

1.1 Introduction

Learning the appropriate use of words in the context of communication has been the main subject of debate among philosophers and recently language teachers. Deeply embedded in language, lexis provides the speaker with the capacity to transmit a message to a specific audience. Some words tend to be simple and revealing while others require higher levels of understanding. They can illumine reality through highlighting points of sameness, similarity and difference. On the other hand, words can be used as embellishment at the level of language. At the linguistic level, so to speak, lexical items make manifest their users' commend of language through substitution, comparison, contrast and analogy. At the conceptual level, however, words appear to be the servants of complex systems of thought. They shape the way people think and characterise reality. Metaphorical language shares its status in the human capacity of professional language production. However, its capacity to highlight and hide meaning through the use of words is considered as a skill by advocates of literature since Aristotle. Conversely, new approaches to metaphor study focus on the psychological processes underlying metaphor comprehension and production.

As a core component of language, metaphor sets the grounds for proficiency inherent and omnipresent in the native speaker's repertoire. More importantly, eloquence was accorded with the right use of metaphors both graphically and orally. It also extended to the discourse level promulgated by Rhetoricians. Indeed, the presence of metaphor and its study as part of language and thought set the stage for the widespread interest and eagerness for scholastic research. Starting with the constituent parts of metaphor, researchers denoted the word differently. I.A Richards (1939) used the *tenor* and the *vehicle*. Black (1962) coined *focus* and *frame*; while the pioneering work of Lakoff&Johnson (1980) uses *source* and *target* domains.

Traditional classifications of metaphor components led to divergent views on the latter to draw demarcating lines between the literal and the metaphorical. Further, what is compared, how it is compared, on which grounds the comparison is drawn and the norms pertaining to their production were the main concern of metaphor research. In this chapter, the theoretical background under which this study is based is provided. It

throws light on the traditional views of metaphor in contrast with more recent explanations in cognitive linguistics and pragmatics.

1.2 Traditional theories of metaphor: from Aristotle to I.A Richards

1.2.1 Aristotelian description of metaphor

Metaphor research has taken different directions; however, the pioneering work of Aristotle should be pointed at before delving into more recent theories. Aristotle's treatment of metaphor had taken two directions in the discourse of both prose and poetry. His treatise of poetics gave insights into the division of lexis to levels of nouns and other constituent parts of speech¹. The poet's artistic capacity to use language for particular purposes was associated with the utilisation of ornamental and instructive devices of which metaphor is an important component. Aristotle defined metaphor as a fundamental part of the general field of lexis. It was seen as a transfer or movement from one pole to another. As part of lexis, '*metaphor consists in giving a thing, a name that belongs to something else*' (Aristotle, 1457, qtd in Ricoeur, 1977:13). That is, a process of renaming or rather naming the unnamed calls into attention its user's capacity to find similarity out of difference.

Aristotle's position on metaphor in *Poetics* (1456 BC) set the ground for the description of metaphor at the level of language. He gave a detailed explanation of the process through which metaphor is constructed. Terms were chosen either from the general to the specific; from the specific to the more general; from specific to specific; or by means of analogy. Provided that the restricted users of metaphor distinguish the types of metaphor, originating similarity between two extreme poles can be made salient through the adequate choice of terms. For the first type of metaphor, Aristotle gives as an example the following sentence, 'this ship of mine stands there' where the general term 'to lie at anchor' is used instead of 'to stand'. As for the second type, 'ten thousand' in 'Indeed ten thousand noble things Odysseus did' replaces 'many'. Another sentence is mentioned to show the third type or rather, from 'species to species', 'then

¹ Aristotle divides lexis in terms of its parts or constituents, letter, syllable, conjunction, article, noun belong to onoma. Verb, case, phrase/locution belong to logos. (Taverniers, 2002:2).

he drew off his life with the bronze and then with the bronze cup he cut the water'. In this sentence, 'to take away' is used interchangeably with 'to draw off'. The last type of metaphor and, by far, the most effective according to Aristotle is to 'metaphorise' by way of proportional analogy.

Despite Aristotle's emphasis on the right composition of words to strike, surprise and influence the listener, his account of metaphor in *Rhetoric* (1412 BC) remains an instructive twist of words that should be plain and simple. On these grounds, metaphor was considered as deviant from the ordinary usage of language. The latter is manifested in the transfer or '*displacement*' of words '*from one pole to another*'. For the transfer that Aristotle terms '*epiphora*', many critical claims were held. What does the transfer involve, meaning, reference, concept or the words themselves. The lack of a precise description of the elements involved in the last type of metaphor, the type of transfer in question and the juxtaposition between terms to exalt influence on the listener were the main gaps that later philosophers impinged upon.

Holding a pragmatic and a semantic view of metaphor, Leezenberg (2001) claims that Aristotle treats metaphor at the level of words while later authors treat it at the level of utterances. Further, he admits that '*(...) a rather surprising feature is the absence of the general distinction between literal and figurative language*' (:37). He further highlights Aristotle's fraught in the perpetuation of metaphor at the level of language and reality rather than thought. Reality can be better depicted through language. Language as an art is made manifest through the way people see that reality. The best way to imitate reality is to use terms that highlight and hide this reality by ways of transference, deviance and borrowing. These characteristics of metaphor pinpoint its power as Aristotle put it in *Poetics* and *Rhetoric* (Barnes, 2009:423).

In the twentieth century, an elaboration of Aristotle's theory of metaphor by Paul Ricoeur renewed interest in metaphor as an important part of lexis. Besides pursuing Aristotle's concepts of 'Epithora' and 'hermeneua'², he shifts to metaphor analysis at the level of sentences and utterances. Among the characteristic features of metaphor are: '*(...) a bringing-together of terms that first surprises, then bewilders and finally uncovers a relationship hidden beneath the paradox*' (Leezenberg, 2001:27).

² The function of metaphor on lexis is described by Aristotle through its '*dia tés onmasias*'. 'Hermeneian' literally translated by Ricoeur as 'l'interprétation langagière'. (ibid: 6). See also Ricoeur, 1997.

On the broader sense, Aristotle's stance towards metaphor in *Poetics* and, later, *Rhetoric* is made clear through restricting the ability to produce metaphor to indigenised few. In retrospect, advocates of cognitivism claim that metaphor is a property of thought taking part in the very natural human daily thinking. Rather than a mere rhetorical device achieved by a minority to uncover similarity in dissimilars, metaphor is ubiquitous and in part, so to speak, inseparable from the way people structure reality. Thus, Aristotle's well-known characterisation of a genius as holding '(...) *the capacity to have a commend of metaphor*'. That is, through implying an eye for resemblances between dissimilars is held sway by later cognitivists and psycholinguists (qtd in Ricoeur, 1977:25).

