



Lion Metaphors in Chinese and English

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ABSTRACT

This study intends to explore the cultural similarities and differences between the lion metaphors in Mandarin Chinese and British English. Most previous studies on animal metaphors focussed on the expressions with human beings as the target domain by collecting data either from questionnaires or dictionaries based on the Conceptual Metaphor Theory. This study, however, focusses on the expressions with non-humans as the target domains and is based on data collected from authoritative corpora. Three hundred and ninety-seven metaphorical expressions in Mandarin Chinese were identified from the Modern Chinese Corpus compiled by the Centre for Chinese Linguistics of Peking University (CCL Corpus) and 241 metaphorical expressions in British English were identified from the British National Corpus (BNC). After analysing the expressions from the perspective of the source domain and the target domain, the results show that first, the metaphorical expressions in Mandarin Chinese are mainly projected from the lion's appearance to non-humans, but those in British English are mainly projected from the lion's characteristics to non-humans. Second, the expressions are mainly mapped onto seven target domains in each language; four are the same. In addition, the dominant evaluation of the seven target domains in each language is mostly neutral. Third, ten conceptual metaphors were generalised from Mandarin Chinese and one from British English. All of these indicate the occurrence of cultural similarities as well as differences in the lion metaphors in the two languages.

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INTRODUCTION

In cognitive linguistics, conceptual metaphors of many kinds have been researched. Among them are the emotion metaphor (Aksan *et al.*, 2008; Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk *et al.*, 2010; Schröder, 2009; Yu, 1995; Yu, 1998) and the body part metaphor (Charteris-Black, 2003; Odeunmi, 2010; Yu, 2000; Yu, 2003). The other types that have been less researched are the war metaphor and the chess metaphor. In addition, although much research on metaphors has been in the English language, “cognitively oriented studies of figuration in the Chinese language have made significant contributions to our awareness and appreciation of culture-specific as well as universal patterns of conceptualization” (Jing, 2008, pp.243) such as in the anger metaphor (Yu, 1998). This suggests the possibility that cultural differences might also exist in other kinds of metaphor. Given the close relationship between human beings and animals, we might assume that a plethora of animal metaphors have been identified. However, the reverse is true. Not only are studies on animal expressions relatively few (Hsieh, 2004; Hsieh, 2006), but studies conducted cross-linguistically are scarce (Talebinejad & Dastjerdi, 2005). As a consequence, it seems that the animal metaphor is a promising area for research and many interesting aspects are waiting to be explored. Apart from this, previous studies on animal metaphors mainly focussed on the metaphorical expressions when the target domain is the human being, with data gathered either from questionnaires or dictionaries rather

than corpora. However, “one of the major developments in metaphor research in recent few years has been the focus on identifying and explicating metaphoric language in real discourse” (Group, 2007, p.1) rather than from isolated constructed examples out of the researchers’ intuition. Besides, there is a growing trend to adopt a corpus-based methodology to research metaphors (Oster, 2010, p.730). Therefore, a cross-linguistic study on animal metaphor might be very insightful if it is based on data collected from corpora, particularly when the target domains are non-humans. Thus, this study hopes to make some contribution to the literature on animal metaphors by investigating data collected from corpora involving lion metaphorical expressions and metaphors in Mandarin Chinese and British English. Specifically, the study aims to identify the cultural similarities and differences between the lion metaphors in the two languages by focussing on the metaphorical expressions that have non-humans as the target domain.

Background to the Study

Previous studies on animal metaphors conducted in China and elsewhere have been analysed and compared according to the research content, which leads to the identification of certain similarities and differences between them. With regard to the similarities, two aspects are significant. First, most studies focussed on the expressions or metaphors when the target domain was human beings (e.g., Xiang & Wang, 2009; Zhou, 2010; Davies & Bentahila, 1989;

O'Brien, 2003; Spence, 2001; Talebinejad & Dastjerdi, 2005). Xiang and Wang (2009) analysed the similarities and differences between 36 representative animal metaphors in English and Mandarin Chinese from the data they collected from a survey with two sets of ten native speakers in each language as the participants. They found that although animal metaphors relating to human beings in English and Mandarin Chinese share similarities to some extent, cultural specifics are manifested in many aspects. Zhou (2010) conducted a corpus-based study on animal expressions with human beings as the target domain in Mandarin Chinese and British English. His study provides evidence not only for the metaphor, HUMAN BEINGS ARE ANIMALS but also for Kövecses's argument that metaphorical highlighting and metaphorical utilisation are two important properties of metaphorical mappings (Kövecses, 2010, p.91-93). Davies and Bentahila (1989) examined animal terms used to describe human beings in British English and Moroccan Arabic. They found that it is not practical to have clear-cut dichotomies in the classification of conversational metaphors "such as those between conventional and creative interpretations or between regular and idiosyncratic ones" (p. 66). O'Brien (2003) analysed the use of organism, object, natural catastrophe, war and animal metaphors in the immigration restriction debate in American history in the early 20th century. With regard to animal metaphors, he concluded that, "Animal metaphors were often used when the particular characteristic of an animal was seemingly descriptive of

