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**KONCEPTUALIOSIOS METAFOROS POLITINIAME DISKURSE IR JŲ  
VERTIMAS IŠ ANGLŲ Į LIETUVIŲ KALBĄ HILLARY RODHAM  
CLINTON AUTOBIOGRAFIJOJE „GYVOJI ISTORIJA“**

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**THE CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS IN POLITICAL DISCOURSE AND  
THEIR TRANSLATION FROM ENGLISH INTO THE LITHUANIAN  
LANGUAGE IN HILLARY RODHAM CLINTON'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY  
"LIVING HISTORY"**

MASTER THESIS

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## Introduction

Language serves as a material medium between thoughts or concepts and things by which people interact in society. In our contemporary world politics is inextricably linked with language and cannot be conducted without it. Approaching to political phenomena, language is considered to be a transparent tool. Political language conveys both the linguistic meaning of what is said and the corpus of political beliefs. Political processes primarily occur through political discourse. Generally speaking, any discourse is a way of organizing human experience. It establishes frames of meaning and constructs systems of order. Political discourse is a broad macro-category as it consists of different sub genres such as electoral language, party political language, the language of diplomacy and so on. Political discourse deals with the narrative interpretation of event and ideas. According to Apter (1993), events serve as metaphors in which meanings are transmitted in terms of past and similar situations. Such metaphors are pervasive and weighty in political discourse and create desirable conceptual meaning. They play a significant role in political discourse interaction.

The cognitive approach that metaphor is fundamentally conceptual and has a mind-shaping ability has been originated by Lakoff and Johnson's classic work *Metaphors We Live By* (1980) and modified in their later works (Lakoff 1987, 1992, 2002, 2003; Lakoff and Turner 1989). The work of Lakoff and Johnson and others induced an array of interesting publications on metaphor in cognitive linguistics (Kittay 1987; Wierzbicka 1992; Ungerer and Schmid, 1996; Barcelona 2000). Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) conceptual metaphor theory is one of the study areas in the more general field of cognitive linguistics. Within this field, the notions of "source domain", "target domain", "mapping", "conceptual blending", "conceptual domain", "mental space", etc. have become a common vocabulary of recent studies for discussing the linguistic and, especially, conceptual phenomena of metaphor (Langacker 1987; Kovecses 1990; Graddy, et al., 1997; Ibarretxe-Antuñano, 1997; Fauconnier and Turner, 2002). These studies are analyzing the role and the function of conceptual metaphor in different milieu.

Over the last decade particularly there has been an expansion into the role of conceptual metaphor in the field of political discourse (Musolff 2004; Beard 2000; Apter 1993). Lakoff (2002) himself extended conceptual metaphor theory by researching politics and the discipline of the political science that was applied in *Moral Politics: What Conservatives Know That Liberals Don't*. Besides, he produced a number of empirical studies of the role metaphors play in political discourse (Lakoff 1991b, 1995, 2002).

Lithuanian linguists have also undertaken a range of unique and innovative studies of metaphor in different aspects and various contexts (Župerka 1997; Gudavičius 2000, 2001; Koženiauskienė 2001; Marcinkevičienė 1994a, 1994b, 1999, 2006; Lassan 1995, 2002a, 2002b; Papaurėlytė 2004; Juzelėnienė 2003, Cibulskienė 2002, 2003, 2006). Župerka (1997) investigated traditional approaches towards metaphor. Gudavičius (2000, 2001) researched both traditional and conceptual metaphor, Lassan (1995, 2002a, 2002b) delineated frames and metaphor scenarios, Koženiauskienė (2001) revealed the rhetorical leverage of metaphor, while the followers of cognitive approach like Juzelėnienė (2003) and Papaurėlytė (2004) directed their research towards conceptual metaphor.

The facet of investigation of metaphor has expanded into the realm of political discourse. However, there is no nearly systematic research within this framework. Brazienė (2004) explored conceptual metaphors in political and propagandistic discourse, Vaičėnionienė (2002) researched metaphors in political language, to name but a few. Significant study within the scope of political discourse has been accomplished by Cibulskienė (2006) in her doctoral dissertation *Conceptual Metaphors in the Election Discourses of Lithuania and Great Britain*. This is a contrastive study on conceptual metaphors in the discourse of political election campaign.

A lot of research has been made on the subject of metaphor and its rendering, however, conceptual metaphor in political discourse translation has been neglected by Lithuanian authors, especially within one particular corpus. The present research investigates political conceptual metaphors and their translation in Hillary Rodham Clinton autobiography “Living History” (2003). It sets out to explore conceptual metaphors in political discourse. As the study of political discourse covers a broad range of subject matters, herewith politicians’ memoirs, this book has been taken as source material. The analysis of a rather framed corpus allows to view and contrast distinguished conceptual metaphors in the source language and their rendering in the target language. The concept of politics has been taken as a source domain, in what have followed all possible classifications established. My investigation aims at already accepted conceptual metaphors (POLITICS IS WAR; POLITICS IS A JOURNEY, etc.) and less explored conceptual metaphors inherent in the above mentioned book and their translation into Lithuanian (POLITICS IS MEDICINE, POLITICS IS HUNTING, etc.).

Therefore, **the novelty** of the present research is the revealing of conceptual metaphors in the restricted corpus of political discourse and their translation into Lithuanian.

**The subject** of the research is conceptual metaphors and their translation from English into Lithuanian in Hillary Rodham Clinton autobiography “Living History” (2003).

**The aim** of the present study is to investigate the ways of rendering of conceptual metaphors from English into Lithuanian in Hillary Rodham Clinton’s autobiography “Living History” (2003).

To achieve this aim the following **objectives** have been set:

1. to present a short overview of cognitive linguistics and different approaches towards conceptual metaphor;
2. to reveal the peculiarities of non-literal language of political discourse;
3. to provide theoretical basis analyzing metaphor translation;
4. to single out and classify the distinguished conceptual metaphors and their explications under the determined frames;
5. to analyze rendering peculiarities of the established conceptual metaphors from English into Lithuanian.

**The methods and material.** The *qualitative* and *quantitative* research was subjected to the present analysis. The *qualitative methods*, such as *descriptive*, *conceptual*, *contrastive*, allowed me to reveal, classify and compare the conceptual metaphors in both languages. *Descriptive* helped to distinguish conceptual metaphors by searching for metaphorical expressions. *A conceptual method* was used to group the established metaphorical expressions according to the determined frames of certain conceptual metaphors. Therefore, to show rendering peculiarities of the established conceptual metaphors from English into Lithuanian *a method of contrastive analysis* was employed. By means of *quantitative* method, i.e. *descriptive statistic*, the relative frequency of tokens was calculated. And also I applied the method developed by Shapiro (1989) who distinguishes a *structural* kind of investigation a discourse analyst can conduct. I will adhere to the *structural approach* in my investigation while exploring metaphoric forms in political discourse.

The material selected to be analyzed in this study is an autobiography by Hillary Rodham Clinton called “Living History” (2003) and its Lithuanian version *Gyvoji istorija* (2004) translated by Aušra Karsokienė, Milda Dyke, Rasa Bružaitė.

Hillary Rodham Clinton is a former United States First Lady and a current Senator for New York released her book in 2003. The book briefly outlines her childhood, college years, introduction to politics and her courtship with Bill Clinton. Besides, it covers a wide variety of topics: life on the campaign trail, Task Force on National Health care Reform, her work on human rights, to name few. As far as the aim of the study concerns, it seems reasonable to resort to such a book, as it is rich with conceptual metaphors that enable to carry out an analysis of their translation.

**The structure of the work.** The present research consists of *Introduction* where the brief description of the research topic is presented. Furthermore, the subject of the research, the aim, the objectives, the methods and the novelty of the work are brought forward. The work is divided into two major parts: the *theoretical* and *practical* ones. *The first part* comprises the theoretical description of cognitive linguistics and conceptual metaphor theory. Furthermore it focuses on the

specificities of non-literal language in political discourse and presents the theoretical overview of the different scientific approaches towards the problem of metaphor translatability. *The second part* is the empirical analysis of conceptual metaphors **POLITICS IS WAR**, **POLITICS IS SPORT**, **POLITICS IS A JOURNEY**, **POLITICS IS BUSINESS**, **POLITICS IS MEDICINE**, **POLITICS IS THEATRE**, **POLITICS IS ARCHITECTURE**, **POLITICS IS HUNTING**, and **POLITICS IS A GAME** and their rendering from English into Lithuanian. The research is summarized with *Conclusions*. *References* and *Data Sources* are to conclude the research.

The terms used for the first time are written in bold. Because of the tradition of the Cognitive Linguistics, conceptual metaphors are written in capital letters. The research is based on 740 examples and their translations that have been selected and classified. The linguistic manifestations that are displayed in the empirical part appear in italics and bold. At the end of every sentence the source is indicated with the initials ‘HRC’ (the author Hillary Rodham Clinton) and the number of the page where the example was found. The translated element again appears in italics and bold (in the appendixes and empirical part). The source is also indicated by the initial ‘KDB’ (the translators Karsokienė, Dyke, Bružaitė) and the page number where the example was found.

# **I. Theoretical Orientation**

## **1.1. Cognitive Linguistics and Conceptual Metaphor Theory**

Cognitive linguistics is a modern school of linguistics that arose out of the theoretical framework of the cognitive science. It is concerned with the relation of language, the mind and socio physical experience. This new approach emerged in the 1970s (Lakoff and Johnson 1980; Langacker 1973) and has been developed by cognitive linguists, philosophers and scientists (Turner 2001; Fauconnier and Turner 2002; Kövecses 2000; Lakoff 2002). Cognitive linguistics has formed as a branch of cognitive psychology. It is a field that is closely related with psychology and philosophy and has always been influenced by theories and findings of these cognitive sciences.

Cognitive linguistics was primarily researched in the United States. During the 1980s, cognitivists started to research linguistic problems in Europe, that is, Belgium, Holland, Germany, Poland as well as in Japan. The first conference on cognitive linguistics was held in Duisburg, Germany, in 1989, which resulted in the foundation of the *International Cognitive Linguistic Association*. After a year, in 1990, the journal *Cognitive Linguistics* was conceived.

Cognitive linguistics is a field that does not consist of only one theory. It can be summarized by the entry in the *Handbook of Pragmatics* by Verschueren (2003): cognitive linguistics include the structural language categorization; the functional principles of linguistic organization, the conceptual interface between syntax and semantics, the experiential and pragmatic background of language-in-use; and relationship between language and thought, including questions about relativism and conceptual universals.

What cognitive linguists all have in common is the idea that our way of understanding the world is basically metaphorical. They propose a close connection between linguistic metaphorical expressions and mental concepts which are not perceptible to our senses. Therefore, metaphors are not merely linguistic, but also a conceptual phenomenon.

Various linguists and philosophers have been trying to contest it. Its definition has been based on the “notions of “similarity” and “comparison” between the literal and figurative meaning” (Ungerer and Schmid, 1996: 115). Figurative language, especially in literary contexts, is regarded as something used for effect or for ornament and contrasts with “literal” language.

Black (1962) was significant in moving metaphors from the level of words to the level of concepts. Black (1962) developed his “interaction theory” of metaphor: he views it not as a game of words, but as a cognitive phenomenon that involves concepts. Basic experiences determine the way we think about language and they are manifested in language.



Black's (ibid.) interaction theory clearly pioneers cognitive views on metaphor. This so-called interaction theory offered a new view on metaphors in three respects. First, thought is essentially metaphorical. Second, metaphors may also create similarities between things. Third, metaphor is created in the interaction between two domains, and in the contexts in which the metaphor is used.

Over the past three decades metaphor analysis has become increasingly popular in cognitive linguistics. Since the 1970s a cognitive approach emerged that has been developed by cognitive scientists. Cognitive linguistics extended the range of conceptual phenomena studied by cognitive scientists. They have been convinced that metaphor is a central aspect of language. This new treatment of metaphor has gained much attention among cognitive linguists. Cognitive theory of metaphor is a fundamental aspect of the enterprise of cognitive linguistics (Barcelona, 2000). One of the most influential cognitive authors that carried out a broader analysis of metaphor during the 1970's and 1980's is Lakoff. Although since 1980s there has been a rapid increase of interest in metaphor studies, mainly in the fields of psychology and cognitive science, the conceptual metaphor theory (that has become known as the "cognitive linguistic view of metaphor") was first in detail explored by Lakoff and Johnson in their seminal book *Metaphors we Live by* (1980). Before the publication of *Metaphors we Live by*, the view of metaphor was constituted as a "figure of speech". Lakoff and Johnson (ibid.) formed the basic framework of modern cognitive research on metaphor. They guided metaphor research from the traditional rhetorical view into cognitive field. The so-called cognitive theory of metaphor extends interaction theory by stressing that the human conceptual system is metaphorical and, therefore, metaphors cannot be translated into literal expressions without loss in cognitive content. According to Lakoff and Johnson (ibid.), the human conceptual system is metaphorically constructed – in other words metaphors are common cultural conceptual tools. They are not only a property of words, but of concepts and are not simply used as artistic and aesthetic tools. Metaphors are used in order to make concepts understandable. They note that:

"Metaphor is for most people a device of the poetic imagination and the rhetorical flourish – a matter of extraordinary rather than ordinary language – most people think they can get along perfectly well without metaphor. We have found, on the contrary, that metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action. Our ordinary conceptual system, in which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980:3).

Since the publication of Lakoff and Johnson's (1980)<sup>1</sup> work on conceptual metaphor, a considerable number of linguists have been trying to explicate the relation of language and mind,

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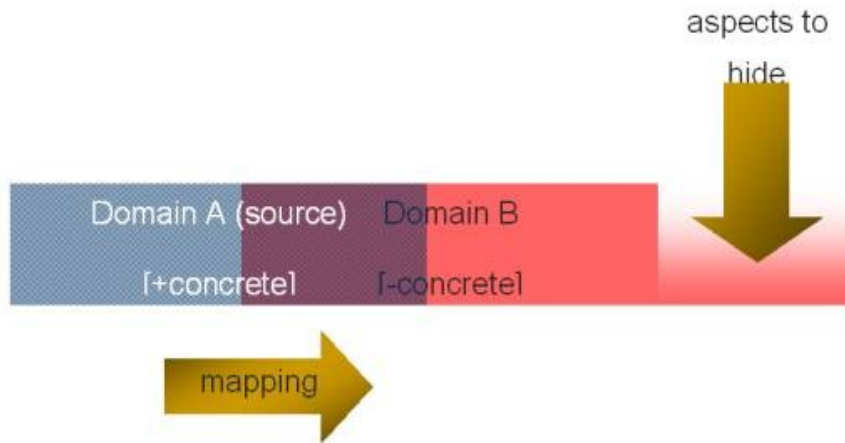
<sup>1</sup> Empirical analysis of the present master thesis is presented mostly from the point of view of Lakoff and his co-author Johnson's theory of conceptual metaphor.

categorize and conceptualize the world. The most influential ones examining this relation of language structure to things outside were Chafe (1975), Fillmore (1985), Lakoff (1980), Langacker (1973, 1987) and Talmy (2003). Although these scholars had different philosophy of linguistic theory, they agreed upon one presumption that meaning must be a focus of the language study. Cognitive linguistics recognizes that the study of language is the study of language use, the aspects of which are expressed through “rhetorical periphery”, such as metaphor.

The definition of metaphor, for a cognitive linguist, is very broad. Metaphors are cognitive constructs rather than mere linguistic entities or rhetorical phenomena. Cognitive linguists (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, 1999; Lakoff, 1987, 2002; Lakoff and Turner 1989) suggest that we use metaphor intuitively and unconsciously to understand the mind, emotions and all other abstract concepts. According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980) “conceptual metaphor is a natural part of human thought” (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980: 246). They view metaphor as the basic tool of cognition and point out that most concepts are generated by metaphors. Such conventional metaphors enable us to make sense of a concept such as “mind” that we cannot see or touch.

The classical cognitive view on metaphor holds that metaphor is a conceptual phenomenon that is realized on the surface level of language. Metaphors structure daily concepts that consequently form a coherent system allowing humans to conceptualize their experience. Conceptual metaphors have a correlation that can be thought of as mapping of features from a source to a target domain. This mapping is ubiquitous, unidirectional, systematic, invariable and grounded in physical and socio-cultural experience. “Metaphor is the cognitive mechanism whereby one experiential domain is partially “mapped”, i.e. projected, onto a different experiential domain, so that the second domain is partially understood in terms of the first one” (Barcelona, 2000: 3). According to Grady, et al. (1997) a “mapping” is “presumably stored as a knowledge structure in long-term memory, which tells us how elements in the domains line up with each other” (Grady, et al., 1997: 102). The most general description is that metaphor is an expression with two conceptual domains (knowledge fields). In Lakoff’s words (1992) metaphor is the main mechanism through which we comprehend abstract concepts and perform abstract reasoning. Metaphor is to be understood as any **mapping** between normally separate conceptual domains. Thus, metaphors are conceptual phenomena in which the source domain is mapped onto the target domain:

## Mapping between conceptual domains



**Figure 1: The mapping process in metaphor as in Balbachan (2006)**

The aim of this mapping is to structure an abstract, unfamiliar, or unstructured domain (**the target**) in terms of that is more concrete, familiar, or structured (**the source**). The more concrete the domain, the more “natural” it is for our minds to operate in them. Mapping is the process of applying our experiences on things that are new to us. It usually takes the form of analogy or comparison between two existent entities, or between one existent entity and another one assumed to exist. Lakoff claims (1980) that people “...typically conceptualize the non-physical in terms of the physical, that is, we conceptualize the less clearly delineated in terms of more clearly delineated” (Lakoff, 1980: 59).

We use metaphors all the time and we use them in far more encompassing manner. We express *life* in terms of a *journey*, or *time* in terms of *money*. Abstract concepts are defined by metaphors. This means that there are many metaphorical expressions or vehicles in which one domain of experience (e.g. LIFE) is systematically conceptualized in terms of another (e.g. JOURNEYS). The conceptual metaphor represents the conceptual basis or image that underlies a set of metaphors. It can take the other form, but it is more likely that we will talk about *life* in terms of *journey* than in terms of other things or phenomenon. Graddy (1997) endorses Lakoff and Johnson (1980) that there are mappings between some concepts, but not between others: emotional unresponsiveness is

mapped onto coldness in the domain of temperatures, but not onto warmth, and not onto any number of properties in other domains, such as width, monetary value, or innateness (Graddy, 1997: 79). Being matters of conceptualization, metaphors reflect the output of a cognitive process and they are usually automatic, unconscious mappings, and are used without any noticeable efforts, just like our linguistic system and the rest of our conceptual system. Like other mental processes, metaphorical mappings thus emerge from body-world interaction.

Lakoff (1980) has analyzed numerous domains of human knowledge and clarified the underlying metaphors. For example, theories are treated as buildings (a theory has “foundations” and is “supported” by data, theories are “fragile” or “solid”). Nonetheless, according to Kövecses (2000), “these conceptual metaphors have a *main meaning focus*, a major theme” (Kövecses, 2000: 82).

Lakoff and Johnson (1999) defined three types of metaphor: “**orientational**” (in which we use our experience with spatial orientation), “**ontological**” (in which we use our experience with spatial orientation), “**structural**” (in which natural types are used to define other concepts). Every metaphor can be reduced to a more primitive metaphor. Lakoff emphasized that metaphor is not only a matter of words, but a matter of thought, that metaphor is central to our understanding of the world and the self. They create new meaning, similarities and define new insights as well as new perception of reality. When we perceive something – a person, an object, a system or so on – we put this in relation to the context and our own experiences. If the phenomenon is all new to us, we try to understand it in terms of the things we already know.

Kittay (1987) reasons, that the cognitive force of metaphor comes from a reconceptualization of information about the world that has already been acquired but possibly not conceptualized. She agrees that metaphor may be one of the primary ways in which human organize their experience. Kittay claims, that metaphorical concepts are experientially grounded.