1.2.2 From Aristotle to I. A. Richards

Following Aristotle's footpaths, metaphor study continued to spread in the cycles of philosophy and rhetoric. However, Roman philosophers, advocates of romanticism and twentieth century linguists approached metaphor differently. Aristotle's identification of type hierarchies³ in the process of metaphor generation, besides the restrictive nature of its use were elaborated by Cicero and Quintilian. Followed by Giambatisto Vico and nineteenth century linguists, metaphor study provided the ground for the seminal work of Ivor Armstrong Richards. In an attempt to shed light on metaphor theories preceding Richards, the following pages will provide an overview of the theories in question.

Although Cicero and Quintilian's treatment of metaphor is part and parcel of Aristotle's type hierarchies, a change of perspective in metaphor 'tropology' appeared. The attributive character of metaphor between two dissimilar things that is made implicit increases the listener's or the reader's surprise. That is, explicit comparison between two unlike things is a better carrier of meaning than metaphor. The preference for the use of simile over metaphor grew out of the need to explain the attributive categories that a word can gain in the process of comparison and substitution. Quintilian made it clear through characterising simile as an example of '*an analogy par excellence*' (Taverniers, 2002:10).

³ Type hierarchies indicate 'a nesting or embedding of species within genus'. (ibid:4)

After the rhetorical analysis of metaphor in the Greek and the Roman traditions, particular attention had been attributed to the stylistic effects of the latter. Thus, attributing metaphor to the level of language rather than thought gained momentum in the philosophical arena after Cicero and Quintilian. Emanuel Tesauro pinpointed the practical features of metaphor creation. As a skill, drawing similarities between two things or naming is the first space for metaphor construction. Second, the processes involved in the creation of metaphor can be referred to as the imitation and the recognition of categorical referents to sift out the combinatory mechanisms between them. In this respect, metaphor is seen as the ability to relate two concepts through combining elements from the ‘Categorical index⁴’ of both entities. To insure comparability between the two concepts, the shared basic feature at the higher level must belong to the same category accordingly. Tesauro put forward the following example, ‘he’s in the spring of his life’, in a form of a structured process illustrated in the following figure (ibid: 12).

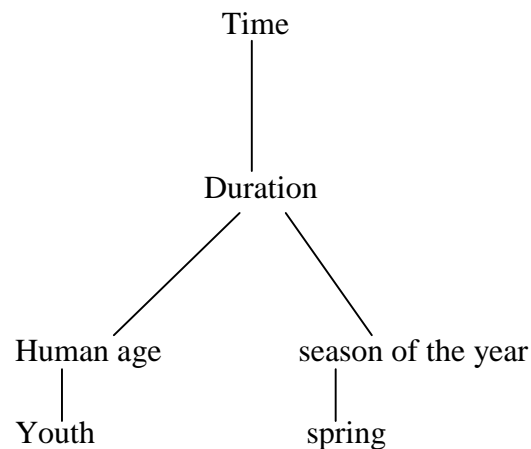


Figure1.1: Categorical index explaining ‘he is in the spring of his life’.

As an eighteenth century philosopher, Vico’s contribution to the study of language origin and, by far, metaphor adds impetus to the wide interest in the affiliation of the anthropological studies of language. On a broader level, Vico sets the ground for a general theory of language which looks at the way primitive people created language

⁴ Categorical index is a hierarchal model organising the universe in terms of categories. (ibid:12)

to describe the world. In a world where abstract reasoning was classified as a human property, 'imagination universals' were the ultimate tools through which primitive people created meaning. As a restricted property, the ancient or archaic mind, the language and the mindset of those ancient are difficult for the modern men to understand. The reason why ordinary people think in poetic language was their disability to generate tangible concepts. Hence, they resorted to imaginative universal concepts. Vico, further, admits that:

The first men, the children, as it were, of the human race, not being able to form intelligible concepts of things, had a natural need to create poetic characters; that is imaginable class concepts or universals, to which as to certain models or portraits, to reduce all the particular species which resembled them (qtd in Leezenberg,2001:59).

Similar to Aristotle's theory of argumentation, Vico places metaphor or 'conceit' in the higher levels of language description of reality. In contrast to logical positivists⁵, he reformulated the distinction between the literal and the figurative language, which were split, into a mutual manner. Instead of the 'single line' of meaning transmission, literal language offers a 'double meaning' which is created through utilising figurative language. The double function of metaphor lies in its ability to delight and instruct the hearer. A conceit combines 'truth and beauty into one' (...) 'it teaches and delights simultaneously' (qtd in Taverniers, 2002:13). By and large, Vico draws attention to the fact that metaphor is not restricted to particulars; rather, it is part of people's attempts at understanding new things by relating them to existing ones. Apart from Vico's treatment of metaphor, subsequent theories were deeply cognitively embedded and sought to establish a more scientific elaboration than preceding theories. Important to mention is I.A. Richards' cognitive, so to speak, treatise of metaphor. Therefore, the following section outlines his position and pinpoints its communality and difference from the cognitive theory of metaphor.

⁵ Logical positivists favored literal language over metaphorical language due to its accuracy which can be used to describe the world scientifically. (ibid:18)

1.2.3 The introduction of cognitive interpretations in metaphor theory

Richards' classification of metaphor among cognitive semantics circle seeks to explicate its operation at both the linguistic and the cognitive levels. Starting from an identification of its core components, which are active together during metaphor generation, Richards coined tenor and vehicle. By tenor, he means '*the principle object*' or '*the underlying idea*'; while vehicle refers to what the '*principle subject is compared to*'. By clearly delineating the two aforementioned parts, Richards hinges on Aristotle's comparison view while modifying the level at which metaphor operates. Instead of the limited range of metaphor at the level of language, he sees metaphor as '*the omnipresent principle of language and of thought*' (qtd in Dirvin&Porings, 2003:583).

Richards' treatise of metaphor coincided with the widespread interest in semantics. The latter mingled with his book *the Meaning of Meaning* together with C.K.Ogden (1923). Rather than taking words as the principle part of a metaphor, their contextual conditioning is emphasised. The meaning of a sentence can be achieved through separating the whole into its parts. From words to the higher level of language, sentences or metaphors are better understood according to the context in which they appear. In '*Achilles is a lion*' two contexts are at work, however, only certain qualities of a lion are shared with those of Achilles according to the context. Indeed, different meanings can be achieved depending on the context of metaphor occurrence.

Two concepts are involved in meaning: (1) a word in itself covers recurrent groups of events, its own private contexts, through which it acquires meanings of which a dictionary gives a sampling; and (2) the present setting of the word, both words which surround it in the utterance (qtd in Russo, 1989:253).

The comparison view opposes the traditional dyad of one word, one meaning where each single word has a proper meaning. It is rather the surrounding context which establishes different meanings thereof. Further, by comparing one thing with another, the missing parts of context will be filled. A word gains different meanings by the very interaction of two contexts that are present during metaphor creation. Indeed, Richards put stress on the comparison between two things through adjunction. Through

connecting two things, the human mind acts as the principle part in metaphor origination. *'It works only by connecting, and it can connect any two things in an indefinitely large number of different ways'* (qtd in Ricoeur, 1977:95).