the threat posed by the immigrant group" (p.42). Based on this argument, a conceptual metaphor of IMMIGRANT AS ANIMAL has also been generalised in the study (p. 43). Spence (2001) analysed the application of animal names to human beings in several European languages such as English, French, Italian, German and Spanish. He found that the animal names in the major languages of Western Europe are frequently used to describe human beings in a figurative way. For example... Wei (2011) conducted a corpus-based study on lion metaphors when the target domain is the man. She found support for the metaphor, HUMAN BEINGS ARE ANIMALS by generalising 14 lion metaphors under the umbrella of A MAN IS A LION in each language. For example, in both languages, the lion is used to describe famous and excellent men. Therefore, A FAMOUS MAN OF EXCELLENCE IS A LION exists in both cultures. The following two linguistic expressions are examples from the corpora of Mandarin Chinese and that of British English to support this metaphor.

沧州武术教练刘述来胆大艺高，
有武林雄[狮]之称。

*Cangzhou wushu jiaolian Liu
Shulai danda yigao, you wulin*

*Cangzhou martial arts coach Liu
Shulai bold skill high, have wulin*

xiongshi zhi cheng.

male lion MOD title.

[Liu Shulai is a martial arts coach in Cangzhou and he is called the "lion of martial

arts” for his boldness as well as his excellent skills in martial arts.]

He was one of the first eminent European scientists to make a career in the USA, and rapidly became a *lion*: his lectures and books were popular, and he built up a school and museum at Harvard.

Second, some studies focussed on the evaluation of the animal expressions when they were used to depict people. (e.g., Xin, 2006; Zhou, 2010; Allen, 1984; Fontecha & Jiménez Catalán, 2003; Halupka & Radić, 2003). Xin (2006) conducted a comparative study on the discriminative evaluation of animal words concerned with the fox/vixen and dog/bitch pairs as well as their Mandarin Chinese counterparts. The results show that these animal words can metaphorically apply to human beings and that discriminative evaluation exists in these animal names too. In addition, the words that apply to the female display more discriminative connotation compared to those that apply to the male. Zhou (2010) conducted a corpus-based study on the evaluation of the animal expressions that can be applied to human beings in Mandarin Chinese and British English. After analysing the expressions concerned with sheep, snake and tiger in both languages, he claims that when applying animal names to human beings, those that refer to the woman bear more and deeper derogatory meaning than those that refer to the man. Allen (1984) analysed 96 animal terms that refer to women of 20 various ethnic groups. She found that these animal terms are used

abusively as epithets referring to ethnic women. Similarly, Fontecha and Jiménez Catalán (2003) investigated the word pairs of fox/vixen, bull/cow and their Spanish counterparts of *zorro/zorra*, and *toro/vaca*. They found that these animal pairs can be metaphorically used to refer to people in the two languages. In addition, the main metaphorical meanings of the female terms bear worse connotations than those of the male terms. This is because Fontecha and Jiménez Catalán regard the metaphorical expressions that refer to promiscuous sexual behaviour as bearing the worst commutation but such expressions are only applied to women. In another study, Halupka and Radić (2003) conducted a study on the use of 40 animal names with 100 university students of linguistics as participants. They analysed the data that was collected through a questionnaire to investigate the use of animal names in Serbian in addressing people abusively and affectionately. The results show that animal names are more often used abusively than affectionately in addressing people.

With regard to the differences between studies conducted in China and elsewhere, one aspect is very interesting: a few studies in Mandarin Chinese focussed on the scope of the metaphor which refers to the range of target domains that one source domain can apply to (Kövecses, 2010). However, research concerned with animal metaphors on this aspect is absent in English. For example, Su (2008) investigated different target domains that most animals can be mapped onto in English and Mandarin

Chinese, such as the human, the economy and politics. Song (2009) conducted a contrast study on animal metaphors in English and Mandarin Chinese from cognitive and cultural perspectives. She explored not only the animal metaphors that can apply to human beings, but also to some other targets such as politics, economics, the military, and science and technology.

Further, if taking the research method into account, the majority of the studies conducted in China and other countries adopted a top-down method by seeking linguistic examples as evidence for the existence of HUMAN BEINGS ARE ANIMALS or a bottom-up method by generalising some specific conceptual metaphors from the data in their studies. However, one study is exceptional, which is MacArthur's work (2005). Although MacArthur adopted a top-down method, he did not seek evidence for any existing metaphor as did the previous studies. Instead, he predicated one conceptual metaphor first. Then he analysed the linguistic expressions to verify its existence. The metaphor he predicated before conducting the study was CONTROL OF AN UNPREDICTABLE/UNDESIRABLE FORCE IS A RIDER'S CONTROL. This metaphor refers to the horse. His study proved the existence of this metaphor in both English and Spanish.

