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Over the past decade researchers of metaphor have debated the question whether and if so how metaphor can be used deliberately (e.g., Gibbs, 2011a, b; Steen, 2011a; Deignan, 2011; Müller, 2011). One of the crucial difficulties in this debate has been the conflation between deliberate metaphor use and conscious metaphorical cognition (cf. Steen, 2011a, 2013). In this talk I will argue that there is yet another conflation, between consciousness and attention (as I believe is more generally illustrated by Chafe’s [1994] treatment of consciousness in discourse). I propose that the distinct notion of attention holds the key to developing a new model for metaphor that can accommodate a range of central and new questions in metaphor studies, including the paradox of metaphor that suggests that most metaphor may not be processed metaphorically (Steen, 2008).

Although the cognitive function of attention in language processing has been amply discussed by for instance Talmy (2000), I propose that a new model for metaphor is best developed by connecting attention in language use to the psychology of discourse processing (e.g. MacNamara and Magliano, 2009), an area of study which I think has not been adequately incorporated in metaphor studies. My preference for adopting this approach is based on the fact that there is one influential model in the psychology of discourse processing, Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983; cf. Kintsch 1998; Van Dijk 2008), that allows for a generally acceptable but precise analysis of all types of metaphor in discourse (Steen, 2009, 2011b). Exploring this approach raises new questions about the way words, concepts, and referents are related to each other in various kinds of metaphor, affecting the way metaphors end up in our attention (cf. Sanford and Emmott, 2012). Another advantage of starting out from a discourse-psychological approach to metaphor in language use is that it naturally allows for developing a genre perspective on the question of metaphor variation (cf. Deignan, Littlemore, and Semino, 2013). Exploring this particular perspective raises new questions about the way genre knowledge and expectations constrain deliberateness, consciousness, and attention to metaphor in communication.

My overall aim in this talk is therefore to sketch out a coherent view of a new model for metaphor in language use that is more tightly motivated by discourse-psychological research than is currently the case. At the same time this discourse-psychological model does not prevent maintaining productive relations with other approaches to metaphor in language use, such as linguistic and social-scientific ones—on the contrary, it enables the investigation of all sorts of fundamental and applied issues by different disciplines from a single and explicit theoretical standpoint.

References
Cognitive Linguistics sees metonymy as a conceptual mechanism, where the name of a referent is used to stand for another referent, i.e., one conceptual entity, the vehicle (or the source), provides mental access to another conceptual entity (the target), within the same cognitive model (Radden and Kövecses 1999), as opposed to metaphor which is seen as a mapping between different domains (Lakoff 1987). Langacker has developed the idea of the referential function of metonymy through the notion of ‘reference-point construction’, whose sole purpose is to provide access to the target meaning. The reference point phenomenon highlights the ability to invoke the conception of one entity for establishing a mental connection with another. In the present paper, we follow the prototype-theoretical model of categorization to account for the understanding of humorous metonymies (cf. Feyaerts 2000, Brône and Feyaerts 2003). We argue that, in humor, non-prototypical uses of metonymy create these humorous meanings. As a consequence, the classical view of metonymy is exploited unexpectedly in order to puzzle and surprise the reader. We use Clark’s (1996) layering model to account for these humorous uses of metonymy which are created on a mutually assumed common ground between interlocutors. Moreover, we draw on the Gricean idea of implicature and Sperber and Wilson’s Relevance Theory to show that metonymic connections lie at the heart of pragmatic inferencing, and that these cognitive structures provide important clues concerning basic mental phenomena. As such, the prototypical view of metonymy is manipulated unexpectedly, while still allowing the hearers to access the humorous interpretations by means of pragmatic inferencing. Metonymy behaves like a reference-point construction because the hearer is expected to infer a whole scenario, even if the final outcome is a non-prototypical use of metonymy. We show that, in humor, salience is the factor that is being exploited in order to change the outcome and puzzle the hearer (cf. Brône and Feyaerts 2003). The reference-point structures are actually non-salient, because it is a completely inappropriate and unexpected element that will be brought into focus. We base our discussion on a large corpus of examples drawn from two contemporary American television series: House M.D. and The Big Bang Theory.

References
Imagine a blonde student providing the perfect answer to a difficult math problem. An impressed fellow student ironically yells “Wow, she is really dumb!” and the class laughs. Such ironic comments may be seen as arbitrary praise that could also be formulated literally (“Wow, she is really clever!”). However, this comment could also follow from the violation of existing stereotypic expectancies about blondes’ intelligence [1].

Linguistic-bias research shows how speakers systematically vary their language when communicating stereotype-consistent and stereotype-inconsistent information [2]: When communicating stereotype-inconsistent (vs. stereotype-consistent) information, speakers typically use more concrete words [3-4], explanations [5] and negations [6]. These systematic variations not only reflect speakers’ stereotypic expectancies, but also strengthen them in both speakers and recipients. We expand this literature by introducing the Irony Bias. We posit that irony is an important linguistic means by which stereotypic expectancies are implicitly revealed and maintained.

Linguists argue that irony is typically used in stereotype-violating situations [7-8]. Irony (e.g., “Wow, she is really dumb!”) always communicates two meanings: the literal (really dumb) and intended meaning (really clever). Both meanings remain active in working memory during and after processing [9-10], making irony appropriate in stereotype-violating situations: irony allows speakers to literally mention the expectancy and, through the intended meaning, simultaneously indicate the expectancy’s violation.

Three experiments support our claims about irony’s appropriateness in stereotype-inconsistent situations. In Experiment 1 (N=50, Mage=24.22, 54% female), Experiment 2 (N=58, Mage=30.48, 67% female) and Experiment 3 (N=104, Mage=26.00, 62% female), participants were presented literal and ironic comments in various stimulus sets. Each set varied according to a 2 (stereotype-consistent/stereotype-inconsistent) x 2 (positive/negative behavior) design. Participants had to choose which comment they would use (literal/ironic; Experiment 1) or rate each comment’s appropriateness (Experiments 2-3). Results demonstrate that irony is chosen more often (Experiment 1) and found more appropriate in stereotype-inconsistent (vs. stereotype-consistent) situations (Experiments 2-3).

Experiment 4 focused on the Irony Bias’ communicative consequences. In general, biased language frames stereotype-inconsistent behavior as atypical, attributing stereotype-inconsistencies more to individual/situational circumstances (external attribution) than stable group characteristics (internal attribution [2]). We study if irony has similar functions. In Experiment 4 (N=87, Mage=26.51, SDage=11.60, 70% female), participants rated attribution of targets’ behavior following literal or ironic comments. Results confirmed that, compared to literal language, irony increases external behavior attribution.

Thus, we extend both the irony and stereotyping literature by showing that speakers reveal their stereotypic expectancies through irony, and that irony functions to interpersonally communicate and maintain these expectancies.
References
Imagine being an avid soccer-team fan. In the game against your biggest rival, a goalie trips, enabling the opponent to score. You ironically exclaim: “What a skillful goalie!”.

Intergroup-polarization research suggests that language can be strategically used to strengthen group identity and foster intergroup competition. We ask whether irony has in-group serving functions in such competitive intergroup situations. Two competing theoretical explanations are advanced.

First, Social Identity Theory [1] presupposes that speakers try to maximize in-group and out-group differences, e.g., by fostering rivalry through aggressiveness towards out-groups [2]. Irony has also been associated with verbal aggressiveness [3]. Following the irony-as-aggressiveness hypothesis, speakers should be more ironic about out-groups (vs. in-groups), regardless of situation.

Second, Linguistic-Bias research [4-5] presupposes that speakers use language to mitigate expectancy violations. In intergroup contexts, in-group members are expected to behave positively, and out-group members to behave negatively. Expectancy-violation situations (incompetent in-group/competent out-group behavior) are linguistically framed as one-time events. Irony-Bias Research [6] shows irony’s appropriateness in expectancy-violation situations: irony enables speakers to mention expectancies (our team is skillful) and simultaneously signal their failures (our goalie fumbled). Following the irony-as-expectancy-violation hypothesis, speakers should find irony most appropriate in expectancy-violation situations (incompetent in-group/competent out-group behavior).

We conducted two experiments to test these alternative theories. Experiment 1 (N=91, Mage=30.89, 78.0% male) investigated how rival soccer fans use irony when discussing in-group and out-group players. Fans rated the appropriateness of literal and ironic comments in situations varying according to a 2 (in-group/out-group actor) x 2 (competent/incompetent behavior) x 4 (stimulus set) design.

Fans found irony more appropriate when discussing out-group (vs. in-group) players, regardless of situations. Effects were stronger for fans with high in-group identification, supporting the irony-as-aggressiveness hypothesis.

Experiment 2 (N=183, Mage=31.15, 44.3% male) studied whether neutral observers recognized this communicational pattern. Under the irony-as-aggressiveness hypothesis, listeners should always infer that ironic speakers are out-group members. Under the irony-as-expectancy-violation hypothesis, listeners should infer from ironic speakers about competent behavior are out-group members and ironic speakers about incompetent behavior are in-group-members.

Neutral participants were asked to infer speaker fandom from comments on either Manchester City or United players with three distinct communication patterns: 1.always literal, 2.irony in competent, 3.irony in incompetent behavior.
Speakers using irony when commenting on competent behavior were perceived as out-group members, while speakers using irony when commenting on incompetent behavior are perceived as in-group members, supporting the irony-as-expectancy-violation hypothesis. Thus, in competitive intergroup contexts, inferences from irony by neutral observers are inconsistent with in-group members’ communicative behavior. Implications are discussed.

References
In the article Turner and Fauconnier’s (2002) scientific model of Conceptual Blending is applied to the analysis of politicised on-line discourse. Blending has been presented as a scientific model which encompasses and explains a variety of divergent phenomena, and shows how new meanings can emerge from old information. It claims to be capable of accounting for such a dynamic phenomenon as irony (or humour in general) and treats it as a complex mental operation, which exploits the mechanism of Conceptual Blending.