By the very fact of prioritising thought over language in the analysis and elaboration of metaphor, Richards shares the same premise with the cognitive theory of metaphor. That is, metaphor identification and, to a large extent, its production is part of thinking which is manifested through language whether words, expressions, sentences or larger units of discourse. In contrast with the traditional restriction of metaphor to the indigenised few, metaphor is part of the way people think, conceive reality and produce meaning accordingly. Conversely, Richards' elaboration of interaction between the tenor and the vehicle contrasts with that of Lakoff & Johnson (1980). Whereas Richards affirms that, *'(...) the tenor is affected by the context of the vehicle and vice versa'* (qtd in Russo, 1989:251). The two parts are important to understanding metaphor. The cognitive view maintains that the interaction between source and target domains is unidirectional and, further, explains that the target domain is the principle part of this interaction (see 1.3.1 below).

Richards' contribution to the study of metaphor in his book *The Philosophy of Rhetoric* (1936) made a breakthrough on the verge of linguistic-metaphoric debate resolution. Due to the intricate dependence between tenor and vehicle, it is often difficult to demarcate the boundary between the literal and the metaphoric. Since they help construct meaning through interaction between their qualities which are resultant of both resemblances and disparities. As opposed to the aforementioned theories which sought to draw similarities between dissimilar things, metaphor serves as the constitutive part of language, itself representative of metaphoric thought. Richards further illustrates that a phrase like 'giddy brink'⁶ is not based on similarity nor shared qualities but 'describes how the brink appears to us as we stand dizzily on the edge' (Way, 1991:6).

Following Richards' treatise of metaphor, Max Black (1955) further extended the interaction view on a systematic basis. The ubiquity of metaphor study in

⁶ Giddy means experiencing a state of dizziness and a brink refers to the edge of precipice. There is no ground of similarity between the two words. It is one of the example phrases Richards used to prove his hypothesis of the two active thoughts in metaphor construction. (Way, 1991:6)

philosophy, linguistics and cognitive sciences resulted from Black's notorious interest in the cognitive and the scientific explanation of the secondary and the primary components of metaphor. Initially, in both *Models and Metaphors* (1962) and *More about Metaphor* (1977), Black separates the literal 'primary subject' from the metaphoric 'secondary subject' substituting Richards' 'tenor' and 'vehicle' whereof interaction and transference between the two transcends that of words to a '*shared body of knowledge and assumptions*' (Taverniers, 2002:23).

Systematically structured, the two components operate on the basis of their systems where consciousness of the common places between the two facilitates its understanding. On the same ground as Richards, Black shifts to the discourse components of metaphor and labels each as 'frame' and 'focus'. By the latter, he means the metaphoric expression, whereas the former refers to the rest of the sentence. By locating a word in a particular 'frame', restricted and relevant properties will be emphasised due to the context provided. In other words, in metaphor, '*the primary subject is viewed through 'lens' or 'filter' formed by the subsidiary subject*' (ibid: 24).

On a broader level, the shared commonplaces of knowledge between the primary and the secondary subjects are determined by the cultural moldings. In this sense, Black approximates Lakoff & Johnson (1980) on the importance culture plays on understanding and shaping metaphor. He further claims that the literal interpretation of a metaphor distorts its cognitive content in a way that the literal meaning is found in the dictionary and allows the reader to '*recognise cases of application*'. On the contrary, through juxtaposing two different things, '*a feeling of tension arises*'. Through perception of the latter, metaphoricity ranges from the collective to the individual levels of comprehension. That is, the collective level refers to the common usage of associations in a community which is an expression that is devoid of '*metaphorical use*'. He refers to that instance as 'dead metaphor', a competent reader would not recognise due to its lack of '*pregnant metaphorical use*'⁷. They are familiar and constitute instances of filling lexical gaps that should be seen as *cataphoresis* (Rakova, 2003:5).

⁷ Black distinguishes between dead and alive metaphors through the notion of vitality. Aspects of metaphors include conventionalization, conscious awareness and transparency, if a speaker recognises these qualities in a metaphor, it is considered vital. (Muller, 2008:179)

Accordingly, the insights gained from Richards and Black's focus on the cognitive and the semantic aspects of metaphor initiated the forthcoming cognitive analysis of the latter in a detailed manner. Rather than trivialising the intrinsic mechanisms which are responsible for creating meaning during interaction, increasing interest perpetuated towards cognitive and scientific theories. Important to mention is the conduit metaphor that Michael Reddy introduced few years before the publication of Lakoff & Johnson's *Metaphors We Live By* (1980).

During communication, the channel through which the message is conveyed between the writer and the listener operates, albeit totally at the level of concepts rather than words. Words, ideas and feelings are communicated through language, thus language acts as a conduit between A and B based on their '*repertoire members*'⁸. Reddy, further, claims that the conduit metaphor represents the process through which ideas are transferred into words and perceived by the two interlocutors. In this respect language serves as a conduit conveying ideas and feeling from a speaker/writer to a listener/reader in a particular community based on a systematic way of thinking. In a sentence as: 'I gave you that idea', Lakoff & Johnson coined IDEAS/MEANINGS AS OBJECTS as the basis of the conceptual correspondences under question (Fraser & Turner, 2009:176). Reddy's account of metaphor as the salient feature of communication and language centrality provided the grounds for later linguists to build on their theories. Important to mention is the cognitive theory of metaphor where centrality of the experiential basis and the clear cut between metaphor components jettisoned hitherto shallow theoretical explanations.

1.3 A Change of perspective in metaphor theory

1.3.1 The Traditional cognitive theory of metaphor

Through analysing metaphor in both the literary and the non-literary discourses, proponents of a cognitive perspective to language sought to look at the intrinsic mechanisms that underlie its production. Thus, the Cognitive Theory of Metaphor (CTM henceforth) that was established by Lakoff & Johnson (1980) wiped off false

⁸ Grady, retrieved from <http://terpconnect.umd.edu> on 26/01/2011 at 17 :56.

traditional assumptions and clarified, among others, the claim that language and thought are metaphorical in nature.

Lakoff & Johnson (1980) challenged hitherto neglected aspects of the nature of the conceptual operations behind the production of metaphors. Metaphor tends to extend to thought, itself is proved to be metaphorical in nature. That is, '*the conceptual system under which we both think and act is fundamentally metaphorical in nature*' (Lakoff&Johnson, 1980:3). Further, the widespread use of metaphor in everyday communication comes from the way people structure and experience the world around them. In other words, the concepts of up and down are engraved in the human memory due to sensory motor experiences at early childhood. Furthermore, the spatial orientations trigger the coherent knowledge of concepts. Upward and downward orientations are manifested through 'I am *feeling up* today' or 'He is *feeling low* these days'. Due to its dependence on human beings' interpretation, meaning tends to be partial. That is, it gives only a partial view of reality. Metaphor highlights some aspects and hides others. In TIME IS MONEY, for example, the context in which it may be used is not applicable during weekends or leisure time.