In summary, most previous studies adopted the top-down or bottom-up method by collecting data from questionnaires or dictionaries and focussing on the expressions that are projected from the animal to the human being. Only a few studies in both languages collected the data

from corpora and also only a few studies in China focussed on the expressions when the target domains are non-humans. Thus, in order to fill the gap, this study will adopt the bottom-up method to conduct a comparative study by collecting data from large and authoritative corpora. This study focusses on the animal "lion" in order to see what other domains aside from humans can also be target domains for application of the lion metaphor in the two languages.

The lion has been selected as the focus of the present study due to the following reasons. On the one hand Firstly, the studies focussed on lion metaphors were scant in the past. In addition, the few studies based on the previous studies, the one study on lion metaphors is concentrated on the lion expressions that applied to man rather than to multiple all kinds of domains including both humans and non-humans. Thirdly on the other hand, while the lion is not a native animal neither in China nor in Britain, it is the sitting beast of the Universal Great Wisdom Bodhisattva (Hong, 2004, p.120) in Chinese culture and the "king of beasts" in the British culture. Thus, in order to fill the gap in research on animal metaphors, the lion, which has an important status in both China and Britain, has been chosen as the focus of this study. Next, the theoretical framework of the present study is introduced.

Theoretical framework

In the field of cognitive linguistics, research on metaphors started with the publication of the book *Metaphors We*

Live By (1980), in which Lakoff and Johnson claim that conceptual metaphors are mappings across conceptual domains that structure people's reasoning, experience and everyday language. In other words, one can understand the experience of one domain in terms of another. One formula is suggested for presenting metaphor i.e. where $A \text{ IS } B$ A refers to the target domain and B refers to the source domain. For instance, the conceptual metaphor *LOVE IS A JOURNEY* serves to structure the target domain, *LOVE* in terms of the source domain, *JOURNEY*, which allows us to think and talk about love in terms of a journey. Accordingly, by mapping knowledge about journeys onto knowledge about love, this *LOVE* metaphor can be understood easily i.e. this metaphor is understood from the point of view of the journey motif. In addition, a metaphor of this kind is made up of a number of conventional mappings stored in our long-term memory;

in this case, the conventional mappings are the source domain of the *JOURNEY* and the target domain of *LOVE*. As indicated in Fig.1, seven corresponding elements exist in the source domain of *JOURNEY* and the target domain of *LOVE*. Hence, the motif of the traveller within the convention of the domain of the *A JOURNEY* is mapped onto the motif of lovers, which is the convention of the target domain, . The notion of the vehicle is mapped onto the notion of the love relationship and so on. In this way, *LOVE* is metaphorically understood in terms of a journey.

With regard to the nature of the conceptual metaphor, there are knowledge-based metaphors and image-based metaphors (Kövecses, 2010, p.42-44). Metaphors like *LOVE IS A JOURNEY* fall into the former category. Knowledge-based metaphors refer to those that are based on basic knowledge of concepts. In such

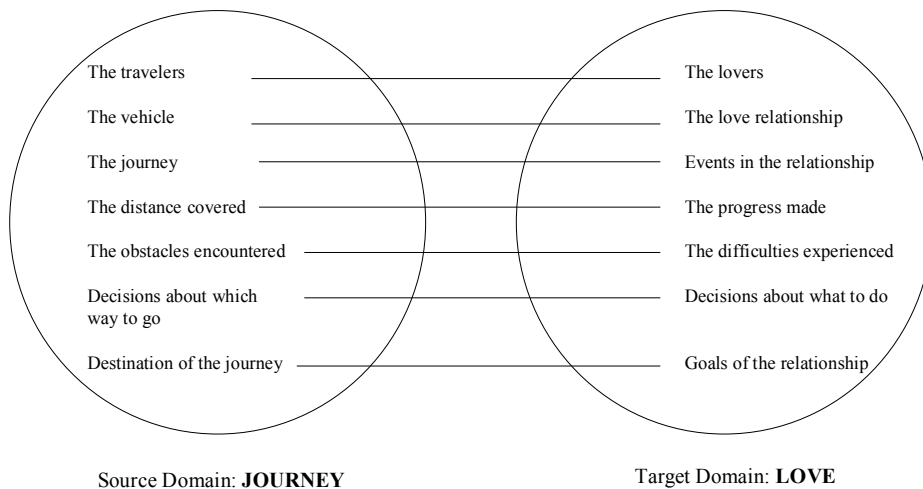


Fig.1: love is a journey
(Adapted from Lakoff, 2006, p. 189-192; Vyvyan Evans, 2007, p.137)

