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**METAPHORS IN THE HEADLINES OF ENGLISH AND**  
**LITHUANIAN BUSINESS ARTICLES**

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## SANTRAUKA

Metaforos nėra vien tik literatūroje vartojamos ir tekstui vaizdingumo suteikiančios stiliaus figūros, tai – daugiafunkcinis tropas, taikomas daugelyje skirtingų mokslo šakų. Ekonomikos kalbos diskurse metaforos naudojamos jau daugelį metų, jų randama mokslinėje šios srities literatūroje ir netgi ekonomikos terminijoje. Atsižvelgiant į tokią metaforų svarbą ekonomikos diskurse, buvo iškeltas pagrindinis šio **darbo tikslas** – išanalizuoti metaforas, esančias tiek lietuviškų, tiek angliškų verslo straipsnių antraštėse. Siekiant visiškai įgyvendinti šį tikslą, užsibrėžti penki tiksliniai **darbo uždaviniai**: apžvelgti ir analizuoti mokslinę literatūrą, susijusią su metaforomis ir jų klasifikacijomis; iš verslo straipsnių antraščių išrinkti lietuviškų ir angliškų metaforų pavyzdžius; išanalizuoti surinktus pavyzdžius pagal metaforų ištakų klasifikacijos teoriją ir pagal metaforų sudarymo panašumus; palyginti šiuos du metaforų suskirstymus ir atlikti kiekybinę analizę, siekiant išsiaiškinti metaforų pasiskirstymą pagal ištakas ir panašumus lietuvių ir anglų kalbose. Kaip matyti iš pateiktų darbo tikslų, pagrindinis šio **darbo objektas** yra metaforos, vartojamos verslo straipsnių antraštėse lietuvių ir anglų kalbomis.

Pirmiausia buvo atlikta literatūros apžvalga tiek lietuvių, tiek anglų kalbomis. Darbe remtasi lietuvių ir užsienio autorių moksliniais darbais. Visa teorinė darbo dalis padalinta į dvi dalis: 1. „Reikšmės ir metaforos“; 2. „Publicistinis stilius ir antraštės“. Šios dvi didelės grupės skaidytos į mažesnius pogrupius: 1.1. „Semantika ir reikšmės“; 1.2. „Metaforos ir jų tipologija“; 2.1. „Funkcinių stilių apžvalga“; 2.2. „Antraštės ir jų svarba“.

Norint surinkti kuo įvairesnių pavyzdžių, panaudoti keturi šaltiniai: lietuviškos metaforos surinktos iš specializuoto ekonomikos žurnalo „**Verslo žinios**“ ir populiariausio dienraščio „**Lietuvos rytas**“ verslo skilties, o angliškos metaforos surinktos iš specializuoto žurnalo „**The Economist**“ ir žinių portalo „**BBC News**“ verslo skilties. Iš viso surinkta 330 pavyzdžių: 160 angliškų ir 170 lietuviškų metaforų. Tyrimo metodologija buvo pagrįsta vengrų kilmės lingvisto Zoltán Kövecses teorija apie metaforų klasifikavimą pagal jų ištakas ir lietuvių lingvisto Juozo Pikčilingio metaforų formavimo metodu pagal dviejų denotatų panašumus. Pasitelkus kiekybinę analizę, siekta išsiaiškinti, kuris iš anksčiau paminėtų klasifikavimo būdų dažniau naudojamas anglų ir lietuvių kalbose, taip pat siekta sužinoti, kokių pagrindų suformuotos metaforos dažniausiai pasitaiko minėtose kalbose.

Atlikus tyrimus aprašomuoju ir kiekybiniu metodais, paaiškėjo, kad metaforos lietuvių bei anglų kalbose teoriniu požiūriu yra labai panašios tiek savo paskirtimi, tiek ir formavimo būdais. Metaforų ištakų teorija taikoma abiejose nagrinėtose kalbose, tačiau anglų kalboje dažniausiai aptinkami ištakų tipai yra „sportas ir žaidimai“ bei „gyvūnai“, o lietuvių kalboje – „mašinos ir įrankiai“ bei „kryptis ir judėjimas“. Lietuvių kalboje metaforos dažniausiai formuojamos pagal dviejų denotatų panašumus, anglų kalboje taip atsitinka retai, nors iš tų retų atvejų anglų kalboje dažniau pasitaikantis formavimo pagal panašumus tipas yra „panašumai pagal padėtį erdvėje“, o lietuvių kalboje dažniausiai pasitaikantis tipas – „panašumai pagal atliekamą veiksmą“. Nuosekliai išanalizavus ir palyginus šias dvi klasifikacijas, prieita išvados, kad abi jos yra panašios tuo, kad formavimo būdai klasifikuojami remiantis konkrečiais reiškiniiais. Tačiau pagrindinis jų skirtumas slypi klasifikacijų kategorijų pavadinimuose: klasifikavimo pagal ištakas kategorijos iškart apibrėžia konkrečias sąvokas, o klasifikacijos pagal denotatų panašumus kategorijos reiškiamos abstrakčiomis sąvokomis.

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## SUMMARY

Metaphor is not just a trope of figurative language, it is a multifunctional trope found in many different fields of sciences. Metaphors have been one of the most useful features in the discourse of economics for many years. Not just the language used by economists but also articles and the terminology of economics is full of metaphorical phrases. In accordance with the importance of metaphors in the discourse of economics, the main **aim of this work** is to analyse metaphors in the headlines of business articles in both English and Lithuanian languages. In order to achieve the aim, five **goals of this work** were set: to make a theoretical overview of literature on metaphors; to identify and select metaphors from business articles headlines in Lithuanian and English languages; to analyse metaphors by source domains and similarities of construction; to compare differences and similarities between these types of classification and to carry out a quantitative analysis of different metaphors occurrence in both languages. As these goals show, the **object of this work** is metaphors used in headlines of business articles in English and Lithuanian languages.

First of all, the theoretical overview of literature on metaphors was done. Many academic papers of Lithuanian and foreigner scholars were used in this work. The whole theoretical part is divided into two big chapters: 1. “Meanings and Metaphors” and 2. “Publicist Style and Headlines”. These chapters are divided in smaller sub-chapters: “1.1. Semantics and Meanings”; “1.2. Metaphors and their Typology”; “2.1. Review of Functional Styles”; “2.2. Headlines in the Publicist Style”.

In order to collect many various examples, the sources of analysis were four different websites of news. All examples of Lithuanian metaphors were collected from business magazine “**Verslo žinios**” and business column of the news website “**Lietuvos rytas**”. All examples of English metaphors were collected from business column of the news website “**BBC News**” and specific business magazine “**The Economist**”. Altogether 330 examples were collected; it means 170 examples of metaphors in the Lithuanian language and 160 examples of metaphors in the English language. The part of analysis was based on two scholars. The first one is Hungarian linguist Zoltán Kövecses and his theory about classification of metaphors by source domains. The second scholar is Lithuanian linguist Juozas Pikčilingis and his method of metaphors’ classification by similarities. In order to find out which one of these two methods is the most frequent in the Lithuanian and English languages, the quantitative analysis was done.

From the theoretical point of view, metaphors are similar in the Lithuanian and English languages and that was shown by results of descriptive and quantitative analyses. In both of these languages metaphors have similar purposes and ways of construction. The theory of metaphors' classification by source domains is applicable in both English and Lithuanian languages. The most common source domains in the English language are "*games and sports*" and "*animals*". This is a different situation than in the Lithuanian language, where the most common source domains are "*machines and tools*" and "*movements and directions*". Another formation method by similarities is very frequent in the Lithuanian language and absolutely favourite type of this method in the process of construction is "similarities in actions". However, the method of classification by similarities is not common in the English language, but, despite this fact, some examples were found and, according to these results, the most common type of similarities in the English language is "*similarities in position*". After precise analyses of these two classifications it was found that they are similar because both of them classify the ways of construction which are based by concrete things. However, the main difference between them is in the titles of the categories; i.e. titles of categories of classification by source domains are defined by concrete concepts, but all titles of categories of classification by similarities are defined by abstract concepts (e.g. sounds, value, and function).



## INTRODUCTION

There are so many different phenomena, things, expressions and signs all over this world and each of them have its own meaning. Therefore, it could be said that this world is a world of meanings (Greimas, 2006:31). People always try to understand the environment where they live and how it works; the easiest way to do it is to classify all things in categories People needed to collect, explain and classify plenty of meanings and this is how step by step the semantics was created.

Semantics is the study of meaning. It focuses on the relation between signifiers, like words, phrases, signs, and symbols, and what they stand for, their denotation. Linguistic semantics is the study of meaning that is used for understanding human expression through language (The Lithuanian Language Encyclopedia, 1999:573). However, as any other science in linguistic field, semantics is always changing because the language is a living organism and as the result there are semantic changes. One of the well-known and commonly used changes is called metaphors. It is a figure of speech that identifies something as being the same as some unrelated thing, for rhetorical effect, thus highlighting the similarities between the two.

Metaphors are commonly used in political and business texts or in satirical literature in order to say abrasive things in sarcastic way. Therefore, metaphorical headlines of business articles will be analyzed in this work. There will be discussed how they are used, in which specific business topic metaphors are the most likely, determination of the nature of the most used metaphors, classification of them and estimation. Therefore, considering all these factors the main aims and goals of this work were set.

**The aim of this work is** to analyse metaphors in the headlines of business articles in both English and Lithuanian languages.

**The goals of this work are the following:**

- 1) to make a theoretical overview of literature on metaphors;
- 2) to identify and select metaphors from business articles headlines in Lithuanian and English languages;
- 3) to analyze metaphors by source domains and similarities of construction;
- 4) to compare differences and similarities between these types of classification;
- 5) to carry out a quantitative analysis of different metaphors occurrence in both languages.

**The object of this work is** metaphors used in headlines of business articles in English and Lithuanian languages.

## 1. MEANINGS AND METAPHORS

### 1.1. Semantics and Meanings

From the very first human on the earth, the main aim of every man is to understand. People try to understand everything: from languages to actions, from ordinary conversations to sciences, from living environment to the significance of life. The result of understating is the ability to explain the meaning. In order to catch and understand the meaning, human being use five main senses and when something is recognized by one of these senses they look natural to a human being. These elements, which show meanings in the sensual level of understanding, are called “signifiers”. In general, signifiers belong to the natural world because they are not working under human power. In accordance with this idea, signifiers are dividing into 5 groups: 1) *visible*; 2) *audible*; 3) *touchable*; 4) *detected by nose*; 5) *detected by mouth*. This classification of signifiers is called non-verbal but it defines the main level how human understand meanings (Greimas, 2005:38). Therefore, there are a few disciplines which are concerned with the systematic study of meaning: psychology, philosophy and linguistics. The psychology is interested in how people get, understand and lose information. The philosophy analyses how people are able to accept truth and how it works with other facts. Finally, the linguistics tries to find out how people use language, how they are able to understand each other, how they create, remember or change meanings of words (Kreidler, 1998:2). In this work the term “meaning” will be used and analyzed in the field of linguistics and it depends on the fact that this work is a part of linguistic studies.

There is a separate branch of linguistics which analyzes the term “meaning” and it is called semantics. “Semantics is the systematic study of meaning, and linguistic semantics is the study of how languages organize and express meaning” (Kreidler, 1998:3). However, it must be specified that semantics is interested in smaller linguistic entities as words, phrases, sentences and grammatical forms, but not in general entities as actions or phenomena. This is because using of smaller entities of language as words or sentences cannot be studied independently (Löbner, 2002:3). Of course, the main unit in all research of semantics is word. There are two main ways to study the meaning of the word:

- 1) Research in correlation with other words;
- 2) Research in correlation with world.

The first way syntagmatic and paradigm connections between words are analyzed and it shows the structural view of the meaning. The second way analyzes the connection between language and thinking and it shows the cognitive view of the meaning (Maumevičienė, 2010: 11-18). In general, the term “meaning” has no single absolutely correct definition and until today many linguists have been arguing about it. The best example is that many different definitions of meaning have been developed. All of them are correct but each of them refers to different understanding what the connection between

meaning and concept is. In accordance with this fact, all definitions could be divided into two main groups: structural and cognitive. However, all these issues exist at the scientific level. In the real world the meaning depends on every human individual. In this way, the term “meaning” is very subjective, but the indisputable fact is that there is one general meaning to all users of one language. One public and general meaning is created because of similar experiences and typical situations of communication (Gudavičius, 2007:21). However, language is lively organism so it changes constantly and all lexical meanings are changing as well.

When the ordinary life changes fast, many new things, technologies and phenomenon are created and all of them need new names and terms. The same situation is with old-fashioned things; so many terms are eliminated from language in a natural way. In linguistics there are four main ways to change the meaning:

- 1) Creating new meanings;
- 2) Eliminating old meanings;
- 3) Some meanings are getting narrower or wider (E.g. the English word “understand” means “to know the meaning of something that someone says” but as the morphological analysis shows originally this word meant “to stand under something”);
- 4) Meanings are borrowed from foreign languages (E.g. the word “pioneer” means “a person who is the first at doing something” but in time of Soviet Union this word got a new meaning “a member of political organization for kids”) (Palionis, 1999:175).

Reasons of changing could be very different: when two different things have the same meanings, when some meanings are borrowed from the foreign language, etc. In these days, the most common way of meanings’ changing is borrowing new meanings from the foreign languages. Especially, this phenomenon is apparent in some field of new technologies. In linguistics there are two main types of changed lexical meanings:

1. **Metaphors** – when title of denotation is given to other denotation in accordance with external or internal similarities;
2. **Metonymies** – when title of denotation is given to other denotation in accordance with logical connections (Palionis, 1999:176).

There are many factors which cause metaphorical changes, but the main are these: similarities in shape of denotations, similarities in noise or sounds which are created by different denotations, similarities in functions of denotations, similarities in associations which are created by two different denotations. Similarities are dual: internal and external. In linguistics, all new meanings are called neo-semanticisms (Palionis, 1999:176).

## 1.2. Metaphors and their typology

“People still think of metaphor as a rhetorical device used by poets and writers to decorate or render their messages more effectively or ornately. Nothing could be farther from the truth.” (Danesi, 1993:107). Metaphor is a very specific trope created by various similarities. It is a synthesis of two things and it is a sum of images created by these two things. Metaphor is a trope where words are used in a figurative sense (Pikčilingis, 2010:440). This definition will be the main for the term “metaphor” in this work.

Metaphor is one of the most important tropes in figurative language, because metaphors are widely used in every kind of literature, social media or even in ordinary conversations. There are many steady metaphors, which are used as idioms and they do not require more arguments; people use and understand these metaphors as an indisputable public truth (Tamaševičius, 2011:5). It could be said that metaphors have a cultural face and it reflects many things about society and every particular social group. This is because they are deeply embedded in culture and reveal conceptual thinking (Wilson, 2010). Metaphors change the lexical meaning of a phrase and a new metaphorical meaning comes from permanent lexical meaning because of specific context. However, it must be said that metaphors cannot be understood as a real view, it is not possible to imagine any metaphor as a physical phenomenon. The realized metaphor looks like nothing but absurdity, e. g. *the sea of tears/ ašarų jūra* (Zaborskaitė, 1982:107).

“Metaphor is a fundamental form of thought.” (Danesi, 1993: 107). Metaphors are used not only in literature as a trope of figurative language, but they are thinking tools for human as well. Just because of metaphors, people are able to conceptualize the world, to describe feelings and emotions and to explain other things which do not have material body. In a nutshell, metaphors are “the cognitive phenomenon that converts factual feeling-states into artifactual conceptual structures.” (Danesi, 1993: 107). The origin of metaphors could be expressed in a structural way:

$$\text{Factual World 1} + \text{Factual World 2} = \text{Artifactual World 3}$$

This structure shows how people are able to express one thing in the term of another. “World 1” and “World 2” are concrete, familiar, understandable and easy explainable things. These two “worlds” together create the third part (“World 3”), which is abstract, unfamiliar and usually has a figurative sense or double meaning. As it was said before, metaphor is a tool of thinking which helps people to create images for new, abstract and incomprehensible things from old experiences. In fact “metaphor can fabricate similarity and resemblance in the world of human experience. The only way we can conceptualize “similarity” or “resemblance” is metaphorical”(Danesi, 1993:112). This point of view is invented by Aristotle in his work “Rhetoric and Poetics” (approx. 4th century BC) and he said that

metaphors explain something fundamental about human' mind. For many years, this point of view has been rejected or expanded, but all basic premises have never been completely discarded. It must be kept in mind that metaphors are used to explain abstract things in many spheres not only in literature, so this view of verbal metaphor extends it beyond the sentence level to involve discourse, textuality and cultural aspects as well (Danesi, 1993:110).