Another status metaphor gained in Cognitive Linguistics during the last two decades is its pervasiveness and utility in language and thought. In particular, the use of conceptual mappings across domains, the source domain and the target domain. The former refers to the more concrete and tangible concepts through which people understand abstract and often unknown concepts. The latter, however, refers to the domain people want to understand through the use of the source domain (Kovesces, 2002:4).

Importantly, the metaphorical nature of thought processes requires understanding something in terms of something else. Metaphor constitutes the basic schema through which elements from the source domain are mapped onto the target domain. Hence the concept of '*unidirectionality*' involves one way direction from source to target and not the other way around. Ample scholarly research investigated the nature and limitations of correspondences between the two domains (Kovesces 2002, Constanze Juchem-Grundmann, 2009) among others. Of particular interest, so far, is the distinction made between linguistic instantiations of metaphors and the conceptual metaphors (CMs henceforth). Linguistic metaphors are the salient realisations of the

underlying abstract notions through linguistic expressions and terminology of the more concrete source domain. While conceptual metaphor is the almost hidden part of thought processing constituted by two domains in which one is understood in terms of another. For example, ARGUMENTS are understood in terms of WAR, LIFE in terms of JOURNEY and MONEY in terms of LIQUID (Kovesces, 2010:4). The name Lakoff&Johnson (1980) used for this category of conceptual metaphor is the ontological metaphor.

Lakoff (1992), further, claims that under the conceptual mapping LOVE IS A JOURNEY, '*There are ontological correspondences, according to which entities in the domain of love correspond systematically to entities in the domain of a journey*' (: 4). Due to its abstract nature, love as an entity might be conceived as such through delineating it via ontological metaphors. Systematicity in the way one understands love, however, might be achieved through structural metaphors. In short, the metaphorical nature of people's thought equips them with the ability to personify undelimited experiences through mapping ontological entities from source to target domains (Kovesces, 2002:39).

Crucially stated as part of the natural language of human beings, metaphorical concepts can set the milestones for linguistic manifestations of metaphor. To exemplify, the broader conceptual metaphors MORE IS UP and LESS IS DOWN are shown in linguistic expressions as, *I am feeling up today, the prices are going to the roof; we fall down into a depression* and the list goes on. By structuring the more abstract concepts with concrete ones, metaphor determines our way of viewing and thinking about the world. Worth mentioning is the distinction made by Lakoff&Johnson (1980) between the conceptual mapping and the name attributed to it. To denote the former, they used capitalised phrases, while for the latter they preferred small letters.

In a nutshell, Lakoff (1992) clarified the levels at which basic-level conceptual metaphors relate to the super ordinate categories of metaphors. That is, mappings between domains occur on two levels, the super ordinate level and the basic-level. In the LOVE IS JOURNEY metaphor, the basic-level categories can be a train, a car or a boat which share the same perceptual feature. On the other hand, general mappings take place at the super ordinate concept 'vehicle' in which a love relationship corresponds to a vehicle. Interestingly, Lakoff (1992) makes clear the nature of both levels which are

active during mappings through stating that, (...) *the generalisation is at the super ordinate level, while the special cases are at the basic-level. After all, the basic-level is the level of rich mental images and rich knowledge structure* (:8).

Further still, Lakoff (1992) named the systematic nature of the conceptual correspondences between the target domain and the source domain, the invariance principle. Through mapping image-schemas, *basic principles of our bodily operation in the world*, from the source to the target, the categories that are present during the mapping in the target override in a systematic manner. ‘*Source domain interiors correspond to target domain interiors; source domain exteriors correspond to target domain exteriors*’ (:10).

Another distinction made between the two basic systems of conceptual metaphors was delineated by Kovesces (2002). First, The Great Chain of Being metaphor which refers to the way objects and things in the world are *conceptualised metaphorically*. Second, the Event Structure metaphor that refers to how events are understood metaphorically. As its name indicates, the great chain of being refers to how *things are related in the world* in a hierarchical manner. Each element in the chain is characterised by typical factors which are used to understand other elements in the chain metaphorically. For example, humans can be understood as animals or inanimate things as in, ‘that man was a *brute* he spent the little he earned on drink’ or ‘everyone says what a happy *sunny* girl she was’(kovesces,2002:126-127).

Furthermore, the experiential basis of metaphor encompasses other factors that facilitate the choice of one particular source domain over another. Apart from one’s interaction with the world, the cultural factors contribute as well to the choice of the latter. Cultural variations in the conceptualisation of abstract entities are of three distinct points.

Variations in the range of conceptual metaphors and metonymies for a given target; variation in the particular elaborations of conceptual metaphors and metonymies for a given target; variation in the emphasis on metaphor versus metonymy associated with a given target, or the other way around (Kovesces, 2002:183).

The cultural variation in conceptual metaphor is manifested differently according to the range of possible expressions in a particular culture. Indeed, even if two or more cultures may share the same conceptual metaphor, its elaboration differs from one culture to the other. For instance, even if only a few cross-linguistic analyses of conceptual metaphors in Arabic and English have been carried out hitherto, some linguistic expressions in Arabic business discourse were found similar. Fahd AlJumah (2009) analysed a range of business articles in the two languages to discern the possible communalities between the linguistic metaphors and concluded that Arabic and English share the same metaphors for UP&DOWN such as, ‘collapse’, ‘putting down’, ‘fall into’ where the Arabic equivalents are, ‘انهيار’, ‘يقع’. Misunderstanding, however, might arise from the socio-cultural underpinnings of the two communities due to the available linguistic manifestations in a particular language.

Central to Lakoff&Johnson’s experiential basis of metaphor is one of the typical Idealised Cognitive Models (ICMs henceforth). As stated earlier in this chapter, all human beings share the same primary metaphors arising from their sensory-motor experiences (cf. Lakoff&Johnson, 1980). A way of example is ‘AFFECTION IS WARMTH’ metaphor which is reflected in a positive welcome such as, ‘hi’ or ‘hello’. More complex metaphors, however, develop through the continuous interaction of people’s physical bodies with the outside world. By doing as such, knowledge of the physical part of the human body is being embodied indirectly or rather concepts are formed through interaction between concrete and abstract entities. In other words, ICMs *‘ground more abstract concepts in meaning indirectly through more concrete concepts’* (Howell, 2000:2).

After all, the traditional cognitive theory of metaphor accounts for the bidirectional interaction between the physical and the concrete, from one side, and the abstract intrinsic parts of the human body, from the other. The latter led to the widespread interest in the categories, the clusters of image-schemas and the detailed purely cognitive and neural theories of metaphor. It led, further, to new insights in the teaching of metaphors through distinguishing between kinds of both linguistic and conceptual metaphors. The degree to which a particular metaphor is entrenched and used by a speech community determines its degree of conventionality. That is, different

communities and cultures may develop diverse conventionalised linguistic expressions in the realm of natural discourse. Conversely, instances of novelty and creation might show up in literary, poetic, political or even musical lyrics. Conventionality can appear both in the conceptual metaphors and their linguistic manifestations. In a conventional metaphor like, LOVE IS A COLLABORATIVE WORK OF ART, conventionalised linguistic metaphoric expressions might not be provided in the language community due to their unconventionality (Kovesces, 2002:36).