metaphors, the basic knowledge structures that consist of some basic elements are mapped from a source to a target (Kövecses, 2010, p.42). The elements are the lovers, the love relationship and the difficulties experienced, among others, in the case of LOVE and in the case of the “journey,” the elements are the travellers, the vehicle and the obstacles encountered, among others JOURNEY. Image-based metaphors refer to those that are based on different images. In other words, such metaphors do not project the conceptual structure from the source domain to the target domain as in the case of knowledge-based metaphors, but map the image from the source domain onto the target domain (Lakoff & Turner, 1989, p.89). There are two kinds of image structures. One is the part-whole structure and the other is the attribute structure. The part-whole structure refers to the relation between a part and a whole, such as a roof and a house or a tombstone and a grave. The attribute structure refers to attributes of the object selected as the target domain such as colour and shape, for instance (Lakoff & Turner, 1989, p.90). Lakoff and Turner (1989, p.90) claim that “It is the existence of such structures within our conceptual images that permits one image to be mapped onto another; in other words, it is by virtue of the “common structure” shared by the source domain and the target domain as realised through the part-whole structure or the attribute structure that one is able to connect the source domain and the target domain. with respect to the part-whole relation, color or shape.

METHODOLOGY

This study aims to explore the similarities and differences between the lion metaphorical expressions and metaphors in Mandarin Chinese and in British English by comparing the results to the following three research questions. First: What is the main aspect of the source domain when the target domain is non-human beings? Second: What target domains are the lion mainly mapped onto and what are the dominant evaluations of them? Third: Are there any lion conceptual metaphors that can be generalised from the metaphorical expressions?

The Mandarin Chinese data were taken from the Modern Chinese Corpus compiled by the Center for Chinese Linguistics of Peking University (CCL Corpus) and the British English data were extracted from the British National Corpus (BNC XML Edition). The two corpora were chosen as the data sources for this study for two important reasons. First, both are large and authoritative in that they have been compiled by prestigious universities and they are usually referred to in corpus-based studies. The Modern Chinese Corpus has 307 million characters and the British National Corpus has 100 million words. Second, they share similar sources for data collection such as literary works and newspapers. Thus the two corpora are comparable, which in turn would ensure the reliability of the results. Altogether, six steps were involved in the extraction and analysis of data for the study.

First, the expressions pertaining to the lion in the two languages were extracted from the two corpora.

Second, metaphorical expressions with the lion as the source domain and non-humans as the target domains were identified manually.

Third, all the metaphorical expressions were categorised according to their source domain and target domain. The specific source domains of the metaphorical expressions are the lion's appearance, such as (e.g. the lion's head, the lion's mane, the lion's tail); the lion's behaviour, such as (e.g. the lion's roar); and the lion's characteristics, such as its reputation as a fearsome animal that signals danger in itself or in objects or places connected with it such as "lion's den" (e.g. causing danger or indicate a dangerous place in 'the lion's den'). This categorisation is adapted from the work of Wierzbicka (1985), who illustrates her view of defining animals by using the tiger as an example to show that the animal's habit, size, appearance, behaviour and its relation to people should all be considered (1985, p.164). Since the animal's size is normally included in its appearance, it seems logical to combine its size in the category of its appearance. In addition, each animal has its salient characteristics. Therefore, the animal's characteristics can also function as a new category. Upon analysis of all the metaphorical expressions, it was ascertained that the lion's appearance, behaviour and characteristics were the three specific aspects of the source domain. Furthermore, the target domains of the metaphorical expressions in the two languages are different in number. There are 14 expressions?target domains in Mandarin

Chinese and 19 target domains in British English.

Fourth, the evaluation of each expression was ascertained according to the context.

Fifth, all the metaphorical expressions were analysed to generalise conceptual metaphors.

Six, the results collected from the analysis based on the three research questions concerned with lion metaphorical expressions and metaphors in the two languages were compared to determine the cultural similarities and differences between them. The procedure discussed above is displayed in Fig.2.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

There are 397 metaphorical expressions in Mandarin Chinese and 241 metaphorical expressions in British English where the lion is mapped onto non-human target domains. The details pertaining to the metaphorical expressions in the two languages are presented in Table 1 and Table 2 respectively.