It is important to understand that not every expressive phrase can be called a metaphor. There are two main types of these phrases: **conceptual metaphor** and **metaphorical linguistic expression**. The key of difference is lying in the base of formation. It means that metaphors are made of two or more subjects: the target domain (formative subject) and the source domain (explanatory subject) (Dancygier, Sweetser, 2014:12). So here is the main difference: a conceptual metaphor has an abstract concept as a target domain (e.g. feelings, ideas, emotions, etc.) and a concrete or physical concept as a source domain (e.g. food, plants, animals, etc.). In order to better understanding what the abstract concept is, people shall use another concept which might be more concrete, tangible or physical, because only experiences is the logical foundation of comprehension (Kövecses, 2002:6). In this work, conceptual metaphors are more important, so this is why this kind of metaphors will be explained wider. "The conceptual metaphor is one of the conceptualism's forms. It means and forms new terms. This kind of metaphors is connected with humans' ability to see and define similarities between two different objects." (Papurėlytė – Klovienė, 2005:44). Every conceptual metaphor has connections with basic features or movements of human body and living environment, because these things look elementary and this is why they can be connected with concepts from absolutely different areas. According to G. Lakoff, these connections are formed by the embodiment, because in the first place there are all things which are connected with sense of space and motoric movements of every human and then going all things which are connected with human' personality (Lakoff, Johnson, 1980:260). Many researches on metaphors have shown that conceptual metaphors have a few different orders. These orders represent three kinds of ideas and thoughts: 1) can be consumed; 2) can live and die like people; 3) can be in or out of style (Danesi, 1998:123). When an abstract object is connected with a concrete object, not all features of the concrete object are used. It means that when people create a conceptual metaphor, they somehow understand and find the same physical or emotional features. It could be said that all conceptual metaphors are different versions of object understanding in reality and they are different explanations of the content which belongs to one concept. All conceptual metaphors have one common part which is called "invariant part" (Papurėlytė – Klovienė, 2005:44). This "invariant part" always depends on source and target domains, which are chosen not randomly.

As it was mentioned before, metaphors usually are made of two or more subjects. The first subject must be the former one, it means, it could be an abstract word, and the second subject must explain the

first one, so it must be concrete, well-known word or phrase and do not have indirect meanings. In the terminology, the former subject is called the **target domain** and the concrete subject is called **source domain**. For instance, there is a metaphor *Argument is a war*, so in this case, “*Argument*” is a target domain and “*war*” is a source domain. One more important thing about domains is that both the source and target domains are based on a set of systematic correspondences which are called “**mappings**”. Mappings permit us to reason about the target domain using the experience to reason about the source domain (Dancygier, Sweetser, and 2014:14). This model suggests that abstract concepts are systematically formed through the way of mappings. As it was mentioned before, source and target domains are not chosen randomly, so this is why there the precise classification of them is provided. This classification of source and target domains has been made by Hungarian-linguist Zoltán Kövecses (Kövecses, 2002:16).

The most frequent sources to form the source domain are the following:

1. **Human body** – the most common and elementary source domain. In order to make a comprehension easier, many various parts of the body could be involved in metaphors (head, hands, legs and etc.) Not only the external parts could be mentioned in metaphors, but many organs which are inside the body could be used as well (heart, brain, liver, etc.) *E.g. The broken heart; to shoulder a responsibility.*
2. **Health and illness** – these two are the most frequent state of human life and these concepts are very widely used in the process of metaphors’ formation. *E.g. A healthy society; he hurts my feelings.*
3. **Animals** – this one is very productive source domain. Not only specific features of animals are mentioned in metaphors, but some body parts could be used as well (horns, tail, wings, etc.) *E.g. Faithful as dog; big as bear.*
4. **Plants** – from the first civilizations, people cultivate plants for many purposes, so they mention plants in metaphors as well. *E.g. The budding beauty; the fruit of hard labour.*
5. **Buildings and constructions** – people construct houses and other construction for living, working and other purposes, so the building in general and all separate parts are used in metaphors. *E.g. A towering genius; he constructed a coherent argument.*
6. **Machines and tools** – these could be used for working, playing, fighting, etc. so this is why machines and tool show up as an linguistic expressions. *E.g. The machine of the government; the thinking tool.*
7. **Games and sport** – people always need various entertainments so they use parts of it in speech as well. *E.g. To toy with the idea; he tried to checkmate her.*

8. **Money and economic transactions** – economic trade, transactions and other kinds of money operations are well-known from the very first civilizations, this is why money has a significant meaning for every people and this concept is used as a source domain for metaphors. *E.g. Spend your time wisely; she invested a lot in the relationship.*
9. **Cooking and food** – it is a part of everyday routine and in this way food become a source for metaphors. Not just food is involved in linguistics, but separate ingredients, recipes, dishes and actions are involved as well. *E.g. What is your recipe for success?; He cooked up the unbelievable story.*
10. **Heat and cold** – these two are basic experiences and state of human and either heat or cold is a permanent condition of living environment. The temperature is used as a source domain to describe the attitude to people or things. *E.g. The warm welcome; the cold hug.*
11. **Light and darkness** – these two are basic experiences as well and the basic condition for activities of every lively organisms. It could be said that, light and darkness are very frequent source. *E.g. He is in a dark mood; she brightened up.*
12. **Forces** – this section is about non-human forces (magnetic, gravitational, electric, etc.) and these forces could be expressed in many physical ways (wind, waves, fire, etc.) and described as activities (pushing, pulling, etc.) These physical bodies and activities are very common in metaphors. *E.g. I was overwhelmed; she swept me off my feet.*
13. **Movement and direction** – this section includes stationary location or the movements (up, down, forward, back, there, where, etc.). *E.g. You went me crazy; All things are getting better step by step.*

There were provided only the main groups of source domains. However, there can be smaller groups or even some unexpected cases, because it is not possible to classified language, if its ability to change is kept in mind.

A list of target domains is provided by Z. Kövecses as well; because every metaphor is combined of two parts (source and target domains.) Here is a list of most frequent target domains of metaphors.

1. **Emotions** – this is a very frequent target domain, because emotions are the main abstract concept which people meet every day. Logically, there is no other way to define emotions like love, anger, happiness, fear or pride than a metaphorical way. *E.g. He was bursting with joy.*
2. **Desire** – this section is similar like the previous one and comprehended as a force too. However, it is not a physical force, but it is all about psychological forces. *E.g. she is burning to go; he is starved for attention.*

3. **Morality** – all moral categories (good, bad, honesty, honour, etc.) are better understood when they are expressed in a more concrete way. *E.g. I'll pay you back for this; he is a shady character.*
4. **Thoughts** – the way how human minds are working is still little known. In order to express thoughts in clear way, many visualization and comparisons are needed. *E.g. I see your point; she is grinding out a new idea.*
5. **Society/ nation** – the concept of society is very complex, so it requires metaphorically explanations. Usually, this category is expressed through the source domains related with family or persons. *E. g. Friendly nation; neighbouring countries.*
6. **Politics** – politics is a synonym of power and in this way “power” is conceptualized as a physical force. This category is connected with source domains of war, business and games. *E.g. The president plays hardball.*
7. **Human relationships** – this category includes concepts as passion, friendship, love, marriage, etc. Usually, these things are expressed by abstract things as plants, buildings or even animals. *E.g. They built a strong marriage; their friendship is in a full flower.*
8. **Communication** – a visual portrait of communication is a speaker and a hearer, but the main aim of communication is a transferring of messages. So this aim needs a metaphorical expression. *E.g. She gave me a lot of information; you put too much information in one sentence.*
9. **Time** – this concept is the most difficult and abstract. Even metaphors there are almost helpless, because the all comprehensions with time are about moving or flying. *E.g. Time goes by fast; the following week.*
10. **Life and death** – these two concepts are metaphorically by nature, because of their mystery. Usually these concepts are related with moving (“*Life is a journey*”) and typically life is related with arriving/ coming/ beginning and death is related with dark/ ends/ frost. *E.g. Our grandmother is passed away; the baby will arrive soon.*
11. **Religion** – this category is all about God and this is just a created phenomenon so it is metaphorically by nature. *E.g. We all are children of our God.*

In sum up, all these target sources are psychological or mental states, social processes, personal experiences and natural events. There are a lot of abstract, untouchable and incomprehensible things, so it is not possible to classify all of them. In this case, just the main categories were provided and there could be more categories of target sources in reality (Kövecses, 2002:24).

In order to explain all indefinite and intangible things, metaphors are used. Many abstract things as emotions, thoughts or time are explained by metaphors, because human are able to understand and



create images of abstract things only in metaphorical way. Representatives of cognitive linguistics say that human' conceptual system of thinking is always working just in a metaphorical way. "Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature." (Lakoff, Johnson, 1980:2). In this way, metaphors are not only the trope of figurative language but a supporting thinking tool as well. In sum up, those metaphors, which are used for thinking, are called cognitive or conceptual, and those, which are used to name new things, are called lingual or nominative. From the cognitive view of linguistics there are more kinds of metaphors: structural, orientational and ontological.

- **Structural metaphors** describe all abstract things in more concrete way. It means the abstract intangible target domain is understood by means of the structure of the concrete tangible source domain. In this way, people are able to understand the target domain via elaborate structure of the source domain; e.g. *argument is a war*.
- **Oriental metaphors** are more difficult because in this way the abstract thing is created and shown in space. This type is rooted in people's physical and cultural experiences, involves the mapping of a simple spatial structure onto a complex non-spatial structure. Metaphors of this type have many spatial references which originate from the interaction between human being and nature; e.g. *social status*.
- **Ontological metaphors** belong to the most difficult type, because in this way all abstract things get material body. In this type abstract ideas and concepts are embodied; e.g. *sharp pain*; *big happiness*. This type of metaphors shows the function of referring, quantifying, identifying and setting goals (Dancygier, Sweetser, 2014:15).

These three groups are connected with each other and some metaphors could belong to a few groups simultaneously (Drūlienė, 2008: 74). This process is very frequent because people are not able to talk about things which have no material expression. Therefore, first of all, people create an image of abstract thing, then design it in space and then a structure shall be developed (Marcinkevičienė, 1994:80).

The main aim of all metaphors is to make one abstract thing understandable in the term of other, more concrete and well-defined thing. In this way, more words are used and metaphor gets the same form as collocations have (Lakoff, Johnson, 1980:3). Because of this, there could be some difficulties to recognize metaphors in the text. Many collocations have double meanings: direct and indirect. E.g. *shaking foundations of corporate*; this sentence could be understood in directly way – the foundation of the building is not strong enough, they are moving and there could be a catastrophe. On the other hand, this sentence can be understood in a metaphorical way – the corporation has a lot of financial

difficulties and it goes to bankrupt. So, when the indirectly meaning is used, it means that the phrase is not a usual collocation but a metaphor. Another criterion for metaphors is that, there is no possibility to use other words in metaphors. It means there are many steady metaphors and if some words are changed, the metaphor loses its original meaning. For instance, *cry me a river*; the word “river” could be changed into any word with similar meaning as *lake* or *ocean*, but then the meaning would be totally dropped. To sum up, when one part of collocation cannot be changed because the meaning would be lost, it means that it is not a usual collocation but a metaphor. The last criterion for metaphors is collocation range. It means that some words have very general meaning and they can be used in many different collocations with different meanings. In this way, there is no possibility to create a metaphor. For example, the word *animal* can be compound with many words as *big*, *angry* or *brown*, but these collocations are not metaphors because all these words have very general meaning, but collocation *wild as animal* is a metaphor because there are just a few ways to use word *wild* (Drūlienė, 2008:76).

Metaphors are different from idioms because they do not have a permanent meaning. Metaphor and its meaning always depend on the context of the text and on the ingenuity of the author. However, it cannot be said that metaphor is an unrestricted trope, because in this way it might be incomprehensible and do not have connections with reality. There are many ways how metaphors are created and metaphorical phrases can be compounded of words or terms from different fields; e.g. sport, biology, medicine, new technologies, military terms, jargon and etc. The creation process of metaphors is up to the author but, how it was mentioned before, it is not absolutely freely and it must have a logical basis. Metaphor is a trope which is created by similarities of two things and here are the main bases:

1. **Similarities in exterior** – e. g. *Ugnies liežuviai krito ant galvos/ The detective listened to her tales with a wooden face*;
2. **Similarities in colours** – e. g.. *žydi ir mano mergužėlės skaistieji veidai/ Phyllis, ah, Phyllis, my life is a gray day*;
3. **Similarities in sounds** – e.g. *Ir toly nuo duslių patrankų lojimo krūpčiojo laukai/ The drums of time have rolled and ceased*;
4. **Similarities in positions in space** – e.g. *Vienas vežimo uodegos galas siekė priėmimo punktą, kitas gi buvo toli lauke ir dar ilgėjo; He wanted to set sail on the ocean of love but he just wasted away in the desert*;
5. **Similarities in actions** – e. g. *Senas varnas visą dieną yrėsi į vakarus /The clouds sailed across the sky*;
6. **Similarities in image** – e. g. *Viduryje iškišta lėtų gerklė, kamino pavidalo, dabar visai nukrypusi į kitą pusę/ He pleaded for her forgiveness but Janet's heart was cold iron*;

7. **Similarities in quantity** – e. g. *Pilnas laukas trupinių ir šmotelis lašinių/ I was lost in a sea of nameless faces*;
8. **Similarities in value** – e. g. *Taip pat iš žemės siurbia tūkstančius tonų skystojo aukso/ Her hair was a flowing golden river streaming down her shoulders*;
9. **Similarities in functions** – e. g. *Laiko dantys aštrūs – laikas ir kalnus sugraūžia/ A recipe for success*; (Pikčilingis, 2010:443-448).

Previous paragraphs explained metaphors as a phenomenon of linguistics, the ways how metaphors are formed, how metaphors work as a trope of figurative language and as a tool of thinking for people. However, there are more fields where metaphors are essential. For instance, metaphors have been one of the most useful features in the discourse of economics for many years. Not just the language is used by economists but also the terminology of economics is full of metaphorical phrases. Metaphor is very common and important in this academic discipline, so between the 80's and 90's many famous linguists and economists analysed this topic (González, 2011:64-79). Economic metaphors are very different and this is a very wide category, naturally, many different source domains are used in the forming process. However, many researches show that there are three main groups of source domains for metaphors in the economic discourse: 1) **people** (E.g. *Microsoft and Apple are two giants in IT market now.*); 2) **organisms** (E.g. *The economy of China is growing very fast.*); 3) **animals** (E.g. *EU and Russia is playing cat and mouse in the negotiations about price of gas*). When economy is in a comparison with other things or phenomena, these three groups of source domains are dominated (Charteris-Black, 2000). The main stream of metaphors in economic discourse is the organic paradigm. Aspects of an economy are often described as features of lively organisms, realizing the genetic conceptual metaphor “Economy is an organism” observed in such lexical items as ‘growth’ or ‘recovers’ (Heidari, Dabaghi, 2015). This feature is very common in the headlines of economic articles, because it might describe the article in a few words with very condensed information. Metaphors have a close connection with headlines, especially in the business articles, and this is the reason why headlines as a phenomenon of linguistic will be analysed in this work.

## 2. PUBLICISTIC STYLE AND HEADLINES

As this thesis is concerned with analysis of metaphors in business articles, it is with while to briefly discussed publicist style, main features of headlines and the way how headlines work with tools of figurative language.

### 2.1. Review of functional styles

Usually, people use one language in daily life. However, language has many different forms in different fields of using. For example, in fiction literature very creative style of language is used but in

legal documents strict and clear language full of clichés could be found. These changes depend on a very wide field of linguistics called stylistics. As one famous linguist P. Simpson said “to do stylistics is to explore language and, more specifically, to explore creativity in language use.” Stylistics helps people to determine the field of the text, to classify language and use it as a tool (Simpson, 2004:18). In order to understand how to use language in different fields, there is a classification of features of different styles and this classification is called “functional styles”. Functional styles are the subsystems of language, each subsystem having its own features where the specific vocabulary, syntactical constructions, and phonetics are involved. The existence of functional styles is connected with human communication in different spheres. Functional styles differ not only by the possibility or impossibility of using some elements but also due to the frequency of their usage (Lithuanian Language Encyclopedia, 1999:204). It could be said that the style of the text is a part of discourse but it is a very wide range and there are many variations how it should be analyzed. Usually, “style is treated as a characteristic way of using language.” (Biber, Conrad, 2009:23).

Every functional style is marked by a specific use of language means, thus establishing its own norms which are subordinated to the norm-invariant and which do not violate the general notion of the literary norm. The classification of functional styles is very complicated and a little bit different in every language. Russian linguist I.R. Galperin distinguishes five main functional styles in modern English (Galperin, 1981:29) and Lithuanian linguist A. Barzdžiukienė indicates five functional styles in the Lithuanian language as well (Barzdžiukienė, 2003:47).