The conceptual metaphor view claims that linguistic meaning is based on embodied experience that shapes language and thought. As previously mentioned, Lakoff (1999) in his theory of conceptual metaphor puts forward the assumption that metaphors themselves are **embodied**, i.e. our concepts are built metaphorically from direct bodily experience. Embodied experiences that are repeated in our everyday experience create what Lakoff (1999) calls “image schemas”, which can then be used to structure less embodied experience. Concrete, embodied experiences are therefore the least metaphorical, because they are built from direct experience, while more abstract concepts are structured metaphorically through mappings to more direct bodily experience. In other words, the concepts we have access to and the nature of the reality we think and talk about are a function of our **embodiment**. We can talk about the things we conceive and perceive. And these things derive

from our embodied experience. *Understanding* is an abstract concept metaphorically structured by the bodily experience of seeing. Some concepts, such as *love*, receive their structure from other concepts, such as *journey*, that are themselves structured metaphorically, from the image schemas of more concrete, in other words, embodied experiences. As Ibarretxe-Antuñano (1997) outlines: “Human conceptual categories, the meaning of words and sentences and the meaning of linguistic structures at any level are not a set of universal abstract features or uninterpreted symbols but motivated and grounded more or less directly in experience, in our bodily, physical and social/cultural experiences <...>” (Ibarretxe-Antuñano, 1997: 29).

Having looked at the fundamental tenets of classical cognitive metaphor theory, it might be assumed that this theory has become the dominant paradigm in metaphor research. Therefore, in the following chapter I will outline how this approach is elaborated in the area of political discourse.

## **1.2. Non-Literal Language in Political Discourse**

### **1.2.1. Non-Literal Language**

From the cognitive point of view, what matters most about metaphor, is its conceptual nature not its ‘accidental’ linguistic form. Lakoff and Johnson (1999) in their second seminal book, *Philosophy in the Flesh*, have amplified this proposition held that when a metaphor is created, the mapping is primary, and the language, which serves as its realization, is secondary. Musolff (2004) asserts that this claim “has a massive bearing on the study of political discourse. If our social experiences and conceptualizations are organized in terms of metaphors, then politics, as part of social domain, must also be perceived and constructed metaphorically” (Musolff, 2004: 2). Indeed, metaphor being the most prevalent lexical unit of non-literal language is active in the development of the conceptual framework and politics is area that is rife with metaphors.

Non-literal language is very ambivalent notion, therefore it is very hard to make a sharp distinction between literal and non-literal language. Traditionally, non-literal language has been viewed as a deviation from normal or literal language use and one that takes extra effort to understand. Non-literal language uses are usually called figurative or metaphorical and are described by plenty of rhetorical terms including metaphor, metonymy, irony, zeugma, synecdoche, hyperbole and litotes. It is viewed as imprecise and largely the domain of poets and novelists.

Different scholars provide different definitions of non-literal language. “The discursive turn in academic discussion of rhetoric was marked by the works of structuralists Levi-Straus and Jacobson, the formalist White, the poststructuralist Derrida and cognitive semanticists Lakoff and

Johnson, to name few” (Mihás, 2005: 128). The central proposition of this contemporary trend is that rhetorical forms are deeply involved in shaping of realities. Non-literal language refers to phrases or expressions in which the intended meaning (the meaning one intends to convey) is independent of a literal meaning. The intended meaning of the phrase requires going beyond the surface meaning and draw particular inferences regarding the similarity between the qualities. Most contemporary analysis of non-literal language points to metaphor that serves as a kind of short cut to understanding the world because of its pervasiveness in everyday language and weight. The use of metaphor as a part of non-literal language aims to help the listener to visualize what is meant by a phrase or expression. Thus, because of these “non-literal” qualities, metaphor is frequently employed discursively in political discourse.

### **1.2.2. Politics and Language**

Political discourse has been described as “a complex study of human activity” (Chilton and Shäffner, 1997: 207) based on the recognition that “politics cannot be conducted without language” (Shäffner, 2004: 117). Similarly, Shäffner (2004) puts forward a question what can be counted as ‘politics’, and whereupon as ‘political discourse’. On one hand, it is generally agreed that we think of politics mainly in terms of struggle for power in order to secure specific ideas and interests and put them into practice. Power is the basis for argument. Language generates, reflects, maintains, enforces and exercises power. The idea is supported by Howe (1988), who studied campaign rhetoric and the jargon of political professionals in the period of 1980-1985. On the other hand, politics is realized as cooperation of the practices and institutions that a society has for resolving clashes of interest over money, influence, liberty and the like (Chilton, 2004). Politics involves contests over alternative understandings. Thus, politics is typically viewed as being either an unpredictable exercise of power or a rule-bound contest.

Over the last sixty years there has been a considerable interest in the study of the relation between language and politics. The important point of it is the way non-existent entities can be accepted as having meaning and the way in which alternate ways of referring the same entity can have different meanings (Chilton, 2004). However, political scientists and linguists focus on different aspects of this particular relationship. Political scientists (Feldman and de Landtsheer, 1998) have largely dedicated their attention to the political realities which are constructed in and through political discourse, limiting their researches to the study of isolated words and concepts. The latter (Chilton and Shäffner, 2002; Chilton, 2004; Bayley, 1993; Mihás, 2005) have always been interested in linguistic structures used to get politically relevant message (Shäffner, 1996).

Politics permeates language and vice versa. Politics and language are in mutual interaction, feeding back upon one another. This interaction is dynamic and multifaceted. Politics and language are linked at a fundamental level. Politics like all spheres of social activity has its own particular language. This language plays a key role in realizing political values, ideas and political acts. Political acts are often carried in language, but also through language. The way language is used prompts a lot about how ideas have been moulded. Politics is conducted through texts by using language in manipulative way.

Politics is the domain that is teeming with ideologies (defined in terms of basic beliefs shared by members of groups) that people enact. Beard (2000) argues that “analyzing the language of a political text, therefore, it is important to look at the way the language reflects the ideological position of those who have created it, and how the ideological position of the readers will affect their response too” (Beard, 2000: 18). The respond depends on the readers’ interpretation in the mind. To make the message of the political text persuasive and comprehensible its language should appeal to the emotions of the audience and affect it. The language of politics is assumed to be inherently political as language itself has a political dimension. Only through language can one issue commands and threats, ask questions, make offers and promises (Chilton, 2004). Although politics is founded on language, Bayley (1993) assumes that “there is no such thing as political language, but a wide and diverse set of discourses, or genres, or registers that can be classified as forms of political language” (Bayley, 1993: 3). So, political language is political reality encompassing political events and developments.

It is hard to separate political language from language that is political. “In linguistic literature political language has been used to either denote the use of language in the context of politics, i.e. a specific language use with the purpose of achieving a specific politically motivated function, or it has been to denote the specific political vocabulary, i.e. words and phrases that refer to extralinguistic phenomena in the domain of politics” (Shäffner, 1996: 202). Most of the contributors to linguistic analysis of political framework use the term political discourse to refer to political language considering it (political language) first as discourse, and only secondly as politics. The distinction between these terms is not of primary importance for the scholar in political language study (Feldman and de Landtsheer, 1998). Political language, political speech, political rhetoric and political discourse are apparently intertwined terms that are used to entitle the relationship between language and politics.

### **1.2.3. Peculiarities of Political Discourse**

For at least ten years now **discourse** itself has been a fashionable term that often replaces the notion of language. Functionally based approaches view discourse as a socially organized way of language use as well as a structured system of meaning within the culture and its manifestations. In scientific literature, this term very frequently is used inextricably, making no distinctions and without being defined. The concept has become vague, either meaning almost nothing, or being used with more precise, but rather different, meaning in different contexts. But, in many cases, the general idea of the word “discourse” is that language is structured according to different patterns that people’s utterances follow when they take part in different domains of social life (political discourse). Discourse analysis is the analysis of these patterns. The preliminary definition of a discourse is: a particular way of talking about and understanding the world (or an aspect of the world). It is a particular way of delineating a specific domain with its own vocabularies. The unique character of the discourse may be revealed through the study of structures of political discourse (topics, coherence, arguments, lexical style, disclaimers, and rhetorical features) (Mihas, 2005). Thus, any discourse may be characterized as political.

The study of **political discourse** has been around for as long as politics itself, “its pedigree going back at least as far as Plato” for whom political discourse is “a foundational for the functioning of any political community” (Apter, 1993: 1). Political metaphors were rare in Greek thought before him. From Cicero to Aristotle the concern was basically with particular methods of social and political competence in achieving specific objectives (Fairlough and Wodak 1997). The general approach is continued today. While there has been a long tradition of interest in political discourse it is only since early 1980’s that work in this area has come to the fore.

In linguistics, political discourse has received consideration outside the more theoretical mainstream. Along with studies by political scientists, Chilton and Shäffner (2002) and Chilton (2004) support a linguistic analysis of political discourse, based on the premise that politics consist largely of language. Political cognition comes into frame with the most systematic study provided by Lakoff in his 1996 (2002) book *Moral Politics: What Conservatives Know That Liberals Don’t*, in which he analyses the worldviews underlying political thinking in the United States of America and his Internet papers on the Gulf War, the events of 11 September 2001 and the second gulf War. Lakoff (2003, 2004) applied cognitive analysis to political discourse. Other scholars whose works have been most influential in the creation of this framework on the international level include Van Dijk (2001), Musolff (2004), Shäffner (2004). Among Lithuanian linguists this domain has reached little systematic research attention. Lassan (1995) in her monograph “Discourse of Power and Dissidence in the USSR: Cognitive-Rhetorical Analysis” studied the political discourse of the party in power and the dissidents of the Sixties in Russia.



A string of recent articles (Chudinov, 2002, 2003; Šolienė, 2005; Valentinavičienė, 2005) have also undertaken a range of interesting studies in the analysis of political discourse. Chudinov (2002) researched metaphorical modeling in political narrative in the Russian Federal and Regional Election campaigns in 1999 and 2000. He (Chudinov, 2003) also investigated the main tendencies of contemporary Political Linguistics in Russia. Šolienė (2005) examined intertextual elements in political discourse. Valentinavičienė (2005) in her paper analyzed pragmatic aspects and conversational mechanisms in two oppositional political speeches delivered by M. Thatcher and N. Kinnock in 1990.

The study of political discourse covers a broad range of subject matters: “bilateral and multilateral treaties, speeches made during electioneering campaign or at a congress of a political party, a contribution of a member of parliament to a parliamentary debate, editorial or commentaries in newspapers, a press conference with the politician, or a politician’s memoirs” (Shäffner, 1996: 202). The nature of the term political discourse is reflexive and ambiguous. According to Feldman and De Landtsheer (1998), “one of the core goals of political discourse is to seek out the ways in which language choice is manipulated for specific political effect” (Feldman and De Landtsheer, 1998: 410-411). The term “political discourse” is suggestive of at least two possibilities: first, a discourse which is itself political, and second, an analysis of political discourse as simply an example discourse type, without explicit reference to political content or political context (Tannen, et al., 2005: 398).

The cognitive approach (Lakoff 1987, 1993; Lakoff and Johnson 1980, 1999; Lakoff and Turner 1989; Turner 1991) considers political discourse as necessarily a product of individual and collective mental processes. An application of cognitive approaches is found in Van Dijk’s works (1997, 2001, 2006). Van Dijk (2001) characterizes political discourse not just as a genre, but as a class of genres defined by social domain, namely that of politics. Thus, government deliberations, parliamentary debates, party programs, and speeches by politicians, are among the many genres that belong to the domain of politics that has fuzzy boundaries. He assumes that political discourse is the discourse of politicians. He rules out those discourse genres at the boundaries of the domain politics with other domains, such as the discourse of a student demonstration, the messages of an antiabortion campaign, corporate talk intended to influence tax or investment legislation, or an everyday conversation about politics.

Political discourse transmits ideological foundations. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) claims that “political <...> ideologies are framed in metaphorical terms” (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980: 236). The use and construction of metaphorical language in political discourse highly depends on the ideologies of the speaker or the writer. The words are deliberately chosen to appeal to the emotions

and beliefs of the receiver. According to Beard (1997), it is a skill to appeal to the emotions of the listener in a way that feels natural to the audience (Beard, 1997: 17 – 21). Metaphors activate unconscious emotional associations and influence our beliefs. Thus, metaphors are used in political discourse for making abstract political issues accessible and comprehensible to the audience.

#### **1.2.4. Metaphor in Political Discourse**

Over the last decade there has been an increasing appreciation of the promise of conceptual metaphor in political discourse. Cognitive theorists (Lakoff, 1991; Chilton and Schäffner, 2002; Chilton, 2004, Musolf 2005) have produced a number of analyses of political metaphor that were related to specific political issues. Lakoff's above mentioned work *Moral Politics* (1996) is largely responsible for the extension of cognitive metaphor theory to the study of politics and the discipline of political science. He has also written on the 1991 Gulf War, where he argues that the system of metaphors structured and defined the situation and thus guided American actions against Iraq (Lakoff, 1991). Lakoff (2003, 2004) has recently made some research on American political metaphors, for example, metaphors of terrorism, metaphors of war, metaphors in foreign affairs, etc. However, there is nearly no systematic study on conceptual metaphors in political discourse. The majority of modern scholars carried out researches into political metaphor citing Lakoff's seminal works (Lakoff and Johnson 1980, 1999; Lakoff and Turner 1989) on the theory of conceptual metaphors. Building on Lakoff's analysis, Rohrer (1995) examines the metaphors used by President Bush Senior to conceptualize the political situation in the Persian Gulf in the pre-war period of August 1990 to January 1991. Another scholar whose contribution especially focus on the role of metaphor in political discourse is Chilton (Chilton and Schäffner, 2002; Chilton, 2004). Chilton adopted a "cognitive interactive" account of metaphor to illustrate how metaphors can become contested.

Although, political metaphors as well as conceptual metaphors in political discourse enjoy lively interest also on the part of Lithuanian scholars (Cibulskienė, 2002, 2003, 2006; Brazienė 2004; Vaičenonienė, 2002), the topic was researched only in article-length papers. The broader linguistic analysis on conceptual metaphors was carried out by Cibulskienė (2006) in her doctoral dissertation. She researched immanent conceptual metaphors (POLITICS IS WAR; POLITICS IS A JOURNEY; POLITICS IS A BUILDING) in the general election discourses of Lithuania (2000) and Great Britain (2001) and their linguistic manifestations. The study set out to distinguish how identified conceptual metaphors represent one or another political ideology and to determine whatever rethorical power they have.

The list of articles in which different linguists (Cibulskienė, 2002, 2003; Vaičėnėnienė, 2002; Brazienė, 2004; Skrebtsova, 2002, 2004; Solopova, 2005; Budaev & Chudinov, 2006) tackle political metaphor related questions is long indeed. Vaičėnėnienė (2002) in her paper overviewed the use of metaphors in political language, i.e. in the review of political speeches. Cibulskienė (2002, 2003) examined the metaphorization of election in the 2001 general election of Great Britain. The paper provides ample of linguistic examples showing the existence of conceptual metaphor Election is War in the mind of politicians and ordinary people. Brazienė (2004) analyzed conceptual metaphors in political and propagandistic discourse. Skrebtsova (2002) investigated metaphors involved in the modern Russian political discourse on foreign affairs. In the other article she (Skrebtsova, 2004) argued that current academic attention to the study of political metaphor draws on three sources, namely, cognitive linguistics, discourse analysis and new rhetoric conceptions. Solopova (2005) researched metaphorical representation of future. Her paper is concerned with metaphors used to create the image of future in British political discourse “General Election – 2001”. The study shows that the most frequent metaphor models used in portraying “near future” are war, disease and family relationships, in conceptualizing ‘distant future’ – journey, architecture and disease. Budaev & Chudinov (2006) investigated the specificity of theory and practice of the rhetorical trend in studying political metaphor that, in their opinion, influenced the theory of conceptual metaphor and was considered to be an alternative to it.

Metaphors are used efficiently in many areas to express a thought by alluding to another thought, either to clarify and make it simple to comprehend or to make more vivid to catch the attention. Metaphor is associated, among other things, with indirectness, which makes it a privileged mode of expression in areas direct such as in the field of politics. Politics in general is rife with metaphors. They have long been recognized as important in political rhetorical language and occupy a central place in the rhetoric of politicians. Metaphors are the most prominent tools for persuasion and propaganda, therefore, they are used by politicians as strategies for advocating their own policies or opposing the policies of others. Metaphor is an instrument for politician to manipulate people, convince them that their (politicians’) aims and ideas are equitable. As politicians seek to appeal to peoples’ emotions and comply with their needs and desires, metaphor is an apt tool for implementation such aims.

Although, people deal with politics nearly every day, it is not so easy to explain what politics actually means as it has its own code (a term used by linguists to refer to a language variety. According to Lakoff (2003), “it is crucially important to understand the cognitive dimensions of politics – especially when most of our conceptual framing is unconscious” (Lakoff, 2003: 3). In the realm of cognitive metaphorical theory, there are just few slots or frames that define a restricted

area within the concept of politics. These frames exemplify how people ordinarily conceive of politics. “Two common sources of metaphor in politics are sport and war, both of which involve physical contests of some sort” (Beard, 2000: 21). People are not always consciously aware of these things, but they do not perceive politics as anything else.

Political issues are deeply rooted in key conceptual metaphors as metaphors put political issues into concrete form. Much language is embedded in metaphors of *war*, *sport* and *game*. The key conceptual metaphors involve concepts of enemies and opponents, winners or losers, struggle and fight, victories or defeats. It mainly has to do with the government, the opposition, the relationship between the two and the relationship towards the state and the people. These elements have to be “put across” with the help of words and phrases from other areas used metaphorically. The biggest amount of metaphors is negatively shaded. They highlight such features of politics as hostility, tension between parties and fierce competition of votes that are metaphorized as valuables. Besides, politics is associated with cheating and falsity. The negative attitude towards politics is reflected by the set of movement of metaphors that express the wrong direction or lack of movement. Politicians play their games, do their horseriding and backstage wheeling and dealing. Political issues are constantly covered from a conventional perspective using the parlance of the game, the theatre, or the marketplace. All of them are metaphorical ways of covering events. Nevertheless, that such metaphorical ways of describing political activities is often taken for granted, metaphors do not compel to accept such a lot, they only advocate it.

Conceptual metaphor in political discourse as well as metaphor in general is indispensable mean of our comprehension system. Properly used metaphors can bring clarity the way no amount of detailed explanation or information can, and so very quickly. They can also trigger the imagination, and produce striking creative insight. Metaphor is device to understand the world, to illustrate people’s prejudice, expectations, political maps not only in one particular language, but in different ones. However, this device is often misused. Thus, one of the ways for the mutual intelligibility is translation.

### **1.3. Translation Approaches to Metaphor**

#### **1.3.1. Metaphor Typology and its Translation Theories**

Cultures have learned about each other to a large extent by means of translation. Thus, translation nowadays concerns not only the translation of languages, but also cultural contexts. Since language and culture are interdependent, translation is transfer between cultures, a specific

kind of culture-determined text production. Translation serves as a magnifying glass for observing cultural contrasts and similarities. Metaphor translation is finding similarities or saying things in other words as translator removes the concept from its specific language context and makes it more general and understandable in a different context. It is a process that emphasizes the culture-specific conceptual configurations characteristic of different people of the world. For the translator it takes a lot of efforts to render culture loaded items idiomatically.

Metaphor translation has been considered as exemplifying the limits of translatability (Van den Broeck, 1981), and has since intrigued a number of scholars in Translation Studies. Metaphor is usually defined as “a kind of ultimate test of any theory of translation” (Toury, 1995: 81), however “scholars agree that metaphor has been sadly neglected in translation theory” (Snell-Hornby, 1988: 55). Only few translation theorists have researched the topic owing to the difficulties to reach some general theory of metaphor translation. Some of these important publications should be mentioned: Newmark (1980), Larson (1984), Hatim & Mason (1990), Bell (1991).

How to preserve and reproduce source language metaphor in target language is often considered as a problem to be solved or an opportunity for a translator to demonstrate his preeminent abilities. Quite a few translation theorists (Catford, 1965; Nida, 1982; Larson, 1984; Newmark 1980, 1988; Snell-Hornby, 1988) argue the degree of metaphor translatability and offer translation strategies and procedures. Some tend to make a detailed classification of metaphors in terms of the degree of originality and frequency before offering abstract rules for solving a specific problem for each type. For example, Newmark (1980) distinguishes five types of metaphors such as dead, cliché, stock, recent, original metaphors, and claims that there are five possible procedures for translating standard, i.e. more or less common metaphors: 1) to translate by a metaphor using the same or a similar image, 2) to translate with a different image that has the same sense, 3) to convert the metaphor into a simile, 4) to qualify the simile with the sense, which in communicative translation may be advisable, if the metaphor is obscure, 5) to translate as much as possible of the sense behind the image, the sense being the common area between the metaphor’s object and the image, as seen by the writer and interpreted by the translator (Newmark, 1980: 49-85).