Another perspective from which metaphor is studied in the cognitive theory of metaphor is the processing and acquisition of the latter both during its introduction and its retention. Much like virtual synchronous and asynchronous learning, conceptual metaphor understanding can be achieved once identified in discourse or through delayed processing. Kovesces (2010) uses ‘online understanding’ to refer to metaphor processing at the time of its encounter. However, ‘offline understanding’ process can be achieved in the long-term memory through continuous exposure to or activation of the source domain (:41).

Despite its reliance on the linguistic instantiations of metaphorical thinking processes, cognitive insights yielded extensive research on the neural extensions in the domain of metaphor studies. Perceived as wholes rather than parts, human beings’ perceptions can be sketched out as ‘experiential gestalts’. These gestalts arise from human beings bodies’ experiences and cultural constraints. This fact is reminiscent in Lakoff&Johnson’s treatise of experiential basis, spatial and orientational metaphors’ conceptualisations differ from one culture to another depending on the stimulus active during a particular experience. They further assume:

(...) recurrent experience leads to the formation of categories, which are experiential gestalts. (...) such gestalts define coherence in our experience. (...) we understand experience metaphorically when we use one gestalt from one domain of experience to structure experience in another domain (Lakoff&Johnson, 1980:230 qtd in Koller, 2003:29).

Hence, another function metaphors have on cognition is to perceive similarities between a source and a target domain which are represented in neural connections. So

far the cognitive theory of metaphor has been explained to provide the basis for the next section which aims at tackling later neural and blending theories.

1.3.2 Recent approaches of metaphor description

1.3.2.1 Blending theory

After receiving increased interest in the cognitive and linguistic research circles, more daring attempts at explaining the nature of interaction between the conceptual elements have been underway. Blending and Neural theories of metaphor tried to describe the mental and the neural mechanisms present during interactions in the human physical brain. Analogous to the two domains in the conceptual theory, blending theory takes the two poles and adds other components to the strand. Fauconniers&Turner (2002) elaborated on the interaction and construction of meaning where the target and the source domains are active in both the short and the long-term memory. They replaced the fixed source and target domains by *input spaces* and added the *blend* and *generic spaces* to the circle.

To define the two added terms to the conceptual theory's source and target, advocators of blending theory delineated the spaces and the operating mechanism of compression to hypothesise about the multidirectional nature of mappings. They clearly differentiate between conceptual domains and input spaces through stating that, '*Domains in the conceptual metaphor theory are replaced by mental spaces. Mental spaces depend on domains. A space is a particular scenario and therefore temporary limited, it is informed and structured by a domain*' (Grady et.al, 2007:421 qtd in Nuhnen, 2010:4).

In the blending process two inputs are simultaneously active adhoc during discourse to structure knowledge in the listener's mind. This blending process is partial due to its dependence on inputs from source and target. Structures in the target domain may be partially structured and consequently blended by the input from the source. Multiple inputs blend into a homogenous space to create meaning online. Selection procedure takes place *before the elements from the input spaces are projected to the blend*. The reverse is also true from the blended space to the input spaces elements can be projected. Indeed, the degree of conventionality of input elements determines their

novelty. That is, if information from the two inputs is very different, the blended structure tends to be novel (Nuhnen, 2010:4). The following schematic structure sketches out the blending process and its elements.

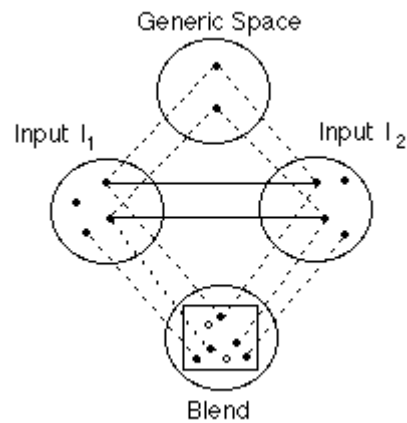


Figure1. 2: Conceptual Blending Model (Fauconnier&Turner, 2002:46)

Fauconnier&Turner (2002) provide detailed and profound analysis of the processes involved during the conceptual construction of metaphor and its understanding thereof. Unlike the conceptual theory, the blending process involves wider ranges of information integration. The conceptual model in question accounts for the actual, the imagined and the bizarre or often impossible things that represent mappings in the process. Taking as its basis the grounded knowledge in the long-term memory which is resultant from the fundamental human neurobiology and the shared experiences, compression in blending operates on a small set of relations. They include *cause-effect, change, time, identity, intentionality, representation and part-whole relations* which are applicable across mental spaces and define the essential topology therein (Fauconnier&Turner, 2002: XIII).

Interestingly, the blending theory of metaphor emphasises the ubiquitous, systematic, multidirectional processes of blending. It sets as its objective the exploration of online and novel instances of meaning construction and the hidden relational elements of inference between input spaces. It moves from the linguistic to the cognitive operations of metaphor and arrives at the wider spectrum reflected in the

physical parts of the brain paving the way for emerging neural investigations of metaphor. Under the following title, a description of the neural interpretation of language is explained as the description of language changes the way it is taught and instructed.

1.3.2.2 The Neural theory of language

Due to the increased interest in the complex biological and chemical brain functioning mechanisms, metaphor theory gained momentum in the diverse fields of language study. After the publication of Feldman's (2006) *From Molecule to Metaphor*, the functional value of the physical brain in interpreting the human mind emanated through neural descriptions and calculations. Feldman (2006) treats language as a whole that is shaped and structured by humans surging up in the world. Language and thought are no longer considered as separate entities where meaning is disembodied. They are rather the constituent parts of neural, biological and chemical computations operating in the brain. Through experiential gestalts, the human brain deciphers utterances as wholes rather than disparate parts. As stated directly in Feldman's (2006), the human brain is capable of matching newly encountered sentences and the current mental state through inherent complex computational calculations (: 13).

Among the ample circuits active during metaphor comprehension is the gestalt circuit. Experiential gestalts are active together when computation networks between meaningful nodes are achieved. Binding is the resultant interaction of these operations. In other words, two different parts of the brain are active together upon encountering a word like 'a blue square'. Even if both colour and shape are computed in different parts, one can understand them as one entity. The functional value of neural binding rests upon explaining the process of comprehension and understanding of conceptual metaphor on an empirical basis. Mapping circuits, the systematicity of neural computations and the way image-schemas and cogs are modeled in the brain elaborated traditional assumptions in CMT.