Tables1. Functional styles in the English and Lithuanian languages

	<b>Official style</b>	<b>Scientific style</b>	<b>Poetic style</b>	<b>Newspaper style</b>	<b>Publicist style</b>
<b>English language</b>	Official documents; papers	Articles, monographs; academic publications	All genres of imaginative writing	Observed in the majority of newspapers	Articles, essays, public speeches and all genres using in social media
	<b>Administracinis (kanceliarinis)</b>	<b>Mokslinis</b>	<b>Meninis</b>	<b>Buitinis (šnekamasis)</b>	<b>Publicistinis</b>
<b>Lithuanian language</b>	Documents, protocols, reports and similar papers for official purpose	Academic and scientific papers	Fiction literature	Daily conversations; online chats	All papers of social media

In sum up, functional styles are almost similar in both English and Lithuanian languages. There are just two differences:

- 1) In the Lithuanian language there is specific functional style to describe everyday vocabulary and ordinary conversations and this style is called “**Buitinis** (šnekamasis)” and in the English language there is nothing similar like this style;
- 2) In the Lithuanian language there is one functional style for papers of social media and this style is called “**Publicistinis**“. However, in the English language there are two functional styles for the similar purposes and these styles are called “**Publicist style**” and “**Newspaper style**”.

As the title of this work (“Metaphors in the Headlines of Business Articles”) says, the publicist style is the focus of attention here. In this case, the publicist style might be discussed in the wider way.

Unlike other styles, it has two spoken varieties called the oratorical sub-style and the radio/ TV commentary. The other two sub-styles are the essay (moral, philosophical, literary) and journalistic articles (political, social, and economic). The general aim of publicist style is to affect the public opinion, to convince the reader or the listener that the interpretation given by the writer or the speaker is the only one truth (Bitinienė, 2007:26).

Publicist style is characterized by coherent and logical syntactical structure with an expanded system of connectives and careful paragraphing. Its emotional appeal is achieved by the use of words with the emotive meaning but the stylistic devices are not authentic. The individual element is not very clear. Publicist style is also characterized by the briefness of expression, sometimes it becomes a leading feature. The key functions of the publicist style are communication, expressiveness and to appeal to the reader's consciousness (Barzdžiukienė, 2003:106). This style is dividing into smaller parts which are called genres, e.g. article, reportage, feuilleton, essay, news (Bitinienė, 2007:81). The most popular and useful genre in social media is an article and it has strict rules which define the structure of the text. The logical structure of an article depends on the way how the information is given. The information must be divided in the key information and secondary information where all facts and other information are concentrated. The key information is the most important and it grabs the attention of reader. This is the reason why the key information is formulated in the headline. In order to intrigue the reader, headlines have different graphical view and sometimes they are repeated a few times (on the cover of the newspaper or magazine and above the article) (Bitinienė, 2007:62). Thereby, it is clear that, texts of publicist style have a strict structure and the main component of this structure is headline.

## 2.2. Headlines in Publicist style

Headlines are significant part of any newspapers because they are essential accents of every article. In other words, a headline has the same importance as the text below it. There is no secret that a big part of readers do not read the whole text because there are too many information and not enough time, so they read only headlines and get the main information and concept of the article. In this way, headlines are like the top level of the hypertext (Marcinkevičienė, 2008:175).

In general, headlines are the most important part of all articles and they are provided in the beginning of the article. Headlines might be laconic, informative and attractive. All headlines are divided into two main categories: the first category involves short and informative headlines which give the main concept about the article to the reader. The second category involves creative headlines; usually they are sarcastic and have a hidden meaning. This kind of headlines is supposed to impress the reader and give the main concept of the article as well. These expressive headlines might define the text and to present it in a condensed form. Headline should be written in a suggestible way, because it must create a very strong impact to the reader (Bitinienė, 2007:62).

The function of headlines depends on the kind of information. Some researchers say that headlines might to provide the main idea of the text. In this way, headlines have a nominative function. Other researchers assert that the main functions of headlines are to give information and to make an impact, because headlines might not just give the main concept to the reader but they have to stimulate social estimation and opinion of the reader also. The third group of researchers says that all headlines have expressive and graphic functions because they have an individual graphical position than the rest part of the text (Bitinienė, 2007:62). The main goals of every headline are to define the most important accents of the article, to emphasize the topicality of the article, to make the graphic view of the page more attractive and to show the type of the newspaper or magazine, because newspapers, scandal sheets, tabloids or magazines have different format of headlines (Marcinkevičienė, 2008:176). Usually, headlines have all these functions and it is difficult to choose only one.

All headlines are divided into two basic structural types: noun phrases or sentences. When the headline is created as a sentence, it is focused on the verb. The verb is important because it gives clearness, concreteness, picturesqueness, dynamism to the headline and it defines the main idea of the text. When the headline is created as a noun phrase, it loses some information because just an abstract idea can be represented. Usually, these short and incomplete headlines are called “labels”. All headlines of the sentence type might be divided into three categories as well:

- 1) **Thematic headlines** – when the headline defines the main idea and concept of the article;

- 2) **Thesis headline** – when the headline defines only the main thesis of the article and nothing more concrete;
- 3) **Descriptive headlines** – when the headline defines the main thesis of the article and the personal opinion of the author (Marcinkevičienė 2008:177).

Only general categories of headlines, which are used in social media, were provided there. However, these categories are called differently in every language and/ or there could be more additional categories or some categories might be joined together. Therefore, the main goals and concept of headlines are the same in all languages and in professional lexicon of journalists it is called “attention grabbers” (Marcinkevičienė 2008:177).

As it was mentioned before, all headlines could be created as phrases or sentences. Nowadays, descriptive headlines, which are created as sentences, is the most common in social media. The main difference between thesis headlines and descriptive headlines is that the author is able to show the subjective opinion and use stylistic tools or figurative language in the descriptive headlines. It is very straight way to grab the attention of reader, but on the other hand, it has harmful impact, because an article is a part of informative genre, where the subjective opinion or devices figurative language are not allowed. However, this is a common phenomenon in social media nowadays and it has a special journalistic term “interpretative reporting”. This is a negative phenomenon and it might change the truth, describe everything only in clues and confuse the main functions of social media: to comment and to inform. However, despite the fact about harmful side, the descriptive headlines will become leading trend in social media. This process is in progress right now, because every journalist tries to create more creative headlines where hyperboles, metaphors and other tools of figurative language are used (Marcinkevičienė 2008:189).

The headline is like encoded content for the text where all the most important information is concentrated. In a nutshell, headline is a separate introduction to the text but it is an integral part of the text and cannot stand for itself. On the other hand, headlines could speak for themselves and this is why sometimes readers do not read the whole text. It means that headline shall be understandable without the text. As it was said before, headline can show the type of the newspaper or magazine and the social status of them. However, it is not easy to connect the headline and the text. Headlines are independent semantic unit and it has just dissociable connections with the text, so headlines might be concretized with other tools. This is why subheadings are used. The main difference between headline and subheading is that the subheading cannot be an independent semantic unit. Usually, subheadings are written in smaller shrift, put below the headline and it must be darker than other parts of text (Bitinienė, 2007:67).

A good and attractive headline can create an illusion that even ordinary article is topical and the information is very important to the reader. In this way, all headlines have a promotional, agitation and informative functions as well. However, the most important function is an impact. The main aim of every headline is to affect the reader and to wake up his/ her interest. In order to get the strongest impact many specific lexical units or stylistic and rhetorical devices are used. It is very common to use references to the movies, art, literature, history or famous cultural events. However, this way to create headlines is risky, because there is a possibility that the reader will not recognize these references and in this case the author will not achieve the main aims and will not grab an attention. Of course, if those references are connected with popular pop culture, there is bigger possibility to grab an attention of the reader. The very popular way to create headlines is to use quotations, phraseological units and proverbs, so it shows the connection with cultural inter-text. All well-known quotes, semantic and structural references, which are easy to recognize to the reader, make article more attractive. Nevertheless, if the headline is made just from phraseological unit or proverb, this headline could be understood in wrong way because there are no directly connections with other parts of the text. As it was mentioned before, there are many ways to make the headline more attractive. However, in the popular mass media the most common headlines are those where metaphors are used. This type of headlines can give lots of information to the reader but everything is said in clues. This is how the attention of the reader is grabbed in very fast and easy way. Because this phenomenon is very common in headlines nowadays, the analysis of metaphors' usage in headlines is the aim of this work. In sum up, the most understandable headlines are when there are mixed two functions: promotional and information (Bitinienė, 2007:63).

Thus, in this chapter we discussed publicist style and the headlines in articles. It was important to point out what aims headlines have, why headlines might be analyzed as an independent part of the text and how they work with other tools of figurative language. The next chapter will show how headlines are connected with metaphors in practice, what meanings metaphors give to headlines and how often metaphors are used in the headlines of business articles.



### 3. METAPHORS IN THE HEADLINES OF ENGLISH AND LITHUANIAN BUSINESS ARTICLES

Metaphors have already been discussed in section 1.2. That part was a short review from the theoretical point of view about what metaphors are; how they are formed; how they are classified; what headlines are and how headlines are connected with metaphors. Another important part of this work will be an empirical analysis of how metaphors are used in headlines and what new meanings they give to the headlines. As it was mentioned before, metaphors have been one of the most useful features in the discourse of economics for many years. Not just the language used by economists but also the terminology of economics is full of metaphorical phrases. (González, 201:64-79) Therefore, metaphors are very common and important in this academic discipline, this part of work will be a short review of the analysis of how metaphors are used in headlines of business articles and the methods of analysis will be discussed in this part as well.

#### 3.1. Methodology

The methods of analysis used in this work are quantitative and descriptive. The quantitative method focuses on individual group of metaphors, in order to count an average of using frequency and to analyze the distribution of metaphors from different groups in both languages. The descriptive method is used to discuss cases of metaphors usage, to analyze the choice, to discuss and compare different ways of classification of both English and Lithuanian metaphors.

The sources of analysis were four different websites of news. All examples of Lithuanian metaphors were collected from business magazine “**Verslo žinios**” and business column of the news website “**Lietuvos rytas**”. Both of these sources are published in printed and online versions but all examples are collected from the online versions only. The examples of English metaphors were collected from business column of the news website “**BBC News**” and specific business magazine “**The Economist**”. This magazine has printed and online versions as well, but only the online version was used for collecting examples of metaphors. All these four resources are available for readers for free. However, business magazine “The Economist” put a limit of how many articles could be read by one reader at a time for free.

In general, the analysis consists of 330 examples; it means 170 examples of metaphors in the Lithuanian language and 160 examples of metaphors in the English language. All of them are found in four online sources, which were mentioned before. All examples are headlines of business articles. The main topics of articles were trade, markets, economic transactions, politics and business in general.

Two ways of classification of metaphors were discussed in the Part 1.2. There were mentioned two scholars: Hungarian linguist Zoltán Kövecses and Lithuanian linguist Juozas Pikčilingis. Z. Kövecses

suggested the classification of metaphors by source and target domains. In this work only the classification by source domains will be used. There are 13 groups of source domains:

1) Human body; 2) Health and illness; 3) Animals; 4) Plants; 5) Buildings and constructions; 6) Machines and tools; 7) Games and sport; 8) Money and economic transactions; 9) Cooking and food; 10) Heat and cold; 11) Light and darkness; 12) Forces; 13) Movement and direction

All examples, in English and Lithuanian languages, are classified according to this model. The sections of classification are very wide and, because of this, some metaphors could belong to two or more sections.

The second model of the classification of metaphors is based on the theory by J. Pikčilingis. He suggests classifying metaphors by similarities because all metaphors are formed on a logical base. According to J. Pikčilingis theory, these types of similarities are provided:

1) in exterior; 2) in colour; 3) in sound; 4) in position; 5) in action; 6) in image; 7) in quantity; 8) in value; 9) in function.

These two theories of classifications have been chosen because they are essential in the process of formation. As it was mentioned in the section 1.2., every metaphor is created from two different “factual worlds” and it means source and target domains. So in this point of view the theory about the classification of source domains was chosen. In every case, when the metaphor is formed, both source and target domains must have a connection based on logic. It means there should be some similarities between them. Because of it, the theory about the classification of similarities has been chosen as well.

Therefore, all the analysis will be done according to these categories, i.e. all examples were analyzed from the point of view of source domains and similarities and any other possible aspects of classification were beyond the scope of this work.

### **3.2. Classification of Lithuanian and English metaphors by source domains**

As the title says the main issue of this analysis is to discuss how metaphors are formed by source domains, which meaning they give to the sentences and which types are the most popular in the Lithuanian and English metaphors. However, some examples were combined of two or more metaphors and, in this case, they belong to two or more groups. In this way, the number of examples in the groups could be different than the final number of examples in the analysis.

All examples will be analyzed in the same order as they are given in the appendixes (see Appendixes); it means that all examples will be analyzed group by group as they are mentioned in part 3.1. and examples of metaphors will be given in the same order as they are provided in appendixes (i.e. the first

example is in the Lithuanian language and the second one is in the English language.) The numbers of examples are provided in the same order as they are indicated in appendixes (i.e. the first number indicates the number of appendix, the second number means the number of table and the third number means the number of example (e.g. 1.2.3., means the Appendix No.1, the table No.2 and the example No.3)) and then comments will be provided.

- 1) **A source domain of body parts** – this domain is one of the primary domains, because human understand their bodies by nature. There are many possibilities to form a metaphor with this source domain because not only the body in general could be used, but separate parts or even organs can be mentioned in metaphors as well.

*E.g. Europa ištiesė pagalbos **ranką** skolose skęstančiai Graikijai (1.1.5) Why those at the top still need a helping **hand**. (1.1.3) Šilti Rusijos ir Vengrijos ryšiai – šaltose Briuselio **rankose** (1.1.2) Skalūnų dujų besižvalgantys lenkai žemaičių **kaktos** nesuminkštino. (1.1.6) Irish politics: **Eyes on the prize**. (1.1.8)*

In English and in Lithuanian languages the most useful part of body as a metaphor is “hand”. In both of these languages, metaphors of this source domain means “help” and something about “leadership” or “ownership. The difference is that in the Lithuanian language a word “forehead” is used as a very common source domain of body parts (e.g. Vilniaus *valdžia surėmė **kaktas*** ir dėl sostinės apšvietimo (1.1.5); Skalūnų dujų besižvalgantys lenkai *žemaičių **kaktos** nesuminkštino* (1.1.6)). This source domain is used in metaphors about “hostility” and “disagreements”. However, English metaphors with the word “forehead” were not found. This type of source domain is more popular in Lithuanian language than in English, because there were found 18 examples of Lithuanian metaphors and 12 examples of English metaphors.

- 2) **A source domain of health and illness** – first of all, health or illness is a particular state of human body but these two source domains are surely different. A source domain of health and illness are talking about feelings of particular state (usually this feeling is pain) or about causes and results of health and illness.

*E. g. JAV piliečiai – Lietuvos bankų **galvasopė** (1.2.2). Global banks: A **world of pain**. (1.2.3) Naujas Putino **galvos skausmas** – ES sankcijos Krymui. (1.2.5) The spread of Islamic State: *Libya's new agony*. (1.2.6)*

As the examples show that in both English and Lithuanian languages more popular source is “illness” and this source always defines a difficult and negative situations. In Lithuanian language the most popular source of this type is a “headache” and it defines “problems”, “unsolvable tasks” or “dissatisfaction”.

In the English language the most useful source domains of health and illness are “pain”, “pills” (e.g. American intelligence and torture: *A hard **pill** to swallow*(1.2.1) and “agony” (e.g. the *agony of Greece*(1.2.5). In English metaphors “pain” and “pills” usually means “difficulties or unsolvable problems” and “agony” means “very complicated situation”. In the Lithuanian language sources related not only with pain, but with pregnancy, stress and choke are used as well (e.g. Po Vakarų įvestų sankcijų Rusiją *kamuoja finansiniai **sqrėmiai*** (1.2.9) (it means “financial difficulties”); Dėl pigios naftos *trūkinėja OPEC **nervai*** (1.2.1) (it means “have no more patience”); „Pasaulis net *dūsta nuo skolų* (1.2.8) (it means “to have an incredible amount of debts”). In the Lithuanian and English languages a source domain of health and illness is used almost in the same frequencies. There were found 12 examples of Lithuanian metaphors and 9 examples of English metaphors.

- 3) **A source domain of animals** – this source domain is very productive because the species of animals, separate body parts which are not familiar with human body (wings, tails, horns, fur and etc.) and even the features of character (beastly, formidable ant etc.) could be used. This source domain is easy to use in very different topics and easy to understand.

*E. g. Graikija – lyg **ožys**: į taupymo programą nė nešnairuoja.* (1.3.4) *Crowning the **dragon**: China will become the world's largest economy by the end of the year.* (1.3.2) *Kas pirmi **nusilauš ragus** – pieno perdirbėjai ar prekybininkai.* (1.3.5) *Materials science: **Wings of steel**.* (1.3.7)

As all examples above show, the option of animal always depends on the predictable meaning (e.g. example 1.3.4 means that Greece is obstinate; 1.3.2 means respect and greatness to economy of China. This case came from oriental mythology and “dragon” means respect, majesty and fear. Example 1.3.5 means who will be the first and show them weakness, etc.) However, source domain of animals is more common in the English metaphors. The most useful phrase was “lion’s den” and it means “dangerous business” (e. g. Labor and business *is a **lions’ den***(1.3.6). Very common word was “bear”(it defines slow, strong, dangerous, aggressive animal) but this source domain is used just to describe Russia, because bear is the main symbol of this country and all cases, things, business and phenomenon, related with Russians, are described in a metaphorical way with one animal “bear” (e. g. *Feeding the **bear*** - Foreign banks' lending to Russia (1.3.2); Belarus and the *great **bear*** (1.3.14); *Gazprom: Margrethe and the bear*(1.3.15). One more interesting thing is that English metaphors sometimes use mystic and not real animals as well (e. g. *Finnish **phoenix**: The start-ups rising from Nokia's ashes*(1.3.13). Phoenix is a long-lived bird that is cyclically regenerated or reborn. Associated with the sun, a phoenix obtains new life by arising from the ashes of its predecessor. In a metaphorical way “phoenix” means “revival” and in this case it means “company came out of financial troubles”.