Scholars have different ideas on metaphor translation that (ideas) can be put into three major types: 1) metaphor translation as a function of rules, 2) metaphor translation as function of text-types and 3) metaphor translation as function of culture.

For the first type, scholars (Newmark, 1980; Larson 1984) put forward a list of commonly accepted rules such as: 1) keeping the same metaphorical image, i.e. translating it literally, 2) changing it into a simile, 3) substituting it by an equivalent metaphor in the TL, 4) keeping the same metaphorical image, i.e. literal translation plus explanation, and 5) translating it by a paraphrase.

The scheme is criticized because of its lack of explanation on the procedure choice. Besides, it lacks consideration on “the structure and function of the particular metaphor within the context concerned” (Snell Hornby 1988: 85).

The second type, the representative of which is Newmark (1980), provides a valuable framework of principles for the translation of metaphor. It argues that metaphor translation is closely associated with the text-type in which the metaphor occurs and author’s role and provides a translator with valuable and practical guidance. Newmark (ibid.) argues that lexicalized metaphors, which are of high translatability in informative texts might be ignored at all, while those metaphors carrying a heavy information load in expressive texts have to be dealt with so that their contextual, semantic and pragmatic information can be conveyed. On the contrary, Snell-Hornby (1988) points out that the status of a metaphor is not established, it depends on readers’ “cultural developments” or “the knowledge and experience of the individual” (Snell-Hornby, 1988: 57). He stressed the textual nature of metaphors within the integrated approach (language is not an isolated phenomenon suspended in a vacuum but an integral part of culture). A further development in Toury’s (1995) formulation of a model for metaphor translation: he suggested a two-way analysis of source and target texts in order to include target-text metaphors which did not have an equivalent in the source-text (i.e. cases of non-metaphors translated with metaphors), which allows accounting for strategies of compensation employed by translators (Toury, 1995: 259-279). What concerns text-type, it is difficult to make a clear distinction among the three of them: informative, expressive and vocative. Newmark (1988) himself holds the view that “few texts are purely expressive, informative or vocative: most include all three functions with an emphasis on one of the three” (Newmark, 1988: 42). Considering the miscellaneous nature of texts, Hatim and Mason (1997) argue that “however the typology is set up, any real text will display features of more than one type” (Hatim & Mason, 1997: 139). It should be mentioned that the so called “dead metaphor” which is thought to pose no difficulty in translation might be very informative, as it can tell us a lot about the source language culture and the way the people of that culture conceptualize and organize their experience.

The third type and the last one concentrates on the relevance of culture as a determinant factor in metaphor translation (Catford 1965; Nida 1982; Snell-Hornby 1988). This factor is in line with the nature of metaphor per se. According to Snell-Hornby (1988), “the essential problem posed by metaphor in translation is that different cultures, hence different languages, conceptualize and create symbols in varying ways, and therefore the sense of metaphor is frequently culture-specific” (Snell-Hornby, 1988: 56). Van den Broeck (1981), on the other hand, argues that the translatability of metaphor is inversely proportional to the amount of “information (specifically cultural) manifested

by the metaphor and the degree to which this information is structured in a text" (Van den Broeck, 1981: 84).

One of the basic assumptions is that quite a few translation theorists argue the degree of metaphor translatability and offer a variety of translation strategies and procedures. Despite the large amount of literature available on metaphor translation, very little research has been done in favor of a cognitive approach in the translation of metaphors. For this reason, the following section attempts to clarify metaphor translation from the cognitive point of view.

### **1.3.2. Cognitive Proposal for Metaphor Translation**

In the past twenty years, with the rapid development of cognitive linguistics more and more translation theorists are studying translation problems from cognitive perspective. A cognitive perspective came to be applied to metaphor translation by scholars like Mandelblit (1995), Shäffner (2004). Mandelblit (1995) offered cross-cultural analyses of the "productivity" of certain conceptual metaphors in different languages and represents a translation approach based on the cognitive paradigm. Shäffner's (2004) contribution reflected on the implications of a cognitive approach to political discourse in translation. Shäffner (2004) analyzed political discourse from the point of view of Translation Studies, by presenting examples of authentic translations of political texts. These examples concern political effects caused by specific translation solutions.

The cognitive approach to metaphor has led to a progressive shift of focus from purely linguistic grounds on to conceptual grounds, since linguistic metaphors are seen as realizations of underlying conceptual metaphors. As an effect, the traditional distinction between metaphor and similes has also been dismissed, since "both metaphors and similes can involve conceptual metaphors and be the result of similar mapping" (Lakoff and Turner, 1989: 133). Metaphor translation has been treated as part of the more general problem as it occupies an important place in a cross-linguistic enterprise such as translation. On the cognitive view of metaphor, the study of languages is a window of their speakers. The study of metaphoric discourse of a certain culture gives us an insight into the way native speaker structure their experience of the world. Thus, an argument can be raised in favor of a cognitive approach to translating metaphor that takes into account cultural beliefs and values which are especially important when dealing with cultural distinct speech communities.

Mandelblit (1995) proposes "Cognitive Translation Hypothesis" (henceforth CTH) for metaphor translation that argues in favor of a cogno-cultural framework. The basic assumption is that since metaphors are based in the conceptual system of the speaker of a particular language, the translator has to compare the cross-domain mappings that exist in SL and TL. Mandelbit proposed two

schemes of cognitive mapping conditions: “1) a “similar mapping condition” (SMC) will obtain if no conceptual shift occurs between languages; and 2) a “different mapping condition” (DMC) in case a conceptual shift takes place from SL to TL” (Mandelblit, 1995: 493). He found out that metaphorical expressions take more time and are more difficult to translate if they exploit a different cognitive domain from that of the equivalent target language expression. According to this hypothesis, the difficulty in the translation of different domains metaphors lies in the search for another conceptual mapping, i.e. cognitive equivalence for SL metaphors in the TL. If a similar TL cognitive domain is found, the conceptual mapping is successful. Otherwise, the translator must look for the cognitive domain that fits in the target language. Mandelbit’s scheme is complementary to Deignan, et al. (1997) proposal, “in that SMC yields either *same conceptual metaphor and equivalent linguistic expression* or *same conceptual metaphor and different linguistic expression*; the DMC, however, occurs when there are *different conceptual metaphors used*” (Deignan, et al., 1997: 354). She argues that the more two cultures conceptualize experience in a similar fashion, the more the SMC applies and the easier task of translation will be. The more they (two cultures) conceptualize experience differently, the more the DMC applies and the task will be more difficult. If the same conceptual metaphors are used to structure our lives regardless of our belonging to different cultures, therefore we are conceptualizing reality in the same way. In case different conceptual metaphors structure our lives, then the study of our metaphoric systems will point out how we structure our reality and how the understanding of these systems may contribute to further intercultural understanding. Newmark (1980) complements the expressed ideas by stating: “Metaphor is the concrete expression of the ability to see resemblance or contrasted differences (which is one definition of intelligence as well as imagination), the normal sign of innovation in language as is invention in life” (Newmark, 1980: 125). It is presumable that the translator will reduce metaphors than create them, unless he works on imaginative writing of any kind (football or financial reports as well as poetry) or attempting to enliven a dull, as well as poorly written, text where informative function of language is prominent (ibid). Lakoff & Turner (1989) argued that “to study metaphor is to be confronted with hidden aspects of one's mind and one's culture” (Lakoff & Turner, 1989: 214). Generally speaking, if the SL metaphoric expression translates by an equivalent one in TL, it means the same conceptual metaphor is being used in both cultures. On the contrary (if different linguistic expression is used) two ways may be anticipated: 1) the same conceptual metaphor is being used; 2) different conceptual metaphor is being used. Consequently, it could be assumed that the cognitive strategy for metaphor translation is likely to simplify the whole procedure as it increase the awareness of inventories of cross-domain mapping in SL and TL. Thus, it helps to retain metaphorical expressions in any text type.



Although, theoretical principles of metaphor translation have been formulated, there is no unified theory and no general agreement on central concepts. What we have instead is a multiplicity of approaches, each of which focuses on specific angle. To put it differently, since different cultures classify the world's complexities in different ways, translation from one language to another are often difficult, especially when traditions, symbols, life conditions and methods of experience representation differ between two cultures involved.

### **1.3.3. Applying Frame Theory to Metaphor Translation**

Cognitive linguistics has increasingly focused on the use of metaphors in political discourse in recent years. However, political discourse represents a less explored field in the study of metaphor translation. Despite the fact that different theories and approaches have been proposed with the regard to metaphor translation, each of which has tackled this problem from a different point of view, the phenomenon of conceptual metaphor translation in political discourse has not yet taken much account. This does not mean that conceptual metaphor, let alone political conceptual metaphor, did not know critical translation studies, but these usually overlapped with the other translation approaches towards metaphor and political discourse (Van den Broeck, 1981; Snell-Hornby, 1988; Mandelblit, 1995; Shäffner 2004).

One step closer to the analysis of conceptual metaphor translation, is the current approach to **frames** in political discourse. This term comes from the cognitive science, which is defined as a conceptual structure involved with thinking. It represents a huge diversity of knowledge domains as almost all the contents of human memory are structured in frames. Lakoff (2002) has coined the term “framing” to refer to finding the right language that would help to express the metaphors that underlie our ideas. He states, that “framing is about getting language that fits your worldview. It is not just language. The ideas are primary – and the language carries those ideas, evokes those ideas” (Lakoff, 2004: 4). Lakoff puts forward the example of the word “elephant” that evokes the other frame “which can be an image or other kinds of knowledge” (ibid. 3). The word “elephant” can be associated with the word “animal”, “floppy ears”, “trunk” and etc. Consequently, these words have certain associations of their own. Framing is extremely important when conceptual metaphors are employed in a particular context such as political discourse. Lakoff (2002) argues that the most important consideration in political discourse is how politicians conceptualize, or “frame” the external world in their discourse about it. He suggests that metaphor and frame are the principle organizers of political discourse. Frames are conceptual structures or sets of beliefs that organize

political thought, policies and discourse, and are like thematic counterparts of schematic structure in the perception and analysis of an issue.

Fillmore (1985) is the first to employ a more semantically oriented definition of “frame” as a cognitive unified construct of knowledge or related schematization of experience, which is represented at the conceptual level. It comprises lexical units as well as encyclopedic knowledge. Frame can have its constituents. These constituents are linguistic manifestations or metaphorical expressions (linguistic meaning is seen as a manifestation of conceptual structure). Conceptual metaphor is an abstract rule or mapping connecting two distinct “conceptual domains” the source domain (one area of experience) and the target domain (another area of experience) (Lakoff, 1993: 208). Linguistic manifestation that stands for metaphorical expression (a word, phrase, or sentence) is the surface realization of that cross-domain mapping. It draws upon a general conceptual metaphor. While conceptual metaphors connect conceptual areas, linguistic manifestations provide the bridges between sources and targets of these conceptual areas.

The term “frame” has also been employed by Minsky (1979). He presents frame as cover term for a data-structure representing a stereotyped situation. In order to understand a new situation, a person chooses a certain data from his memory, so that having changed some details, it could be useful while analyzing broader classes of processes or phenomena. Frame is a cognitive structuring device, parts of which are indexed by words associated with it and used in the service of understanding. It is any system of concepts related in such way that to understand one concept it is necessary to understand the entire system. Frame provides the conceptual underpinnings for related senses of a single word and semantically related words.

Taking all these factors into account, I will proceed to the empirical part where the implementation of frame into metaphor translation will be presented.

## **II. The Conceptual Metaphors in Political Discourse and their Rendering from English into Lithuanian in Hillary Rodham Clinton's Autobiography "Living History"**

Following a general theory of frame structuring, the translation analysis of conceptual metaphor in political discourse was subjected to the frame theories suggested by Minsky (1979) and Fillmore (1985) and adapted to the objectives of this study. I have also employed the proposal for establishing conceptual metaphors by questing for the most recurrent thematic units presented by Cibulskienė (2002). In her contrastive research on the conceptual metaphor (POLITICS IS WAR) in political discourse she singled out certain groups of linguistic manifestations: 1) metaphorical verbs and verbal expressions; 2) nominative metaphorical expressions and 3) nominations (the latter is used to characterize people in general). By searching for these linguistic elements she distinguished the conceptual metaphor (in cognitive linguistic metaphor is two-way affair). These linguistic manifestations are “the most frequently recurring metaphorical expressions and nominations motivated by base metaphorical concepts and being in hyperonymical relations” (ibid.: 2). Furthermore, I have applied the notion of “frame” to translation. It helps to analyze whether SL frames have been projected onto TL. A successful projecting can help a reader to draw the correct contextual inferences and that fact is important to the comprehension process. The analyzed material enabled to distinguish the following conceptual metaphors: POLITICS IS WAR, POLITICS IS SPORT, POLITICS IS A JOURNEY, POLITICS IS BUSINESS, POLITICS IS MEDICINE, POLITICS IS THEATRE, POLITICS IS ARCHITECTURE, POLITICS IS HUNTING, and POLITICS IS A GAME. Bearing in mind, that frame is a certain structure of data assigned for understanding a stereotypical situation, it becomes possible to distinguish the linguistic manifestations or metaphorical expressions of the *war, sport, journey, business, medicine, theatre, architecture, hunting and game* frames. These linguistic manifestations have been grouped according to the prescription to the certain conceptual metaphors and their renderings. Having analyzed the material, it was established that while translating conceptual metaphors from English into Lithuanian their frames do not always persist. Distinguished conceptual metaphors have been classified depending on the determined frames and presented according to three proposed renderings:

1. Keeping the same frame (*political expediency – politinio išskaičiavimo; vehement political enemies – aršiausių politinių priešų*). According to this particular translation model, English metaphors are rendered into Lithuanian as metaphors. They can undergo semantic or structural changes. Nevertheless, the main point in using this model that SL frames correspond to TL ones: the Lithuanian rendering can be assigned to the same conceptual metaphor (i.e. the *war* frame: *attacks from Bush campaign – POLITICS IS WAR* and the Lithuanian frame of *karas: Bušo kampanijoje vykdomą puolimą – POLITIKA YRA KARAS – both linguistic manifestations can be assigned to the same frame and the same conceptual metaphor*).

2. Ascribing to the different frame (*escalated the stakes – didino neramumų pavojų; couldn't afford to lose – negalėjo atleisti vadžiu*). This translation model is applied when SL metaphors are translated as different metaphors in terms of frames: TL linguistic elements while rendering do not take the equivalent frame and are attributed to the other conceptual metaphor (i.e. *after several heated rounds – po nervingo apsišaudymo* – the *war* frame in TL instead of the *sport*). From this point of view, examples that in the process of translation take different frames are grouped under this title.
3. Translating as non-metaphor (*had boldly found a way – parodė didžiulį ryžtą; our crew was tame – mūsų komanda buvo lengvai sukalbama*). The final translation model actually consists of two translation patterns. To start with, the base comprises of the metaphors that are translated as ordinary word combinations and do not preserve their stylistic status. Besides, this group contains metaphors which in the process of translation are omitted. As there were very few examples found (only some of the distinguished metaphors were translated in this way) they were assigned to the same translation model and included into the empirical part.

On this basis, I will proceed to the analysis of some of the examples of the chosen corpus that better illustrate the translation of conceptual metaphors related to nine established frames.

### 2.1. The Conceptual Metaphor “POLITICS IS WAR”

POLITICS IS WAR was the most frequent model of the distinguished conceptual metaphors. The linguistic manifestations (or metaphorical expressions) of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS WAR were found 348 times. They accounted for 47,03%. The ample use of them shows that the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS WAR was the most obvious and predominant. That confirms the statement often made in scientific literature that *politics* is generally perceived in terms of *war*. The frame of *war* encompasses *aim of the war, preparation for it, people involved in war, fight, defeat, victory, attack, defense, retreat*. While analyzing conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS WAR metaphorical verbs and verbal expressions, as well as nominative metaphorical expressions and nominations were singled out. Examples of metaphorical verbs and verbal expressions are as follows: *defeat President Bush, Bill would win, defend their policies, probably would lose, White had to retreat, protect the Constitution, fight for the forgotten middle class, respond instantly and effectively to the political attacks, survive a presidential campaign, couldn't afford to lose, his hands were tied, Carter did not carry Indiana, armed with Gephardt's suggestions, failing to overcome the opposition, being sidelined by budgetary battles, outmaneuver the Republicans, was bombarded with questions, people...were calling for Bill's head, topple a President, Chuck*

*Schumer beat Al D'Amato in New York, protect the Constitution, was responsible for recruiting candidates, declared him a winner, and many others. Another group of linguistic expressions consists of nominative metaphorical expressions: crucial victory, strategy (budget reconciliation strategy), piercing power, a knock-down-drag-out fight, easy feat, attacks (outrageous partisan attack, Republican political tactics, relentless attacks, Lazio's attacks), threat, battlegrounds states, target, tactic (new tactic in political warfare, delaying tactic, repressive tactics), struggle (roiling struggle), action, political divide, sidelines, battle (partisan battles, uphill battle, the great budget battle), defenses, political war, enforcing, confronting, armor, battling, a bloody month, betrayal, independent counsel's assault on the Presidency, political pressure, clever ploy, political vulnerability, hired guns of the right wing, array of forces, clash of partisan ideas, and many others. A final cluster of linguistic expressions comprises of nominations: key lieutenants, allies, enmity, political giants, defenders, adversaries, enemies (vehement political enemies, fervent enemies), traitors, winner, partisan (hard-core Republican partisan), opponent (intimidating opponent, formidable opponent, toughest opponent), opposition, emissary (trusted emissary), loser, pundits (right-wing pundits), political foes, unintended victim, commander in chief, rookie candidate, successor, strategist (outstanding strategist, veteran political strategist), veterans of different armies, valiant fighter, political turncoat, combative Republicans and others.*

The conceptual metaphor **POLITICS IS WAR** translation:

### **1. Keeping the same frame**

In this group of examples linguistic manifestations were translated keeping the same frame. In some cases they were identical (i.e. *political fight – politinė kova*). In some case he instances selected in this group preserved elements of *war* whereas semantic structure was different. Only particular elements of SL and TL coincided, however they differed in their structure (i.e. *leadership in combating it – vadovauti kovai šiuo klausimu*):

(1) *Bill Clinton's first election victory as attorney General of Arkansas in 1976 was anticlimactic.* (HRC, 76)

*Pirmoji Bilo Klintono pergalė rinkimuose, kai 1976 metais jis buvo išrinktas Arkanzaso generaliniu prokuroru, nebuvo įsidėmėtina.* (KDB, 76)

(2) *After listening to Bush administration officials defend their policies, he called to tell me how frustrated he was with their prescriptions for economic growth and nearly everything else.* (HRC, 99)

*Išklausęs kaip Bušo administracija gina savo politiką, jis man paskambino ir pasakė, kad jį nuvylė jų siūlymai, kaip pakelti ekonomiką, ir beveik viskas, ką jie kalbėjo.* (KDB, 99)

(3) *When Governor White tried to make good on his 1980 campaign promise to dismantle the network, people flooded into the Capitol to protest, and **White had to retreat.*** (HRC, 94)

*Kai gubernatorius Vaitas per 1980 metų kampaniją pažadėjo išardyti klinikų tinklą, manydamas palenkti rinkėjus, žmonės užplūdo Kapitolį su protestais ir **Vaitui teko atsitraukti.*** (KDB, 94)

(4) *Behind his rhetoric were the specific plans that Bill would present during the course of the primary campaign to persuade Democratic voters that he had the best chance to **defeat President Bush.*** (HRC, 102)

*Už šios retorikos slypėjo ypatingi planai, kuriuos Bilas pristatė pirminių rinkimų kampanijos metu, įtikinėdamas demokratų rinkėjus, kad jis turi daugiausia galimybių **įveikti prezidentą Bušą.*** (KDB, 102)

(5) *Do we want to **establish a precedent for the future harassment of presidents and to tie up our government** with a protracted national agony of search and accusation?* (HRC, 487)

*Ar mes norime **sukurti precedentą prezidentų puldinėjimui ateityje ir surišti rankas mūsų vyriausybei** pasmerkdami ją ilgalaikėms visą tautą kankinančioms įkalčių paieškomis ir kaltinimams?* (KDB, 487)

(6) *His plea bargain signaled a **new escalation on the Whitewater battlefield,** and it was hard to take.* (HRC, 267)

*Jo derybos dėl kaltinimų pripažinimo reiškė **ugnies atnaujinimą Vaitvoterio lauke.*** (KDB, 267)

(7) *I spoke of the courage of the Mongolian people and their leadership, urging them to **continue their struggle toward democracy.*** (HRC, 310)

*Kalbėjau apie Mongolijos žmonių ir jų vadovybės drąsą, ragindama juos **tęsti kovą už demokratiją.*** (KDB, 309)

(8) ***The fight was not over, but the field was shifting.*** (HRC, 320)

***Mūšis dar nebuvo baigtas, tačiau pozicijos pasikeitė.*** (KDB, 320)

This group of examples regarding the *war* frame consists of 314 instances, accounting for 90,23% of all the metaphor POLITICS IS WAR translation occurrences. The amount of linguistic manifestations translated keeping the same frame indicates that this is the biggest set of all analyzed in this research.