In the analysis of Lithuanian on-line news headlines and commentaries it has been noticed that ironic references to politicians and political events/situations make use of a metaphoric mode, as the integration structures exploit the mental models of conceptual metaphors, e.g., POLITICS IS SPORT, POLITICS IS A TALE, etc. The use of the conventionalised models of metaphors enables irony/humour to be accessible without its context. Irony, in its own way, exploits metaphors which have been conventionalised in political discourse in general. Metaphor-based input spaces (target and source) contain cardinally contrary elements, the clash of which supports the ironic shift of meaning. Though certain common patterns of metaphor-based ironies in news headlines can be detected universally, it should be mentioned that the country retains its idiosyncrasy.

The double-scope mechanism employed in the networks not only achieves the goals defined by Turner and Fauconnier (i.e. to “compress what is diffuse” and to “give the global insight,” (2002, p. 346), but also makes the critical ironic attitude explicit.

The main claims of the research are supported by a variety of blending cases collected from on-line news websites during the period of 2011-2013 in the headlines and article commentaries of the main on-line news websites of Lithuania.
METAPHORS AND SCIENCE

METAPHOR AND MATERIAL INFERENCE IN SCIENCE

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In my paper I take into consideration some issues raised by studies on inference in scientific reasoning to address in a new perspective the problem of metaphor in science. Early influential studies on metaphor in science (Max Black 1962, Mary Hesse 1966, Richard Boyd 1979, etc.) have moved from a critique of the syntactical conception of theories to account for the import of metaphor at different stages of scientific theorizing. On the other hand, some philosophers of science, such as Wilfrid Sellars (1953), John Norton (2003) and others, from different perspectives and without any particular concern for metaphor, have highlighted the role of material assumptions and empirical content of concepts for drawing inferences. This idea overturns the view according to which the validity of scientific reasoning depends solely on the form of the arguments being put forward. It turns out that material inference plays a major role in scientific reasoning and allows to acknowledge its rationality without reducing it to obeying formal rules (cf. Ingo Brigandt 2010).

Sellars (1953), discussing of deductive inference, argued that formalizing what counts as a law of nature by adding a conditional proposition (which Carnap called a P-rule) to a system of axioms does not provide the new formulation with the modal force that counterfactuals have. In fact, scientific concepts, as well as concepts used in ordinary life, implicitly involve some knowledge about natural kinds or causally relevant connections. Making this content explicit might be useful in certain cases, but, even assuming that it is always possible, the ability to draw inferences concerning particular matters of fact is more fundamental and the validity of these inferences remains grounded in a content that is not reducible in logical terms. To explain this Sellars appeals to the notion of material necessity. According to Norton (2003), formal accounts of induction are subject to an intractable tension between the universality of the scheme they set up and its successful functioning compared to specific instances of inference taken from concrete patterns of scientific reasoning. In order to resolve such tension and overcome the well-known Problem of Induction (i.e. infinite regress or circularity arising from the attempt to justify inductive inferences; cf. Salomon 1967), Norton proposes a material account of induction. The main tenet of his proposal is that some domain-specific facts, expressed by material postulates or tacitly assumed, afford the basis for licensing truth-conductive inferences. If inductive reasoning proves to be sound, this is always locally, as its empirical premises hold only in specific domains. This is why we cannot separate facts from the inference scheme.

Metaphors are capable of tacitly conveying empirical content, hence they can be useful to introduce theoretical terms and to come up with new concepts. Insofar as scientific reasoning is material inference, metaphors, being part in the process of concept change, can contribute to afford a basis for carrying out different theoretical tasks, such as discovery, explanation and confirmation.
Natural selection is one of the most famous metaphors in the history of science. Charles Darwin used the metaphor and the underlying analogy to frame his ideas about evolution and its main driving mechanism into a full-fledged theory. Because the metaphor turned out to be such a powerful epistemic tool, Darwin naturally assumed that he could also employ it as an educational tool to inform his contemporaries about his findings. Moreover, by using the metaphor Darwin was able to bring his theory in accordance with both the dominant philosophy of science in his time and the respected tradition of natural theology. However, as he introduced his theory of evolution by natural selection in On the origin of species in 1859, the metaphor also turned out to have a serious downside. Because of its intentional overtones, his contemporaries systematically misunderstood his metaphor not as a natural mechanism causing evolution to occur but as an agent who works towards particular ends. The difference in success between natural selection as an epistemic tool and its failure as an educational tool is labelled as a paradox. We explain the paradox from a cognitive perspective and discuss the implications for teaching evolution.
METAPHORS AND SCIENCE


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In the second edition of The Selfish Gene (1989), Richard Dawkins states that his selfish gene theory is “Darwin’s theory, expressed in a way that Darwin did not choose, but whose aptness (…) he would instantly have recognized and delighted in” (p. x). The selfish gene theory is, indeed, basically a genecentric version of the core of Darwin’s theory of evolution. A comparison between On the Origin (1859) and The Selfish Gene (1976) might therefore be interesting. The differences abound: On the Origin was a multidisciplinary book, partly inspired by a philosophy of science (the vera causa doctrine), whereas The Selfish Gene was conceived and written in the context of a specific biological discipline: sociobiology. There is also one striking parallel though: both Darwin and Dawkins are renowned masters of metaphor and in both books, metaphors play a crucial role. The work of which On the Origin was an abstract (Natural Selection) was, like The Selfish Gene, even named after the metaphor that conveyed its main idea.

However, here too, we see marked differences between both works. The innovative thinking behind On the Origin was fundamentally metaphorical. Darwin first assumed that extinctions were due to a kind of species senescence (a theory, put forward by Giovanni Battista Brocchi) whereas the “birth” of new species was interpreted in terms of sexual reproduction. The transition, in 1838, from this implicit organism metaphor to his more accurate natural selection metaphor is still not completely understood. Dawkins’ metaphors, by contrast, rather served to merely explicitate and explicate the genecentric interpretation of evolving life which was already implicit to the evolutionary synthesis: “My contribution to the idea of the selfish gene was to put rhetoric into it and spell out its implications” (Brockman, 1996, p. 76). This may help explain why Dawkins never made the kind of transition that Darwin made in 1838. It is only after 1976 that he came to the conclusion that he had been misled by his main metaphor of the selfish gene (Dawkins, 2006, p. ix). Whereas Darwin always defended his natural selection metaphor, even though he acknowledged that it could be misleading. The history of Darwinism thus aptly illustrates the double function of epistemic metaphors (exploratory/explanatory), their double edged nature and also the striking lack of progress in their practical use.

References
METAPHORS AND SCIENCE

A SYSTEMATIC FALLACY IN METAPHORICAL REASONING: A CASE-STUDY FROM PHILOSOPHY

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Conceptual metaphors facilitate both productive and pernicious analogical reasoning. Their conscious and explicit use in analogical reasoning has been demonstrably helpful and productive in disciplines ranging from physics (Hesse 2000) and computer science (Saunders and Thagard 2005) to psychology (Gentner and Grudin 1985) and philosophy (Taureck 2004). At the same time, prominent students of metaphor (incl. Lakoff and Johnson 1999 and Rorty 1980) have suggested that partially unwitting use of (visual) conceptual metaphors led to intuitive but utterly unsound (introspective) conceptions of the mind, in philosophy and psychology. Proceeding from a case-study on this use of visual metaphors in the philosophy of mind, the present paper identifies and explains a systematic fallacy in metaphor-driven analogical reasoning, which can engender cognitive illusions (Pohl 2004). The identification of this previously undescribed fallacy helps address the question arising from the above tension: When and why does the frequently helpful use of metaphors in analogical reasoning turn pernicious?

The paper brings together two hitherto largely distinct strands of research from cognitive psychology, on the use of metaphor in automatic analogical inference, and on routine information-integration in semantic memory, respectively. On this basis, it builds up to the fallacy in three steps, using throughout philosophically pertinent visual cognition metaphors (cp. above) as examples. First, the paper uses the conceptual framework of structure-mapping theory (Gentner 1983, Gentner and Bowdle 2008, Wolff and Gentner 2011) to describe how simple analogical reasoning can generate conceptual metaphors that facilitate more complex analogical reasoning. On this basis, it distinguishes the mappings ‘constitutive’ of a given conceptual metaphor from ‘incidental’ mappings.

Even complex analogical inferences are often automatic, in both language comprehension (cp. Day and Gentner 2007) and problem solving (Thibodeau and Boroditsky 2011, 2013). Cognitive and social psychologists increasingly try to ground explanations positing automatic inferences in lower-level accounts of associative processing in semantic memory (Morewedge and Kahneman 2010, Uleman et al. 2008). Budiu and Anderson’s (2004) model of ‘information-based processing’ (INP) captures how, in such associative processing, new information, which can include fresh conclusions from own inferences, gets integrated with previous information and world knowledge. With the help of this model, the paper, second, shows that partial matching effects in associative processing (Kamas et al. 1996, Park and Reder 2004) can forge new mappings in metaphor-driven analogical inferencing.