There were found 15 examples of this source domain in English metaphors and 9 examples in Lithuanian metaphors.

- 4) **A source domain of plants** – this source domain is similar to the source domain of human body, because people understand nature as the natural living environment. Plants describe many things in metaphorical way and not only live or dead plants could be mentioned but parts of plants, the process of growing or flora in general as well.

*E. g. Per mėnesį euras Lietuvoje suleido tvirtokas šaknis* . (1.4.8) Politics in Taiwan like *sunflower seeds*. (1.4.3) Skatinimo lūkesčiais *pražydo* Kinijos biržos. (1.4.3) British politics – *greening spires*.(1.4.1)

As all examples above show, there are many possibilities to use this source domain and get various meanings (e.g. Example 1.4.8 means “to have a steady position in market”; Lithuanian example 1.4.3 means the market of China supposed to be profitable for investors). In Lithuanian metaphors verbs related with plants are more common than plants in general (e. g. “*Biržos savaitgalį pasitiko žaliuodamos*“ (1.4.2) this metaphor is very direct because all positive numbers in trading are indicated by green indexes, but “to be green” has another meaning “revival and new potential”; “Lietuvoje išvestos augalų veislės *skinis keliai* Europoje” (1.4.6) it means “try to find a way to the top”). In Lithuanian metaphors very common word is “straw” and metaphors with this word usually means “being in a very desperate situation” (e.g. „Gazprom“ *ieško šiaudo* Azijoje (1.4.1); „Diena Media News“ *griebėsi restruktūrizacijos šiaudo*(1.4.5). A source domain of plants is more common in the Lithuanian language than in the English language. 11 examples were found of Lithuanian metaphors and only 3 English metaphors with this source domain were found.

- 5) **A source domain of building and constructions** – stationary objects, its parts and even the act of building are used as source domains for metaphors. This kind of domain has sub-categories i.e. parts of room (windows, walls, floor, etc.) and furniture (closet, shelf, chair, etc.).

*E.g. Pekinas deda alternatyvaus finansinės galios centro pamatus*. (1.5.6) The Palace of Westminster: *House of Cards*. (1.5.6) Ukrainos infliacija pramušė 14 metų *lubas*. (1.5.4) China and Pakistan: *Corridor of power*. (1.5.1)

All these examples show how many different parts could be mentioned and how many meaning could be created (e.g. Lithuanian example 1.5.6 means “try to be the first and the most powerful”; English example 1.5.6 means “something very unstable and untrustworthy”; 1.5.4 means “to cross the marked line”; 1.5.1 this metaphor has a direct meaning because it is about the collaboration between two countries which are not neighbors).

In Lithuanian metaphors the dominated source domain of this type is “foundation” and it is used to describe the main principles and rules (e. g. *Kloja pamatus* jungtinei miškų urėdijų veiklai(1.5.5); Muitų *sąjungos pamatus* ėmė *graužti* net kiaušinių kainos (1.5.10).

In the English metaphors more common is furniture (e.g. “Investing *come out of the closet*”(1.5.4) it means that investing now is a clear business without any hidden agreements).

In both English and Lithuanian languages a source domain of building and construction is not very common. There were found 10 examples of Lithuanian metaphors and 7 examples of English metaphors.

- 6) **Source domain of machines and tools** – people use machines and tools every day in order to get better productivity in manufacture or they need help in the ordinary life. This source domain came from ordinary things and activities. A source domain of machines and tools is very wide because it includes machines (cars, ships, planes, etc.), weapons (bombs, missiles, swords, etc.) tools which are used at home (knives, brooms, etc.) and other tools (rods, axes, tubes, etc.)

E.g. *Krizės apynasris* Lietuvai trukdo skolintis.(1.6.4) Global *business barometer*. (1.6.2) Bankai ima dar smarkiau raginti euro zonos *ekonomikos kinkinį*. (1.6.8) Greece and geopolitics are a *semi-guided missile*.(1.6.3)

Examples show that this source domain is used in accordance with similarities (e.g. in example 1.6.2 a barometer is mentioned and it is a scientific instrument used in meteorology to measure atmospheric pressure but here it is mentioned to indicate the changes of business; in example 1.6.4 the word “bridle” defines how financial crisis is able to suspend spending).

This source domain is very wide and because of this feature it is difficult to find out which words are the most common. In Lithuanian metaphors the most common metaphors of this source domain are related with guns or war and they have meanings related with attacks or defense (e. g. “R. Šimašius Vilniaus biudžetą pavadino *finansinių minu lauku*“ (1.6.9) means there are many financial traps and difficulties; „Kainų kare – *galingas „Maximos“ šūvis*“(1.6.17) means one supermarket did a good tactical business movement in the competitive market; „Socialinės sistemos *pertvarka verčia kryžiuoti špagas*“(1.6.24) means disagreement or arguing).

English metaphors of this source domain use ordinary tools and machines (e.g. “Starbucks in Britain: A *loss-making machine*” (1.6.6) it means business are going on the wrong way). This source domain is very common in Lithuanian language. 24 examples of Lithuanian metaphor were found and only 10 examples of English metaphors were found.

- 7) **Source domain of games and sports** – various kinds of entertainments are a big part of human’ life, so in a natural way, sports, games and rules of them came into language and got a

metaphorical shape. This source domain is easy to use because it does not require specifying any details and people can use it in a very general way.

E. g. Vokietija, Graikija ir euro zona: *blefų žaidimas*. (1.7.5) Southern politics: *Ahead of the game*.(1.7.12) *Bėgo nuo didžiųjų prekybos tinklų*, atsidūrė po „Aibės“ skėčiu (1.7.6) *Race to the bottom*.(1.7.7)

All these examples reveal that this source domain use not so many words but have many different meanings (e.g. 1.7.5 means “manipulation”; 1.7.6 means small business tried to avoid the impact of giant supermarkets; 1.7.7 means that business are loss-making).

Usually, Lithuanian metaphors with this source domain have meanings related with “something unpredictable” (e.g. Rusijos draudimai *užminė* painių logistikos *mįslių*(1.7.2) or “something what could change in a very fast way” (e.g. *Amerikietiški* televizijos verslo *kalneliai* (1.7.1). A source domain of games and sports is not common in the Lithuanian language; only 6 examples were found.

However, the opposite situation is in the English language; a source domain of games and sport is used very frequently. The most popular sources here are “running” and “game”. All metaphors with the source domain of “running” have a meaning related with fast changes which could be either positive or negative (e.g. Greece’s cash crunch: *Running out of room* (1.7.16); *Running on empty*). Metaphors with the source domain of “game” have a meaning related with unpredictable things or results (e. g. Greece: *The dangerous game* (1.7.19); *Game of drones*: As prices plummet drones are taking off (1.7.20). In the English language some nonstandard metaphors could be found: e.g. “America and Cuba: A *partisan cha-cha*”(1.7.1) (In this metaphor a dance is mentioned which is originally fast and passionate Cuban dance; and this metaphor defines very uncertain and volatile relationships between two countries). “British politics: David Cameron’s *own goal*”(1.7.25) (This metaphor is related with football, but it does not mean that the Prime Minister of United Kingdom is really playing. This metaphor means he did a good tactic movement in his political activities).

Altogether, there were found 25 examples of English metaphors of this source domain.

- 8) **Source domain of money and economic transactions** – people must use money every day and life is full of various operations and transactions related with money. There is no surprise that this important part of life came into daily speech, step by step it got a metaphorical shape and now it is a source domain.

E. g. Valstybė *sėdi ant pinigų maišo*, tik nesiryžta jo praverti. (1.8.7)

This example 1.8.7 means “to have a lot of money in a reserve but do not spend it”. This source domain is not common in English language at all and no one example was found. In contrast to the English language, a source domain of money and economic transaction is used in the Lithuanian language in the very direct way. The most common source here is “gold” and it always means “the big amount of money” (e.g. *Aukso kasykla* grįžta prie drabužių valymo(1.8.2); Paskolų bankomatai – *aukso* gysla Rusijoje(1.8.1); Baudėjams euro įvedimas – *aukso kasyklos* (1.8.4). Another common phenomenon here is to use words “ark”, “pouch” or “sack” and these sources have meanings related with “big amount of money” as well (e.g. *Pinigų skrynia* dar neatverta, o ūkininkai – jau nervinasi (1.8.5); Ukmergei *teks atrišti kapšą* – atlygins žalą šilumos tiekėjui (1.8.6). Altogether, 8 examples of Lithuanian metaphors of this source domain were found.

- 9) **Source domain of cooking and food** – this domain is one of the primary domains also, because people need to eat by nature and this is the main condition of life. In this way, eating, food and cooking are the undoubted part of everyday routine and that is how this part became a source domain for metaphors. Not just food but drinks, diets, dishes, recipes and even smells are able to be a source domain.

*E. g.* Pieno perdirbėjai iš *nerimo varškės išspaudė pelno sūrį*. (1.9.12) Charlemagne: *British cooks, European soup*. (1.9.9) *Šampaną geria* ir nerizikuodami. (1.9.4) Protests in Brazil: *Tropical tea party*. (1.9.10)

This type of source domain use the most figurative language and has a plenty of meanings (e.g. example 1.9.12 means business looked very suspicious but in the end it is profitable; 1.9.4 means “to reach good results without any risks”; 1.9.10 this metaphor describes the political chaos in Brazil in words about tea, because tea is the most profitable good for the export in Brazil).

Probably, this source domain could be found in every language, so in the Lithuanian and English languages as well. In metaphors of the Lithuanian language more common is to use various products of food and these products depend on the topic (e. g. “Lukašenka: *rusai čiumpa* tai vamzdį, tai *dešrą*” (1.9.3) it describes the difficult situation of food sector in Russia; “Ar Lietuvą užtvindys lenkiško *pieno upės*?” (1.9.14) it means an incredible big amount of milk). In the Lithuanian, a very common phenomenon is to use metaphorically verbs related with food or eating. These verbs usually do not have an independent meaning because it depends on the topic of the sentence (e.g. “Verslas raitosi rankovės: jau *pakvipo* gynybai skirtais *pinigais*” (1.9.15) this metaphor means “it supposed to be a profitable business”;



“Seimas vėl pradeda *kramtyti* minimalios algos didinimo *idėją*”(1.9.13) the meaning is “to contemplate this idea again”).

In the English, the most common source is “pot” and it has related meaning “some business in progress” (e.g. Immigration in America *The melting pot works* (1.9.3); Lithuanian politics: *Stirring the pot* (1.9.4). There is one similarity between the English and the Lithuanian metaphors: verbs about eating and cooking are very common in metaphors of both of these languages.

The frequency of usage of this source domain is similar in the both language. There were found 15 examples of Lithuanian metaphors and 12 examples of English metaphors.

**10) Source domain of heat and cold** – heat and cold are two permanent states of human living environment. People are able to use not just heat and cold, but fire, icy or frost and even the physical phenomena as steam could be used in a metaphorical way as a source domain.

E. g. *Šilti* Rusijos ir Vengrijos ryšiai – *šaltose* Briuselio rankose.(1.10.3) The Liberal Democrats: A *cold shower*.(1.10.2) Statybose *parama gali išgaruoti* dėl varžtelio. (1.10.2) Politics in Malaysia: *Gathering steam*. (1.10.1)

(E.g. example 1.10.3 means close relationships between two countries are supervised by the third party; English example 1.10.2 has a meaning of “unpleasant things or to show some secrets in public”; Lithuanian example 1.10.2 means “to disappear or lose something”).

A source domain of heat and cold is common neither in the Lithuanian nor in the English languages. There were found 3 examples of Lithuanian metaphors and 3 examples of English metaphors.

**11) Source domain of light and darkness** – light and darkness are two permanent states of human living environment in the same way as heat and cold. This source domain involves not just phenomenon as light or darkness, but weather conditions as “cloudy” or “fog” and all other results of darkness as shadows.

E.g. Darbo kodeksas išvydo dienos *šviesą*. (1.11.1) Anti-Semitism in Europe: *Fear of a new darkness*. (1.11.2) Eurui patys europiečiai piešia *tamsią* ateitį. (1.11.4) Economic history: *The past's long shadow*. (1.11.11)

All examples above explain that this source domain use almost the same words and define almost the same meanings (e.g. 1.11.1 means “to become a public figure”; 1.11.2 means “to fear of new political waves; 1.11.4 means “very doubtful future”).

In the Lithuanian language metaphors of this source domain are very similar. The most common word of this source domain is “light” and it describes positive things (e. g. *Šviesus*

*rytojus*: augšime triskart lenkdami euro zonos vidurkį (1.11.3). Another common word in the Lithuanian metaphors is “fog” and it has a meaning related with “doubtful business” (e. g. Europos Sąjungos ūkis braška, *ateitis miglota* (1.11.2).

The source domain of light and darkness are more common in the English language. In English metaphors the most popular words of this source domain are “dark” and “shadow”. Both of these words have similar meanings in the metaphors and these meanings are related with doubts, unclear business and fear (e.g. Monetary policy: *The dark clouds* around the silver lining (1.11.4); Police brutality in Chicago: *Dark days* (1.11.7); Extremism in South-East Asia: *The looming shadow* (1.11.3). As a result that a source domain of light and darkness is common in the English language, there could be found non-standard metaphors. In the English language words like “crypt” or “nightmare” belong to this source domain also (e. g. “the Silk Road trial: *Tales from the crypt*” (1.11.5) means “horror stories”; “Migrants in the Mediterranean: *The numbers nightmare*” (1.11.8) it means “a plenty of difficulties and problems”). These words have the meanings related with some horrible and unknown things.

Altogether, there were found 12 examples of English metaphors and only 4 examples of Lithuanian metaphors.

**12) Source domain of non-human forces** – this source domain is about forces created by nature, e. g. magnetic, gravitational, mechanical, electrical, etc. This source domain involves all shapes of these forces in a physical ways: waves, fire, wind and etc. Not just forces but results and effects of them could be explained because of this source domain. This source domain is easy to use because it can define many different things and create many different meanings.

E. g. „Apple“ gamintojai planuoja *atleidimų bangą*. (1.12.1) Britain, London and Christianity: *Setting the Thames on fire*. (1.12.2) Didžiausiam britų bankui HSBC – *kaltinimų lavina*. (1.12.13) Hong Kong-mainland relations: *Staunching the flow*. (1.12.14)

In the Lithuanian metaphors the most common word of this source domain is “wave” (e. g. Rusijoje – *įmonių bankrotų banga* (1.12.3); Visoje Argentinoje *nuvilnijo finansinių reidų banga* (1.12.6). Metaphors with this word always have almost the same meanings which are related with “big amount” or “big number”. One interesting phenomena related with source domain of non-human forces in the Lithuanian metaphors is that “water” is very common topic (e.g. “Euro zoną *užlies pinigų jūra*” (1.12.8) it means “an incredible big sum of money”; „Europa ištiesė pagalbos ranką *skolose skęstančiai Graikijai*” (1.12.9) it means “to be in hopeless situation because of so many debts”; “Terminalo statybos Lenkijoje *kelia skandalių purslus*” (1.12.14) it means “to make lots of little scandals”). In all these examples a source domain is related with water but in different morphological ways, e. g. nouns (see, river, spatter, etc.), verbs (flood, sink, etc.) or adjectives (sinking). Of course, not all metaphors of

this source domain are related with water. Many different forces are used in metaphorical way as well (e.g. *Partnerystė su Omanu – ne dykumos **miražas***(1.12.2) (it means “something unrealistic”); *Technologijos, kurios atsisako **išeiti anapus*** (1.12.5)(it means “be eliminated of the market”).

In the English language, the most common word of this source domain is “fire” (e. g. Ukraine’s war: *The **fire*** that did not cease(1.12.10); *Waste disposal keep **the fires burning***(1.12.13); Affirmative action: *Harvard under **fire***(1.12.1) and this is the opposite situation to the Lithuanian language where the most common word is “water”. All metaphors with this source domain have similar meanings related with “dangerous business”. However, in the English language the topic of water is very common in source domain of non-human foresees as well. The main difference between the English and Lithuanian languages is that in the English language only nouns related with topic of water are used (e.g. “***Oceans of waste***”(1.12.4) it means “an incredible big amount of wastes”; “Nigeria and its neighbors: Big fish (or shark) *in a small **pond***” (1.12.6) it means “to be too powerful for some specific fields”; “Oil and gas: *The cruel **sea***” (1.12.7) it means “business without politeness”). The interesting thing is that metaphors with words related with water always have different meanings. Of course, in the English language there are found very creative source domains of non-human forces (e.g. “Spanish politics: ***Ghosts at the feast***” (1.12.9) it means “do not have power anymore”; “Africa and commodity prices are no longer *the kiss of **death***” (1.12.11) means “very dangerous business”).