## **2. Ascribing to the different frame**

Another subgroup is made of the linguistic manifestations that were translated into Lithuanian the *war* frame changing with another one. While taking different frames the linguistic elements attributed to the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS WAR in the process of translation perfectly revealed the meaning intended by author in the original:

(1) <...> and **he couldn't afford to lose** whatever political monument he had at the beginning of the new administration. (HRC, 149)

<...> tad **nė už ką negalėjo atleisti vadžių** pačioje savo naujos administracijos darbo pradžioje. (KDB, 149)

(2) George Stephanopoulos, a Rhodes Scholar and aide to Congressman Richard Gephardt, figured out how to respond instantly and effectively to the political attacks and to **seize the offensive with the press**. (HRC, 103)

Džordžas Stefanopulas, Rodso stipendininkas ir kongresmeno Ričardo Gefarto patarėjas, planuodavo staigų ir veiksmingą atsaką į politines atakas ir **neutralizuodavo žiniasklaidos ofenzivas**. (KDB, 103)

(3) Bill worked hard to **win French cooperation**. (HRC, 338)

Tačiau Bilas itin stengėsi **palenkti Prancūziją bendradarbiauti**. (KDB, 338)

(4) The Republicans were hammering on the usual issues: **bashing big-spending liberals** <...>. (HRC, 364)

Respublikonai toliau stūmė pirmyn vis tuos pačius klausimus – kaip **sutramdyti lėšas švaistančius liberalus**, <...>. (KDB, 364)

(5) Laughing at myself was an essential survival tool, and preferable the alternative of **climbing back into the bunker** <...>. (HRC, 266)

Juoktis iš savęs buvo pagrindinė išlikimo priemonė, kurią pasirinkdavau kur kas dažniau nei kitą alternatyvą – **nulįsti į pogrindį** <...>. (KDB, 266)

(6) More politically vulnerable than Medicare because the poor are less **politically powerful** than the elderly, it has been a godsend for many Americans, especially children and pregnant women. (HRC, 146)

Nors ir labiau politiškai pažeidžiama nei „Medicare“ programa, kadangi neturtėlių **politinis svoris** mažesnis už senyvų žmonių, „Medicaid“ programa buvo tarsi dovana daugybei amerikiečių, ypač vaikams ir nėščioms moterims. (KDB, 146)

(7) The campaign he wanted to run would be “about ideas, not slogans” and would offer “leadership that will restore the American dream, **fight for the forgotten middle class**, provide more opportunity, demand responsibility from each of us <...>”. (HRC, 102)

Jis nori, kad jo kampanijoje būtų dėstomos „idėjos, o ne šūkiei“, ir galiis pažadėti „vadovavimą, kuris atgaivins amerikietišką svajonę, **rems vidurinę klasę**, suteiks daugiau galimybių, pareikalaus didesnės kiekvieno iš mūsų <...>“. (KDB, 102)

(8) **He also had recently been grilled by the House Ethics Committee** for ethical lapses. (HRC, 395)



*Neseniai Etikos komitetas tarkavo jį už nusizengimus etikai.* (KDB, 395)

It was the least popular translation model within this metaphor. This group contains only 10 examples. They account for only 2,87% of all the metaphor of *war* translation occurrences and make up the minority in its cluster. Analyzing these cases of metaphor translation there was no tendency observed in choosing frames. In some cases when rendering from English into Lithuanian the sentences took the aforementioned frames (i.e. *politically powerful – politinis svoris, fight for the forgotten middle class - remis vidurinę klasę; business frame*) or absolutely different ones that were not identified in the study (i.e. *he couldn't afford to lose – nè už ką negalėjo atleisti vadžiu*). Regardless of this fact (usage of different frame), translations did reveal the figurative meaning and kept very close to the source text.

### **3. Translating as non-metaphor**

The last set of linguistic manifestations was translated as ordinary phrases or word combinations that can be met in everyday language (i.e. *defended U.S. participation – pareikšdamas, jog JAV savo dalyvavimu*). Occasionally, while rendering these phrases or words were simply omitted (i.e. *well-organized opposition from the AMA – gerai organizuota AMA*):

(1) *He had sent two of his top lieutenants, Jody Powell and Frank More, to Fayetteville to help in Bill's 1974 campaign <...>.* (HRC, 76)

*Per 1974 metų Bilo kampaniją jam į pagalbą Karteris buvo atsiuntęs į Fajetvilį du iš pagrindinių savo padėjėjų, Džudę Pauel ir Frenką Murą <...>.* (KDB, 76)

(2) *Getting the legislature to approve and fund the reform package turned into a knock-down-drag-out fight among interest groups.* (HRC, 94)

*Kai įstatymų leidėjams buvo pateiktas reformos projektas, siūlant jį patvirtinti ir finansuoti, tarp skirtingų interesų grupių kilo baisios rietenos.* (KDB, 95)

(3) *On the Hill, Republicans had mounted a filibuster in the Senate and defeated the President's stimulus package.* (HRC, 170)

*Ant Kapitolio kalvos respublikonai Senate suorganizavo obstrukciją ir atmetė prezidento pateiktą ekonomikos kėlimo projektą.* (KDB, 169)

(4) *They understood that I was directly confronting the Republican's radical individualism.* (HRC, 376)

*Jie suprato ir tai, kad aš tiesiogiai prabilau apie radikalų respublikonų individualizmą.* (KDB, 377)

(5) *The Slovak people voted him out of the office in September 1998, with considerable help from NGO's, which mobilized the electorate to vote in favor for change.* (HRC, 361)

1998 metų rugsėjo mėnesį slovakai nubalsavo už jo pašalinimą iš premjero posto, aktyviai remiami ne vyriausybinių organizacijų, kurios **sutelkė rinkėjus** balsuoti už permainas (KDB, 361).

(6) *When Bill nominated Dick to be Ambassador in June of 1998, Dick's detractors **tried to torpedo his appointment**.* (HRC, 454)

Kai 1998 metų birželio mėnesį Bilas paskyrė Diką ambasadoriumi, jo priešininkai **ėmė trukdyti kaip beišmanė**. (KDB, 454)

(7) *He, too, was thwarted by well-financed and well-organized **opposition** from the AMA, the U.S. Chamber of Commerce and others who opposed national health insurance on ideological grounds, <...>.* (HRC, 145)

Jam taip pat rankas surišo finansiškai stipri ir gerai organizuota AMA, Jungtinių Valstijų prekybos rūmai ir kiti, kurie priešinosi nacionaliniam sveikatos draudimui, <...>. (KDB, 145)

(8) *<...> Bill defused the issue and **defended U.S. participation** as important for women's rights.* (HRC, 300)

<...> Bilas išsklaidė tebetvyrančią įtampą **pareikšdamas, jog JAV savo dalyvavimu gerokai prisidės sprendžiant reikšmingus moterų statuso pasaulyje klausimus**. (KDB, 301)

This group of examples consists of 24 linguistic manifestations that were rendered as non-metaphors, accounting for 6,98% of all the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS WAR translation occurrences. It took the second position in this metaphor set. Metaphors did not preserve their stylistic status and they did not reveal the figurative meaning. Nevertheless, translators kept very close to the source text. To illustrate the proportion of translation cases of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS WAR the *Figure 2* is presented:

#### POLITICS IS WAR

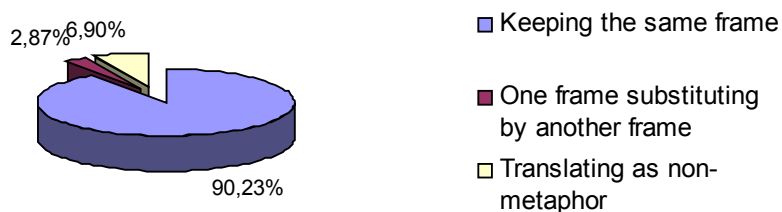


Figure 2. The proportion of translation cases of conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS WAR

The analysis of translation of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS WAR showed that 314 instances of metaphorical expressions were translated keeping the same frame, 10 of them took the other frame and only 24 were translated as non-metaphor. The *Figure 2* shows that in quantitative terms, the metaphor translation model of keeping the same frame prevails whereas the quantitative gap between the remaining two (ascribing to the different frame and translating as non-metaphor) is comparatively little. These figures also indicate that SL frames were mainly projected onto TL linguistic elements. Taking all these factors into account, the following metaphor while rendering into Lithuanian generally preserves the same frame and its calques can be assigned to the same conceptual metaphor.

## **2.2. The Conceptual Metaphor “POLITICS IS SPORT”**

The next less frequent conceptual metaphor than the above-mentioned was POLITICS IS SPORT. *Sport* is the other common source of metaphor in politics. In quantitative terms, this metaphor took the third place in this research. Nonetheless, the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS SPORT spans one of the richest set of examples that draws upon the frame of *sport*. The linguistic manifestations of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS A JOURNEY were found 81 times. All of them accounted for 10,95%. This frame involves *fight (some sort of physical contests), defeat, victory, opponents, teams, winnings*. The linguistic manifestations of this particular metaphor were found 81 times. While analyzing the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS SPORT a considerable number of metaphorical verbs and verbal expressions, as well as nominative metaphorical expressions and nominations were distinguished. Instances of metaphorical verbs and verbal expressions might be: *we had started the trek, watch from the sidelines, regained the momentum by confronting the opponent, competed for scoops, we might have been slow out of the gate, ran into the same political obstacles, he had won the election in a three-way race, win the contest, run a winning political campaign, overcome barriers to peace, list of hurdles I would face, I had no plans to drop out of the race, gained traction* and many others. Besides, a number of nominative metaphorical expressions were used: *national run, a young person's game, political race, team (economic team, national security team, talented team, Bill's legal team), opponent, risk, heated round, tactical mistake, score, dismissed, hurdle (unanticipated hurdle), campaign marathon, Lazio's confrontational ploy* and others. The frame of *sport* encompasses following nominations: *GOP contender, key supporter, secret patrons, political opponents, rival adviser, outsider, player, winner, loser, strong challenger, rookie candidate, successor* and others. Some of them overlap

(*opponent*) with the nominations of the afore-discussed metaphor. Speaking generally, this tendency (overlapping of nominations) will be observed in nearly all conceptual metaphors of this research.

The conceptual metaphor **POLITICS IS SPORT** translation:

### **1. Keeping the same frame**

This metaphor cluster as the afore-mentioned one contains examples that were translated maintaining the same frame. Some of them were rendered word-for-word and did not experience any losses (i.e. *huge political challenge – milžiniškas politinis iššūkis*). The others on the other hand underwent changes in their structure (i.e. *we had started the trek – mes stojome prie starto linijos*). Nevertheless, this translation pattern kept the same frame:

(1) *After years as a political spouse, I had no idea **whether I could step from the sidelines into the arena**, but I began to think that I might enjoy an independent role in politics.* (HRC, 501)

*Ilgus metus buvusi politiko žmona, neturėjau supratimo, **ar galiu nuo atsarginių suoloelio žengti į aikštę**, tačiau pradėjau galvoti, kad man gali patikti savarankiškas vaidmuo politikoje.* (KDB, 501)

(2) *Bill started his two-year term with the energy of a **racehorse exploding from the gate**.* (HRC, 8)

*Savo dvejų metų kadenciją Bilas pradėjo kaip **lenktyninis arklys, nenustygstantis žiūrovų akivaizdoje**.* (KDB, 83)

(3) *He also **regained the momentum** by confronting the opponent who had bluntly declared his presidency “irrelevant”.* (HRC, 288)

*Jis **atgavo pagreitį** susidurdamas su priešininku, kuris tiesiai šviesiai pavadino jo prezidentavimą “nereikšmingu”.* (KDB, 288)

(4) ***We might have been slow out of the gate**, but we were gaining speed.* (HRC, 203)

***Startavome pavėlavę**, bet pamažu įsibėgėjome.* (KDB, 203)

(5) *The man who had lived to campaign had **finally reached the finish line in his last race**.* (HRC, 379)

*Tas, kas sulaukė antrosios kampanijos, **faktiškai pasiekė lenktynių finišo tiesiają**.* (KDB, 378)

(6) ***We had started the trek**.* (HRC, 188)

***Mes stojome prie starto linijos**.* (KDB, 188)

(7) *For months Clinton has been waiting for the **GOP contender** who would turn the '96 race into a real battle.* (HRC, 371)

*Mėnesių mėnesiais Klintonas laukė **varžovų iš Senosios gerosios partijos**, kuris paverstų 1996-ųjų rungtynes tikru mūšiu.* (KDB, 371)

This translation model of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS SPORT consist of 27 instances and forms 33,33% of all its translation occurrences. In quantitative terms, the amount of linguistic manifestations translated keeping the same frame is not the biggest one. Bearing in mind that examples translated under the same frame dominated in all established conceptual metaphors, this is the main difference between this particular metaphor and the remaining ones.

## **2. Ascribing to the different frame**

The second group of linguistic elements was rendered into TL by changing the frame of *sport* with the other one (i.e. ***hardball politics – negailestingai politinei kovai***). While rendering into Lithuanian the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS SPORT retained the intended meaning and sound naturally:

(1) *Against this backdrop, Bill **forged ahead with his agenda** through-out the first half of 1998, battling with “the gang of three: - Gingrich, Delay and Dick Armeý <...>. (HRC, 452)*

*Tokiame fone Bilas visą pirmąją 1998 metų pusę **toliau kovėsi už savo programą**, susiremdamas su šauniaja trijule – Gingriču, Delėjumi ir Diku Armiu. (KDB, 452)*

(2) *“**Dare to compete**, Mrs. Clinton,” she said. “**Dare to compete.**” (HRC, 501)*

*– **Nebijokit kovoti**, ponija Klinton. **Nebijokit kovoti.** (KDB, 501)*

(3) *Despite all the good advice we had received and all the time Bill and I had spent in the political arena, we were unprepared for the **hardball politics** and relentless scrutiny that comes with a run for the Presidency. (HRC, 102)*

*Nepaisant visų gerų patarimų, kurių gavome per politikos arenoje praleistą laiką, mes su Bilu buvome nepasiruošę **negailestingai politinei kovai** ir nepaliaujamam knaisiojimuisi po asmeninį gyvenimą, kuris prasideda stojus į kovą už prezidento postą. (KDB, 102)*

(4) *David Wilhelm, who became campaign manager, was from Chicago and intuitively understood how to **win the contest for delegates on the ground, person by person.** (HRC, 103)*

*Deividas Vilhelmas, kuris tapo kampanijos vadybininku, buvo kilęs iš Čikagos ir intuityviai suvokė, kaip **pasiiekti pergalę kovojant** už kiekvieno delegato paramą. (KDB, 103)*

(5) *After several heated rounds back and forth, Bill, exhausted, had heard enough. (HRC, 215)*

***Po nervingo apsišaudymo** dėstant skirtingas nuomones Bilas, visiškai nukamuotas, jau buvo pakankamai išgirdęs. (KDB, 215)*

(6) ***Standing on the sidelines**, unable to speak out to defend my friends and colleagues, <...>, was one of the hardest things I’ve ever done. (HRC, 297)*

***Būti nustumtai**, bijoti prasižioti ir apginti savo draugus bei kolegas <...> buvo sunkiausias iš kada nors man tekusių išmėginimų. (KDB, 297)*

(7) <...> and he **couldn't afford to lose** whatever political monument he had at the beginning of the new administration. (HRC, 149)

<...> tad nè už ką **negalėjo atleisti vadžių** pačioje savo naujos administracijos darbo pradžioje. (KDB, 149)

This group contains 34 instances that make up the majority, accounting for 41,98% of all the *sport* metaphor translation occurrences. Unlike the metaphor POLITICS IS WAR, translation of linguistic manifestations assigned to that particular group was tendentious. Generally, while rendering from English into Lithuanian the sentences took the frame of *war* (i.e. **after several heated rounds – po nervingo apsišaudymo, dare to compete – nebijokit kovoti**), because *sport* involves similar concepts of *fight, opponents, winners, losers, victory*, etc. In some cases, the sentences took desultory frames (**standing on the sidelines – būti nustumtai, couldn't afford to lose – negalėjo atleisti vadžių**). These examples make up the minority. Having in mind, that translation of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS SPORT in this group usually maintained the frame of *war*, the essence of the sentence remained the same and the meaning was fully revealed.

### 3. Translating as non-metaphor

The final cluster of linguistic manifestations was translated as ordinary phrases or word combinations (i.e. **campaign marathon – rinkimų kampanija, false starts – nepasisekusių mėginimų**). In few cases while rendering these phrases or words were omitted (i.e. *he was surveying the political landscape with an eye toward a national run – jis nori susipažinti su politiniu peizažu*):

(1) *George Stephanopoulos was distraught that Bill would listen to a political turncoat like Morris and was unhappy about having to compete with a rival adviser.* (HRC, 289)

*Džordžas Stefanopulas negalėjo patikėti, kad Bilas klausytų tokio išverstakailio kaip Morisas ir buvo laimingas, kad jam teks konkuruoti su kitu patarėju.* (KDB, 289)

(2) *I spent the fall crisscrossing the country on a campaign marathon.* (HRC, 481)

*Rudenį praleidau skersai ir išilgai važinėdama po šalį su rinkimų kampanija.* (KDB, 481)

(3) *It was important to duplicate whatever I had done in Pakistan, lest I offend either country since I knew that both kept score.* (HRC, 277)

*Svarbiausia buvo visa padaryti lygiai taip kaip Pakistane, kad neužgaučiau kokios nors šalies, kas neabejojau neliks nepastebėta.* (KDB, 277)

(4) *At long last, after decades of false starts, we must make this our most urgent priority <...>.* (HRC, 188)

Po ilgus dešimtmečius trukusių **nepasisekusių mėginimų** pradėti šį darbą mes pagaliau turime imtis šio pirmos būtinybės reikalo <...>. (KDB, 188)

(5) <...> a sure sign he was surveying the political landscape with an eye toward a **national run**. (HRC, 76)

<...> tai buvo ženklas, kad jis nori susipažinti su politiniu peizažu. (KDB, 76)

(6) Because Democrats hadn't had a **winner** in sixteen years, everyone wanted to participate. (HRC, 125)

Kadangi šešiolika metų demokratai neturėjo **savo prezidento**, visi norėjo dalyvauti parade. (KDB, 125)

(7) Although **he had won reelection as Speaker of the House**, he had lost his national popularity and lost ground in the House. (HRC, 395)

Nors **jį dar kartą išrinko Atstovų rūmų pirmininku**, jis prarado populiarumą tautoje, prarado tvirtą atramą Rūmuose. (KDB, 395)

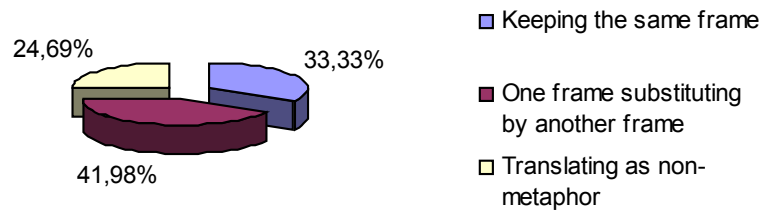
(8) **He had won the election in a three-way race** with less than a majority of the popular vote – 43 percent <...>. (HRC, 149)

**Jis laimėjo rinkimus tik po trečio etapo** ir mažiau nei puse – 43 procentais – balsų iš bendro rinkėjų skaičiaus <...>. (KDB, 149)

This group of examples consists of 20 linguistic manifestations that were rendered as non-metaphors. They make 24,69% of all the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS SPORT translation occurrences. Though the English metaphor per se was not retained in the Lithuanian rendering, the translator employed other means which still revealed the meaning intended by the author. Tendentiously, this translation model is the least popular within this metaphor and make up the minority.