The Neural Theory of Language (NTL henceforth) explains how metaphors arise from the activation of two thoughts simultaneously. The target domain and the source domain are active together as the two areas of the brain are active. Through 'the

Hebbian principle that Neurons that fire together wire together, neural circuits linking the two domains will be learned. These circuits constitute the metaphor' (Lakoff, 2006:7). These correlations are primary and universal due to their reliance on the shared brain-language property for all humans. The more these two poles are active, the more complex they become under the functioning of social and cultural factors. That is, through extended binding, inferences are more likely to occur. Inferences are based on simulations. Simulations depend on meaningful nodes which are activated and matched with other meaningful nodes in the circuitry. The whole process is based on a cause-effect relationship. In metaphorical inferences, the same is true when *'the metaphorical mapping is activated in a neural circuit, there is an inference in the source domain of the mapping and a consequence of the source domain inference is mapped to the target domain activating a meaningful node'* (Lakoff, 2006:9).

On the whole, neural circuitry mechanisms and blending clarified the physical interaction in the brain in an attempt to compute the mind. It yields practical results in the diverse domains of human practice in multiple fields psycholinguistics, neurobiology, linguistics and language on a larger scale. The way people view language changes the way they teach it. Thus, teaching the English language to non-native speakers can benefit from the aforementioned theories as far as learners' mental capacities and aptitudes are concerned especially when metaphors are salient in the discourse of both scientific and popular business nowadays.

1.4 General considerations on metaphor in business discourse

The pervasive and ubiquitous nature of metaphors in the human language led to the emergent corpus-based and genre-specific approaches to metaphor identification which investigated different discourses political, economic, religious and spoken among others. Relevant to the following study is the widespread use of conceptual metaphor typology in the discourse of business. The latter has received wide interest from the 1970's and is still the norm. Of particular importance are the divergent investigations of metaphor types in manipulating and constructing business activities. Specific disciplines have their own way of communicating knowledge. The latter is reflected in the technical, semi-technical and lay technical vocabulary items used by the economic

expertise to manipulate, orient or instruct novices in the field. The divergent manners employed as such range from illusive embellishments to crypto-technical and filling lexical gaps in the field under discussion.

Large scale studies were conducted to account for the use of both conceptual and linguistic metaphors in the abstract discourse of business and economics hence. Charteris-Black (2004) published prolonged analysis of metaphor identification in different discourses, religious, political and business. Rather than treating metaphors at the lexical level, he proposed a procedure for its extension in pragmatics and semantics to account for its function in the epistemologically-embedded nature of each discourse. Charteris-Black (2004) looked at both the linguistic manifestations of metaphors in discourse and their underlying conceptual thoughts used by economists from an ideological perspective. He proposed a critical approach to metaphor identification accordingly named Critical Metaphor Analysis (CMA henceforth). He asserts that the functional value of metaphor in discourse is salient through the *writer's aims to achieve particular rhetorical goals such as establishing a relationship with the reader and making judgments by selecting particular words or phrases usually to refer to other topics* (Charteris-Black&Musolff, 2003:158).

The findings gleaned from CMA were applied to account for the frequency and the function of linguistic metaphors and their underlying conceptual mappings. For Koller (2004), the dominant triad war, sports and games cluster in business media on marketing is *tightly-knit*. That is, the adjectives referring to the conceptual metaphors BUSINESS IS WAR, SPORTS and GAMES are interrelated and influenced by the socio-cultural business discourse. By empirically and quantitatively analysing texts taken from the Economist, Business Week, Financial Times and Fortune ,Koller (2004) exemplifies, wildcards are blitz, complain, cut-throat, field and launch that refer to the source domain of war (Stefanowitsch ,2006:246).

Henderson (1986) classified metaphor types into generic-level and specific-level metaphors. Lindstromberg (1991) offers another classification. Goatly (1997) distinguished between active, inactive, sleeping and dead metaphors in discourse. The functional values in both the linguistic and the pragmatic spheres were used as a means to analyse scientific and popular business discourses. Scientific business theories are defined and modeled by metaphors since they help business experts communicate their

thoughts indirectly through hinting at specific issues relevant to their field. McCaskey (1997) maintains that *'taken in context, words in metaphor can be clues to how another is feeling, to what he or she views as important'* (qtd in Shimizu, 2009:146). These metaphors are intended for a specific public and encompass business journal articles, periodicals and textbooks.

In her corpus-based analysis of scientific business articles taken from the Journal of Economics Management Strategy, Management Science Journal and Strategic Management Journal, Sznajder & Deignan (2005) delineated metaphors' modeling, filling terminological gaps and providing conceptual coherence functions. The results revealed distributional variation of metaphors within the scientific discourse. The frequency of vehicles used to model theories or fill terminological gaps overrides that of illustrating due to its limited use in the scientific community. Words from the organic domain like grow, predation, sensitivity and life cycle structure the conceptual and the linguistic articulations of business scientific discourse (Sznajder & Deignan, 2005:6-7). Business speech has also received wider interest in the second half of the millennium. Metaphor functions in business speeches intermingle with speech functions. As a matter of fact, Ronshu (2009) described the latter in light of the former through utilising both CMT and blending theory. He affirms the long-lasting effect of metaphor on the manipulation of audiences to attain desirable outcomes (Shimizu, 2009:148).

The sum total of vehicle terms prevailing business discourse ranges from war source domains to the orientational levels of upward and downward market stock exchange. Besides the human organisms which are shown in expressions as 'companies map out a strategy to penetrate a foreign market' (Business Week, 2009); 'The prices go up or down' (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Kovesces (2004) assumes, further, that the three main source domains underlying economic discourse are 'building, plants and journey' (movement, direction). For example, 'Germany built a strong economy', 'the growth of the economy' (ibid: 22). The intersection between business and economic discourses and other concrete domains from divergent daily-life experiences can be summarised in the table below.

Conceptual metaphors and examples of linguistic instantiations	
Ontological metaphors	
ECONOMY IS A CONTAINER/ A COMPANY IS A CONTAINER	To invest in, to take out of
MONEY IS A LIQUID	Liquid assets, cash flow
IDEAS ARE OBJECTS	To stuff into something, to sell, to exchange, to shape....
Oriental metaphors	
MORE IS UP	Prices fell/rose, divided is up/down
AHEAD IS POSITIVE	To be a head of time, a backward part of something
Structural metaphors	
BUSINESS IS WAR	To bombard with new enquiries, to give up without a fight, to reinforce a market position, to have joined forces, to map out a strategy, to penetrate the market, to invade markets, to take over battle, to conquer market shares, keep your head down, marching order, to capture a bigger share, to set a target, to gain grounds on a main competitor
BUSINESS IS COMPETITION/ BUSINESS IS A RACE	To work at a steady pace, to be still on the starting block....
ECONOMY IS A PLANT	Flourishing, growing, thriving, shrinking industry, organic growth.....
ECONOMY IS A BUILDING	Foundation of a business, to build up/rebuild a good business...