A source domain of non-human forces is common in both English and Lithuanian languages. There were found 14 examples of this source domain in the Lithuanian language and 15 examples of this source domain in the English language.

- 13) **Source domain of movement and directions** – this source domain is extremely wide because it involves movements which are related with the changing of location and being stationary. Usually, source domains which are related with changing of location are able to indicate the direction as well. Changes of various kinds are conceptualized metaphorically as movement that involves a change of location.

E. g. Ilarionovas: Rusijos ūkis ***važiuoja*** žemyn ne dėl naftos. (1.13.4) The European Central Bank: ***Let the show begin***.(1.13.4) Po V. Matijošaičio ***šuo***lio į mero kėdę – intriga dėl „Vičiūnų“. (1.13.19) Canada's car industry: *the **road to nowhere***.(1.13.5)

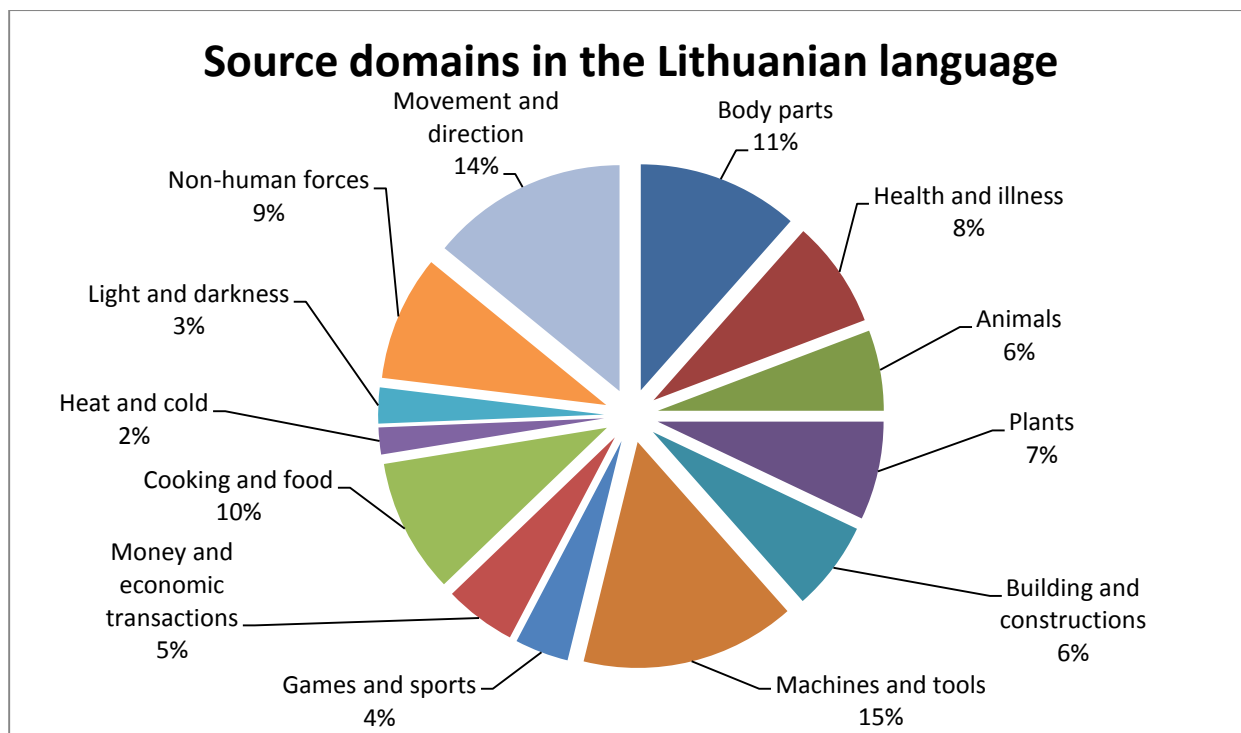
These examples confirm the idea of meanings’ wideness (e.g. Lithuanian example 1.13.4 means “business is loss-making”; English example 1.13.4 means “new rules are created and everybody must accept that because of the importance of this institution”).

A source domain of movement and directions is very common in the Lithuanian language but meanings of these metaphors are always different and depend on the topic (e.g. Rockefelleriai *tepa slides* (1.13.17) (it means “are going to escape”); Lietuva jau *rėplioja link* gėrimų pakuočių *užstato sistemas*(1.13.20) (it means “achieving the result in a very slowly way”); Naftos kaina *nučiuožė žemyn*(1.13.9) (it means “dramatically falling”) Pašto rinka *pasistiebė į viršų*(1.13.10) (it means “the numbers are increasing”). When the variety of this source domain is so wide it is difficult to indicate the most common words. However, the most common topics of this source domain are increasing, falling and escaping.

In the English language this source domain is not so common and used in a standard way. The meanings of these metaphors are similar and usually indicate directions (e.g. *Democracy* in Congo: *To Con or Go* (1.13.1); Canada's car industry: *the road to nowhere* (1.13.5). Of course, there are other ways to use this source domain in the English language but all meanings are random and depend on the topic of the article (e.g. “Excuse me while I *kiss the sky*” (1.13.2) in this way the business related with aircrafts are described; “German politics: *Defeat on the Elbe*” (1.13.3) this metaphors says German politics must agree with new rules even if they are not satisfied).

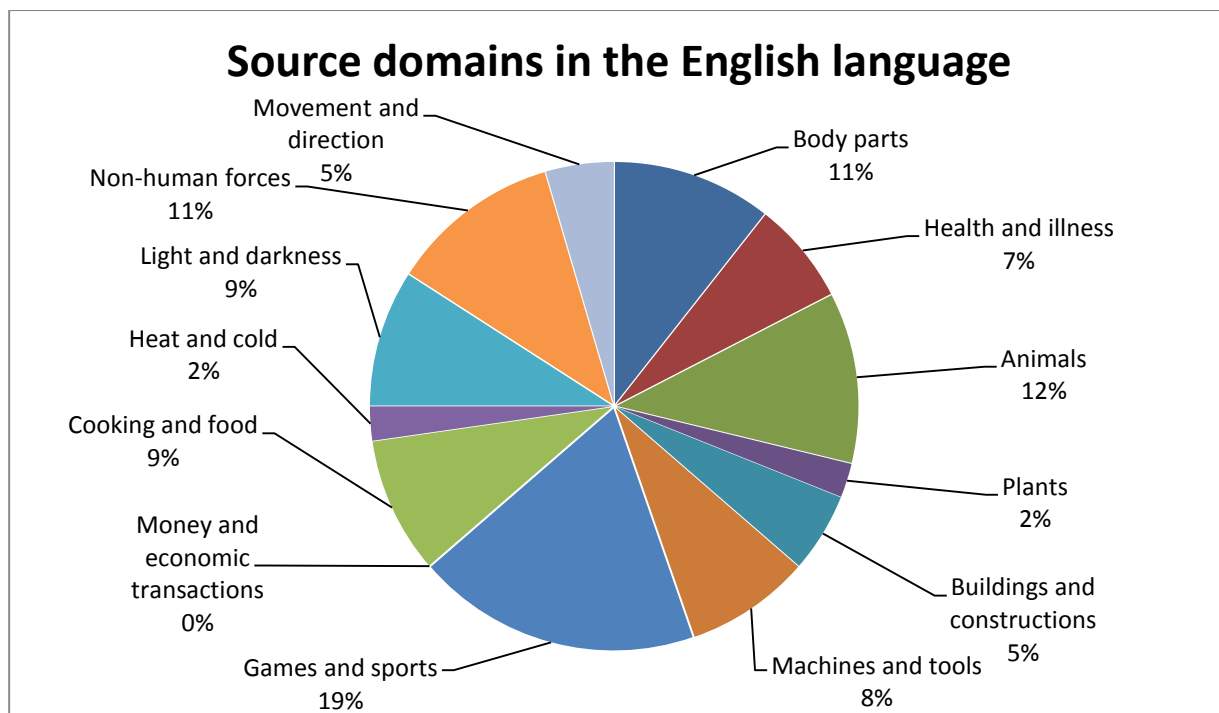
A source domain of movement and directions is very common in the Lithuanian language and there were found 22 examples. However, the opposite situation is in the English language and only 6 examples were found.

To sum up, all these source domains which are mentioned here came to the language from the very ordinary life and got a metaphorical shape. Every source domain consists of ordinary words and phrases and each of them are able to explain in a metaphorical way many various properties of objects, such as their shape, size, color, sharpness, weight, transparency, hardness and etc. Of course, these source domains are different in every language but all of them have some similarities in the frequency of usage and this frequency is provided in clear numbers which are indicated in the charts below. The results are given in percentage.



As the chart shows the most common source domains in the Lithuanian language are “Machines and tools”, “Movement and direction” and “Body parts”. Altogether, these three types of source domains are 64 examples and it means this is 40% of all examples of Lithuanian metaphors. The least frequently used source domains in the Lithuanian language are “Light and darkness” and “Heat and cold”. In total, these two source domains make up 7 examples and it means only 5% of all examples of Lithuanian metaphors.

In order to compare the results how source domains are used in the Lithuanian and English metaphors, the chart about usage of source domains in the English language is provided below. The results are given in percentage.



As the chart shows the most common source domains in the English language are “Games and sports”, “Non-human forces” and “Animals”. Altogether, these three types of source domains are 55 examples and it means this is 42% of all examples of English metaphors. The least frequently used source domains in the English language are “Plants” and “Money and economic transaction”. In total, these two source domains make up 3 examples and it accounts only for 2 % of all examples of English metaphors.

To sum up, a source domain of the heat and cold has absolute the same frequency of usage and it means 3 examples in the Lithuanian language and 3 examples in the English language. A source of non-human forces has almost the same frequency of usage and it means 14 examples in the Lithuanian language and 15 examples in the English language. The biggest difference between English and Lithuanian languages is in source domain of economic transaction. A source domain of money and economic transaction is absolutely not common in the English language and there were found no examples of this source domain. However, source domain of animals is common in the English language. Fifteen English examples were found of this source domain and just 9 examples of Lithuanian metaphors with this source domain. A source domain of games and sports is more popular in the English language as well. 25 examples of English metaphors were found and just 6 examples of Lithuanian metaphors. The opposite situation is about a source domain of machines and tools. There found 24 examples of Lithuanian metaphors and just 11 examples of English metaphors.

### 3.3. Classification of Lithuanian and English metaphors by similarities

As the title says the main focus of this analysis is to discuss how metaphors are formed by similarities of real thing or phenomenon, how these types work in the sentences and which types are the most common in Lithuanian and in English metaphors. Every example was assigned to the appropriate group. However, some examples are combined of two or more metaphors and in this case they belong to two or more groups. In this way, the number of examples in the groups could be different than the final number of examples in the analysis.

As it was mentioned in the part 1.2., 9 different groups of similarities were found:

1) in exterior; 2) in colour; 3) in sound; 4) in position; 5) in action; 6) in image; 7) in quantity; 8) in value; 9) in function.

All examples here will be analyzed in the same way as they are given in the appendixes (see Appendixes); it means that all examples will be analyzed group by group as they are mentioned above and examples of metaphors will be given in the same way as they are provided in appendixes (i.e. the first one example is in Lithuanian language and the second one example is in English language) and then comments will be provided.

- 1) **Similarities in exterior** – this category are based on the similarities in physical appearances. It means that metaphors are created when things or phenomenon have similarities in them shape, size, usage or in specific features.

*E. g. “Amerikietiški televizijos verslo kalneliai” (2.1.2)* (there are similarities to the attraction which is going up and down in a very fast way; so this metaphor says that business is not steady).

“Conflict in Ukraine: *More boots on the ground*” (2.1.1) (in this case, the metaphor means invasion in Ukraine is in progress, but this is described in a real view of a lot of military boots when soldiers are going).

This type of similarities is common neither in the Lithuanian language nor in the English language. This type can perfectly describe all concrete things but it is not so common to describe abstract things or phrases. Because of this reason 6 examples of Lithuanian metaphors and just 3 examples of English metaphors were found which belong to this type of similarities.

- 2) **Similarities in color** – this type involves not just colors but all other terms related with light and darkness as well.

*E. g. “Eurui patys europiečiai piešia tamsią ateitį” (2.2.2)* (this metaphor is in comparison with darkness where people are not able to see things, so “dark future” means “the fear of unknown things”)

“*The greying economy: Bang goes retirement*” (2.2.8) (“Grey economy” is similar with darkness or fog where you cannot see what happens; so this metaphor means “there are many hidden and unclear things in the economy”).

In the Lithuanian language, metaphors of this type are easy understandable. Usually, the color or reference to light or darkness indicates the meaning in a directly way (e.g. *Šviesus rytojus: augsimą triskart lenkdami euro zonos vidurkį* (2.2.3) (there are similarities with lights, daytime and clear business so it means “positive future”).

In the English language similarities related with darkness are more common (e.g. “Monetary policy: The **dark** clouds around the silver lining” (2.2.5) in this case the direct similarity is used; the unclear business is in comparison with dark clouds before the storm which looks terrifying). As the examples show, metaphors which are formed by this type of similarities usually have a negative meaning related with negative forecasts of future. However, real colors are common in the English metaphors as well (e.g. “Market turmoil: Russia's **Black** Tuesday” (2.2.4) (there is the direct similarity because the black color always have associations with horrible or disappointing things and in the natural way, the meaning is negative as well). When the real color is mentioned, the meaning depends on the color, i.e. if color is bright, the meaning usually is positive, but if color is darker, the meaning might be negative.

This type of similarities is not popular in the Lithuanian language. There were found just 3 examples of metaphors with this type of similarities. In the English language metaphors with similarities in colors are more common and there were found 9 examples.

- 3) **Similarities in sounds** – this type involves sounds made by things or human, music, noise and even silence. In the morphological point of view, this type of similarities usually uses two parts of language they are only verbs and nouns.

E. g. “Europos Sąjungos ūkis **braška**, ateitis miglota” (2.3.1) (this metaphor is in comparison with something which could be broken immediately and before it stop working it could make suspicious noise. This metaphor has a meaning that European Union is not working very well.)

“Argentine politics: **Silent**, but seething” (2.3.1) (this metaphor has the direct similarities with silent people, who still could be dangerous. And meaning is the same.)

This type of similarities is very useful to describe all concrete things but it is not so common to describe abstract things or phrases. In this case, when the metaphors in the headlines are analyzed many abstract things are mentioned which are not able to make any sound or noise. As a result of this phenomenon, there were found 4 examples of the Lithuanian metaphors created by this type of similarities and 2 examples of the English metaphors.

- 4) **Similarities in positions in space** – this type of similarities involves all concrete places where is possible to put something and all abstract and mystical places as well.



E. g. “Technologijos, kurios atsisako *išeiti anapus*” (2.4.2) (There is a similarity with the world of death. This metaphor has a meaning that some technologies cannot be eliminated from the market because it is still useful.)

“Offshore finance: *Trouble in paradise*” (2.4.13) (This metaphor is in a comparison with paradise “mystical place where everything is perfect”, so it has a meaning “even the most profitable markets have problems”).

In the Lithuanian language usage of this type of similarities depends on the predictable meanings (e.g. „Omnitel“ kalba apie *atsispyrimą nuo dugno* (2.4.4) (this metaphor has similarities with the bottom of the sea and how they rise to the top; it means “come out of the financial troubles”). However, there are not many creative metaphors of this type of similarities in the Lithuanian language.

In the English language this type of similarities is very common and it has many different ways of usage. In the English metaphors home, nature, water, dishes, furniture, mystical places and many more options could be mentioned. This type has the same feature in the English and in the Lithuanian language because the place is chosen in accordance with the predictable meaning (e.g. “Greece and the Eurogroup: *nearer the brink*” (2.4.4.) (there is similarities with the brink of the precipice and how dangerous is to stand there and how you need a god balance, if you do not want to fall down; so it means “relationships are on the critical point. This type of similarities is the easiest way to form metaphors.

This type of similarities is more common in the English language. There were found 14 examples of the English metaphors and 7 examples of the Lithuanian metaphors.

5) **Similarities in actions** – this type of similarities involves all possible actions and movements.

In this way, this type is the most useful in the formation process of metaphors.

E. g. “Dėl Šiaulių banko akcijų *lipo per galvas*” (2.5.4) (in this case many heads are mentioned which symbolized many peoples and obstacles; and this metaphor means “to overcome all obstacles in a brutal way”).

“Tesco and accounting: *Feeding the beast*” (2.5.8) (here is the comparison with the beast which means horrible, mystical and very strong animal and to feed the beast is a way to make it stronger, so this metaphor means “to act nice and make the competitive company stronger because of fears”).

