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A Comparative Study of Metaphor in Arabic and English General Business Writing with Teaching Implications

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF METAPHOR IN ARABIC AND ENGLISH
GENERAL BUSINESS WRITING WITH TEACHING IMPLICATIONS

A Dissertation

Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies and Research

In Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Fahad H. Al Jumah

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

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The study aims to compare and contrast the usage and understanding of English and Arabic metaphors. My research attempts to reveal how similar and different Arab secondary learners of English respond when asked to answer or interpret metaphors in both their native and acquired languages. Furthermore, in this dissertation, I also attempted to address the impact of culture in metaphorical thinking.

The study made use of a holistic approach, utilizing textual analysis, conversation meetings, participants' writings and questionnaire responses. The diversity of these data gathering and analysis techniques have revealed interesting insights into the conceptualization and processing of non-literal language. The research has also disclosed the dominant metaphorical domains within which metaphors discussed by the participants revolve around.

Results of the study revealed parallels and divergences in Arabic and English metaphorical usage and comprehension by Arab students. The presence and persistence of both active and dead metaphors in the business discourse of both languages has been observed. Some of the more commonly utilized metaphors included Up and Down and Game / War. I also noted the use of

Conceptual metaphor, such as LIFE IS A JOURNEY and TIME IS A COMMODITY, during the course of the study. In terms of numbers and idiosyncratic diversity, Arabic falls below English. Moreover, the cultural undertones of these metaphors were also taken into account.

Lack of mastery of the non-literal possibilities of the English language was highlighted as a culprit behind the confusion encountered by Arab students in expressing themselves metaphorically in English, as well as in understanding English metaphor. This revelation has serious bearing for academe, particularly those in the profession of teaching English to non-native speakers. Devising programs by which these students could gain exposure to basic and ubiquitous English metaphor might be of value. The results of the study also have bearing on business, as the study centered on metaphor on the theme of business. Firms that hire foreign workers might find it advantageous to adopt programs aimed at instilling sensitivity to cultural and linguistic diversity among its employees. This will expose employees to one another's non-literal language, as well as imparting to them the metaphors most frequently used in the organization.

DEDICATION

I dedicated this study to my fellow Arab students studying in the United States and in other countries where English is the native language or where it is used as the primary language of instruction. Being a student in the US myself, I experienced first hand the difficulties language differences posed in my attempts to communicate with others. Inadequate grasp of the language had been to my disadvantage in fully understanding what my classmates and instructors want to say. Figurative language and metaphor is definitely one aspect of the English language that presented considerable problems for me. Having gone through this experience, I know how it feels. In this light, I hope that the results of my study might aid Arab ESL students.

This dissertation is also dedicated to teachers of ESL. I hope the findings and results of this study make them more sensitive to the needs of non-native speakers of English. I also pray that this research could give them insights in devising programs, techniques and best practices in educating future ESL students.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this dissertation will not have been possible without the valuable help and assistance I received from my dissertation advisor and tutor, Dr. Jeannine Marie Fontaine. Hence, my sincere thanks go to her. Her words of advice, encouragement and steadfast support have kept my spirits up and motivated me to finish this arduous research undertaking. I am grateful for the long hours she has given to me. Her steering and constant notes and comments have kept me on the right track. The questions and suggestions that she gave also enabled me to have a clearer picture of my study's subject.

I also wish to convey my heartfelt thanks to the main participants of my study. I truly appreciate their willingness in volunteering for the research. Thanks also go to my friends who referred some of the respondents to me for this dissertation. The warm reception I received in the Arab student community of Western Pennsylvania allowed me to easily secure my desired sample of participants.

I would also like to express my gratitude to my expert readers who have helped me detecting metaphorical expressions in the analysis of textual metaphor, participants' writings and questionnaire responses. Frequent consultation with them has been beneficial for the study. The help given to me by Elizabeth Campbell, who has reviewed my drafts, also deserves mention here.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The word 'metaphor' is derived from the Greek *metaphora* which means "transfer," The composite *meta*, which means "transfer, carry over," and *pherein*, which is translated in English as "to bear, or carry" (Etymonline). Thus, metaphor stands for conveyance of some kind of change. Metaphor has been recognized as rhetorical devices that compare two seemingly different objects. This occurs when certain distinct attributes of one object are attributed to the other, thus describing the latter with the qualities intrinsic to the former.

To cite an example relevant to the present study, which concentrates on the use of metaphor in business, let us take the case of one famous marketing metaphor, "marketing myopia." This phrase was coined by marketing expert Theodore Levitt, in 1960 (Henricks, 1997). In this expression, the link between the way marketing is done and the way the eye sees is clearly evident. The reason behind the comparison stems from the recognition that the two processes have certain shared qualities or attributes that can speak for both of them, which in this case is the misperception normally associated with near-sightedness. This type of figurative speech is a tool of analogy and has increasingly been seen as fundamental in the development of human cognition, comprehension and learning.

Metaphor has been used and valued since antiquity. Aristotle himself once commented that “the greatest thing, by far, is to be a master of metaphor. It is the one thing that cannot be learnt; and it is also a sign of genius...” (as cited in Kittay, 1989, p. 1). Moreover, metaphors found in passages from the celebrated Sumerian *Epic of Gilgamesh* to the Greek plays of Sophocles and Euripides also attest to the long and distinguished history of this trope (Wikipedia). The use of metaphor has been studied as well as celebrated. In their book, *More Than Cool Reason* (1989), George Lakoff and Mark Turner examined the significant role of metaphor in poetry, noting the omnipresence and the potent impact of metaphor in poetry and rhetoric. However, Lakoff and Turner’s treatment represents a departure from the idea that metaphor is specific to the realm of literature; several studies have indicated that metaphor is a central property of everyday language as well (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980).

Recent studies, such as the work of Lakoff and Johnson (1980) have encouraged renewed interest in metaphor. Their findings, first viewed as startling, have led to more thorough examination of the subject in the years since the publication of their now famous *Metaphors We Live By*. For one, studies in cognitive linguistics have confirmed their claim that metaphor has conceptual and cognitive foundations. Metaphor is now widely recognized as representing and relating to conceptual domains and life experiences in ways previously unacknowledged. Yet, despite these welcome forays, many scholars still point out that inadequate attention is being directed towards the examination of

metaphor (Corradi Fiumara, 1995). There is an obvious need to study the linkage of metaphor with culture, and with particular domains.

In supporting earlier studies by Borden (1982), Schaff (1973) and Galtung and Nishimura (1983), scholars Kuroda and Suzuki (1989) reiterated the salience of approaching cross cultural studies by focusing on language. In this view, language provides an important glimpse into local cultures. And as metaphor is ever-present in language, it exhibits a great potentiality for mirroring the culture. Corradi Fiumara (1995) noted that culture can best be communicated through metaphorical language, as “reliance on the literalness of cultural concepts may...conceal the danger of devaluing ... inner experiences...” (p. 2).

Metaphor is credited with passing cultural traditions from one generation to another and is recognized as a means, repository and agent for conditioning cultures. Elgin, in *The Language Imperative* (2000) maintained that the conduct of American business can be described by the core business metaphors BUSINESS IS FOOTBALL and BUSINESS IS COMBAT. Comparing the medical tradition of the West and the East, she also pointed how the former conceive medicine along the lines of an overarching machine metaphor, while Orientals seem to prefer using garden metaphors in tackling the same subject.

The pervasiveness and everyday utility of metaphors are just two of the most prominent factors that add impetus to the study of metaphor across languages. Citing Lakoff and Johnson (1980) in her dissertation, Compaore (2004) attested to the commonness of metaphor in day to day communication. Kittay (1989) even insisted that metaphor goes beyond the linguistic domain into

dance, arts and other media of expression, although these areas are beyond the scope of the present study.

What compounds the interest and, at the same time, the difficulty in the study of metaphor is the very fact that language is dynamic. Unless it is dead or extinct, it continually evolves. Thus, the figurative language of today may be seen as literal in the future (Gumpel, 1984); likewise, at any given point, a language tends to contain many expressions that fall somewhere in-between the clearly figurative and the literal. Whatever the status of individual forms, most scholars agree that metaphor is conceptual and that a great number of our reasoning and thought processes are guided by metaphorical conceptions, although we may not realize it (Kittay, 1989; Lakoff, 1995). To mention only one domain, metaphorical language is important in the conceptualization of emotion and emotional experience, as evidenced by the persistence of metaphors dealing with several basic human emotions (Kovecses, 2000). A good example is offered by the almost universal expression “fall in love,” which expresses the experience of love by analogy with a sudden physical “fall” of some sort.

Currently, there is no one theory that could possibly account for the full origin, evolution and social significance of metaphor. Moreover, the range of theories currently in vogue are often contradictory, some theories suggest that metaphor is intrinsic in us, while some states that they have developed over time and, thus, are not inborn.

Typologies of metaphor abound. To refer back to one hinted at earlier, scholars have recognized that metaphors can be either “active” or “dead.” Forms

pass from the former to the latter category with the passage of time, as some expressions whose originally metaphorical uses became accepted as literal meanings. They are described as “dead,” because it is said that they have lost their metaphorical nature. In contrast, active metaphors are forms which still carry metaphorical force. People who used these expressions are aware of their being metaphors. Goatly (1997) used the terms “active” and “inactive” metaphors to refer to active and dead metaphors. In drawing the distinction between the two, he maintained that whereas the latter “may become lexicalized and acquire a new conventional semantic meaning, the former, on the other hand are highly dependent on inferential pragmatic principles to do with language use and users in contexts” (p. 110).

However, as became apparent in the present study, these two categories are far from presenting a satisfactory categorization scheme for metaphor. An intermediate category, also proposed by Goatly is the ‘dormant’ metaphor. These are metaphorical expressions that have become integrated into mainstream usage as if their originally metaphorical meaning has acquired the status of a literal sense, although users still can recognize their figurative roots, especially if they are prompted to think about those roots.

The study of metaphor is marked by many debates, some of which are still raging today. Among these include questions about the dividing line that separates literal from metaphorical language; the dispute between universally-valid metaphors and culture-specific metaphors; and even questions about the distinction between metaphor and metonymy, another figurative element in

language usage. These factors make the whole subject interesting and relevant for scholarly investigation. Comparative or cross-cultural studies of usage in this area provide yet another area for study; these are still rather fresh areas of inquiry, but they prove to be promising. The present study is an attempt to contribute to the latter area by offering a cross-cultural approach, while at the same time enriching insights in an area that has been studied in some recent literature, namely the use of metaphor in a specific domain. For the purposes of this study, that domain includes the area of business writing.

In this study, I attempted to meet two goals: the first is to assess the patterns that occur in metaphorical usage, specifically in the domain of published business writing. Metaphors in business language have been well attested. In particular, it has been recognized in recent research on usage in English that business is likened to the domains of war, marriage and sports or games. One example involving marriage is the reference to the merger of AOL and Time Warner, described as “a marriage of old- and new-media titans” (Klein, 2000). An instance of game-related metaphor involves the phrase “Enron’s end game” (Zwick, 2002) used to refer to the oil and energy company scandal that involved unscrupulous accounting practices. And consider the claim that General Motors and Ford “roll out their cards as another weapon in an ongoing battle for market share” (O’Brien, 1994) as a way of describing the credit card rebate strategies of these rival companies in metaphorical terms that make the rivalry look like the strategies used in war.

Significance of the Study

The present study has practical relevance to all teachers of English as a second language. The phrases covered in this study are necessary for reading English texts on virtually any subject. However, this discourse area covered here is the business domain. Although a significant number of studies have been published showing the presence of metaphors in the business domain, little attention has been given to the impact of this usage for second language learners of English. It is particularly important that the kinds of metaphors studied here be understood by Arab students, whose career plans are in business and whose success in their chosen domain will be dependent on their command of English writing in that area.

Thus, as its second goal, the present research is designed to ascertain the perception of business-related metaphors by Arab students currently doing their studies in the United States. The respondents for the empirical portion of the study are currently enrolled in programs in which English, a second language to Arab students, is the medium and in which business concerns are important. Ultimately, the investigation tries to establish the roles that comprehension and understanding of English-based business metaphors play in the effective use of English by speakers whose first language and cultural background is based in the Arabic-speaking world. Lists of common metaphors on the theme of business were drawn from the textual part of the study, and respondents' interpretations of these forms were solicited. The metaphors obtained from a survey of articles of several widely-circulated business journals in both languages. Examples of these

metaphorical expressions include “human capital,” “idea bank,” “company ladder,” “managing diversity,” “lean staff,” “bloated hierarchy” and “organizational restructuring.”

Pedagogical Relevance of the Study

The above discussion brings us to the relevance of looking at figurative language as a lens through which we might examine cross-cultural variances. The study zeros in two major world languages: Arabic and English. The former is the vernacular of Islam and is widely spoken in North Africa and the Middle East and in all countries with significant Muslim populations, while the latter is the lingua franca of international commerce, media and the academe. English is the language of several First World countries, namely the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada (along with French), Australia and New Zealand. English is also considered a second official language in many countries.

The study attempts to contribute knowledge in the field of cross-cultural studies on language and culture, especially with regards to idiomatic expressions. It is an established fact that most research on metaphors has been done for and in the English language. Simawe (2001) lamented over the inadequacy of studies delving into the presence and influence of metaphors in modern Arabic poetry. Only recently has that scrutiny of the figurative speech of other languages begun in earnest. Literature on the comparative analyses of Arabic and English languages, with emphasis on metaphorical language, is still scanty.

Since English is the primary world language, non-native speakers find that the ability to understand and use it is deemed crucial for their progress in the fields of global trade, education, and other professions. For many students and professionals from developing countries, learning English is integral to their dreams of studying or working abroad. Learning English is thus becoming an inescapable necessity for those not born into English speaking societies.

Learning English, as with learning any language, involves learning a whole host of linguistic and social practices, some of which are neither readily apparent nor easily grasped. Figurative language often presents a serious challenge to learners. Idioms, which are very common in English, cannot be taken literally without confusing a text's meaning or diluting its original substance. There is, therefore, a need for the new language learner to go beyond taking words as they are and appreciating figurative speech, such as metaphors, if he or she is to reach the end goal of being fully fluent and conversant in his or her new language.

In examining the usage patterns in the two languages along with the experience of Arab and American English speakers in articulating metaphors, the study can throw light on several notable cultural-linguistic points. This led to implications for increased awareness for Arabs currently staying in the US or studying English, both in expressing themselves in their native tongue, and in understanding and adopting the usage practices of the English-speaking business community. The results of the text-based part of this study can also be of essential aid to further cross-cultural language studies. The general

statements that offered in the concluding section supported analogous findings by previous studies and thus strengthen the existing body of knowledge in this area. Moreover, the fresh evidence that was unearthed by this inquiry refutes or clarifies unresolved or hazy issues in existing research and at the same time points to new facets on the study of metaphorical language.

Research Questions

In order to completely spell out the nature and purpose of the study, the following set of research questions have been formulated:

1. What kinds and what frequency of metaphorical usage appears in Arabic and English writings on business topics? How important a role does metaphorical usage seem to play in the two discourse communities?
2. a. To what extent do the metaphors in these languages fit into the categories proposed for conceptual metaphors by researchers such as Lakoff and Johnson (1980)?
b. What differences are found when one categorizes the source and target domains for these metaphors in the two languages?
c. How does the distribution of metaphors on a continuum from 'dead' to 'active' compare for the two languages, and how do the content or usage patterns differ in each category?
3. To what extent can the differences found in answering 2a, to 2c above be related to cultural differences?

4. What problems might arise for learners of English whose first language is Arabic when encountering these expressions in their English reading?

Organization of the Dissertation

This study is divided into six major chapters. This first introductory chapter sets the stage and tone of the study. It establishes the focus of the paper and the basic framework and background in which the study is situated. Definitions and important concepts that used throughout the study are underscored, and the chapter provides an overview of the problem that the study addresses. Most importantly, this chapter grounds the research questions that guide the study

The Review of Related Literature constitutes the second chapter. This chapter discusses the prevailing theories on metaphors. It also provides an overview of previous studies done on the subject, as well as introducing the prominent theorists behind these studies. A comparative description of the similarities and contrasts between relevant aspects of the Arabic and English languages also sketched. Lastly, I highlighted existing gaps in the literature, as a way to link the present study to the existing literature.

The third chapter outlines the Research Methodology. In this section, the focus is on the primary research instruments and procedures used in the collection and analysis of data, as well as the selection of texts and participants for the two parts of the study. The next chapter presents the results of the study, and discussion of these results.

Finally, the last chapter on conclusion and recommendations serves as the culminating part of the dissertation. At this juncture, the findings reported in the prior chapter were interpreted, from which conclusions can be deduced or inferred. The findings of the study were related back to the original research questions posed in the Introduction. Also, I discussed implications of the study, and recommendations for further research were made so as to guide future scholars who may be interested in exploring cross-cultural differences in their research on metaphorical language. Limitations of the study were also discussed, along with pitfalls and obstacles encountered in the course of the investigation that may prove to be of use in the pursuit of further academic undertakings in this area.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The Fundamentals of Metaphor

In terms of composition, metaphors are traditionally said to be made up of two parts: the 'tenor' and the 'vehicle' (Richards, 1936). These terms approximate Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) "target" and "source," terms that have become more familiar in the recently developed field of cognitive linguistics. The former (the 'tenor' or the 'target') is the object to which the characteristics are attributed, while the latter (the 'vehicle' or the 'source') is the object from which some characteristics are borrowed, to be attributed to the object being referred to. These two concepts can be further scrutinized on the basis of similarities and differences. Scholars discuss issues such as 'tension,' which pertains to the divergences between the target/tenor and the source/vehicle, while the term 'ground' purports to the resemblances between the two (Richards, 1936). For the sake of convenience, since the present study relies on the cognitive linguistic framework, the terms 'target' and 'source' used in preference to the traditional literary terms.

What Metaphor is Not

Because of its omnipresence in day to day communication across languages and cultures, the term "metaphor" has been used in many applications beyond its original nature as encapsulated in its very etymology. The word is sometimes used to mean the same thing as 'similarity' or 'analogy.' This has

provoked some confusion. Since metaphors provide a structure for discourse, in the same fashion as models do, there is also a tendency for the two to be interchanged (Gozzi, 1999). In this instance, the dividing line runs around the fact that models are basically theoretical constructs or visual representation, whereas metaphors are fundamentally made up of words and utterances about abstract ideas. Nonetheless, such delineation is still insufficient to establish a well defined boundary.

There is considerable debate on the definition of metaphor. Although the pioneering studies by Lakoff and Johnson were highly respected by many, they are not without critics. Haser (2005), for one, has criticized the arguments laid down by these two language experts. The various views on how metaphor is defined only illustrate the complexity of metaphors. Furthermore, the line demarcating metaphors from other forms of non-literal language is quite hazy.

Metonymy is one kind of figurative language that often gets confused with metaphor, especially when scholars try to apply formal definitions to the two. In defining the boundaries between the two, metonymies are generally thought to be concerned with the contiguity of the source and the target (Gibbs, 1993), while metaphors are seen as expressing similarity between two otherwise dissimilar objects. Haser (2005) claims to show the inadequacy of virtually every formal distinction that has been proposed between the two concepts. These include a view in which metonymy is said to involve conceptual mapping across various domains, while metaphor tends to focus on mapping in only one domain. Haser is particularly critical of the position taken by Lakoff and Turner (1989) who

argued that in the case of metaphors a whole schematic model, composed of two or more entities under discussion, is mapped into another schematic structure. Panther and Radden (1999) agreed with Lakoff and Turner in the belief that metonymy involves two entities in a single cognitive model. However, Panther and Radden differed in that they did not see the involvement of mapping in the case. Croft (1993), for his part, advanced the importance of domains in assessing whether a particular non-literal expression can be classified as metaphor or metonymy.

The present study, however, is little affected by these intellectual debates as emphasis was given more on expert speaker assessments of metaphors. Metaphor is the central figurative language that I discussed in this research. Hence, metonymy, proverbs and other non-literal speech forms were not pursued as such, unless they can also be construed as metaphors. For example, although the expression 'mom and pop shops' is originally a metonymy, for the purposes of this study it is construed as a metaphor set in the business context.

The Social Role of Metaphor

Early studies suggest that since the dawn of recorded history, humans have been using metaphors for ceremonial, spiritual, religious and temporal matters. Adherents of the cognitive-experientialist linguistic school of thought believe that language is linked to people's thoughts, imagination and bodily functions. Lakoff and Johnson (1989) maintain that metaphors are human means by which experiences are organized and conceptualized. The two also

share the idea that language, whether literal or non-literal, provides a way through which to comprehend, express and describe reality. On the persistence of metaphors in everyday expression and comprehension, Derrida (1982) claimed that metaphor is a continuous process by which concepts and views are created and framed and, thus, that metaphor is a force that shapes behavior.

Metaphors evoke imagery which makes them very useful in conveying meanings (Archer & Cohen, 1998; Ivie, 1999). Emotions such as love, hate, joy and sorrow are also known to have been rendered metaphorically since antiquity (Kövecses, 2000; Tissari, 2001). It has also been noted that metaphors have the capability to relay falsehood, since they can obscure differences and highlight potentially misleading similarities between two subjects (Wolf & Polzenhagen, 2003; Katz, 1996). Because they are not easily boxed or defined within certain limits as literal language is, metaphors have been known for expanding the horizons of human language and thought (Gozzi, 1999). The creative ability of this idiom had long been established, and even philosophers and thinkers as early as Aristotle attested to this unique and powerful property. Metaphors serve as the bridge by which two otherwise different domains can be linked through the recognition of certain shared structural similarities (Gozzi, 1999). In this way, these idiomatic expressions present new paths and insights into a domain, the nature of which may be otherwise difficult to know.

Although still much debated, other thinkers even refer to the ability of metaphor (that is, deep metaphors) to provide a well-structured discourse. Deep metaphors are a result of the combination of many surface metaphors, which are

thus connected to each other by a super or master metaphor (Gozzi, 1999). This idea recalls the universal 'conceptual metaphors' proposed by Lakoff and Johnson; both ideas represent major departures from the traditional notion of metaphors as being individual, and being embodied in one short sentence or a brief phrase. Attention to deep metaphors and broader issues regarding metaphorical discourse has gained momentum in contemporary times. Conceptual metaphors have been one area where recent experts have shown keen interest.

Conceptual metaphors have been found instrumental in facilitating abstract reasoning (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999). The two language scholars stressed that conceptual metaphors "permit the use of sensorimotor inference for abstract conceptualization and reason" (p. 556). Furthermore, since conceptual metaphors allow people to communicate other matters beyond their personal experience, they also are claimed to play an important role in systems of science and philosophy, as well as other similar forms of abstract reasoning.

Examples of common conceptual metaphors include PEOPLE ARE PLANTS, LIFETIME IS A DAY and DEATH IS A FINAL DESTINATION (Lakoff & Turner, 1989). A further example is EVOLUTION IS SURVIVAL OF THE BEST COMPETITOR (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999). Like other metaphors, conceptual metaphors are present in almost all possible domains. Those who accept the conceptual metaphor concept also maintain that such conceptual linkings play a subtle role in underpinning broad social or other cognitive positions. Lakoff and Johnson claimed that philosophy is impossible without metaphors, and they

clearly feel that one can extend this idea into other systems of social thought. In fact, Lakoff has written extensively in recent years about conceptual metaphors that he sees as underlying political positions; Lakoff (2002) links a 'strict father' viewpoint with conservative political positions, and contrasts this with a 'nurturing parent' metaphor operating subtly to motivate and support liberal positions.

Some Current Theories and Assumptions about Metaphor

Ricoeur (1975) posited two cardinal theories on metaphors, each with correspondence to distinct, although closely related, backgrounds: Tension Theory and Substitution Theory. Essentially, the two theories discuss how metaphors are created and how can they be identified in a particular passage. The former is said to have linkages with semantics, the latter with semiotics. Ricoeur defined the former as focusing on the "production of metaphor within the sentence taken as a whole..." while the latter is geared towards the "meaning effect at the level of the isolated word" (p. 4). A good case supporting the first theory can be seen in the popular expression 'You are wasting my time.' In this sentence, time is considered a precious tangible resource that can be wasted, such as money. The metaphor was present in the sentence taken as a whole, since we cannot argue that the words 'wasting' and 'time' alone taken separately in the passage can stand as metaphors. To illustrate on the other hand, the case for the second theory, let us take the sentence 'True love never dies.' In this example, notice that the word 'dies' takes the role of a metaphor. *Dying*, in this instance, does not mean the physical death that is possible for humans and

other living organisms. Since love is an abstract feeling, *dying* here may mean losing the feeling. The word *dies* then serves as the metaphor substitute.

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) claimed that most of the pervading metaphors in our communication today are culled from our physical world and our sense of embodiment in this world. This claim is supported by the philosophy of embodied realism which holds that a human being and the external entities and forces that it encounters are two parts of an inseparable whole or totality of experience (Rakova, 2002, Lakoff & Johnson, 1999). This thinking links human cognition, comprehension and expression with environmental factors. This embodiment can be exemplified in the use of words related to food and eating, such as “digest,” “swallow,” “eat” and “chew,” in describing how ideas and mental constructs are being processed and understood (cf. “I’ll need some time to digest that idea,” or “He’ll never swallow that outrageous claim”). Moreover, the Lakoff and Johnson (1980) also laid emphasis on the prevalence of orientational idioms to further demonstrate their thesis. Expressions like “He dropped dead” and “He is at the peak of his health” are just two of the many metaphorical references to Health and Life as “up” and sickness and death as “down.” In their study, the two concluded that humans’ facility to express themselves metaphorically and to automatically understand the very same metaphorical expressions is intrinsic. Furthermore this facility is mastered in the course of their daily interaction with the world and with one another.

Views on Metaphor: From Aristotle to Lakoff

Despite the progress of time and further research in the field, metaphors are still looked upon as quite distinct from everyday language. Many still relegate them to the sidelines of literary expression (Seitz, 1998; Katz & Mio, 1996). However, recent studies have come up with findings linking metaphors to a wide variety of other non-linguistic cognitive mechanisms, thus, warranting terms such as ‘visual metaphors’, ‘scientific metaphors’, ‘filmic metaphors’ and ‘spatial metaphors’ (Seitz, 1998). Yet, in spite of the presence of convincing studies by cognitive linguists, psychologists and philosophers of demonstrating the extent and impact of metaphors over and above what was perceived to be their traditional confines, there is no doubt that metaphors are still not getting the scholarly appreciation due to them. This section reviews some of the traditional views, and contrasts those views with ideas from more recent studies.

Developments in the view of metaphors can be roughly divided into three: (1) the traditional language view; (2) the synesthetic view and; (3) the cognitive view (Seitz, 1998). Aristotle is perhaps one of the earliest scholars to have dealt with metaphors. According to Aristotle, words are basically signs or symbols that express a thought about a thing (O’Callaghan, 1997). Words, then, express ideas. As more words are combined, they represent and give meaning to more complex ideas (O’Callaghan, 1997). This conviction held much sway till challenged by recent scholars in the field.

Anchored in the Aristotelian perspective, the traditional view contends that “metaphors do not depend on prior associative relations but actually create

relations between concepts” (Seitz, 1998). This supposition could be shown, for instance, in the expression “Time is gold.” This simple sentence combines the ideas related time and gold to convey that time is a precious resource, like what gold is in commerce. The concept of time and gold may have nothing to do with each other, but once combined they could present a powerful meaning that can easily be understood. Thus, the traditional perspective maintains that metaphors transcend the difficult task of isolating similarities between two quite dissimilar subjects.

This view has had a great impact on prevailing views of metaphor, and it arguably still exercises considerable influence in academia, particularly in literary studies. However, later studies have indicated that this simplistic explanation does not and cannot illustrate the total grasp of metaphors, largely because it treats metaphors as being the exclusive property of language. In this view, explanations of metaphors always boil down to linguistic concepts, which severely narrow possibilities for analysis.

For its part, the synesthetic view holds that metaphors allow for the identification of parallels across different sensory domains (Seitz, 1998). It is said that this capacity developed as the product of the maturation of the cross-modal zones in the parietal cortex of the human brain (Seitz, 1998). Medical case studies point to anomalies in the sensory connections in the brain, such as “colored gustation, shaped audition..., visual pain, textured and colored speech, and audiomotor synesthesia” (Seitz, 1998). Among those who link synesthesia with metaphor in this way are theorists like Ramachandran (2005), who devotes

a chapter to an extended discussion of the link. This makes for seeing close similarities between vision and hearing, even at an early age (Seitz, 1998). Of course, not all metaphor involves cross-modal comparisons; but it is argued that the mind's capacity for forming such linkages is closely related to our tendency to express ourselves metaphorically.

Finally, the cognitive view, otherwise known as the symbol systems view, provides the latest and perhaps the most apt exposition of metaphor (Seitz, 1998). According to this viewpoint, a symbol system involves transfer of metaphorical meaning. To depict this notion, let us take the case of the sentence 'The CEO went ballistic over the series of strikes that disrupted the company's operations.' In this example, the word 'ballistic', which refers to missiles or similar explosive devices, was used to express how angry and frustrated the CEO was over the state of affairs of the business he or she is running. Ballistic already has its own properties (namely, that being connected to missiles), but the use of the word in the sentence above adds a new dimension for it altogether.

The cognitive view asserts that metaphor is a mode of cognition (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Furthermore, it recognizes the existence of metaphors beyond the traditional confines of linguistics. This perspective holds that metaphors are present in emotions, events and activities. Goodman (1976) states that symbol systems go beyond language, into music, performance and visual arts, and even in ordinary gestures. For instance, pictures can convey emotions and feelings; hence there can be a good case for pictorial or nonverbal metaphors.

Of the three approaches mentioned, recent studies seem to give the cognitive view the upper hand. Groundbreaking evidence suggests that the development of metaphoric production and comprehension may even precede the development of language ability itself among children (Seitz, 1997; Seitz, 1998). It has been shown that infants exhibit an ability to convey metaphors through various means, such as bodily movements and nonliteral pictorial relationships (Seitz, 1997; Seitz, 1998). In an examination of patients with varying degrees of brain damage, the critical role of these body gestures in the organization of metaphoric thought was also shown (Seitz, 1998).

Corradi Fiumara (1995) insisted that the language of human physical interaction is largely metaphorical. In her own words, she described the language of human communication as a “constant weaving and reweaving of metaphorical contexts in which life and language join together in a metabolic process which extends from the extremes of impeding inner life to the enhancement of self-creation” (p. 142). The study done by Corradi Fiumara is largely grounded after the pioneer findings of Lakoff, Johnson and Turner (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Lakoff & Turner, 1989; Turner, 1987), who maintain that the inclination to resort to metaphors is innate among humans and can be seen in the very expressions we use to articulate our thoughts. Because of the significant contribution of the three, they deserve ample recognition. The succeeding section on the cognitive view addresses this.

The Cognitive View: An Inquiry to the Dominant Thinking

Among the prominent personalities behind the cognitive viewpoint are George Lakoff, Mark Turner and Mark Johnson. In a series of collaborative works, these noted academics (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Lakoff & Turner, 1989; Turner, 1987), argued that metaphors are omnipresent in human cognitive processes. They noted the service of metaphors in the field of economics, politics, mass communications (popular media) and even in our everyday reasoning and interactions with one another.

Hogan (2002) noted how some of our commonplace expressions can refer to a higher cognitive metaphor dimension. He put forward the example of an expression commonly used in the medical field to say that a patient has died- "We lost him." By circumscribing to the Lakoff-Turner perspective, the quoted sentence operates beyond the confines of the literal plane to purport to a larger schema which can be expressed by the larger cognitive metaphor, 'Death is departure' (Hogan, 2002). To paraphrase Lakoff and Johnson (1980), metaphors are thus a means of expressing and understanding one object or phenomenon in terms of another. Conceptual metaphors are the actual embodiments of daily experience that are inseparable from the body or person that had experienced them (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Lakoff (1993) considered metaphors as attributes of human conceptual systems.

By a process known as conceptual blending, Turner and Fauconnier (1995) claimed that we can see how metaphors create a new domain out of two previously distinct ones. This new domain has features of both domains, but has

evolved its own unique characteristics. In their collaborative article, Turner and Fauconnier (1995) cited the case of the phrase 'Land yacht' to refer to an expensive luxury automobile. The two words come from disparate domains, *yachts* being vehicles confined to water and *land* being distinct from bodies of water, a surface upon which only vehicles with wheels can travel. As the two scholars pointed out, "Land yacht' gives us land from one space and yacht from another, and asks us to perform a mapping between these spaces. In this mapping, yacht corresponds to luxury car, land corresponds to water, driver corresponds to skipper, the road for the car corresponds to the course for the boat, and so on" (Turner & Fauconnier, 1995). The diagram below represents the process by which conceptual blending takes place, with "land yacht" being the illustrative case (Turner & Fauconnier, 1995).