Third, the paper explains when and why the simultaneous use of such new ‘INP-facilitated’ mappings and mappings constitutive of the relevant conceptual metaphor (see above) leads to conclusions which are capable neither of appropriate metaphorical nor of literal interpretation. These pernicious conclusions include the targeted intuitions from the philosophy of mind. The paper closes by deriving a general characterisation of the fallacy from this example.
This research presentation aims to address the dynamics of a variety of source domains when conceptualizing one specific target domain, terrorism. In particular, it analyzes the metaphorical conceptualizations used to frame the problem of terrorism, perpetrated by the Basque nationalist terrorist band ETA (Euskadi Ta Askatasuna), in Spain. This presentation compares the conceptual domains and patterns of metaphorical elements in presidential speeches during the years of 2006 and 2011. These years were specifically chosen because they mark two important moments in the history of terrorism in Spain. In 2006, a peace process was negotiated during ETA’s permanent ceasefire. In 2011, the end of terrorist activity was finally accomplished with ETA’s official communication after more than 40 years of terrorist attacks. By drawing this comparison, I will trace and show what metaphorical elements and aspects of conceptual domains are highly activated in the discussion on terrorism in both years. I will relate the metaphors to the notion of ‘topic’ and ‘situation’ to identify general trends and analyze how new metaphorical meaning emerge and interconnect within diverse source domains to achieve a more persuasive impact to the public. The data comprises all presidential speeches related to terrorism during these two years pronounced by the president at the time, José Luis Rodríguez Zapatero. The metaphorical elements related to terrorism were identified and compared qualitatively and quantitatively. The analysis draws on the framework of Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980), Critical Discourse Analysis and Critical Metaphor Analysis (Charteris-Black 2004, 2005). I argue that there is a tendency to highlight and hide certain aspects from specific conceptual domains. I also argue that there are certain domains that tend to interact with specific ones, while others function alone.
METAPHORS AND POLITICAL COMMUNICATION

THE “BELGIAN TETRIS”: ASSESSING THE POLITICAL IMPACT OF METAPHORS ON CITIZENS’ PERCEPTION OF AND ATTITUDE TOWARDS BELGIAN FEDERALISM

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In the literature, the political impact of metaphors has often been taken for granted from metaphor analysis in political discourse, be it elite discourse or media discourse. However, a more global understanding of what this political impact could consist of, is still lacking from the current research agenda. As Koller (2009:121) puts it: “metaphor helps construct particular aspects of reality and reproduce (or subvert) dominant schemas.” To be able to account for how metaphors, through discourses, actively shape the political reality, it is important to look at the relationships between metaphorical discourses and their environment. Based on the idea that metaphors do not only reflect the perceived reality, but also function as cues through which citizens come to understand complex political processes and through which they shape political behaviors, the aim of this study is precisely to look at how specific metaphors might impact on the citizens’ framing of Belgian federalism.

To measure the impact of metaphors on the citizens’ political representations and attitudes, we developed an experimental set-up based on an article published in the Belgian newspaper Le Soir (13-14 July 2013) in which Belgian federalism was deliberately compared to a Tetris game. The original article included a picture and a text (208 words), which were used as authentic experimental material. For this experiment, we distinguished three experimental conditions and one control condition. In the first experimental condition (full condition), the participants were exposed to the original article (including the text and the picture). In the second and third experimental conditions, the participants were respectively exposed either to the text (text condition) or the picture (picture condition). In the control condition, the participants weren’t exposed to any metaphorical material at all. In the second stage of the experiment, the participants were asked to achieve three interrelated tasks: (i) a free description task, based on a free description of their own perception of Belgian federalism, (ii) an association task, in which they had to select a picture which they found the most appropriate to describe Belgian federalism, and finally (iii) a questionnaire measuring the participants’ political knowledge of Belgian federalism and attitudes towards its future development. In a post-test held four weeks after the first experiment, the three tasks of the second stage have been replicated. This experiment has been conducted in autumn 2013 among 400 students. The results are currently under analysis and will be discussed in details at the conference.

Comparing the various experimental conditions will make it possible (i) to measure the impact of the Tetris metaphor on the citizens’ perceptions and representations of Belgian federalism, (ii) to assess to what extent the different metaphorical media differently contribute to this impact and (iii) to measure the long-term impact of this metaphor on the citizens’ political representations and attitudes. In answering these questions, this study will contribute to a better understanding of the role and functions metaphors play in political discourse, and more globally in our everyday political interactions.
METAPHORS AND POLITICAL COMMUNICATION

THE IMPACT OF SPATIOTEMPORAL FRAMINGS ON PRE-ELECTORAL STRATEGIES: ITALIAN POLITICAL INSTABILITY AND EUROPEAN FEARS

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This presentation investigates the discourse about the Italian political elections of February 2013. Specifically, it analyses 'specialised' aspects of typical source domains, which were deployed for conceptualizing opposing political entities and their strategies against both the domestic and wider eurozone backgrounds. The focus is on the metaphor clusters that characterised the discourse about the elections as reported by the commentators of two main political/economic news sources: the Italian newspaper Il sole 24Ore and the Financial Times. The examples have been drawn from a bilingual corpus consisting of ca. 300 full articles, alongside blogs and other forms of commentators' online reports placed on the Financial Times and Il sole 24Ore webpages. The documents are in Italian and English. The methodology used is of the qualitative kind. However, metaphors, after being identified and semantically classified, have been ranked following a frequency count method. With this in mind, each document was first analysed through careful reading, watching or listening. Then a subcorpus was built in order to carry out a more agile pilot study aiming at shedding light on metaphors which draw from 'specialised' meanings of source concepts typical of the genre. The findings were then compared and related to the documents of the wider corpus for further evidence, with a special attention to spatiotemporal frames. The analysis carried out on two layers, a general (semantic) level and a particular (spatiotemporal) level - has enabled not only the identification of the main semantic fields that were exploited in the representation of the political 'impasse'. It has also, and most interestingly, brought to the surface how the domestic and international perspectives moved along two different spatiotemporal axes, dominated in discourse by the contrast between 'past-present' and 'present-future' chronological sequences. The former reflecting backward-oriented paralysing political strategies, the latter constrained by future-driven fears. Moreover, throwing light on the underlying scenarios has helped the understanding of evaluative and attitudinal differences between the two discourse communities.
IS LANGUAGE NECESSARY TO INTERPRET VISUAL METAPHORS?

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Studies have shown that some verbal metaphors require mental images that are akin to perceptual experiences, suggesting that metaphor processing is multimodal in nature. We explore here brain activation patterns during visual metaphor comprehension. We found significant activation in temporal lobe (BA 22) during visual metaphor comprehension, thereby suggesting that linguistic or symbolic resources are required to interpret visual metaphors. We also found that brain areas related to visuo-spatial, verbal memory and imagery are activated during visual metaphor comprehension. In comparing activation levels in the left and right hemispheres, we found that Putamen in the left hemisphere was significantly activated for the visual metaphors, but in the right hemisphere for verbal metaphors. Our results suggest that in order to make sense of seemingly anomalous juxtaposition, whether in language or in images, all different modalities, visual, sensor motor, linguistic, and their associated knowledge is brought into play.
Within the Cognitive Metaphor Theory (Lakoff and Johnson 1980), a central idea is that humans think metaphorically rather than just use metaphorical language. Acceptance of this idea means that, in principle, metaphor (and other tropes; see Gibbs 1993) can have visual manifestations as well. Indeed, the past two decades have witnessed a series of studies (eg Forceville 1996, 2008, Forceville & Urios-Aparisi 2009, El Refaie 2003) that analyse visual and multimodal metaphors in genres including advertising and political cartoons wherein verbal elements interact mainly with static images. Further steps to be taken are (a) to analyse visual metaphors in other genres of argumentative communication centrally involving moving images; and (b) to investigate how non-verbal and partially verbal metaphor and other tropes (see Gibbs 1993) can be deployed not just for narrative, but also for argumentative purposes.

In this paper, we focus on the argumentative role of visual metaphor and visual antithesis in the so-called “fly on the wall” documentary. This subtype of documentary purports to record what happens in front of the camera, without influencing these events—without the use of music or voice-over. This means that if the filmmakers want to guide their viewers into reaching certain conclusions, the montage of shots or scenes is one of the few ways at their disposal to achieve this.

In particular, we analyse several film scenes from two major representatives of the “fly on the wall” documentary, the Maysles brothers and Frederick Wiseman, to study how montage patterns that can be construed as “visual metaphor” and “visual antithesis,” respectively, underline the argumentative stance of the filmmaker.

References
Trust is a pervasive feature of social life and a basic element of both intimate and distant interpersonal relations. Every decision to trust other people, however, involves a certain degree of risk, as our ability to attain full knowledge of their intentions and motives is, in most situations, inescapably limited (Gambetta, 1988; Marková and Gillespie, 2008). Our decisions to trust others are thus influenced and guided by our subjective perceptions of their trustworthiness (Hardin, 2002; Linell and Keselman, 2011). These considerations apply not only to interpersonal relations between individuals, but also to those between business organizations and their stakeholders (Ingenhoff and Sommer, 2010).

This paper investigates how large multinational corporations use images to construct a trustworthy corporate identity across different genres of business communication. We analyze a corpus of images collected from the websites of some of the world’s largest corporations operating in high-impact industries such as the oil and gas, banking and pharmaceutical sectors, where stakeholders’ trust is key to ensuring social legitimation and long-term viability. The goal of the analysis is to identify and describe the pictorial (monomodal) and multimodal metaphors (Forceville 1996, 2002; Forceville and Urios-Aparisi, 2009) employed by these companies to convey three fundamental attributes of trustworthiness: a) ability, which regards a company’s skills and expertise in a specific domain, b) integrity, which relates to its moral and ethical values, and c) benevolence, which refers to its care for and goodwill towards the stakeholders (Mayer et al., 1995; Ingenhoff and Sommer, 2010).

Following Koller (2009), this paper emphasizes the centrality of pictorial and multimodal metaphor in companies’ discursive construction of their corporate identity, focusing on a specific and crucial dimension of corporate identity, i.e. trustworthiness. In addition, this study adds to the existing literature on metaphor by investigating how pictorial and multimodal metaphors are used, for persuasive purposes, in emerging genres of corporate communication. More generally, the study has the twofold aim of contributing to our knowledge of how trustworthiness is constructed through visual and multimodal resources, at the same time advancing our understanding of the discursive dynamics of trust, which is still limited and fragmentary (Linell and Keselman, 2011).

References


VISUAL METAPHORS

AUDIOVISUAL METAPHORS OF DEPRESSION IN MOVING IMAGES

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Depression is one of the most pervasive psychological diseases in Western societies. Psychological studies demonstrate that depression is a complex psychic state which is difficult to articulate for patients, suffering from it. Although it includes distinctive emotions like sadness and fear, it also implies long-term moods and, according to Ratcliff (2009), “existential feelings” of being insufficient, worth- and useless. Depressive persons tend to project such existential feelings to the pessimistic anticipation of events, driving to despair. Consequently depression is ubiquitously experienced: as physical pain, as intensive negative feelings and moods, and cognitively, as a pessimistic and desperate attitude towards the self and the world (Salomon 2001).

Given its complexity, it seems evident that psychologists report that depressive patients describe their feelings and pains in a widely metaphoric language (Barkfelt 2003): they use embodied image schemata and concepts as source domains to build metaphors of depression, allowing them to articulate their holistic and difficult to describe suffering (e.g. DEPRESSION IS A PHYSICAL FORCE or DEPRESSION IS DARKNESS).