A COMPANY IS A SHIP	To be on course, to run a ship tight, uncharted territory, to bail out something...
ECONOMY IS A HUMAN BEING	Attractive, in a calm mood
ECONOMY IS A PATIENT/ ECONOMIC ACTIVITY IS HEALTH CARE	To stay healthy, to be made ill, on the verge to collapse, recovery, stabilize, a right economic remedy needs to be prescribed, depression
ECONOMY IS A MACHINE/ ECONOMY IS MOTOR	exchange rate mechanism, using the right tool, to tighten the screw on economy, to fine-tune inflation, the monetary lever has rusted, economy is overheating, high salaries may fuel inflation, to kick-start.....
ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IS MOUNTENEERING	peak, trough, climb, mount, creep up.....
A GROUP OF COMPANIES IS A FAMILY	Parent company, sister company, mother company
MERGERS AND ACQUISITION IS MARRYING/MATING	Corporate marriage

Table 1.1 Conceptual metaphors and their linguistic manifestations in business and economics discourse (Grundamen, 2009:60).

Above all, the continuous flow of conceptual metaphors in business and economics discourses and their popular counterparts provides new forays at exploring pathways to engage teaching and learning specific disciplines. Different perceptions in the cognitive and the neural theories of language descriptions clarify the pedagogical implications for the teaching of specialised languages. Ultimately, since the cognitive-oriented view of language changed the way language is studied, its instruction widens

its perceptions of the teaching-learning journey accordingly. The succeeding paragraphs consider the insights gained from the cognitive neural-centered descriptions of language and their application in the teaching of English.

1.5 Teaching conceptual metaphors

Teaching language for specialised purposes is a new field compared to more traditional approaches to teaching English. It accommodates subject-matter and methodology akin to learners' perceived and felt needs, interests and wants. Hence, learners' cognitive abilities and strategies of learning constitute departure points on which linguists and language teachers model and plan their teaching practice. Among others, cognitive, constructivist and neural theories of language description are all accommodated into English for Specific Purpose (ESP henceforth) teaching so as to keep abreast of recent changes in the field.

Because of its conceptual nature, metaphor teaching is a thriving field of study that seeks to establish a viable methodology accounting for both learners' language processing abilities and their targeted instructional communicative strategies. Besides its functional value in discourse, metaphor's semantic and pragmatic functions might be exploited in classes which are in line with the communicative approach of language teaching nowadays. Possibly, the aforementioned findings of cognitive and neural theories and the corpus-based approaches to metaphor description in business discourse can provide the building blocks for specialised language teaching.

Initially, ample evidence has been given by cognitive linguistic research for metaphor in the field of education. Littlemore (2004) investigated the kind of training students' needed to use metaphor-based strategies for vocabulary acquisition. The latter proved that: *'metaphor-based vocabulary guessing strategies are likely to involve the psychological process of associative fluency, analogical reasoning and image formation'* (: 267). The experiment aimed at testing foreign language learners', studying at a British university, tendency to use metaphor-based vocabulary guessing strategies. Both group-based and individualised approaches were used. The participants were asked to brainstorm the possible meanings of the presented visually- enhanced metaphor

input. The outcomes of individual performance majored the group-based approach due to the training provided particularly with regard to interactive images.

Additionally, Low & Littlemore (2009) tested the relationship between conceptual metaphors and classroom management language. Two groups of learners studying at British universities were provided with the phrasal verbs (skate over/on, run over/about) and tested on their interpretations through a questionnaire. The results revealed the following teaching implications. Conceptual metaphor awareness should be integrated in classroom language management particularly for teachers or learners planning to study abroad. The Non-native learners group outperformed their native counterparts because of backward transfer from their first language. Ultimately, a need for more concern about contrastive analysis between the first language of the learners and the target language is of paramount importance in teaching metaphors.

In another publication, Littlemore & Low (2006), recite the experiments that are likely integrated in teaching vocabulary items (idioms, particles and metaphors) and which further contribute to increasing non-native language learners' figurative thinking. Exhaustive teaching-learning experiments are provided to guide instructors. Learner-led activities account for implicit metaphor instruction where learners are required to analyse the motivational aspect of the expressions through carefully-built guessing activities. Teacher-led instruction, conversely, involves teacher-guided instruction. In other words, activities used are restricted to a limited set of already-chosen conceptual metaphors. They are relevant to drawing students 'attention to basic senses of the words besides the appropriate visual support'. In another teaching model, Littlemore & Low (2006), integrate both learners and teacher-led models in a unified version. Both learners and teachers are active agents in the construction of meaning during courses. The input can be chunks of language or whole texts. Central to each model is the 'querying routine' which is a hook to language acquisition at large. (Littlemore & Low, 2006:27-34).

The empirical evidence provided by Liang Xiaobo (2002) and Gong Yumiao (2006) on the pivotal importance of cognitive metaphor study on vocabulary acquisition adds impetus to the study of metaphor. Important to mention is the application of metaphor awareness in teaching Business English students at Spanish universities. M. Sacristán (2004) confirmed the effectiveness of metaphor as a learning device for L2

Business learners then concluded that it should be part of any English for Specific Purposes syllabus. Learners were first instructed on the Lakoffian definition of metaphor and its distinction from the linguistic metaphorical expressions through sets of examples from Business English textbooks. The latter reinforces Charteris-Black's emphasis on drawing the dividing line between figurative and literal meanings.

(...) in the case of vocabulary language teaching, if there is no clear-cut boundary between literal and figurative meanings, and the literal meanings of words are extended to provide figurative meaning, there are implications for second language learners who may not be able to distinguish between such literal and metaphorical uses (Charteris-Black, 2000: 153).

As stated clearly by the pioneers of cognitive semantics (Gibbs1994, Lakoff &Johnson1980) meaning is motivated rather than conventional. Conceptual metaphors are based on human beings experience with the outside world. That is, meaning is embodied in our bodily experience, the physical environment or *other people of the same culture*. Obviously, ever since their creation, people developed standards to measure the world. They also explored similarities between things and formed metaphors with familiar parts of the body organs. Later, they succeeded in forming strong and complex words. For example, '*the mouth of a river* (tunnel, a pocket, a bottle), '*the tongue of a bell* (fire)' among others (Sun, 2010:177).

Through increased awareness of the etymological origin of lexical items, learners will get a clear view of language description and processing. In other words, teachers might introduce words in compound chunks of language rather than isolated lexical items. An expression like 'insubstantial arguments' can be explained through recycling its more concrete collocates so as to clarify the core meaning of the word. The physical nature of 'substance' might be provided then the idea of framing abstract concepts follows the explicit explanation, arriving finally at drawing a balloon representing the argument and the supporting ideas. Systematicity in lexis can be achieved thence. Furthermore, awareness of the core meaning of abstract concepts through metaphor awareness answers a two-folded question in the language classroom, how language is constructed and how the mind structures meaning accordingly. Metaphor, on the whole,

allows language users ‘*to understand the nature of language as a series of strata that carries frozen within it clues to the nature of learning*’ (Holme, 2004:123-126).