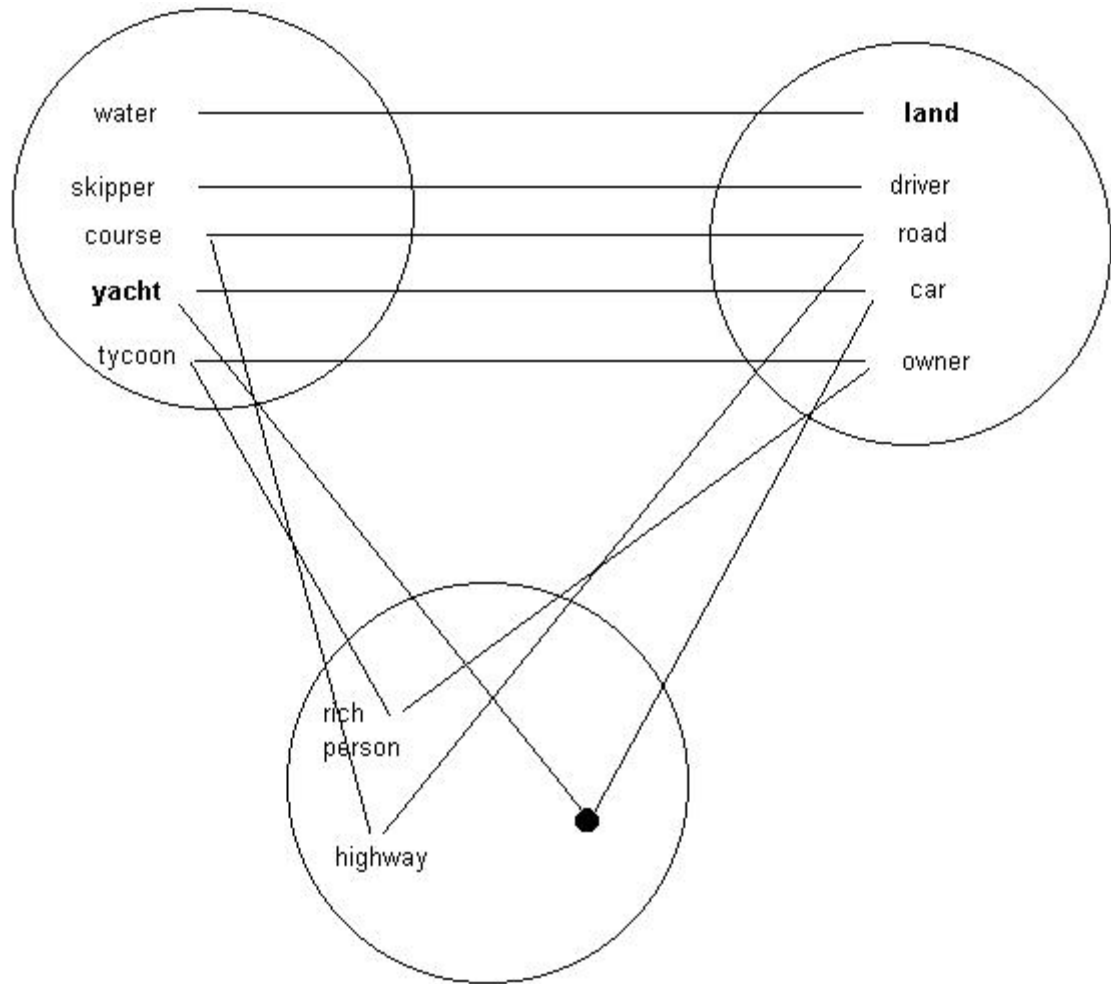


Figure 1: Sample of conceptual mapping process (Turner & Fauconnier, 1995).

Gozzi (1999) pointed to another example, that of the word 'cyberspace.' In this instance, *cyber*, a word which refers to a computer network is combined with physical *space*. The combination of the two ushers in a new conceptual space, a word which will have its own meaning apart from its two root words.

Still along the cognitive range of thought, but quite different in its claims, is the standpoint of Tversky (1977) and Ortony (1988). In a stance that disagrees with the earlier perspective, they contended that metaphors are fairly localized,

explicit and self-conscious (Hogan, 2002). In sum, while Lakoff and Turner view metaphors as broad schemas wherein we systematize our thoughts on target domains, Tversky, Ortony and others who follow the so-called 'constituent transfer' line believed that figurative speech represents at best "local comparisons in which we transfer lexical constituents from a source to a target..." (Hogan, 2002). An illustrative example is the transfer of "ugly" and "disfiguring" from "wart" (the source) to "billboards" (the target) in the expression "Billboards are warts on the landscape" (Hogan, 2002).

Because of the pervasiveness of the Lakoff-Turner viewpoint, as well as Johnson's stance in the academe, they have borne the brunt of later criticisms. Some have opposed the concept of "conventionalization," which the three thinkers uphold as a possible process in the case of metaphors (Hogan, 2002). Conventionalization here is understood as the phenomenon in which "at the conceptual level, ... [a metaphorical expression] is automatic, effortless, and generally established as a mode of thought" (Hogan, 2002). Critics argue that this term has not been clearly distinguished from the related, but quite different, term, 'lexicalization' (Hogan, 2002). Moreover, Gozzi (1999) held that metaphors themselves—like the very terms "mapping" and "target"—are being used to explain and account for metaphors. This, he implied, can be quite misleading, especially to the layman. For example, the literal meaning of the words *mapping* and *target* is different from how they are being used in the literature on metaphorical analysis.

Along the lines of this controversy, Hogan (2002) posited an alternative view, introducing yet another subtlety into the study of metaphorical understanding. He maintained that statements themselves are value free- they are neither figurative nor literal. He suggested instead that the metaphorical and the literal meanings occur only when the statement is processed, namely when interpretations are generated and the user's intention is inferred.

Reaction to the Dominance of the Cognitive School of Thought

As a consequence of being the accepted dominant viewpoint, much contemporary study on metaphors has centered on their cognitive or conceptual aspects. This has sparked a reaction among other scholars who wish to redress the balance by refocusing on the linguistic side of metaphors, particularly the language context within which metaphors are stated and understood (Steen, 2002). Still, other thinkers have chosen to discuss the philosophical underpinnings of metaphors, which they feel brings the discussion beyond the question of their relationship to human cognition. These new research directions are largely the result of dissatisfaction over the perceived academic fixation with the cognitive view of figurative language. Haser (2005) also presented a critical deconstruction of Lakoff and Johnson's thesis, claiming that inconsistencies and contradictions arise in some aspects of their work, in particular at points where they make sweeping statements about the effects of their own claims on, for instance, Western modes of thought generally.

Metaphor Identification

One facet of this later research on metaphors has been the attempt to link the cognitive explanation of metaphors with the identification of linguistic metaphors. Steen (2002) posited that there is still wide latitude of variation as far as this subject is concerned. This is attributed largely to the different backgrounds of scholars studying metaphors. For one, psychologists are having a hard time devising a reliable measuring instrument in detecting metaphors for their experimental studies. In stark contrast to this are the cognitive anthropologists and linguists who rely more on analysis and interpretation than on seeking the most reliable instrument in isolating metaphors.

The issue of the reliability of the tool used for the scrutiny of metaphor has prompted scholars to find means in order to mitigate the bias of the person who determines whether a certain expression is metaphorical or not. One scientific way developed to circumvent this prejudice is metaphor identification. Steen (2002) described the important points of this approach below:

The main motive for a metaphor identification procedure is to minimize measurer bias. Suppose you wish to compare the properties of metaphors in one sample as opposed to another, as in two works of one author, or one author as opposed to another, or one genre opposed to another, or even literary as opposed to nonliterary language. If different analysts use different measures for metaphor identification, it will not be clear whether any

resulting differences (or similarities, for that matter) between the two samples compared are due to the nature of the materials or to the bias of the researchers. It is simply good scientific practice to exclude measurer bias as much as possible, and a standardized procedure that produces demonstrably reliable results is one of the best means to do so. (Page 387)

This technique calls for five sequential steps, namely: (1) metaphorical focus; (2) metaphorical idea; (3) metaphorical comparison; (4) metaphorical analogy and; (5) metaphorical mapping (Steen, 2002). Steen used the phrase “Now sleeps the crimson petal” to demonstrate how these five steps proceed. The first step represents the isolation of the metaphor in the otherwise literal frame, in this instance *sleep* was singled out. The second step involves in the creation of a metaphorical idea deduced from the first step, namely that *crimson petals sleeps*. The third step involves the comparison of similarities between the target and source domain, in our example the activity of the *petals* and the *sleeping* of an entity respectively. The fourth step is a natural offshoot and corollary of the third step. Analysis and scrutiny of the personification of the metaphor is threshed out at this stage. The analogy that arises here is that petals behave like humans, since they sleep, an activity normally restricted to humans and animals. Finally, the last step calls for the transfer of meaning (mapping). At this juncture, petals are construed to be humans who exhibit the capacity to sleep and be inactive. In ascertaining metaphors, these steps are quite helpful.

Metaphorical vs. Literal Language

An interesting view advanced by Gozzi (1999) about metaphors is the idea that language in general is in a perpetual state of being pulled toward two extreme poles: codification and incoherence. Codification presumes well-defined and understood terms, whereas incoherence denotes unclear and confusing expressions. The former is thus anchored on the objective tradition's conception that language is more or less fixed or permanent, while the latter presupposes that language is dynamic and context-based. Following this logic, language instruction in schools is tilted towards codification, while everyday communication engenders a pull in the opposite direction, with its frequent use of metaphors, ellipsis and other features. Gozzi (1999) figured that no language is completely codified and that the boundaries between the two opposing sides are not that well defined. His bi-polar order is posed as an alternative to the traditional literal vs. metaphorical distinction, which had been supposedly debunked by several cognitive linguists who advocate for postmodern deconstruction and demystification of metaphors (Hart, 1995). Gozzi (1999) insisted that the conventional dualistic mode of thinking is flawed, since many words or expressions generally accepted as literal have, in fact, metaphorical roots. The framework of Gozzi (1999) has analogous correspondences to those previously put forward by other scholars, such as Postman's (1976) continuum of semantic flexibility.

The distinction between what is literal and what constitutes metaphorical language has sparked some controversy in the field of linguistics. While literal

language is seen as standard language, metaphorical language is viewed as nonstandard, or as some what will put it “abnormal” (Katz, 1998). One of the issues being thrashed out was whether “normal language might be mediated by a set of rules (language modules) that makes minimal contact with general cognitive structures, whereas nonstandard language requires input from the more general (i.e., not language-specific) cognitive system” (Katz, 1998, p. 20).

The subject of truth is a central issue on demarcating the boundaries of literal language from that of the metaphorical. One of the elementary tenets upon which Western assumptions about language and thought is anchored is that only literal language can possess truth and, thus, be most apt as the means by which the findings of objective and scholarly analysis can best be relayed to a larger audience. Because metaphors are basically tied up with subjectivism and relativity, many scholars view them with suspicion and contempt. However, modern cognitive scholars are quick to refute this claim. Addressing the debate between literal language as the objective lens and figurative language as belonging to the domain of subjective thought, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) put forward what they call the ‘experientialist’ approach. This approach resolves the dispute over the issue of ‘truth’ by asserting that truth is the product of the interaction of agreed cultural designations and an individual’s set of personal experiences. In this view, both literal and figurative languages are appropriate means for expressing ‘truths.’

In fact, it is important to note that some enter the argument over the merits of both literal and figurative language, by claiming superiority for figurative, rather

than literal, language. For instance, Corradi Fiumara (1995) noted that metaphors are most apt in conveying cultural concepts. Likewise, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) insisted that it is, perhaps, only through metaphorical language that humans can truly convey and express themselves and their conceptions.

Cross-Cultural Studies on Metaphorical Language

Several comparative studies have focused on the use and understanding of metaphors between two or more distinct cultures. These can be seen as falling within the broader field identified by Kaplan (1966) as contrastive rhetoric. This field of study is important in that it provides insights into the area of secondary language acquisition (Connor, 1996). Nonetheless, despite the presence of seminal studies, this area still holds much room for further exploration, particularly in the area of metaphor. Feng (1997) in her dissertation, referred to the study of metaphorical thinking across cultures as a “vast piece of virgin land to be explored” (p. 132). Trujillo Saez (?) expressed the same sentiment and invited scholarly investigation into this subject.

Cross-cultural studies conducted on metaphor so far are dominated by two conflicting intellectual camps- the one claiming that there are metaphors that transcend cultural and language barriers and the other which claims that metaphors are unique to cultures as they are products of their distinct experiences.

Culture-Specificity of Metaphor

Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) seminal work, with its emphasis on embodiment, might lead one to surmise that many, if not most, metaphors are grounded in basic human experience, and thus are universal. However, Kovecses (2000) claimed that there are wide cultural discrepancies between any two cultures, which make the argument for universally valid conceptual metaphors unlikely. In conducting their study on the Japanese, English and Arabic languages, Kuroda and Suzuki (1989) noted that a questionnaire written in one language cannot easily be translated to another without substantial variances from the source or original language. In their study, they discovered how respondents' answers on certain queries are framed depending on what language is used and whether or not the respondents are native or secondary users of the same. Aside from pointing out the risk of committing mistakes in translating directly words from one language to another, this also reveals that different cultures may have different ways of generating and processing metaphors.

In one case study by Gibson and Zellmer-Bruhn (2001), it was established that the concept of teamwork varies across organizations and cultures. The study was conducted in four different geographic locations of six different multinational companies. The two scholars enumerated five different metaphorical contexts for teamwork, namely military, sports, community, family and associates. The authors concluded that there is an existing relationship between national cultural values and classifications of metaphor use. Moreover, the understanding of

teamwork metaphors was also found to be dependent on the organizational culture, expectations of team roles, scope, objectives and membership.

Dodd (2002) offered similar support for the cultural specificity of metaphors. In his analysis of the grounded cultural model of US entrepreneurship, he provided a conception that had a markedly American description, which he had starkly contrasted with European mental entrepreneurship models and other metaphorically derived models of organizational behavior. Such studies are of importance to the present work, as I will need to generate hypotheses as to the nature of any differences I find in the business-related metaphors of the two languages. In other words, I needed to use the few existing studies as a partial guide as I attempted to interpret the differences as either superficial linguistic differences, culturally based but random differences, or reflections of a deeper conceptual ground, such as the linkage between business competition and war or sports.

In the related field of psycholinguistics, the departure from the hegemony of the English language is also being widely praised. Currently, scholars are beginning to be concerned with confirming (or refuting) the conclusions of English-based research (Bates, Devescovi, & Wulfeck, 2001).

Universally-Shared Metaphor

Despite of the seeming validity of the notion of culture-specific metaphors, there were experts who countered them. Many points were raised disputing the arguments laid down by scholars who adhere to the school of universally shared

non-literal language. It was advanced that in terms of the abstract underlying structures and constraints, the differences between languages are trivial, and that, in a sense, there is only one major language- human (Hogan, 2002). Although metaphor belongs to the domain of usage and not of abstract core linguistic structures, Lakoff and Johnson's original claims seem to also hold a universalist position, one that has also been found in work on other areas, such as that of Eckman on emotional expression across cultures. Compaore (2004) lent some credence to the universal claim by revealing the presence of a common class of metaphors in her survey of English, French and Moore, an African language. However, the author also found a small number of cultural-linguistic specific idioms in the three languages examined. Basically, the relationship between universal and culture-specific is not well understood, and much more study is needed to shed light on this issue.

The Dynamic and Contextual Basis of Language and its Implications for Second Language Acquisition

As language itself is dynamic, so are metaphors. Thus, some metaphors are eventually accepted in the dictionary and cease to be metaphors. In conventional terminology, these expressions are often called 'dead' metaphors. Lexicalized idioms, whose origin can be fairly traced to metaphorical roots and with much of the users more or less aware of their history, are, on the other hand, called by intermediate terms, such as 'dormant' metaphors.

Feng (1997) discussed the difficulty posed by dead or dormant metaphors for Chinese speakers of English. Whereas native English speakers could easily resort to metaphorical expressions which had become accepted as fairly literal in terms of face value, new learners of English as a secondary language tended to be unfamiliar with such expressions, and thus to have problems expressing complex or abstract ideas.

A number of researchers have hypothesized that cultural differences, in particular with respect to metaphor, may lead to problems in learning a second or foreign language. Hogan (2002) posited that we learn idiomatic expressions in the same manner as we learn literal language. Moreover, he claimed that learning the figurative speech of a new language requires substantial amounts of additional time, as this process presupposes a substantial degree of command of the literal aspect of the foreign language. Furthermore, as language is not detached from the socio-cultural milieu in which it evolved, it is also imperative for a non-native speaker to have some degree of immersion or exposure (Compaore, 2004). Similarly, Trujillo Saez (n.d.) affirmed that variances in cultural contexts accounts for differences in expressing one's self through writing. This is most true for ESL/EFL learners who may want to convey metaphors in his native language to the other language, or of applying these metaphors in a different cultural context from which it evolved.

Teachers now have to face a student body that has diverse world views and cultural backgrounds. The growing reality is that the classrooms of today are more likely to be inhabited by students coming from various cultural-linguistic

backgrounds; and this poses a grave challenge to institutions of learning. Given this, Spack and Zamel (1998) advocated the review and reform of the current emphasis on academic discourses, including the heavy reliance on steep Standard English as the language of academia. Such works as these, though they do not single out metaphorical or figurative usage, are also of indirect relevance to the current study, as they underline the importance of cultural differences in language use.

The Presence of Metaphor in Specific Human Fields

Metaphors are intertwined and are considered part and parcel of our daily expression. Whether we may realize it or not, they exert a strong force which impact almost all aspects of human communication and comprehension (Lakoff, 1995; Lakoff, 1991; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Lakoff & Turner, 1989). Different disciplines have already begun to recognize the crucial role that metaphors play in their discourse. This has led to many inquiries, as scholars from as diverse fields as the military, economics, politics, sociology and pure and applied sciences have begun to analyze the conceptual foundations of terminology which had become accepted as integral in their respective academic lexicons. Metaphors are largely context-based (Katz, 1996); given this, a study of the particular use of metaphor in a given field often reveals something of the world view of the field's practitioners. Metaphors have long penetrated the various aspects of our life. In the realm of literature, the exceptional qualities of metaphors are thought to make them the most potent medium by which to

convey literary experience in a form that can be easily grasped by readers (Stambovsky, 1988). However, as is clear from the discussion in this chapter so far, the realm of metaphor is now commonly believed to extend far beyond the literary realm. Recent studies have even suggested the presence of metaphors embedded in ancient artifacts that will retrace much of our past (Ortman, 2000).

Metaphors have been found to be well in place in the interventions being used by psychologists and psychiatrists in helping patients recover from a range of mental and psychological problems (McMullen and Conway, 1989; Angus, 1996; Dwairy, 2003; Colaizzi, 2002; Kendall, 2005, Al Krenawi, 2000). And even in the fields of theology and religion, the existence of metaphors has been well recorded (Soskice, 1987; Avis, 1999). Lakoff and Johnson (1999) emphasized the crucial role of metaphors in communicating the vividness, intensity and meaningfulness associated with spirituality. It thus becomes the vehicle by which people are motivated towards passionate devotion and spirituality. In science, Lewis (1996) maintained that “metaphors are essential to the conception, development, and maintenance of scientific theories...” (p. 487). Many scientists have attested to the potentials in articulating empirical findings to the larger society (Baake, 2003; Kuhn, 1979; Brown, 2003). Metaphors even found their way in the language of Information Technology, wherein their prevalent use had been very much noted (Izwaini, n.d.).

The intrinsic qualities of metaphors made them indispensable in the service of statesmanship, diplomacy and politics, and even war (Benoit, 2001; Thompson, 1996; Mio, 1996; Katz, 1996). Linguistics Professor George Lakoff is,

perhaps, one of the most vocal academicians ever to explore the role of metaphors in the formation of one's social and political reasoning. Metaphors had been observed in economics (Gramm, 1996; McCloskey, 1995; Schneider, 2002; White, 2003), jurisprudence (Archer & Cohen, 1998) and legislation (Rayner, 1997; Gramm, 1996); lobbying (Lakoff, 2002); and elections (Benoit, 2001). Scholars have established the influence of metaphors in international relations (Marks, 2001) and diplomacy (Lakoff, 1991). Musolff (2003) surveyed the use of health and illness as conceptual metaphors in national public debate. The persistence of metaphors in the military hierarchy and in the conduct of war was also well documented by many experts (Lakoff, 1991; Ivie, 1999; Parry-Giles & Parry-Giles, 1999; Lakoff, 2001; Lakoff, 2002; Bates, 2004). The use of war metaphors outside the domain of war (i.e. into foreign trade) has also been studied by Wolf and Polzenhagen (2003), in an insightful discussion that is of interest to the present study, as the domain of business is one of those which is ripe for the use of war metaphors to express business competition. Since this last area is the present study's main focus, I turn now to the special uses of metaphor in business.

Metaphor in the Realm of Business

Metaphors have been detected in the theory and actual practice of business. The phrase 'intellectual capital,' which is often heard in business settings, is one clear case of metaphorical penetration into business lingo (Andriessen, 2006). White and Herrera (2003) examined the widespread use of

this and other metaphorical terms in the business press. In the course of the media's coverage of telecommunications mergers and consolidations, the authors noted the prevalence of common metaphorical expressions, expressing linkages such as "Business as a Jungle," "Companies as People," "Monopolies as Dinosaurs," "Inflation as an Adversary" and "Mergers as Marriages." The marriage metaphor is also used in the business context to stand for relationships that are central to business, such as that between the buyer and the seller (Celuch, K, Bantham, J. & C. Kasouf, 2006).

Koller (2003) seconded the findings of White and Herrera (2003); pointing to the pervasive use of metaphors, notably war metaphors, in business reporting. It has been observed that this usage is instrumental in attracting the attention of readers and ensuring a captive audience. In this regard, Koller (2003) warned the business media away from the possible negative effects (e.g. defamiliarization, confusion) that may stem from the wanton employment of metaphors. Aside from war metaphors, Koller (2004) also discussed the persistence of sports and evolutionary struggle metaphors in business media discourse. Thus, she suggested the masculine bias evident in business reporting.

Smith (2005) discussed the persistence of metaphors in one of business' primary preoccupations, namely negotiation. Early recognition of metaphors in the course of a deal can bring full awareness of the intentions and implied suggestions of the other party. With the resultant knowledge of each other's positions, the author advised that both parties can better explore other options and opportunities for mutual advantage or compromise.

Organizational research has also made frequent references to the extent and reach of metaphors in their field. Metaphors can easily be noted in writings on organizational theories (Cornelissen, J., Kafouros, M. & A. Lock, 2005). It has been said that metaphorical language helps in problem definition, strategy formulation, organizational reforms and even the basic act of managing (Suchan, 1995). Metaphors are handy in the drafting of corporate strategic plans (Von Ghyczy, 2003). It is also said that metaphor is capable of providing a collective view of the varied experiences of organizational members and, thus, that it can serve as a blueprint for action (Suchan, 2005). Fenley (1998) added that metaphors can contribute much in understanding organizational behavior and in prescribing ways by which to make the organization perform better.

Oswick and Montgomery (1999) pointed out that metaphors offer an easy and interestingly accurate portrayal of the company's image. In their case study of a US multinational with subsidiaries in the UK, the two found out how a company can be metaphorically compared to an animal. A company characterized by a slow pace of change or activity was likened to one of a number of heavy and slow-moving animals—an elephant, perhaps—while organizations that adjust quickly to the changes in its environment are equated with lean and agile predators, such as a lion or an eagle.

Similar studies by Öztel and Hinz (2001) supported the role of metaphors in effecting organizational change. In their study of Danish sugar factories they advised the use of metaphors, with their vividness and imagery, in cultivating emotions and imparting learning, consciously or otherwise, to employees.

In the field of workplace performance, several scholars have indicated the potentials of metaphors in motivating employees to excel in the disposition of their functions. Phillips (1998) pointed that the employment of metaphors can reveal performance limitations, pressure and stress among employees. He further postulated that with the proper steering these operational metaphors can be harnessed to modify these conditions and, therefore, encourage workers to do better.

Metaphors have left a deep imprint as to decisions about how commercial advertisements and promotional campaigns should be shaped. Many studies have attested to the strong impact of metaphor in furthering sales (Boozer, R., Wyld, D. & J. Grant, 1992). Metaphorical expressions have retained their visible presence in the field of popular media, print and otherwise. With respect to marketing and promotion, Reichert (1999) concluded that concrete metaphors are generally more effective than abstract metaphors. However, it was further concluded that metaphor comprehension still largely rests on the speed and manner by which the commercial's intended audience processed and grasped any given metaphor, regardless of whether it was concrete or abstract. Citing the terminology used by McCabe (1988), concrete metaphors are understood as "those which rely on comparisons that can be experienced directly, that is, through the five senses... [while] abstract metaphors involve comparisons that cannot be experienced directly... [and] are based on something intangible" (Reichert, 1999). Moreover, it was stressed that some products or services are

best advertised or promoted in mass media (i.e. radio, television, print) by using abstract, rather than concrete, metaphors.

New market research techniques are also being devised to factor in the vital role of metaphors in constructing models of consumer behavior and purchase patterns. One useful methodology employed in this direction is the Zaltman Metaphor Elicitation Technique or ZMET (Coulter & Zaltman, 1995).

Metaphors have long infiltrated the other aspects of business as well, beyond management, organization, workplace conditions, bargaining and negotiation and marketing. Goodwin (1996) documented the extensive use of metaphors in the characterization of services offered, particularly factory and drama metaphors. Walters-York (1996), on the other hand, observed the occurrence of metaphors in the sphere of accounting. Metaphors are also well-examined in the domain of economics (Gramm, 1996; McCloskey, 1995; Schneider, 2002; White, 2003). White (2003), for instance, focused on the metaphorical roots of the concept of growth, which is an all-too important term in the discourse of economics.

Although the literature abounds with a narration of the benefits of metaphors in business organization and conduct, some scholars raised the alarm over the possible downsides of using figurative language. Managing diversity, one of the most contemporary and often talked-about managerial trends, is one good example of a managerial metaphor that may pose problematic issues for employees. With its emphasis on competitive advantage and fast fix disposition, managing diversity may concentrate on the vantage point of management, while

neglecting or greatly reducing attention given to the aspirations and sentiments of the diverse employees themselves (Harter & Kirby, 2003). Thake (1989) expressed the same alarm, saying that most organizational metaphors had a great propensity to treat employees as though they are an expendable corporate resource, instead of seeing them as a reliable long-term asset. In negotiations, Smith (2005) warned of the dangers of the use of metaphors for their ability to highlight certain areas, while covering others. Because metaphors can reduce analysis of a complex phenomenon to a simple plane, it may cause a party to approve a proposal, while not being made aware of the total picture (Smith, 2005).

The business buzzword “corporate citizenship” is one clear example of the strong influence of figurative language in contemporary business. This phrase likens corporations, which are the dominant players in global business and economic activities today, to individuals which participate in the process of citizenship. While there is reasonable apprehension associated with analyzing the participation of private companies in society in these metaphorical terms, the strategy of using such metaphors has proven to be essential in unraveling the various modes by which business can interact and participate in the affairs of the larger social environment in which it operates (Matten, 2003).

The Languages

Arabic

Arabic is a Semitic language belonging to the Afro-Asiatic family. It is closely related to Hebrew and ancient Aramaic. The Summer Institute for Linguistics (SIL) Ethnologue Survey (1999) ranks Arabic as the world's sixth most widely used language, with 174,950,000 speakers worldwide (Gordon, 2005). It is the official language for most countries in the Middle East, such as Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, Iraq, Syria and the United Arab Emirates, and North Africa, like Egypt, Libya, Algeria and Morocco. It is also used in Central Asia, West Africa and the eastern African coasts as far south as the Comoros, where it is designated as an official tongue. In earlier times, Arabic found use in the greater part of Spain (Andalusia). During the 6th century, it became an accepted literary as well as scientific language. As the official liturgical language of Islam, Arabic has been in use for centuries in practically every area where there is a thriving Muslim community. Together with Italian, French, Greek, Turkish and Persian, Arabic words are said to have contributed to the formation of the Sabir, a pidgin or contact language which facilitated trade around the Mediterranean rim in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Because of its spread, Arabic also evolved many distinct dialects, although there could be intelligible communication between speakers across different geographic regions. Among the well known dialects are Egyptian Arabic, Maghreb Arabic (for much of North Africa) Ḥassānīya (in Mauritania and Western Sahara) and Levantine Arabic (for Lebanon, Palestine and the western regions of Syria and Jordan). With its

conspicuous place in the business world today, Arabic has been predicted as one of four languages that may retain prominence among the world's major languages in decades to come (Graddol, 2006)

English

English is undoubtedly the most sought after second language in the world. From England, where the language is documented from about 400 a.d., it spread to the New World (United States and Canada, where it is the official language along with French) and eventually to all corners of the British overseas empire (later known as the British Commonwealth). Now, aside from the United Kingdom, the United States and their overseas territories and dependencies, English is also an official language in Australia, Canada (alongside French), New Zealand, Ireland (alongside Irish Gaelic), and in many Caribbean and Pacific island nations. It is the second language in South Africa and other parts of Africa. After Chinese and Hindi, English is the third largest global language. As a consequence of its immense reach, it has also developed its own range of dialects, with distinct forms of slang, accent and lexicon. As another measure of its historical prominence, many Creole or pidginized forms of English had been recorded, especially at the peak of 19th century colonial expansion and trade to Africa, the Indies and the New World. Technically, English is classified as a West Germanic language, brought to Britain by a wave of migrations by Germanic tribes from what is present-day northwest Germany. Prior to these incursions, most of the British Isles were peopled by Celts, who speak a different language

and whose present descendants include the Irish, the Scots, and to a certain degree, the Welsh.

Comparative Studies on Arabic and English

The comparative study of thought processing, formation and articulation patterns between Americans and Arabs is a relatively little explored area (Will, 2001; Kanso & Nelson, 2002). Accordingly, both groups tend to harbor flawed or exaggerated impressions and stereotypes of each other (Kanso & Nelson, 2002). What is more alarming is that this misperception is being magnified by the media and popular literature, tending to portray a scenario wherein Arabic and English speakers are at the opposite poles in terms of their language and cultural worlds. In Will's, as well as Kanso and Nelson's, comparative study of the Arab and American language and culture, an outline of several prior observations made by other scholars on the subject were presented. The table below illustrates these salient points:

Table 1. *Comparative Characteristics of Arab and American Language and Culture as Observed by Various Scholars (Will, 200; Kanso & Nelson, 2002)*

Scholar	Characteristics of American Language	Characteristics of Arabic Language
Levine (1985)	Direct	Indirect
	Clear	Symbolic
	Simplicity valued	Embellishment valued
	Avoid sentiments	Capitalize on sentiments
Hall (1976)	Low-context	High-context
Ting-Toomey (1985)	Explicit	Implicit
	Meaning in code	Meaning in context
	Speaker is more responsible for message comprehension	Audience is more responsible for understanding message
Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961)	"Doing" orientation	"Being" orientation
	Emphasis on achievements and measurable action	Emphasis on relationship in social context
	Words match deeds	Words for social effect
Ong (1980)	Literate society	Oral society
Gold (1988)	Accuracy stressed	Emotional resonance
	Speaker detached from audiences	Speaker and audience linked
	Singular experience	Group experience
	Written words valued	Oral experience valued
Dodd (1982)	Linear	Non-linear
	Object-oriented	People and event oriented
	One theme	Multiple themes
	Beginning end and stressed	Organization not stressed
Preferences for messages	Clarity	Affect
	Objectivity	Repetition
	Accuracy	Symbols
	Actions	Over-assertion
	Understatement	

Metaphor in Arabic and English

Aristotle's seminal work on metaphors, the *Poetics*, was translated in Arabic in the 9th century, as early as any major European language. Thus, the study and interest on metaphors in Arabic literature is arguably quite deeply rooted in at least one important source similar to those recognized for English (Simawe, 2001). The pervasive use of proverbs by Bedouin-Arabs to convey personal and family circumstances have been recorded (Al-Krenawi, 2000). Ibn Taimiyah, a famous Arab scholar of the 13th century, established several metaphorical patterns in Arabic words (Alturki, 1999). He was looking at the semantic meanings and he found that some of the words can accept metaphorical patterns, while others can only rely on their original meanings. Yousef Abu Aldoos (1998) puts forward the concepts of 'free' and 'transferred' metaphor. He maintained that there is a new meaning transferred to the word (the metaphor), which detaches (or 'frees') it from its original meaning. Aldoos (1998) also noted that Muslim scholars have long commented on the prevalence of metaphors in Quaranic verses. He also agreed on the persistent employment of metaphors in eloquent Arabic language, such as those used in oratory and in the drafting of speeches. Aldoos (1998) presented the case of Ibn Qutaibah (Abo Muhammad, Abdullah Ibn Muslim, died 276 AH), who outlined several ways by which Arabs made use of metaphors. The classical scholar Ibn Qutaibah also thought that no one could translate the Holy Quran because he felt that no other language has as many metaphorical patterns as Arabic.

Aldoos (1998) also underscored the relevance of metaphors in looking at Arab social customs and tradition. The expression, for example, of “I have nothing wrong, but I am as a coward dog and a weak young camel” has serious socio-cultural undertones. In Arab customs, when a family's dog became accustomed to guests and had come to cease barking (which is construed as becoming cowardly), the owner of the dog is said to be generous. The weakness of the young camel, on the other hand, means that the mother camel's milk is given to the guests instead of to the young camel or slaughtering the mother camel for the guests. The use of camel situates the example in the Arabian context, where these four-legged mammals are used as reliable transport. Camels are supposed to be strong since they carry heavy load under the hot desert sun for days before they get to their destinations; a weak camel, thus, deserves special attention for many Arab traders, who rely on these animals for their livelihood.

However, while recent studies, particularly in the West, have revealed new insights about metaphors, no similar change in view has been observed in Arabic (Simawe, 2001). In most of the Arabic-speaking world, metaphors are still seen as mere literary adornments, unlike in the West, where the cognitive and linguistic underpinnings of figurative language are being actively discussed.

Several scholars have already substantiated the claim that English is largely a metaphorical language (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Lakoff, 1993). For example, Ching (1993) discussed the persistent nature of game metaphors in American culture. The employment of metaphors in English prose and poetry

has had a long history, and anyone can fairly notice their ubiquity in almost any English literary piece. However, at this juncture, since similar studies of Arabic usage have not been carried out, it is hard to discern whether either of the two languages is more metaphorical, or to what extent and how metaphorical usage in the two languages might differ. In fact, to indulge in such debate is frustrating, if not unrewarding, since there is still no agreed instrument to be used in gauging “metaphoricity” across languages. In this regard, Simawe (2001) advocated the need to situate language in the cultural, historical and linguistic contexts in which it interacts with. This, accordingly, could greatly improve the subject of cross-cultural studies on metaphors. It is in this spirit that the present study situates itself in a particular discipline, in order to be better able to identify and compare patterns of metaphor usage in the two languages.