During the last decade, films and other moving images (e.g. TV shows or videos on the Web) respond and contribute to the growing public attention of depression as a widespread disease in Western societies with a rising treatment in fictional and non-fictional formats (Eder 2012). As time based, audiovisual media, they can give the complexity of depressive states a multimodal articulation, combining movement, visuals, and sound. Based on the paradigm of conceptual metaphors (Lakoff 1987; Johnson 1987; Kövecses 2003) the paper will demonstrate that moving images dealing with depression often refer to conceptual metaphors, which have been recognized being prototypically used by patients suffering from it (e.g. Prizer 2007, Barkfelt 2003). Building on recent approaches to multimodal (Forceville 2007, 2011) and audiovisual metaphors (Fahlenbrach 2007, 2008, 2010), it will be shown, how metaphors of depression are created in moving images in the composition of movement, image, and sound.

More specifically it will be closely analyzed how formal features (e.g. movements in the pictures, lighting, music, sounds etc.) refer in their gestalt to embodied image schemata (e.g. force, container, or darkness) as metaphorical source domains of depression. Furthermore DEPRESSION will be identified as target domain by analyzing motifs and symbols in the audiovisual text as salient cues that explicitly refer to the viewers’ cultural knowledge of ‘depression’. Thereby it will be demonstrated how moving images artistically create audiovisual metaphors of depression that provide viewers with cross-modal impressions of this complex state.

References
This paper explores the metaphors used for ROMANTIC LOVE in Swedish spoken communicative interaction. Which LOVE metaphors are actually found in authentic language use? Which are most frequent? Is there systematicity? As Swedish (both language and culture) is closely related to English; can any parallels be found? These are questions this paper will attempt to untangle by applying a discourse dynamic view on metaphor use in Focus group conversations.

The concept of LOVE has been analyzed from different perspectives during the past 30 years. The reflective methodology has traditionally dominated the field (Kövecses, 1986, 1988, 2000; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Lakoff, 2006), and we find arguments for e.g. LOVE AS A UNITY (She is my better half; We are one) and LOVE IS A JOURNEY (We’re at a crossroads). Others have analyzed LOVE metaphors in different written language corpora, with e.g. Tissari (2001) finding EXCHANGE and not UNITY to be the dominating source. Beger (2011) examine the concept of LOVE in discourse between experts and laypersons and find metaphors with both CONTAINER and UNITY, in line with the reflective basis. Schröder (2009) discuss conceptualization of LOVE in German and Portuguese, and find clear cultural variations (FUNCTIONING MACHINE vs. CONQUEST); findings that do not resonate in the reflective postulations. So, the debate is very much alive, and unsettled. In addition, few studies focus on LOVE metaphors in spoken discourse (with none hitherto in Swedish).

This paper brings attention to the spoken dimension of LOVE metaphors, and also targets Swedish. The data comes from two 60-minute Focus group interviews, where the participants engage in an open, unstructured group discussion in relation to a Swedish short film about love. One group was homogenous in respect to sex and previous knowledge of each other, and the other heterogeneous. The study takes the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, 1999) as an outset, but employs the Discourse Dynamics Framework (e.g. Cameron, 2003, 2011) as a way of exploring spoken language in use. The results indicate that metaphors relating to MOVEMENT and UNITY are most frequent, but there are also occurrences of STRUCTURE and INFECTION. Interestingly, the CONTAINER metaphors are relatively few and the LIVING ORGANISM metaphor appear vital. Results also reveal differences both in individual speakers and between the groups.

Key words: spoken discourse, conceptual metaphor theory, discourse dynamics framework analysis, focus group research, language in use

References
METAPHORS IN DISCOURSE

CRY ME A RIVER: METAPHORIC HYPERBOLES IN THE INTERFACE BETWEEN DISCOURSE AND COGNITION

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Recent research in metaphor, which can, to a large extent, be characterized by systematic attempts to take “metaphor out of our heads and put it into the cultural world” (Gibbs, 1997), has confronted the challenges involved in the understanding of the complexities of both cognitive and discursive dimensions of metaphor in language use. Following this overall trend, this paper aims at analyzing metaphors as a frequent semantic realization of “the language of excess” (Webb, 1993), i.e., hyperboles. The hypothesis to be explored is twofold: firstly, from a discursive perspective, hyperboles aim at transcending a language repertoire available for expressing intensity and gradability, and as a corollary of that, subjectivity and evaluation. In this respect, metaphors, both conventional and novel, lexicalize this intensity with both discursive and cognitive effects by drawing elements of the source domain which serve this dual purpose. The second hypothesis to guide our research refers to the conceptual nature of the vehicle term, in other words, the metaphoric hyperbole used. Our suggestion is that, within a conceptual scale involving elements of a particular frame (Fillmore, 1976), the one which is selected is the prototype of that category. For example, one may cry, cry a lot, or cry a river (a more conventional hyperbole), cry a sea, or even cry an ocean (less conventional hyperbole: supposedly greater pragmatic and cognitive effect). Within this frame, an ocean would be the prototype of “a large quantity of liquid” and, in the metaphoric hyperbole, is used to refer to and highlight a large quantity of tears (liquid). Therefore, the prototype is used metaphorically with hyperbolic effects.

The theoretical framework underlying the research involves the concept of hyperbole, as defined in Cleridge (2011), metaphor in discourse (Gonçalves-García, Peña Cervel & Pérez Hernandes, 2013; Semino, 2008) and prototype theory (Rosch, 1979, 1983). The corpus used for the analysis consists of texts characterized by evaluative language found in 10 Brazilian blogs, with focus on those containing comments and/or reviews on films and books, in which the expression of subjectivity, stance and appraisal is a dominant feature of discourse and probably conducive to more frequent use of hyperboles. It is hoped that the analysis of metaphoric hyperboles will contribute to the understanding of the cognitive and discursive/pragmatic nature of figurative language in general in the expression of intensity and, consequently, of subjectivity, drawing on both on-line and off-line cognition in its realization in discourse.

References


Metaphors are commonly understood as genuine linguistic features. Accordingly, their pictorial dimension is usually neglected. This paper seeks to make up for this deficiency by focusing on the epistemic functions of scientific images with metaphorical content. Examples of such images are tree of life images, Sewall Wright’s adaptive landscape images, Darwin’s corals images, or Fritz Kahn’s depiction of the human body as a factory. Moreover, recent philosophical analyses of the epistemic dimension of images in the sciences show a certain trend in acknowledging potential heuristic roles of images beyond their merely decorative or pedagogical functions. However, this new debate has yet paid little attention to those images containing metaphorical content. I call these special images ‘visual metaphors’.

The following issues will be addressed here: Based on a case study of epigenetic landscape images developed by Conrad Hal Waddington – the leading British embryologist and geneticist from the late 1930s to 1950s – versatile heuristic roles of visual metaphors are discussed, such as organizing data, supporting (transdisciplinary) communication, as well as initiating and guiding research, modeling, and theory formation. In addition, a general descriptive framework applicable to heuristic roles of various visual metaphors in the sciences is developed. This approach helps to shed light both on the difference between metaphorically loaded scientific images and other visual models, like Watson and Crick’s drawing of the DNA double-helix, and, more generally, on the interrelationship between art and the sciences.

References
METAPHORS IN DISCOURSE

KNOWLEDGE COMMUNICATION IN COMPUTER VIROLOGY DISCOURSE

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We explore knowledge communication in the framework of cognitive-discursive approach, that suggests the complex study of complementary knowledge representation in language, in thought, and in communication. From this perspective, metaphor in computer virology discourse is studied as a cognitive tool of three dimensional knowledge translation.

To analyze the data with consideration of three types of knowledge representation in discourse we have elaborated the method of Three Dimensional Metaphor Modelling (3DMM) meant to constrain semantic, conceptual and pragmatic aspects of metaphor. The method is based on the following: Thesaurus modelling [Baranov, Karaulov 1991, Mishlanova, Utkina 2008], MIPVU [Pragglejaz Group 2007, Steen 2010], Five step method [Steen 2007, 2010], Frame semantics [Fillmore 1976]. The procedure includes three successive stages: communicative-pragmatic analysis, semantic analysis and conceptual analysis.

The research is carried out on texts specialized for an IT expert readership (professional genre) and texts targeting a lay readership (popular genre) extracted from the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA).

As a result two metaphorical models of the concept VIRUS in Professional and Popular computer virology discourse have been reconstructed. By means of statistic analysis we have revealed common and specific features in the models.

Qualitative analysis including semantic roles differentiation [Fillmore 1976, Apresyan 1995] has shown disagreement in the contents of the conceptual frames VIRUS in Professional and Popular computer virology discourse. The disagreement results from rearrangement of semantic roles.

As far as professional IT communication includes experts who intend to stop virus influence, the metaphorical model of the concept VIRUS in professional computer virology discourse implies the idea of SUPPRESSION OF AGGRESSION. Meanwhile nonprofessional communication includes users who suffer from virus malicious activity thereby in popular computer security discourse the idea of SUCCUMING TO AGGRESSION is implied.

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THE CLASSICAL PHYSICS AS A METAPHORICAL TOOL TO EVOKE QUANTUM WORLD

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In Quantum Theory two different logical frameworks seem to co-exist: microobjects behave according to classical logic in some situations; at the same time, they follow the rules of quantum logic. So one deals with a kind of “logical schizophrenia” that turns out to be somewhat mysterious and inexplicable. In particular, Quantum Mechanics cannot be adequately represented in the framework of classical semantics, which is basically analytical and compositional: the meaning of a compound expression is always determined by the meanings of its parts, whereas in QM global meaning generally determines some partial meanings. At the same time, classical meanings are non-ambiguous and sharp, whereas global meanings in QM are intrinsically vague, because they leave semantically undecided many relevant properties of the objects under investigation, and partial meanings might be (and generally speaking are) vaguer than global ones. In classical physics it would have no sense to summing up virtual states — different maximal pieces of information — in order to find out an actual state, because an actual state is just an element of the class of the possible states (or, speaking more generally, the set of all actual objects is a classical proper subset — with no fuzzy borders — of the class of all possible objects). By contrast, this is the case in QT, where an actual state is generally represented as asuperposition of pure, virtual states. Suppose that $C, C_1, C_2$ correspond to three possible states of a quantum object. What might a sum having the form $C = C_1 + C_2$ mean? Basically, such a sum represents a kind of “interlacement” between real and potential properties of the object described by $C$. So for instance, in QM the final path of an electron can be written as a sum over all possible paths between the initial and final points (“Feynman’s paths integral formulation”, developed in 1948 by Richard Feynman on the basis of Dirac’s theory).