Table 1 shows that the expressions that are mapped from the lion's appearance, behaviour and characteristics onto non-humans in Mandarin Chinese are 283, 15 and 99 respectively. Table 2 shows that the expressions that are mapped from the lion's appearance, behaviour and characteristics onto non-humans in British English are 55, 6 and 180 respectively. In other words, from the perspective of the source domain, more expressions are generated from the lion's appearance in Mandarin Chinese while more are generated from the lion's characteristics in British English. The expressions that are

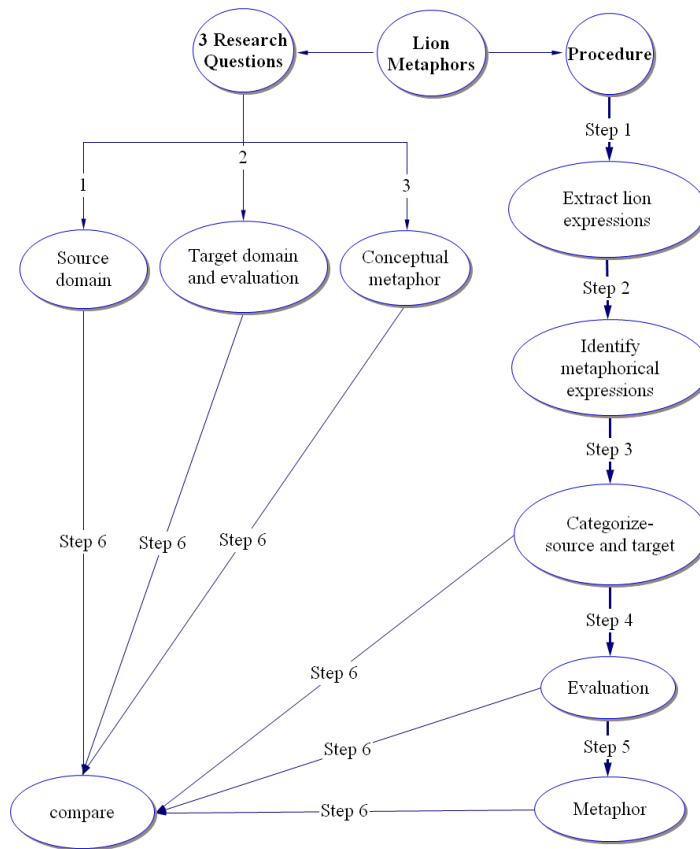


Fig.2: Research Design

generated from the lion’s characteristics rank second in number in Mandarin Chinese while the expressions that are generated from the lion’s appearance rank second in number in British English. In addition, expressions that are generated from the lion’s behaviour are the least in number in the two languages. Therefore, it is the lion’s appearance that is mainly mapped onto non-humans in Mandarin Chinese while it is the lion’s characteristics that are mainly mapped onto non-humans in British English .

From the perspective of the target domain, the 397 lion metaphorical

expressions in Mandarin Chinese can be mapped onto 14 specific target domains, and most of them are neutral in meaning. However, they are mainly projected onto seven target domains metaphorically because 372 expressions are generated for these seven targets, which constitute 93.7% of the total number of lion metaphorical expressions. These domains are “animal,” “constellation,” “country and place,” “daily matters,” “mountain,” “the economy” and “rock” in descending order. Since more metaphorical expressions are positively mapped from the lion onto “country and

TABLE 1
Statistics for lion metaphorical expressions in Mandarin Chinese where the target domains are non-humans

	Appearance	Behaviour	Characteristic	Negative	Neutral	Positive	Total
Animal	96	3	0	0	83	16	99
Constellation	84	0	0	0	84	0	84
Country and place	0	0	52	17	1	34	52
Daily matters	43	1	2	0	46	0	46
Mountain	43	0	1	0	44	0	44
Economy	0	0	35	9	5	21	35
Rock	12	0	0	0	12	0	12
Total	278 (98.2%)	4 (26.7%)	90 (90.9%)	26 (92.9%)	275 (94.8%)	71 (89.9%)	372 (93.7%)
TOTAL	283	15	99	28	290	79	397

Note: Total refers to the total number of metaphorical expressions that are mapped onto the seven main target domains. TOTAL refers to the total number of metaphorical expressions that are mapped onto all the non-human target domains

TABLE 2
Statistics for lion metaphorical expressions in British English where the target domains are non-humans

	Appearance	Behaviour	Characteristic	Negative	Neutral	Positive	Total
Economy	0	0	61	6	55	0	61
Animal	34	2	8	4	38	2	44
Politics	0	0	39	1	36	2	39
Daily matters	11	0	25	6	25	5	36
Military	0	0	12	0	4	8	12
Country and place	0	0	10	3	4	3	10
Sports	0	0	10	0	3	7	10
Total	45 (81.8%)	2 (33.3%)	165 (91.7%)	23 (67.6%)	169 (91.4%)	20 (90.9%)	212 (88%)
TOTAL	55	6	180	34	185	22	241

Notes: Total refers to the total number of metaphorical expressions that are mapped onto the seven main target domains. TOTAL refers to the total number of expressions that are mapped onto all the non-human target domains.

place” as well as “economy,” the dominant evaluation of these two target domains is positive. Since more metaphorical expressions are neutrally mapped onto “animal,” “daily matters,” “constellation,” “mountain” and “rock,” the dominant evaluation of these five target domains is neutral.