The closer study of translation of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS SPORT shows that 27 instances of metaphorical expressions were translated keeping the same frame, 34 of them took the other frame and 20 were translated as non-metaphor. To have a full picture of obtained results, consider *Figure 3*:

## POLITICS IS SPORT



*Figure 3. The proportion of translation cases of conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS SPORT*

The *Figure 3* shows that in quantitative terms, actually, there is no one prevailing metaphor translation model. Obviously, more frequently metaphors were translated one frame substituting by another frame, however, the quantitative gap is relatively small. Linguistic evidence shows that the following metaphor while rendering into Lithuanian may vary. It can quite equally be rendered by using the same frame, different one or as non-metaphor. Obviously, that the second group of examples prevails, but it does not make the great majority though. As more than the half of the translation cases did not correspond (in terms of frame), I can state, that the *sport* frame frequently activates different frames.

### **2.3. The Conceptual Metaphor “POLITICS IS A JOURNEY”**

The second most predominant conceptual metaphor was POLITICS IS A JOURNEY that encompasses *goals, directions, travelers, destinations, routes, obstacles, guides, landmarks, and ways of traveling*. The linguistic manifestations of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS A JOURNEY were found 89 times. This group of examples accounted for 12,03%. Having distinguished the most recurrent thematic units in Hillary Rodham Clinton’s book, it was established that the author conceptualizes *politics* not only in terms of *war* and *sport*, but also in terms of *journey*. While analyzing conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS A JOURNEY the same three



groups of linguistic elements were singled out. The first set of instances consists of metaphorical verbs and verbal expressions. They might be as follows: *chart a different direction, scaling the Mount Everest, he had the political will to move forward, muddy the political waters, what a steep mountain we were climbing, we were trying to move too quickly, who will lead us out of this spiritual vacuum, jump start the economy, overcome barriers to peace, outlined the steps he would take, had opened the floodgates, obstacles I would face, I took first concrete steps necessary for a Senate campaign, encouraged me to forge ahead, take first steps toward a race for the Senate, after trailing Giuliani for months, he misled the country, avoid government gridlock*, and many others. Another group comprises of nominative metaphorical expressions: *courageous path, rough patches, campaign trail, perfect political storms, whirlwind, roadblocks, arcana of public policy, quagmires, treacherous waters (treacherous waters of Russian politics, the treacherous waters of New York politics), slippery slope, throwback to a discredited past, political danger, dangerous standoff, New York political landscape, partisan political climate, vicissitudes of a New York Senate campaign, shifting sands of New York politics, misleading statements, political landscape* and others. The last group is made up of nominations. Comparing with the above-mentioned (of *war* and *sport*) its list is considerably shorter: *leader (a prime leader in education, civic leader), political wunderkind, carpetbagger, towering figure* and some others.

The conceptual metaphor **POLITICS IS A JOURNEY** translation:

### **1. Keeping the same frame**

In this set of examples linguistic manifestations were translated keeping the same frame of *journey*. Some of these instances were totally equivalent in the target text (i.e. ***who will lead us out of this spiritual vacuum – kas mus išves iš dvasinio vakuumo***). The rest experienced some structural changes (i.e. ***put our nation on the path to fiscal responsibility in government – leido mūsų tautai pasukti nauju taku, kuris vedė į išdo mokumą***). The most important thing within this translation model is correspondence of the frame that allows assigning selected linguistic elements to it:

(1) *There was no question that we would vote and then wait for the returns to Arkansas, **where Bill's journey to the White House had begun.*** (HRC, 378)

*Nė neabejodami nusprendėme, jog atidavę savo balsus lauksime rezultatų Arkanzase, **kur prasidėjo Bilo kelionė į Baltuosius rūmus.*** (KDB, 378)

(2) *They worked with Bill forge the economic policy that **put our nation on the path to fiscal responsibility in government and unprecedented growth in the private sector.*** (HRC, 118)

*Jie kartu su Bilu sudarė ekonominės politikos metmenis, kurie leido mūsų tautai pasukti nauju taku, kuris vedė į išdo mokumą ir iki tol neregėtą privataus sektoriaus augimą.* (KDB, 118)

(3) *As I thought about my own tomorrows, I was excited about serving in the Senate but also overcome by nostalgia for the **people who had been part of our journey**, especially those who were no longer with us.* (HRC, 527)

*Mąstydamą apie savo pačios rytdieną, jutau pakilų jaudulį dėl manęs laukiančio darbo Senate, tačiau taip pat liūdėjau prisiminusi tuos žmones, kurie lydėjo mano kelionėje, ypač tuos, kurių su mumis jau nebuvo.* (KDB, 527)

(4) *He knew the Republicans didn't have the necessary votes to override a presidential veto, and he urged them to soften their positions and negotiate with the White house to **break the impasse**.* (HRC, 325)

*Jis žinojo, kad respublikonams pritrūks balsų, kad jie sustabdytų prezidento veto, o tai paakino juos sušvelninti savo pozicijas ir leisti į derybas su Baltaisiais rūmais, kad visi išbristų iš aklavietės.* (KDB, 325)

(5) *Who will lead us out of this spiritual vacuum?* (HRC, 161)

*Kas mus išves iš dvasinio vakuumo?* (KDB, 161)

(6) *I realized that attacks on our reputations could jeopardize the work Bill was doing to **set the country on a different track**.* (HRC, 208)

*Supratau, kad bandymai suteršti gerą vardą kelia pavojų Bilo pastangoms vesti šalį kitu keliu.* (KDB, 207)

(7) *Like veterans of different armies from an old war, we began our journey wary of each other.* (HRC, 279)

*Tarsi priešišku jau seniai kariaujančių armijų veteranai, mes dar tik kilome į kelionę, o jau buvome vieni kitiems įkyrėję.* (KDB, 279)

(8) *Slowly, I was learning **what a steep mountain we were climbing**.* (HRC, 153)

*Palengva ėmiau suprasti, į kokį statų kalną mes užsimojome kopti.* (KDB, 153)

This group of examples regarding the *journey* frame consists of 77 instances. They account for 88,52 of its translation occurrences. The linguistic manifestations ascribed to the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS A JOURNEY were mainly translated projecting the same frame onto TL linguistic elements. It is obvious that *journey* frame activates the relevant frame in the Lithuanian rendering. Generally speaking, this is the predominant type of rendering observed in the research (keeping the same frame).

## **2. Ascribing to the different frame**

Other examples of linguistic manifestations illustrate that the frame of *journey* while rendering was also substituted by another one (i.e. *had lost steam – prarado pagreičio, we were trying to move too quickly – mes per greitai stengėmės kurti projektą*). In the process of translation this political conceptual metaphor retained the meaning of the source text:

(1) *We were trying to move too quickly on a bill that would fundamentally alter American social and economic policy for years to come.* (HRC, 154)

*Mes per greitai stengėmės kurti projektą, kuris fundamentaliai pakeistų ateinančio laikotarpio Amerikos socialinę ir ekonominę politiką.* (KDB, 154)

(2) *He completely changed his tune when he led the Republican charge for Bill's impeachment.* (HRC, 450)

*Tačiau jis visai pakeitė dainelę, diriguodamas respublikonų kaltinimams, kai buvo pareikalauta apkaltos.* (KDB, 450)

(3) *But the question confronting each of them was how to invigorate a progressive movement that had lost steam through much of the 1970s and 1980s, <...>.* (HRC, 423)

*Abiem jiems teko spręsti klausimą, kaip įkvėpti gyvybės pažangiam judėjimui, kuris gerokai prarado pagreičio 8-ajame ir 9-ajame dešimtmetyje <...>.* (KDB, 423)

(4) *Bill has an uncanny ability to see down the road in politics.* (HRC, 288)

*Bilas pasižymi nepaaiškinamu politinės toliaregystės talentu.* (KDB, 288)

(5) *It was an ambitious September schedule, and we couldn't afford more roadblocks.* (HRC, 185)

*Taigi įgyvendinti rugsėjo darbotvarkę buvo ne juokas ir mes negalėjome leisti, kad dar kas nors kaišiotų pagalius į ratus.* (KDB, 185)

(6) *Corazon Aquino, <...>, had led the way in restoring democracy in her country.* (HRC, 388)

*Demokratijos atkūrimui šalyje vadovavo Korason Akino, <...>.* (KDB, 388)

This group contains only 7 linguistic manifestations, accounting for 8,89% of all the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS A JOURNEY translation occurrences. Its rendering did not allow distinguishing one or a couple of predominant frames. Nearly every sentence took different ones. Nevertheless, the TL sentences preserved the meaning intended by the author.

### **3. Translating as non-metaphor**

The final group of linguistic manifestations was translated as non-metaphors (ordinary phrases or word combinations) (i.e. *made a forceful last-ditch plea – ėmė dėstyti įtikinamus bekompromisius*

*argumentus*). There were no examples found that in the process of translation those phrases or word combinations would have been omitted:

(1) *Franklin D. Roosevelt had boldly found a way to give older Americans economic security through the Social Security program.* (HRC, 187)

*Franklinas D. Ruzveltas parodė didžiulį ryžtą vyresnio amžiaus amerikiečiams suteikti ekonominį saugumą įgyvendindamas socialinės apsaugos programą.* (KDB, 187)

(2) *<...>, that gruff and gritty old-school pol from Chicago graveled the House ways and Means Committee to order and introduced me.* (HRC, 189)

*<...> seno sukirpimo politikos veikėjas iš Čikagos, taukštelėjo plaktuku skelbdamas posėdžio pradžių ir pristatė mane Biudžeto finansų priežiūros komitetui.* (KDB, 189)

(3) *Then Bernie Nussbaum made a forceful last-ditch plea for his position.* (HRC, 214)

*Tada Bernis Nusbaumas, gindamas savo poziciją, ėmė dėstyti įtikinamus bekompromisius argumentus.* (KDB, 215)

(4) *<...> and then misleading the committee about funding, Gingrich claimed it was innocent mistake and blamed his lawyer.* (HRC, 395)

*<...> o paskui neteisingai informuodavo komitetą, iš kur gavęs pinigų, Gingričas tvirtino, jog tai nekalta klaida, ir kaltino savo advokatą.* (KDB, 395)

This group of examples consists only of 4 linguistic manifestations that were rendered as non-metaphors. They form only 4,49% and clearly make up the minority. All of them have been presented in the empirical part. Having found only several examples of this translation model, I can maintain, that the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS A JOURNEY rendering as ordinary phrase is a rare occurrence.

Altogether, the analysis of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS A JOURNEY showed that 77 instances of metaphorical expressions were translated keeping the same frame, 8 of them took the other frame and only 4 were translated as non-metaphor. To capture the quantitative difference among three proposed translation models the *Figure 4* is presented:

#### POLITICS IS A JOURNEY

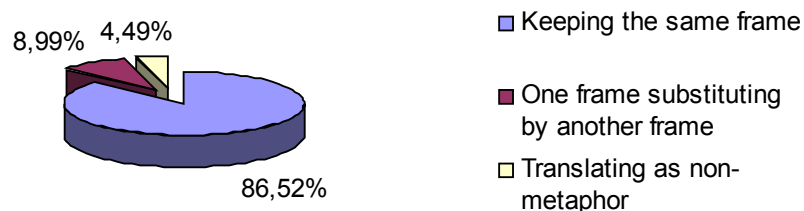


Figure 4. The proportion of translation cases of conceptual metaphor *POLITICS IS A JOURNEY*

The *Figure 4* shows that in quantitative terms, the metaphor translation model of keeping the same frame prevails whereas metaphor translation models of the remaining two (ascribing to the different frame and translating as non-metaphor) are nearly equally infrequent. What all these examples show is that the following metaphor while rendering into Lithuanian generally maintained the same frame and its Lithuanian translation patterns can be assigned to the same conceptual metaphor. It means that the *journey* frame in most cases was rendered likewise.

#### **2.4. The Conceptual Metaphor “POLITICS IS BUSINESS”**

In sections 2.1., 2.2. and 2.3. I have introduced the conceptual metaphors of *war*, *sport* and *journey* that can be put in one group according to the amount of examples attributed to them. Having distinguished the most recurrent metaphorical expressions, it was established that *politics* is also viewed from the perspective of *business*. Examples of linguistic manifestations reveal one more conceptual metaphor *POLITICS IS BUSINESS*. The frame of *business* includes *negotiations*, *agreements*, *deals*, *dealers* and etc. The linguistic manifestations of this metaphor were found 60

times. They accounted for 8,11%. The first group is made up of instances of metaphorical verbs and verbal expressions: *capitalized, U.S. was also benefiting, negotiations were hard fought, a big political price to pay for supporting his President, had Bill in his pocket, prize throughout our struggle, weighed in the President's decision, would incur huge political costs, dealing with Adams and Sinn Fein made sense, integrity of the Constitution hung in the balance, while Bill was negotiating with foreign leaders abroad, avert a meltdown, sought to exploit the process, we owed it to our system of government, offset Giuliani's national profile and his party's deep pockets, the prospects for peace in the Middle East suffered irreparable losses, weigh the options, was paying off in growing support*, and many others. In addition to the mentioned metaphorical verbs and verbal phrases, a considerable number of nominative metaphorical expressions were picked up: *retail politics, leverage, deal, support, shared enterprise, plea bargain, risk, pay, political capital, terrible setbacks, negotiations, political expediency, business, prize, agreements, bargain, political windfall, reservoirs of intellectual capital, tribute, emotional costs of a lengthy campaign, political instincts* and others. The last group is set up of nominations. The *business* frame encompasses the following ones: *political partner, opponent, political experts, backers, supporter (steadfast supporters), patrons, political pundits, intellectual giants, moderate Republicans, political director* and others. Some of these nominations could be easily ascribed to the other frames (*political pundits, intellectual giants, political director*) what proves that a lot of them overlap.

The conceptual metaphor **POLITICS IS BUSINESS** translation:

### **1. Keeping the same frame**

Looking at the examples of the conceptual metaphor **POLITICS IS BUSINESS** again two-way translation was elicited. In certain cases the instances were rendered as absolute equivalents (i.e. *retail politics – mažmenine politika*) and the others with some particular semantic and structural changes (i.e. *might be able to offset Giuliani's national profile and his party's deep pockets - galėtų atsvėrti Džuliano pelnytą visuomeninio masto reputaciją ir galias jo partijos kišenes*). In all cases the Lithuanian translation maintains the same frame of *business*:

(1) *I believed that we needed to distinguish between holding our ground when we were in the right and giving it to **political expediency** and pressure from the press.* (HRC, 214)

*Mano įsitikinimu reikia skirti du dalykus: kai laikaisi savos pozicijos būdamas teišus ir kai nusileidi dėl **politinio išskaičiavimo** ir žiniasklaidos spaudimo.* (KDB, 214)

(2) *Bill had done just that, but there was a **big political price to pay** for supporting his President.* (HRC, 89)

*Bilas tai ir darė, tačiau už tai, kad palaikė savo prezidentą, **sumokėjo didžiulę politinę kainą.*** (KDB, 89)

(3) *His opponent in the primary election was a seventy-eight-year-old retired turkey farmer, Monroe Schwarzlose, who <...> **capitalized** the impression of some that Bill was “out of touch” with Arkansas.* (HRC, 88)

*Jo konkurentas per pirminius rinkimus buvo septyniasdešimt aštuonerių metų fermeris pensininkas Monro Švarclosas, kuris <...> **susikrovė politinį kapitalą** kurdamas įspūdį, kad Bilas neva prarado ryšį su Arkanzaso žmonėmis.* (KDB, 88)

(4) *Campaign professionals call this “**retail politics**”, but it me, it was the best way to stay in touch with people’s everyday concerns.* (HRC, 511)

*Kampanijos profesionalai tai vadina „**mažmenine politika**“, tačiau man tai buvo geriausias būdas neatitolti nuo žmonių kasdienių rūpesčių.* (KDB, 511)

(5) ***Democracy requires large reservoirs of intellectual capital to continue the extraordinary enterprise of our nation’s founders, intellectual giants** whose imaginations and philosophical principles enabled them to envision, and then device, our enduring system of government.* (HRC, 461)

***Demokratija reikalauja didžiulių intelektualinio kapitalo atsargų,** kad būtų pratęstas mūsų tėvų, **intelektualinių milžinų** užmojis; tai jų vaizduotė ir filosofiniai principai leido jiems pirmiausia mintyse, paskui realiai sukurti valdymo sistemą, kuri visiems laikams tiktų mūsų šaliai.* (KDB, 461)

(6) *In a sense, I was a desperation choice – a well known public figure who **might be able to offset Giuliani’s national profile and his party’s deep pockets.*** (HRC, 495)

*Tam tikra prasme mano kandidatūros pasirinkimas buvo desperatiškas – aš buvau gerai žinoma visuomenei figūra, kuri **galėtų atverti Džuliano pelnytą visuomeninio masto reputaciją ir gilią jo partijos kišenes.*** (KDB, 495)

(7) *To do otherwise, they argued, **would incur huge political costs** <...>.* (HRC, 367)  
*Anot jų, kitaip pasielgdamas jis **sukeltų didžiulių politinių nuostolių** <...>.* (KDB, 367)

(8) *<...> United States had made a **political deal** with the Chinese.* (HRC, 300)  
*<...> Jungtinės Valstijos sudarė su Kinija **politinį sandėrį.*** (KDB, 300)

This set of examples regarding the *business* frame includes 47 instances. They make 78,33% of all translation occurrences of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS BUSINESS. The basic assumption behind the analysis of these instances, that this metaphor in the majority of cases activates the same *business* frame in TL.

## 2. Ascribing to the different frame

Another set of linguistic manifestations were translated into Lithuanian the frame of *business* substituting by another one (*potential political windfall* – *stambia politinė kortą*). In the process of translation this conceptual metaphor preserved its original meaning and sounds so naturally as if the frame had not been changed at all (such a contiguous frame):

(1) *If he vetoed welfare reform a third time, Bill would be handing the Republicans a **potential political windfall**.* (HRC, 369)

*Vetuodamas įstatymą trečią kartą Bilas respublikonams į rankas būtų atidavęs **stambia politinę kortą**.* (KDB, 369)

(2) *For me, the Lewinsky imbroglio seemed like just another **vicious scandal manufactured by political opponents**.* (HRC, 441)

*Man Levinski painiava atrodė kaip dar vienas **politinių oponentų suregztas piktas skandalas**.* (KDB, 441)

This group contains only 2 linguistic manifestations that are in stark contrast to the first ones. They account only for parsimonious 3,33% of all the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS A BUSINESS translation occurrences. Needless to say, that having a couple of examples it is impossible to distinguish the most predominant frames of it. Nonetheless, these examples indicate that this translation model was the least popular within this metaphor.

## 3. Translating as non-metaphor

The final group of linguistic manifestations of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS BUSINESS was translated as non-metaphors (ordinary phrases or word combinations) (*I weighed in on the President's decision* – *aš gerokai įsikišau, paskatindama prezidentą*). There were no cases identified that the renderings would have been omitted in the Lithuanian sentences:

(1) *In 1998, I weighed in on the President's decision to veto one version of the bill.* (HRC, 385)

*1998 metais aš gerokai įsikišau, paskatindama prezidentą vetuoti vieną iš šio įstatymo projekto versijų.* (KDB, 385)

(2) *<...> Shimon Peres, the acting Prime Minister, who had negotiated the Oslo Accords.* (HRC, 317)

*<...> Šimonu Peresu, kuris ėjo ministro pirmininko pareigas, dalyvavo svarstant Oslo taikos sutartį.* (KDB, 317)

(3) *But the Irish government had decided that dealing with Adams and Sinn Fein made sense.* (HRC, 321)



Tačiau Airijos vyriausybė nutarė, kad **būtų galima vertai pasinaudoti Adamsu ir „Sinn Fein“**. (KDB, 321)

(4) *The “greatest generation” understood that Americans and Europeans were united in a **shared enterprise**, one that led to victory in the Cold War <...>. (HRC, 242)*

„Didžioji karta“ suprato, kad amerikiečius ir europiečius sujungė **bendras reikalas**, ir tai lėmė pergalę šaltajame kare <...>. (KDB, 241)

(5) *Bill’s staff trooped in to lobby me, one after another, each delivering the same familiar message: I would destroy my husband’s Presidency **if I didn’t support their strategy**. (HRC, 214)*

Bilo komandos nariai būriais vienas po kito traukė pas mane darydami spaudimą ir dėstydami tą pačią mintį: aš sužlugdysiu savo vyro darbą prezidento poste, **jei nepritarsiu jų strategijai**. (KDB, 214)

(6) *Robert Fiske managed to forestall the hearings, warning the combative Republicans that they **risked interfering** with his investigation. (HRC, 220)*

Robertas Fiskas sugebėjo užbėgti už akių posėdžiams, įspėdamas karinguosius respublikonus, kad jie **gali trukdyti** jo tyrimui. (KDB, 221)

(7) *Words matter, and **words from an American President carry great weight** around the world. (HRC, 457)*

Žodžiai svarbu, o **Amerikos prezidento pasakyti žodžiai reikšmingi** visam pasauliui. (KDB, 457)

The attributes of this group make up a list of 11 linguistic manifestations that were rendered as non-metaphors, accounting for 18,33%. Thus, according to the occurrence of translation patterns, this rendering model of *business* metaphor holds the second position and comprises the other major part in this metaphor set.