Nevertheless, given the lack of a specific phenomenological language in QM, classical tools can and be used to capture some of the quantum-theoretical features of a given case. In order to illustrate his own approach, Feynman exposed in his Lectures on Physics (vol. III) this semi-classical situation: “To try to understand the quantum behavior of electrons, we shall compare and contrast their behavior, in a particular experimental setup, with the more familiar behavior of particles like bullets” shot by a machine gun. In doing so, Feynman arbitrarily idealizes some of the (classical) properties of the experimental setup in order to describe certain quantum-mechanical features. So for instance he notices that the machine gun he employs “is not a very good gun, in that it sprays the bullets (randomly) over a fairly large angular spread”; the bullets “are not real bullets, but are indestructible bullets — they cannot break in half”, and so on.

We will argue that, in doing so, Feynman provides an example of “analogical transfer of a vocabulary in another”, adopting classical linguistic tools as metaphors for quantum theoretical descriptions. On the one hand, this places Feynman in the wake of the remarkable tradition of the 19th-century model-based physics; on the other hand, it also points out a peculiar feature of using metaphors in science: they not only serve as descriptions of events,
but may also suggest new insights and interpretations (as in the case of Feynman’s paths integral formulation). So metaphors may also have a heuristic import.
METAPHORS IN ACADEMIC LANGUAGE

DEVELOPING CRITICAL THINKING IN ACADEMIC WRITING THROUGH ELICITED METAPHOR-ORIENTED ACTIVITIES

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Cultivating learners’ critical thinking has long been viewed as a key objective in higher education in many countries of the world (Hashemi & Ghanizadeh, 2012; Lun, Fischer & Ward, 2010). Many different approaches have been adopted by researchers to develop participants’ critical thinking skills generally in education. One that has been repeatedly claimed to be effective involves using elicited metaphor; participants are required to explain their beliefs and concepts relating to various academic practices via metaphorical conceptualisation (e.g., Wan et al., 2011; Zapata & Lacorte, 2007). The hope is that the metaphor-oriented intervention can elicit a sense of engagement on the part of the participants and that this will in turn lead to increased critical awareness, help them identify advantages and problems with a particular conceptualisation, and ultimately persuade them to make some sort of changes to their thought patterns and/or associated behaviours (Low, 2008). However, while there appears to be a broad consensus about the value of eliciting one’s metaphor as an effective means of helping participants think critically about their teaching and/or learning at a general level (Leavy et al., 2007), much less attention has been paid to its potential for cultivating critical thinking skills relating to academic literacy (Hart, 2009), and particularly to writing in a second or foreign language (L2) context.

The present study seeks to add to current research on the usefulness of elicited metaphor, whereby researchers attempt to enhance students’ critical thinking skills in L2 writing contexts. The study is an interim report of a one-year longitudinal project started in the context of a credit-bearing English writing module at a southern university in China. 40 Chinese third-year undergraduate students enrolled in the programme of English are asked to conceptualise their beliefs about academic English writing through a ‘think-of-one or more metaphors’ task, and share and discuss personal metaphors for writing in group discussions. This study is primarily based on four sources of qualitative data: students’ responses to a metaphor elicitation task, participants’ written reports, in-depth interviews, and classroom observations.

The study investigates the effect of engaging participants in the set of elicited metaphor-based activities on the development of their critical thinking skills, and explores in what ways the activities involved might have helped improve their academic writing.

References


Metaphor is found particularly pervasive in academic discourse compared with other registers such as conversation, literature and news (Steen et al., 2010). However, the topic of metaphor in academic discourse is less covered in literature except for university lectures (Littlemore, 2001; Low et al., 2008), for instance, there is little known about how metaphor occurs and functions in academic consultations. This research will try to contribute to the discussion by focusing on the register of office hours.

As an exploratory study, this research focuses on one particular metaphor—MOVEMENT metaphor (e.g., comes into, backwards-forwards) (Cameron & Maslen, 2010) or in a broader context EVENT STRUCTURE metaphor (Johnson, 1993). This metaphor has been chosen with the consideration that motor concepts have been argued as image schematic and as fundamental embodied experiences which give rise to more abstract concepts (Johnson, 1987) and thus would predict the salience of MOVEMENT metaphor in academic discourse.

This research investigates how the patterns and functions of MOVEMENT metaphors differ in lecturer and student discourse by a corpus analytical approach. The corpus used in this study is MICASE (Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English). The transcripts of 12 office hours with a total length of 886 minutes will be analyzed. This research first identifies MOVEMENT lexis out of 124,353 words by using an automatic semantic annotation tool—Wmatrix (Rayson, 2009). Given the large data size, the operational definition of MOVEMENT lexis (including metaphorical cases and literal cases) follows the semantic field tag “M-- Movement, location, travel and transport” assigned by Wmatrix. The metaphor coding follows MIPVU procedure (Steen et al., 2010).

This research reports on quantitative and qualitative differences between lecturers’ and native English speaking students’ use of MOVEMENT metaphor: (1) the keyness analysis of MOVEMENT domain compared with reference corpus (BNC, COCA, Santa Barbara Corpus of Spoken American English); (2) The frequencies (and row percentages) of eight types of Movement lexis divided by metaphorical and non-metaphorical use; (3) the quantity of MOVEMENT lexis (metaphor vs. non-metaphorical) in lecturer versus student discourse; (4) the range/variety of MOVEMENT lexis (metaphor vs. non-metaphorical) in their discourse.

References
METAPHORS IN ACADEMIC LANGUAGE

METAPHORS IN ACADEMIC LEGAL DISCOURSE: THE CASE OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE

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Research into metaphor across discourse types shows that different discourse communities tend to rely on a set of different metaphorical sets in conceptualising phenomena. Recent studies on linguistic metaphorical patterns have increasingly focused on the language of science and academia and have revealed that scientific discourse is inclined to a very high degree of metaphoricity (Deignan, 2005; Herrmann, 2013; Semino et al., 2009, Steen et al. 2010). However, academic discourse itself is extremely diverse and may vary greatly in metaphoricity depending on a specific sphere that it deals with, for example, medicine, biology, linguistics or any other scientific fields. Thus studies dealing with metaphors in different sub-fields of the academic community may reveal their specificity in terms of metaphorical language and underlying conceptualisation.

Legal discourse is one of the fields that has received less attention in metaphor studies. Certainly, there have been quite a few studies of legal language in terms of metaphor and they have focussed on a variety of aspects such as metaphor’s persuasive power in legal discourse (Berger, 2004, 2007; Charteris-Black, 2005), metaphors in specific legal documents such as commercial contracts (Twardzisz, 2011) or policy documents (Armstrong, 2009), whereas some researchers applied experimental methodologies trying to see how metaphor shapes people’s perception of crime (Thibodeau & Boroditsky, 2011). However, there is still much room for extensive analyses of the metaphorical patterns in such a broad and diverse discipline as law. The present paper attempts to research field-specific metaphors in English and Lithuanian research articles dealing with issues of criminal justice and identify the key metaphorical patterns structuring such discourse. The study has been conducted within the framework of the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (see Lakoff and Johnson 1980/2003) and the metaphor identification procedure as suggested by the Pragglejaz Group and elaborated by researchers at the University of Amsterdam (see Steen et al. 2010). Preliminary results of the small-scale study carried out demonstrate that written academic legal discourse relies heavily on such metaphors as LEGAL DOCUMENT IS A CONTAINER, (ACADEMIC) DISCOURSE IS SPACE and LAW IS AN OBJECT, as well as personification manifesting mostly in metaphorical expressions through combinability patterns of nouns referring to non-human entities used with agentive verbs. Although at the conceptual level the metaphorical patterns in academic discourse of criminology tend to be very similar in both English and Lithuanian articles, their linguistic realisation shows some culture-specific differences.

References


Cross-linguistic research is of special relevance to any linguistic theory which aims at some kind of general, universal validity. It is therefore not surprising that cross-linguistic empirical research inspired by Lakoff and Johnson’s conceptual metaphor theory (1980) has increased considerably in the last decades (see. e.g. Barcelona & Soriano 2004; Boers & Stengers 2008; Deignan & Potter 2004; Charteris-Black 2003; Simó 2011). However, a closer look reveals that the number of comparative studies or studies concerning languages other than English is still limited when compared to the large amount of contributions on English. In addition, most of these studies are concerned with a limited number of source or target domains, such as those of emotions (see e.g. Soriano 2003), body parts (Deignan & Potter 2004; Charteris-Black 2003), or specific lexical items (Stefanowitsch 2004); furthermore, results are not always comparable and generalizable, due to differences in methodology and aim of research.

In my presentation I will discuss the results of a corpus-based comparative study of metaphor and metonymy in academic language in Dutch and Italian. The analysis is based on the combination of two ad hoc comparable corpora in the two languages, composed of texts within various humanistic disciplines, such as history, psychology, linguistics, literature. The items, selected from the two small corpora, are additionally checked with the help of larger corpora (Cameron and Deignan 2003).

The main problem I found myself confronted with in this comparison is the objective measurement of what I call the ‘metaphoric closeness’, between the two languages. Metaphoric closeness is determined by a number of factors, the more important ones being the presence of shared ‘universal’ metaphoric/metonymic mappings between domains, their overall transparency and the formal similarities between the two languages. I will take into account conceptual mappings in specific domains such as time and history, knowledge, linguistic action and address theoretical issues such as that of ‘universality’ (Kövecses 2000; Neumann 2001), and ‘primary’ metaphorical mappings (Grady 1998). I will also pay attention to the methodological problems often discussed within mainstream metaphor studies: issues such as the validation of conceptual metaphors (Low 1999), the steps from linguistic to conceptual metaphors (Steen 1999; Pragglejaz Group 2007; Steen et al. 2010), and the use of dictionaries in linguistic metaphor identification (Krennmayr 2008; 2013).

