a researcher needs to take certain decisions that may change the outcome of the analysis, for instance, the selection of particular dictionaries or how to interpret the basic meaning in order to identify the underlying conceptual metaphor. It has also been shown that the extended MIP can be a useful tool to identify conceptual metonymy and explore its relationship with conceptual metaphor. Finally, this Chapter has argued that it is possible to ascertain the relative conventionality of linguistic metaphors – an important lexical property for translation decisions– by looking at their frequency in a parallel corpus.

# Chapter 8

## Conclusions and Future Work

*Metaphor presents a fascinating case study of the way in which human language, cognition and communication are structured and work.*

(Steen 2007, p. 402)

The present Chapter has a twofold purpose. First, it aims to give an overview of the outcomes of the present study and secondly to suggest possible avenues for future research on metaphor translation.

### 8.1 Conclusions

In this study metaphor has been explored as a conceptual and linguistic phenomenon in economics texts, specifically annual reports, and not as a decorative, semantically deviant form of linguistic expression. Conceptual and linguistic metaphors have been studied not in isolation, but by looking at the context of use. More importantly, they have been investigated from a translation perspective in order to establish:

- How the linguistic metaphors identified in the chosen source texts (American English; Mexican Spanish) are translated in the target texts (Mexican Spanish; American English),
- Whether the translations of the linguistic metaphors from the source texts are instantiations of the same conceptual metaphor as in the STs, or of a different conceptual metaphor, or the neutralisation of the conceptual metaphor, and

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- Whether the translations of the linguistic metaphors from the source texts are peculiar to the *translated* financial texts or whether they are conventional in *original writing* in the financial language.

To respond to these research questions, a bidirectional parallel corpus was compiled and, secondly, a procedure was developed to identify linguistic metaphors as well as to infer the underlying conceptual metaphors as objectively as possible.

The Bidirectional US English  $\Leftrightarrow$  MX Spanish Parallel Corpus (BESPC) compiled for this study is a potentially useful resource for further studies. As discussed in Chapter 3, in the compilation of the corpus, special attention was paid to its design in order to achieve a representative and balanced corpus for the genre of annual reports in USA and Mexico. One of the main challenges was to gather suitable texts. Annual reports are publicly available and generally easy to obtain, particularly if a company has a corporate website; however, not any kind of annual report could be included. First, a selection of companies needed to be carried out since it was crucial that the selected companies issue their annual reports in American English and Mexican Spanish. Then, it was important to seek permission from the companies to store and analyse their annual reports and, furthermore, to find out in which language the annual reports were originally written. The final composition of the corpus shows that the number of MX Spanish source annual reports (181,649 words) is higher than that of the US English sub-corpus (129,911 words); however, the difference is not such that it prevents a comparison between the *relative* frequencies of the linguistic metaphors in each sub-corpus. After obtaining the required annual reports, the process of digitalisation and preparation of the material for the semi-automatic analysis followed, an equally challenging and time-consuming procedure. For instance, Abbyy FineReader 7.0, OCR software, sometimes misreads words due to the format of the text, so the spelling of each digitised text needs to be checked. In addition, sometimes the software changes paragraph sequence due to the layout and, as a consequence, the order of paragraphs in the scanned text needs to be checked; to do so, the scanned version was compared with the original version. Manual alignment between the source texts and the target texts was also necessary in order to use Multiconcord despite the fact that the software has a tool to facilitate the automatic alignment of the source texts with their corresponding texts while performing a parallel concordance. This time-consuming clerical work was nevertheless helpful in becoming familiar with the annual reports themselves and enhancing knowledge about the genre and about the companies. Hence, the result of this work is a ready-to-use and representative bidirectional parallel specialised corpus of US English and MX Spanish. Since the BESPC is a representative corpus for the genre of annual reports in these countries, any finding based on its analysis cannot be ignored; a risk that, according to (Pearson 1998, p. 58), can exist



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if the corpus is too small, for example. In addition, the fact that the corpus includes annual reports originally written in, for instance, US English, and translations in the same language (US English) contributes to reducing the subjectivity of the findings since the corpus allows us to make comparisons between what is found in the translations and what actually occurs in the original texts. Furthermore, the BESPC can be used to investigate not only metaphors but also other issues in Translation Studies<sup>1</sup>.