Concluding Remarks

In this chapter, I have covered the literature relating to metaphor, with special reference to research done by cognitive linguists. This study is intended as a contribution to that body of literature, especially in the cross-cultural perspective that is relevant for professionals in the field of TESOL.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Considering the nature of the study, a qualitative research design was pursued. A qualitative study is most apt since it is the most suitable in the investigation of social phenomena in their natural contexts (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003; Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). The inductive reasoning on which qualitative studies rests also affords more possibilities to zero in on issues best covered by language, as compared with the figures and computations produced in quantitative research. Grounded in phenomenology, qualitative inquiry involves the attempt to interpret word or phrase meanings and make sense of ideas or concepts as related to or expressed by people (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003).

Maykut and Morehouse (1994) cite a 'marginalization' of qualitative research, arguing that the fundamental cause behind this phenomenon is the fact that the philosophical underpinnings behind qualitative work are less known. To this is attributed the notion that qualitative research, in stark contrast to quantitative research, is less rigorous and objective and, thus, less scientific. The two authors refuted these claims, insisting that they are unfounded and are, in reality, contrary to facts. Qualitative research has found favor in forms such as case studies and ethnographies, and in the fields of psychology, cultural anthropology and even medical science, to name only a few. It is maintained that

qualitative and quantitative research are hardly comparable since they rest on two different sets of postulates and reflect two distinct traditions.

This dissertation study is basically revolved around the identification of similarities and differences between Arabic and English languages in the use of metaphors in the articulation and comprehension of abstract concepts in business prose. In the pursuit of this endeavor, several articles from Arabic and English business magazines and periodicals are screened for their metaphorical content. The metaphors obtained in this process then were listed and their frequency across the different business articles selected noted. The list was analyzed for content and type, using categories drawn from research on metaphor over the past several decades. Examples also were discussed for their relative degree of dependence on cultural factors. Finally, a list of potentially problematic examples for English learners was chosen. These examples were used later in the formulation of questions which were addressed to a group of respondents. The target group of the study was Arab students currently studying in the United States. These participants first were asked to write an English-language essay of their own, in a spontaneous, informal context, on a business related issue that is of importance to them. They then were asked to talk about their experiences in writing, and any concepts they had trouble expressing as they wrote. Next, in a second session, they were asked to respond to a questionnaire exploring the meanings they attribute to the potentially problematic forms chosen from the analysis of written texts. After this step, I engaged in a brief conversation with each respondent, to explore the learner's reactions to

metaphorical usage and the strategies each participant used in ascribing meanings to the questionnaire items.

Research Questions

At this juncture, it is sensible to reiterate the fundamental research questions that the study likes to answer. These research questions, mentioned in the Introduction (Chapter I), are the following:

1. What kinds and what frequency of metaphorical usage appears in Arabic and English writings on business topics? How important a role does metaphorical usage seem to play in the two discourse communities?
2. a. To what extent do the metaphors in these languages fit into the categories proposed for conceptual metaphors by researchers such as Lakoff and Johnson (1980)?
b. What differences are found when one categorizes the source and target domains for these metaphors in the two languages?
c. How does the distribution of metaphors on a continuum from 'dead' to 'active' compare for the two languages, and how do the content or usage patterns differ in each category?
3. To what extent can the differences found in answering 2a, to 2c above be related to cultural differences?
4. What problems might arise for learners of English whose first language is Arabic when encountering these expressions in their English reading?

Research Design

As discussed in the first sections of this chapter, the study depends on a methodology which is best characterized as theoretical and qualitative, involving only minimal descriptive statistics in the calculation of frequency for metaphorical types in the textual analysis, and reporting of 'correct' or other responses to the questionnaire. The research questions do not attempt to elicit answers that require complicated statistical or mathematical tests. Rather, linguistic and qualitative analysis was utilized. Snowball sampling, as discussed by Zoltan (2003), were used as the sampling strategy.

The study involved four activities: (1) textual analysis; (2) collection of written documents from learner participants; (3) comprehension testing via a questionnaire; and; (4) two rounds of informal meetings, which can best be termed 'brief conversations' with the participants, as they involved limited scope. One such conversation took place after step (2) and focused on the participants' writing experiences; the second encounter, after the questionnaire was completed, probed the participants' experiences and strategies in responding to the questionnaire items.

For the textual analysis, a corpus or body of reading materials were identified. Basically, these materials were composed of business-related magazine and periodical articles, both in English and Arabic. In all, a total of forty (40) articles served as the primary source of metaphors for the study. Twenty (20) of these Articles came from English writings, while the other twenty (20) were in Arabic. The number of questions was made after a similar study on

comparative metaphorical perception by Compaore (2004). Appendices B, C, D and E in the Appendices enumerate the articles from which English and Arabic corpuses for the study have been taken so far

To confirm the identification of metaphors in each article, I asked the assistance of expert readers with experience in linguistic or language issues. The backings given by these experts brought more credence to the study, since they were experienced readers and observers of language, and were adept in detecting metaphors in text. One of the objectives in this regard was to ascertain to what extent a metaphor was either an 'active' or 'dead.' Definitions of what constitute an active and a dead metaphor were mentioned in the second Chapter, in discussing literature drawn from scholars who have delved into the study of metaphors. Although this dichotomy was far from fixed and rigid, and although it did not bear directly on the results of the present study, it was relevant, in that some forms have become so lexicalized or so conventional that they lost their metaphorical nature.

The corpus of metaphors drawn from the texts chosen were carefully classified according to their source domain, and analyzed for relative frequency. The sets of metaphors from each language then were discussed comparatively, for frequency, variety, and type of metaphorical usage, including any choices of source domain which seem to be favored in each language. It was hoped that insights on the metaphorical usage in the two languages under study to emerge.

The second part of the study involved interaction with participants, in two stages. The first, involving a spontaneous writing exercise, was designed to find

out whether these developing English learners will naturally use standard or other business metaphors in English, when trying to express themselves on a topic that was of some immediacy or importance to them. The participants were free to choose their own topics for this brief writing session. Cohen (1994) maintained that the choice of discourse form is conditioned by several factors, such as society and culture and the situation. I spent some time in a group discussion with them before they commenced writing, to help ensure that they chose topics that they felt strongly about. During this introductory time, I encouraged them to raise controversial issues in business practice, and allowed them to share and respond to each other's ideas. When each participant had assured me that he or she was ready to write, I asked them to produce a short essay or article, consisting of not less than two paragraphs. I emphasized that content matters most, and that there was no grading or evaluation will be done on the grammar or formal features of their writings, and that the most important thing was for them to get their meaning across as best they can.

After receiving all the writings submitted by the respondents, I had a short talk with them individually to ascertain the areas in the writing process in which they encountered difficulty. So as not to distort their natural language, I did not use the term 'metaphor' in my interactions with the respondents. This constituted information withheld from participants, which was permissible. The conversations were recorded, and are conducted in Arabic so that the participants were able to express themselves adequately. The purpose of these talks was to inquire into the learner's experiences and strategies with respect to expressing themselves in

the discourse forms required for English business writing. In the process, information may emerge regarding their use of metaphors in the two languages; in particular it was of interest to see if some of the concepts they have difficulty expressing might typically show up in metaphorical expressions in English. The respondents come from different parts of the Arabic speaking community and, thus, insights on metaphorical language across different Arabic speakers may, perhaps, come out.

The second meeting took place after the administration of the survey questionnaire, which I asked the respondents for their interpretations of a select group of metaphors drawn from the English texts in the corpus. The questionnaire was administered to the study's respondents, and contained business metaphors drawn from the texts analyzed earlier. The subjects were asked to comment on the meaning of these phrases or sentences as best they can.

The questionnaire that was handed out to the respondents were composed of forty (40) discourse forms that were secured from the business related articles initially studied. Every attempt was made to place each expression in a context in which the expression can be understood, without entirely divulging the meaning of the expression. A sentence or two were sufficient to give the participants enough background. For instance, the expression 'a take-no-prisoners attitude' shows up in one of the texts, and was chosen for the questionnaire. It was embedded in a brief passage as given here for the purposes of the questionnaire:

Drew Motors is facing serious difficulties with funding its new operation. Given the urgency of the situation, the Drew CEO has decided to pursue a take-no-prisoners strategy in the coming months.

The participants were asked to generate a sentence to explain his/her perception or assessment of each underlined expression presented to him/her in this way. Their responses were compared and contrasted, both to other responses and to the 'correct' meaning of the English original. This was to determine how they differed in the use and understanding of metaphors in the two languages mentioned.

Suitability of Research Design to the Study

The envisioned research design seems to be the most fitting in terms of attending the research questions that were set in the study. This research framework had been a product of my consultation with my dissertation advisor, who gave valuable inputs and insights. The prior studies on metaphors that I was able to look at had also been of help. Many aspects of the research design had been patterned or based upon the methodology and approaches used in these previous studies.

The issue of a representative sample is one aspect that has been addressed. Accordingly, the need to get a "representative" sample is demanded more for quantitative studies and studies on metaphors are seldom quantitative

in nature. Instead, snowball and convenience sampling are usually resorted to in qualitative researches. Studies on metaphors that I have read (Feng, 1997; Compaore, 2004) largely rested on qualitative orientation and as such had made use of non-statistical sampling. Feng (1997), for one, got the subjects for her study at the very school, where she is attending to her graduate study, State University of New York at Buffalo. In the case of Compaore (2004), she contacted participants that are more accessible to her- being students of Western Pennsylvanian universities or personal acquaintances who are residents in the area. The methodology of these prior studies had guided me in determining my sample and crafting my research design. Therefore, I also made use of convenience sampling. The participants of my study are Arab students studying in universities in Western Pennsylvania, such as Indiana University of Pennsylvania (IUP), Duquesne University and University of Pittsburgh. They are either personal friends or acquaintances or referred to me by my other friends so meeting and asking them to answer surveys is not difficult. To get a representative sample, I tried to get both male and female respondents of varying ages and Arab countries of origin. I also saw to it that I had both undergraduate and graduate students in my sample. Furthermore, although most of them are majoring in business, there are also students from the health sciences and computer management.

In the matter of assuring a representative sample of the texts to be used in the metaphorical content analysis, the articles were sourced from various business magazines and periodicals. This ensured that varying perspectives and

writing styles, as well as varying degrees of metaphorical usage, are represented in the texts. The metaphors that were identified in these representative corpus or body of readings, in turn, has become the items in the questionnaire that were given to the main participants. These metaphorical expressions are derived from excerpts of articles from English and Arabic business publications, centering in such topics as business consolidation (i.e. mergers and acquisitions).

Asking non-native English speakers to express themselves in English metaphorically is one good way to gain insight into their metaphorical thinking. Their spontaneous writings can reflect metaphorical usage patterns- their predilection to use dead over active metaphors or vice versa, for example, and what metaphorical categories or domains seems to be most seen in their write ups. Getting ESL participants' responses on certain metaphors by way of writing has been employed by several studies in this area of knowledge. For instance, such methodology was used in a similar study on metaphors by Feng (1997). In said study, which essentially aimed to compare and contrast the metaphorical usage and comprehension of English and Chinese speakers, she requested her respondents to generate six responses on a given metaphor, with an ample background of the metaphor provided. Feng asked Chinese speakers to express themselves metaphorically in writing in both English and Chinese languages. Thus, the use of participants' writings is firmly established.

However, it is true that the participants' writing alone cannot be sufficient enough to determine the degree of metaphorical thinking or perception of an individual. Recognizing this, I also made use of questionnaire responses and

conversations, as well as textual analysis. Making use of these various data collection and analysis approaches reinforces the effectiveness of the study as a whole. Hence, whatever inadequacy or deficiency that was found in the participants' essays was addressed in other avenues, such as the answers to the questionnaire. The aid of the expert readers has been crucial in detecting the dead and active metaphors in the textual analysis, questionnaire responses and participants essays.

The determination of the cultural underpinnings of metaphors expressed by Arab student respondents had presented difficulty for the study. However, measures are taken to address it. One way that was devised to get around this debacle was to read previous literature on cross-cultural studies of metaphors. By having a background on the likely types of metaphors used by most Arabic speakers because of their cultural environment, I, with the help of expert readers, was able to ascertain metaphorical expressions, as well as domains, which are more dominant in Arabic than, say, English. Frequent consultation and concurrence of expert readers and referring to previous researches on the subject matter have, thus, been very helpful in this direction.

Setting of the Study

For reasons of logistics and practicality, the study was set in Western Pennsylvania, especially in university-related settings in Pittsburgh and other locations in the area. Respondents were university students based in the area, and they were contacted through acquaintances well known to me. Because of

the geographical location involved, I was able to take the time to meet them in person to explain the basic background of my study and the role that they could expect to play in it. I administered the questionnaire personally, along with facilitating and conducting the informal conversations and answering any questions they raised about the study in general. I agreed to meet these respondents in the places convenient to them. Upon their request, I met them in their homes when they preferred. This made them feel more natural and comfortable as they participated in this study, and helped them to provide more candid answers to the questionnaire.

Since many of the respondents were acquaintances of mine, I saw them regularly and I was considered as an 'insider' to their cultural group. As such, I was confident of their willingness to participate in my study, judging from informal conversations we held in which some prospective participants said they were happy to cooperate. Since my primary study participants were within my immediate area, I had an easy and ready access to them. In the event that followed up questions on their profile or clarification of their answers on the conversation or questionnaire were solicited, the geographical proximity was of great advantage to me.

Expert Readers

After identifying a corpus of business related articles, I sought the assistance of expert readers. Fortunately, I had been able to contact four of them, two Arabic and two English experts. All the expert readers resided in

Western Pennsylvania, three of them were PhD students while one was a published scholar on metaphor. Each expert reader was a native speaker of the language on which he or she was asked to provide input.

But even before approaching expert readers, I had already browsed the articles, and had underlined what I felt were the metaphorical expressions that appear in them. I had also categorized metaphors on the basis of being *dead* or *active*, and had categorized the forms for their source domain. However, realizing that I was still not an authoritative voice in detecting metaphors in any given text, and that judgments was inevitably vary in identifying metaphorical usage, I requested the help of the expert readers by asking them to:

- Read the articles in their native language, over which they have a high degree of mastery.
- Judge the accuracy of my choice of metaphorical expressions in each text.
- Underline any additional metaphorical expressions which I may have missed in my selection, on account of being an amateur in the field.
- Discuss briefly with me the underlying meaning and source domain for each metaphor, as well as the degree to which the experts felt that the metaphor has become lexicalized, or has become so conventional as to weaken its metaphorical status.

The expert readers helped me in examining the articles thoroughly. They have also evaluated the selection procedure I observed. Some metaphors

highlighted by the readers which I unknowingly or accidentally missed, were added to my original list of metaphors; in some cases, the English experts were helpful to me in interpreting phrases I had not understood, or whose metaphorical content I was not familiar with, such as *in the wake of*, which relates to the image of the 'wake' of a ship, but is used metaphorically to refer to the aftermath of some action. Finally, I also considered suggestions that they made on improving the study. For example, they recommended that I made use of methodologies and techniques that were used already used and tested by existing studies. This is with respect to my concerns about the appropriate sample size and sampling strategy to utilize, as well as the optimal number of questions for the conversations and questionnaires. I appreciated the useful advice, critiques and words of encouragement I got from them.

Main Participants: Arab Students

Arab students currently enrolled in institutions of higher learning in western Pennsylvania constitute the key participants in the study. I appreciate the fact that fifteen (15) of them, nine (9) males and six (6) females, have volunteered to participate in my study, and I list them here as my prospective participants. All of the participants are studying at university level. Seven (7) of them are PhD students, five (5) are Master's degree students, and the remaining three (3) are undergraduate students.

All participants speak at least two languages, Arabic and English. They are all Arabic native speakers and secondary learners of English. They have

varying degrees of mastery of English and are pursuing different academic courses and degree programs. All of the six (6) male participants are doing their PhDs in English at Indiana University of Pennsylvania (IUP), while one (1) female participant is doing her PhD in material sciences at the University of Pittsburgh. Four (4) female participants are doing their Masters in health sciences. Three (3) male participants are doing their BA in business at Duquesne University and the University of Pittsburgh, while still another male is doing his MBA at Duquesne University.

In as much as I would have preferred, I was not able to get as many business major students as the study requires. I had asked some other Arab business students, but some of them declined to participate in the study for lack of time and other reasons which they did not disclose to me. And since I cannot force them against their wills, I have to find other means to solve the problem. To address this inadequacy I decided to contact Arab English majors, as well as those that are into the health and material sciences. Most Arab students who go to the US and other countries to study usually venture into business once they arrive back in their home countries. This is especially true in the case of Saudi students. The English doctoral candidates may be teaching business students once they finished their degrees and return home, so they also need to have ample exposure in reading business texts.

Participants' Information

I began my first conversation with each participant by asking them to talk about themselves- their educational background, languages spoken, profession and age. The country of origin of the respondent may possibly raise distinctions in their responses during the conversation. Their educational background information, on the other hand, showed the linguistic experience of each participant. As stated above and shown in the chart below, all of the participants were college level students or above; their levels in Arabic language were proficient. Their levels in English language were basically determined by educational attainment and length of exposure to English, and were confirmed by an initial question I asked in our brief conversation, in which they were prompted to evaluate their own level of English proficiency.

Participants' Backgrounds

As explained above, all participants were Arab students who were pursuing their undergraduate, graduate or post graduate degrees in the United States. They were enrolled in different academic courses and degree programs in universities in Western Pennsylvania. With the exception of one who came from the United Arab Emirates (UAE), all the participants came from Saudi Arabia. There were seven graduate students and eight undergraduate students in the sample. Aside from one who was pursuing a Masters in Health Management, the rest were majoring in business. There were, however, two students who were double majors- taking on Management, along with Computer

Science. All of them, at the time of the study, were living in Western Pennsylvania (i.e., Pittsburgh, Indiana). Their ages ranged from twenty two (22) to thirty eight (38). The median age was around 25. Their real names and identities were not divulged. Instead alternative names were assigned to them. This was to ensure secrecy and confidentiality.

Table 2. *Demographic Description of the Main Participants*

Participant	Age	Nationality	Educational Background
Abdulrahman	22	Saudi	BA in Business
Almohsen	38	Saudi	MBA student
Alomari	24	Saudi	BA in Business
Mowaid	23	Saudi	BA in Business
Salem	26	Saudi	BA in business
Alkhafi	32	Saudi	MBA student
Alahmad	24	Saudi	BA student
Hoda	26	Saudi	MA in health management
Alfaris	25	Saudi	MBA student
Altammam	29	Saudi	MBA student
Aldossari	22	Saudi	BA in Computer Science + Management
Abdullah	28	UAE	Ph.D. student
Mohammad	22	Saudi	BA in business
Abraham	27	Saudi	MBA Student
Alhumaidan	24	Saudi	BA in Computer S. + Management

Procedures of Data Collection: Overview

I have begun the data collection process by gathering business texts published in English and Arab magazines. At present, I have made a preliminary analysis of ten (10) English articles and ten (10) Arabic articles respectively, for a total of twenty (20) business manuscripts. However, twenty (20) more articles, ten (10) in English and another ten (10) in Arabic were added as this pilot study is expanded for the main study. I have done a first analysis of these initial materials and have identified the metaphorical expressions occurring in them, categorizing these expressions into groups according to their source domains. The resulting tables appear in Appendix F and G.

I have also secured help from expert readers on this pilot study material. I told them what exactly I was looking for in these articles. The native English speaker experts examined the articles. They evaluated my selections of metaphorical expressions and suggested additional expressions in the texts which they judged to be also metaphorical in nature. After I got the articles back from them, I met with each of the experts to discuss and share notes, and to finally decide on the metaphorical expressions to be used in the study, as well as to discuss the meanings of certain expressions, especially in the English texts.

With a set of metaphors agreed upon, I then proceeded to the next step, which involved the translation of the Arabic metaphorical expressions into English and the categorizing of the examples from both languages, as shown in Appendix G. The translation was done literally from Arabic into English. My background as a fluent speaker of the two languages qualified me for this task,

but I also checked with the bilingual Arabic-English experts to verify the translations. In listing these expressions in both tables, I was able to solve certain methodological problems. For instance, I decided to list certain expressions that fall under two domain sources repeatedly, with one in regular font and the other in *italics*. Examples of this include forms like *win*, which could be identified with either the source domain of war, or that of games.

As outlined above, in the next stage of the study, each participant is expected to come up with an informal essay, of at least two paragraphs, telling some story about a business topic of his or her choosing. For this exercise, I met them in groups of four or six in a place mutually agreed upon by all in the group. I asked them to talk about interesting stories involving businesses, and was sure they each had a truly personal interest in some topic, before I asked them to take about twenty minutes to write their story out. After they were through with their business stories, I had individual informal meetings with every one of them to talk about their writings. The atmosphere of the conversation or talk was casual and it was emphasized, both before and after their writing, that these short essays were not evaluated for grammar or 'correctness.'

Our subsequent conversations held in Arabic so that the participants were able to freely express themselves. The questions included items such as the following:

- When you were writing your piece, are there instances in which you encountered difficulty expressing what you had in mind in English?
Can you cite some examples?

- (Using a specific example from their text which might be metaphorical):
Do you think it is more exciting or better to say something like, “The company cleaned house,” rather than saying something more direct, like “The company simplified its policies and fired a lot of workers.”?

In a second meeting with the participants, I asked them to complete the questionnaire that asks them to explain certain metaphorical expressions.

Choosing some forty (40) English metaphorical expressions from the earlier screening of published texts, I prepared a questionnaire for the second round of conversations. The metaphors were selected from different categories, with the least frequent in the texts being assured representation.

The participants attempted to explain these metaphorical expressions in their own words. They provided a context in which these expressions occurred and they generated open-ended sentences or phrases, using Arabic or English, whatever came most readily to mind, to explain what these metaphors meant to them. This technique was used in a similar study on metaphors by Ming Feng (1997). As an example we cited the expression ‘AOL-Time Warner is the marriage of the century’ to discuss the much talked about merger between the two companies in recent years. A respondent might reply with something like the following:

- The AOL-Time Warner merger is the biggest merger in contemporary times.
- The combination of the two previously distinct companies is one of the greatest merger success stories in recent years.

- The merger of the two companies will give birth to a greater business venture.
- The merger can create market monopoly or dominance for the new company.

Using this strategy, I can possibly inquire on the views of different respondents when asked how they understand the word (marriage) in business terms as well as its consequent meanings or implications. In the case mentioned above, for example, we could easily see the conceptual mapping for marriage and merger. Some of the attributes of marriage, such as its capacity to be successful, the fact that the marriage is often blessed by children, and that marriage is one of the biggest (grandest) life events becomes evident in the interviewees' answers. In the conversations held after the participants complete this questionnaire, it was interesting to see to what extent, and in what ways, they had applied reasoning of this sort likening a business merger to their ideas of marriage. It also was interesting to see how much their own cultural interpretations of the source affected their extended discussion of the expression's meaning.

The Choice of Texts

Since the first part of this study involved the analysis of texts, care was taken to choose texts that were both appropriate and were as comparable as possible in the two languages. The articles were published in prominent business magazines or available online at popular magazine and newspaper websites, which made them readily accessible through the Internet.

The business articles that served as the primary source of metaphors for the study came from both English and Arabic magazines. Arabic business magazines were not as numerous as those available in English. There were only a handful of business magazines, written in Arabic and whose primary intended audience is an Arabic speaking general audience. Many business magazines covering the Arab world are actually written in English, in most cases by non-Arab authors or columnists, for the interests of Western investor-companies and nationals in, say, the Gulf region. While this complicated the choice of Arabic-language materials for this study, it helped to highlight the importance of English language materials for the Arabic speaker entering the business world.

As far as practicable, the study preferred making use of business related articles derived from an Arab business magazine written by Arab authors for a primarily Arab audience. It was in such publications that I believed Arab linguistic and cultural sentiments and views were best represented. The weekly magazine *Al-Majalla* was a useful source of articles that met the criteria for the study.

Among the English magazines and periodicals from which I obtained the English-based articles for the metaphorical content analysis were publications of national and international circulation, such as, *BusinessWeek*, *Newsweek* and *US News and World Report*. Several pieces were also sourced from the website of the Cable News Network (CNN). Most of the articles were published in 2006. For the complete list of business magazine and periodical articles, please refer to Appendices B, C, D and E in the Appendices.

Aside from the fact that their subject should center on business or be otherwise related to business issues, several parameters were also observed in selecting the articles to be used in the research. First and foremost, said articles are supposed to discuss contemporary business topics that are often heard or frequently discussed (such as mergers, the emergence of new companies, or competitive business strategies). Most of the articles were published in 2006, which means that the choice involves contemporary writing. Secondly, the articles to be collected are also supposed to be easily readable and comprehensible to a basically educated native speaker audience in both languages. As such, they should also be comprehensible to Arab university students (i.e. undergraduate, graduate, post-graduate) whose careers will likely lead them to read such texts. I chose not to include specialist business magazines, catering to particular business aspects and environment, such as banking and finance, portfolio investments and asset management and the like. This is because these publications may use terminologies confined to a particular narrow business area.

Topics for the articles chosen, covered different aspects and issues related to business. Most of these topics were those that comprise part of the everyday talk among business circles and on business news in the media (i.e. e-commerce, managerial style, taxation, business expansion, cost-cutting measures etc.). I planed to add more articles, around ten (10), in the text corpus and I proposed to concentrate on the theme of mergers and acquisitions, which were, in light of globalization and liberalization, among of the most significant

global business trends today. By focusing on this theme, the study could closely assess how respondents described this business phenomenon metaphorically in Arabic, which was their native language, and English, which has become their adopted second language. Thus, the study included articles discussing business in general, as well as a specific aspect of business which was mergers and acquisitions. I think such an approach gave more depth to the study.

Several rules had been laid down in the selection of the metaphors. For one, metaphors that were quite ambiguous were omitted. Also discarded were metaphorical expressions which were considered long dead, for instance those whose metaphorical origins might only be recognized by scholars. In some instances, these have become literalized or lexicalized, and were so frequently used as to be considered true instances of polysemy. An example of this was the term *grow*, which was so commonly used for a business that it no longer seems to be rooted in the notion of biological 'growth.'

Interactive Data Collection Procedures

Discussion with Expert Readers

The panel of expert readers I have consulted played an important role in the study and I am indebted to them for their help. The help extended by expert readers was observed in the metaphor study done by Compaore (2004). The notes, corrections and observations, as well as the recommendation they contribute, are an invaluable aid in this research. Essentially, their task is to verify the metaphorical expressions that I initially extracted from the texts, to add more

examples and to discuss the meanings and classification of the metaphors chosen.

Conversations and Informal Meetings with Main Study Participants

Reinharz (1992) pointed that interviews create a “sense of connectedness” with people since it is more personal and spontaneous. Interviews were also found to be empowering (DeMarrais, 1998). Therefore, I consider the interview process as crucial to my study. This is especially true since the participants’ responses were the fundamental data that had to be analyzed and from which the findings were generated.

All conversation meetings were appropriately scheduled, taking into account the availability of the respondents, the suitability of the venue and other, similar considerations. I ensured to notify the participants in advance about the schedule so they can be prepared. This notice was communicated through email or call to the respondents. This step often had a positive effect in increasing response rate (Zoltán, 2003).

The conversations were conducted face-to-face with the respondent. I told the respondents that our conversation will be recorded on tape and they were asked for their permission for the taping, which also was clearly described in the consent form they signed. Although they addressed the interpretation of linguistic forms in some detail, these conversation meetings were not being as in-depth as they could be in the case of ethnographic work or case study. In other words, they did not aim at describing the participants’ life stories, or with their

experiences beyond the way these experiences came up in discussing the expressions in question. Therefore, I foresaw that the conversation meetings took place within a relatively brief time frame as possible, and the preparation for these conversations did not require the kind of detailed groundwork required for an ethnographic or case study interview.

About forty (40) minutes allotted to the discussion of the business essay or article that was requested from the respondents. Another ninety (90) to one hundred and fifty minutes (150) devoted to the discussing the English questionnaire for each individual of participants, containing the list of metaphors derived from the earlier metaphorical content analysis. This second discussion took place immediately after the respondents filled out the questionnaire; I instructed them to complete the questionnaire as quickly as possible, giving their first impression of the meaning for each expression. Whenever possible, I tried to secure the presence of a language expert in the conduct of these conversation meetings, so as to make the discussion more free flowing and lively. The questionnaire had only an English version; however, the conversations following completion of the questionnaire took place in Arabic.

Data Analysis

Five (5) kinds of data were collected in this study. Accordingly, each of these was discussed in turn in this section.

Text Analysis

As discussed earlier, the published texts in Arabic and English were analyzed for their metaphorical content. The metaphors chosen were classified by source and target domain, frequency, degree of lexicalization or conventional usage, and possible cultural content. A set of twenty articles had been partially analyzed in this way, and the resulting lists of metaphors, classified by source domain, appear in Appendices F (English) and H (Arabic). The aim of this portion of the study was to characterize the typical metaphorical patterns that appear in both languages, as well as to identify relatively infrequent metaphors that appear in English and may cause problems for Arabic-speaking learners of English.

Student Writings and First Conversation Meetings

The informal essays presented by students at our first meeting were examined by me and by the expert readers in English, for the occurrence of any kind of metaphorical expression. Then the conversations I held with each student was transcribed and examined, with the cooperation of the English experts, to determine where the student writers felt they had most trouble expressing their meanings. Although a subjective judgment involved here, the expert readers were asked to determine whether, in their opinion, a metaphorical expression might have been most able to carry the student's meaning. Asking questions was considered one of the most natural ways to get information (Zoltán, 2003). On my own, I also examined the Arabic transcripts for any expressions in Arabic that were metaphorical in nature. During the conversations

themselves, I asked students to clarify any statement they had made whose degree of metaphoricity was unsure.

Questionnaire and Second Conversation Meetings

Questionnaire is one of the most popular research instruments being used in both qualitative and quantitative studies. The ease with which it is constructed is one of the reasons why many researchers resort to it (Zoltán, 2003). The questionnaire that is administered to the respondent as a group, an approach that is often used in second language acquisition studies (Zoltán, 2003).

With the help of the English Expert Readers, I evaluated each answer on the questionnaire as 'correct', 'incorrect,' or 'close.' This language test was formulated to inquire into the Arab respondents' grasp of metaphors in English. Language tests were considered as effective means by which to gather information in second language acquisition (Shohamy, 1994).

I then chose a set of expressions from each respondent's questionnaire to discuss further with that participant in our second conversation. These were items which fall either in the 'incorrect' or 'close' category, and which formed the subject matter for the second conversation meeting.

There was consensus among researchers that, for the potentials of audio-recorded data to be maximized and systematically analyzed, recordings had to be transcribed first (Darlington & Scott, 2002). In this particular case, since the material was in Arabic, the responses were also had to be translated, for ease of quotation in my reported results. After this activity, I then turned over the

transcripts of the conversation meetings I did, along with the translations of Arabic responses in English to the language experts to determine if they were accurate and that no misquotation or missing detail was included in my translation. Any comment or revision made by these people was factored in drafting the revised version of the translations.

At this juncture, I then proceeded to the coding procedures, wherein I attempted to classify the responses I got from the participants according to themes and categories. Darlington & Scott (2002) highlighted the importance of this process as far as qualitative research is concerned, arguing that “In qualitative research, coding is an integral part of the analysis, involving sifting through the data, making sense of it and categorizing it in various ways” (p. 145). The two maintained that the in the qualitative analysis, the objective of the researcher is to identify patterns that may appear in the data at hand and in relating them with one another. Thus, proper coding is vital.

At the onset, there were no cut and dried categories of anticipated responses. Instead, they were formulated during the process of the conversation meetings, wherein patterns, key words and other linguistic relationships begin to appear. Data from the metaphorical content analysis were integrated with those secured from the transcripts of the conversation meetings, as well as notes taken during the conversation meetings sessions, in an attempt to produce an overall picture, not only of metaphorical usage in the domains studied, but also of potential learner problems in this area.

Categorization of Responses

The answers of the respondents in the questionnaire shall be categorized as being either of the following:

- ✓ *Correct responses* mean that the respondent was able to understand the context wherein the metaphor was stated and was able to provide its accurate interpretation.
- ✓ *Incorrect responses* mean that the respondents did not understand the context in which the metaphorical expression was stated and, thus, was unable to supply the appropriate interpretation
- ✓ *Close responses*, as they are termed, refer to answers that were near to the right ones. It means that the respondent was able to understand a little about the metaphor that appears in the given statement, allowing him/her to make replies that approximate or are at least close to the exact answer.

The determination of whether a certain response is correct, incorrect or close based on the assessment of the expert readers. Here again the panel of experts plays a significant role in this research.

Trustworthiness

The question of the validity for the results of any study is one of serious concern. Considering that the study requires the researcher to interact with the respondents, the possibility that the researcher may unconsciously influence the outcomes of a study such as this one cannot simply be discounted. This is especially acute if the researcher shares a lot of characteristics with his/her

supposed respondents (Mehra, 2001). Since I myself am an Arab native speaker and as well as an English secondary speaker, this situation proved relevant to me. With these possible conflicts and dilemmas in mind, efforts had been made to ensure that the threats posed by researcher prejudice, misinterpretation, incorrect or inaccurate description were kept to a minimum. In the conduct of the study, particularly with the conversation meetings and document gathering, I tried to display neutrality, consistency and “fair play” to the best of my ability. In collecting and analyzing various views in the study of metaphors, I made sure that all major significant viewpoints by different scholars were represented, without regard to their nationality, conviction, scientific methodology or theoretical leanings. All of the business articles in both languages, as well as the record of conversation meetings were also made available to the Arab student participants of the study.