References


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THE USE OF METAPHOR IN A CORPUS OF ACADEMIC CONVERSATIONS IN ENGLISH AS LINGUA FRANCA

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The recent development of a corpus of academic conversations between Spanish Erasmus students and their lecturers at universities in four different European countries (MacArthur et al.f.c) is likely to prove useful not only for researchers interested in the use of metaphor in academic discourse but also for those investigating the role of metaphor in intercultural communication generally. In the corpus, which consists of 27 transcripts of office hours’ consultations (c. 60,000 words), English is being used as academic lingua franca, a context of use which differs in important ways from others previously investigated by scholars interested in academic discourse (e.g. Steen et al 2010, Herrmann 2013 ). In this talk, we present the results yielded by the quantitative analysis of metaphor use in these conversations. Perhaps unsurprisingly, the density of metaphors in relation to the overall number of words used is higher than that found in other types of conversational data (e.g. Cameron & Stelma 2007), as well as being different from that found in other types of spoken academic discourse (for example, lectures given by staff at British universities [Low et al 2008]). Furthermore, the systematic use of metaphors drawing on particular source domains, such as SIGHT (MacArthur, Krennmayr & Littlemore 2013) contrasts with other studies of metaphor use in educational settings or in scientific discourse generally (Cameron 2003, Goschler 2005). More interesting, from the point of view of the role of metaphor in intercultural communication, is the difference found between the distribution of the metaphors used by the different participants in the conversations recorded, which is found to be related more closely to participant status (lecturer versus student) than to other variables, such as proficiency in the L2 or the total number of words spoken by each participant. In these conversations, the control of the topic of discourse by the more powerful participant results also in control of the metaphors used, with little use or development of these or other metaphor vehicles by the student participants. The asymmetry of this type of academic conversation generally (Limberg 2010) is thus reflected in the asymmetry of participants’ use of metaphor. We will discuss these findings in relation to the functions of office hours’ consultations in undergraduate studies, and their implications for students preparing for a period of study at another European university.

References


In this talk we discuss the metaphors used by thirteen UK-based hospice managers to describe what they see as ‘good’ and ‘bad’ deaths in the course of semi-structured interviews. The interviews were conducted as part of the ESRC-funded project Metaphor in End-of-Life Care (grant number: ES/J007927/1), and need to be set against the background of contemporary practices and discourses around end-of-life care, dying and quality of death in the United Kingdom. On the basis of the application of the Pragglejaz Group’s (2007) Metaphor Identification Procedure, it was found that the difference between good and bad deaths is partly expressed in the interviews via contrasting metaphors. A good death involves being in the ‘place’ one wishes to be (both literally and metaphorically), being ‘at peace/peaceful’, being ‘symptom/pain free’, having ‘open’ conversations with family members, and ‘accepting’ death as the ‘end’ of one’s ‘journey’. A bad death involves lack of ‘acceptance’, ‘pushing away’ professional help, and problems ‘in the background’ or in a ‘place’ inside the patient that hospice staff are not allowed to ‘reach’. Patients who experience a bad death are described as seeing death as an opponent against which to ‘struggle’, ‘battle’ or ‘fight’ in order to ‘keep going’. In descriptions of bad deaths, metaphors are also used to express the consequences of the patient’s attitude for relatives and hospice staff.

In both good death and bad death responses, metaphors are used to evaluate different ways of dying, and to support the interviewees’ general arguments for the role of hospices and hospice staff in facilitating good deaths and avoiding bad deaths. In addition, metaphors for end-of-life and dying were found to be more frequent, varied and elaborate in descriptions of bad deaths. This is consistent with Cameron’s (2013) hypothesis that metaphor ‘favours the negative’. More specifically, in our data descriptions of bad deaths are more sensitive and emotional than descriptions of good deaths, and often involve criticisms of the attitudes of the patients themselves. Metaphors are used to express these difficult notions and critical views more tactfully and indirectly than would otherwise be the case. To conclude, we reflect on how the evaluations and framings provided by the metaphors in our data support a very consistent set of professional views and judgements, which may potentially preclude alternative perspectives.

References
In this paper, we investigate the use of violence metaphors by healthcare professionals in the U.K. end-of-life care context. For this study, we define a prototypical violence scenario as one in which a human agent intentionally causes harm to another human, where weapons may or may not be involved. Less prototypical scenarios may be limited to threats or consequences of violence, or include non-human participants.

To identify metaphorical violence scenarios in the language use of healthcare professionals in end-of-life care, we conducted a semi-automated semantic analysis of just over 250,000 words of online forum threads, medical blogs and comments on articles, all of which were retrieved from the British Medical Journal website. The analysis utilised the USAS semantic tagger (part of the web-based Wmatrix software; Rayson et al. 2004), and involved the concordancing of semantic tags such as ‘warfare’, ‘violent/angry’ and ‘damaging and destroying’, all of which can be subsumed under violence. The subsequent manual analysis of the concordance lines applied the Metaphor Identification Procedure (Pragglejaz, 2007) to find relevant metaphoric expressions. These were then grouped into metaphor scenarios to see how healthcare professionals talk about, and potentially conceptualise, end-of-life care in a particular communicative context.

Our results show that healthcare professionals mainly use violence metaphors to talk about their profession as involving a fight against disease, illness and death, with some extended metaphors that draw on the source domain of warfare and the military (e.g. ‘We are in the Army … and the army is the battalion of medicine with the foe being all things that contrive to sink the ship of each of us’). In addition, violence metaphors are used to acknowledge the patient’s ‘battle’ against disease. Interestingly, healthcare professionals also use relevant metaphors to self-critically refer to their communication with terminally ill patients and their families (e.g. ‘bombarding [the patient] with possible outcomes’). Finally, healthcare professionals also position themselves as being at the receiving end of metaphorically violent but unnamed external forces that obstruct the provision of optimal end-of-life care (e.g. ‘The army needs some boots and bullets and has had savage cuts already’).

Finally, we discuss how the use of violence metaphors by healthcare professionals compares with the metaphor scenarios used by other stakeholders in the end-of-life care context, i.e. patients and family carers, and reflect on the practical implications of the similarities and differences for end-of-life care provision.

References

Acknowledgement
This research is part of the ESRC-funded project Metaphor in End-of-Life Care (grant number: ES/J007927/1).
The shifting and dynamic nature of the illness and political conflict domains is expressed in the richness of discourse from these domains. The extensive set of forms of metaphorical expression in such discourse directly reflects this richness, as has long been observed (Downing & Mujic 2009, Skelton et al. 2002). For researchers investigating such phenomena, questions arise about what representations would be adequate to capture this richness, and which should be employed by those studying such metaphorical phenomena. Lacking appropriate representations can severely hamper such research, particularly within corpus-based and computational linguistics.

This paper presents ongoing work, which aims to automatically detect and generate metaphor from the illness and political conflict domains. This project involves deep processing of metaphor using an artificial intelligence approach, requiring richer representations than are currently provided by comparable work. We will present here our attempts to address such resource needs for our own project, as well as to make these resources available to the wider community of metaphor researchers.

As part of such resource-building efforts, we are constructing a corpus of metaphors in illness and political conflict discourse that incorporates richer representations than those of previous approaches. We annotate corpora with both conceptual and linguistic information, and utilize such information in the identification of metaphor within the texts making up these corpora. Further, such information can be re-deployed in guiding the output of generation toward using the most naturally seeming forms of expression for metaphor. We have collected texts from online forums discussing illness, and from those involving debates about politically controversial topics. We then annotate these corpora for conceptual and linguistic information, drawing on a range of novel and existing software tools to carry out this annotation task, including computational tools from the areas of metaphor detection (Florou 2013, Shutova et al. 2010), and cognitive linguistics (e.g. Embodied Construction Grammar, Oliva et al. 2013).

In this paper, we will discuss our progress in developing the approach, as well as our most recent efforts to carry out evaluation of our system’s capacity to find and produce metaphor in illness and political conflict discourse.

References
METAPHORS IN ILLNESS DISCOURSE

METAPHOR AND EMPATHY IN THE DISCOURSE OF BATTERED WOMEN AND MEDIATORS

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Many aspects associated with intimate partner violence (IPV) have been discussed by many different areas, however, IPV investigation lacks linguistic approach. This article examines police reports made by women, victims of IPV and analyzes how empathy is constructed in discourses recorded in police report sessions. Given the fact that it is during those social interaction sessions that victims and police officers have a chance of sharing empathic attitudes towards the perpetrator, our focus was to understand the relationship between cognition and language, considering that empathy can be defined as an activity that seeks to understand the feeling and thinking of others through their perspective (CAMERON, 2010) and that it may require complex cognitive abilities to understand another’s behavior and intentions. The approach lies in the field of Cognitive Linguistics and seeks to work within a discourse dynamic approach (CAMERON; MASLEN, 2010) to track metaphors as they appear and shift across conversations, looking for how the participants react to each other’s metaphors. In other terms, in the process of elaborating police reports, we will analyze whether the participants reject, share or offer alternatives to the other’s empathic attitudes through the use of metaphors. Having said that, after recording police report sessions held at a local police station (located in Fortaleza, Brazil), we aim to examine the emergence of emphatic understanding through metaphor towards the Other in the discourse of battered women and police officers, as well as investigate how the police officers discourse contribute to the construction of empathy in the victims. The analysis begins with finding linguistic metaphors (metaphor vehicles) in the transcribed data (using Atlas.it), which are next gathered into metaphor families or categories and organized according to the basic meanings of the vehicle terms. For instance, a group named JORNEY can include metaphorical descriptions of the female victim coming to terms with the violent events she went through, such as the end of the journey, come along that long journey, reaching a conclusion, one step at a time (CAMERON; MASLEN, 2010). As a further research step systematic metaphors, which stand for a set of connected linguistic metaphors that are used at a particular time and in a particular discourse context, will be compiled in order to help answer the question: how is metaphor used to describe the dynamics of discourse and the emergency of empathy towards aggressors in police report sessions between victims and police officers? Overall, this research intends to show how metaphors can offer participants ways of expressing feelings towards the Other by gestures of empathy (CAMERON, 2011) and to be used as a research tool to investigate the discourse data from spoken interaction.
METAPHORS IN ILLNESS DISCOURSE

USES AND MISUSES OF METAPHOR IN HEALTH EDUCATION: THE EXAMPLE OF TWO CHILDREN’S COMICS ON TUBERCULOSIS PREVENTION

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This talk uses the example of two comics about tuberculosis targeted at children in the developing world in order to identify some of the different types and possible (mis-)uses of multimodal metaphor in health education. Both comics use a football metaphor to frame their central messages, but, as my analysis will show, they differ substantially with regard to both the specific underlying mappings of this metaphor and how it is combined with other metaphors.