The 241 lion metaphorical expressions in British English can be mapped onto 19 specific target domains, and most of them are used neutrally. However, they are also mainly mapped onto seven target domains because 212 expressions are generated for these domains, constituting 88% of the total number of expressions. Based on the number

of expressions that can be mapped onto the target domains, the seven target domains in descending order are “economy,” “animal,” “politics,” “daily matters,” “the military,” “country and place” and “sports”. The dominant evaluation of “the military” is positive while that of the other six domains is neutral.

With regard to the conceptual metaphors that are projected from the lion onto non-humans in the two languages, ten conceptual metaphors are generalised from the Mandarin Chinese data and only one conceptual metaphor is generalised from the British English data. In addition, all of them are generalised for the seven main target domains mentioned above in each language. Among the seven main target domains with more metaphorical expressions compared with the rest of the target domains in the two languages, four are shared by both the ChineseMandarin Chinese and EnglishBritish English data. They are “animal,” “country and place,” “daily matters” and “economy”. Since eight conceptual metaphors in Mandarin Chinese and the single conceptual metaphor in British English are all mapped onto three of the shared fields, namely, “animal,” “country and place” and “economy,” the metaphorical expressions and the conceptual metaphors pertaining to the three target domains in the two languages are discussed in greater detail. The statistics pertaining to the metaphorical expressions that are mapped from the lion onto the three target domains in Mandarin Chinese and British English can also be seen in Table 1 and Table 2 respectively.

When the target domain is the animal, all the 99 metaphorical expressions in Mandarin Chinese are generated from the lion’s appearance and behaviour, while all the 44 metaphorical expressions in British English are generated from the lion’s appearance, behaviour and characteristics. Most of the metaphorical expressions of concern here in the two languages are those that are generated from the lion’s appearance: 96 in Mandarin Chinese and 34 in British English. Comparatively, the Mandarin Chinese lion metaphorical expressions can be mapped onto more kinds of animals such as the sealion, the lionfish, the dog, the horse, the goose, the cat and the monkey. The British English lion metaphorical expressions can be mapped onto animals such as the sealion, the lionfish, the jellyfish, the dog and the horse. Due to the resemblance of the sealion’s face to the lion’s face, the dog’s fur to the lion’s mane, the horse’s mane to the lion’s mane and so on, we can generalise one conceptual metaphor in both languages, that is, that A CERTAIN BODY PART OF ANOTHER ANIMAL IS A CERTAIN BODY PART OF A LION. In addition, eight expressions in British English are projected from the lion’s characteristics to other animals such as the diatryma, the big fish, the wild cat and the goose to show the similarities between them. For example, the diatryma and the lion are both predators. The big fish and the lion are both fearless and have the potential to triumph over their enemies.

When the target domain is country and place, there are 52 metaphorical expressions in ChineseMandarin Chinese and ten in

British English respectively. The similarity here is that all the metaphorical expressions in the two languages are generated from the lion's characteristics. Although a few Mandarin Chinese expressions refer to countries such as Iran and France, the majority of them depict China as a sleeping lion, an awakening lion or a male lion during different periods in history. For example:

(1) 他还将中国比喻为沉睡中的巨[狮], 力图唤醒它。

Ta hai jiang Zhongguo biyuwei chenshui zhong de jushi,

He also PRT China compare to deep-sleeping MOD giant lion,

litu huanxing ta.

try to awaken it.

[He even compared China to a lion in deep-sleeping lion and tried to wake her up.]

(2) 醒[狮]怒吼, 世界震动!

Xingshi nuhou, shijie zhendong!

Awakened lion angry roar, world shock!

[The awakened lion roars angrily and shocks the world!]

(3) 中国共产党人终于把东方雄[狮]导入市场经济大潮之中。

Zhongguo gongchandangren zhongyu ba dongfang xiongshi daoru

Chinese Communists finally PRT oriental male lion lead enter

shichangjingji dachao zhi zhong.

market economy big wave MOD inside.

[Chinese Communists finally lead the lion of the east into the wave of the market economy.]

Accordingly, three conceptual metaphors are generalised for China. They are OLD CHINA WAS A SLEEPING LION, PRESENT CHINA IS AN AWAKENING LION, AND PRESENT CHINA IS A LION. In addition, only two expressions are used to describe local places such as Shandong and Xizang. As such, place is not a significant target in Mandarin Chinese. Although there are only ten metaphorical expressions that are used to depict country and place in British English, the lion can be mapped onto a greater number of specific target domains such as countries like Greece, South Africa and Israel as well as the Arab countries or areas like cities and resorts, among others. In addition, there are more expressions and less fewer specific targets in Mandarin Chinese than in British English, and in addition, the characteristics that are projected from the lion to country and place are more focussed in Mandarin Chinese. In this instance, three conceptual metaphors are generalised in Mandarin Chinese but no metaphor is obtained in British English.