To mitigate the danger of misquoting the words of the participants, all transcripts of the taped conversation meetings were encoded verbatim and made available for the scrutiny of anyone who may wish to inquire into them; I also carried out member checking to ensure that the participants felt that they had been quoted accurately. I seek the opinion of Arabic language experts as to the manner by which I translated Arabic transcriptions into English.

During the conversation meetings, to minimize possible misunderstanding in the assessment of a participant’s views in a certain matter, I asked participants to elaborate on any explanation that seemed ambiguous or unclear. This was to give the most accurate impression on their replies. In the event that I had some

queries about their answers to my questions or their responses on the questionnaire, I also tried to call them to set an appointment for discussion, or send them an electronic mail to clarify.

At every conversation meeting session, I made it point to start with warm-up questions first before going to the real agenda of the study. This was to provide a convenient and tension-free atmosphere, which was conducive to securing the true and honest sentiments of participants in response to any given question. I also utilized icebreaker questions on occasions in which I noticed that the discussion lapsing into a boring or rigid academic dialogue.

In reducing the impact of my personal biases in the study, I always tried to have an open mind with respect to the participants' perspectives. I also distanced myself from these biases so as they did not severely affect the study to the point that the results were skewed towards my favored or preconceived conclusions. I took care not to suggest interpretations to the participants based on either my readings of a particular form, or on the reading I expected them to give for that form.

Ethical Issues

Oppenheim (1992) and Sudman and Bradburn (1983) laid out some basic tenets in addressing ethical issues in research. This includes the first cardinal principle which is ensuring that no kind of harm shall befall the respondents as a result of their participation. Secondly, they pointed to the need to protect the privacy of the participants and to the assurance that no undue pressure shall be

exerted on participants in the process of eliciting answers to the questionnaires. It was also pointed that no information that can lead to their identification shall be published without their expressed consent. Third, the three scholars maintained that prospective participants in the study should be provided with information sufficient for them to decide whether to get involved in the study or not. In discussing their interviews of children, the authors stressed the importance of having a person with the adequate authority to be present. Finally, Oppenheim (1992) and Sudman and Bradburn (1983) argued that it is the moral and professional responsibility of the researcher to ensure the level of confidentiality promised to the respondents at the onset of the study.

Since I consider the ethical conduct of the conversation meetings an important aspect of the study, I saw to it that I observed the stipulations made by Oppenheim (1992) and Sudman and Bradburn (1983). In this regard, I briefed the participants through the Informed Consent Form (for students), a copy of which can be seen in Appendix A and A.1. Moreover, I also continually emphasized to them that their participation was voluntary and that they could freely choose not to participate at any time without suffering any injurious effects. I also made it clear to them that they were entitled to ask questions about any aspect of the study. The Informed Consent Form (for students) and the Voluntary Consent Form was be made available in English and Arabic, so as to ensure that it was properly and unambiguously understood by the bilingual target respondents in either language. No element of force, threat or coercion was

extended in any way as to influence the prospective respondent's decision to form part of the study.

For their information, I also discussed the nature and the purpose of the study to the participants. I formally introduced myself and explained the kind of information that I hoped to obtain from them. Furthermore, I described the vital role they will play in the study. Along with ensuring that they were fully aware of the objectives of the study, I also reassured them that their identities will not be revealed to others, and that no information were reported in a way that can be connected to them; in other words, that I maintained strict confidentiality with regard to the participants. Zoltan (2003) pointed out that participants cannot be expected to divulge honest and accurate information if the confidentiality of the study is not assured. I assured that all personal details they divulged to me were held in the most confidential manner and that their responses were aggregated with other's replies. In this way, they were certain that there were no identifying particulars that can be linked directly to individual participants.

During the progress of the conversation meetings, I exerted effort to create the best climate in which participants freely expressed what they really had in mind, without worrying whether I found their views absurd, awkward or queer; in this regard, it was important to emphasize to them that there were no 'correct answers' for this activity. I assumed an open and neutral disposition to all things they wanted to say. I even left the choice of the venue of the interviewees to the participants. Furthermore, I tried to make the discussion casual, so that their apprehensions and self consciousness were allayed. I explicitly told the

respondents that their answers were not graded and that there was exactly no right or wrong answer in every question that was posited. In order to establish an air of casual ease and comfort during the sessions, I also offered snacks and refreshments. At the end of the conversation meetings if it was feasible to arrange for such a shared social event, I treated respondents to an Arab restaurant meal, so that we enjoyed Arab cuisine together.

CHAPTER IV RESULTS OF TEXTUAL ANALYSIS AND CONVERSATION MEETINGS

This chapter addresses the first three research question. They are repeated here for the reader's convenience.

1. What kinds and what frequency of metaphorical usage appears in Arabic and English writings on business topics? How important a role does metaphorical usage seem to play in the two discourse communities?
2. a. To what extent do the metaphors in these languages fit into the categories proposed for conceptual metaphors by researchers such as Lakoff and Johnson (1980)?

b. What differences are found when one categorizes the source and target domains for these metaphors in the two languages?

c. How does the distribution of metaphors on a continuum from 'dead' to 'active' compare for the two languages, and how do the content or usage patterns differ in each category?
3. To what extent can the differences found in answering 2a, to 2c above be related to cultural differences?

This part of the study deals with the presentation of findings at the end of the data gathering phase. In this section, I present the information from the metaphorical content analysis of several selected magazine articles on business. An equal number of Arabic and English language texts comprise the corpus from which the metaphorical expressions were drawn. In order to illustrate the

difference in usage between the two languages, tables are presented summarizing the metaphors found, organized by source domains. The assistance of knowledgeable language experts was secured in ensuring that the English translations of the Arabic metaphors were accurate, and that the categorization into source domains was appropriate.

There are six initial primary domains into which the metaphors highlighted fall; these primary domains are discussed first, with smaller domains to follow. Five of the domains are named for the semantic field of the source (e.g. Games and War); only one bears the title of a full conceptual metaphor (LIFE IS A JOURNEY) as identified by Lakoff and Johnson and found repeatedly in virtually any general source on metaphor. These domains have been given the following names: Up and Down, Life is a Journey (including Cyberspace as a Journey), Movement, Physical Configuration, Vehicles, and Games and War. In the case of Arabic metaphorical expressions written in Arabic characters and obtained from Arabic magazine articles, the closest equivalents in English are provided, although it is difficult to find a precise translation equivalent for some expressions. Some degree of evocation, imagery and intensity are also lost in the course of any translation process, so extreme caution was used in the translation task.

Table 3 below reports the total number of metaphorical expressions ('tokens') in the main six domains, as well as the number of different metaphorical expressions ('types') in the domain for each language. In this review, these concepts of 'token' and 'type' are of crucial help. C.S. Peirce (1931-

58, sec. 4.537), cited in the *Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy*, defines *types* as abstract and unique entities, whereas *tokens* are concrete particulars. More precisely, the usage in the context of this study applies these terms as follows: *token* refers to the total number of metaphors that appear in a text. In contrast, *type* refers to the *different* metaphorical words or phrases that appear. For instance, if the term 'marriage' appears three times in a corpus to stand for a business merger, this will count as three tokens, but only one type. Similarly, when two terms are very closely related morphologically, they have been included as instances of one type. For instance, extending the example given here, the term 'marriageable' or the plural 'marriages' will fall under the same type as 'marriage.' Using the terms 'token' and 'type' seemed appropriate to this study, as they convey the desired meaning and are widely used and recognized in the realm of linguistics.

Some Notes on Choice and Categorization

As stipulated in Chapter III (Methodology), the metaphorical expressions that appear in the tables below were obtained from the English and Arabic magazine and periodical articles listed in Appendices B, C, D and E. Of the twenty articles in each language, ten cover general business topics and ten cover mergers and acquisitions, currently one of the most current topics in the realm of business. In many cases, the corpus is considered as a whole, and numbers reported represent overall figures. However, where these two sets of examples are referred to separately, they are called 'corpus 1' and 'corpus 2' below. The

full details, including the author, title of the article, date of publication and the magazine or periodical, are listed in Appendices B, C, D and E.

Certain parameters were adopted in the choice of metaphors included in this study. For purposes of ease and clarity, figurative expressions whose status was unclear were discounted. An attempt was made to include only expressions which could clearly and plausibly be said to belong to the realm of metaphor. Furthermore, the focus was on active or somewhat conventionalized metaphors as opposed to a small number of so-called 'dead' metaphors (words or phrases that have been lexicalized in such a way that their metaphorical nature is no longer apparent to the average speaker), which I excluded. For example, I excluded the terms *search engine*, *consume*, (as in the phrase *consume information on the net*), *emerging*, *mammoth* (in the sense of 'large'), and *playing a role* (as in *to play an advisory role*) These terms have become so commonly used that they no longer function as metaphors, and are not thought of as metaphors by fluent English speakers, even when they are prompted. In what follows, the resulting set of examples will be simply referred to as "metaphors." However, in the discussion, the relative degree of conventionality plays a role in my analysis, in terms of characterizing the nature of metaphorical usage in the two languages. For instance, the term *grow*, which can be applied to a business venture, has been included in the count, since its metaphorical basis is accessible; speakers still know that plants 'grow,' and that the 'growth' of a business might be derivative concept from this basic biological one. Still, if a writer says a company is *growing*, he or she clearly is engaging in metaphorical

usage at a different level from, say, a writer who consciously extends the biological metaphor, referring to *leaves*, *branches* or *tendrils* in relation to a company's growth.

In assigning metaphors to their respective domains, caution was taken to ensure that no metaphor was assigned to two domains, thus avoiding confusion and the possibility of any phrase's being counted twice in summing up of the total number of metaphors obtained from both its corpus. In instances where a given metaphor could fall into two categories, I chose to list the form in the domain that seemed most pertinent. Consultation with language experts in these cases, in particular, helped to confirm my choices in these matters.

A related dilemma led to the creation of the compound category 'games and war.' Terms relating to war and games are often overlapping (cf. *win*, *lose* and terms relating to competition) the war and game domains also share several conceptual notions. Moreover, to complicate matters further, war terminology (terms like *alliance* and *defense*) has become commonly applied to sports. With this in mind, a compromise strategy was adopted: the two domains were listed separately as examples in the data analysis, with certain forms leaning more to sports (such as *ninth inning*, while others allude largely to war (cf. *war chest*, and *fighting back*) together in one domain. This inevitably led to some judgment calls; as a rule of thumb, I tried to include under 'war' only terms that were unambiguously war-related, such as 'fight' or 'aggression.' However, in the overall count of types and tokens, the two domains were merged.

Individual cases sometimes were marginal, yet all had to be included in one domain or another. For instance, the phrase *scooping up* probably uses the 'up' of *cut up* or *use up*, and thus is not at all a reference to upward direction; however, when a person 'scoops up' something, he or she does tend to raise it, so it seemed reasonable to include this phrase ('scooping up') in the Up and Down category. Fortunately, such cases are marginal and, at best, represent only a miniscule part of the data. Therefore, they do not compromise the picture that emerges from the overall figures and discussions in this chapter.

Finally, a further group of examples that did not fit into any domain were originally identified, but have been excluded from the count in any particular domain. Examples of these include *tied up*, *junk*, *deliver*, *take hold*, *on the lookout*, and *correction*.

Metaphorical Expressions According to Domain

For the purposes of more accurately comparing and contrasting, the numbers of types and tokens for each of the six largest domains have been presented separately below. Overall, even at first sight, it is worth noting that the corpus generated a strikingly unequal number of metaphorical expressions for the two languages in these domains. Table 3 demonstrates this pattern.

Table 3. *An Overview of Metaphorical Use*

Domain	Arabic		English	
	Types	Tokens	Types	Tokens
1. Up and down	16	75	59	120
2. Life is a Journey (including Cyberspace as a Journey)	9	17	23	28
3. Movement	8	13	54	71
4. Physical Configuration	11	20	33	36
5. Vehicle	7	9	29	42
6. Game / War	23	29	68	121
Total	74	163	266	418

The number of metaphorical expressions obtained from any given article in both languages varies. Furthermore, it is certain that both languages employ a variety of metaphors in their communications. However, even a cursory look at Table 1—and the other tables in this chapter—reveal that English has a greater total number of metaphors identified in the articles used. This contrast becomes all the stronger when types are considered, eliminating repetition and yielding a count for the distinct metaphorical forms in each corpus.

In what follows, the domains are discussed individually. However, the totals here tell the comparative story in overview form. The total number of tokens for the Arabic corpus is 288, as compared with 429 for the English writings. This, at first, looks like a ratio of about 2.6 metaphors in English for every one in Arabic. However, the count for types makes this gap considerably larger. The count for types in the first six domains is 73 in Arabic versus 288 in English this time; the ratio is 3.9 in English for every one in Arabic. These two

numbers show that English has greater number of types (virtually 4 times the Arabic types), and that Arabic usage seems to tend more toward using a particular form repeatedly, especially in the Up & Down domain. Similar patterns emerge as the different domains are covered in what follows.

As noted above, the articles were grouped into two ‘corpuses.’ ‘Corpus 1’ refers to the first ten Arabic articles and the first ten English articles, while ‘Corpus 2’ refers to the second groups of ten Arabic articles and ten English articles, a specialized set on the topic of mergers and acquisitions.

Up and Down

The first domain scrutinized represents the domain called Up and Down, one of the leading ‘embodied’ metaphorical domains in cognitive linguistic research, originally highlighted by Lakoff and Johnson. Tables 4 and 5 present the specific expressions in Arabic in the two parts of the corpus; Tables 6 and 7 present the corresponding English examples. The numbers following each example list the article number, followed by the page in the article where the expression appears. Thus, the English phrase *wrestle* appears on the second page of the fourth article in the series; accordingly, it is given the tag (4,2). Since the articles are readily available, the reader may then use these tags to access the original context. The bibliographic details of the magazine articles can be seen in the appendix portion. For the readers’ convenience English examples are alphabetized by the central term in each expression. For ease of comparison,

the Arabic expressions are also alphabetized, but according to their English translations rather than the original Arabic terms.

Table 4. *Arabic Corpus 1, Up and Down*

Domain	Metaphors
Up and down	<p>تتهاوى 'collapse' (14,1); تتهاوى 'collapse' (14,1); انهيار 'collapse' (14,1); طرح 'deep' (17,2); عميق 'deep' (17,1); عميق 'collapse' (17,1); 'putting down' طرح 'put down' (11); 'putting down' (11); 'putting down' طرح 'putting down' (14,3); 'putting down' (20,1); 'putting down' طرح 'putting down' (17,2); طرح (17,2); 'putting down' طرح 'putting down' (17,2); طرح (17,2); 'high, عالي 'fall' (14,1); تسقط 'fall into' (11); يقع في (17,2); 'land' هبط 'high, elevated' (20,3); عال 'elevated' (18,3); هبوط 'landing' (20,1); هبوط 'landing' (20,1); هبوط (19,1); رفع 'raise' (20,1); رفع 'raise' (20,1); 'landing' (20,2); ارتفاع 'raise' (18,3); رفع 'raise' (18,3); رفع 'raise' (17,1); مرتفعة 'rising' (11); ارتفاع 'rise' (12); مرتفعة 'rising' (12); ارتفاع 'rising' (13); ارتفاع 'rising' (13); ارتفاع 'rise' (13); 'rising' (14,3); ارتفاع 'rising' (14,3); ارتفاع 'rising' (14,3); ارتفاع 'rising' (16,1); ارتفاع 'rise' (14,3); ترتفع ارتفاع (16,1); ارتفاع 'rising' (16,1); ارتفاع 'rising' (16,1); ارتفاع 'rise' (16,3); ارتفاع 'rising' (16,3); ارتفاع (16,1); 'rising' 'rising' (19,1); ارتفاع 'rising' (19,1); ارتفاع 'rise' (16,3); ارتفاع 'rising' (19,2); ارتفاع 'rising' (19,2); ارتفاع ارتفاع 'rising' (20,2); ارتفاع 'rise' (20,2); ارتفاع (19,2); ارتفاع (20,2); ارتفاع 'rising' (20,2); نهوض 'rising' (20,2); صعود 'going up' (20,1); صعود 'going up' (20,1); صعود 'going up' (20,2).</p>

Table 5. *Arabic Corpus 2, Up and Down*

Domain	Metaphors
Up and down	'higher' أعلى 'higher' (31,2); أعلى higher' (37,2); أعلى 'landing' الهبوط (37,1); هبوط 'higher' (31,2); أعلى (31,2); ارتفع 'rise' (31,1); رفع 'rising' (31,1); ارتفاع'landing' (38,2); ارتفاع 'raise' (38,1); رفع 'raise' (37,2); رفع'rise' (35,2); رفع 'rising' (31,2); ارتفاع 'rising' (38,3); مرتفعة'rising' (38,2); going up (35,2); الصعودي uplift (35,1); ترق 'rise' (33,1).

Table 6. *English Corpus 1, Up and Down*

Domain	Metaphors
Up and Down	come down (2); dip (10,2); down (10,1); driving down (4,1); driving down (4,1); drop (8,1); dropped in half (7,2); dropped in half (7,2); fall into bankruptcy (4,2); goes down (7,2); goes down (7,2); goes down (7,2); goes up(2); going up (2); high start up cost (1,2); higher (10,1); higher taxes (8,1); highest (2); Highest (2); highest (2); hit (2); investment banking revenues hit their highest level (2); land (6,1); lift (10,2); lifted rates (5); lower tax (8,2); low-tech (9,2); mounted (3); pick up (10,2); picking up (10,1); raising (8,2); revenue this year should hit high (2); revenues will fall (2); rise (8,2); rise (9,1); Rise in revenues(2); risen (9,1); rising (10,1); scooping up (4,1); shore up (4,1); shore up (4,1); slump (10,1); snapped up (6,1); stepping up (6,2); stepping up (6,2); stock is up a lot (10,2); the top rate (8,2); the top tax (8,2); Up from (1,2); wind up on top (1,2).

Table 7. *English Corpus 2, Up and Down*

Domain	Metaphors
Up and Down	below (24,1); boost (22,1); boost (22,2); boost (25,1); bottom (30,1); bottom line (30,4); broken (22,1); broken (22,1); cost-cutting (26,1); deep (21,1); deeper (21,1); deeper (21,3); deepest(21,1); digging (21,3); sit down (21,1); taking down (24,1); went down (26,2); downturn (23,1); downturn (24,2); drop (27,1); dropped (24,1); ducked (29,2); falling (26,3); falling demand (21,1); fell (26,1); fell out (30,1); high (21,3); high (25,1); higher (27,1); higher (30,1); highest (23,1); highest (27,1); highest (27,1); highly (24,1); highly (30,2); high-profile (28,1); hit (24,1); hit (27,2); hitting (25,1); long-standing (22,1); low (22,2); low (24,1); low-cost (30,1); low-cost (30,4); lower (24,2); lower (26,2); lower (27,1); lower (27,2); peak (22,2); raise (30,4); raised (22,2); rise (22,1); rise (24,1); rose (24,1); soar (26,2); soared (30,1); soaring (26,1); spike (21,3); trimmed (25,1); under (30,1); up (25,1); bid up (25,1); break up (24,2); brought up (21,2); pick up (24,2); pick up (24,2); scooping up (27,1); shot up (25,1); went up (26,2); upping (26,1).

As Table 8 shows, although there is variability between the two parts of the corpus, the total figures suggest that English writers in the business area use considerably more metaphors than their Arabic-speaking counterparts. Only in one count, for tokens in corpus 1, is the Arabic figure higher than the English, and then only modestly so. Moreover, the difference disappears when types are considered; nearly half of the Arabic list consists of the Arabic root that translates

as English 'raise or 'rise,' a striking testimony to the relatively conventional usage of the Arabic business writers.

Table 8. *Up and Down Domain Types and Tokens*

Token & Types	Tokens			Types		
	Corpus 1, 2	Corpus 1	Corpus 2	Total	Corpus 1	Corpus 2
Arabic	58	17	75	10	6	16
English	51	70	120	26	34	59

Going by Table 8, one will readily come to the conclusion that English has prevalence over Arabic in terms of frequency of metaphors in this particular domain. Taken out of context, a reading of the metaphors culled from business articles in Arabic might also give one the impression that Arabic stresses positive reporting more than its English counterpart. This can be evidenced by the frequency of words like 'raise', 'uplift', 'higher' and the like. The frequency of reference to 'rise' and 'rising' also brings into light a kind of optimistic vantage point in the Arabic texts. While these can also be found in the English corpus, the English text contains relatively more metaphors such as 'fall into', 'to collapse', 'deep', 'lower', 'fell out' and 'dropped', among others which have negative underpinnings. These latter terms definitely point downwards. Hence, while both languages exhibit the use of metaphors with relevance to the Up and Down

domain, Arabic leans more to Up, while English shows extensive use of metaphors in both the Up and Down orientations. Of course, this observation needs to be explored in further research. It may be that Arabic writers are culturally disposed to report news with a positive slant. But this pattern may equally simply be the accidental result of a relatively more positive current business climate among Saudi entrepreneurs.

On a more basic level, the figures show a greater diversity of expression for types, as well as tokens, in the English corpus. For example, the word 'rise' and the related word 'raise' account for forty-one (41) of the seventy five (75) token metaphors found in the Arabic corpus, or fully more than half. In contrast, it is the English corpus that yields the most morphological diversity. Synonyms or related words for 'raise' and 'rise,' such as 'mounted,' 'goes up,' 'stepping up,' 'high,' 'wind up on top,' 'boost' and 'soar,' among others, attest to this wide variety. English metaphors pertaining to the obverse of the 'raise' and 'rise' also far outnumber their Arabic counterparts. Examples include, 'slump,' 'deep,' 'fall into,' 'to lower,' 'below,' 'downturn' and 'trimmed,' all idiosyncratic descriptions which allude to a general 'down' direction.

LIFE IS A JOURNEY

The second domain under study is LIFE IS A JOURNEY. Conceptual metaphors under this domain are some of the most often used in day to day conversation, as well as in written discourse. In this domain, as the term denotes, human life is made akin to that of a journey, where there is a reference or starting

point and a destination or end point. In the Arabic body of text, “migration” and “step” have been resounding themes. ‘Migration,’ in particular, has found extensive use in business, and is regularly used to describe the movement of a company from one country to another. Furthermore, the word ‘migration’ has also characterized the flow of capital and productive resources flowing out from a home country to various countries hosting foreign investments. It has also been used to describe the influx and exodus of investors or stockholders in a corporation.

Arabic also demonstrated a more romantic and literary tone, evidenced by the reference to ‘flowing of the still water.’ In this metaphorical expression, the journey of life is compared to the flow of water. This expression has found wide appeal in classical Arabic poetry.

However, it is in English that the far reaching influence of this domain can be evidenced. The English corpus presented a relative abundance of conceptual metaphors in this domain as compared with Arabic. ‘Twists and turns,’ ‘turning back’ and ‘clear the way’ are just some of the more popular active English metaphors described in the tables below.

Table 9. *Arabic Corpus 1 LIFE IS A JOURNEY*

Domain	Metaphors
Conceptual metaphors (life is a journey)	'chase' (16,3) ملاحقة 'court' (11) مطاف 'directions' (13) الاتجاهات 'a flow' (14,1) مندفقة 'a flow' (14,2) التدفق 'flow' (15,1) تدفق 'jump' (19,2) تقفز 'jumps' (19,1) قفزات 'marks' (15,1) معالم 'movement' (14,1) حركة 'moving forward' (19,1) تحرك للأمام 'movement'(11) الحراك 'narrow' (11) يضيق 'tripping'(15,2) تعثر 'walk, marching' (11) المسيرة

Table 10. *Arabic Corpus 2 LIFE IS A JOURNEY*

Domain	Metaphors
Conceptual metaphors (life is a journey)	'flowing of the still water' (40,2); تحرك المياه الراكدة; 'replace its place' (32,1); يحل محل 'Step' (31,1); خطوة 'toward the target' (40,2). نحو الهدف.

Table 11. *English Corpus 1 LIFE IS A JOURNEY*

Domain	Metaphors
Conceptual metaphors (life is a journey)	at the crossroads (7,2); online community (1,2); in a totally new direction (7,2); the right direction (6,1); have gone much further (8,1); sits at the intersection (7,1); leave for another website (1,2); Google has some presence in this area (1,2); rough patch (4,1); survived (6,1); has a long way to go (1,2); on the way (6,2); the way (6,1); the way (6,1).

Table 12. *English Corpus 2 LIFE IS A JOURNEY*

Domain	Metaphors
Conceptual metaphors (life is a journey)	come out of (30,4); things to come (24,2); diversify (21,3); go ahead (29,2); move forward (28,1); no turning back (28,1); twists and turns (26,1); move forward (21,2); moves us forward (21,2); stand in the way (21,2); stumbling block (21,2); track (21,2); track (26,1); turnaround (21,2); clear the way (24,2); clear the way (30,1).

Table 13. *LIFE IS A JOURNEY Domain Types and Tokens*

Token & Types		Tokens			Types		
Corpus 1, 2	Corpus 1	Corpus 2	Total	Corpus 1	Corpus 2	Total	
Arabic	13	5	18	5	5	10	
English	18	16	34	15	12	27	

Going over the above tables that show the metaphors in the domain obtained from both language corpuses provides an insightful inquiry into how the cultural thinking of both populations manifests in language, specifically as elucidated in metaphor. With 'migration' as a case in point, Arabic can be said to be more linear, emphasizing attainment of a goal by proceeding straight on to it. English, on the other hand, by the expressions, such as 'sits at the crossroads' and "'sits at the intersection,' evokes contemplation and thinking twice. It can also be noted that Arabic seems more inclined to long term positions as 'migration' takes time and serious adjustments, while English refers to the LIFE AS A JOURNEY as it unfolds, spanning the past, the present and the future. Nevertheless, both languages show that metaphors within the domain are concerned with a dominantly future orientation. This can be evidenced by the Arabic 'toward the target' and its equivalent in English, such as 'has a long way to go,' 'to move forward' and 'go ahead.' That it lends to a more affirmative disposition can be observed in the English metaphorical expressions 'the right direction' and 'have gone much further.' Nevertheless, the English corpus also depicts metaphors with negative undertones, as exemplified by the phrase 'rough patch.' Although the reading of the Arabic articles did not detect a similar metaphor with a negative suggestion, claims based from this scant list of metaphors may still prove to be inconclusive.

The related domain Cyberspace as a Journey also showed a clear predominance of English over Arabic; more metaphors on this subject also came from English. This observation can be understood by looking at the fact that the

Internet is a technology that originated from the US and first earned its popularity in industrialized countries of the West before it spread to other countries.

Therefore, the shortage, if not absence, of Arabic expressions on the Web might be rooted in the fact that the Middle East—along with other parts of the developing world—gained access to this powerful technology much later than their First World contemporaries. This would at least partly account for the disparity. Business overtones in the cyber domain can be easily discerned. For one, it can be realized in the expressions ‘Google has some presence in this area,’ which basically points to Google, an IT-based company providing search and electronic communication capabilities, being present in the online business market. Another ubiquitous metaphorical expression steeped in the cyber world, although almost unrelated to commerce, is ‘online community.’ This phrase situates online surfers and other Internet users in a physical context as a though it was an ordinary community composed of people who could see, hear, and feel each other.

Movement

Movement is the third metaphorical domain created to group several expressions in each language. Tables 14-18 below show the metaphors that were culled from both corpuses with reference to this domain. Movement here, as a domain, pertains to physical locomotion or movement in the literal sense. This makes it different from the earlier domain, LIFE AS A JOURNEY, since

these terms imply a simple movement, without using language that suggests a destination or milestones on the way to a goal.

Table 14. *Movement in Arabic Corpus 1*

Domain	Metaphors
Movement	
	'chase' (16,3) ملاحقة
	'court' (11) مطاف
	'directions' (13) الاتجاهات
	'a flow' (14,1) متدفقة
	'a flow' (14,2) التدفق
	'flow' (15,1) تدفق
	'jump' (19,2) تقفز
	'jumps' (19,1) قفزات
	'marks' (15,1) معالم
	'movement' (14,1) حركة
	'moving forward' (19,1) تحرك للأمام
	'movement'(11) الحراك
	'narrow' (11) يضيق
	'tripping'(15,2) تعثر
	'walk, marching' (11) المسيرة

Table 15. *Movement in Arabic Corpus 2*

Domain	Metaphors
Movement	
	'tripling' (34,3); متعثرة
	'tripling' (34,3); متعثرة
	'tripling' (34,3). متعثرة.

Table 16. *Movement in English Corpus 1*

Domain	Metaphors
Movement	<p>accelerate (2); accelerate (2); closer to (1,2); dance (5); faster (8,1); flow (4,1); get in (9,1); go (8,2); go (8,2); heading (7,1); heading towards (7,1); huge leap (2); jumped (2); jumped (2); jumped (5); jumped(2); look to (1,2); to land (6,2); \$57.2 billion move (2); a move toward selling (7,2); mobility (7,1); movement (7,1); moving (6,1); moving to address (3,1); to reach (2); bigger splash (1,2); slowness (10,2); snapped up (6,1); splash (1,2); swirling (6,1); swooping in(4,1); topped (2); topping its own performance (2); unstoppable (2); snapping up (4,1); stepping up (6,2); wind up on top (1,2).</p>

Table 17. *Movement in English Corpus 2*

Domain	Metaphors
Movement	<p>agitating (26,2); alignment with (21,3); back (25,1); brings out (26,3); brings out (26,3); circulating (22,2); things to come (24,2); diversify (21,3); faster (21,3); cash flow (27,2); fetched (26,3); flow (26,1); flurry (26,1); flurry (26,1); flurry (26,2); flurry (27,1); forth (26,3); pull forward (21,3); inward (28,1); move forward (21,2); move the ball (21,3); moves us forward (21,2); outward (28,1); pace (22,1); pace (25,1); poke (24,2); position itself (27,2); pullback (27,1); pursuit (28,1); ran into (28,1); bull run (26,2); return (22,1); run into (30,1); slipped (27,1); slow down (27,2); slowing down (23,1); speed (24,2); strike (25,2); surged (27,1); surging (25,1); swoop (26,1); thrown (26,2); track (21,2); track (26,1); a way off (24,2); stand in the way (21,2).</p>

Table 18. *Movement Domain Types and Tokens*

Token & Types				Tokens			Types		
Corpus 1, 2	Corpus 1	Corpus 2	Total	Corpus 1	Corpus 2	Total	Corpus 1	Corpus 2	Total
Arabic	10	3	13	7	1	8			
English	33	38	71	24	30	54			

In both languages, metaphors highlighting the qualities of moving water, as expressed in words like ‘flow,’ ‘splash’ and ‘surge’ were noted. The positive quality of most Arabic metaphors is present here as well. Expressions like ‘moving forward’ and ‘marching,’ to name just two, support this claim. While the English text is also replete with numerous affirmative metaphors, phrases and words like ‘slow down’ provide some contrast.

In another tentatively viewed trend, the English metaphors seem to present more real or implied animal imagery, expressing for instance a tendency to link animal characteristics to human behavior. These can be seen in the expressions ‘swooping in’ a verb that better fits a bird of prey, ‘bull run’ which originally characterizes the fast and thundering race of these beasts in the rodeo days of the American Southwest, and ‘a huge leap,’ an action word that in this context suggests the movement of a rabbit or a kangaroo. Moreover, in this domain the broad range of the English examples again makes its presence felt. Examples include the related set, ‘to land,’ ‘to reach,’ and ‘get in,’ as well as terms like ‘surging,’ ‘speed,’ ‘pace,’ and ‘forth,’ which imply energetic or progressive change, also fitting in with this analysis. Aside from the obvious

abundance of English in this metaphorical domain, the preceding tables also presented interesting insights in English metaphorical thinking.

Physical Configuration

Physical configuration constitutes the fourth domain, which gathers phrases that speak of entities being situated with respect to each other, although not in motion. Also included here are terms referring to texture, such as 'hard.' Tables 19 to 23 outline the physical configuration metaphors gathered in the process of the metaphorical textual content analysis.

Table 19. *Physical Configuration-Related Metaphors in Arabic Corpus 1*

Domain	Metaphors
Physical Configuration	'base' (12) التحتية
	'base' (14,1) التحتية
	'base' (14,3) التحتية
	'crack' (17,2) انشراخ
	'hard' (19,1) قاسي
	'to incline' (16,2) يميل
	'inclined' (17,2) ميال
	'incline' (20,1) ميل
	'open' (14,1) مفتوحة
	'rough' (11,1) خشنه
	'shadow' (15,1) ظل
	'shadow' (15,1) ظل
	'shadow' (17,1) ظل
	'shadow' (17,1) ظل
	'soft' (11.1) ناعمة
'top'(13) ذروة.	

Table 20. *Physical Configuration-Related Metaphors in Arabic Corpus 2*

Domain	Metaphors
Physical Configuration	'covering' (32,1) تغطية 'shadow' (32,1) ظل 'shadow' (341) ظل ظل 'shadow' (40,3)

Table 21. *Physical Configuration-Related Metaphors in English Corpus 1*

Domain	Metaphors
Physical Configuration	alongside its clients (2); base (8,2); behind (6,1); borders on (3,2); both sides (2); closer to (1,2); core strategy (1,2); covering (1,2); cushion (4,1); disappear (6,1); diverted more money (8,2); far (6,1); heading into (10,1); hoard (1,1); leaning toward (6,2); look back (9,2); mounted (3); soften (10,2); softly (5); squeezed out (4,1); stick to (1,1); stick to (1,2); stockpiling (1,2); tied (10,2); tighter in their lending (4,1); up front (7,2); on the verge (6,1).

Table 22. *Physical Configuration-Related Metaphors in English Corpus 2*

Domain	Active
Physical Configuration	bubble (24,1); bubble (24,1); coverage (21,1); folding (21,2); folded in (29,1); part (21,2); spin off (22,2); splitting off (22,2); toping (23,1); tough times (30,4).