My main argument will be that metaphors in health campaigns can be distinguished in terms of a) how novel they are, b) the extent to which they enable the target audience to draw on their own embodied experience, and c) whether they are internally and externally coherent. I consider a metaphor to be internally coherent if the transfer of meaning it invites from one area of reality to another makes logical and/or intuitive sense, and externally coherent if it accords with any other metaphors in the immediate co-text (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Semino, 2008; Stockwell, 2002).

One of the most common findings to have emerged from a large number of evaluative studies of mediated health education is that such campaigns are typically able to increase awareness and, sometimes, knowledge and understanding of a particular health issue, but that the desired changes in attitude and behaviour are more difficult to achieve (Snyder, 2001). I will suggest that some types of metaphor may be more helpful than others in supporting these different goals, or stages, of a health campaign.

References

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON METAPHORS

COMMUNICATING FLEXIBLY WITH METAPHOR: A REPLACEMENT-COMPOUNDING-STRENGTHENING COMPLEX

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The compounding of different metaphorical conceptions of a target is an important contemporary research topic (Gibbs, forthcoming). However, we must recognize that compounding is embedded within a complex of related communicative phenomena that includes less studied phenomena such as metaphor replacement and metaphor strengthening. Metaphor replacement is where one metaphorical conception of a target is fully rejected in favour of another, as in (R) “Libraries aren't supermarkets; they're places ... where magic happens and where dreams begin.” (Example (R) and the others below are from real discourse.)

An example of compounding is (C) a lengthy blog text where we find “Afghanistan is Vietnam,” then later “But Afghanistan is not simply like Vietnam” because “Afghanistan is Yugoslavia,” then “But Afghanistan is not simply like Yugoslavia,” etc., adding Colombia and then Somalia. The metaphors connect the situations metonymically referenced via the countries. The text applies the different metaphorical conceptions cumulatively -- none is replaced by others.

An example of strengthening is (S) “When the wind blew, it was not merely like someone breathing: it was the breath of a god.” The specification of the breath as being that of a god strengthens the evaluative content, for example.

Replacement, compounding and strengthening are strongly related. Thus, I will argue that we should take an integrated approach rather than tackling them separately. The relationships form a tangled web. Some are as follows.

(a) Strengthening can technically be regarded as a special form of replacement: a conception is replaced by a strengthened version, But strengthening can involve replacement in a deeper sense. If, in analysing (S), we take a god to be very different from a person, the qualitative type of breath is replaced, although the overall effect is to strengthen the positive evaluation of the wind's blowing.

(b) In compounding, there is a varying degree of need to replace parts of some of the conceptions by parts of others, because of clashes. Conceivably, in suitable contexts the Afghanistan situation could be consistently viewed as similar to both Vietnam and Cambodia. But normally there will be some perceived clash, requiring partial replacements.

(c) Compounding can generate strengthening, because the different conceptions can all address some common concern about the target. For example, Afghanistan might be understood as involving a more severe form of a particular problem than Vietnam, Somalia, etc. do individually.

These and other links will be analysed and an integrated approach outlined.
THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON METAPHORS

HISTORICAL DYNAMICS APPROACH TO METAPHOR

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The present paper looks at metaphor in communication, in particular, how metaphor spreads from one user/mind to another over time. It combines cognitive and social aspects of metaphor evolution and employs corpus methodology to investigate it. Historical Dynamics Approach to Metaphor (HDAM) implements the framework of evolutionary linguistics, successfully applied to phonological change (Ritt 2004), to study how metaphors emerge in language use, how they spread through communication, and how and why they achieve (or fail to achieve) stability in historically developing speaker populations. Croft (2006) claims that language evolution takes place in two stages: innovation and propagation. Innovation is defined as “‘functional’, in that it arises from the relationship between linguistic form and its meaning or function” (p. 124), while propagation is social. This paper specifically focuses on the propagation stage and analyses frequencies of metaphorically used expressions (cf. Stefanowitsch’s MPA (2006)).

As within evolutionary linguistics the replicating competence constituents (here the conceptual metaphors) are characterised by longevity, fecundity and copying fidelity we need to operationalize these notions in corpus linguistic terms. Fecundity is understood as the frequency of metaphorical linguistic expressions; longevity – evidence of continuous use of metaphorical linguistics expressions while copying fidelity is related to the number of linguistics expressions expressing the same conceptual mapping (but see the reservations of Zinken (2007) about subsuming various linguistic representations under the same mapping). In a pilot study employing the COHA data on the metaphor MIGRATION IS MOVEMENT OF WATER the competition between two metaphorical patterns: (1) movement of migrants is flow of water and (2) migrants are a reservoir (of cheap labour) has been investigated. A correlation between relative frequencies of use and the selected historical events has been observed. We interpret it to be evidence of the influence of selectional restrictions (here: socio-political and economic context) exerted on the fecundity of specific patterns of use, favouring the replication of the best-fit metaphor.

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THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON METAPHORS

SYNAESTHETIC METAPHOR AND MULTISENSORY LEARNING IN TERTIARY EDUCATION

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In this paper I will discuss the inherent links between synaesthetic metaphor and tertiary education, drawing on both my doctoral research in synaesthesia and poetics, and my experience as a lecturer and academic adviser at the University of Western Australia. Synaesthesia is defined by the OED as “the production of a sense impression relating to one sense or part of the body by stimulation of another sense or part of the body.” While synaesthesia as a condition is not overly common, recent research on the subject suggests that all humans have a universal synaesthetic capacity which begins at birth, when perception is thought to be synaesthetic in nature. The idea of a universal synaesthetic capacity is certainly not implausible; synaesthetic metaphors such as 'sharp cheese' and 'warm colour' appear widely in English. The concept has ramifications for development and learning, not only in early childhood but continuing into adolescence and adulthood.

In this paper I will highlight the relevance of this universal synaesthetic capacity to some of the issues that we are currently facing in higher education, particularly the shift toward digital and online communication, and the growing popularity of MOOCs (Massive Open Online Courses) and online learning. I will show how a consideration of the synaesthetic metaphors which structure our everyday experiences can help us to find creative ways of approaching these issues. Technologies such as touch-screens and sensory substitution devices are highlighting the inter-sensorial nature of our experience. Similarly, the language we use for digital and online navigation is grounded in haptic and kinaesthetic metaphors (visiting a website, surfing the web), which emphasise the centrality of the senses as a mechanism for exploring and knowing. By understanding learning as a sensory and inter-sensory experience, and investigating creative and interactive methods of teaching which cater to this, we will be able to actively engage and inspire students in an increasingly technology-driven academic world.
THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON METAPHORS

METAPHOR AND NARRATIVE AS TOOLS FOR THOUGHT AND ACTION

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Cindie Aaen Maagaard, University of Southern Denmark, Denmark
Rasmus Kjærgård Ramsussen, Roskilde University, Denmark

This presentation is a part of an ongoing project on the implementation of a Corporate Social Responsibility project referred to as “Company Karma” in the global organization Thornico. We use the case as a point of departure for analyzing how the inter-relationships between metaphors and narratives are used in sense-making processes in an organizational context. Our data stems from the organization’s “Company Karma” CSR report and film from the philanthropic project referred to as “Change the World through Sport”. In our analysis, we identify patterns of metaphors within the texts, which we trace as they take dynamic form through transformation into brief, fragmented antenarratives (Boje, 2001) and fully developed narratives (Herman, 2003).

The data reveals a number of tensions in the presentation of the business philosophy of “karma,” between processes of interconnectedness on the one hand, and forces that divide on the other. These tensions are found at the core of the narratives that unfold in the film projects, and may point to Company Karma as a source of conflicting messages that create tension in relation to employee acceptance.

Our theoretical framework centers primarily on cognitive understandings of metaphor and narrative. According to conceptual metaphor theory, metaphors have a linguistic dimension, but are primarily conceptual; metaphors are claimed to describe central processes and structures of human thought. Linguistic metaphors are in this perspective seen as surface manifestations of metaphorical thinking (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Narrative, as a cognitive tool, is incorporated “into a wide array of practices [...] as a problem-solving strategy in many contexts. In that sense, narrative functions as a basic tool for thinking, enabling users of stories to produce and interpret literary texts, carry out spontaneous conversations, make sense of news reports, create and assess medical case histories, and provide testimony in court” (Herman, 2003:163).

Accordingly, where linguistic metaphors can be seen as more or less paradigmatic static conceptions, conceptual metaphors are cognitive ‘anchors’ or foundations from which narrative emerges and unfolds into temporal progressions which include series of events. In light of our analysis, we argue that the transformation from static to dynamic through narrative can enable employees and other stakeholders to understand (Czarniawska, 2008), and perhaps also “live out” the policies that their organization attempts to implement (Kuhn, 2006), as they conceptualize striving for goals as part of realizing organizational changes. We further argue that such policies engender performativity and in turn become constitutive in the organizing process (see Ashcraft, et al. 2009).

References


THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON METAPHORS

DYNAMIC MEANING CONSTRUCTION IN METAPHOR CLUSTERS:
ATTRACTION, FRAMING AND SCENARIOS?