In the Lithuanian language this type of similarities are absolutely favorite. It is very wide because it could describe many different situations and it perfectly explains abstract and concrete things. However, as the result of the wideness of this type, there could be many different meanings (e.g. Kazachstanas *skelbia atostogas nuo rusiškos naftos* (2.5.6) (the similarity here is a „vacation“ and “being on vacation” means do many unusual things and deny all duties, so this metaphor means “do not to buy Russian oil anymore”); Sunkmetį išgyvenusi „Rūta“ *pakilo naujam skrydžiui* (2.5.58) (in this case the company is compared

with the phoenix, which revival and now getting stronger, so it means “the business is renewed after bankruptcy”). As all examples show, this type is used in many different metaphors but all of them have absolutely different meanings. In this case, it is difficult to analyze this type.

In the English language this type of similarities is not so common because in the English metaphors verbs are not used usually. However, it is possible to find some examples, but here is the same situation as in the Lithuanian language; i.e. meanings are very different (e.g. Greece’s cash crunch: *Running out of room* (2.5.6) (the similarity here is in place which is left because of not very pleasant atmosphere, so the metaphor means “leaving the situation”).

As it was mentioned before, this type of similarities is very frequently used in the Lithuanian language. There were found 58 examples of the Lithuanian metaphors and only 11 examples of English metaphors.

- 6) **Similarities in images** – this type involves different images of many things. Sometimes these similarities are ordinary, but sometimes there could be found very contrastive similarities.

E. g. „Gazprom“ dujų *eksporto suknelėje* gerokai *mažiau nėrinių*” (2.6.2) (this metaphor is compared with the dress which is fancy and sophisticated clothe so the process of export is compared with the dress, but also it is mentioned that on this dress are not so many laces and this similarity is used to explain that there are not so many places where all goods might be exported, so this metaphor means “the export is getting down”).

“Afghanistan, Pakistan and the Taliban: *Hope spring*” (2.6.1) (in this case hope is compared with spring, which is a time of revival and new better beginning, so this metaphor means “there is hope of better and safe future”).

In the Lithuanian metaphors this type of similarities is common. It is not as useful as the type of similarities in actions, but it can describe many situations in a very figurative way. However, the same problem about very different meanings here is as well (e.g. *Defliacijos šmėkla* pasirodė Kinijoje (2.6.1) (here the deflation is compared with the ghost which has an expression of fear and unknown things, the metaphor means “deflation came back”); Po Vakarų įvestų sankcijų Rusiją kamuoja *finansiniai sgrėmiai* (2.6.10) (here financial difficulties is compared with the pain of given birth and it means “serious financial difficulties and painful situation of country”). It is obviously that this type of similarities is the most creative and imaginative.

In the English language this type is not as common as in the Lithuanian language, but the diapason of meanings is extremely wide (e.g. *Life's lottery*. What are your chances of being murdered in a single year (2.6.6) (here life is compared with lottery where everything could happen and it means “life is unpredictable”). As it is clear from examples, metaphors created in accordance with this type of similarities are very creative in the English language also.

The type of similarities in images is more popular in the Lithuanian language than in the English language. There were found 22 examples of Lithuanian metaphors and 10 examples of English metaphors.

- 7) **Similarities in quantity** – this type of similarities is not specific and all likely similarities are already explained in the title. All possible variations could be many synonyms of word which actually means “amount”.

E. g. “Euro zoną užlies *pinigų jūra*” (2.7.5) (in this case big amount of money is compared with sea where is not possible to count all drops of water and this metaphor means “countless sum of money”).  
Daily chart: *Oceans of waste* (2.7.2) (here an incredible amount of wastes is compared with an ocean, the biggest measure on the earth).

The most common word of this type is “wave” in the both languages (e.g. „Apple“ gamintojai *planuoja atleidimų bangą*” (2.7.1) in this case all unexpected redundancies are compared with waves which came suddenly and with great power). The word “wave” in the metaphor always has the same meaning “unexpected big amount of something”.

In the English language use this type is not common, because it is not popular to talk about quantity or amount in a figurative way. The examples of this type are very rare in the English language and made by accident.

Altogether, there were found 6 examples of Lithuanian metaphors formed by this type of similarities and only 2 examples of English metaphors.

- 8) **Similarities in value** – this type is similar to the previous one. All likely similarities are already explained in the title.

E. g. Paskolų bankomatai – *aukso gysla Rusijoje* (2.8.1) (the most profitable point of market is compared with the vein of gold which means the profit comes in a solidly way).

Oil price and Russian politics: the *ebb and flow of Federal fortune* (2.8.2) (in this case it is said that fortune come in flows and it means the all good things happen in a solidly way with the great power).

In the Lithuanian language this type is used in a directly way. The most popular word is “gold” (e.g. Paskolų bankomatai – *aukso gysla Rusijoje* (2.8.1); *Aukso kasykla* grįžta prie drabužių valymo (2.8.2); Baudėjams euro įvedimas – *aukso kasyklos* (2.8.3). Also there are many metaphors with the keyword “money” (e.g. Valstybė sėdi ant *pinigų maišo*, tik nesiryžta jo praverti (2.8.5).

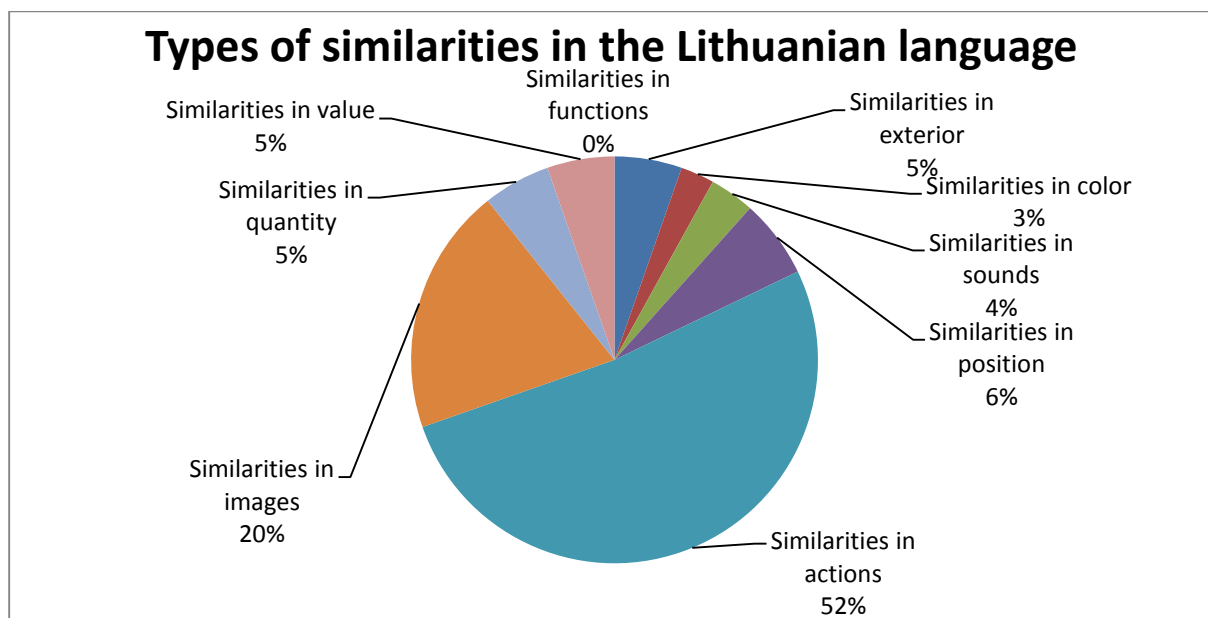
Altogether, there were found 6 examples of Lithuanian metaphors and 2 examples of the English metaphors.

- 9) **Similarities in functions** – this type is very rare and useless. As the title says, metaphors are formed in accordance with similar functions of two or more things.

E. g. “Mapping startups: A *recipe for success*”(2.9.1) (The recipe is the paper where everything what you have to do is written in order to cook some dish. The way easy way to success is described as a recipe, it means you do not need to think or try, all you need is to follow the directions).

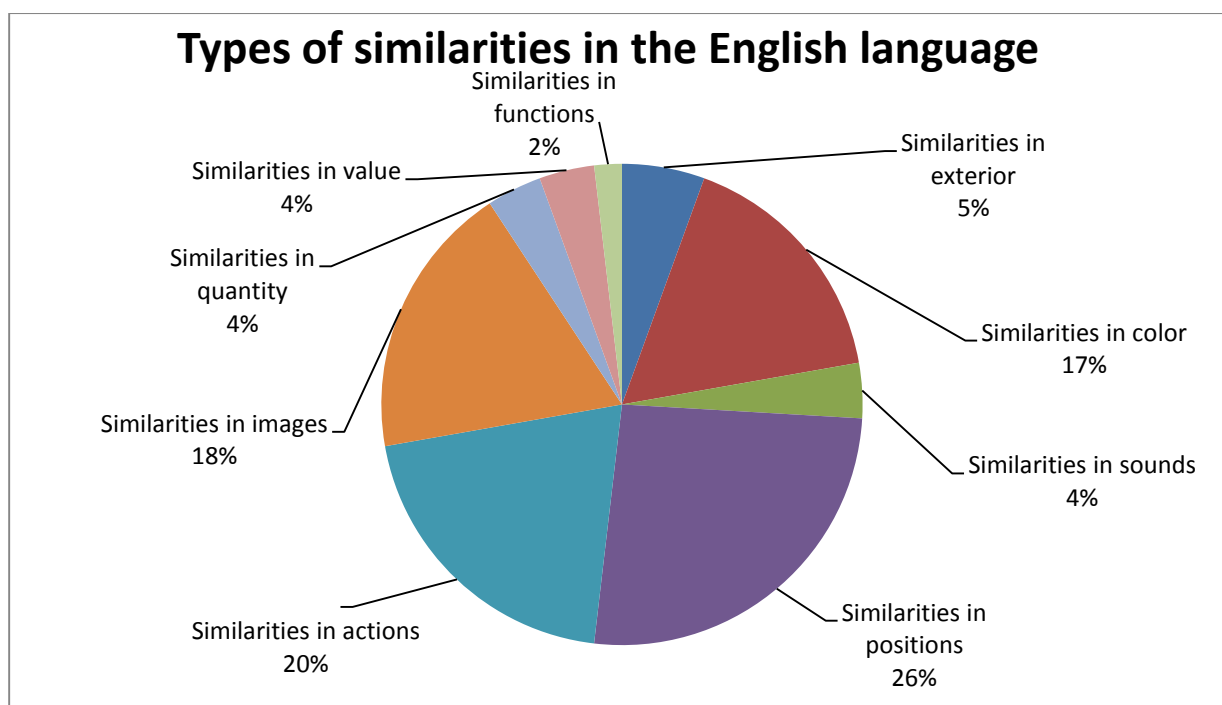
As it was mentioned before, this type of similarities is common neither in the Lithuanian language nor in the English language. There was found 1 example of the English language and no one example of the Lithuanian language.

To sum up, all these types of similarities which are mentioned here came to the language from the very ordinary life and daily usage of many things. Every type can create many new meanings and describe usual things or phenomenon in a new way. Of course, these types and the way of expression are different in every language but all of them have some similarities in the frequency of usage and this frequency is provided in clear numbers which are indicated in the charts below. The results are given in percentage.



As the chart shows the most common type of similarities in the Lithuanian language are “Similarities in action” and “Similarities in images”. Altogether, these two types of similarities are 80 examples and it means this is 72% of all examples of Lithuanian metaphors. The most unpopular types of similarities in the Lithuania language are “Similarities in functions” and “Similarities in color”. In total, these two types of similarities are 3 examples and it means only 3% of all examples of Lithuanian metaphors.

In order to compare the results how types of similarities are used in the Lithuanian and English metaphors, the chart about usage of types of similarities in the English language is provided below. The results are given in percentage.



As the chart shows the most common type of similarities in the English language are “Similarities in positions”, “Similarities in actions” and “Similarities in images”. Altogether, these three types of similarities are 64% of all English examples. The most unpopular types of similarities in the English language are “Similarities in functions” and “Similarities in value”. In total, these two types of similarities are 6% examples of English metaphors.

To sum up, in the English and Lithuanian languages all types of similarities are used in a very different ways and it is difficult to compare these two languages in this point of view. In accordance with these types there are just a few similarities between two languages. Types of “Similarities in functions”, “Similarities in exterior” and “Similarities in sounds” are common neither in the Lithuanian language nor in the English language. However, there are more differences than similarities. First of all, the most important thing is this type of differentiation is not common in the English language. As a result, it was not possible to attach every example to the particular type and this is why the total number of examples indicated in the chart is smaller than the total number of examples of English metaphors in the Appendixes. Despite this fact, all figures of results show that the type of similarities in position is more popular in the English language than in the Lithuanian language. There were found 14 examples of English metaphors and 7 examples of Lithuanian metaphors. In the Lithuanian language absolutely favorite type is similarities in actions. 58 examples of Lithuanian metaphors were found. Another one very common type is similarities in images and 22 examples were found.

## CONCLUSIONS

After quantitative and descriptive analysis of metaphors in the headlines of business articles, the following conclusions have been made:

1. From the theoretical point of view, metaphors are very similar in the English and Lithuanian languages. In both of these languages metaphors are created on a logical base in accordance with some similarities. Every metaphor is formed by two parts: source domain which is concrete and target domain which is abstract. This feature is common in both languages as well. One more important similarity about metaphors in both languages is that metaphor is not only the trope of figurative language, but it is a conceptual tool of thinking also.
2. The theory of metaphors' classification by source domains is applicable in both English and Lithuanian languages. In the first part of analysis all English and Lithuanian examples were analysed by 13 groups of source domains. The biggest difference between metaphors usage in English and Lithuanian languages is in *source domain of economic transaction*. No examples of this source domain were found in the English language corpora, but it is very common in the Lithuanian language. The most common source domains in the English language are "*games and sports*" and "*animals*". This is the different situation than in the Lithuanian language, where the most common source domains are "*machines and tools*" and "*movements and directions*". The most unusual source domain in the Lithuanian language is "*heat and cold*"; in the English language the most unpopular source domain is "*light and darkness*".
3. In the second part of analysis all English and Lithuanian examples were analysed by 9 types of similarities. This method of construction is very frequent in the Lithuanian language and absolutely favourite type of this method in the process of construction is "*similarities in actions*". However, the method of classification by similarities is not common in the English language, but, despite this fact, some examples were found and, according to these results, the most common type of similarities in the English language is "*similarities in position*". Types of *similarities in functions*, *similarities in exterior* and *similarities in sounds* are used neither in the Lithuanian language nor in the English language.
4. After precise analyses of these two classifications it was found that they are similar because both of them classify the ways of construction which are based by concrete things. However, the main difference between them is in the titles of the categories; i.e. titles of categories of classification by source domains are defined by concrete concepts, but all titles of categories of classification by similarities are defined by abstract concepts (e.g. sounds, value, and function).