Table 23. *Physical Configuration-Related Metaphors Domain Types and Tokens*

Token & Types		Tokens			Types		
Corpus 1, 2	Corpus 1	Corpus 2	Total	Corpus 1	Corpus 2	Total	
Arabic	16	4	20	9	2	11	
English	26	11	37	25	9	34	

Table 23 indicates that, once again, English metaphors are far more prevalent than Arabic in this domain as well, even though a brief overview of the entire domain and its metaphors made clear that Physical Configuration is one area in which both languages register relatively fewer total metaphors.

Essentially, metaphors in this realm take advantage of the properties of physical objects, applying them typically to actions or abstract concepts. For instance, the phrase 'tighter in the lending,' likens the act of providing loans to a handle that can be loosened or gripped tighter as one sees it fit. Lending occurs less readily when money—or the lender—is 'tight.' Similarly, Arabic metaphorical expressions, such as 'soft' and 'rough' have come to describe such complicated concepts as attitude, views and feelings as though these ephemeral qualities are actually tangible enough to have texture.

Basically, similar concepts are couched in intriguingly similar ways in the two languages, despite the differences in quantity and diversity. 'Shadow,' for example, was well defined in the Arabic corpus, used often to refer to a nebulous or transitory phenomenon. On a similar note, the English writers made use of the word 'bubble.' Likewise, a strategy that is fundamental to a business operation

may be referred to by the English expression 'core' and its Arabic functional counterpart 'base.'

Size and weight metaphors belong to a domain of their own. They have strong linkages with the physical configuration category. A large and established firm's name can be said to correspond to 'huge' market power. Thus, its experience and comparative position in the industry '*magnifies*' itself. Relative market shares of successful companies are also said to be '*doubled*,' '*Texas-size*' –and sometimes '*overextended*' –all terms that demonstrate the extent of a company's influence. Texas, the largest state of the continental US, has come to stand for all things large. Hence, 'Texas size' or 'Texas made' demonstrates the enormity or scale of a business venture or enterprise.

The diversity of English metaphors is apparent in the set of expressions 'leaning toward,' 'on the verge' and 'borders on,' which may all refer to essentially the same phenomenon.' For one, business becomes apparent in 'core strategy,' which any business organization, from small-scale to medium sized enterprises to big multinational corporations must possess in order to pursue and realize their profit targets and long term goals.

Vehicles

Vehicles is the fifth domain to come under close examination. The tables below record the metaphors pertinent to this domain.

Table 24. *Vehicle-Related Metaphors in Arabic Corpus 1*

Domain	Metaphors
Vehicles	'boat' (11) سفينة 'caravan' (17,1) قافلة 'launch' (18,1) إطلاق 'launch' (18,4) إطلاق 'launch' (19,1) إطلاق 'ride' (14,3) يركب

Table 25. *Vehicle-Related Metaphors in Arabic Corpus 2*

Domain	Metaphors
Vehicles	'going fast' (40,2) مسرع 'thrust' (35,2) قوته الدافعة 'train' (40,2). قطار.

Table 26. *Vehicle-Related Metaphors in English Corpus 1*

Domain	Metaphors
Vehicles	afloat (4,2); afloat (4,2); afloat (4,2); blast past peers (2); missed the boat (9,1); you miss the boat (10,3); firing in all cylinders propelled(2); race car (2); crash (6,1); drive GM into bankruptcy (3,1); driver (7,1); drives (7,1); drives (7,1); how the engine works (2); profit engines (2); the most powerful engine at Goldman (2); launched (9,2); to launch its own sites (1,2); rip-roaring (5); roll-outs (10,2); set to sail (9,2); spark (3); spark a strike (3,1); take off (7,2); to jump-start (3,1); on track (10,2); wake (9,1).

Table 27. *Vehicle-Related Metaphors in English Corpus 2*

Domain	Metaphors
Vehicles	accelerate (21,3); approach (21,1); crash (23,1); crossover (21,3); cost driven (28,2); fueled (25,1); launch (21,3); launch (21,3); launch (21,3); launch (30,3); raft (26,2); ride out (30,4); roll it out (21,3); turnaround (21,2); turnover (21,3).

Table 28. *Vehicles-Related Metaphors Domain Types and Tokens*

Token & Types	Tokens			Types		
	Corpus 1	Corpus 2	Total	Corpus 1	Corpus 2	Total
Arabic	6	2	8	4	2	6
English	25	14	39	16	11	27

In line with the previous domains, the Vehicle-related example sets underscore the edge of English over Arabic metaphors, both in terms of sheer numbers and in terms of variety and scope. English vehicle-based metaphors are also more vivid compared to their Arabic counterparts; where the Arabic forms seem restricted to the broad idea of vehicular travel, suggesting train, boat and the culturally specific ‘caravan,’ the English forms branch out from these general terms to include details such as sparks, cylinders and the (sometimes failing) engines responsible for driving the imagined vehicular movement. The metaphors that fall in this classification attribute vehicle-like characteristics to such concepts as movement toward financial insolvency (‘drive GM into

bankruptcy'), escalating labor unrest ('spark a strike'); successful competition in the business sphere conceptualized as a race, or even as space travel, as in the phrase to 'blast past peers.' The traveler is also cited, as one who 'misses the boat;' that is, one who has lost some productive opportunities. English metaphors have come to describe business-related entities and events as though they were cars racing, aircraft flying at soaring heights, or boats sailing the high seas. The structural variety of English metaphorical language with respect to this domain is especially rich, and includes such terms and phrases as 'launch,' 'take off,' 'thrust,' 'ride,' 'roll outs,' 'set to sail' and 'spark.'

Vehicle metaphors are so familiar that, like the examples in many of the previous domains, they are sometimes taken as literal expressions. In the business setting, phrases such as 'firing on all cylinders,' 'cost driven' and 'going fast,' have come to refer to the speed and intensity by which, say, plans and strategies are carried out. The same goes for words and phrases like 'rip roaring,' 'crash' and 'accelerate.' 'Afloat' has come to depict the financial viability of an enterprise, while concepts like 'fuel' and 'engine' (e.g. 'profit engines') regularly depict the motivation and energy behind a corporate goal or vision.

Game/War

The joint source category Games and War serves as the last of the preliminary metaphorical domains under investigation. This domain ranks close to the first two domains, Up and Down and Life is a Journey, in terms of numbers

of metaphors. Tables 29 through 33 below illustrate the active metaphors gleaned from the body of English and Arabic articles.

Table 29. *Game & War-Related Metaphors in Arabic Corpus 1*

Domain	Metaphors
Game & War	'fighting' (16,3) مكافحة; 'hit' (17,1) ضربة ; 'maneuver' (17,2) مناورة ; 'maneuver' (19,2) مناورة ; 'occupied'(13,2) احتلت ; 'play' (19,1) تلعب ; 'power'(13) القوة ; 'revolution' (11) ثورة ;
	'revolution' (11) ثورة ; 'have a revolution' (11) تنثير ; 'strongest' (16,1) أقوى ; 'terrorism' (20,1) إرهاب ; 'threat' (15,1) تهديد ; 'court' (11) مطاف .

Table 30. *Game & War-Related Metaphors in Arabic Corpus 2*

Domain	Metaphors
Game & War	'alliance' (36,1) تحالف 'alliance' (36,1) تحالف 'capturing' (33,1) استيلاء 'competition' (32,1) المنافسة 'competition' (37,1) المنافسة 'confront' (34,1) مواجهة 'goal' (34,1) هدف 'goals'(34,1) أهداف
	'hunting' (39,2) اقتناص 'marathon' (36,1) ماراثون 'play' (38,2) لعب 'revolution' (34,1) ثورة 'resistance' (38,3) المقاومة 'resistance' (40,3) المقاومة 'win' (31,2) فاز

Table 31. *Game & War-Related Metaphors in English Corpus 1*

Domain	Metaphors
Game & War	<p>aggressively (1,2); bet (4,2); bets (2); betting (4,2); boomerangs (8,2); smart Bets (2); calling for his head (3,1); calling for Wagoner's head (3,1); campaign(1,2); catching (6,1); conflict (3,2); crosshairs (6,1); embattled (3,1); fallback position (1,2); fight (4,2); fight (8,2); fighter (5); fighting back (3,1); on several fronts (1,2); give up (3,1); give up (6,1); giving up (4,1); hikes (5); hikes (5); hit (10,2); hostility (8,1); hurting (10,1); hurting (10,1); losers (8,2); losers (8,2); losers(8,2); losers(8,2); the leader (1,2); overcome (8,1); play the market (2); player (6,1); player (9,1); players (6,2); players (6,2); make a serious play (1,2); practices (9,2); pullback (10,2); quick on the draw (4,1); a good run (9,2); on its run (9,1); come out swinging (3); take-no-prisoners (2); target (1,2); biggest threat (1,2); threatened (8,1); turn against (2); a full scale inter-creditor war (4,2); war chest (1,1); weighed in with (2); win (1,2); winners (8,2); winners (8,2); winners (8,2); winning (6,1); winning (6,2); won the war (4,2); wrestle (4,2).</p>

Table 32. *Game & War-Related Metaphors in English Corpus 2*

Domain	Metaphors
Game & War	aggressive (24,1); aggressive (28,1); aggressively (28,1); alliance (21,1); alliance (21,1); alliance (21,1); alliance (21,2); alliance (21,2); alliance (21,2); alliance partner (21,1); alliance partner (21,2); alliances (21,1); alliances (21,1); alliances (21,1); alliances (21,2); alliances (21,2); alliances(21,2); attack (21,3); attacking (21,3); betting (27,1); betting on (27,1); bidding war (26,2); boom (24,1); booming (22,1); booming (28,2); brutal (24,2); bull's eyes (25,2); competitor (30,2); dive (21,3); fifth inning (26,2); force (24,2); fourth inning (26,2); game-changing (29,1); gaming (21,1); hostile (21,1); hurdles (30,2); join forces (24,2); made bets on (22,2); ninth inning (26,2); on the hunt (27,1); player (28,1); players (21,1); players (22,1); players (24,2); players (26,2); players (28,2); players (30,1); prevail (22,2); rack up (21,1); resistance (30,1); strategic alliances (21,1); stumbling block (21,2); teamed up (28,1); under fire (22,2); untapped (25,2); war (23,1); war room (21,1); weighted (25,1).

Table 33. *Game & War Domain Types and Tokens*

Token & Types	Tokens			Types		
	Corpus 1	Corpus 2	Total	Corpus 1	Corpus 2	Total
Arabic	14	15	29	11	11	22
English	61	55	116	34	25	59

As with the first five domains, the Game and War realm also shows a preponderance of English metaphors over Arabic. A particularly American manifestation in this group involves the appearance of the baseball metaphor involving ‘innings’ of a game; to understand what the ‘ninth inning’ of a negotiation might be, one needs to have the specific cultural information that baseball games have only nine innings and that the most dramatic moments often occur late in the game; in fact, it helps to have watched one’s favorite team hopelessly struggle from a losing position in the ninth inning, to know how seldom fortunes change at that point in the game.

Of course Game and War metaphors are important in both—indeed, in many—languages. Although most may not be aware of it, these kinds of metaphors are among the most widely used metaphorical expressions. Metaphors in this category equate things to a game where players compete to win, or to a war where belligerents or opponents make use of tremendous resources and employ stratagems to ‘fight’ for significant stakes. Although the English corpus came up with metaphors of more imagery, both languages demonstrate a significant presence of these metaphors in their non-literal vocabularies.

Both game and war metaphors have found extensive use in the field of business. ‘*Win*’ or ‘*lose*,’ for example, have come to define the prospects of success of a particular venture. ‘*Alliances*’, ‘*teamed up*’ and ‘*joining of forces*’ have come to describe vital mergers and partnerships entered into by two or more business entities for the purpose of maximizing their potential or expanding

their operations. In the conduct of their business, firms have been known to ‘*maneuver*,’ ‘*bid*,’ and ‘*turn against*’ each other for market share. Businesses are said to be ‘*hostile*’ or ‘*fighting back*’ against one another when in competitive situations. Furthermore, firms across industries are frequently labeled as ‘*players*’ as well as ‘*competitors*.’ Rival enterprises have also been known to pose ‘*threats*’ to each other’s success or viability. Moreover, business executives or top management officials have been identified as ‘*leaders*’ who may come ‘*under fire*’ or be ‘*embattled*’ for the strategies they had proposed, formulated and implemented in the workplace. Such mismanagement can precipitate actions from company stockholders, employees or top management ‘*calling for [a CEO’s] head*.’ Executive boardrooms where crucial company policies and strategies are deliberated and discussed are routinely referred to metaphorically as the ‘*war room*.’ Metaphors in resolving and mitigating the conflict have also been observed in the readings. For one, the expression the ‘*Kofi Annan of EMC*,’ which highlights the mediating and conciliatory role of the United Nations (UN), specifically by the Secretary General, during times of conflict have been cited.

The Arabic morphological range in this domain can be seen in the words ‘*play*,’ ‘*maneuver*,’ ‘*threat*,’ ‘*hit*,’ ‘*confront*,’ ‘*capturing*,’ ‘*resistance*’ and ‘*marathon*,’ all of which describe how ‘*players*’ or ‘*opponents*’ behave in the field, and all of which correspond to possible English forms. Whether in business or on the battlefield, these metaphors can very much illustrate the progress of either game or war, as was also noted in the Arabic corpus. In light of the peace and security problems in the Middle East, ‘terrorism’ has become a popular term the world

over. However, for fear of offending people with Middle Eastern backgrounds and because the term has become enmeshed with complex issues, few resort to this particular war metaphor in expressing themselves in their day-to-day business related speech.

The extensive English linguistic array, on the other hand, is visible in terms like '*wrestle*,' '*catching*,' '*bets*,' '*win*,' '*fight*,' '*prevail*,' '*dive*' and '*attack*.' Like their Arabic equivalents, these terms portray the manner in which actors in the game or war scenario will perform. English metaphorical narratives of opponents or rivals name them as '*losers*,' as a '*threat*,' a '*hostile*' competitor, even as '*brutal*.' In the business marketplace, a firm's posture can be depicted as a '*pullback*,' '*fallback position*,' '*on several fronts*,' '*fighting back*,' '*on the hunt*,' or '*threatened*.' An astute business manager can be seen as '*quick on the draw*' or as capable of scoring a '*bull's eye*.' An industry can be characterized as '*booming*' or '*under fire*.' Finally, business strategies are identified as '*campaigns*,' sometimes carried out with a '*take-no-prisoners*,' attitude or as '*a good run*.'

The word '*revolution*' has been used to portray momentous change brought about by the advent of technological breakthroughs, such as the Internet, for its effect on business and modern living as a whole. Additionally, '*power*' has also been bestowed in the web for its '*revolutionizing*' impact. The competitive and fast changing environment of modern business has made this domain a particularly apt one. Game and war metaphors made the discussion of business more lively and real. Hence, game and war metaphors have made a

considerable contribution to the way business news and information are conceptualized and presented.

The sections that follow will briefly talk about metaphorical source domains that are less common and contain only few instances among the corpuses scrutinized. However, despite their infrequent occurrence in the texts, they are still important as they further indicate the metaphorical qualities of the two languages.

Mechanics

Metaphors relating to the domain of mechanics have also been detected. Words such as '*to fix*' and '*filters*,' provide just a few examples. However, not many metaphors from this domain were garnered during the article analysis.

Eating or Digestion

The scrutiny of business articles revealed a number of significant metaphors relating to the biological process of eating or digestion. '*Consumers*,' which is rooted in the word *consume*, is one of the most noteworthy business and economic expressions of today that has a metaphorical underpinnings. Eating and digestion metaphors have long been utilized for various linguistic purposes in the realm of commerce. Businesses that are expanding their interests are depicted as '*gobbling*' or are poised to '*swallow*' their competitors or related firms by buying them out. Such companies may also be described as having an insatiable '*appetite*'; they want to consolidate the entire industry into their own

hands. On the other hand, a company that may lack or have an inadequate amount of certain raw materials or production factors may be said to '*hunger*' for them. In the language of mergers and acquisitions, eating and digestion metaphors appear often.

Relationship and Courtship

Textual analysis also revealed a small number of metaphors within the domain of relationship. In the business environment, companies are said to '*adopt*' the best strategy that will suit their capacities and potentials as well as serve their needs and future vision. Company best practices are said to be '*venerable*' and looked up to by many, especially those that are just starting out in the trade.

A similar domain, courtship, is also worth mentioning. In the business atmosphere, a business can be characterized as a persistent '*suitor*' out to secure the elusive customer's approval or continued patronage. In the acquisitions setting, big corporations are considered as '*suitors*' out to win the hearts of smaller enterprises they are intending to buy. In the case of mergers, on the other hand, firms of relatively equal size and stature are likened to '*wedding couples*' who '*tied the knot*' after a long courtship.

Building

Building metaphors are also present in the readings. This can be seen in the word '*platform*' which has come to define the medium or manner by which a

company carries out its intended objectives. It can refer to the qualities of the product or service being offered or to the approach with which those products or services are marketed, sold or publicized. Reviewing or changing company operations, policies and systems is sometimes referred to as '*restructuring*,' another term that fits within the building domain. Finally, the act of using advertising or marketing to increase a firm's customer base is known as '*building market*,' another term that makes reference to structural building.

Physical (Body), Sight and Medical Terms

The human physique has also been a subject around which a number of metaphors revolve. Firms that have a long established market presence, command a formidable market share, or are making significant investments in technology and capital are referred to as '*giants*'; they are seen as '*robust*' and '*strong*.' Weaker firms are said to '*languish*'; the wrong business stratagems leave them barely '*alive*' and functioning. When strategies are finally recognized as errors, they can then serve as '*eye openers*' that prompt companies to '*scratch their heads*,' rethink their fundamental formulas and, thus, devise means to put them '*back on their feet*.' In redeeming themselves from the morass caused by their mistakes, following in the '*footprints*' of market leaders or successful predecessors is of invaluable help.

Medical metaphors also manifest themselves in the textual analysis. Like the metaphors in the power domain, these non-literal expressions indicate the relative position or standing of an enterprise. Firms that are fighting back from

losses are said to be devising means of '*recovery*.' Other metaphors relating to medical and health conditions include '*swell*' and, interestingly, '*to crush their DNA*.' Metaphors in the medical realm consider companies as '*healthy*' when they are profitable. Otherwise, they are said to be '*suffering from mismanagement*,' '*inflicted with debilitation*' or simply '*sick*.' And as medicine is a rigid and formal science, medical metaphors lend the status and appeal of scientific analysis to the discourse of business.

The sense of sight has also long been used as a metaphorical vehicle. The expressions '*focused*,' '*refocused*,' '*look at*' and '*keep his eyes on*' are just some examples that attest to this.

Power, Oil and Energy

Power—defined in several ways—is an ever present metaphor in business discourse. The end goal of a firm's strategy is to '*generate*' the needed sales to meet company objectives. Companies in good standing in particular industries are claimed to be '*strong*' and '*tough*'; those that are very strong and tough are said to be '*titans*.' Other noteworthy examples of power metaphors include '*powerhouse*,' '*brainpower*,' '*beef up*' and '*in the throes*.' Using power metaphors in depicting the status, reach, influence or market share of a given company have been oftentimes observed in magazine and periodical articles pertaining to business.

In the discussion of energy and fuel business, oil and energy metaphors cannot simply be absent. Since most Arab countries have considerable deposits

of oil beneath their soil, these metaphors are very common in discussing business in the Arab viewpoint. However, to say that these metaphors are confined to this commercial aspect is an oversimplification. Among the persistent metaphorical expressions in this domain are '*gusher*,' '*barrels of potential*' and '*pipelines*.' These metaphors are utilized to highlight remarkable business opportunities or the possible bright scenarios that could result if the right people, management and business approaches were tapped and implemented. As with game and war metaphors, metaphors in this domain add intensity and life in presenting business news and information.

Growing / Plants (Agriculture), Animals and Nature/Weather

Likening the commercial sphere to the agricultural sphere happens often in the business articles. If the market for certain goods seem to be relatively new and open, it is said to be a '*fertile ground*' for business to plow, referring to its openness for investment. Businesses are said to be capable of '*growth*.' But if unfavorable circumstances or problems are not resolved, new businesses can '*die on the vine*.' In essence, this domain frames business organizations as living organisms capable of living, adapting, surviving and dying. In many instances, using growing/plants metaphors have been helpful in understanding complex business activities. Breaking down complicated business processes and prospects were of great aid in devising appropriate means to address problems in the workplace and in enduring amidst the difficulties of the general business climate.

Animal characteristics and features have also long been employed as metaphors. Textual analysis lends strong support to this. The behavior of both bulls and bears has been used to describe financial markets. A *'bear market'* is wild and unpredictable; a *'bull market,'* though, is strong and stable. Bull metaphors also appear in *'bull's eyes,'* which refer to the impact or trajectory of a business strategy and in *'stampede'* which addresses the influx or flight of investors.

Metaphors relating to weather / nature also occur in the metaphorical content analysis of the articles under examination. Businesses are said to be hypothetically *'forecasting'* the market size and growth potentials, as well as the projected increase or decrease in the company's position. These forecasts are often based on economic, demographic, and political figures and trends that are sometimes collectively called the business *'climate.'* Sudden and unexpected profits are called *'windfalls.'* And reducing the workforce as a business austerity measure is regularly called *'streamlining.'*

Hot / Cold / Explosive

Metaphors that allude to temperature have also been surveyed among the two *'corpus'* of Arabic and English business articles. Hot / cold / explosive metaphorical descriptions about aspects and features of the company were present; among those that worth of mention are *'warming,' 'overheated,' 'red-hot,' 'spark'* and *'blasted.'* These metaphorical adjectives illustrate business in a wide range of descriptions. They refer to both the strategies and approaches

employed by the company, the resources it mobilized in order to back them up and the results of these initiatives.

TIME AS COMMODITY / Container Metaphors

Aside from LIFE IS A JOURNEY, other commonly discussed conceptual metaphors appear in the data. One of these involves viewing TIME AS COMMODITY. One expression along these lines is '*bought ... time.*' In the business scenario, such an expression can refer to the company's act of securing or taking reasonable time to observe market developments, such as the progress of a rival company's marketing activities. It can also mean gaining additional experience, expertise and resources before commencing a new business strategy. Finally, this conceptual metaphor can be said to have grown from the realization of the all important time element in almost all aspects of the business cycle. As time is also a scarce resource or a commodity, the implication is that it needs to be wisely allocated.

On the other hand, '*putting \$ into,*' is within the bounds of container metaphors as it refers to investments or capital as though they are being put in a jug, pitcher or any other actual container

Clothing

Some metaphors belonging to the clothing domain have appeared in the limelight. These include such expressions as '*cap*' and '*put on*' (as though, say, a business approach is a dress). Clothing metaphors have been used for a variety

of purposes in the discourse of commerce. In much literature, for example, business models have been characterized as though they were wardrobes that can suit particular aims or organizations. And as dresses are always subject to passing fashion, they can be set aside once a new line or set of fashionable clothes appears to replace them. In the business context, this change can correspond to the scrapping of obsolete business models or schemes and the subsequent adoption of new ones.

Religion

The field of religion has also encroached on the business domain. Company executives have been said to have cast or '*put their faith in*' the formulated official business approach they were going to pursue. When they make that commitment they become known as '*true believers*.' Other metaphors with obvious religious overtones that have been very well documented in the articles are '*testament*' and '*gotten religion*.' Moreover, prominent business leaders or renowned managers are said to have accumulated '*a flock*' or a '*following*.' They are also said to have built a '*cult*' that '*worships*' their ideas. In many occasions, the use of religious metaphors adds more credence to a business philosophy or a set of business principles. Religious metaphors, if appropriately employed, can be used to motivate employees, impressing on them the value of their roles and contributions and the repercussions of their individual failures to the overall state of affairs of the organization to which they belong.

Idiomatic Phrases

Idiomatic and rhetorical devices have also appeared in the course of the textual scrutiny. Several of these metaphors include *'their Hermes ties flapping in the wind,' 'back at the table'* and *'fast and furious.'* *'Think tank'* is one popular business and lay term that has idiomatic origins. It refers to a center, institute or office, which can be either publicly or privately owned, established to provide an expert advice, consultancy or assistance to its clients. In the business world, think tanks have been of great service to entrepreneurs, providing accurate, timely and relevant information essential for making investment and business decisions. Many metaphors under this category were noted; indeed, figurative expressions are at work in many business analogies.

Discussion of Textual Analysis and Conversation meetings

In the course of the metaphorical content analysis, the presence of metaphors in both languages was clearly documented. Both Arabic and English demonstrate metaphorical qualities, with the latter having an unquestionable lead in terms of absolute numbers and recurrence of these non-literal expressions. Both sets of corpuses showed metaphors belonging to a broad spectrum of domains, from animate to inanimate, from direction to senses, from the religious, military and relationship domains to movement, growth, weather/nature, energy, power and emotional domains. Metaphors under conceptual realms, as well as figurative speech, were all duly recorded, attesting to the pervasiveness of metaphors in language. English illustrated metaphorical persistence in almost all

the domains. Arabic metaphors, on the other hand, have not had much of a presence in certain domains. In some domains they have been altogether lacking. English has also revealed more idiosyncratic expressions and a wider range of structural possibilities for expressing any given metaphorical thought in several ways without losing the original idea. The textual analysis also revealed interesting insights into English metaphorical language. One particularly interesting example is in the movement domain, where English metaphors seem to regularly apply movement terms to inanimate objects, such as money. This can be seen in everyday expressions like '*cash flow*,' which appear in the corpus and which treats money as if it were a moveable liquid.

In the earlier tables, it is easy to see the higher incidence of metaphors in English as opposed to those in Arabic. We might try to cite reasons to account for the scarcity of Arabic metaphors in the corpus as compared to the prevalence of English metaphors in a group of closely related texts. For one, there is no doubt that English is by and large the medium of international commerce; hence, in the realm of commerce, it already has a clear and definite advantage over other languages, including Arabic. Firms that want to do business overseas, as well as students and professionals who wish to study or work abroad, take serious time to learn English. Furthermore, more business literature, particularly that which deals with global business, is written in English than in any other languages. Thus, it can be said that the chance of English metaphors being exposed in the writing of English business articles and books is greater than

Arabic. In this light, the preponderance of English expressions seems quite understandable.

Another point should be made here, involving patterns of usage and their arising quite independently in the context of different domains. The fact that there were only a small number of metaphors found in Arabic business writing does not, in any way, make a conclusive statement about Arabic as a non-metaphorical language. Therefore, one should not draw sweeping generalizations based on the statistics presented in table 3, to table 33.

Countering the argument that Arabic is not metaphorical are a number of various and established studies on Arabic language, literature and culture. Simawe (2001), in particular, noted the extensive use of metaphors in classical Arabic prose and poetry. Other research, such as that conducted by Al-Krenawi (2000), Aldoos (1998) and Alturki (1999), also attest to the fact that Arabic is rich in metaphorical usage. Hence, the present 'count' applies only to the language patterns encountered in the context of Arabic business writing.

CHAPTER V

PARTICIPANTS' WRITINGS AND QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSES

This chapter addresses the fourth research question. The fourth research question is repeated here for the reader's convenience.

4. What problems might arise for learners of English whose first language is Arabic when encountering these expressions in their English reading?

Participants' Writings

As discussed in detail in Chapter III, the participants were asked to write a short essay consisting of one or two paragraphs; the specific length was left to the participants' discretion. To give respondents an idea of how to go about these write-ups, an example of an essay on a business topic was discussed and handed to them. Other possible business-related essay topics were presented for the participants' guidance. However, the final choice of topic was left to the discretion of the respondents; all were told that they could write about a personal account of any subject they chose. The only condition was that participants were asked to focus on business themes or subjects as much as possible.

Moreover, all were assured that I was not looking for language mistakes and that they should not worry about spelling or grammar. No special format or expected writing style or approach was prescribed or advised and everything was done to encourage spontaneity in this brief writing activity. I asked them to write freely and just express their ideas in the words of their choice. They were

basically aware that the topic of my research was metaphor; however, again, I urged them to simply write about something of personal interest to them. My idea was to see whether they would attempt to express themselves metaphorically in English at any point.

The essays I received basically told of personal experiences regarding or related to business. Some discussed knowledge of or first hand experiences with respect to the establishment of their own small enterprises- how they failed or succeeded and how those failures or successes motivated their further interest in commerce. For example, one participant wrote a story about his dreams and aspirations to start a business. Buying and selling, including bargaining and negotiation, also figured among the business themes that were covered. One story talked about buying a new car and another about selling an old mobile phone. Yet another narrated an experience about relating with peers and superiors in the workplace. Other topics included learning certain business principles and codes from relatives (i.e. father, uncle), and accounts of the losses brought about by and concomitant lessons learned from the crash of the Saudi stock market. Although most of the personal narratives were set in respondents' native countries—especially in the Saudi cities of Mecca, Damman, Jeddah, and Riyadh—there was also a story of personal struggles in adapting to the new land and culture of the United States of America.

The essays are relatively simple in terms of structure and presentation. The words utilized are also easily understood, with some common idiomatic expressions. As the respondents are secondary English speakers, their obvious

and predictable problems in grammar, syntax and, occasionally, spelling and choice of words show up in the writing. However, it was not the goal of the study to focus on these errors. What was important was to gauge whether any metaphorical usage showed up in the writing and if it did, how that usage would manifest as participants expressed themselves in a language not native to them.

Discussion of Participants' Writings

All in all, there were fifteen participants involved in this activity. All were students pursuing various degrees in higher education institutions in Western Pennsylvania. The participants were doctoral (Ph.D.) and master's (M.A.) graduate students, as well as undergraduate college students who ranged in age from the early 20s to late 30s. Of course, Arabic was the first language for the participants, but all were asked to write their essays in English. The length of the essays was measured in terms of the number of words. Metaphors that appear in the essays were tallied and summed. Table 34 below will show the extent of metaphorical usage by the respondents in English. To maintain the confidentiality of the identities of the participants, they were assigned fictitious names.

Table 34. *Summary of Results of Participants' Writings*

Participant	Number of words in the story	Number of metaphors
Abdulrahman	156	4
Almohsen	81	0
Alomari	225	1
Mowaid	233	0
Salem	191	1
Alkhafi	239	1
Alahmad	176	2
Hoda	252	3
Alfaris	100	0
Altammam	177	1
Aldossari	182	2
Abdullah	128	1
Mohammad	154	2
Alhajeri	275	0
Alhumaidan	196	3
Total	2765	21

In the above table, it is very much apparent that respondents made minimal or no use of metaphorical forms in expressing themselves in English. The essays were, on average, 184 to 185 words in length, with 275 as the longest and 81 as the shortest. Out of a total of 2765 words used in the entire

combined length of all the participants' personal stories, only 14 expressions—usually consisting of one to five words per expression—could be considered metaphors. There is no question that this figure proves miniscule when viewed against the total number of words; moreover, many of the expressions used were only marginally metaphorical. For instance, 'atmosphere' was used in the phrase 'work atmosphere.' Also, the expression 'to kill two birds with one stone' was deliberately produced by one respondent as a conscious attempt to provide a metaphor; this form, while counted here, is more of a frozen idiomatic expression, and is thus not the kind of usage focused on in this study.

Nonetheless, there were clear attempts to use metaphors; figurative language did appear in the students' writings. Participant Mohammad made use of the metaphor '*pick up my friends*' to indicate inviting his friends to join him for social activity. Another participant, Abdulrahman mentioned '*hot subject*' to mean an interesting subject for a conversation with a friend. Furthermore, student participant Alomari also made use of the expression '*huge numbers*' to describe how many laundry stores are there in his city. Possible cultural overtones are expressed in the expression '*big drilling*,' which, in Aldossari's writing was used in the context of addressing a considerable business opportunity or chance to profit. Drilling, however, reflects the business landscape of most of the Middle East, where oil drills are made in many places to exploit the enormous oil and natural gas deposits beneath the soil.

Four essays that were screened for metaphorical content in English provided no results. The largest number of recorded metaphors in a given essay

was four, while five of the essays contained only one metaphor. It should be noted that, despite my instructions not to focus on the use of metaphors in their writing, many of the respondents knew of my topic and said they tried consciously to include metaphors in their writing. Still, they found it hard to do so.

It might be tempting to conclude that Arabs by nature avoid metaphorical usage; thus, this avoidance manifested itself in these particular written expressions. This is a valid partial reason for the patterns used by these writers. However, one must also remember the very plausible claim that mastery, or at the very least, excellent command of a second language, is widely considered as a prerequisite before making appropriate use of metaphor in a non-native language. This is because good command of a language involves knowledge of both its literal and non-literal qualities. Hence, these findings generated from Arab student participants can also be considered true for other foreign secondary learners of English. Table 35 below outlines the domains in which the metaphors mentioned in the participants' essays fell.

Table 35. *Summary of Metaphors and their Domains Observed in the Participants' Writings*

Domain	Metaphor	Total number
Physical body	Face, strong, dark face	3
Hot/cold/explosive	hot	1
Up and down	Going down, pick up, below zero, up, deep,	5
Mind is a container	In your mind,	1
Game / war	Lost the game, drilling (in the sense of 'drill' or practice), unstable situation	3
Weather	Atmosphere,	1
Idioms	got two birds by one stone,	1
Total		15

All in all, fifteen metaphors, which were then classified into nine domains, were detected in the participants' write ups. The foregoing table demonstrates that respondents made the most use of metaphors in the domain of Up and Down, with five listed metaphors. Three metaphors in the realm of game and war and three in the physical body domain were also documented. The rest of the

other domains contain one metaphor each. The fact that only a few metaphors were employed by the participants support my earlier statement that mastery of a second language is necessary in order to express one's self metaphorically in that language.