The rendering results of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS BUSINESS clearly reveal that 47 instances of metaphorical expressions were translated keeping the same frame, only 2 of them took different frames and 11 were translated as non-metaphor. Let us look more closely at the translation models of this particular metaphor as presented in *Figure 5*:

#### POLITICS IS BUSINESS

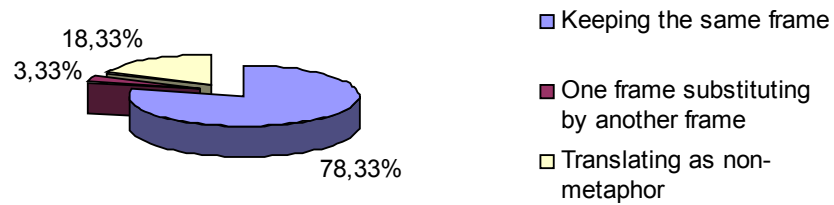


Figure 5. The proportion of translation cases of conceptual metaphor *POLITICS IS BUSINESS*

The *Figure 5* strongly suggests that the metaphor translation model of keeping the same frame prevails. Nonetheless, the quantitative gap of metaphor translation models of the remaining two (ascribing to the different frame and translating as non-metaphor) is also noticeable. In a very rare case the frame of *business* was substituted by the different one and usually was rendered likewise (keeping the same frame). The examples proved that the following metaphor rendered into Lithuanian chiefly maintained the same frame. It enables to state, that *business* metaphor was usually rendered equivalently. However, the tentative comparison between metaphor translation models showed that the conceptual metaphor *POLITICS IS BUSINESS* was frequently rendered as non-metaphor. This means, that instead of activating the other frames (taking another frame while translating) this metaphor was translated as ordinary sentence.

## **2.5. The Conceptual Metaphor “POLITICS IS MEDICINE”**

In tracing the frequency of the established conceptual metaphors *POLITICS IS MEDICINE* was not as prevalent as the above mentioned ones. The results of the investigation revealed that the conceptualization of *politics* in terms of *medicine* is less common. The frame of *medicine* covers *illness, pain, the effects of illness, medical treatment, pharmaceuticals, recovery*, and etc. The

linguistic manifestations of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS MEDICINE were found 46 times. They accounted for 6,22%. Therefore, there is the quantitative difference of linguistic manifestations in comparison with the previous ones. First of all, instances of metaphorical verbs and verbal expressions were distinguished: *the body politics could digest, had metastasized into a criminal investigation, revitalize the economy, politics pumped through Harold's veins, injected into foreign policy debate, heal society, gut programs, heal a hurting nation, the agony of Omagh, The Presidency...will be crippled, for revitalizing region's economy, my campaign...lasered in on his voting record, made personal sacrifices to join Bill's Administration* and others. Furthermore, a considerable number of nominative metaphorical expressions were picked up: *antidote to conventional wisdom, sterile debate, political fallout, economic recovery, poison pills, "brain-dead" politics, impeachment as a remedy, repressive treatment, political symbiosis, remedies, agonizing testimony, terrible setbacks, impeachment lite, hardening of emotional arteries, national agony of search*, and others. Finally, the frame of *medicine* comprises some nominations. They might be as follows: *revolutionary freshmen, donors, doggedly progressive Democrat, pundits* and others.

The conceptual metaphor **POLITICS IS MEDICINE** translation:

### **1. Keeping the same frame**

Linguistic manifestations of this group were rendered in the same vein (as other afore-mentioned metaphors under the same title). The overall picture is that in some cases they were either identically translated (i.e. *poison pills – nuodų piliulių*), or with some changes (i.e. *status quo paralysis – status quo pasireiškiantis veiklos paralyžiūmi*), but still preserved elements of *medicine*:

(1) *It's falling behind, it's losing its way, and all we've gotten out of Washington is status quo paralysis, neglect and selfishness...not leadership and vision.* (HRC, 102)

*Ji atsilieka, nes nebežino kelio, o visa atsakas, kuri esame gavę iš Vašingtono, yra status quo, pasireiškiantis veiklos paralyžiūmi, nerūpestingu ir savanaudišku požiūriu (...), ir nematyti jokio vadovavimo bei mėginimo žvelgti į ateitį“.* (KDB, 102)

(2) *Health care reform might be essential to our long-term economic growth, but I didn't know how much change the body politic could digest at one time.* (HRC, 153)

*Sveikatos apsaugos reforma galėjo būti viena ilgalaikio ekonomikos augimo krypčių, bet neturėjau supratimo, kiek permainų vienu kartu gali suvirškinti politinis organizmas.* (KDB, 153)

(3) *The Presidency*, historically the center of leadership during our great national ordeals, **will be crippled** in meeting the inevitable challenges of the future. (HRC, 487)

*Prezidento institucija*, istoriškai buvusi vadovavimo centras per visus mūsų didžiuosius tautos išbandymus, **bus luoša**, kai reikės pasitikti neišvengiamus ateities iššūkius. (KDB, 486)

(4) *I think many Republicans were hoping that if they kept enough “poison pills” in the bill, they would put the President in a lose-lose situation.* (HRC, 367)

*Manau respublikonai tikėjosi, kad jei įstatymo projekte jie paliks pakankamai nuodų piliulių, tai bet kuriuo atveju prezidentas atsidurs pralaimėtojo situacijoje.* (KDB, 367)

(5) *He was a good antidote* to conventional wisdom and a spur to Washington bureaucratic inertia. (HRC, 290)

*Visus išjudindamas ir neleisdamas nugrimzti į Vašingtono biurokratų inerciją, jis buvo puikus konvencionalios išminties priešnuodis.* (KDB, 290)

(6) *Politics pumped through Harold’s veins*, and the White House seemed to be his natural habitat. (HRC, 214)

*Vis dėlto politiko kraujas tiesiog pulsavo Haroldo gyslomis*, ir Baltieji rūmai atrodė prigimtinė jo buveinė. (KDB, 214)

(7) *He didn’t think my appointment would generate such intense political fallout.* (HRC, 148)  
*Jis nė neįtarė, kad mano paskyrimas vadovauti padaliniui sukels tiek šalutinių reakcijų.* (KDB, 148)

(8) *His inaugural address, after all, touched on the theme of reconciliation and healing.* (HRC, 396)

*Savo inauguracinėje kalboje Bilas palietė susitaikymo ir žaizdų užgydymo temą.* (KDB, 396)

These examples regarding the translation of *medicine* frame comprise 34 instances, accounting for 73,91 of all the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS MEDICINE translation occurrences. This is the biggest set of linguistic manifestations of the *medicine* metaphor. The result implies the corresponding framing.

## **2. Ascribing to the different frame**

Considering the examples of the following group, the linguistic elements in TT changed their frame. The instances ascribed to the *medicine* in the process of translation took frames of the other metaphors. The linguistic manifestations attributed to the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS MEDICINE were rendered retaining the meaning of the original text:

(1) *They have to take a pound of flesh out of you, one way or another.* (HRC, 190)

*Vienaip ar kitai jie ruošiasi suleisti į jus dantis.* (KDB, 190)

(2) *In the 1992 campaign, he championed moving beyond the “brain-dead” politics of both parties to “craft” a dynamic center.* (HRC, 290)

*1992 metų kampanijoje jis novatoriškai siūlė abiem partijoms peržengti sustabarėjusios politikos ribas ir sukurti “dinaminį centrą”.* (KDB, 290)

(3) *They started with the annual budget bill, trying to gut programs by denying funding.* (HRC, 291)

*Jie pradėjo nuo metinio biudžeto projekto, mėgindami sunaikinti programas tiesiog nutraukiant finansavimą.* (KDB, 291)

(4) *Bill and Rev. Billy Graham spoke, helping to heal a hurting nation.* (HRC, 295)

*Bilas ir kunigas Bilis Greihemas kreipėsi į tautą maldydamį jos sielvartą.* (KDB, 295)

This group contains only 5 examples and accounts only for 10,87% of all the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS MEDICINE translation occurrences. Analyzing these cases of metaphor translation there was no tendency observed in choosing frames. In some cases when rendering from English into Lithuanian the sentences took the aforementioned frames (i.e. *gut programs – sunaikinti programas*; war frame) or absolutely different ones (i.e. *have to take a pound of flesh out of you – ruošiasi suleisti į jus dantis*) that were not singled out in the research. I should stress, therefore, that in fact the usage of different frames in Lithuanian rendering did reveal the same figurative meaning intended by the author in the source text.

### 3. Translating as non-metaphor

The last set of linguistic manifestations reveals that the *medicine* metaphor was translated as ordinary phrases or word combinations that can be met in everyday language (*issues <...> injected – įtraukiami tokie klausimai*). It is worth to state, though the metaphor was not retained in the translation the meaning was perfectly revealed:

(1) *<...> what the United States government and private organizations could do to help to heal a society ripped apart by war.* (HRC, 344)

*<...> kaip dar Jungtinių Valstijų vyriausybė ir privačios organizacijos galėtų pagelbėti karo suskaldytai šaliai ir jos žmonėms.* (KDB, 344)

(2) *Seldom are issues <...> injected into the foreign policy debate.* (HRC, 298)

*Į užsienio politikos debatus retai įtraukiami tokie klausimai <...>.* (KDB, 298)

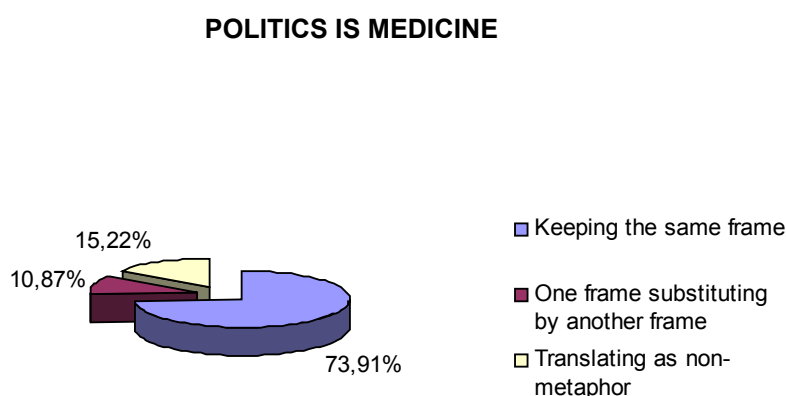
(3) *Cutting off this aid would both harm individual women in dire straits <...>.* (HRC, 269)

*Atimdami šią pagalbą, vėl nustumtume į neviltį kiekvieną skurstančią moterį.* (KDB, 269)

(4) *My campaign ignored the personal tone of Lazio’s campaign and lasered in on his voting record, as well as his work in Congress as one of Gingrich’s top lieutenants.* (HRC, 519)

*Mano kampanija ignoravo į asmeniškumus nukreiptą Ladzijaus kampanijos toną ir sutelkė dėmesį į balsavimų už jį duomenis bei jo kaip vieno svarbiausių Gingričo pavaduotojų darbą Kongrese. ((KDB, 519)*

This group of examples consists of 7 linguistic manifestations of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS MEDICINE that were rendered as non-metaphors. They comprise 15,22% of its translation occurrences. Though English metaphors were translated as ordinary phrases or word combinations and did not preserve the figurative meaning and stylistic character, the original meaning was retained. To have a full picture of obtained results, consider *Figure 6*:



*Figure 6. The proportion of translation cases of conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS MEDICINE*

The *Figure 6* strongly suggests that the metaphor translation model of keeping the same frame prevails whereas metaphor translation models of the remaining two (ascribing to the different frame and translating as non-metaphor) are nearly equally infrequent. The collected data of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS MEDICINE show that 34 instances of linguistic manifestations were translated keeping the same frame, only 5 of them took the other frame and 7 were translated as non-metaphor. As could be seen within the metaphor POLITICS IS MEDICINE cluster, English frames and the ones in the Lithuanian rendering were mostly congruent. Consequently, they can be assigned to the same conceptual metaphor. A comparison of translation models denotes that the source language frame of *medicine* mostly corresponds to the one in TL.

## 2.6. The Conceptual Metaphor “POLITICS IS THEATRE”

The material analyzed enabled to distinguish one more conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS THEATRE. It shows that *politics* is not so frequently viewed in terms of *theatre*. The frame of *theatre* encompasses *stage, actors, audience, play, acting* and etc. Firstly, instances of metaphorical verbs and verbal expressions were singled out: *have acted, have played a leading role, mask a harsh reality, plays a positive role, role the United States could play, played out like absurdist farce, walk through, there was no other sure way to put this episode to rest, open-ended inquiry creates a novel, acted like a political opponent, I was...moving beyond my role as a surrogate campaigner* and others. Secondly, examples of nominative metaphorical expressions were selected: *roles (rough roles of politics, independent role in politics, derivative role of political spouse, highly visible role), ongoing sagas in Washington, political posturing, heroic figure, drama (Whitewater drama, bizarre drama on the floor of the House), arena (public arena, international arena, political arena), scenario (familiar scenario, campaign scenarios), cues, brittle caricature, settings, Soviet-style show procedure, political farce, visible platform, divisive rhetoric, political circuit, cheering ovation* and others. Finally, in addition to metaphorical verbs, verbal expressions and nominative metaphorical expressions, a number of nominations were picked up. The following nominations were attributed to the theatre frame: *masters (masters of political innuendo), political wunderkind, political soul mates* and others.

The conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS THEATRE translation:

### 1. Keeping the same frame

In this group of examples the linguistic manifestations were translated keeping the same frame. Identically translated cases of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS THEATRE dominated. They mostly comprised of nominative metaphorical expressions (i.e. *in the political arena – politikos arenoje, impeachment spectacle – apkaltos spektaklis, Whitewater drama - Vaitvoterio dramos*). Some instances underwent changes (i.e. *played out like absurdist farce – tapo absurdišku farsu*), but still preserved elements of *theatre*:

(1) *Despite all the good advice we had received and all the time Bill and I had spent in the political arena, we were unprepared for the hardball <...>. (HRC, 102)*

*Nepaisant visų gerų patarimų, kurių gavome per politikos arenoje praleistą laiką, mes su Bilu buvome nepasiruošę negailestingai politinei kovai <...>. (KDB, 102)*

(2) *One of the masters of political innuendo weighed it early. (HRC, 105)*

Tai anksti suprato vienas iš **politinių insinuacijų meistrų**. (KDB, 105)

(3) *But he was clearly making a plea to Americans to demand an end to the **impeachment spectacle**.* (HRC, 480)

Tačiau jis aiškiai kreipėsi į amerikiečius su prašymu reikalauti, kad **apkaltos spektaklis** būtų baigtas. (KDB, 480)

(4) *The general public heard little about this development in the ongoing **Whitewater drama**.* (HRC, 327)

Plačioji publika nedaug tegirdėjo apie šias **Vaitvoterio dramos** detales. (KDB, 327)

(5) *One lieutenant told me he hadn't understood **the role the United States could play** until he saw Bosnia for himself.* (HRC, 343)

Vienas leitenantų pasakė, kad jis nesupratęs, **koks vaidmuo čia galėtų tekti Jungtinėmis Valstijoms**, kol neatvyko į Bosniją. (KDB, 343)

(6) *The code names sound whimsical, but **they mask a harsh reality**: Ongoing threats require the vigilance and intrusiveness of protective security.* (HRC, 137)

Tie kodiniai vardai skamba keistai, bet **jie maskuoja negailestingą realybę**: dėl galimos grėsmės būtina, kad apsaugos tarnyba būtų budri ir daug kur kištuši neprašoma. (KDB, 137)

(7) *September 21, the day Bill addressed the opening session of the United Nations in New York, **played out like absurdist farce**.* (HRC, 479)

Rugsėjo 21-oji, diena, kai Bilas kalbėjo Jungtinių Tautų įžanginėje sesijoje Niujorke, **tapo absurdišku farsu**. (KDB, 479)

The *theatre* metaphor under this translation model consists of 40 instances and comprise 76,92% of all its translation patterns. In quantitative terms, this is the most frequent translation model of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS THEATRE. The importance of this set of examples is that linguistic manifestations were frequently translated as absolute equivalents. And this was not the case within the framework of the other conceptual metaphors in this research.

## **2. Ascribing to the different frame**

Examples of this group are concerned with the frame substitution. The linguistic manifestations that were translated into Lithuanian the frame of *theatre* changed into the other one (i.e. **rough roles of politics – negailestingame politiniame gyvenime**). The conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS THEATRE in the process of translation retained the same meaning with the help of other frames:

(1) *I had moved from a **highly visible role** <...> to a **more private** – but equally active – **role** <...>.* (HRC, 380)



*Iš visiems matomos pozicijos <...> aš perėjau į privatesnę, tačiau ne mažiau aktyvią poziciją.* (KDB, 380)

(2) *The vote of the House of Representatives to **conduct an open-ended inquiry creates a novel, all-purpose search for any offense by which to remove a President from office.*** (HRC, 486)

*Atstovų rūmų balsavimas už tai, kad būtų vykdomos griežtai neapibrėžtos apklausos, **atveria kelią naujoms bet kokių prasižengimų paieškoms, dėl kurių būtų galima pašalinti prezidentą iš pareigų.*** (KDB, 486)

(3) *Although he hated to settle a case he had already won and that Judge Wright had found to be without legal or factual merit, Bill decided that **there was no other sure way to put this episode to rest.*** (HRC, 484)

*Nors jam ir nepatiko tartis dėl bylos, kurią jis jau laimėjo ir kurią teisėjas Raitas pripažino neesmine teisiniu ar faktiniu požiūriu, Bilas nusprendė, kad **nėra kito garantuoto būdo šiam serialui užbaigti.*** (KDB, 484)

(4) *Bill and I may have been inexperienced in our White House roles, but we were seasoned enough in the **rough roles of politics.*** (HRC, 174)

*Mes su Bilu neturėjome patirties vaidinti mums tekusių vaidmenis Baltuosiuose rūmuose, tačiau jau buvome mėtyti ir vėtyti **negailėstingame politiniame gyvenime.*** (KDB, 174)

This group contains only 4 linguistic manifestations that make up the minority. They account for 7,69% of all the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS THEATRE translation occurrences. It must be noted, that all Lithuanian renderings of this particular metaphor took different frames. It assumes that in the translation process the *theatre* metaphor did not invoke any other frames in TL.