The metaphor identification procedure (MIP) constructed for the purpose of this study was mainly based on the Pragglejaz Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP) because the Pragglejaz MIP has a bottom-up approach avoiding pre-conceived ideas. In other words, the Pragglejaz MIP allows us to avoid starting with ‘any preconceived set of conceptual metaphors from which to base further identification of metaphorically used words’ (linguistic metaphors), as the Pragglejaz Group rightly points out (2007, p. 33). The Pragglejaz MIP allows us to identify metaphorically used lexical units through a set of clear steps. The selection of the lexical units for analysis is carried out manually in the Pragglejaz MIP and involves several researchers; some modification of this procedure was therefore necessary in order to accommodate the design of the present study, namely, a single researcher, the size of the electronic corpus, and the cognitive framework.

Given the size of the electronic corpus, the extended MIP incorporates a keyword analysis, whereas a bottom-up approach to the identification of CMs generally consists of manually analysing a small sample of a large corpus and identifying possible linguistic metaphors based on the researcher’s informed intuition. The keywords analysis is done automatically<sup>2</sup>, allowing the researcher to analyse a large data resource, such as the BESPC, singlehandedly as well as to focus on those words that are salient features of a particular genre or a particular data resource.

As the Pragglejaz MIP is not designed to infer conceptual metaphors, another key step in the extended MIP was to infer the conceptual metaphor by identifying the Source domain and Topic domain in the basic meaning and the contextual meaning, respectively, of a metaphorically used lexical unit. The relevance of this step is that it allows us to make the “jump” from linguistic metaphor to conceptual metaphor in a systematic way rather than relying on our informed intuition. The extended MIP therefore seek to add increased objectivity as well as reliability to the identification of linguistic metaphors and conceptual metaphors, particularly in the context of bilingual studies, noticeably in translation. Indeed, the Pragglejaz MIP only deals with monolingual texts, whereas the last steps in the extended MIP consist of identifying the translation of the source linguistic metaphor and then establishing whether the translation

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<sup>1</sup>Correspondence to request permission to use the BESPC should be addressed to the author at [mmr-marquez@gmail.com](mailto:mmr-marquez@gmail.com).

<sup>2</sup>WordSmith generates a keyword analysis.

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is metaphorical. The incorporation of these two steps is essential to identifying the patterns of metaphor translation occurring in the data.

To sum up, the extended MIP incorporates several changes in order i) to scale up the applicability of the Pragglejaz Metaphor Identification Procedure using a corpus such as the BESPC, ii) to infer the underlying conceptual metaphors in line with CMT, and iii) to identify the translation of the source linguistic metaphors as well as to establish whether the translation is metaphorical or not and, if so, which conceptual metaphor it realises with the aim of identifying the patterns of translation for the conceptual metaphors identified in the US English or MX Spanish source texts.

The empirical analysis of the Bidirectional US English  $\Leftrightarrow$  MX Spanish Parallel Corpus using the extended Metaphor Identification Procedure therefore allows us to identify how the linguistic metaphors are translated, leading to the identification of three patterns of metaphor translation, as shown below:

**Pattern i.** Same conceptual metaphors and similar linguistic metaphors in ST and TT.

**Pattern ii.** A conceptual metaphor is instantiated by a linguistic metaphor in the source text, but the translation of the source linguistic metaphor is not metaphorical and, in turn, no conceptual metaphor is instantiated.

**Pattern iii.** A conceptual metaphor is instantiated by a linguistic metaphor in the source text, but the source linguistic metaphor is not translated at all (omitted) in the target text.

Pattern i was anticipated, but the occurrence of patterns ii and iii was unexpected. These findings are an important outcome of the present study since the patterns are identified by empirical analysis of source texts and target texts, as opposed to the work of Hiraga (1991) in which the patterns seem to be proposed on an *ad hoc* basis, or to the works of Deignan *et al.* (1997) and Mandelblit (1995) which depend on the reaction of translators and/or students to specific conceptual metaphors and its instantiations.

Whilst pattern i entails that the same conceptual metaphor is realised by similar linguistic metaphors in the source texts and in the target texts, it was important to find out whether the translations of the linguistic metaphors from the source texts are peculiar to the *translated* financial texts or whether they are conventional in *original writing* in the financial LSP of annual reports. The conventionality of the translations of linguistic metaphors in the target language could be ascertained provided that a comparison between the *relative* frequency of the translation and that of the linguistic expression in the original texts is available.

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Pattern ii reveals that a literal translation of the source linguistic metaphor does not necessarily mean that such a literal translation is also metaphorical. For instance, *compromiso* is translated literally; however, the literal translation ‘commitment’ is not metaphorical. A literal translation cannot be metaphorical because there is a change of the topic, e.g. from an inanimate entity to an animate entity. In the case of *compromiso*, the topic in Spanish is *empresa*, but in English the topic has changed to a group of people as illustrated in example 6.32.