Questionnaire Responses

After the study's participants had submitted their essays, details of which were mentioned above, they received a questionnaire which asked them to interpret a selected group of forty expressions from the published articles in the English corpus described in the previous chapter. Follow up conversation meetings clarified inconsistencies or confusion with respect to the participants' replies. The minutes of these conversation meetings were transcribed. In the main, these meetings generated similar results. I asked the same set of questions to each of the fifteen respondents in individual one-on-one sessions. Surprisingly, these sessions lasted from two to three and a half hours—I did not expect that these sessions would take such a long time. A great deal of this time was dedicated to giving the participants background information about the articles, so that they might more easily interpret the expressions by referencing the broader context. Literal dictionary meanings were also sometimes given when deemed necessary. This proved helpful for many of the respondents who were not acquainted with certain terms or words used in the questionnaire.

The questionnaire (Appendix J) was basically a listing of sentences quoted from business magazine and periodical articles. The criteria for selecting

the metaphors used in the Questionnaire were discussed thoroughly in Chapter III. For the purpose of easy detection of these metaphors among the sentences given, the phrases to be interpreted were underlined. The most likely responses to these metaphors that native speakers might supply were given by English expert readers.

Appendices J and L include the results of the participants' answers to the forty (40) items found in the questionnaire. This number of items was envisioned as being enough to produce the appropriate number of results required for doing the text, questionnaire and conversation meeting analyses. Several questionnaire items along with some of the interesting responses provided in it are presented in the succeeding sections. I have chosen to focus on only fifteen (15) items on the ground that these items yielded the most interesting response patterns. The correct response for each of the questionnaire items is also provided in order to easily determine right answers from wrong ones. The notable errors and the recurring problems observed in the questionnaires are cited to provide an overview of the responses. This will provide sufficient grounding for the discussion and summary of the essential findings generated from this research approach.

Question Item 1:

1. "Goldman helped Procter & Gamble Co. swallow Gillette in a \$ 57.2 billion move; abroad, it midwifed acquisitions such as Gas Natural

SDG's \$51.2 billion takeover of another takeover of a Spanish utility, Endesa.”

Correct answer: Proctor & Gamble ‘swallowed,’ i.e. acquired, Gillette, possibly in a predatory manner; the company also ‘midwifed’ the other acquisitions listed, or helped them come into being.

A look at the first item, which contains two metaphorical terms in a single sentence, illustrates the case for the respondents’ interpretation and understanding of English metaphors presented to them. The item is cited here, followed by a table showing that most respondents provided either incorrect or at best ‘close’ meanings for the expressions underlined in these sentences. In this case, and throughout the chapter, I will present the test items first as quotes from the article, with the target phrase underlined; below each item, indented and in italics, I will present a brief paraphrase of the interpretation given by two native English speakers, which was used as a criteria in for judging the correctness of the participant’s answers.

Table 36. *Summary of Responses on Question Item 1*

Number of participants	Correct	Incorrect	Close
15	0	13	2

Going by the above table, it is obvious that no one was able to arrive at the exact meaning of the terms ‘swallow’, or ‘midwifed’ in the given sentence. Only two were able to offer a close approximation of how the terms should be understood in the given context, saying that “Goldman, Proctor & Gamble

takeover Gillette's revenue which \$57.2 billion. “ Among the responses labeled ‘incorrect’ were claims that both Procter & Gamble and Gillette grew, or even more erroneously, that Gillette became a bigger company because of the negotiations cited. One participant said that Goldman had acquired Gillette for himself, and that Procter & Gamble became a business partner in the process. Another incorrect reply defined the move as “marketing between the two companies.” One even maintained that “Goldman, Procter & Gamble steal Gillette's money or join it.”

The passage refers to the multimillion dollar acquisition of Gillette by Procter & Gamble. Thus, it is the latter which grew more as a result of the deal, definitely not the other way around. In fact, once bought out, Gillette ceases to be an independent business entity and instead becomes an integral part of Procter & Gamble, whose management may now decide its operations and its future. Hence, ‘*swallow*’ in the sentence refers to the “eating” by Procter & Gamble of Gillette, which was facilitated by Goldman. To describe how big the acquisition deal is, the passage goes on saying that it ‘*midwifed*’ similar agreements made abroad. ‘*Midwifed*’ then pertains to the fact that ‘it’ (presumably Procter & Gamble), had helped to ‘*bring to life*’ similar buyout contracts. The diversity in answers no doubt suggests that the participants did not understand the sense of the passage.

Question Item 2:

2. “Its investment-banking, trading and asset-management businesses are all white hot.”

Correct answer: These businesses are ‘very hot’ – which means they are active, popular and successful.

Table 37. Summary of Responses on Question Item 2

Number of participants	Correct	Incorrect	Close	Blank
15	2	11	1	1

For this second item, a similar pattern emerges as for the first item. Eleven of the fifteen respondents gave incorrect answers, while only two understood the intended meaning of the phrase. One respondent offered a ‘close’ answer, while still another left the space provided for the answer blank. These dismal findings begin to offer support for the possibility that the appearance and regular use of metaphors in English business writing could result in reading difficulties for these learners in their professional lives.

The sentence in item 2 narrates the success story of the Goldman Sachs Group, heavily emphasizing supervision and coordination in the areas of investment-banking, trading and asset management. Hence, the term ‘*white-hot*’ describes business divisions that had actively worked to become successful and financially secure, and had thus gained significant market clout. However, an abundance of errors showed up in understanding this metaphor. Among the wrong answers provided by the participants were some who said the phrase

meant concentrating on the banking aspect alone or centering on investments and guaranteed revenues. One interpretation claimed that the term refers to legal action or an urgent need for a rapid decision an idea that is unrelated to the meaning of the text. Other invalid understandings, such as arguing that ‘*white hot*’ means ‘*widely*’ were also given.

An interesting anecdote relates to this last item. One participant found the phrase especially odd, insisting that there is no such thing as ‘*white hot*’ in the physical realm. As it happened, soon afterwards I attended an outdoor cookout with some of the participants, and was able to point out the white glow of the charcoal when it had reached its peak level of heat. This led me to wonder how many English speakers might also never have noticed the white color of very hot embers were it not for the common metaphorical expression ‘*white hot*’ in English.

Question Item 3:

3. “The embattled chairman and CEO of General Motors is facing a growing chorus of critics calling for his head.”

Correct answer: A chorus is usually singing together – so here it means people are making a similar demand, to have this man’s ‘head’—to have him metaphorically beheaded, or in the real world, fired.

Table 38. Summary of Responses on Question Item 3

Number of participants	Correct	Incorrect	Close
15	3	6	6

There are, of course, two metaphorical ideas in this example. Interestingly, it was the first of these that gave the respondents some trouble. The result of the responses in this item repeats the general trend wherein incorrect answers predominate over correct ones. Many were unable to place the term '*chorus*' outside the context of actual music. Thus, one reply said that the expression '*growing chorus*' refers to "People who sing or criticize."

Some replies were difficult to understand, but seemed clearly incorrect nonetheless. One example is the reply, "He has been fought by writing against him." In the particular case, this expression means that people (i.e. employees, company officials, shareholders, regulatory authorities) who are against the Chairman and CEO of General Motors had registered their objection or complaint over his leadership or management by way of writing. It may denote asking for the official's resignation by handing out a letter to concerned officials or bodies. Despite the difficulties faced by most, two were able to answer correctly; one spoke of "The increasing critics to his administration," and the other said, "He is facing large numbers of critics who want him to resign."

Question Item 7:

7. "But he's the new kid on the block." (referring to Alan Greenspan as Federal Reserve Chairman.)

Correct answer: A 'new kid on the block' is literally a child whose family has just moved into a neighborhood. Such a child is not yet integrated into the neighborhood children's social network. This child is not yet

trusted or accepted and, as a result, often has to 'prove himself (or herself),' sometimes by taking on tasks that others do not want, or by doing more than is required of others.

Table 39. *Summary of Responses on Question Item 7*

Number of participants	Correct	Incorrect	Close
15	0	15	0

The table above clearly shows the inability of the respondents in processing the passage. This suggests that the term 'new kid on the block' is alien to them, to the point that not even a close answer was documented. Basically, this expression has negative connotations. It can imply a lack of necessary managerial experience or perhaps an unfamiliarity with the organization and the nature of the work that he will be assigned. Among the flawed responses to this item were, "He got benefit from his position," "He is going to a routinely predetermined strategy" and the puzzling response, "The same man, he will do the same thing."

Question Item 11:

11. "Saving for a rainy day is common practice for many businesses."

Correct answer: This phrase refers to getting ready for a troubled time – originally people saving money for when they are short of money – but more generally, it means taking any steps needed to prepare for hard times.

Table 40. *Summary of Responses on Question Item 11*

Number of participants	Correct	Incorrect	Close
15	6	7	2

This is one of the rare items in which a significant number of the respondents answered correctly. This seems to indicate familiarity of the respondents with the idiomatic expression ‘*saving for a rainy day.*’ Among these correct responses were “preparing reserve for the future, ” “saving for difficult times and days, ” “saving to face the unexpected circumstances, ” “saving for tomorrow” and “saving and being ready for the difficult times and days. ” One respondent maintained that the virtue of saving during good times is crucial “during disasters or times of loss. ” However, incorrect answers still outnumbered these appropriate responses by a ratio of 7 to 6. Among the erroneous replies include “conserving or [preparing for] profitable seasons. ” This, of course, is the opposite of the actual meaning of the expression, which essentially states that the habit of saving when times are good is essential so that those savings can be used during times of difficulty.

A further note on the participants’ relatively successful response to this item is in order here. No direct equivalent to this expression exists in Arabic; in fact these participants come from a region in which ‘rainy days’ do not happen often. In fact, rainy days might even be seen as a blessing when they do come, not as a symbol of hard times. However, Arabic culture does feature the concept in question, and embodies it in a parallel form, in the expression. The Arabic

expression “keep your white penny for your black day,” for one, closely corresponds to the metaphorical phrase under study. In this instance, it can be seen that Arabic has quite a different manner of expression, although they may convey the same sense as in English.

Question Item 12:

12. “Mature suppliers may give up trying to push internally-developed products in favor of more innovative fare.”

Correct answer: Suppliers that are ‘mature’ should be those that have a lot of experience and wisdom gained from their experience.

Table 41. *Summary of Responses on Question Item 12*

Number of participants	Correct	Incorrect	Close
15	4	9	2

This question is one of the simplest among the forty items in the questionnaire. Only the relatively straightforward word ‘*mature*,’ needs to be analyzed in order to understand the sense of the sentence, possibly along with the barely metaphorical ‘*push*,’ meaning to encourage or promote. In fact, the synonyms of the term ‘*mature*’ give a good idea about the expression. Therefore, among the accurate responses were terms like “experienced, ” “seasoned” and, to a certain extent, “old suppliers. ”

Surprisingly, many respondents erred in supplying responses based on their own understandings of what maturity might bring. These responses rest more on the connotations of maturity, rather than on misunderstanding the

original term. The responses in question include "rich people," "aware supplier" and "large companies." In fact, these are extended interpretations and not always valid. Although significant industry experience presupposes a big company, size does not always follow with experience. Thus, saying that '*mature suppliers*' are big companies is not always warranted. Similarly, awareness can exist in both new and more established firms. As far as wealth is concerned, business history undoubtedly points to many individuals and firms that, while '*mature*,' did not yield large profits.

Other responses I coded as incorrect include "service suppliers" (as suppliers are not restricted to those who provide services) and "advanced suppliers" (as new suppliers who have invested in technology and innovative processes and procedures can also be said to be advanced, although they do not command a long established experience). One participant replied based on the term "suppliers," speaking of "persons who are responsible for marketing in the company (also the best people in thinking and inventors)." In fact, although suppliers are involved in marketing, strategy planning and innovation, their functions are not confined in these areas; moreover, this response ignores the target term '*mature*.'

Question Item 13:

13. Something else that makes these fledglings stands out: They aren't really startups. Many were founded before the telecom crash, but survived- and now boast impressive customer lists, proven technologies, and solid customer-support operations."

Correct answer: The phrase ‘fledglings’ literally refers to small birds; here, it should refer to small companies, new ones, probably not very strong (yet) and perhaps needing of protection. The other potentially metaphorical term, ‘startups,’ refers to a new business.

Table 42. Summary of Responses on Question Item 13

Number of participants	Correct	Incorrect	Close
15	12	3	0

As one might expect, this item contains the highest count of correct over incorrect answer. Participants in the study exuded confidence in their recognition of the metaphorical expression in the passage extracted from a business magazine article. Many respondents are right in equating ‘startups’ with “small companies” or “new companies.” “Small companies” have been the predominant reply listed. After some explanation on my part of the literal meaning of ‘fledgling,’ most were able to correctly interpret the statement.

Question Item 20:

20. “Although he thinks the worst may be priced into Internet stocks, he does not think they are primed for a summer rally.”

Correct answer: A ‘rally’ involves a sudden burst of activity, viewed as positive activity. In this case, it means that the price of these stocks may suddenly rise, in the summer time after a time of inactivity.

Table 43. *Summary of Responses on Question Item 20*

Number of participants	Correct	Incorrect	Close
15	5	10	0

This item presented another classic example of unfamiliarity with the metaphor at hand, ‘*summer rally*.’ The popular term “rally,” as a noun, refers to a car race, and also to political meetings or manifestations of spirit or energy, as in the relatively modern term “pep rally.” Although these meanings are late developments, earlier forms, both verbal and nominal, seem to refer to gatherings of more diffuse sorts. The word “rally,” according to Harper’s *Online Etymology Dictionary* (2001), originally comes from the French word “rallier” which means “bring together.” It was originally employed in military circles. Through the passage of time, it has come to be used to describe a growing diversity of assemblies, from soldiers to automobile enthusiasts to political demonstrators. It can also be used to stir national sentiments, such as in the battle cry “rally around the flag.”

In any case, the term ‘*summer rally*’ depends in this context on its sense as describing fast or rapid movement or an intense and sudden outburst of energy. “*Summer rally*” is actually a very interesting metaphor. This is because it constitutes a layered metaphor. It begins with this idea of massing, but builds on it to reference the habits of summer plant life in temperate climates in the northern hemisphere, when summer temperatures and rains result in bursts of growth. Whatever the term’s metaphorical history, a modern English speaker, familiar only with the racing, political and sports usages, will be able to derive this

extension to the business realm. The responses obtained from the participants indicate that they do not have this knowledge to fall back on. Many respondents interpreted the word ‘*summer*,’ rather than ‘*rally*,’ and interpreted the sentence as referring to something seasonal; however, their notions of what seasonal phenomenon might be were somewhat random.

Question Item 23:

23. (referring to expansion by Chinese companies) “In addition to the much-publicized Lenovo-IBM deal, which was a real eye-opener for many in the West, there have been other significant mergers and acquisitions.”

Correct answer: An ‘eye-opener’ is an experience that makes one more aware of something, i.e. makes one ‘see,’ or understand, something that one did not understand before. Here, the West is said to have learned to see something in a new way.

Table 44. Summary of Responses on Question Item 23

Number of participants	Correct	Incorrect	Close
15	2	13	0

Item 23 produced answers that are far from the accurate interpretation of the passage. Among these replies are “a source of trust,” “dense and in the center” and “entrance.” It is obvious that most respondents deviated from focusing on the target expression of the item, which is ‘*eye-opener*.’ However, two respondents did correctly determine the sense of the passage. This is visible in such answers as “it means that the West companies paid attention to this deal”

and “made the West pay attention.” Still, most of the replies were unable to reflect the sense being conveyed by the passage.

Question Item 27:

27. “Even if we had a good launch, we took way too long to change and upgrade the product. And we let it die in the vine. Vehicles like the Focus, Freestar minivan, Taurus, and Lincoln Continental are all examples.

Correct answer: If some agricultural products, say tomatoes or grapes, have grown but were not picked in time, they rot, or ‘die’, while still on the vine. Here, the expression means that it was too late for the maker(s) of these vehicles to make the changes needed and improve their cars.

Table 45. Summary of Responses on Question Item 27

Number of participants	Correct	Incorrect	Close
15	1	13	1

In this case, only one respondent provided the appropriate answer. None commented on the kind of lost potential carried by the original phrase. This logically translates to the difficulty in understanding the expression ‘die in the vine’ in the given business context encountered by the respondents. The correct interpretation by the lone respondent is “good start for business but the lack of development let the project to end in a bad way.” These brands ‘died’ because of company’s inability to sustain the initial momentum. Incorrect answers that can be considered quite far from the ideal include “it means it getting rid of small, and

easy problems,” and “we will remove it in the future”; this last answer involves a displacement of the ‘stopping’ idea in time, as well as a possible lack of understanding for what ‘product’ is referred to (the makes of car listed, not a single ‘product’).

Question Item 34:

34. “Other companies have made it plain in recent months that they’re on the hunt for acquisitions.”

Correct answer: A ‘hunt for’ something implies looking for, searching.

Here, the companies must be trying to find ways to acquire new companies or assets.

Table 46. Summary of Responses on Question Item 34

Number of participants	Correct	Incorrect	Close
15	7	7	1

This is among the few questionnaire items which registered a considerable proportion of correct replies. This clearly demonstrates the ability of the respondents to understand ‘*hunt*’ in the context of the passage. Among the appropriate answers recorded were “they eagerly looking for acquisition,” “catching acquisition,” “to own companies” and “acquiring these companies after hunting them.” However, an equal number of incorrect interpretations also presented themselves. Erroneous replies included “controlling something” and a reference to “profits.” Problematic and vague responses also made an

appearance among the responses. One worth citing is “hunting the chances to acquire other companies.”

Question Item 35:

35. (speaking of Devon Energy’s J. Larry Nichols) “Unlike his custom in the late 1990s, the 64-year old has been focusing his Oklahoma City company on locating new North American discoveries rather than gobbling up existing ones.”

Correct answer: The phrase ‘gobbling up’ must mean acquiring—but the phrase carries connotations of undignified, greedy, animal behavior, rather than carefully planned acquisition.

Table 47. Summary of Responses on Question Item 35

Number of participants	Correct	Incorrect	Close
15	3	11	2

The results in the above table show failure of most of the respondents to comprehend the expression ‘gobbling up,’ a metaphor that likens acquisition to voracious eating. The term is one of the most often used in the language of mergers and acquisitions. Such business behavior is usually ascribed to big multinational corporations aggressive in expanding their overseas operations. Wrong interpretations can be exemplified in such respondent inputs as, “using something” and “work[ing] on trying to find some discoveries’ or “the race to reach to the places of these places before other companies,” which can be seen

as confusing answers. Nonetheless, there were some correct responses. Correct comprehension of the above passage include, “It means instead of buying existing companies, he is looking to explore new companies in the region,” and the more concise “instead of acquisition.” One respondent presented a good basic analogy of the passage, saying “he is looking to create new things instead of used or old things.” Of course, it is difficult to say to what extent the participants whose answers were ‘correct’ actually had a sense of the connotations of the phrase ‘*gobbling up*,’ a phrase that is somewhat negative, implying animal-like action or greed on the part of those doing (or here, not doing), the ‘*gobbling*.’ One respondent seems to have attached a negative connotation to his basically correct answer, saying the phrase meant “getting an existing business that is not good for the company.” Here, the idea of digestion is coupled with a negative connotation, but this connotation is imagined as being attached to the unwholesomeness of the food, rather than the eating action involved.

Question Item 38:

38. “Deals for Time Warner, Vivendi or Unilever will easily eclipse RJR Nabisco’s long-standing record.”

Correct answer: An ‘eclipse’ is an event in which the sun or moon’s light is obscured and cannot be seen. These deals are so big and striking that it is not possible to even see RJR Nabisco’s record. The new situation renders the company’s original record insignificant

Table 48. *Summary of Responses on Question Item 38*

Number of participants	Correct	Incorrect	Close
15	3	10	2

In this instance, the pattern of response is dismal: three right answers and ten wrong ones. The celestial phenomenon of an eclipse was interpreted erroneously by the majority of respondents. Responses included rather confused expressions such as “crash after stability” and “win – better than.” The correct responses include, “to knock them out or break their record and stay on the top” and “break the record.” One close answer is “in an unseen ways.” This expression can be classified as partly correct since an eclipse could range from a partial to a total blackout. Thus, the celestial occurrence can contribute to diminution of light causing darkness.

Question Item 39:

39. (On problems in the U.S. airline industry) “Airlines filed for Chapter 11, including United and US Airways; even many of the ones that aren’t in bankruptcy are bleeding money.”

Correct answer: ‘Bleeding,’ or losing blood, is a serious life-threatening problem in an injured person. Accordingly, if a company is ‘bleeding’ money, it must be losing money very fast, and may even be in danger of dying from the loss.

Table 49. *Summary of Responses on Question Item 39*

Number of participants	Correct	Incorrect	Close
15	8	7	0

This item presented another interestingly high presence of correct answers to the metaphor being interpreted. This brings to mind the original claim by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) about the potential universality of embodied metaphor. Many respondents recognize that *'bleeding money'* is tantamount to *'losing money.'* However, despite the universal familiarity with the idea of 'bleeding,' some respondents misunderstood the nature of the 'blood loss' in question. One, for instance, added an interpretation of how the company was losing money, which is not warranted by the simple phrase *'bleeding money'*: There was also one who inquired on the probable reason for the loss of money, saying "they are spending money in unnecessary expenses that make the company end." Another seemed, rather puzzlingly, to talk about the opposite of loss, saying the phrase meant to "consume money."

Question Item 40:

40. "It's unlikely that this is going to run into antitrust headwinds."

Correct answer: The phrase 'headwinds' refers to running into trouble or rough conditions by large ships sailing at open seas. The difficulty arises over the inability to advance against strong winds. Here, it must refer to hard times or obstacles, presumably because of the law if the 'headwinds'

are caused by 'antitrust' action, i.e. action against unfair legal business practices.

Table 50. Summary of Responses on Question Item 40

Number of participants	Correct	Incorrect	Close
15	3	11	1

The above table shows that this item belongs to the general trend of preponderantly incorrect responses. Incorrect responses include “they will not face difficulties”; “polling (calling for) to refuse the deal”; “there are no other revenues”; “the general directions”; and “customers.” One respondent struggled with the source idea of literal ‘headwinds,’ resulting in the response, “against the trust of the front of the plane.”

This last response points to an additional problem in comprehension for this item, as the general idea of ‘trust,’ meaning ‘confidence,’ seems to have interfered with the participants’ understanding. One, for instance, gave the interpretation, “losing the trust of customers.” It can be inferred that lack of knowledge on what ‘antitrust’ means can account for many of the wrong replies for this item. In the language of business, particularly in the area of mergers and acquisitions (M & As), antitrust is a check of the government against the creation of monopolies that can cause undue harm to the consumers’ interest. Every effort was made to give meanings for any terms the respondents felt they did not understand; however, in this case, they seemed confident of understanding this term including the word ‘trust,’ and thus they did not indicate any need for a

definition. The item is interesting, for it illustrates the compound problems that arise when a combination of both metaphorical interpretation and more general lexical knowledge are needed for full comprehension to occur.

The results in the table below show the specific items that each participant answered correctly and incorrectly; the longer lists in the second column attest to the difficulty these learners had with the target expressions. Responses for fifteen of the forty questionnaire items have been discussed in the earlier pages. The remaining items, sample correct and incorrect answers, are given in Appendix L. Contexts or brief notes on this questionnaire items are supplied in order to give the respondent more appropriate background knowledge necessary to answer the question. One example is the passage “But the economic pie is large and growing, and China’s appetite for mergers and acquisitions should be seen in the West as a potential opportunity as well as a threat.” The underlined metaphor, which is widely used in business and economic discourse, refers to the breakdown of market share of each company in a given industry. Another case, which shall be similarly explored in this related Appendix, is “Facing such a hostile climate, Bill Ford for the first time, in an exclusive interview with BusinessWeek’s David Kiley, acknowledged that the company is willing to cut some of its brands and is looking for strategic alliances with other carmakers.” “Hostile climate,” which came to be applied to various settings even outside the context of business, is here interpreted as having an unfriendly or unsatisfactory general environment. The table below summarizes the results of the questionnaire responses obtained from the respondents.

Table 51. Summary of Results of Questionnaire Responses

PARTICIPANTS	No. of correct responses	No. of incorrect responses	No. of closed items	No. of items given metaphorical answers
Abdulrahman	9,13,17,19, 28, 32, 36, Total = 7 items out of 40	1, 2,4,5,6,7,8,14,15,16, 18, 20,21,22,23,24,25, 27,29, 31,33,34, 37,39,40 Total= 25 out of 40	3, 10, 11, 12, 26, 30, 35, 38, Total = 8 out of 40	
Almohsen	2,8,11, 12,13,14, 15, 17, 20, 21, 25, 28,31, 32,34,37, 38, 39, 40 TOTAL = 19 out of 40	1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 16, 18, 19, 23, 24, 27, 29, 33, 35 = TOTAL 16 OUT OF 40	3, 22, 26, 30, 36 TOTAL of 5 out of 40	2
Alomari	8, 13, 15, 17, 21, 31, 32, 34, 37, 40 TOTAL = 10 out of 40	2, 4,5,6,9,10, 11, 12, 14, 16, 18, 19, 20, 22, 23, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 33, 38,39 TOTAL = 23 out of 40	1, 3, 7, 24, 25, 35, 36 TOTAL = 7 out of 40	8, 17, 24,
Mowaid	3, 8, 9,11,12,13, 14, 23, 25, 28, 30, 31, 32, 37 TOTAL = 14 out of 40	1,2,4,6,15,16, 17, 18, 20, 21, 22, 24, 26, 27, 29, 33, 35, 36, 38, 39, 40. TOTAL = 21 out of 40	5,7,10,19, 34, TOTAL = 5 out 40	37
Salem	2,12,13,20,23, 32,39. TOTAL = 7 out of 40	1,3,4,5,,6,7,9, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 21, 22, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 33, 35, 36, 37, 38, 40. TOTAL = 27 out of 40	8, 10, 11, 14,24,34. TOTAL = 6 out of 40	
Alkhafi	3, 11, 13, 34, 36, 37, 39. TOTAL = 7 out of 40	1,2,4,5,7,10, 12, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19,20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 27,28,29,30,31,32, 33,35, 38. TOTAL = 27 out of 40.	6, 8,9, 25,26,40. TOTAL = 6 out of 40	
Alahmad	7,9, 19, 24,25,31, 37, 39, 40. TOTAL = 9 out of 40.	1,2,3,4,5,6,10, 11, 13,14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 20, 22, 23, 26, 27, 28, 29,30, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 38. TOTAL = 28 out of 40.	8,12,21. TOTAL = 3 out of 40.	37
Hoda	7, 8,9, 11,13, 14, 17, 20, 28, 30, 32, 33, 34, 36, 38. TOTAL = 15 out of 40.	1,2,3,4,5,6,10, 12, 16, 18, 19, 21, 22, 23, 25, 26, 27,29, 31, 35, 37, 39,40. TOTAL = 23 out of 40.	15, 24, TOTAL = 2 out of 40.	
Alfaris	7, 15, 17,25, 26, 31, 32, 36, 38, 39. TOTAL = 10 out of 40.	1,2,3,4,5,6,10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 27, 28, 29, 30, 33, 34, 35, 37,40. TOTAL = 28 out of 40.	8, 9. TOTAL = 2 out of 40	

Altammam	8, 10, 13, 24, 28, 31, 32, 35, 39. TOTAL = 9 out of 40.	1,2, 4,5,6,7, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20,21, 22, 23, 26, 27, 29, 30, 33,34,36, 37, 38, 40. TOTAL = 28 out of 40.	3, 9, 25. TOTAL = 3 out of 40.	
Aldossari	8,17,31,34,35. TOTAL = 5 out of 40	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15,16,18,19,20,21,22,23, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 32, 33.36, 37, 38, 39, 40. TOTAL = 33 out of 40.	24, 30. Only 2 out of 40.	8.
Abdullah	2, 3, 11, 13, 15, 39. TOTAL = 6 out of 40.	1,4,5,6,7,8,9, 12, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25,26, 28, 29, 30, 31,32,33,34,35, 36, 38, 40. TOTAL = 32 out of 40.	10, 27. Only 2 out of 40.	
Mohammad	5, 7, 8, 9, 13, 17, 20, 36 36, 37, 39. TOTAL= 11 out 40.	1, 2, 6, 10, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 18, 19, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 40. TOTAL = 26 out of 40	3, 4, 38. TOTAL = 3 out of 40.	37.
Alhajeri	7, 8, 9, 12, 13, 17, 19,32, 34, 39. TOTAL = 10 out of 40.	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 11, 14, 15, 16, 18, 20, 21, 22, 23, 26, 27, 28, 29, 31, 32, 33, 35, 36, 37, 38, 40. TOTAL = 27 out of 40.	10, 24, 25, 30. Only 4 out of 40.	8, 34.
Alhumaidan	5, 8, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, 19, 20, 24, 25, 30, 32, 34, 35. TOTAL = 15 out of 40.	1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 18, 22, 23, 26, 27, 28, 29, 31, 33, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40. TOTAL = 25 out of 40.	--	
TOTAL	148	417	35	

In the above table, the preponderance of incorrect replies as compared to correct ones is clear. Out of the 40 passages directly quoted from business articles, the respondents manage an average of only 10 correct answers versus 30 incorrect answers. The highest number of correct responses recorded was 19, while the lowest was a mere 5 out of 40. Several close answers were received for some items. There were also questions which did not elicit any response from some respondents. Finally, some respondents, interestingly, supplied metaphorical answers in interpreting the metaphors they encountered. However, figures for these categories of responses are miniscule when compared to the sum total of erroneous answers that were garnered.

Discussion of Questionnaire Responses

In both the participants' writings and their responses to the questionnaire, it became apparent that these Arab secondary learners of English rarely use metaphors in expressing themselves in English, and that they have difficulty interpreting metaphors that pose no problems for native speakers. As mentioned in the sections above, knowledge and application of metaphors in the English communication setting is a factor of English proficiency for the non-native language learner, a factor that has been little emphasized in the language acquisition literature. Unfamiliarity with idiomatic expressions and literal expressions taken out of their usual context presented difficulties for the respondents, resulting in misunderstanding and flawed answers, ranging from small inaccuracies to gross misinterpretations. Difficulty in understanding the meaning of many metaphorical expressions given in the items can be readily observed. *'Eclipse,' 'sows,' 'warming again,'* and *'poke around'* are just some of these non-literal expressions that were not well understood by many of the participants. In several instances, some respondents also left items blank or answered with question marks, as respondent Alahmad did when asked about what *'fertile ground'* might mean.

However, despite the confusion over many of these figurative expressions, some respondents were able to provide the right answers. For one, respondent Alhajeri correctly interpreted *'fertile ground'* as "very suitable for investment," which captures the essence of the metaphor's context. Aldossari also responded correctly, interpreting the metaphor *'missed the boat'* with "the chance has been

missed.” Another respondent, Abdullah, replied ”He is facing sever criticisms from the critics” when asked to interpret the statement ‘*a growing chorus of critics.*’ Some respondents also provided metaphors among their answers. Alhumaidan, for example said ”healthier economy” to interpret the English metaphor ‘*economically sane.*’ Although the answer may be a bit far from what is expected, this answer reflects knowledge of some English metaphors.

It is important here to pause and add a note on the complex nature of reading. In the questionnaire, I found that the presence of more than one metaphor further complicated the scenario, essentially adding more sources of potential confusion for the respondents. Lexical information (lack of vocabulary) should also be mentioned. I believe that this played only a minor role in the present study, however, because I made every attempt to provide rich explanations and definitions for any term that the respondents had problems understanding. This included literal readings of any of the metaphorical terms, which were underlined (i.e. stressed in the oral presentation) to cue the readers that a figurative interpretation was expected for these items. Without these additional sources of support, the ratio of incorrect to correct answers might have been even greater.

Another factor that I attempted to address and remediate is contextual background. As noted, I provided detailed background information on the article in which each expression occurred, a process that extended the time of the conversation meetings far beyond what I had originally anticipated. Again, when reading independently, these learners might have encountered problems earlier

in the readings as they attempted to build this background knowledge on their own. In real-life reading situations, then, context might well be a further factor compounding the readers' problems. If, for example, a given reader had misinterpreted a figurative expression in one paragraph and that expression was key to understanding the gist of the paragraph, this reader might then have approached the remaining text in the article with faulty contextual knowledge. This, of course, might have led to further problems in reading and interpretation. In several instances, those with prior knowledge of the metaphor experienced confusion when supplied with the contextual information. For one, the meaning of the *'antitrust'* may already be considered common knowledge, particularly among business circles. Hence, the addition of further background information is deemed superfluous.

Response Strategies

It is interesting to note that, in looking at the incorrect responses, one can see a range of interesting strategies that the respondents used. These include skipping over the target word or phrase as in the case where a participant gave a meaning of 'summer season' for 'summer rally' and skipped 'rally'. Another strategy was trying to apply a literal interpretation, as in the case where a participant gave the meaning of "hot and burning" for the term 'front-burner'. A third strategy was relying on correct but inappropriate reading for the term as it appeared in a participant's interpretation for the term 'white-hot' for the investment where that participant interpreted as 'it means these investments are clean'. The last strategy that I noted was guessing the meaning from context as

which appeared when a participant gave an interpretation for 'eclipse' in item number 38, he guessed the meaning from the context when he said "it means erased or make it disappear".

Here are some examples for these responses. A participant

Chapter VI, the next and final chapter, contains further discussion of these issues. In Chapter VI, I also provide a more thorough discussion of both the results and findings generated in the textual analysis and conversation meetings (Chapter IV) and in the participants' writings and questionnaire responses (Chapter V). Chapter VI also provides a more thorough scrutiny of the data gathered by the study through metaphorical content analysis, questionnaire responses and participants' writings. It shall also offer comments on the implications and possible recommendations of the present study for educators and students of business.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study aimed to inquire into the cross cultural variances of metaphorical usage, particularly in the domain of business. Centering on Arabic speakers who also happened to be secondary learners of English, the study attempted to unravel trends and patterns of metaphorical comprehension and expression. Furthermore, this research also aimed at determining the impact posed by metaphors in the efforts of Arabic speakers to understand text and communicate appropriately in English on business topics. Hence, the success of the study should be measured against these goals. The research questions that were formulated in Chapter I and reiterated in Chapter III are now repeated here, and are paired with the results from the study. After providing the conclusions of the study, I will present the implications of the research on the body of knowledge on metaphors. I will then offer reflections on the obstacles, difficulties and complications that I encountered in the research process. Finally, I will present recommendations for future research.