### **3. Translating as non-metaphor**

The last translation model encompasses linguistic manifestations that were translated as ordinary phrases or word combinations (i.e. *during the Soviet-style show procedure – sovietinio stiliaus teismo proceso metu*). In a very rare case these phrases or words were omitted in the target text (i.e. *avoid challenging questions about my role in the policy arena - vengti rimtesnių klausimų politikos arenoje*):

(1) *In their view, my choice signaled my determination to avoid challenging questions about **my role in the policy arena.*** (HRC, 140)

*Jų požiūriu, toks pasirinkimas buvo ženklas, kad aš apsisprendžiau vengti rimtesnių klausimų politikos arenoje.* (KDB, 140)

(2) ***During the Soviet-style show procedure, Star had to admit that he had not himself examined a single witness before the grand jury.*** (HRC, 485)

*Sovietinio stiliaus teismo proceso metu Starui teko pripažinti, kad jis pats asmeniškai neapklause nė vieno liudytojo didžiosios žiuri akivaizdoje.* (KDB, 485)

(3) *Panetta, a deficit hawk when he served in Congress from California, had been Bill's choice to head the Office of Management and Budget, and he had played a leading role in devising the deficit reduction plan <...>.* (HRC, 291)

*Panetą, deficito ekspertą, kuris tuomet dar triūsė kongrese kaip Kalifornijos atstovas, Bilas paskyrė vadovauti valdymo ir biudžeto biurui ir šis lemiamai prisidėjo kuriant deficito sumažinimo planą <...>.* (KDB, 290)

(4) *In too many countries, women are still denied the right to participate in the political arena, <...>.* (HRC, 415)

*Dar daugelyje šalių moterys neturi teisės dalyvauti politikoje, <...>.* (KDB, 415)

(5) *Bill and I shared with Blairs the same struggle to advance more progressive ideas in the public arena.* (HRC, 424)

*Mudu su Bilu ir Blerus suvienijo nelengvos pastangos išstumti į viešumą pažangesnes idėjas.* (KDB, 424)

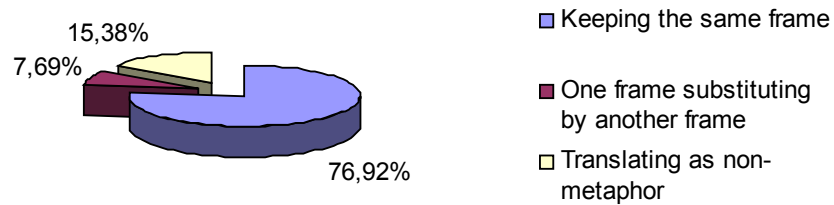
(6) *He saw the Door of No Return and delivered a moving apology for America's role in slavery.* (HRC, 457)

*Jis pamatė „duris, pro kurias negrįžtama“, ir išsakė jaudinantį atsiprašymą už tai, kad Amerika dalyvavo vergų prekyboje.* (KDB, 457)

This group of examples consists of 8 linguistic manifestations that were rendered as non-metaphors, accounting for 15,38% of all the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS THEATRE translation occurrences. This translation model holds the second position in this metaphor cluster. It demonstrates that the translators employed ordinary sentences instead of other metaphors with different frames. Nonetheless, the Lithuanian rendering revealed the meaning intended by the author.

The analysis of conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS THEATRE showed that 40 instances of metaphorical expressions were translated keeping the same frame, only 4 of them took the other frame and 8 were translated as non-metaphor. To illustrate the proportion of translation cases of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS THEATRE the *Figure 7* is presented:

#### POLITICS IS THEATRE



*Figure 7. The proportion of translation cases of conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS THEATRE*

The *Figure 7* demonstrates that the metaphor translation model of keeping the same frame prevails. Nonetheless, the quantitative gap of metaphor translation models of the remaining two (ascribing to the different frame and translating as non-metaphor) is also noticeable. In a very case the frame of *theatre* was substituted by the different one and usually rendered likewise (keeping the same frame). The above *Figure 7* displays percentages that allow me to assert that the following metaphor while rendering into Lithuanian generally maintained the same frame and its calques can be assigned to the same conceptual metaphor. The conclusion is the corresponding framing regarding the *theatre* metaphor.

## **2.7. The Conceptual Metaphor “POLITICS IS ARCHITECTURE”**

Having distinguished the most recurrent metaphorical expressions in the analyzed material, it came out that *politics* is conceptualized in terms of *architecture*. They enabled to distinguish the other infrequent conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS ARCHITECTURE. The linguistic manifestations of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS ARCHITECTURE were found 35 times. The frame of *architecture* encompasses instances of metaphorical verbs and verbal expressions

might be as follows: *build a bridge to the twenty-first century, building functioning democratic governments, lay the basis for greater understanding and trust, framing a rebuttal, creating free markets, building the European Union, were hammering on the usual issues, forge new ties that bind together, dismantle the power of the federal government, correct distortions, craft a “dynamic center, her government was dissolved, designed impeachment, the Senate race began to take shape and others. In addition to the afore-mentioned metaphorical verbs and verbal phrases, some nominative metaphorical expressions were used: Iron Curtain, Soviet-block countries, galvanizing force, leaks to the media, steel, political skills and others. The frame of architecture involves following nominations: architects (principal architect, main architects), wunderkind, Framers and others.*

The conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS ARCHITECTURE translation:

### **1. Keeping the same frame**

In this set of examples linguistic manifestations were translated keeping the same frame of *architecture*. In some cases they were also either translated as absolute equivalents (i.e. *behind the Iron Curtain – už geležinės uždangos*), or with changes (i.e. *leaks to the media – informacija, kuri nutekėjo į žiniasklaidą*). The latter predominated over the first ones:

(1) *Atwater was a political wunderkind on the campaigns of President Reagan and George H. W. Bush and a principal architect of the Republican ascendancy in the 1980's.* (HRC, 160)

*Etvoteris buvo politikos vunderkindas, darbavęsis prezidentų Reigano ir Džordžo V. Bušo kampanijose, jis buvo vienas pagrindinių respublikonų įsigalėjimo 9-ajame dešimtmetyje architektų.* (KDB, 160)

(2) *Infant democracies had replaced communism in the former Soviet-bloc countries.* (HRC, 353)

*Komunistinę santvarką buvusio sovietinio bloko šalyse jau buvo pakeitusi gležna demokratija.* (KDB, 353)

(3) *Hundreds of millions of people have been liberated from lives of tyranny behind the Iron Curtain, <...>.* (HRC, 353)

*Šimtai milijonų žmonių jau buvo išvaduoti iš tironijos, kurią kentė gyvendami už geležinės uždangos.* (KDB, 353)

(4) *Leaks to the media from the Jones camp and the Office of the Independent Counsel <...>.* (HRC, 441)

*Informacija, kuri nutekėjo į žiniasklaidą iš Džono stovyklos ir nepriklausomo prokuroro žmonių <...>.* (KDB, 441)

(5) *Bill would have his chance to “build a bridge to the twenty-first century”.* (HRC, 380)

*Bilui teks nuostabi galimybė „nutiesti tiltą į XXI amžių“.* (KDB, 380)

(6) *A high-profile presidential visit, with the attention it generates in the country visited and back in America, at least can lay the basis for greater understanding and trust.* (HRC, 458)

*Aukščiausio lygio prezidento vizitas, dėmesys, kurio jis sulaukia šalyje, kurią lanko, ir namuose Amerikoje, bent jau gali padėti pamatus didesniam tarpusavio supratimui ir pasitikėjimui.* (KDB, 458)

This group of examples regarding the *architecture* frame comprises 19 instances, accounting for 54,29%. The linguistic manifestations ascribed to the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS ARCHITECTURE were mainly translated keeping the same frame. Generally speaking, it is already can be assumed that renderings (from English into Lithuanian) of this kind, obviously dominated. It means that SL frames activated the same frame in TL.

## **2. Ascribing to the different frame**

Another subgroup is made of linguistic manifestations that were translated into Lithuanian the frame of *architecture* substituting by another one (i.e. *were hammering on the usual issues – stūmė pirmyn vis tuos pačius klausimus*). In the process of translation this conceptual metaphor retained its meaning:

(1) *He was also instrumental in building the European Union, adopting a common currency and supporting U.S. efforts to end conflict in the Balkans.* (HRC, 342)

*Jis labai prisidėjo kuriant Europos Sąjungą bei įvedant bendrą valiutą ir rėmė JAV pastangas užbaigti Balkanų konfliktą.* (KDB, 342)

(2) *The Republicans were hammering on the usual issues: bashing big-spending liberals <...>.* (HRC, 364)

*Respublikonai toliau stūmė pirmyn vis tuos pačius klausimus – kaip sutramdyti lėšas švaistančius liberalus, <...>.* (KDB, 364)

(3) *But Gringrich’s revolutionary freshmen refused to budge from their ideological crusade to dismantle the power of the federal government.* (HRC, 325)

*Bet Grigričo darbuotojai, revoliucingi pradedantieji politikai, atsisakė nutraukti ideologinį kryžiaus žygį, kuriuo turėjo būti pakirstos federalinės vyriausybės galios.* (KDB, 325)

(4) *We made some real progress in framing a rebuttal to the Republicans.* (HRC, 326)

*Mums pavyko gerokai pasistūmėti į priekį formuluojant atkirtį respublikonams.* (KDB, 326)

(5) *Building functioning democratic governments, creating free markets and establishing civil societies after decades of dictatorship requires time, effort and patience.* (HRC, 353)

*Ivesti veikiančią demokratinę valdžią, laisvąją rinką, sukurti pilietinę visuomenę po ištisus dešimtmečius trūkusios diktatūros reikia laiko, pastangų, kantrybės.* (KDB, 353)

(6) *While Bill and his advisers were hammering out a policy to jump-start the economy, I had been traveling around the country listening to Americans talk about the Hardships of coping with the rising medical costs, <...>.* (HRC, 183)

*Kol Bilas su savo patarėjais iš peties kūrė planus, kaip užvesti užgesusį ekonomikos variklį, aš važinėjau po visą šalį klausydamasi amerikiečių pasakojimų apie kasdieninius vargus dėl kylančių medicinos paslaugų kainų, <...>.* (KDB, 183)

(7) *The Framers explicitly reserved that step for high crimes and misdemeanors in the exercise of executive power.* (HRC, 486)

*Konstitucijos kūrėjai aiškia yra numatę šį žingsnį sunkių nusikaltimų ir prasižengimų, naudojantis vykdomąja valdžia, atveju.* (KDB, 486)

This group contains 10 linguistic manifestations. They make 28,57%. While translating the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS ARCHITECTURE from English into Lithuanian it took various frames that nevertheless preserved the meaning of the original text. The one (frame) that prevailed in the Lithuanian rendering could be labeled as *art* (i.e. *the Framers – konstitucijos kūrėjai, were hammering out a policy – kūrė planus, was also instrumental in building the European Union – was also instrumental in building the European Union – labai prisidėjo kuriant Europos Sąjungą*). Therefore, it (the art frame) was not singled out due to the fact that it was well-marked mainly in the target text.

### **3. Translating as non-metaphor**

The last group of linguistic manifestations was translated as non-metaphors (ordinary phrases or word combinations) (i.e. *main architects – daugiausia padirbėjo, designed impeachment – numatė, kad apkalta*). In these cases Lithuanian renderings were explicit:

(1) *Madeleine Albright and Strobe Talbott, Deputy Secretary of State and Russia expert, were the main architects of this approach within the administration.* (HRC, 410)

*Įtvirtinant administracijoje šią nuomonę daugiausia padirbėjo Madlena Olbrait ir valstybės sekretoriaus pavaduotojas Straubas Tolbotas.* (KDB, 410)

(2) *As a Senator, I intended to work to build on its successes and fix its deficiencies.* (HRC, 369)

*Kaip senatorė aš ketinu tęsti šį darbą, pasinaudodama jo atnešta sėkme ir taisydama trūkumus.* (KDB, 371)

(3) *My domestic policy staff worked tirelessly with Administration officials and Congressional staffers to craft the new legislation, <...>.* (HRC, 434)

*Mano vidaus politikos personalas nenuilstamai triūsė bendradarbiaudamas su administracijos pareigūnais ir Kongreso darbuotojais **rengdamas naują projektą**, <...>. (KDB, 434)*

*(4) Fathers who wrote the Constitution **designed impeachment** to be a slow, painstaking process because they believed that it should not be easy to remove a federal official, particularly the president, from office. (HRC, 474)*

*Pradininkai, kurie rašė konstituciją, **numatė, kad apkalta** turi būti lėtas, kruopštus procesas, nes jie manė, kad neturėtų būti paprasta pašalinti iš pareigų federalinį pareigūną, ypač prezidentą. (KDB, 474)*

This group of examples consists only of 6 linguistic manifestations that were rendered as non-metaphors, accounting for 17,14%. They make up the minority. This was the least popular translation model of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS ARCHITECTURE. Though the English metaphor per se was not retained in the Lithuanian rendering, the translator employed other means which still revealed the meaning intended by the author in the original.

The examples of conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS ARCHITECTURE indicate that 19 instances of metaphorical expressions were translated keeping the same frame, 10 of them took the other frame and 6 were translated as non-metaphors. The relative frequency of translation occurrences is given in Figure 8:

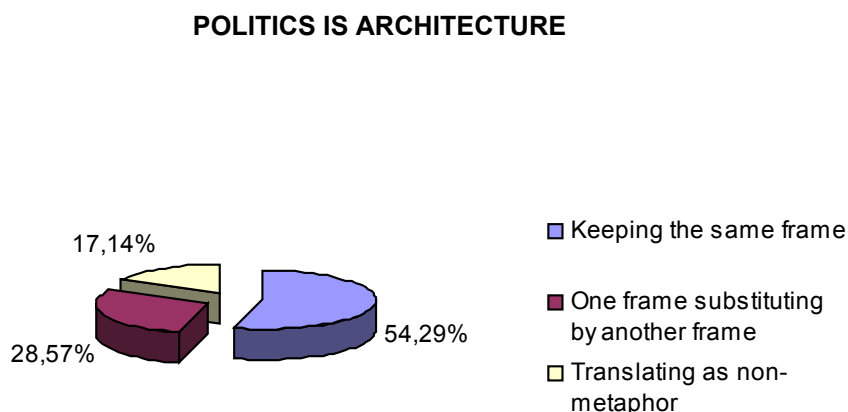


Figure 8. The proportion of translation cases of conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS ARCHITECTURE

The *Figure 8* indicates that in quantitative terms, the metaphor translation model of keeping the same frame prevailed. And the least frequent translation model is the last one (translating as non-metaphor). Linguistic evidence shows that the following metaphor while rendering into Lithuanian generally preserved the same frame and its renderings can be attributed to the same conceptual metaphor. However, the division between the remaining metaphor translation models (one frame substituting by another frame and translating as non-metaphor) is comparatively small. Considering the results, I can assert that the *architecture* frame can activate other frames as well as none.

## 2.8. The Conceptual Metaphor “POLITICS IS HUNTING”

The POLITICS IS HUNTING was one of the least dominant conceptual metaphors. The amount of recurrences of linguistic manifestations shows that *politics* is rarely conceptualized in terms of *hunting*. The frame of *hunting* comprises *the aim of hunting, the target, the manner of hunting, habitation, survival* and etc. The linguistic manifestations of it were found only 16 times. Therefore, only few instances of metaphorical verbs and verbal expressions, as well as nominative metaphorical expressions and nominations were picked up. First of all, instances of metaphorical verbs and verbal expressions might be as follows: *a sting operation to entrap the President, fell into Starr’s net, didn’t fare, turf wars could stifle creativity, Jimmy Carter’s Presidency was snakebit, couldn’t escape being hounded, catch any inaccuracies, hound the President out of office, Presidency was snakebit, White House seemed to be his natural habitat*, and others. Furthermore, a group of nominative metaphorical expressions was distinguished: *survival tool, brutal primary season, tame, targeted issue, sharp political instincts* and others. The final group comprises of nominations. They overlap with the other nominations of the above-mentioned political conceptual metaphors: *revolutionary freshmen, leader* and others.

The conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS HUNTING translation:

### 1. Keeping the same frame

This group is made up of linguistic manifestations of conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS HUNTING that were translated keeping the same frame. In some cases they were also either identically translated (*essential survival tool – pagrindinė išlikimo priemonė*), or underwent some changes (*Bill couldn’t escape being hounded – Bilas neišvengė persekiojimo*). Nevertheless, the frame of *hunting* was maintained:



(1) *Laughing at myself was an essential survival tool, and preferable the alternative of climbing back into the bunker.* (HRC, 266)

*Juoktis iš savęs buvo pagrindinė išlikimo priemonė, kurią pasirinkdavau kur kas dažniau nei kitą alternatyvą – nulįsti į pogrindį.* (KDB, 266)

(2) *In late November, Webb Hubble fell into Starr's net.* (HRC, 266)

*Lapkričio gale į Staro tinklą pateko ir Vebas Habelas.* (KDB, 266)

(3) *But even on the day he buried his mother, Bill couldn't escape being hounded about Whitewater.* (HRC, 212)

*Vis dėlto netgi motinos laidotuvių dieną Bilas neišvengė persekiojimo dėl Vaitvoterio.* (KDB, 212)

(4) *I didn't fare as well.* (HRC, 108)

*Aš savo laimikiu negalėjau taip pasigirti.* (KDB, 108)

(5) *"We can't let them hound the President out of office," I said.* (HRC, 481)

*„Mes negalime leisti išuiti prezidento iš pareigų, - pasakiau.* (KDB, 481)

(6) *By now it was clear that Jimmy Carter's Presidency was snakebit.* (HRC, 89)

*Anot šio posakio, buvo aišku, kad Džimio Karterio prezidentystę pakirto gyvatė.* (KDB, 90)

(7) *Politics pumped through Harold's veins, and the White House seemed to be his natural habitat.* (HRC, 214)

*Vis dėlto politiko kraujas tiesiog pulsavo Haroldo gyslomis, ir Baltieji rūmai atrodė prigimtinė jo buveinė.* (KDB, 214)

(8) *New facts were emerging daily about the mechanics of what was essentially a sting operation to entrap the President, including secret, illegal tape recordings.* (HRC, 444)

*Kasdien pasirodydavo naujų faktų, nusakančių mechaniką to, kas iš esmės buvo spąstai prezidentui pagauti – turint galvoje ir slaptus, nelegalius įrašus.* (KDB, 444)

This set of examples regarding the *hunting* frame includes 12 instances, accounting for 75% of all the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS HUNTING translation occurrences. Such linguistic manifestations rendered into Lithuanian keeping the same frame form the largest group of it.

## **2. Translating as non-metaphor**

This is the only case when there were no examples of the other translation model found (ascribing to the different frame) and metaphor translation as non-metaphor forms the second group of conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS HUNTING.

(1) *We were learning that in working with a recalcitrant Congress, we could often move expeditiously on a targeted issue, <...>.* (HRC, 434)

*Mes susivokėme, jog bendradarbiaujant su užsispyrusiu Kongresu, kur kas greičiau galima pajudėti į priekį siekiant konkretaus tikslo <...>. (KDB, 434)*

(2) *Our crew was tame compared to certain visiting heads of state how demanded that their guards be nude to ensure they carried no weapons, or imported their own cooks to prepare everything from goat to snake. (HRC, 122)*

*Mūsų komanda buvo lengvai sukalbama, palyginti su kai kuriomis valstybių galvomis, kurie reikalavo, kad apsaugininkai būtų nuogi, esą norėdami įsitikinti, kad šie neturi ginklų, arba užsisakydavo neregėtų valgių nuo ožkienos iki gyvatienos. (KDB,122)*

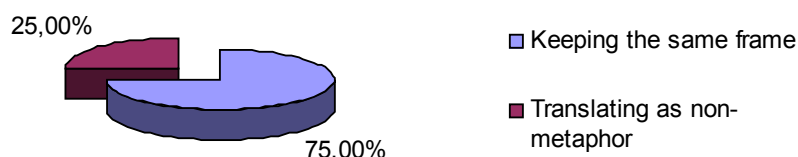
(3) *On the one hand, I was pleased that we had sheltered Chelsea from the media and protected her during the brutal primary season. (HRC, 112)*

*Viena vertus, buvau patenkinta, kad mes apsaugojome Čelsę nuo žiniasklaidos dėmesio ir apgynėme jos ramybę per žiaurias pirminių rinkimų batalijas. (KDB, 112)*

Instances of this group cover only 4 linguistic manifestations that were rendered as non-metaphors. They account for 25%. The basic assumption behind this translation model is the revealed meaning of ST.

As the examples of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS HUNTING rendering illustrate, 12 instances of metaphorical expressions were translated keeping the same frame, none of them took the other frame and 4 were translated as non-metaphor. To have a full picture of obtained results, consider Table 8:

#### POLITICS IS HUNTING



*Figure 9. The proportion of translation cases of conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS HUNTING*

The *Figure 9* shows that in quantitative terms, the usage of metaphor translation model of keeping the same frame is three times more frequent. The conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS HUNTING was not rendered with the help of other frames. Thus, this was the only example when just two metaphor translation models were applied. It is obvious the metaphor POLITICS IS HUNTING translation instances spread over two rendering models. Two thirds of examples were translated congruently in terms of frame. Consequently, judging from the quantitative findings alone, the following metaphor while rendering into Lithuanian in most cases keep the same frame and its calques can be assigned to the same conceptual metaphor. Finally, it is one of the least selected metaphor clusters.