There are 35 expressions in Mandarin Chinese and 61 in British English where the target domain is the economy. All

the expressions in the two languages are generated from the lion's characteristics. Although there are fewer metaphorical expressions in Mandarin Chinese, the specific targets for the expressions to be mapped onto are more focussed. These are enterprises and companies, such as state-owned enterprises, well-developed enterprises, important and undeveloped enterprises as well as companies that have the inclination to put forward unreasonably high demands on their clients. For example:

(4) 国有大中型企业已在冲破传统体制的束缚，犹如“雄[狮]出笼”、“猛虎下山”。

Guoyou dazhongxing qiye yi zai chongpo

State-owned big medium-sized enterprise already PRT break

chuantong tizhi de shufu, youru "xiongshi chulong",

traditional system MOD shackles, as "male lion get out of the cage",

"menghu xiashan".

"tiger go down the mountain".

[The state-owned big and medium-sized enterprises have already been breaking the shackles of the traditional system, just like the lions that isare out of its the cages and the tigers that has descendedare off the mountains.]

(5) “闽[狮]”也是中国牛仔首先闯世界的一只威猛“雄[狮]”。

"Min shi" ye shi Zhongguo niuzai shouxian chuang shijie de

"Min Lion" also is Chinese jeans first enter world MOD

yizhi weimeng "xiong shi".

a brave "male lion".

[“Min Shi” is also a brave lion that enters the world first with the first Chinese jeans.]

(6) 航空工业还是只睡[狮]。

Hangkong gongye hai shi zhi shuishi.

Aviation industry still is a sleeping lion.

[The aviation industry is a still- a sleeping lion.]

(7) 某衬衫厂[狮]口大开，每件衬衫要价980元。

Mou chenshan chang shizidakaikou, meijian chenshan yaojia 980yuan.

A shirt factory lion big open mouth, every shirt charge 980RMB.

[A shirt factory is extremely greedy, chargingvery avaricious, who charges RMB 980 for each shirt.]

Four conceptual metaphors are generalised from these expressions. They are THE STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISE IS A LION, WELL-DEVELOPED ENTERPRISE IS A LION, UNDEVELOPED BIG ENTERPRISE IS A SLEEPING LION, and A GREEDY COMPANY IS A WIDELY OPEN-MOUTHED LION “Lion with its mouth opened wide” Mandarin Chinese refers in Mandarin Chinese to a person or a company that is extremely greedy, imposing high costs on others). However, the specific targets for the British English expressions to be mapped onto are not very focussed. Therefore, the British English expressions can be mapped onto more kinds of targets such as a business, market, budget, investment, exports, turnover, sales, costs and profits. That is why no conceptual metaphors could be generalised for the economy in British English.

With regard to the nature of the conceptual metaphors, the single and shared metaphor that was generalised for the animal in both languages is image-based. The rest that were generalised for the country and the economy are all knowledge-based.

Next, the Conceptual Metaphor Theory is applied to the interpretation of one image-based metaphor and one knowledge-based metaphor generalised from this study.

The shared image-based metaphors in Mandarin Chinese and British English in this study all belong to the case of projecting the attribute structure from the source to the target. It is that A CERTAIN BODY PART OF ANOTHER ANIMAL IS A CERTAIN BODY PART OF A LION The common structure in the shape of the source domain, (LION) and the target

domain, (ANOTHER ANIMAL) allows the image of the lion’s head, face, mane and so on to be mapped onto that of the other animal, for instance, the lionfish, the sealion, the dog, the horse and so on. In other words, by mapping the image of a certain body part of the lion onto the corresponding body part of other animals, this image-based metaphor becomes accessible to people .

With regard to the knowledge-based metaphor OLD CHINA WAS A SLEEPING LION, PAST CHINA WAS A SLEEPING LION “sleeping lion” is the source domain, and “Old China” is the target domain. As shown in Fig.3., six elements can be drawn in each domain of this metaphor. Based on common knowledge The lion is known to be physically large, strong and very ferocious. Moreover, as the king of beasts, the lion is capable of attacking many other species of animals when it is awake, but does no harm when it is asleep. In other words, it has the potential to drive away or kill its enemy when it is no longer sleeping. In other words, the lion will awaken at some point because sleep is an activity that comes to an end, and when the lion wakes up, it will fight its enemy with ferocity and kill it. The target domain is closely related to the history of China. In the past, due to underdevelopment in many areas as well as the weak policy adopted by the government, China was invaded to varying degrees by different countries. However, China was not only vast in territory, rich in resources and large in population; more importantly, she never lost her sovereignty, meaning that, despite having been invaded, the Chinese were still the master of their