Summary of Conclusions

- 1. What kinds and what frequency of metaphorical usage appear in Arabic and English writings on business topics? How important a role does metaphorical usage seem to play in the two discourse communities?*

The study revealed the presence of metaphors in both Arabic and English. It was revealed that metaphor plays a significant role in both English and Arabic cultural-linguistic communities. However, in the main, a much higher incidence of metaphorical usage was documented in English. This became clear in the textual analysis, where the wide disparity between the number of Arabic and English metaphors listed is easily seen. English metaphors have an unquestionable dominance over their Arabic counterparts in all the domains enumerated, both in absolute numbers and in the breadth of the expressions found in any given domain. This underscores the persistence and popularity of metaphors in the language of business in the English scene.

2. a. To what extent do the metaphors in these languages fit into the categories proposed for conceptual metaphors by researchers such as Lakoff and Johnson (1980)?

Metaphors in almost all domains of life were observed and established in the study; the common “conceptual metaphors” proposed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980), were amply illustrated, including the UP AND DOWN category and the conceptual metaphor LIFE IS A JOURNEY, as well as metaphors involving the body, food, animal images, temperature and containers. In short, the data fit mostly into the framework originally proposed by Lakoff and Johnson. At the edges, as one will expect, however, there were a few expressions that were culturally specific and could not be decoded with reference to general human experience. These included baseball metaphors in English, and expressions like

'mom and pop shops'; Arabic examples include reference to the oil industry and to religious concepts.

b. What differences are found when one categorizes the source and target domains for these metaphors in the two languages?

The target domains were kept stable across the languages by a careful choice of topics in the articles examined. The source domains were also largely equivalent; the main difference, noted above, emerged in the relatively large range of expressions used in English, as contrasted with a tendency in the Arabic texts to repeatedly use certain relatively conventional forms.

c. How does the distribution of metaphors on a continuum from 'dead' to 'active' compare for the two languages, and how do the content or usage patterns differ in each category?

Taking my cue from much discussion in the current theoretical literature, I realized that it was impossible to draw a clear, definitive boundary line between 'dead' and 'active' or 'live' metaphors. However, as noted above, it was clearly the case that Arabic usage tended toward the more conventionalized forms, hence potentially away from more 'active' metaphorical usage.

3. To what extent can the differences found in answering 2a, to 2c above be related to cultural differences?

As noted above, the actual source domains chosen were very similar across the two languages, and these related for the most part to general human experience, rather than to specific cultural experience.

It is difficult to ascertain to what extent the differences in metaphorical usage and comprehension between the two discourse communities is brought about by cultural factors. Nonetheless, secondary sources point to a possible cultural explanation for this Arabic-English metaphorical divergence. It has been noted that metaphors in Arabic have remained confined in metaphor's traditional ground- poetry (Simawe, 2001). It becomes evident that in Arabic, business proves to be a domain that still has to be penetrated by metaphors. However, scholars, as well as the participants, have pointed to the pride taken by Arabic speakers in their use of metaphor.

4. What problems might arise for learners of English whose first language is Arabic when encountering these expressions in their English reading?

Given the similarity of source domains and concepts it was striking that the specific linguistic expressions used in English still posed major difficulties in comprehension for the Arabic speakers. In other words, although the domains and even the underlying concepts, were held in common, the linguistic expressions chosen in English tended to pose a barrier to comprehension for the Arabic speakers.

Lack of mastery of English metaphors clearly puts many Arabic secondary learners of English at a disadvantage. Many respondents, particularly those who had recently come to the United States, seemed to encounter difficulty in effectively communicating what they had in mind when writing their brief stories.

The results of the participants' writings visibly attest to the fact that Arabic ESL students seldom express themselves metaphorically in English. This paucity of metaphorical expression can be greatly attributed to their inadequate grasp of the non-literal aspect of English. As shown more pointedly and in more detail in the results of the comprehension questionnaire, these respondents had considerable difficulty as a group understanding the passages chosen from the English texts.

Aside from the high proportion of erroneous responses, there were also some respondents who failed to supply answers for some of the items. Moreover, only a few provided metaphors as answers to the questions. In a few cases, they commented on the oddness of the English expressions (cf. the student who commented that a *'piece of the pie'* is inappropriate, because it should be a *'piece of the cake.'*) This suggests that, even when a metaphor is quite clearly understood, it may represent a distraction to the non-native reader simply because of its unfamiliar nature. Overall, the study paints a clear picture of the respondents' lack of confidence in expressing themselves in non-literal English as well as in interpreting figurative language in English.

Significance and Contributions of the Study

This research has provided a contribution to the body of research on cross cultural studies of metaphors. It has thrown light on the impact of metaphors in the learning of a second language. In this study, the impediments encountered by advanced Arab ESL learners are showcased. Many participants were graduate students with considerable experienced in using English. One would

expect the problems one would expect faced by less advanced learners to be even more severe than those found here. For one, it was shown that even fairly transparent metaphorical expressions can be difficult for these Arab participants to interpret, as they struggle to make meaning of English text. Moreover, complicating factors seem to make their task even more difficult. For instance, the presence of more than one metaphor in any given passage may compound a reader's difficulty in the mental processing of figurative language by English secondary language learners.

The study also highlighted the case for looking at metaphorical usage as a culturally specific phenomenon; even where the content or source domains are similar, the usage trends and specific linguistic expressions chosen can differ considerably across cultures. One factor that might account for the low inclination among participants to resort to metaphors in expressing themselves is the fact that, in Arabic, the employment of metaphors is seen as largely confined to literature, especially to poetry. Likewise, it was found that metaphorical usage among Arab professional writers in the business field is much less common than among their English-speaking counterparts.

Finally, some metaphors in the study were found to be largely confined to one of the cultures and little known to people outside of that culture; recall again the use of baseball images in English or oil-related phrases in Arabic. These cultural-related metaphors partly explain some misunderstandings or misinterpretations of the respondents in answering some items in the questionnaire.

Lessons Learned

This study has given me valuable insights on issues affecting ESL learners. Being a foreign student and EFL learner myself, I find this study very relevant to my own experience. Furthermore, since I may venture into business when I come back to my home country as well as teaching business-oriented students, the focus on business metaphors has also proved to suit my interest. I have learned much in the course of this study. I have realized the disadvantaged position of foreign students as compared with native speakers in terms of expressing themselves metaphorically in English, as well as in recognizing and understanding metaphorical statements that they may encounter in the process of reading or they may hear in the process of conversation. I have realized that metaphorical language poses a considerable barrier for secondary speakers of English.

However, I have also found out that with the appropriate intervention, teachers can address this problem. Since learning is communicated through language, it is important that teachers become aware of the dilemma posed by non-literal language, especially if their audience includes non-native English speakers. Furthermore, instructors must also be informed of the culturally specific nature of certain metaphors. If teachers are conscious of these facts, they would be more cautious in the choice and use of non-literal English.

The study has made me realize the crucial linkage between thought and linguistic form. Thoughts and ideas are captured in a form called language. Moreover, language is also used to communicate or relay these thoughts and

ideas. Hence, the kind of language used and the familiarity or degree of understanding of the intended audience determines the success of imparting the lesson. This has been one of the most important things I have learned thanks to this study.

Implications for Teaching and Business

Handicaps posed by the insufficient grasp of metaphors represent a deficiency that can be resolved over time (Goatly, 1997). This is a problem that is natural for learners of a second language, and it is one that can be addressed through adequate exposure to these metaphorical expressions, and through pedagogical practices that help learners become aware of them as a natural part of expression in their target language. This involves understanding the social and environmental context of language and metaphors (Gass, 2004)

Since the study focused on the analysis of business metaphors, the findings in this research could aid teachers, as well as students, in the field of business. Although the particular phrases identified in this study include virtually no technical terms from the business realm, it is important for specialists in the field to get their day-to-day information from general sources like those cited here. Thus, I include suggestions for the education of business majors, and for companies hiring Saudi employees, although the recommendations made here might well apply well beyond the business field to any second language learner who will use English in his or her professional life. For professors of business, the results generated by the study can prompt them to be more cautious of the metaphors embedded in the readings they assign to their students or present in

the examinations they administer to their classes. They need to teach the English language, in general, and metaphors in particular, explicitly rather than taking it for granted that the students will come to understand these features of language (Ellis, 2004). For students, it will impress on them the value of familiarizing themselves with the non-literal expressions of the second language that they wish to master.

For full fluency in any language, it is important for learners to feel comfortable expressing themselves metaphorically in the target language, as well as to have a good grasp of the linguistic expressions used in common metaphorical domains, especially those used in whatever special domain (such as business) the students are pursuing (Carter, 1997). In this study, the respondents, all of whom had a strong command of English at an advanced level, nonetheless showed that they had an inadequate grasp of its non-literal language.

The recognition of the persistence of metaphors could prompt far ranging and thorough changes in pedagogical practice, reaching into early childhood experience with the first language, and ultimately permeating pedagogical practice in second language teaching. Experts in the field of education can devise techniques, procedures or activities to orient foreign students to the metaphors of a language they want to learn. In fact, educators can contemplate establishing an atmosphere where figurative language can best be taught to children, even in their first language, as a basis for their awareness when ultimately learning their second language. Classroom activities and teaching aids

can be developed specially geared to the instruction of metaphors (Carter, 1997). As metaphors are a critical facet of language, early familiarization with their structures, formation, diversity and use must be emphasized.

At the college level, particularly in specialized business courses, direct intervention can be implemented to help international students attain full fluency in English that intentionally includes fluency with figurative forms. The participants in the present study tended to either arrive at false interpretations of figurative expressions, or quite commonly, to jump over such expressions and seek the gist of a passage by concentrating on the other words and phrases. This presumably offers insight into what students might do in college business courses when assigned an article written in English. A professor could greatly help his or her students by reading the assigned article ahead of time and putting the figurative expressions into an online appendix or a printout glossary. Alternatively, if the students have the text in question in hand, the professor could spend a few minutes at the end of the class explaining and focusing on the figurative language used, so that international students unfamiliar with these expressions can make margin notes that will help them in their reading.

To further consolidate the learners' (and native-speaking readers') awareness of figurative language, the professor might assign thought or discussion questions directly aimed at helping students focus on the power of figurative expression (Carter, 1997). How does it differ to say a certain corporation has '*gobbled up,*' or '*snatched up,*' a business, as compared with saying that it 'acquired' or 'purchased' the firm? And is there any difference

between saying that a certain maneuver was a *'ninth inning'* play, as compared with saying that the action took place quite late? If learners, and even native speaking future business leaders and writers, are encouraged to ponder such questions, they can become effective writers, making informed stylistic choices as they pursue their careers.

Since metaphors are intertwined with day-to-day communication, whether in the workplace, school or home, this study also has implications on other fields outside teaching. The context of business is one area where careful and appropriate use of metaphors may spell success. For one, during conversation meetings, designated interviewing officers should be prepared to discuss such expression with second language applicants.

At the recruitment stage, the employment of metaphors in a questionnaire might be warranted if the company would like to gauge the familiarity of an applicant with the terms and expressions being used in the industry in which the company is engaged. For example in the marketing profession, such expressions as “ballooning sales” “astronomical profits,” “market clout” and “going to the dogs” (meaning the product / service brand is in a losing proposition) frequently occur. Furthermore, positions involving crucial communication tasks may also demand a significant grasp of related metaphors. For instance, in public relations, as well as in journalism, such expressions as “demolition job,” “smear campaign,” “character assassination” and “hit the headlines,” to name only a few, may take on non-literal meanings or meanings that have exclusive relevance to their particular fields.

Metaphors should also figure in the acculturation of newly hired employees to the company's culture (Stein, 1994). Concerned company personnel shall ensure that whatever metaphors commonly being used in the organization's communications are understood to them. Being well versed with the organization's particular lingo, expressions, specifically those with clear metaphorical overtones is an imperative in ensuring unity in action. Ample time for exposure and familiarization shall, therefore, be extended to these new employees.

In a multinational workforce setting, metaphors will also play a vital role. To carefully manage diversity, effective communication, using appropriate language, is at the core. The litany of corporate mistakes and failures arising from miscommunication is already long. Hence, preventing them should be a serious organizational agenda. As non-literal language, variances in metaphorical expressions across cultures represent one area that should be transcended or addressed for any company to succeed (Stein, 1994).

Since employees in any enterprise today will be coming from various cultural and linguistic backgrounds, there is a call to promote and strengthen the company's organizational culture (Stein, 1994). This can be done by fostering common channels, forms and structures of communication. In this regard, employers should organize seminars, workshops, training and other similar activities aimed at exposing one employee to the cultural sensitivities and linguistic particularities of his co-employee. The accurate meanings or interpretations of culture-specific metaphors can be discussed and impressed on

the employees during these venues. A particularly useful initiative will be to send employees for cultural exchanges, for exposure to countries where the company has existing operations or where they plan to expand. This is because language and culture are very much interconnected with one another (Swiderski, 1993). In subtle ways, these efforts can create harmony and oneness in an organization whose employees come from quite different cultural communities with quite different discourse practices.

Reflections on the Research Process

I faced notable hurdles in the completion of the study. These included problems in translating Arabic text excerpts and responses in English, the difficulty of identifying examples of figurative usage, and deciding how to deal with conventionalized forms as compared with more imaginative phrasings invented by individual authors. In addressing these challenges, the assistance of the expert readers was essential. My disadvantage in not being able to sense some basic English idiomatic expressions was also a problem that added to my need to rely on advice from the expert readers.

The scarcity of possible Arabic business literature corpuses, especially as compared to the overwhelming number of English-based business articles also posed an initial setback that was similarly addressed by experts, thanks to the assistance of my dissertation advisor who recommended ways to ensure the best match possible in the kinds of texts chosen from each language.

Categorizing the forms I found also posed considerable problems for me. Not being an English language expert, I had some difficulty in the early stages, especially when trying to classify active from conventionalized, or even dormant or dead metaphors. Determining whether the answers of the respondents to the questionnaire items was correct, close or incorrect was also at times a dilemma for me. As a result, complications arose in ascertaining the final metaphor counts from the texts by domain, as well as in calculating the proportion of correct versus incorrect responses to the questionnaire items. These figures had to be shifted, revised and changed over several months of constant re-working, until I was sure that the best possible counts and codings had been reached. Again, the crucial assistance imparted by my dissertation adviser and expert readers was of great help. This is particularly true in the area of detecting metaphors in a given text and deciding on the accurateness of a respondent's reply.

Limitations

Aside from the above cited problems, limitations in the study are also apparent. Noteworthy among these is the relatively small number of respondents, which means that the results of this study are not generalizable to larger populations. Another possible setback is the absence of a panel of established expert readers who could have assisted me more in-depth in deliberating over the correctness of the respondents' answers. Even though the codings arrived at now seem accurate, issues only minimally addressed included the connotations that arise in the minds of native speakers. For instance, it was beyond the scope

and design of the present study to ask the extent to which, and the ways in which, the understanding of a concept expressed metaphorically differs from an interpretation based on its literal expression. Furthermore, it could also be pointed out that the study's findings might have been better compared and contrasted to the metaphorical thought processing of English speakers if there had been a set of English respondents. Of course, the study's structure and flow would have changed considerably if such a change had been made.

I should note that I learned much in carrying out this study. I realized early on that it was crucial for me to ensure the respondents' commitment and cooperation in the research if the study was to succeed. In this regard, I needed to take certain steps to make them feel comfortable while taking part in the research. Employing easy language and resorting to informal interviews and discussions was one step in the right direction. Recognizing that the respondents were not familiar with many English metaphors, I realized that I needed to provide a context, brief notes on the topic and the dictionary meanings of some words or phrases. A related area involved the special care needed to ensuring the spontaneity of the participants' responses and especially of their brief writings. In this last, it was important to make clear to the participants that they were entirely free in choosing the topics they would write about, and that they could freely express whatever they had in mind without having to worry about grammar, or about the reactions of the interviewer or of the other participants. As the study proceeded, I realized more and more the importance of creating and maintaining a good atmosphere within which participants felt involved in the

research. In short, I have realized that a researcher learns as much, if not more, from the process of engaging in such a project as this, as he learns from his actual results.

Recommendations for Future Research

There is no doubt that future inquiries on the subject of cross cultural studies on metaphor are still needed. This section outlines some recommendations I have thought of in the pursuit of this dissertation. I believe these could provide considerable help to students or educators who may attempt to work with this subject in the future.

Drawing from my comments in the previous sections, several kinds of changes could be implemented in future studies of this type. First, I believe that it is desirable to have a reliable panel of expert readers with proven experience in detecting metaphorical content in texts. These expert readers can also play a cardinal role in deciding the merits of a respondent's answer. Getting the appropriate and fitting set of corpus is also essential.

Other designs could be explored as well by future researchers in the area. These may include having a set of Arab ESL respondents based in the United States and another similar set of Arab ESL participants studying in Saudi Arabia or another Arab country. This could provide insights on the impact of the environment in learning to handle figurative language in English. Finally, considering a larger sample of participants may also help in boosting the conclusiveness of the study's findings. Of course, studies with other populations,

and studies of English used in publications by second language writers, may also give a broader base for ultimately constructing a picture of the emerging global use of English in business.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Informed Consent Form (For Students)

Informed Consent Form (For Students)

Project: Cross-Cultural Differences on the Use of Metaphors in the Context of Business: A Comparative Analysis of Arabic and English Languages

Principal Investigator: Fahad AlJumah

Dissertation Director: Dr. Jeannine M. Fontaine

First and foremost, allow me to extend my warmest greetings to you as I invite you to participate in the study I am currently conducting. I saw it fit to detail what I may ask you in the pursuit of my study so you will be given a chance for an informed decision.

I am doing a study on metaphor usage and comprehension between Arabic and English languages. I am trying to determine the patterns of similarities and differences between them, as well as the cultural linguistic factors at play in metaphor conception and understanding.

I am requesting if it is possible for you to extend some of your time to welcome a conversation with me. I wish to have an audience with you for two occasions, of which the duration for each will not exceed two hours. I will be asking you questions aimed at exploring how you respond to and communicate metaphors in English. The conversation will be audio-taped and notes will be taken along the way.

Your participation will be crucial for the study as I will largely rest on the remarks and answers made by participants in formulating my conclusions. After the end of our conversation meeting sessions, I will present you a summary of the information I got from your responses and I am giving you the liberty to contest them if you saw them contrary to what you told me before. I will then make the necessary changes and apologize for the incident.

In return for your wholehearted cooperation, I am also giving you a chance to see the findings and results of the study when I am through with it.

Your participation is on a **voluntary** basis. In the event you decided to participate, your real identity will not be revealed to protect your privacy. Furthermore, the information that you will be divulging will be held in utmost confidentiality. The responses we got from you will, in combination with similar

responses from other helpful respondents, will form part of the text of the study, which may be published in academic journals or similar publications. However, in no instances shall information pertaining to your personal profile be made open to the public or be viewable to just about anyone.

And since your involvement is voluntary, you are free to terminate your participation at will anytime. In such cases, within a reasonable time after receiving your expressed notice, I could cause all the information you gave to me be destroyed. Declining participation in my study will not precipitate any adverse effects in your relationship with me or the institution that I stand to represent, the Indiana University of Pennsylvania.

Participation in the study will bring no monetary remuneration or other form of benefits to participants. All I could give in return to your valuable contribution is my sincere thanks, appreciation and deep respects for you.

If you wish to signify your intent of assisting me in my study, please sign the statement attached here, a copy of which you can have for your record. Thank you for your time.

Dissertation Director

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Fahad ALJUMAH
Ph.D. Candidate
Graduate Degree Program in
Composition & TESOL
Indiana University of Pennsylvania
Phone: 7244670166

This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724-357-2223).

Appendix A.1. : Voluntary Consent Form

VOLUNTARY CONSENT FORM

I have fully read and understand the information presented in the form and that I agree to participate voluntarily in the study. I realize that my participation as a respondent in the study is confidential and that I can withdraw my intention at any given time at my behest. I have received an unsigned copy of this Informed Consent Form for my personal safekeeping.

Name (**PLEASE PRINT**): _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Phone number or location where you can be reached

Best times to reach you

E-mail

Appendix B: List of Magazine Articles in English (First Corpus)

Magazine Articles in English

Burrows, P. (2006, April). The Alcatel Effect. *Businessweek*, . Retrieved May, 15, 2006, from

http://www.businessweek.com/technology/content/apr2006/tc20060404_645449.htm

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Appendix F: English Metaphors Derived from the First English Corpus

Domain	Metaphors
Animal	lion's share (2); fledglings (6,1); fry (6,1); roars (2); perch (2); hawkish (4,2).
Conceptual metaphors (life is a journey)	at the crossroads (7,2); online community (1,2); in a totally new direction (7,2); the right direction (6,1); have gone much further (8,1); sits at the intersection (7,1); leave for another website (1,2); Google has some presence in this area (1,2); rough patch (4,1); survived (6,1); has a long way to go (1,2); on the way (6,2); the way (6,1); the way (6,1).
Eating or digestion	Swallow (2); eating their way up (4,1); hunger (7,1); appetite for risk (4,1); hungry (4,2); hunger (7,1); hunger (7,1); gobbling up competitors (9,1).
Movement	accelerate (2); accelerate (2); closer to (1,2); dance (5); faster (8,1); flow (4,1); get in (9,1); go (8,2); go (8,2); heading (7,1); heading towards (7,1); huge leap (2); jumped (2); jumped (2); jumped (5); jumped(2); look to (1,2); to land (6,2); \$57.2 billion move (2); a move toward selling (7,2); mobility (7,1); movement (7,1); moving (6,1); moving to address (3,1); to reach (2); bigger splash

	(1,2); slowness (10,2); snapped up (6,1); splash (1,2); swirling (6,1); swooping in(4,1); topped (2); topping its own performance (2); unstoppable (2); snapping up (4,1); stepping up (6,2); wind up on top (1,2).
Up and Down	come down (2); dip (10,2); down (10,1); driving down (4,1); driving down (4,1); drop (8,1); dropped in half (7,2); dropped in half (7,2); fall into bankruptcy (4,2); goes down (7,2); goes down (7,2); goes down (7,2); goes up(2); going up (2); high start up cost (1,2); higher (10,1); higher taxes (8,1); highest (2); Highest (2); highest (2); hit (2); investment banking revenues hit their highest level (2); land (6,1); lift (10,2); lifted rates (5); lower tax (8,2); low-tech (9,2); mounted (3); pick up (10,2); picking up (10,1); raising (8,2); revenue this year should hit high (2); revenues will fall (2); rise (8,2); rise (9,1); Rise in revenues(2); risen (9,1); rising (10,1); scooping up (4,1); shore up (4,1); shore up (4,1); slump (10,1); snapped up (6,1); stepping up (6,2); stepping up (6,2); stock is up a lot (10,2); the top rate (8,2); the top tax (8,2); Up from (1,2); wind up on top (1,2).
vehicles	afloat (4,2); afloat (4,2); afloat (4,2); blast past peers (2); missed the boat (9,1); you miss the boat (10,3); firing in

	<p>all cylinders propelled(2); race car (2); crash (6,1); drive GM into bankruptcy (3,1); driver (7,1); drives (7,1); drives (7,1); how the engine works (2); profit engines (2); the most powerful engine at Goldman (2); launched (9,2); to launch its own sites (1,2); rip-roaring (5); roll-outs (10,2); set to sail (9,2); spark (3); spark a strike (3,1); take off (7,2); to jump-start (3,1); on track (10,2); wake (9,1).</p>
<p>Game / War</p>	<p>aggressively (1,2); bet (4,2); bets (2); betting (4,2); boomerangs (8,2); smart Bets (2); calling for his head (3,1); calling for Wagoner's head (3,1); campaign(1,2); catching (6,1); conflict (3,2); crosshairs (6,1); embattled (3,1); fallback position (1,2); fight (4,2); fight (8,2); fighter (5); fighting back (3,1); on several fronts (1,2); give up (3,1); give up (6,1); giving up (4,1); hikes (5); hikes (5); hit (10,2); hostility (8,1); hurting (10,1); hurting (10,1); losers (8,2); losers (8,2); losers(8,2); losers(8,2); the leader (1,2); overcome (8,1); play the market (2); player (6,1); player (9,1); players (6,2); players (6,2); make a serious play (1,2); practices (9,2); pullback (10,2); quick on the draw (4,1); a good run (9,2); on its run (9,1); come out swinging (3); take-no-prisoners (2); target (1,2); biggest threat (1,2); threatened (8,1); turn against (2); a</p>

	<p>full scale inter-creditor war (4,2); war chest (1,1); weighed in with (2); win (1,2); winners (8,2); winners (8,2); winners (8,2); winning (6,1); winning (6,2); won the war (4,2); wrestle (4,2).</p>
Relationship	<p>the new kid on the block (5); host (9,1); create a community (9,1); Paired with clients (2).</p>
Physical Configuration	<p>alongside its clients (2); base (8,2); behind (6,1); borders on (3,2); both sides (2); closer to (1,2); core strategy (1,2); covering (1,2); cushion (4,1); disappear (6,1); diverted more money (8,2); far (6,1); heading into (10,1); hoard (1,1); leaning toward (6,2); look back (9,2); mounted (3); soften (10,2); softly (5); squeezed out (4,1); stick to (1,1); stick to (1,2); stockpiling (1,2); tied (10,2); tighter in their lending (4,1); up front (7,2); on the verge (6,1).</p>
Physical (body)	<p>arm (2); pretty slim (4,1); the heart (7,1); unattractive (6,1); unattractive (6,1); Dazzling (2); the atomic guts (7,2); giant (2); giant (6,1); giant (6,1); strong (10,1); weakness (10,2); strength (10,2); strong (8,1); drowning (9,1); flush with (4,1).</p>
Courtship	<p>sexy (10,1); attract and retain (9,1).</p>
Weather/Nature	<p>hot (10,2); while demand is HOT (2); downpour (1,1); wave (6,1).</p>

Size/ weight	dropped <u>in half</u> (7,2); absolutely microscopic (3,1); cutting costs (6,1); broaden (8,2); pieces (6,2); chunks (6,2); has a ton of cash (4,1); vestige (6,1); Expansion (1,2); expands (2) expand (2); big (6,1); big boys (6,2); bigger (6,2); smaller (6,2); smaller (6,2); big (6,2); big (6,2); giant (2).
Food	a fat slice (2); recipe (7,2); recipe (7,2); churned out (2).
Life is a play	behind the scene (2).
Growing/plants (agriculture)	harvesting investment (2); plowed into (2); sow (8,2); The revenues have grown(2); grows (2); growing chorus (3,1); growth (8,1); growth (8,2); growing (9,1); grown (9,1); growth (9,1); Google grow out its content(1,2).
power	generate (4,1).
Medical	a band-aid (4,2); rash (6,1); right side of the brain (9,1); It midwifed acquisitions (2); midwife (2); practices (9,2).
Hot/cold/explosive	erupt (4,2); white-hot (2); fireworks (4,2); defuse (8,1); cooling off (10,1); cool off (10,2); white-hot (2); Is hot (2); hot (10,2).
Cleaning	pan out (6,1); pan out (6,2); sweeping (6,1); clean (6,1).
Translation	translate (6,1).
Family	mom and pop shops (9,1).
Sleeping	sleepy (10,1); sleepy (10,1).
Idiomatic phrases	saving for a rainy day (1,1); mom and pop shops (9,1).

Mind = Container	with that in mine (1,1); catching on (6,1).
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Domain	metaphors
no category	solid (6,1); cutting-edge (7,1); has taken on the mantle (7,1); rally (10,2); Focus on(1,1); to build (1,2); lose on (2); to boost (5); ill-served (1,2); burden (8,1); build (9,2); chain (9,2) hide out (10,2).

Appendix G: Listing of Metaphors from Second English Corpus

Domain	Metaphorical expressions
Animal	bull's eyes (25,1); bull market (26,2); bull market (26,2); bull market (26,2); bull market (26,2); bull market (26,2); bull run (26,2).
Sight	refocused (29,1); focused (27,2); focused (25,1); keeping his eyes on (27,1); focusing on (25,1); look at (21,2); focus on (21,3).
Mechanics	to fix (21,2); filters (21,3).
Conceptual metaphors (life is a journey)	come out of (30,4); things to come (24,2); diversify (21,3); go ahead (29,2); move forward (28,1); no turning back (28,1); twists and turns (26,1); move forward (21,2); moves us forward (21,2); stand in the way (21,2); stumbling block (21,2); track (21,2); track (26,1); turnaround (21,2); clear the way (24,2); clear the way (30,1).
Eating or digestion	hungry (22,1); swallow (22,2); gobbling (25,1); hunger ¹ (28,1); appetite (28,2); Consumers (30,1).
Movement	agitating (26,2); alignment with (21,3); back (25,1); brings out (26,3); brings out (26,3); circulating (22,2); things to come (24,2); diversify (21,3); faster (21,3); cash flow (27,2); fetched (26,3); flow (26,1); flurry (26,1); flurry (26,1); flurry (26,2); flurry (27,1); forth (26,3); pull

	<p>forward (21,3); inward (28,1); move forward (21,2); move the ball (21,3); moves us forward (21,2); outward (28,1); pace (22,1); pace (25,1); poke (24,2); position itself (27,2); pullback (27,1); pursuit (28,1); ran into (28,1); bull run (26,2); return (22,1); run into (30,1); slipped (27,1); slow down (27,2); slowing down (23,1); speed (24,2); strike (25,2); surged (27,1); surging (25,1); swoop (26,1); thrown (26,2); track (21,2); track (26,1); a way off (24,2); stand in the way (21,2).</p>
Up and Down	<p>below (24,1); boost (22,1); boost (22,2); boost (25,1); bottom (30,1); bottom line (30,4); broken (22,1); broken (22,1); cost-cutting (26,1); deep (21,1); deeper (21,1); deeper (21,3); deepest(21,1); digging (21,3); sit down (21,1); taking down (24,1); went down (26,2); downturn (23,1); downturn (24,2); drop (27,1); dropped (24,1); ducked (29,2); falling (26,3); falling demand (21,1); fell (26,1); fell out (30,1); high (21,3); high (25,1); higher (27,1); higher (30,1); highest (23,1); highest (27,1); highest (27,1); highly (24,1); highly (30,2); high-profile (28,1); hit (24,1); hit (27,2); hitting (25,1); long-standing (22,1); low (22,2); low (24,1); low-cost (30,1); low-cost (30,4); lower (24,2); lower (26,2); lower (27,1); lower (27,2); peak (22,2); raise (30,4); raised (22,2); rise (22,1);</p>

	<p>rise (24,1); rose (24,1); soar (26,2); soared (30,1); soaring (26,1); spike (21,3); trimmed (25,1); under (30,1); up (25,1); bid up (25,1); break up (24,2); brought up (21,2); pick up (24,2); pick up (24,2); scooping up (27,1); shot up (25,1); went up (26,2); upping (26,1).</p>
<p>Transportation/ vehicles</p>	<p>accelerate (21,3); approach (21,1); crash (23,1); crossover (21,3); cost driven (28,2); fueled (25,1); launch (21,3); launch (21,3); launch (21,3); launch (30,3); raft (26,2); ride out (30,4); roll it out (21,3); turnaround (21,2); turnover (21,3).</p>
<p>War and Game</p>	<p>aggressive (24,1); aggressive (28,1); aggressively (28,1); alliance (21,1); alliance (21,1); alliance (21,1); alliance (21,2); alliance (21,2); alliance (21,2); alliance partner (21,1); alliance partner (21,2); alliances (21,1); alliances (21,1); alliances (21,1); alliances (21,2); alliances (21,2); alliances(21,2); attack (21,3); attacking (21,3); betting (27,1); betting on (27,1); bidding war (26,2); boom (24,1); booming (22,1); booming (28,2); brutal (24,2); bull's eyes (25,2); competitor (30,2); dive (21,3); fifth inning (26,2); force (24,2); fourth inning (26,2); game-changing (29,1); gaming (21,1); hostile (21,1); hurdles (30,2); join forces (24,2); made bets on (22,2); ninth inning (26,2); on the hunt (27,1); player (28,1); players (21,1); players (22,1);</p>

	players (24,2); players (26,2); players (28,2); players (30,1); prevail (22,2); rack up (21,1); resistance (30,1); strategic alliances (21,1); stumbling block (21,2); teamed up (28,1); under fire (22,2); untapped (25,2); war (23,1); war room (21,1); weighted (25,1).
Relationship	fret (26,1); venerable (26,1); naggingly (26,2); adopt (30,2).
Building	platform (21,1); platform (21,1); restructuring(23,1); to building market (24,1).
Physical Configuration	bubble (24,1); bubble (24,1); coverage (21,1); folding (21,2); folded in (29,1); part (21,2); spin off (22,2); splitting off (22,2); topping (23,1); tough times (30,4).
Physical (body)	rampant (25,1); robust (27,2); under its belt (29,1); brawn (29,2); footprint (21,2); footprint (21,3); eyeing (22,1); natural fit (22,2); a bone (26,2); languished (29,2); giants (22,2); giant (22,2); giant (24,2); giant (27,1); giant (28,1); strong (24,1); face (30,2); scratch their heads (29,1); eye-opener (28,1); back on its feet (24,2); killed (30,1); alive (30,2).
Courtship	suitor (28,2).
Weather/Nature	climate (21,1); streamlining (21,3); windfall (26,1); headwinds (30,1); forecasting (27,2).
Size/ weight	cut (21,1); cutting (21,1); widening (21,1); cutting (21,3);

	overextended (26,2); magnifies (28,2); doubled (29,2); cut (21,1); Texas-size (27,1); huge (23,1); huge (24,2); giant (26,1).
Food & Cook	pie (28,2); front-burner (26,3); raw (23,1).
Oil / Energy	gusher (27,1); barrels of potential (25,1); pipelines (24,2).
Growing/plants (agriculture)	fertile ground (22,2); shot up (25,1); growth (23,1); growing (23,1); growth (27,1); growth (28,1); grow (29,2); grew (30,1); growth (24,1); growing (24,2); growth (25,1); growing (27,2); growing (28,2); grown (29,2); grown (21,1); let it die on the vine (21,3).
Power	beef up (24,2); powerhouse (29,1); brainpower (26,2); titan (26,2); in the throes (26,2); strong (28,2); generated (22,1); generate (22,1); tough times (30,4); tough (22,2); tough (23,1).
Medical	recovery (21,2); swell (26,3); to crush their DNA (29,1).
Hot/cold/explosive	warming (23,1); overheated (26,1); red-hot (26,3); spark (27,2); blasted (26,2).
People & Map	Kofi Annan of EMC (29,1); Texas-size (27,1).
Container	putting \$ into (22,1).
Time is commodity	bought ... time (22,2).
Family	new generation (28,1).
clothing	cap (22,2); cap (22,2); put on (22,2); cap (22,2).
Religion	testament (29,1); put faith in (27,2); true believer (26,2);

	gotten religion (25,1).
Idiomatic phrases	their Hermes ties flapping in the wind (24,1); in the works (22,1); tossed out (24,1); on the street (24,1); all postcards from the edge of the metals and mining world (26,1); out of the picture (26,3); put a crimp in (27,1); back at the table (28,2); think tank (30,1); fast and furious (22,1).
Feeling	frenzy (26,2); mania (24,1).
No category	junk (21,1); radical (21,2); deliver (21,1); tied up (21,2); value (22,1); evolved in (22,1); alignment with (21,3); assemble (22,1); territory (22,2); crazy (23,1); take hold (24,1); make headlines (24,1); buoyant (24,1); mastermind (24,1); populated (24,1); concentrated (24,1); across the board (24,1); bolster (24,2); pitch book (24,2); on the lookout (24,2); spell good news (25,1); conference call (25,1); working interest (25,1); unfettered (26,1); superstar (26,2); penned (26,2); staking (26,2); testy (26,2); tizzy (26,2); the prospects are bright (27,1); correction (27,2); golden (28,1); stake (28,1); to unload (28,2); cipher (29,1); pioneer (29,1); string-of-pearls (29,1); lifetime (30,1); begin their new life together (30,3); tarnished (30,4); in line (30,4); heralded (29,2); untapped (25,2).