With regard to the conceptual analysis, no cultural differences were identified in the transfer of conceptual metaphors. The absence of a conceptual metaphor in the target texts in the cases of patterns ii and iii cannot be attributed an intercultural difference; other possibilities do, however, suggest that no intercultural differences were found in the conceptual metaphors used in the two sub-corpora for genre-related reasons. Although annual reports are mainly produced in accordance with the Generally Accepted Accounting Principles (GAAP) of each country, Mexico and the United States, the authorities in charge of issuing these principles aim to facilitate trade between companies of different countries by standardising the accounting principles in order to allow financial information to be more easily compared. For instance, according to Consejo Mexicano para la Investigación y Desarrollo de Normas de Información Financiera, A. C. (CINIF) (Mexican Board for the Research and Development of Financial Reporting Standards, 2010), the Comisión Nacional Bancaria y de Valores (National Banking and Securities Commission) ruled in January 2009 that any entity that publishes its financial information via the Mexican Stock Exchange should follow the International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) from 2012. Hence, the conceptual systems of the Mexican and American financial communities are very much alike despite the fact they stem from different cultures.

The analysis of the data also suggested that the extended MIP can also reveal conceptual metonymy as well as being a useful procedure to investigate cases where a conceptual metaphor seems to originate from a case of metonymy, particularly those cases where the Vehicle domain is A PERSON. For instance, the lexical unit ‘company’ was not considered metaphorical, but very often it collocates with adjectives or verbs that indicate the characteristics or actions of a person. As a result, it could be argued that the conceptual metaphor is COMPANY IS A PERSON, that is to say a personification metaphor. Nevertheless, it could also be argued that this is a case of metonymy.

## 8.2 Future Work

The present study reports that not all possible patterns of transfer were not found in the data possibly because the conceptual systems of the Mexican and American financial communities

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are very close not just geographically but also in terms of their strong trade relationship, i.e. North American Free Trade Agreement. By using the extended MIP, other possible patterns as well as the patterns identified in the present study can be investigated on a different pair of languages to establish whether they are more evident in cultures which are more distant geographically and/or their financial systems work differently.

Further work also needs to be done regarding the patterns of metaphor translation in other genres. For instance, studies that investigate metaphor within the framework of Conceptual Metaphor Theory, but focus on other genres, such as popular science articles, can also apply the extended MIP to investigate which patterns of translation emerge.

The keyword analysis used in the present study allows us to identify linguistic metaphors and, in turn, through further analysis conceptual metaphors which seem to be peculiar to the genre of annual reports. However, the case of the linguistic metaphor ‘debt life’ instantiating the conceptual metaphor DEBT IS AN ANIMATE ENTITY which predominantly appears in annual reports of a specific company related, for instance, to corporate image raises the question of whether there are conceptual metaphors peculiar to a company. This question can be investigated by applying the extended MIP to each set of annual reports gathered for each company.

In the advertising field, attention has been paid to the use of visual material to persuade consumers to behave in a certain way and scholars such as Forceville (1996), Scott (1994) and Zaltman and Coulter (1995) propose the development of a Theory of Pictorial Metaphor<sup>3</sup>, a theory that explores visual material, such as advertisements and billboards, as instantiations of conceptual metaphors. As discussed in the present study, annual reports are also used as a marketing tool to convince potential investors and customers to buy the company’s shares, products or services. It is not surprising, therefore, that the layout of the annual reports used in the compilation of the Bidirectional US English ⇔ MX Spanish Parallel Corpus, is rich in visual material (graphs, pictures, and so on). During the digitalisation of the annual reports, all the visual material was disregarded in order to keep only the running text for processing by WordSmith and Multiconcord. However, a possible research avenue would be to investigate the relationship between linguistic metaphors and visual material, and its impact on translating such linguistic metaphors and, consequently the transfer of conceptual metaphors.

### 8.3 Concluding remarks

Researching metaphor is a challenging task due to its complexity. Nevertheless, the extended Metaphor Identification Procedure proposed in the present study allows researchers to work

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<sup>3</sup>The term was coined by Forceville (1996).

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empirically using authentic texts and inductively argue the case for a lexical unit to be considered as metaphorical and, furthermore, for a conceptual metaphor to be acknowledged as instantiated by a lexical unit. First and foremost, the extended Metaphor Identification Procedure contributes to revealing two new patterns of the translation of metaphors.

A ready-to-use bidirectional parallel specialised corpus of US English and MX Spanish is also an innovative and valuable outcome of this study. The corpus can be used to investigate not only metaphors but also other features of translation.

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