On the whole, what redeems crucial in cognitive linguistics research on conceptual metaphor is establishing systematicity in figurative language through enhancing metaphor awareness. Achard & Neimier (2004) affirm that enhanced metaphor awareness involves

recognition of metaphor as a common ingredient of everyday language; the recognition of metaphoric themes behind many figurative expressions; recognition of the non-literary nature of many figurative expressions; recognition of possible cross-cultural differences in metaphoric themes (...) (: 212).

It is through exposure to the underlying metaphorical concepts that learners’ communicative competence increases. Advanced learners are likely to achieve proficiency in the target language when their ‘*verbal fluency coincides with the conceptual fluency demonstrated by a native speaker of the language*’. Accompanied by the formalist linguistic competence and the functionalist communicative competence, the new perspective linguists and language teachers long for in the classroom is the conceptual fluency. However, the effect of the latter on advanced learners’ language proficiency is beyond the scope of the following study. (See Danesi, 1992 & Low & Littlemore, 2006)

Another perspective through which metaphor studies gain ground in language instruction is the activation of source domain awareness. The experiments conducted by Boers (2000) with French university students revealed various results. The participants in the control group were given a list of English expressions to describe upward and downward trends in economics. The experimental group, however, were made aware of the literal or original meaning of the expressions. Interestingly, the experimental group outperformed the control group in the retention of the studied lexis. A second experiment was conducted to test Dutch college students’ retention of form and meaning. Students in both groups were asked to figure out the meaning of ten idioms in

English using the dictionary. While the control group were given the supplementary task of identifying the context in which the idioms take place, the experimental group were asked to look for the etymological origin of the expressions. The findings confirmed the usefulness of drawing attention to the etymology of idiomatic expressions in metaphor teaching. (Ibid: 213)

Different experiments have also been conducted to test for vocabulary acquisition and retention. Berendi (2005), Csabi (2004) and Kovesces (1986) investigated how enhanced awareness of conceptual metaphors helps learners comprehend and remember figurative lexis. In the first experiment, they measured the effect of applying cognitive linguistic principles to the teaching of polysemous words. The second dealt with idioms' grouping by conceptual metaphor. Both experiments involved explicit metaphor instruction. A third experiment aimed at raising learner autonomy through less explicit guidance. That is, students were given the task of identifying CMs themselves. At other times, they were provided with pictures illustrating unstated CMs (Boers& Lindstromberg, 2008: 65)

In line with cognitive linguistics-inspired metaphor teaching, some strategies were added to the list of the aforementioned experiments. According to Boers (2004) three ways can be exploited in an FLA context for the acquisition of conventional figurative expressions. By referring to the literal or original meaning of idioms, the explicit imagery behind idioms can be exploited by the learner. The latter provides cognitive efforts and enhances recall and processing of information independently. Second, grouping idioms under common metaphoric themes through the use of capital letters proves to be useful for categorising and organising vocabulary for learners. Indeed, well structured vocabulary facilitates retention and recall of vocabulary items. Along these lines, another type of experiment conducted by Boers (2000) with Dutch-speaking secondary school pupils in which idioms were listed according to '*metaphoric themes*', as identified by Kovesces (1986), supported the claim. Another set of multi-word verbs organised under the headings of orientational metaphors presented to French-speaking university students revealed successful vocabulary retention results (Achard&Neimer, 2004: 213-214).

Relevant cognitive linguistic theories that provide theoretical basis for conceptual metaphor teaching include, Paivio's (2007) Dual Coding theory, Levels of processing theory (Craik and Lockart, 1972), the Input Enhancement theory by Smith (1993) and the Noticing Hypothesis initiated by Schmidt (1990). Insights from these theories can be used as guidelines for metaphor teaching. The underlying concept behind Dual Coding theory is *that information can be activated directly by perceived events* (e.g. pictures, environmental sounds, printed words) or indirectly by imagery instructions or properties of words that *focus on specific modalities*. Thus, the mnemonic effect of imagery increases the possibility of recall since metaphor provides learners with mental images through possible associations between source and target domain (Paivio, 2007: 86).

According to Craik and Lockart (1972), the more an item is processed the better it will be remembered. In other words, semantic processing produces the most durable learning through fostering meaningful conceptual mappings between source and target domains, processing depth increases. Highlighting the motivated and ubiquitous nature of metaphors to learners facilitates deep information processing to long-term memory (cited in Baddely, 1997: 47). On the same grounds, Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis focuses on the role of consciousness in input processing. The latter contributes to metaphor teaching through bringing learner's consciousness to the target item. Schmidt (1993) further assumes: *'noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input into intake.'* (qtd in Sanz, 2005: 182)

On the whole, conceptual metaphor theories provide a solid ground under which teaching and learning vocabulary items in the target language might successfully take place. Through enhanced awareness of metaphor in the foreign language classroom, teachers elaborate on the mobility and pervasiveness of the latter in everyday communication. By doing so, students can creatively understand the motivation behind metaphor construction through relating it to basic human experiences in the world. Additionally, the shared quality of the human race facilitates understanding universally-shared metaphors. Conversely, individuals belonging to different societies and cultures may express ideas differently and create what is termed culture-specific metaphors. To avoid misunderstanding, teachers might resort to highlighting differences between how learners express ideas in their mother tongue and that of the target language. Of special

interest, is the incorporation of the aforementioned techniques into an integrated planning for conceptual metaphor teaching in a Business classroom where English is considered as a foreign language.

1.6 Conclusion

In the course of this chapter, the lexical treatment of metaphor in language, thought and action has been skated on. Rather than tracing the philosophical or the literary function of the latter, a more linguistic and neural treatise is being elaborated on reaching, at last, the pedagogical implications that can be exploited by English as a Foreign Language teachers. The functional value of metaphor in the economic and business discourse has been also tackled to single out its specific jargon in the emerging domain of specialised languages. Two roads were crossed by metaphor researchers and it is up to the researcher to choose which trend to pursue. Traditional philosophers set the pillars of language description and its constituents while their emerging counterparts stretched their strings of research to the cognitive level. Some researchers crossed the two roads in an attempt to level the stream of weakness and strengths of the two divergent roads. A way of compromise, however, might be reached through applying the pedagogical implications in different contexts and on different levels of competence to cater for learners' needs in learning the English language.

Despite their newness, conceptual metaphor teaching experiments can be promising when thoroughly and practically applied in business classes. Metaphor study started from mere embellishment restricted to poets and eloquent speakers of a language to a set of sequenced instructional designs aiming at exploring how the learning process takes place. Departure points may remain the norm for literary discourse proponents but the empirically-based studies dominating metaphor-based instruction continue to loom large. A way of conclusion is, however, trying to incorporate the contributing studies to specialised business classes with careful analyses of the learners and the learning situation under study. The following section outlines the methodological implications that might be pursued to reach the proposed learning facilities proposed by metaphor-based vocabulary instruction.