Appendix H: Listing of Metaphors from First Arabic Corpus

Domain	metaphors
Up and down	<p>'collapse' (14,1) تنهوى</p> <p>'collapse' (14,1) تنهوى</p> <p>'collapse' (17,1) انهيار</p> <p>'deep' (17,1) عميق</p> <p>'deep' (17,2) عميق</p> <p>'putting down'(11) طرح</p> <p>'put down' (11) طرح</p> <p>'putting down'(20,1) طرح</p> <p>'putting down'(14,3) طرح</p> <p>'putting down' (17,2) طرح</p> <p>'putting down' (17,2) طرح</p> <p>'putting down' (17,2) طرح</p> <p>'putting down' (17,2) طرح</p> <p>'putting down' (17,2) طرح</p> <p>'fall into'(11) يقع في</p> <p>'fall' (14,1) تسقط</p> <p>'high' elevated' (18,3) عالي</p> <p>'high' elevated' (20,3) عال</p> <p>'land' (19,1) هبط</p> <p>'landing' (20,1) هبوط</p> <p>'landing' (20,1) هبوط</p> <p>'landing' (20,2) هبوط</p> <p>'raise' (20,1) رفع</p> <p>'raise' (20,1) رفع</p> <p>'raise' (17,1) رفع</p> <p>'raise' (18,3) رفع</p> <p>'raise' (18,3) رفع</p>

	'rising' (12) ارتفاع
	'rise' (12) مرتفعة
	'rising' (11) ارتفاع
	'rise' (13) مرتفعة
	'rising' (13) ارتفاع
	'rising' (13) ارتفاع
	'rising' (14,3) ارتفاع
	'rising' (14,3) ارتفاع
	'rising' (14,3) ارتفاع
	'rise' (14,3) ترتفع
	'rising'(16,1) ارتفاع
	'rising'(16,1) ارتفاع
	'rising' (16,1) ارتفاع
	ارتفاع 'rising' (16,1)
	ارتفاع 'rising' (16,1)
	ارتفاع 'rising' (16,1)
	'rising' (16,3) ارتفاع
	'rise' (16,3) ارتفع
	'rise' (16,3) ارتفع
	'rising' (19,1) ارتفاع
	'rising' (19,1) ارتفاع
	'rising' (19,2) ارتفاع
	'rising' (19,2) ارتفاع
	'rising' (19,2) ارتفاع
	'rise' (20,2) ارتفع
	'rising' (20,2) ارتفاع
	'rising' (20,2) ارتفاع
	'rising' (20,2) ارتفاع
	'standing up' (19,1) نهوض
	'going up' (20,1) صعود
	'going up' (20,1) صعود
	'going up' (20,2) صعود

Medical	<p>ميلاد 'birth' (17,1); نزيف 'bleeding' (19,2); مغذية 'nutrient' (15,3); عالج 'treat' (11).</p>
Food/drink	<p>'thirst' (13) تعطش 'thirst' (13) تعطش 'thirst' (13) تعطش 'thirst' (13) تعطش 'thirst' (14,1) تعطش 'feeding' (14,2) تغذية 'satisfy the hunger' (16,2) تشبع ' satisfying hunger' (16,2) إشباع 'steaks' (20,1) شرائح</p>
Movement /direction	<p>'chase' (16,3) ملاحقة 'court' (11) مطاف 'directions' (13) الاتجاهات 'a flow' (14,1) متدفقة 'a flow' (14,2) التدفق 'flow' (15,1) تدفق 'jump' (19,2) تقفز 'jumps' (19,1) قفزات 'marks' (15,1) معالم 'movement' (14,1) حركة 'moving forward' (19,1) تحرك للأمام 'movement'(11) الحراك 'narrow' (11) يضيق 'tripping'(15,2) تعثر 'walk, marching' (11) المسيرة</p>

Physical configuration	<p>'base' (12) التحتية</p> <p>'base' (14,1) التحتية</p> <p>'base' (14,3) التحتية</p> <p>'crack' (17,2) انشراخ</p> <p>'hard' (19,1) قاسي</p> <p>'to incline' (16,2) يميل</p> <p>'inclined' (17,2) ميال</p> <p>'incline' (20,1) ميل</p> <p>'open' (14,1) مفتوحة</p> <p>'rough' (11,1) خشنه</p> <p>'shadow' (15,1) ظل</p> <p>'shadow' (15,1) ظل</p> <p>'shadow' (17,1) ظل</p> <p>'shadow' (17,1) ظل</p> <p>'soft' (11.1) ناعمة</p> <p>'top'(13) ذروة.</p>
War & Game	<p>'fighting' (16,3) مكافحة ;</p> <p>'hit' (17,1) ضربة ;</p> <p>'maneuver' (17,2) مناورة ;</p> <p>'maneuver' (19,2) مناورة ;</p> <p>'occupied'(13,2) احتلت ;</p> <p>'play' (19,1) تلعب ;</p> <p>'power'(13) القوة ;</p> <p>'revolution' (11) ثورة ;</p> <p>'revolution' (11) ثورة ;</p> <p>'have a revolution' (11) تشير ;</p> <p>'strongest' (16,1) أقوى ;</p>

	<p>'terrorism' (20,1) إرهاب ;</p> <p>'threat' (15,1) تهديد ;</p> <p>'court' (11) مطاف .</p>
Body	<p>'an arm' (11) ذرعا</p> <p>'an arm' (17,1), نراع</p> <p>'shoulder' (18,3) عاتق</p> <p>'neck' (19,1) رقبة</p> <p>'neck' (19,1) رقبة</p> <p>'faces' (20,3) أوجه</p> <p>'capitals' (11) رؤوس الأموال</p> <p>'skin'(11) بني جلدتي</p> <p>'strong' (17,2) قوي</p> <p>'strong' (17,2) قوي .</p>
Cold/ heat, explosive	<p>'fire' (11) لظاها</p> <p>'hot' (14,1) المحمومة</p> <p>'hot' (14,3) لمحمومة .</p>
No category	<p>'bundle' (11) حزمة</p> <p>'scary' (12) رهيبه</p> <p>'hiding place' (12) مكمن</p> <p>'frame' (12) إطار</p> <p>'base' (12) التحتية</p> <p>'pumping' (14,1) ضخ</p>

	'an absorption'(14,1) امتصاص
	'absorb' (14,1) تمتص
	'holes' (14,1), ثغرات
	'spraying' (14,1) رش
	'stinginess' (14,2) شح
	'pumping' (14,2) ضخ
	'an absorption'(14,3) امتصاص
	'an absorption'(14,3) امتصاص
	'an absorption'(14,3), امتصاص
	'shadow' (14,3) ظل
	'bundle' (15,1) حزمة
	'draw' (15,1) رسم
	'map' (15,1) خارطة
	'point at' (15,1) يشير
	'frames' (15,2) اطر
	'adaptation' (15,3) تبني
	'bundle' (15,3) حزمة
	'adaptation' (15,3) تبني
	'pumping (16,3) ضخ
	'pumping (16,3) ضخ
	'knotted' (17,1) معقود
	'roof' (17,1) سقف
	'roof' (17,2) سقف

	'binds' 917,2) قيود
	'shadow' (18,2) ظل
	'shadow' (19,1) ظل
	'shadow' (19,1) ظل
	'black market' (19,1) سوق سوداء
	'bundle' (19,2) حزمة
	'adopting' (19,2) تبني
	'pumping' (19,2) ضخ
	'basket' (19,2) سلة
	'rudder' (19,2) دفعة
	'resonant' (20,1) مدو
	'leak' (20,1) تسريب
	'highland' (20,1) صعيد
	'highland' (20,1) صعيد
	'framed' (20,2) مؤطر
	'leakage' (20,3) تسرب
	'leakage' (20,3) تسرب
	'leakage' (20,3) تسرب
	'leakage' (20,3) تسرب
	'leakage' (20,3) تسرب
	'leakage' (20,3) تسرب
	'open' (15,1) فتح
	'door for negotiations' (19,1) باب

	<p>'small' (15,3) صغيرة</p> <p>'small' (15,3) صغيرة</p> <p>'small' (15,3) صغيرة</p> <p>'small' (15,3) صغيرة</p> <p>'big' (15,3) كبيرة</p> <p>'big' (15,3) كبيرة</p> <p>'big' (15,3) كبيرة</p> <p>'big' (15,3) كبيرة</p> <p>'big' (15,3) كبيرة</p> <p>'big' (15,3) كبيرة</p> <p>'big' (15,3) كبيرة</p> <p>'big' (16,1) كبيرة</p> <p>'huge' (16,1) ضخمة</p> <p>'big' (16,3) كبير</p> <p>'big' (17,1) كبير</p> <p>'big' (17,2) كبير</p> <p>'big' (19,1) كبير</p> <p>'big' (20,1) كبيرة</p>
Vehicle/Transportation	<p>'boat' (11) سفينة</p> <p>'caravan' (17,1) قافلة</p> <p>'launch' (18,1) إطلاق</p> <p>'launch' (18,4) إطلاق</p> <p>'launch' (19,1) إطلاق</p> <p>'ride' (14,3) يركب</p>
Animal	<p>'shark' (14,1) هامور/قرش</p> <p>'slaughterhouse' (17,2) مذبح</p> <p>'bridle' (19,1) لحم</p> <p>'bridle' (19,1) لحم</p> <p>'control/bridle' (20,3) تكبح</p>

Life is a journey	'chase' (16,3) ملاحقة 'court' (11) مطاف 'directions' (13) الاتجاهات 'a flow' (14,1) متدفقة 'a flow' (14,2) التدفق 'flow' (15,1) تدفق 'jump' (19,2) تقفز 'jumps' (19,1) قفزات 'marks' (15,1) معالم 'movement' (14,1) حركة 'moving forward' (19,1) تحرك للأمام 'movement'(11) الحراك 'narrow' (11) يضيق 'tripping'(15,2) تعثر 'walk, marching' (11) المسيرة
Weather	'wave'(14,3) موجة 'morning' (17,1) صباح 'sun' (17,1) شمس 'atmosphere' (17,1) جو 'umbrella' (20,3) مظلة
Courtship	'attractive' (14,3) جاذبية
Growing	'grow' (16,1) تنامي 'growth' (18,2) نمو 'growth' (18,3) نمو 'growth' (18,3) نمو 'growth' (19,1) نمو
Idiomatic phrases	'pulling the carpet' (14,1) سحب البساط

	<p>'common ground' (17,1) أرضية مشتركة</p> <p>'stab in the back' (17,2) طعنة من الخلف</p> <p>'pulling the carpet under the feet' (17,2) سحب البساط من تحت الأقدام</p> <p>'using two different vessel for measuring'(17,2) الكيل بمكيالين</p> <p>'ringing the danger bell' (19,1) دق ناقوس الخطر</p> <p>'the way leads to each other' (20,3), الممرات تؤدي الى بعضها</p>
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Appendix I: Listing of Metaphors from Second Arabic Corpus

Physical configuration	'covering' (32,1) تغطية 'shadow' (32,1) ظل 'shadow' (341) ظل 'shadow' (40,3) ظل
LIFE IS A JOURNEY	'flowing of the still water' (40,2); تحرك المياه الراكدة 'replace its place' (32,1); يحل محل 'Step' (31,1); خطوة 'toward the target' (40,2). نحو الهدف.
Body	'the face' (33,2) الوجه 'head' (34,1) رؤوس 'head' (34,2) رؤوس 'head' (34,2) رؤوس 'head' (34,2) رؤوس 'head' (34,3) رؤوس 'head' (34,3) رؤوس 'head' (38,1) رأس 'head' (38,2) رأس 'head' (38,3) رأس
Movement	'tripling' (34,3); متعثرة 'tripling' (34,3); متعثرة 'tripling' (34,3); متعثرة.
Clothes	'cloak' (37,1), عباة
Cold/ heat, explosive	'fever' (33,1), حمى
Ups & Down	'higher' (37,2); أعلى 'higher' (31,2); أعلى 'higher' (31,2); أعلى

	<p>'higher' (31,2); أعلى 'landing' (37,1); هبوط 'landing' (38,2); الهبوط 'rising' (31,1); ارتفاع 'rise' (31,1); رفع 'rise' (35,2); ارتفع 'raise' (37,2); رفع 'raise' (38,1); رفع 'rising' (38,2); ارتفاع 'rising' (38,3); مرتفعة 'rising' (31,2); ارتفاع 'rise' (33,1); رفع uplift (35,1); ترقى going up (35,2). الصعودي</p>
No category	<p>'making' (32,2) خلق 'paint' (35,1) صبغة "beating heart" (37,1) القلب النابض 'crash of a building'(38,1) انهيار 'crash of a building'(38,1) انهيار 'crash of a building'(38,2) انهيار 'crash of a building'(38,3) انهيار 'drown' (38,3) غارق 'death' (34,2) فناء 'death' (34,2) فناء 'death' (34,2) فناء 'dying" (38,3) يحتضر 'frame' (40,1) إطار "poverty" (40,3) افتقار</p>

Size /weight	<p>'small' (33,1) صغيرة</p> <p>'small' (34,1) صغيرة</p> <p>'big' (34,1) كبير</p> <p>'big' (34,2) كبير</p> <p>'bigger' (34,2) الأكبر</p> <p>'bigger' (35,1) اكبر</p> <p>'longest' (36,1) أطول</p> <p>'big' (36,1) كبيرة</p> <p>'big' (37,1) كبيرة</p> <p>'big' (37,2) كبيرة</p> <p>'small' (37,2) صغيرة</p> <p>'small' (37,2) صغيرة</p> <p>'small' (37,2), صغيرة</p> <p>'medium' (37,2) متوسطة</p> <p>'medium' (37,2) متوسطة</p> <p>'medium' (37,2) متوسطة</p> <p>'shrink' (38,1) انكماش</p> <p>'bigger' (38,1) أكبر</p> <p>'longer' (38,1) أطول</p> <p>'small' (38,1) صغيرة</p> <p>'bigger' (38,2) أكبر</p> <p>'big' (40,1) كبير</p> <p>'big' (40,1) كبير</p> <p>'small'(40,1) صغير</p> <p>'small'(40,2,) صغير</p> <p>'giant' (40,1) عملاقة</p> <p>'giant' (40,2) عملاقة</p>
Vehicles / Transportation	<p>'going fast' (40,2) مسرع</p> <p>'thrust' (35,2) قوته الدافعة</p> <p>'train' (40,2). قطار.</p>

Weather	'wave' (31,1) موجة 'melting' (33,1) ذوبان 'monitoring' (35,1) رصد 'refreshing' (38,1) انتعاش 'climate' (38,2), مناخ 'climate' (40,2), مناخ
War & Game	'alliance' (36,1) تحالف 'alliance' (36,1) تحالف 'capturing' (33,1) استيلاء 'competition' (32,1) المنافسة 'competition' (37,1) المنافسة 'confront' (34,1) مواجهة 'goal' (34,1) هدف 'goals'(34,1) أهداف 'hunting' (39,2) اقتناص 'marathon' (36,1) ماراتون 'play' (38,2) لعب 'revolution' (34,1) ثورة 'resistance' (38,3) المقاومة 'resistance' (40,3) المقاومة 'win' (31,2) فاز
Growing	'growing' (31,1) نموها 'grow' (38,2) ينمو 'growing' (38,2) نمو 'growing' (38,2) نمو
Idiomatic phrases	'the strew that help the الغرقة التي يتعلّق بها الغريق drown' (38,1); 'trying to hold into life' (38,3) يحاول التثبيت بالحياة
health	'Intensive care unit' (38,1) غرفة الإنعاش
Animal	'the sheep' (40,2) الكباش

Appendix J: Questionnaire

This section contains the forty (40) questionnaire items used in the study. For each item, a sample correct and incorrect response is given.

التعليمات: تجد أدناه قائمة من الجمل المأخوذة مباشرة من منشورات المجالات المتخصصة بإدارة الأعمال. مختصر مفيد لكل مقال تجده مرفق مع كل جملة. فضلا التكرم بإعطاء شرح موسع للكلمات أو الجمل التي تحتها خط في كل جملة بجملة من إنشاءك. يمكنك شرحها بجملة أو جملتين. فضلا الق نظرة على المثال المرفق كمرجع.

Directions: Below is a list of discourse forms directly taken from several business magazine articles. A brief context or background is given for each statement. Please try to explain and elaborate your understanding of the underlined words or expressions using your own words. A phrase or a couple of sentences will be acceptable. An example is presented for your reference.

Example:

Context: The spread of online businesses with the ushering of the Internet Age. With the advent of the Internet, companies offering web-based services have begun to mushroom and multiply fast.

The following could constitute as possible respondent replies to this expression: The Internet age gave birth to many online businesses.

- The Internet created a lot of business opportunities for many innovative, open minded and forward looking entrepreneurs.
- The Internet has spurred the growth of electronic commerce.
- The huge impact of the Internet fuels the development of the web-based business industry.

Context: Goldman Sachs Group Inc., an investment, banking and asset management company, registered good business performance.

1. "Goldman helped Procter & Gamble Co. swallow Gillette in a \$ 57.2 billion move; abroad, it midwifed acquisitions such as Gas Natural SDG's \$51.2 billion takeover of another takeover of a Spanish utility, Endesa.

Correct: Goldman and Procter & Gamble purchased buyouts in Gillette. Goldman directed the acquisition of SDG.

Incorrect: The investments of Goldman, Procter & Gamble and Gillette companies grew.

2. "Its investment-banking, trading and asset-management businesses are all white hot."

Correct: Goldman's businesses are strong and good.

Incorrect: Banks' money is invested in the international stock markets and currency.

Context: General Motors Chief Executive Officer (CEO) is criticized for his response to the US automobile company's burgeoning problems.

3. "The embattled chairman and CEO of General Motors is facing a growing chorus of critics calling for his head."

Correct: He is facing large numbers of critics who wants him to resign.

Incorrect: He has been fought by writing against him.

4. "Wagoner is struggling to engineer a turnaround by closing a dozen factories, offering buyouts to all 113,000 of his blue-collar workers and trying to jump-start sales with new SUVs at a time of high gas prices."

Correct: no answer coded correct.

Incorrect: Wagner is trying to increase the sales of a kind of the company's cars to solve the company's problems.

Context: Hedge funds, a source of loan for small enterprises and companies who have incurred huge debts, is becoming a profitable business in the US.

5. "Many of these 8, 000 or so funds have been eating their way up the lending food chain and are becoming increasingly powerful forces in US debt markets."

Correct: It means getting a bigger share from the mortgage market.

Incorrect: It means that these companies completed a long term of the goals they are seeking by getting more money.

6. "Instead, all three turned to another group of investors who were both flush with cash and quick on the draw: the nation's hedge funds and their more than \$1 trillion in assets."

Correct: no answer coded correct.

Incorrect: Some customers leave them to another hedge funds looking for loans.

Context: A new official was appointed to replace Alan Greenspan as Federal Reserve Chairman.

7. "But he's the new kid on the block."

Correct: He is new on this kind of job without experience.

Incorrect: He is going to a routinely predetermined strategy.

Context: The complicated nature of the US tax system can be simplified, but because of political considerations and vested interests this may not be a realistic possibility in the next years to come.

8. “By making the tax system more confusing and less conducive to economic growth, it sows public cynicism and discontent.”

Correct: Made people criticize and feel discontent against tax system.
Incorrect: No answer coded incorrect.

9. “Almost everyone agrees we could make the income-tax system simpler, friendlier and more economically sane.”

Correct: Within reasonable limits. (reasonable).
Incorrect: It means being understandable.

Context: Analysts speculate on how Google, one of the most successful companies to date, will use its huge profits.

10. “But Google’s growing cash hoard (analysts predict that Google could have more than \$12 billion by year’s end) has Wall Street speculating about what the company might be planning to do next.”

Correct: It means reserve or monetary income.
Incorrect: Cash mine (like the chicken that gives golden eggs).

11. “Saving for a rainy day is common practice for many businesses.”

Correct: Saving and being ready for the difficult times and days.
Incorrect: It means saving for good chances.

Context: The present telecommunications industry, characterized by consolidation and mergers, can give significant opportunities to new companies to enter this lucrative and fast-paced market.

12. “Mature suppliers may give up trying to push internally-developed products in favour of more innovative fare.”

Correct: Old companies that work in this sector.
Incorrect: The board of executives.

13. “Something else that makes these fledglings stand out: They aren’t really startups. Many were founded before the telecom crash, but survived- and now boast impressive customer lists, proven technologies, and solid customer-support operations.”

Correct: The new companies.
Incorrect: Service suppliers.

Context: Synopsys CEO talks about the fast changes happening in the mobile phone industry, a large factor of which is brought about by microchips. He cited the advent of microchip software, like the one his company produces, in this technological advancement.

14. "He says the cellphone has taken on the mantle held for decades by the PC as the device that drives the most sophisticated innovation."

Correct: Cell phone will be on the front for decades to come.
Incorrect: Remove the cover / to show / the show the new invention.

15. "There's a hunger for integration on phones and PDAs because of all those functions,' de Geus says."

Correct: The need for the integration between the devices.
Incorrect: It means that everybody is eating everybody else or overcome others.

16. "But the company's sophisticated at-the-crossroads formula seems to be working now. The stock is up over 20 percent in the last years.

Correct: No answer coded correct.
Incorrect: The law that is ready to help the company go forwards.

Context: Boat retailer MarineMax has been expanding its business, by acquiring competitors and other related firms.

17. "Lately, boat retailer MarineMax has left the competition (not to mention the rest of the market) drowning in its wake. Over the past five years, its stock price has risen 330%, vs. the S&P small-cap index which returned 99%. But should investors try to get in now, or will they have already missed the boat?"

Correct: They don't have chances; missed the chance.
Incorrect: They might lose the investment in this company.

18. "In a business dominated by mom and pop shops, Clearwater, Fla.-based MarineMax (Research) has been gobbling up competitors -- growing from a consortium of six dealers at its IPO in 1998 to becoming the leading player with 77 locations and revenues of \$947 million in 2005."

Correct: No answer coded correct.
Incorrect: The main big companies.(the head companies).

Context: Online companies, such as Yahoo and Google, are affected by seasonal slow downs in its growth, but these companies are finding means to keep up its business during these periods.

19. “And Internet stocks have also typically followed such a pattern, cooling off during June, July and August before picking up at the end of the year in anticipation of strong fourth quarter results.”

Correct: It means the decrease of the market during Jun, July and August.

Incorrect: Good to certain level.

20. “Although he thinks the worst may be priced into Internet stocks, he does not think they are primed for a summer rally.”

Correct: These stocks are not of the kinds that increase rapidly in the summer.

Incorrect: A good season for trade.

Context: EMC Chief Executive Officer (CEO) Joseph M. Tucci had been successful in diversifying the business interests of EMC, a company known for its data storage capabilities. This was made possible by acquiring relatively new information technology (IT) firms.

21. “When EMC Corp. (EMC) Chief Executive Joseph M. Tucci revealed in late 2002 that he planned to overhaul the down-on-its-luck data storage leader by acquiring software companies, most analysts were skeptical.”

Correct: He is planning to fix the bad luck of his company.

Incorrect: He plans to renew or fix the factory lines of products of the bigger maker.

22. “The science comes easier. Walton set up an integration team, which, once it had a couple of deals under its belt, created a playbook of processes for the preclose period, the day closing, and the 100 days thereafter.”

Correct: No answer coded correct.

Incorrect: It means a group of deals under the table (which means against the law deals).

Context: With government support and sufficient capital, Chinese companies are starting to expand their operations globally through mergers and acquisitions (M&A).

23. “In addition to the much-publicized Lenovo-IBM deal, which was a real eye-opener for many in the West, there have been other significant mergers and acquisitions.”

Correct: The strike that opens the Western companies' eyes on the Chinese companies' investments in the West.

Incorrect: It means under the observation and under the sight from a group of people.

24. “But the economic pie is large and growing, and China’s appetite for mergers and acquisitions should be seen in the West as a potential opportunity as well as a threat.”

Correct: Economic opportunities.

Incorrect: It means the economic part of the subject.

Context: Ford Motor Co. Chair and CEO Bill Ford answers the questions raised by a BusinessWeek reporter regarding the strategy to be pursued by the US automaker in light of the serious losses and production cuts that it is experiencing.

25. “Facing such a hostile climate, Bill Ford for the first time, in an exclusive interview with BusinessWeek’s David Kiley, acknowledged that the company is willing to cut some of its brands and is looking for strategic alliances with other carmakers.”

Correct: Critical situations.

Incorrect: The situations are not stable.

26. “The truth about the auto business is that it takes years to bring new products to the market, and there is little you can do to move the ball financially in the short term. “

Correct: To finish the job in a short time.

Incorrect: Changing the financial planning.

27. “Even if we had a good launch, we took a way long to change and upgrade the product. And we let it die in the vine. [Vehicles like the Focus, Freestar minivan, Taurus, and Lincoln Continental are all examples.]

Correct: Good start for business but the lack of development let the project to end in a bad way.
Incorrect: The inability to growth.

Context: Mergers and acquisitions in the mining and metals industry have caught the attention of many analysts who are pondering on how it will affect prices and the overall status of the industry.

28. "For now, though, prices remain red-hot, which means the debate over their direction will stay a front-burner issue."

Correct: A hot issue.
Incorrect: Facing consumers.

29. "I asked him whether he thought that this cycle had run its course and wondered if we were in the nine inning or fifth inning."

Correct: No answer coded correct.
Incorrect: On the right track or the wrong track.

Context: After subsiding from its peak in the early 1990s, mergers and acquisitions have begun to gain ground again by 2004 and it was predicted that 2005 will be more promising for subsequent rounds of M&A deals.

30. "Then, of course, the bubble burst in early 2000, taking the stock market down and the economy along with it. Dealmaking all but dried up: Volume dropped to less than half a trillion dollars in 2002."

Correct: No one bought these deals.
Incorrect: the deals dried which means stopped increasing.

31. "'Whenever the dollar is cheap, companies from other countries come into the U.S. to pick up assets,' says Jeffrey Williams, a veteran Morgan Stanley telecom banker who now runs his own shop, Jeffery Williams & Co. He expects European companies to poke around the U.S. looking for deals."

Correct: Looking to emerge with American companies.
Incorrect: It means creating new branches or representative offices.

Context: Mergers and acquisitions in Europe have been recorded and particular note was made in the continent's technology industry.

32. "He said: 'There are no signs of an immediate downturn or crash at present. However, the industry has a history of working in eight-year cycles. It may be significant that is market is warming again just seven years on from the crazy days of 1999.'

Correct: The market is going to be active and start going up again.

Incorrect: The market is cold or stable like what it used to be.

Context: Buyouts, mergers and acquisitions were observed in the American petroleum and energy industry.

33. "Companies in the industry are scooping up rivals and partners, betting on a bright future."

Correct: Getting something (winning too many deals).

Incorrect: shooting for, looking for.

34. "Other companies have made it plain in recent months that they're on the hunt for acquisitions."

Correct: They are eagerly looking for acquisitions.

Incorrect: Plan for acquisitions.

Context: Devon Energy's J. Larry Nichols had succeeded in expanding the energy company's not through the industry trend's of mergers and acquisitions, but instead through exploration.

35. "Unlike his custom in the late 1990s, the 64-year old has been focusing his Oklahoma City company on locating new North American discoveries rather than gobbling up existing ones."

Correct: Acquiring.

Incorrect: Work on.

36. "Still, only time- and the amount of crude that lies more than 20,000 feet below the Gulf's surface- will tell whether Devon's new strategy helps it compete against the global heavyweights."

Correct: Competing against large companies.

Incorrect: The increasing international pressure for the need.

Context: Private equity firms, which used to focus on relatively small and mid- sized companies, are now starting to look for an investment stake or possibly buy out of bigger companies.

37. “The telecom sector could be fertile ground for massive leveraged buyouts.”

Correct: Good investment opportunities.

Incorrect: The seed to buy big shares or buying the mother company.

38. “Deals for Time Warner, Vivendi or Unilever will easily eclipse RJR Nabisco’s long-standing record.”

Correct: To break the other company’s record.

Incorrect: It means it doesn’t become important or disappeared by other deals.

Context: Policymakers and advocate groups are still at a debate on whether mergers in the domestic United States airline industry, especially that between America West and US Airways, will not create a monopoly that could threaten the interests of the consumer or not.

39. “Airlines filed for Chapter 11, including United and US Airways; even many of the ones that aren't in bankruptcy are bleeding money.”

Correct: Losing money.

Incorrect: Consume or spend money.

40. “It's unlikely that this merger is going to run into antitrust headwinds,”

Correct: Facing difficulties.

Incorrect: This will face the wind of merger.

Thank you for your time and sincere cooperation in the study.

Appendix K

Translations Frequently Given for Selected Vocabulary Items

Mid-wife	<u>مُولِدَة</u> , <u>مُمَرِّضَة</u> , <u>قَابِلَة</u> , <u>دَايَة</u>
Chorus	<u>رَكُورس</u> , <u>مجموعَة من المنشدين</u> , <u>عاصفة التصفيق</u> , <u>قرا</u> , <u>زمة</u> , <u>خورس</u> , <u>جوقة</u>
Sow	<u>عَرَسَ</u> , <u>زَرَعَ</u> , <u>بَدَرَ</u> , <u>أَعْرَسَ</u>
Discontent	<u>سَخَط</u> , <u>إِسْتِيَاء</u>
Sane	<u>سَلِيم</u> , <u>العقل</u> , <u>عَاقِل</u>
Innovative	<u>إِبْدَاعِي</u>
Fledgling	<u>فُرْخ</u>
Mantle	<u>سِتَار</u> , <u>خِذْر</u>
Gobble	<u>لَقَم</u> , <u>الْتَهَمَ</u> , <u>إِبْتَلَعَ</u>
Overhaul	<u>صَلَحَ</u> , <u>جَدَّدَ</u>
Poke	<u>أَقْحَمَ</u>
Eclipse	<u>ظَلَمَ</u> , <u>كَسَفَ</u>

Appendix L

Tables of Results of the Questionnaire: Forty (40) Items from the Fifteen Participants

Item number	Correct	Incorrect	Close	Blank
1	0	13	2	0
2	2	11	1	1
3	3	6	6	0
4	0	12	1	0
5	2	12	1	0
6	0	14	1	0
7	0	15	0	0
8	9	0	6	0
9	7	5	3	0
10	1	10	4	0
11	6	7	2	0
12	4	9	2	0
13	12	3	0	0
14	3	11	1	0
15	5	9	1	0
16	0	15	0	0
17	9	6	0	0
18	0	15	0	0
19	4	10	1	0
20	5	10	0	0
21	2	12	1	0
22	0	14	1	0
23	2	13	0	0
24	4	6	5	0
25	5	6	4	0
26	1	11	3	0
27	1	13	1	0
28	5	10	0	0
29	0	14	1	0
30	3	9	3	0
31	7	78	0	0
32	10	5	0	0
33	1	14	0	0
34	7	7	1	0
35	3	10	2	0
36	5	8	2	0
37	4	11	0	0
38	3	10	2	0
39	8	7	0	0
40	3	11	1	0