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## APPENDIXES

### 1. English and Lithuanian metaphors classified by source domains

#### Appendix 1.1

A source domain of body parts

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.	„Chevron“ <b>rankas</b> nuleido ir Rumunijoje	Markets Letting go of Daddy's <b>hand</b>
2.	Šilti Rusijos ir Vengrijos ryšiai – šaltose Briuselio <b>rankose</b>	Sanctions against Russia Fancy <b>footwork</b>
3.	Išskėstomis <b>rankomis</b> nelaukia, teks grumtis dėl vietos po saule	Why those at the top still need a helping <b>hand</b>
4.	FED atrišo sau <b>rankas</b> didinti palūkanas	TSA groping: <b>Hands</b> off
5.	Europa ištiesė pagalbos <b>ranką</b> skolose skęstančiai Graikijai	Tracking aeroplanes: <b>Eyes</b> in the sky
6.	Dėl Šiaulių banko akcijų lipo per <b>galvas</b>	Germany, Greece and history – Pointing <b>fingers</b>
7.	Naujas Putino <b>galvos</b> skausmas – ES sankcijos Krymui	Sweden and the Middle East – Clean <b>hands</b> , fewer friends
8.	Rusai sunkmetį junta pinigine, o ne <b>širdimi</b>	Irish politics: <b>Eyes</b> on the prize
9.	Bankų Achilo <b>kulnas</b> negyja	Apple 700-billion-dollar <b>baby</b>
10.	Mokestiniai triukai ES – <b>sąžinės</b> reikalas	Deflation fears or <b>toddler</b> tantrum?
11.	Atvėrę <b>akis</b> net JAV dangoraižiams, jau gamina langus laivams	European economy guide: Taking Europe's <b>pulse</b>
12.	Kūrybingi Ukmergės baldininkai atsuko <b>nugarą</b> „Marks & Spencer“	History in East Asia: <b>Hearts</b> and minds
13.	Švedai dėl „Oriflame“ griežia <b>dantį</b> ant Rusijos	
14.	Kavinės jau atsuko <b>nugarą</b> blogam orui, – prekiaus ir lauke	
15.	Vilniaus valdžia surėmė <b>kaktas</b> ir dėl sostinės apšvietimo	
16.	Skalūnų dujų besižvalgantys lenkai žemaičių <b>kaktos</b> nesuminkštino	
17.	Mediena – į užsienį, o saviškiams – <b>špyga</b>	
18.	Paskolų bankomatai – aukso <b>gysla</b> Rusijoje	

## Appendix 1.2

A source domain of health and illness

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.	Dėl pigios naftos <b>trūkinėja</b> OPEC <b>nervai</b>	American intelligence and torture A <b>hard pill</b> to swallow
2.	JAV piliečiai – Lietuvos bankų <b>galvasopė</b>	Big money in politics: Two <b>depressing thoughts</b>
3.	Kinijos rinka <b>springsta</b> nuo pieno pertekliaus	Global banks: A <b>world of pain</b>
4.	Kritinis Švedijos kronos stiprėjimas <b>išbando</b> Riksbanko <b>nervus</b>	North Korea and Ebola <b>Fever pitch</b>
5.	Naujas Putino <b>galvos skausmas</b> – ES sankcijos Krymui	The <b>agony</b> of Greece
6.	<b>Isikandusi</b> Rusija Krymo paleisti neketina, nors ir <b>skauda</b>	The spread of Islamic State Libya's new <b>agony</b>
7.	Kaimo parduotuvės <b>springsta</b> nuo lietuviškų centų	Spies in America Unearthing Moscow's <b>moles</b>
8.	Pasaulis net <b>dūsta</b> nuo skolų	Greece and the markets. Hellenic <b>bruises</b>
9.	Po Vakarų įvestų sankcijų Rusiją kamuoja finansiniai <b>sąrėmiai</b>	Drug abuse in Egypt. A <b>pill</b> for work and play
10.	Vilnius - badaujantis valstybės biudžeto <b>donoras</b>	
11.	<b>Pridusęs</b> Marijampolės automobilių turgus bijo mirtino smūgio	
12.	Skolintis eurai bus pigiau, tad gresia išlaidavimo <b>virusas</b>	

### Appendix 1.3

A source domain of animals

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.	„Google“ <b>pingvinas</b> nuskriaudė vieną didžiausių skelbimų portalų	America's budget for 2016 A curate's <b>egg</b>
2.	Rekomenduoja laikyti ES pinigus kaip <b>žvirblį</b> rankoje	Crowning the <b>dragon</b> . China will become the world's largest economy by the end of the year
3.	Vokietija: Graikijos pasiūlymas – Trojos <b>arklys</b>	Feeding the <b>bear</b> - Foreign banks' lending to Russia
4.	Graikija – lyg <b>ožys</b> : į taupymo programą nė nešnairuoja	Greece, Ireland and Portugal Three little <b>piggies</b>
5.	Kas pirmi <b>nusilauš ragus</b> – pieno perdirbėjai ar prekybininkai?	India's economy On the <b>dragon's tail</b>
6.	Prezidentė: „Moterys – <b>darbinės bitelės</b> , bet uždirba mažiau“	Labour and business is a <b>Lions' den</b>
7.	Rusijoje – <b>žvėriškas</b> prekių kainų šuolis	Materials science <b>Wings</b> of steel
8.	Gaminių pakuotės: nuo įmonių <b>smauglio</b> iki draugystės	Nigeria and its neighbors Big <b>fish (or shark)</b> in a small pond
9.	„Germanika“ jau išskleidė <b>sparnus</b> Europoje	Tesco and accounting <b>Feeding</b> the beast
10.		The euro crisis Don't Let's Be <b>Beastly</b> to the Germans
11.		The state of the union Live- <b>tweeting</b> the speech
12.		The view from Brussels The <b>lion's den</b>
13.		Finnish <b>phoenix</b> : The start-ups rising from Nokia's ashes
14.		Belarus and the great <b>bear</b>
15.		Gazprom: Margrethe and the <b>bear</b>

### Appendix 1.4

A source domain of plants

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.	„Gazprom“ ieško <b>šiaudo</b> Azijoje	British politics – <b>greening</b> spires
2.	Biržos savaitgalį pasitiko <b>žaliuodamos</b>	Transport in Atlanta Driving <b>Daisy</b>
3.	Skatinimo lūkesčiais <b>pražydo</b> Kinijos biržos	Politics in Taiwan like <b>sunflower seeds</b>
4.	Vežėjai <b>obuoliauti</b> eina į kito <b>sodą</b>	
5.	„Diena Media News“ griebėsi restruktūrizacijos <b>šiaudo</b>	
6.	Lietuvoje išvestos augalų veislės <b>skinsis</b> kelią Europoje	
7.	Lietuvos vartotojai verslo <b>medžiui</b> tebeberia pasitikėjimo <b>trąšų</b>	
8.	Per mėnesį euras Lietuvoje suleido tvirtokas <b>šaknis</b>	
9.	Vokietijos sprendimas Graikijai – <b>valerijono</b> lašai	
10.	Vilties <b>slėniai</b> – tik su verslu	
11.	Kurie finansų ekspertai – taikliausi, kurie nuvažiavo į <b>lankas</b> ?	

## Appendix 1.5

A source domain of building and constructions

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.	Mažojo verslo <b>durys</b> į didžiąją reklamą	China and Pakistan - <b>Corridor</b> of power
2.	Ukrainos biudžetas <b>užtaiso landas</b> oligarchams	Microsoft at middle age - Opening <b>Windows</b>
3.	ECB padidino likvidumo pagalbos <b>lubas</b> Graikijos bankams	Britain's Liberal Democrats Left on the <b>shelf</b>
4.	Ukrainos infliacija pramušė 14 metų <b>lubas</b>	Investing Come out of the <b>closet</b>
5.	<b>Kloja pamatus</b> jungtinei miškų urėdijų veiklai	The Palace of Westminster <b>House</b> of Cards
6.	Pekinas deda alternatyvaus finansinės galios centro <b>pamatus</b>	Greece's cash crunch – Running out of <b>room</b>
7.	Ekonomistai įspėja: <b>kliba</b> Kinijos <b>pamatas</b>	The Hubble telescope: A <b>window</b> to the cosmos
8.	Rusai <b>veria landą</b> į savo rinką	
9.	<b>Klibinami</b> žemės pardavimą ribojantys <b>varžtai</b>	
10.	Muitų sąjungos <b>pamatus</b> ėmė <b>graužti</b> net kiaušinių kainos	

## Appendix 1.6

## Source domain of machines and tools

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.	Bankrotas <b>pripjovė</b> Sočio olimpiadai objektus stačiusias įmones	<b>Cyber-security</b> Oops
2.	Ekonomistų lūkesčiai nedideli: ECB <b>burtų lazdelės</b> neturi	Global business <b>barometer</b>
3.	Gyvulių augintojai bruzda – kratosi valdžios <b>pavadėlio</b>	Greece and geopolitics A semi-guided <b>missile</b>
4.	Krizės <b>apynasris</b> Lietuvai trukdo skolintis	Nigeria's postponed election A powder <b>keg</b>
5.	Neužkibkite ant sukčių <b>meškerės</b> : internete siūloma pirkti eurų	Religion and <b>guns</b> in Chicago Good lord, don't shoot
6.	Nuvertėjus rubliui rusai <b>šluoja</b> kilogramo svorio aukso monetas	Starbucks in Britain A loss-making <b>machine</b>
7.	Estijos verslininkai apsigynė nuo mokesčių <b>vėzdo</b>	Tax evasion Leaks on <b>tap</b>
8.	Bankai ima dar smarkiau raginti euro zonos ekonomikos <b>kinkinį</b>	World economy Abandon <b>ship</b> ?
9.	R. Šimašius Vilniaus biudžetą pavadino finansinių <b>minų</b> lauku	China's policy easing: Mr Li's <b>toolbox</b>
10.	Aptrupėjęs Rusijos branduolinis <b>skydas</b>	The Clinton campaign: Mystery <b>machine</b>
11.	Galanda košerinius <b>peilius</b>	
12.	Lukašenka: rusai čiumpa tai <b>vamzdį</b> , tai dešrą	
13.	Rumunija nori baigti taupymo metus <b>kirsdama</b> per mokesčius	
14.	Rusiškų automobilių <b>konvejeris</b> pradėjo suktis atgal	
15.	Septyni „Coca-Cola“ rinkodaros <b>užraktai</b>	
16.	Siekia atjunkyti ūkį nuo naftos <b>čiulptuko</b>	
17.	Kainų kare – galingas „Maximos“ <b>šūvis</b>	
18.	Žvilgsnis iš Vašingtono: Lietuva įšoko į euro „ <b>Titaniką</b> “	
19.	„Achema“ ir SGD terminalas <b>pjaunasi</b> dėl milijoninės sumos	
20.	Naujoji Vilniaus valdžia ieško tako iš <b>užminuoto</b> skolų <b>lauko</b>	
21.	Klibinami žemės pardavimą ribojantys <b>varžtai</b>	
22.	Užsikirto pagrindinis Lietuvos ūkio <b>variklis</b>	
23.	Naujas paramos kaimui <b>garvežys</b> jau pajudėjo	
24.	Socialinės sistemos pertvarka verčia kryžiuoti <b>špagas</b>	

## Appendix 1.7

Source domain of games and sports (and arts)

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.	<b>Amerikietiški</b> televizijos verslo <b>kalneliai</b>	America and Cuba A partisan <b>cha-cha</b>
2.	Rusijos draudimai <b>užminė</b> painių logistikos <b>mįslių</b>	America's labor market The end of the low-pay <b>puzzle</b> ?
3.	Konkurencijos tarybos <b>nokautas</b> verslui, o kas – po to?	Canada's flag <b>contested</b> colors
4.	Iki ekonominio <b>renesanso</b> Italijai dar toli	Manufacturing in India <b>Symphony</b> solo
5.	Vokietija, Graikija ir euro zona: blefų <b>žaidimas</b>	Money talks: To <b>hike</b> or <b>not to hike</b> ?
6.	<b>Bėgo</b> nuo didžiųjų prekybos tinklų, atsidūrė po „Aibės“ skėčiu	Non-communicable diseases Russian <b>roulette</b>
7.		<b>Race</b> to the bottom
8.		Religion and guns in Chicago Good lord, don't <b>shoot</b>
9.		Rouble <b>runes</b>
10.		<b>Running</b> on empty
11.		The Iran-Saudi <b>rivalry</b> : A rift in the Gulf
12.		Southern politics Ahead of the <b>game</b>
13.		The Palace of Westminster <b>House of Cards</b>
14.		The president's agenda Political <b>pantomime</b>
15.		The state of the union address Behind the <b>pantomime</b>
16.		Greece's cash crunch – <b>Running out</b> of room
17.		Migration from the Balkans: Quitting dreams, <b>chasing</b> dreams
18.		Life's <b>lottery</b> . What are your chances of being murdered in a single year?
19.		Greece: The dangerous <b>game</b>
20.		<b>Game</b> of drones: As prices plummet drones are taking off
21.		Al-Qaeda in the Arabian Peninsula: jihadist <b>rivalry</b>
22.		Money talks: A long <b>end-game</b>
23.		Global housing markets: Property <b>puzzles</b>
24.		The Russian financial <b>rally</b> : Unfair
25.		British politics: David Cameron's own <b>goal</b>

## Appendix 1.8

Source domain of money and economic transactions

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.	Paskolų bankomatai – <b>aukso</b> gysla Rusijoje	
2.	<b>Aukso kasykla</b> grįžta prie drabužių valymo	
3.	Bankai <b>pelnu kimšosi kišenes</b> , bet paskolomis nelepino	
4.	Baudėjams euro įvedimas – <b>aukso kasyklos</b>	
5.	<b>Pinigų skrynia</b> dar neatverta, o ūkininkai – jau nervinasi	
6.	Ukmergei teks <b>atrišti kapšą</b> – atlygins žalą šilumos tiekėjui	
7.	Valstybė sėdi ant <b>pinigų maišo</b> , tik nesiryžta jo praverti	
8.	Elektros <b>turguje</b> nedalyvaujančios įmonės ją tebeperka brangiai	

## Appendix 1.9

Source domain of cooking and food

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.	Aliejaus kainos brangina <b>Viduržemio jūros dieta</b>	America's budget for 2016 A curate's <b>egg</b>
2.	Auga finansininkų <b>apetitas</b> skolintis	European banks Easing means <b>squeezing</b>
3.	Lukašenka: rusai čiumpa tai vamzdį, tai <b>dešrą</b>	Immigration in America The <b>melting pot</b> works
4.	<b>Šampaną</b> geria ir nerizikuodami	Lithuanian politics <b>Stirring the pot</b>
5.	Tirpsta Rusijos mėsos sektoriaus <b>lašiniai</b>	Mapping startups A <b>recipe</b> for success
6.	Vežėjai laikosi <b>tirpdydami lašinius</b> ir perstumdydami veiklą	Marijuana laws <b>Baked</b> Alaska
7.	Vežėjai <b>obuoliauti</b> eina į kito sodą	Money talks A storm in a <b>teacup</b> ?
8.	Kaip <b>ant mielių</b> augę baldininkai nori būti pirmi prie medienos	Politics in Bangladesh On the <b>boil</b>
9.	<b>Duona kvepiantis</b> biržiečių verslas veržiasi į pasaulį	Charlemagne – British <b>cooks</b> , European <b>soup</b>
10.	<b>Košės privirė</b> valdininkai, o srebro žemės savininkai	Protests in Brazil: Tropical <b>tea</b> party
11.	Muitų sąjungos pamatus ėmė <b>graužti</b> net kiaušinių kainos	Libya's civil war is an <b>oily</b> mess
12.	Pieno perdirbėjai iš nerimo <b>varškės</b> išspaudė pelno <b>sūrį</b>	Financial regulation in America <b>Fed up</b>
13.	Seimas vėl pradeda <b>kramtyti</b> minimalios algos didinimo idėją	
14.	Ar Lietuvą užtvindys lenkiško <b>pieno</b> upės?	
15.	Verslas raitosi rankovės: jau <b>pakvipo</b> gynybai skirtais pinigais	

## Appendix 1.10

Source domain of heat and cold

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.	<b>Nesušildo</b> ir individualūs VMI išaiškinimai	Politics in Malaysia Gathering <b>steam</b>
2.	Statybose parama gali <b>išgaruoti</b> dėl varžtelio	The Liberal Democrats A <b>cold</b> shower
3.	<b>Šilti</b> Rusijos ir Vengrijos ryšiai – <b>šaltose</b> Briuselio rankose	Liquidity in markets: <b>Frozen</b>

## Appendix 1.11

Source domain of light and darkness

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.	Darbo kodeksas išvydo dienos <b>šviesą</b>	"Secular stagnation" in graphics Doom and <b>gloom</b>
2.	Europos Sąjungos ūkis braška, ateitis <b>miglota</b>	Anti-Semitism in Europe Fear of a new <b>darkness</b>
3.	<b>Šviesus</b> rytojus: augsime triskart lenkdami euro zonos vidurkį	Extremism in South-East Asia The looming <b>shadow</b>
4.	Eurui patys europiečiai piešia <b>tamsią</b> ateitį	Monetary policy. The <b>dark</b> clouds around the silver lining
5.		The Silk Road trial Tales from the <b>crypt</b>
6.		Venezuela's regime Tyranny <b>looms</b>
7.		Police brutality in Chicago. <b>Dark</b> days
8.		Migrants in the Mediterranean: The numbers <b>nightmare</b>
9.		The <b>greying</b> economy: Bang goes retirement
10.		The Gaza Strip: As <b>bleak</b> as ever
11.		Economic history: The past's long <b>shadow</b>
12.		Mental health: Out of the <b>shadows</b>



## Appendix 1.12

Source domain of non-human forces

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.	„Apple“ gamintojai planuoja atleidimų <b>bangą</b>	Affirmative action Harvard under <b>fire</b>
2.	Partnerystė su Omanu – ne dykumos <b>miražas</b>	Britain, London and Christianity Setting the Thames on <b>fire</b>
3.	Rusijoje – įmonių bankrotų <b>bangą</b>	Business and the euro Only a <b>tailwind</b>
4.	Tarp Graikijos ir kreditorių – nepasitikėjimo <b>bedugnė</b>	<b>Oceans</b> of waste
5.	Technologijos, kurios atsisako išeiti <b>anapus</b>	Money talks: A <b>storm</b> in a teacup?
6.	Visoje Argentinoje <b>nuvilnijo</b> finansinių reidų <b>bangą</b>	Nigeria and its neighbors Big fish (or shark) in a small <b>pond</b>
7.	Lietuvio pensijos <b>miražas iliuzijomis</b> grįstas	Oil and gas The cruel <b>sea</b>
8.	Euro zoną <b>užlies</b> pinigų <b>jūra</b>	Oil price and Russian politics The <b>ebb</b> and <b>flow</b> of Federal fortune
9.	Europa ištiesė pagalbos ranką skolose <b>skęstančiai</b> Graikijai	Spanish politics <b>Ghosts</b> at the feast
10.	Ar Lietuvą <b>užtvindys</b> lenkiško pieno upės?	Ukraine's war: The <b>fire</b> that did not cease
11.	Anglių gamintojai <b>sudegė</b> – prarado milijonus eurų paramos	Africa and commodity prices are no longer the kiss of <b>death</b>
12.	Pasaulis <b>skęsta</b> naftoje – kiek ilgai?	Xenophobia in South Africa - Blood at the end of the <b>rainbow</b>
13.	Didžiausiam britų bankui HSBC – kaltinimų <b>lavina</b>	Waste disposal keep <b>the fires burning</b>
14.	Terminalo statybos Lenkijoje kelia skandalų <b>purslus</b>	Hong Kong-mainland relations: Staunching the <b>flow</b>
15.		Petrobras - deep <b>under water</b>