## **2.9. The Conceptual Metaphor “POLITICS IS A GAME”**

The material analyzed enabled to distinguish one more immanent conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS A GAME. Although instances of metaphorical expressions were found only 13 times the examples that *politics* is viewed in terms of *game* are distinct. The frame of game encompasses *winning, defeat, players, rules, stakes* and etc. Instances of metaphorical verbs and verbal expressions might be as follows: *someone was raising the stakes in this game, played the “conflict of interest” card, how high the stakes were, escalated the stakes, partisan politics again would trump law and precedent* and others. Besides, some immanent nominative metaphorical expressions were used: *stakes, a young person’s game, hazards of merging my role* and others. The frame of *game* comprises the following nominations that mostly overlap with the nominations of the frame *sport* and *war*: *winner, player, loser* and others.

The conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS A GAME translation:

### **1. Keeping the same frame**

The common attributes of this translation model are examples that were translated keeping the same frame. As already recognized, in some cases they were either absolute equivalents (i.e. *played the “conflict of interest” card* – *žaidė „interesu konflikto“ korta*), or translated with some changes (i.e. *the stakes were as high as they could get* - *ant kortos buvo pastatyta išties nemenkai*), but still preserved elements of *game*:

(1) *Someone was raising the stakes in this game.* (HRC, 227)

*Kažkas šiame žaidime didino statomas sumas.* (KDB, 227)

(2) *The conservative faction openly **played the “conflict of interest” card to eliminate nonpartisan jurists and investigators.*** (HRC, 347)

*Konservatyvioji frakcija atvirai **žaidė „interesų konflikto“ korta, pašalindama nešališkus juristus bei tardytojus.*** (KDB, 347)

(3) ***At stake, Bill pointed out, were “two very different futures of America”.*** (HRC, 325)

*Bilas nurodė, jog **ant kortos pastatytos „dvi visiškai skirtingos Amerikos ateitys“.*** (KDB, 325)

(4) *Bill’ political adversaries understood **how high the stakes were, which made me want to fight back.*** (HRC, 208)

*Bilo politiniai priešininkai suprato, **kad daug kas pastatyta ant kortos, todėl nusprendžiau nepasiduoti.*** (KDB, 207)

(5) ***The stakes were as high as they could get.*** (HRC, 444)

***Ant kortos buvo pastatyta išties nemenkai.*** (KDB, 444)

(6) *But going against Washington’s conventional wisdom **was too big a gamble for most candidates to take.*** (HRC, 482)

*Tačiau priešinimasis tradicinei Vašingtono išminčiai **daugeliui kandidatų buvo per daug didelė rizika.*** (KDB, 482)

(7) *Given that history, Bill worried that there was a good chance that **partisan politics again would trump law and precedent, and the judges would rule that the case could proceed to trial.*** (HRC, 484)

*Žinodamas šią istoriją, Bilas nerimavo, kad yra didelė galimybė, jog **šališki politikai vėl mes įstatymų ir precedento kozirį, ir teisėjai nuspręs, kad byla turi būti perduota teismui.*** (KDB, 484)

(8) *<...> was disgusted when learned that **Lazio had played politics with such an important and emotional issue.*** (HRC, 522)

*<...> buvau pasipiktinusi, jog **Ladzijus žaidžia politiką pasinaudodamas tokiomis svarbiomis ir jautriomis problemomis.*** (KDB, 522)

This group of examples regarding the *game* metaphor consists of 10 instances and accounts for 76,92% of all its translation occurrences. As it associated with gambling the prevalent concept is *stake*. This is predominant type of rendering (keeping the same frame) of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS A GAME. The logic behind the above-mentioned figure is that the *game* frame was usually projected onto TL linguistic elements

## **2. Ascribing to the different frame**

Another subgroup is made of linguistic manifestations that were translated into Lithuanian the frame of *game* changing into the other (i.e. *escalated the stakes* – *didino neramumų pavojų*). In the process of translation this conceptual metaphor retained the meaning of the source text:

(1) *Finally she was hired onto my staff to do advance work, primarily a young person's game and a premier educational experience in politics and in life.* (HRC, 104)

*Galiausiai aš ją pasamdžiau bendradarbiauti organizuojant susitikimus – tai buvo pirma proga jaunai asmenybei dalyvauti tokiam žaidime ir pirmoji galimybė įgyti tokios politinės ir gyvenimo patirties.* (KDB, 104)

(2) *My presence, in their view, only escalated the stakes.* (HRC, 307)

*Jų akimis, mano dalyvavimas tik didino neramumų pavojų.* (KDB, 307)

Only 2 instances were attributed to the second translation model of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS A GAME, accounting for 15,38%. According to their meaning, both English sentences and Lithuanian renderings sound in the same vein. Naturally, no TL frame classification could be presented.

### 3. Translating as non-metaphor

The last example of linguistic manifestation was translated as ordinary phrase (*they risked interfering* – *jie gali trukdyti*):

*Robert Fiske managed to forestall the hearings, warning the combative Republicans that they risked interfering with his investigation.* (HRC, 220)

*Robertas Fiskas sugebėjo užbėgti už akių posėdžiams, įspėdamas karinguosius respublikonus, kad jie gali trukdyti jo tyrimui.* (KDB, 221)

This was the only example found of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS A GAME that was translated as non-metaphor. It forms 7,69% of all its translation occurrences.

The analysis of conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS A GAME illustrates that 10 instances of metaphorical expressions were translated keeping the same frame, 2 of them took the other frame and only 1 was translated as non-metaphor. The *Figure 10*, presented below, reflects the relative frequency of translation cases of the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS A GAME:

#### **POLITICS IS A GAME**

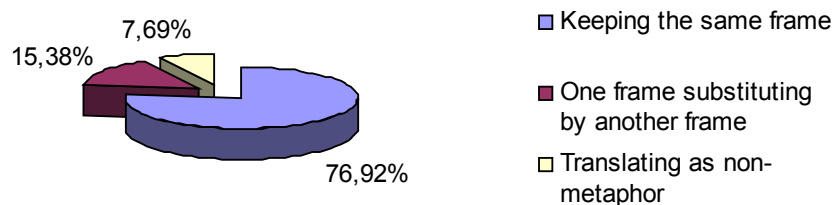


Figure 10. The proportion of translation cases of conceptual metaphor *POLITICS IS A GAME*

The *Figure 10* reveals the clear prevalence of the first metaphor translation model, i.e. keeping the same frame. The metaphor translation models of the remaining two (one frame substituting by another frame and translating as non-metaphor) are nearly equally infrequent. It allows me to assert that the following metaphor while rendering into Lithuanian generally maintains the same frame and its renderings can be assigned to the same conceptual metaphor. This metaphor set is in stark contrast to the others as the *game* frame nearly in all cases activated the same frame in TT.

## 2.10. Concluding Remarks

As the preceding section of empirical part provided regular commentaries and summaries, the purpose of this part to summarize the main points and expand upon their findings and implications on the established conceptual metaphors and their translation. This study set up to investigate the conceptual metaphors in political discourse the ways of their rendering from English into Lithuanian in Hillary Rodham Clinton’s autobiography “Living History” (2003). After a thorough analysis of the selected examples the following conclusions can be drawn:

Searching for linguistic manifestation and attributing them to particular metaphors, there were nine conceptual metaphors distinguished immanent in this book. These metaphors were grouped depending on the determined frames and presented according to three proposed renderings.

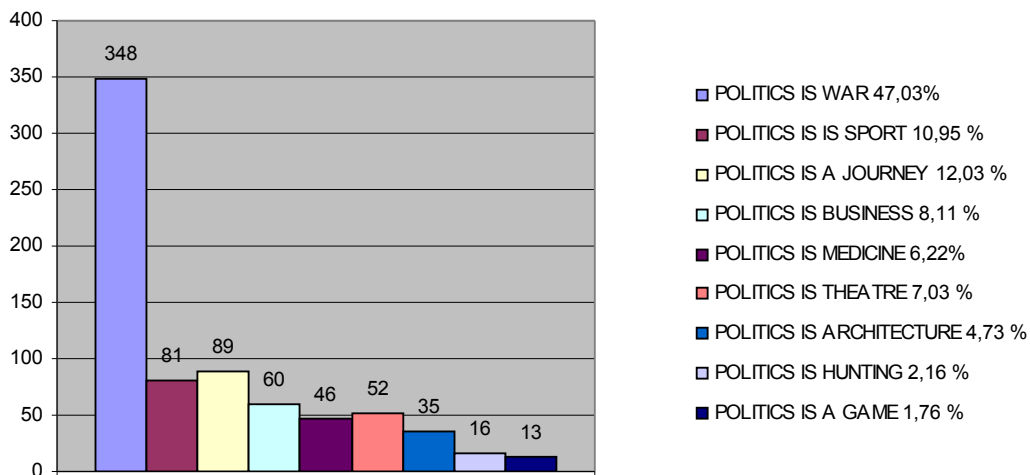
The below presented *Table 10* shows the distribution of metaphors translated from English into Lithuanian in Hillary Rodham Clinton’s autobiography “Living History”:

Table 10. The distribution of translated metaphors

1. POLITICS IS WAR	348	47,03%
2. POLITICS IS SPORT	81	10,95%
3. POLITICS IS A JOURNEY	89	12,03%
4. POLITICS IS BUSINESS	60	8,11%
5. POLITICS IS MEDICINE	46	6,22%
6. POLITICS IS THEATRE	52	7,03%
7. POLITICS IS ARCHITECTURE	35	4,73%
8. POLITICS IS HUNTING	16	2,16%
9. POLITICS IS A GAME	13	1,76%

As seen from *Table 10*, there were 9 different conceptual metaphors found in the domain of *politics*. The *war* metaphor proves to be the one which was most prominent and dominant in the book, representing nearly a half of all selected linguistic manifestations (348 of the overall 740 instances in the corpus, equaling 47,03%). This conceptual metaphor is at the top of the frequency list. Others (the remaining metaphors) trailed behind, so the preliminary expectation (that POLITICS IS WAR will dominate) has been confirmed. It must be noted, some linguistic manifestations were easy to associate with one or the other conceptual metaphor. For example, the linguistic manifestations of *being sidelined* or *restoring democracy* are typical elements of the *sport* and *architecture* frames. Similarly, linguistic manifestations like *being sidelined by budgetary battles* and *had lead the way in restoring democracy* belong to the *war* and *journey* frames. They were ascribed to the POLITICS IS WAR and POLITICS IS JOURNEY metaphor sets. Needless to say, that this is subjective, preliminary division. The results of investigation show that the second large set of linguistic manifestations draws upon the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS SPORT. It formed 10,95% of all possible metaphor patterns and their Lithuanian rendering. Linguistic evidence suggests that this conceptual metaphor remains the third according to its frequency. The findings are in contrast to the assumption of many linguistic studies on conceptual metaphors in political discourse that terms *war* and *sport* are the common sources of *politics*. In this research, the conceptual metaphor POLITICS IS SPORT fell behind the POLITICS IS JOURNEY. The latter compromised 12,03% of all metaphor and their translation occurrences. The *Figure 11* more

explicitly illustrates the relative frequency of conceptual metaphors immanent in this book and their renderings:



*Figure 11. The relative frequency of the conceptual metaphors immanent in H.R. Clinton's autobiography "Living History" and their rendering into Lithuanian*

Other metaphors like POLITICS IS BUSINESS, POLITICS IS MEDICINE and POLITICS IS THEATRE might be ascribed to the separate set according to their comparable frequency. The most unexpected conceptual metaphor was POLITICS IS MEDICINE as it is not often distinguished within the context of political discourse. Nevertheless, the linguistic manifestations assigned to it formed a considerable number.

The obtained results show that the remaining metaphors such as POLITICS IS ARCHITECTURE (accounted for 4,73%), POLITICS IS HUNTING (it made 2,16%), POLITICS IS A GAME (it accounted only for 1,76%) were the least popular and made up the minority. All of them were nearly equally infrequent. I should stress, that POLITICS IS HUNTING was the only



metaphor formed of two translation models. There were no examples found of the second translation model of ascribing to the different frame.

Table 11 introduces the frequency of translation occurrences of the distinguished conceptual metaphors:

Table 11. The relative frequency of patterns rendered under proposed translation models

Metaphor translation models	740	
1. Keeping the same frame	580	78,38%
2. One frame substituting by another frame	75	10,14%
3. Translating as non-metaphor	85	11,49%

The information regarding metaphor rendering models witnesses that 580 conceptual metaphors were translated keeping the same frame, 75 of them were translated one frame substituting by another frame and the last set of metaphors consisting of 85 entries was translated as non-metaphors. Figure 12 summarizes the prevalence of metaphor translation models:

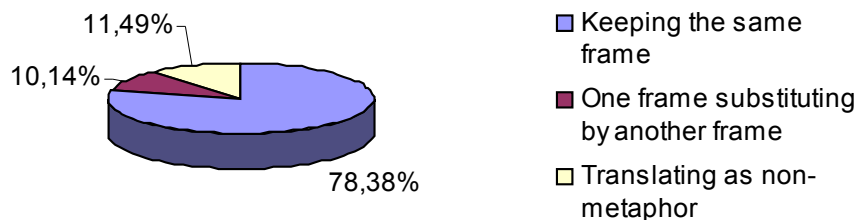


Figure 12. The prevalence of metaphor translation models

*Figure 12* illustrates that metaphor translation by substitution (10,14%) model and that as non-metaphor (11,49%) were nearly equally infrequent. It is noticeable that the quantitative gap between these translation models is relatively small. However, those two types are not dominant ones and together make up only a relatively parsimonious third of all translation occurrences. The most frequent metaphor translation model was keeping the same frame (78,38%). From the data analysed, it can be stated that the translation model keeping the same frame clearly dominated. Considering the substitution model, there was some tendency observed in choosing frames. The metaphor POLITICS IS SPORT usually took the *war* frame, as for The POLITICS IS ARCHITECTURE, in the process of translation the frame of this metaphor was substituted by an *art* one. It was because of the similar concepts these metaphors contain. The rest metaphor clusters were rendered choosing diverse frames. Finally, the last model represents the English metaphors that per se were not retained in the Lithuanian rendering, however the translators employed other means which still revealed the meaning intended by the author. Thus, on the basis of three metaphor translation models it is possible to assert that the SL frames were mainly projected onto TL linguistic elements.

## Conclusions

After a thorough analysis of theoretical material and the selected examples the following conclusions can be drawn:

1. One of the basic fundamentals of the cognitive linguistic approach is that human cognition is substantially dependent upon mappings between mental spaces and independent of language. These mappings take forms what Lakoff and Johnson (1980) refer to as “conceptual metaphor” that structure human thinking and have correlation between two conceptual domains: clearly organized domain (the source domain) is used to understand less clearly structured domain (the target domain).
2. From the cognitive point of view, metaphors are the domain of non-literal language. Non-literal language refers to phrases or expressions in which the intended meaning is independent of literal meaning. Metaphors being a part of non-literal language help to visualize what is meant by these expressions. Conceptual metaphors are determined by the discourse. Therefore, in political discourse they are employed strategically for making abstract issues accessible to the mind of the receiver. The existence of systematicity of linguistic elements in metaphorical language leads to the formation of certain clusters of conceptual metaphors.
3. This study focuses on the translation of conceptual metaphors in political discourse and sets out to examine the ways of their rendering with reference to the frame theory. The “frame” notion served as a criterion for the selection of the corpus (establishing conceptual metaphors in political discourse). It was a starting point for the analysis, helping to identify the metaphorical expressions that were labeled as “linguistic manifestations” that include any word, expression or textual segment that activates a frame. The conceptual metaphors introduced and analyzed in this study were POLITICS IS WAR, POLITICS IS SPORT, POLITICS IS A JOURNEY, POLITICS IS BUSINESS, POLITICS IS MEDICINE, POLITICS IS THEATRE, POLITICS IS ARCHITECTURE, POLITICS IS HUNTING, and POLITICS IS A GAME.
4. A first account showed that the distribution of conceptual metaphors under the established frames is unequal. The empirical analysis suggests that the linguistic manifestations grouped as POLITICS IS WAR dominated the corpus. It was the most frequent dominant metaphor and permeated the book. Besides, *war*, *sport* and *journey* metaphors play roughly comparable role as dominant metaphors, although *war* metaphor clearly prevail among the important metaphors. A further analysis revealed that *sport* metaphors, which were likely to prevail, were less used than *journey* ones. Ultimately, *game* and *hunting* metaphors were the most rejected by the author. Moreover, metaphors tend to

swap their positions in the book. The *war* metaphor was both most frequent and most entrenched in the corpus. It tended to occur at the beginning and end. The *game* metaphor was by far the least frequent one and did not appear in any salient position in the book. However, *hunting* metaphor, which was one of the least prominent in metaphor clusters, featured at the end.

5. To examine rendering peculiarities of the established conceptual metaphors I implemented a frame translation model. The inventory of conceptual metaphors and their translation illustrates the existent correspondence between frames of source language and target language. Most of the SL frames (78,38%) were projected on TL linguistic elements and coincided as mostly all conceptual metaphors were translated keeping the same frame. To preserve stylistic connotation of the text and to reveal the meaning in some cases translators used the other relevant frames (10,14%) in the Lithuanian language. Thus, by substituting one frame by another, not only metaphoricity of the translation was retained, but the target text was kept very close to the source text. The last set of metaphors were translated as non-metaphors (11,49%), i.e. as ordinary word combinations. They did not preserve their stylistic status and did not reveal the figurative meaning. In both cases, the latter translation models (one frame substituting by another frame and translating as non-metaphor) were equally infrequent and made up the minority. Taking all these factors into account, this research proved that most SL frames corresponded to the TL frames what is the important fact to the comprehension process of the target audience.

**KONCEPTUALIOSIOS METAFOROS POLITINIAME DISKURSE IR JŲ VERTIMAS  
IŠ ANGLŲ KALBOS Į LIETUVIŲ KALBĄ HILLARY RODHAM CLINTON  
AUTOBIOGRAFIJOJE „GYVOJI ISTORIJA“**

**Santrauka**

**Summary in the Lithuanian Language**

Magistrinio darbo tema „Konceptualiosios metaforos politiniame diskurse ir jų vertimas iš anglų kalbos į lietuvių. Darbo tikslas yra nustatyti kaip konceptualiosios metaforos yra verčiamos iš anglų kalbos į lietuvių kalbą Hillary Rodham Clinton autobiografijoje „Gyvoji istorija“ (2003). Darbas susideda iš dviejų pagrindinių dalių: *teorinės* ir *praktinės*. Pirmoje dalyje aptariamos kognityviosios kalbotyros atsiradimo prielaidos ir konceptualiosios metaforos teorija, analizuojamos metaforinės kalbos ypatybės politiniame diskurse. Tai pat joje pateikiama išsamesnė metaforos vertimo teorijos apžvalga. Antroji dalis yra empirinė, kurioje konceptualiosios metaforos ir jų vertimas nagrinėjamas freimų teorijos požiūriu. Darbas grindžiamas G. Lakoff'o ir M. Johnson'o kognityviniu konceptualiosios metaforos požiūriu, kuri konceptualiosios metaforos pagrindu laiko žmogaus mintis, kalbą, elgesį. Buvo surinkti ir palyginti 740 pavyzdžių (lingvistinių manifestacijų) bei jų vertimų į lietuvių kalbą. Remiantis lingvistinių elementų sistemiškumu bei teminiu kryptingumu buvo išskirtos devynios konceptualiosios metaforos, kurių tikslo sritis yra *politika*: POLITIKA YRA KARAS, POLITIKA YRA SPORTAS, POLITIKA YRA KELIONĖ, POLITIKA YRA VERSLAS, POLITIKA YRA MEDICINA, POLITIKA YRA TEATRAS, POLITIKA YRA ARCHITEKTŪRA, POLITIKA YRA MEDŽIOKLĖ ir POLITIKA YRA ŽAIDIMAS. Vertimų analizė atlikta remiantis trimis vertimo modeliais. Ši analizė leidžia teigti, kad lingvistinės manifestacijos verčiant iš anglų kalbos į lietuvių kalbą išlaiko tą patį freimą. Tai rodo, kad nagrinėti originalo kalbos freimai daugeliu atveju buvo išversti ekvivalentiškai, todėl galima teigti, kad jie aktyvuoja atitinkamą freimą lietuvių kalboje. Taigi, nagrinėtų metaforų lingvistiniai elementai verčiant iš anglų kalbos į lietuvių kalbą gali būti priskirti tai pačiai metaforai, kas leidžia geriau suprasti tekstą.

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