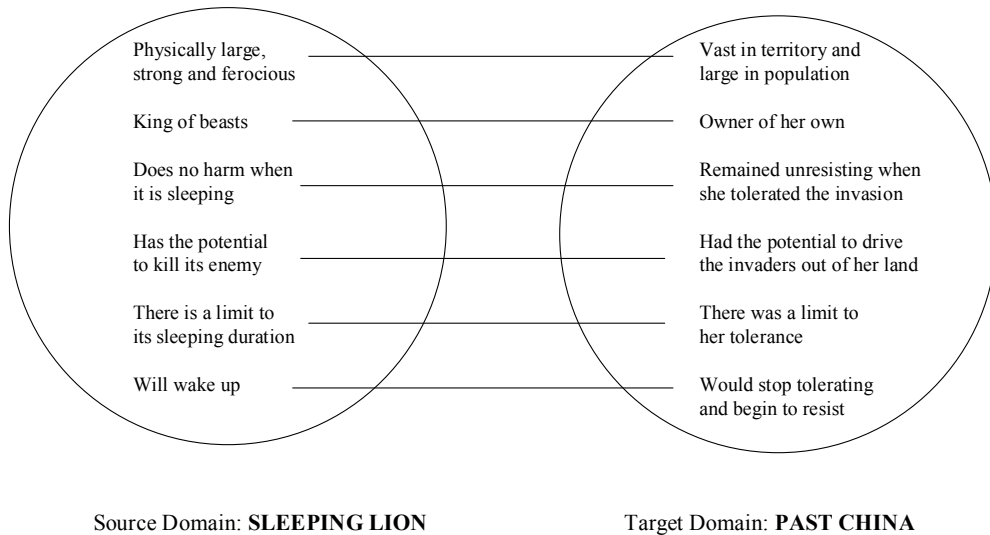


Fig.3: PAST CHINA WAS A SLEEPING LION

own land. Although China initially chose to swallow the insult of invasion by foreign powers without resisting, she always had the potential to drive her invaders out of the land if she chose to tap into that potential. This is reflected in the Chinese saying, “As soon as a thing reaches its extremity, it reverses its course.” In other words, everything has its limit, and in the case of China, this country will not tolerate her suffering forever. The time will come when China will begin to resist with all the strength she has, driving out the invaders. Armed with knowledge about the lion as well as the history of China, one has full access to this metaphor and can understand it without difficulty by mapping knowledge of a sleeping lion onto that of old China.

CONCLUSION

To summarise, when the target domains are non-humans, 397 and 241 lion metaphorical

expressions are generated from the Mandarin Chinese data and the British English data respectively. From the perspective of the source domain, the expressions are mainly projected from the lion’s appearance to non-humans in Mandarin Chinese but from the lion’s characteristics to non-humans in British English. From the perspective of the target domain, although the expressions can be mapped onto 14 target domains in Mandarin Chinese and 19 target domains in British English, they are mainly mapped onto seven target domains in each language. In addition, four of the main target domains in the two languages are the same. In terms of evaluation, a neutral stance dominates the lion metaphorical expressions in the two languages. In particular, when taking the dominant evaluation of the seven main target domains in each language into consideration, a neutral evaluation also dominates most of them. In terms of

the conceptual metaphors, altogether ten conceptual metaphors are generalised from the Mandarin Chinese data while only one conceptual metaphor is generalised from the British English data for the seven main target domains in each language. Moreover, eight of the ten conceptual metaphors that are generalised from the Mandarin Chinese data are for three shared domains of the two languages, which are PAST CHINA WAS A SLEEPING LION, PRESENT CHINA IS AN AWAKENING LION, PRESENT CHINA IS A LION, STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISE IS A LION, WELL-DEVELOPED ENTERPRISE IS A LION, UNDEVELOPED BIG ENTERPRISE IS A SLEEPING LION, A GREEDY COMPANY IS A WIDELY OPEN-MOUTHED LION and A CERTAIN BODY PART OF ANOTHER ANIMAL IS A CERTAIN BODY PART OF A LION. All the metaphors are knowledge-based except for the only one of the two A CERTAIN BODY PART OF ANOTHER ANIMAL IS A CERTAIN BODY PART OF A LION, which is an image-based metaphor shared by both languages.

A CERTAIN BODY PART OF ANOTHER ANIMAL IS A CERTAIN BODY PART OF A LION and it is image-based Based on the analysis and findings of this study, it may be concluded the present study could that cultural similarities and differences occur in the lion metaphor as used in Mandarin Chinese and British English.

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