# Appendix 1.13

## Source domain of movement and directions

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.	„Google“ finansų vadovas <b>renkasi</b> kuprinę ir <b>kelią</b>	Democracy in Congo To Con or <b>Go</b> ?
2.	„Omnitel“ kalba apie <b>atsispyrimą</b> nuo dugno	Excuse me while I <b>kiss</b> the sky
3.	„Vilniaus degtinė“: <b>išlipo</b> iš nuostolio	German politics: <b>Defeat</b> on the Elbe
4.	Ilarionovas: Rusijos ūkis <b>važiuoja</b> žemyn ne dėl naftos	The European Central Bank: <b>Let</b> the show <b>begin</b>
5.	JAV tankai žvalgosi <b>parkavimo vietų</b> Lietuvoje	Canada's car industry - the <b>road to</b> nowhere
6.	Lietuvą iš investicijų seklumos <b>plukdo</b> vikingai	The war against Islamic State: <b>Creeping toward</b> Damascus
7.	Mykolo Katkaus verslo <b>klystkeliai</b>	
8.	Mokesčių mokėtojų pirmūnus ant pjedestalo <b>užkelia</b> vartotojai	
9.	Naftos kaina <b>nučiuožė</b> žemyn	
10.	Pašto rinka <b>pasistiebė</b> į viršų	
11.	Tikėtina, kad po didžiojo <b>kryčio</b> lauks švytuoklė	
12.	Vilnius <b>šoka</b> konferencijų viliotinį, bet trūksta erdvės	
13.	Vokietijos verslo nuotaikos toliau <b>kyla</b>	
14.	Biržai <b>veržiasi</b> į pasaulį – gamins detales „Husqvarna“i	
15.	Kurie finansų ekspertai – taikliausi, kurie <b>nuvažiavo</b> į lankas?	
16.	Naftos kainos jau <b>atitrūko</b> nuo dugno	
17.	Rockefelleriai <b>tepa slides?</b>	
18.	Skaudi šeimos istorija: kaip <b>nenugarmėti</b> į skolų liūną	
19.	Po V.Matijošaičio <b>šulio</b> į mero kėdę – intriga dėl „Vičiūnų“	
20.	Lietuva jau <b>rėplioja</b> link gėrimų pakuočių užstato sistemos	
21.	Pieno kainų <b>nutemptas</b> į krizės dugną, <b>atsispyrė</b> ir <b>išplaukė</b>	
22.	Sunkmetį išgyvenusi „Rūta“ pakilo naujam <b>skrydžiui</b>	

## 2. English and Lithuanian metaphors classified by similarities

### Appendix 2.1

#### Similarities in exterior

	Lithuanian metaphor	English metaphor
1.	„Teo LT“ keičia savo <b>rūbą</b>	Conflict in Ukraine: <b>More boots</b> on the ground
2.	<b>Amerikietiški</b> televizijos verslo <b>kalneliai</b>	Sanctions against Russia: <b>Fancy footwork</b>
3.	Kooperacijos įstatyme – <b>nauji štrichai</b>	The Hubble telescope: A <b>window to the cosmos</b>
4.	Galanda <b>košerinius peilius</b>	
5.	Už <b>nupešiotą „Finastą“</b> – dalis Šiaulių banko ir galima veiklos sinergija	
6.	<b>Atvėrę akis</b> net JAV dangoraižiams, jau gamina langus laivams	

### Appendix 2.2

#### Similarities in colors

	Lithuanian metaphor	English metaphor
1.	Biržos savaitgalį pasitiko <b>žaliuodamos</b>	"Secular stagnation" in graphics Doom and <b>gloom</b>
2.	Eurui patys europiečiai piešia <b>tamsią</b> ateitį	Anti-Semitism in Europe: Fear of a new <b>darkness</b>
3.	<b>Šviesus</b> rytojus: augsime triskart lenkdami euro zonos vidurkį	British politics: <b>Greening</b> spires
4.		Market turmoil: Russia's <b>Black</b> Tuesday
5.		Monetary policy: The <b>dark</b> clouds around the silver lining
6.		Investing in art: A study in <b>red</b> and <b>black</b>
7.		Police brutality in Chicago: <b>Dark</b> days
8.		The <b>greying</b> economy: Bang goes retirement
9.		The Gaza Strip: As <b>bleak</b> as ever

### Appendix 2.3

#### Similarities in sounds

	Lithuanian metaphor	English metaphor
1.	Europos Sąjungos ūkis <b>braška</b> , ateitis miglota	Argentine politics: <b>Silent</b> , but seething
2.	Kas antras Lietuvos gyventojas eurui jau <b>ploja katučių</b>	The state of the union: Live- <b>tweeting</b> the speech
3.	Litams <b>tiksi</b> paskutinės valandos	
4.	Pertvarkos <b>dūžiai</b> : žemėtvarkininkai sunerimo dėl savo kėdžių	

## Appendix 2.4

### Similarities in positions in space

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.	JAV tankai žvalgosi <b>parkavimo vietų</b> Lietuvoje	Alibaba: Love <b>on the rocks</b>
2.	Technologijos, kurios atsisako išeiti <b>anapus</b>	Buttonwood: A peg <b>in a poke</b>
3.	Mokesčių mokėtojų pirmūnus <b>ant pjedestalo</b> užkelia vartotojai	Conflict in Ukraine: More boots <b>on the ground</b>
4.	„Omnitel“ kalba apie atsispyrimą <b>nuo dugno</b>	Greece and the Eurogroup: <b>nearer the brink</b>
5.	„Vilniaus degtinė“: išlipo <b>iš nuostolio</b>	Investing: Come <b>out of the closet</b>
6.	Kiauliena pergalingai grįžta <b>ant kaubojų stalo</b>	Markets: Letting go <b>of Daddy's hand</b>
7.	<b>Kainų kare</b> – galingas „Maximos“ šūvis	Monetary policy: The dark clouds <b>around the silver lining</b>
8.		Money talks: A <b>storm in a teacup?</b>
9.		Nigeria and its neighbors: Big fish (or shark) <b>in a small pond</b>
10.		Spanish politics Ghosts <b>at the feast</b>
11.		The Silk Road trial: Tales <b>from the crypt</b>
12.		Tracking aeroplanes: Eyes <b>in the sky</b>
13.		Offshore finance. Trouble <b>in paradise</b>
14.		Mental health: <b>Out of the shadows</b>

## Appendix 2.5

### Similarities in actions

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.	„Chevron“ <b>rankas nuleido</b> ir Rumunijoje	European economy guide: <b>Taking</b> Europe's pulse
2.	„Gazprom“ <b>ieško šiaudo</b> Azijoje	British politics: David Cameron's <b>own goal</b>
3.	Bankų Achilo <b>kulnas negyja</b>	Financial regulation in America <b>Fed up</b>
4.	Dėl Šiaulių banko akcijų <b>lipo per galvas</b>	Waste disposal <b>keep</b> the fires <b>burning</b>
5.	<b>Galanda</b> košerinius <b>peilius</b>	Migration from the Balkans: <b>Quitting</b> dreams, <b>chasing</b> dreams
6.	Kazachstanas <b>skelbia atostogas</b> nuo rusiškos naftos	Greece's cash crunch – <b>Running out</b> of room
7.	Kinijos <b>rinka springsta</b> nuo pieno pertekliaus	Transport in Atlanta <b>Driving</b> Miss Daisy
8.	Lietuvą iš investicijų seklumos <b>plukdo vikingai</b>	Tesco and accounting <b>Feeding</b> the beast
9.	Prekybininkų kovos <b>sąlygas diktuoja</b> rinka	<b>Running</b> on empty
10.	Rusiškų automobilių <b>konvejeris pradėjo suktis atgal</b>	Retirement reform <b>Live</b> poor, <b>die</b> young
11.	<b>Siekia atjunkyti</b> ūkį nuo naftos čiaulptuko	<b>Feeding</b> the bear - Foreign banks' lending to Russia
12.	<b>Tirpsta</b> Rusijos mėsos sektoriaus <b>lašiniai</b>	

13.	Verslas <b>daro</b> , kol valdžia <b>imituoja</b>	
14.	Vieni <b>taupo</b> pinigus, kiti – laiką ir nervus	
15.	Vilnius <b>šoka</b> konferencijų viliotinį, bet trūksta erdvės	
16.	Visoje Argentinoje <b>nuvilnijo</b> finansinių reidų <b>banga</b>	
17.	Rusijos draudimai <b>užminė</b> papių logistikos <b>mįslių</b>	
18.	Vežėjai <b>obuoliauti eina</b> į kito sodą	
19.	Bankai pelnu <b>kimšosi kišenes</b> , bet paskolomis <b>nelepino</b>	
20.	Valstybė renovacijos <b>drabužių siuva</b> su verslu	
21.	„Diena Media News“ <b>griebėsi</b> restruktūrizacijos <b>šiaudo</b>	
22.	FED <b>atrišo</b> sau <b>rankas</b> didinti palūkanas	
23.	Argentinos <b>rinka juokina</b> pieno perdirbėjus	
24.	<b>Bėgo</b> nuo didžiųjų prekybos tinklų, <b>atsidūrė</b> po „Aibės“ skėčiu	
25.	Biržai <b>veržiasi į pasaulį</b> – gamins detales „Husqvarna“i“	
26.	Ekonomistai įspėja: <b>kliba</b> Kinijos pamatas	
27.	Euro zoną <b>užlies</b> pinigų <b>jūra</b>	
28.	Gyvulių <b>augintojai bruzda</b> – kratosi valdžios pavadėlio	
29.	Kaimo <b>parduotuvės springsta</b> nuo lietuviškų centų	
30.	<b>Košės privirė</b> valdininkai, o <b>srebia</b> žemės savininkai	
31.	Kūrybingi Ukmergės baldininkai <b>atsuko nugarą</b> „Marks & Spencer“	
32.	Lenkijos oro bendrovė <b>pasmaugė</b> finansinės <b>bėdos</b>	
33.	Lietuvos <b>bankai purtosi</b> klientų amerikiečių	
34.	Lietuvos vartotojai verslo medžiui <b>tebeberia</b> pasitikėjimo <b>trąšų</b>	
35.	Litams <b>tiksi</b> paskutinės <b>valandos</b>	
36.	Nuvertėjus rubliui rusai <b>šluoja</b> kilogramo svorio aukso <b>monetas</b>	
37.	<b>Pasaulis</b> net <b>dūsta</b> nuo skolų	
38.	Per mėnesį euras Lietuvoje <b>suleido</b> tvirtokas <b>šaknis</b>	
39.	Skolintis euras bus pigiau, tad <b>gresia</b> išlaidavimo <b>virusas</b>	
40.	Švedai dėl „Oriflame“ <b>griežia dantį</b> ant Rusijos	

41.	Ukmergei teks <b>atrišti kapšą</b> – atlygins žalą šilumos tiekėjui	
42.	Vokietijos ekonomiką <b>čiūčiuoja</b> didėjanti vidaus <b>paklausa</b>	
43.	Estijos verslininkai <b>apsigynė nuo</b> mokesčių <b>vėzdo</b>	
44.	Naujas paramos kaimui <b>garvežys</b> jau <b>pajudėjo</b>	
45.	Bankai ima dar smarkiau <b>raginti</b> euro zonos ekonomikos <b>kinkinį</b>	
46.	Uždaryta Rusijos rinka <b>nepasmaugė</b> transporto <b>įmonių</b>	
47.	Eurui patys europiečiai <b>piešia</b> tamsią <b>ateitį</b>	
48.	Skalūnų dujų besižvalgantys lenkai žemaičių <b>kaktos nesuminkštino</b>	
49.	Terminalo statybos Lenkijoje <b>kelia</b> skandalų <b>purslus</b>	
50.	Oro bendrovės <b>karpo skrydžius</b> į Rusiją	
51.	Ar Lietuvą <b>užtvindys</b> lenkiško pieno <b>upės?</b>	
52.	Anglių <b>gamintojai sudegė</b> – prarado milijonus eurų paramos	
53.	Socialinės sistemos pertvarka verčia <b>kryžiuoti špagas</b>	
54.	Verslas raitosi rankovės: jau <b>pakvipo</b> gynybai skirtais <b>pinigais</b>	
55.	Pasaulis <b>skęsta naftoje</b> – kiek ilgai?	
56.	<b>Užsikirto</b> pagrindinis Lietuvos ūkio <b>variklis</b>	
57.	„Germanika“ jau <b>išskleidė sparnus</b> Europoje	
58.	Sunkmetį išgyvenusi „Rūta“ <b>pakilo</b> naujam <b>skrydžiui</b>	

Appendix 2.6  
Similarities in images

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.	<b>Defliacijos šmėkla</b> pasirodė Kinijoje	Afghanistan, Pakistan and the Taliban <b>Hope spring</b>
2.	„Gazprom“ dujų <b>eksporto suknelėje</b> gerokai mažiau nėrinių	America's budget for 2016 A <b>curate's egg</b>
3.	Didžiausiam britų bankui HSBC – <b>kaltinimų lavina</b>	Daily chart <b>Oceans of waste</b>
4.	Euro zoną užlies <b>pinigų jūra</b>	Development The <b>economics of optimism</b>
5.	Iki <b>ekonominio renesanso</b> Italijai dar toli	Global banks A <b>world of pain</b>
6.	<b>Krizės apynasris</b> Lietuvai trukdo skolintis	<b>Life's lottery</b> . What are your chances of being murdered in a single year?
7.	Lietuvos vartotojai verslo medžiui tebeberia <b>pasitikėjimo trašų</b>	Materials science <b>Wings of steel</b>
8.	Neužkibkite ant <b>sukčių meškerės</b> : internete siūloma pirkti eurų	Romania's Roma The <b>art of exclusion</b>
9.	<b>Pinigų skrynia</b> dar neatverta, o ūkininkai – jau nervinasi	The Clinton campaign: <b>Mystery machine</b>
10.	Po Vakarų įvestų sankcijų Rusiją kamuoja <b>finansiniai sąrėmiai</b>	Africa and commodity prices are no longer the <b>kiss of death</b>
11.	Valstybė sėdi ant <b>pinigų maišo</b> , tik nesiryžta jo praverti	
12.	Vilnius - badaujantis valstybės <b>biudžeto donoras</b>	
13.	Estijos verslininkai apsigynė nuo <b>mokesčių vėzdo</b>	
14.	Terminalo statybos Lenkijoje kelia <b>skandalų purslus</b>	
15.	V.Matijošaitis palieka pareigas <b>verslo imperijoje</b>	
16.	Ar Lietuvą užtvindys lenkiško <b>pieno upės</b> ?	
17.	Užsikirto pagrindinis Lietuvos <b>ūkio variklis</b>	
18.	<b>Kainų kare</b> – galingas „Maximos“ šūvis	
19.	Lietuvą iš <b>investicijų seklumos</b> plukdo vikingai	
20.	Vilnius šoka <b>konferencijų viliotini</b> , bet trūksta erdvės	
21.	Visoje Argentinoje nuvilnijo finansinių <b>reidų banga</b>	
22.	Lietuvio <b>pensijos mirazas</b> iliuzijomis grįstas	

## Appendix 2.7

### Similarities in quantity

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.	„Apple“ gamintojai planuoja <b>atleidimų bangą</b>	Banyan Such <b>quantities</b> of sand
2.	Rusijoje – įmonių <b>bankrotų banga</b>	Daily chart <b>Oceans of waste</b>
3.	Visoje Argentinoje nuvilnijo finansinių <b>reidų banga</b>	
4.	Didžiausiam britų bankui HSBC – <b>kaltinimų lavina</b>	
5.	Euro zoną užlies <b>pinigų jūra</b>	
6.	Ar Lietuvą užtvindys lenkiško <b>pieno upės?</b>	

## Appendix 2.8

### Similarities in value

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.	Paskolų bankomatai – <b>aukso gysla</b> Rusijoje	Monetary policy The dark clouds around the <b>silver lining</b>
2.	<b>Aukso kasykla</b> grįžta prie drabužių valymo	Oil price and Russian politics The <b>ebb and flow of Federal fortune</b>
3.	Baudėjams euro įvedimas – <b>aukso kasyklos</b>	
4.	<b>Pinigų skrynia</b> dar neatverta, o ūkininkai – jau nervinasi	
5.	Valstybė sėdi ant <b>pinigų maišo</b> , tik nesiryžta jo praverti	
6.	V.Matijošaitis palieka pareigas <b>verslo imperijoje</b>	

## Appendix 2.9

### Similarities in functions

	<b>Lithuanian metaphor</b>	<b>English metaphor</b>
1.		Mapping startups A <b>recipe for success</b>