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In this paper I outline the main types of metaphors involved in the description and communication of affective states in the Smith Journal of ‘The Unabridged Journals of Sylvia Plath’. I examine metaphor clusters to see how the interaction of different source domains can be discussed to account for the meanings constructed by the collective. The MIP procedure (Pragglejaz, 2007) is used for initial metaphor vehicle identification, followed by a zooming out to consider individual linguistic metaphors in each other’s context.

It will be shown that Plath used metaphor more frequently and more diversely in her description of negative affective states than positive ones. This seems to be consistent with Cameron’s (2013) negativity hypothesis that metaphor tends to be used more in negative constructions, scenarios and experiences.

In addition, I will discuss the interaction of vehicle terms in extended clusters of metaphor. For example, in to feel his mind soaring, reaching, and mine caged, crying, impotent, self-reviling, Plath describes a negative state of mind. Although this is a small section of a longer cluster of metaphors, I argue that the full meaning of even this example is not easily reconstructed on a vehicle-by-vehicle basis, especially when the topic in question is as complex as affective states. Instead, one should discuss the interaction between and among the vehicle terms: the constructed metaphor scenario involves Plath’s mind as participant in a contrastive relationship with his mind as participant: her mind immobile while his moves great distances. This initial contrast frames the entire cluster facilitating a contrastive interpretation of impotent and self-reviling as simultaneously passive and in the process of attack. The combination of impotent with enforced immobility (caged) suggests a sense of helplessness, and crying, although it may have several interpretations, is in this case attracted into this helplessness scenario by its close proximity to impotent. In addition, the potential interpretation crying as representative of anger is also brought to the fore by the proximity to self-reviling, while other meaning, such as sadness, remain backgrounded. The notions of scenarios, in the sense of ‘mini-narratives’ (Musolff, 2006; Semino 2008), framing and attraction (Cameron and Low, 2004) among others will be discussed as particularly helpful in describing these interactions.

References


CONCEPTUAL MODELS AS INSTANTIATED IN PRC SPEECHES CONCERNING TAIWAN

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One issue in the study of political discourse is how to identify ideology in text. And one way to structure the ideological contrast between a hard-lined and less threatening language is to use Lakoff’s (1996/2002) Strict Father (SF) Model and Nurturant Parent (NP) Model, where morality is either understood as strength and authority, or nurturance and empathy. In a previous study, Ahrens (2011) examined US presidential speeches and demonstrated that by looking into the frequency of lexemes related to the SF/NP models, such a contrast can be empirically examined, and language use can be evaluated. However, few studies ever attempted to extend the two models to other political contexts, e.g., Mainland China, where the nation is often construed as a family under the influence of a hybrid Communist/Confucianist ideology (Flowerdew & Leong, 2007).

In this paper, therefore, we argue for a potential extension of these models to the cross-strait relations between Mainland China and Taiwan, and particularly examine the political discourse of People’s Republic of China (PRC) concerning Taiwan from 2003 to 2008, when the cross-strait relations rapidly deteriorated due to the Republic of China’s (ROC, the government in Taiwan) pro-independence policy against PRC’s political goal to “reunify” China.

By using Ahrens’ (2011) methodology for a quantitative analysis, we find lexical frequency patterns in PRC speeches suggest interesting ideological biases: While the language appears more hard-lined in speeches addressing the government of the Republic of China and the Mainland Chinese people, a mitigated attitude is shown in speeches addressing the Taiwanese people. In particular, (1) PRC speeches addressing the ROC government contain more SF lexemes than NP lexemes and a similar tendency is observed in speeches addressing the Chinese people, (2) the proportion of NP lexemes as compared to SF lexemes is higher especially in speeches addressing the Taiwanese people, and (3) there are the fewest SF lexemes in speeches addressing the Taiwanese people, and the fewest NP lexemes in speeches addressing the ROC government.

In all, this study reveals how PRC’s political goal for the reunification of China can be reflected in the operation of Lakoff’s (1996/2002) Strict Father Model and Nurturant Parent Model. Moreover, as Ahrens (2011) points out, besides metaphor identification, lexical frequency patterns based on subtle differences in lexeme choice may reveal ideological biases and evidence the underlying conceptual models in political discourse.

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This study investigates how speakers employ speech and manual gestures when facing the communicative challenge of talking about a subject matter that represents a taboo in their culture(s). So far only little research has been done on the use of speech and spontaneous gestures in discourse on taboo topics (e.g. Kita 2009). Research focusing on verbal behavior suggests that mainly socially accepted aspects of a taboo topic are profiled for communicative purposes (Lanza 2002).

This study is based on a corpus (Rekittke 2012) consisting of multimodal discourse data in English and Luganda (the language of the Baganda clan in Uganda). Thirty bilingual native speakers of Luganda and Ugandan English were asked to retell in each language an original Ugandan short film featuring human actors to a naive interlocutor of their community. The movie revolves around the issue of adultery which does not have the same taboo status across all social groups (Luchtenberg 1999). Accordingly, the discourse strategies to be presented in the paper not only exhibit varying degrees of explicitness in the speech, but also varying degrees of iconicity, or schematicity, in the gestures.

First, we demonstrate how metonymic principles may operationalize different kinds of contiguity relations in gestures (Jakobson & Pomorska 1987; Mittelberg & Waugh in press). Profiling inner contiguity relations of an action, person or object affords different levels of abstraction (internal metonymy). Drawing on outer contiguity relations between elements/persons in a scene – or gesturing hands and the virtual objects or places they indicate – allows for indirect reference (external metonymy). Second, we present results of an image-schema analysis (Cienki 2005; Mittelberg 2013) of the minimal gestural forms and movements alluding to tabooed actions, and lay out how they correlate with explicit, unspecific, or metaphorical verbal descriptions.

In particular, we identified: 1) gestures focusing on the process character of the action described through bimanual circular rotation (CYCLE; Ladewig 2010) or horizontal lines drawn in the air (PATH), while the accompanied speech referred to acts (e.g. 'in the course of the act') or contained more specific metaphors (e.g. 'preparing a meal'). 2) Palm-up open hand gestures (Müller 2004) conveying the idea of disclosure or obviousness (SUPPORT, SURFACE, RELEASE) accompanying straightforward descriptions (e.g. 'having sex') or paraphrases (e.g. 'doing their things'). 3) Very general verbal expressions co-occurring with gestures evoking the idea of inclusion/exclusion (e.g. CONTAINER; BOUNDARY). 4) Locations and relations of the actors were indicated via deictic gestures, e.g. on the mention of 'cheating'.

References
The entrenchment of metaphors in our conceptual system and languages is often part of metaphor theories: some metaphors seem to have lost their obvious metaphoricity and are treated as literal statements. Yet, what exactly entrenchment is remains somewhat vague, underexplored in at least one respect: its process. Work on metaphors which are de facto entrenched—e.g., whether entrenched rather than innovative metaphors are properly considered 'alive' or 'dead', and the relative importance of entrenched metaphors in our conceptual-linguistic practices—generally glosses over the process by which an individual metaphor transitions from being creative to entrenched.

I put forward such a process-oriented account of metaphor entrenchment, for scientific practice. To this end, I first summarize my view of metaphors functioning in scientific practice: metaphors offer a highly context-dependent message and a somewhat less context-dependent perspective. Correspondingly, they have a dual function: expressive and exploratory or tool-like, respectively.

I then argue that the process of entrenchment is an epistemic-ontological attitude shift explained by a shift in our practical attention. The metaphor's perspective on its primary subject—the scientific object—induces empirical and conceptual work, such as modelling and experimenting. Such metaphor-based activity cumulatively diverts attention away from the metaphor's original message. Results of such activity effectively redefine what is supposedly central about the scientific object.

More specifically, though research from a metaphor-induced perspective does not deal in natural kinds, we are led to attribute our findings to the scientific object, inattentive to the influence of the perspective. Recent experiments suggest similar eclipses of the metaphor's tool-like nature: empirical and conceptual explorations come to be perceived as justifying, rather than simply prompting or causing, the ontological redefinition of the scientific object. This dynamics, arising from conceptual and empirical exploration, underlies the shift in epistemic-ontological attitude toward the metaphor: from seeming useful to seeming truthful.

I present case-work on 'financial ecosystems' supporting my account, thus offering a material (rather than formal-epistemological) characterization of metaphor-based scientific reasoning. Finally, I argue that understanding entrenchment as a process opens up much-needed possibilities for reflexive criticism of metaphors, uncovering what is at issue in our perceptions and judgments. Such reflexivity is necessary: as metaphors are at the heart of our conceptual and linguistic practices, our worldview and self-understanding are at stake.
INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY OF THE (METAPHOR OF THE) DNA

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Ordinary citizens, journalists and lawyers are faced with issues that concern DNA: patentability of the genome, GMO safety and so on. Given the lack of specific biological expertise, these questions are addressed using metaphors, however used also by experts. What is the influence of these metaphors on decisions about DNA?

1. Conceptual Metaphors
The background of this research is the cognitive linguistic and the theory of cognitive metaphor developed by George Lakoff (On cognitive linguistic and linguistic categorization, see Taylor, 2003 and Croft and Cruse, 2004. The theory of Lakoff is exposed, for example, in Lakoff and Johnson, 1980.). In brief, the nature of metaphor is not linguistic, but cognitive: the conceptual frame of the source is mapped on the conceptual frame of the target. So in the metaphor "love is a journey" the target frame (love) is reorganized with the structure of the source frame (journey), highlighting some aspects (i.e. the existence of a destination, the badness of monotony) and hiding others (i.e. the passion of love relation, highlighted by other metaphors, like "love is a physical force"). The theory of Lakoff is asymmetrical: the mapping takes place from source to target, and not the reverse. In this aspect the blending theory, developed by Mark Turner and Gilles Fauconnier (see Turner and Fauconnier, 2002), is more elaborated because both conceptual frames are involved in the reorganization of the metaphor. This aspect is important because we are able to find metaphors where the DNA is in the target frame ("the DNA is a blueprint") and others where the DNA is in the source frame ("hard work is in our DNA").

In this presentation, I stretch the metaphor including phenomenon that, strictly speaking, are not metaphors but others figures of speech, as simile or metonymy, or others linguistic choices, for example the use of particular acronyms (for example the project ENCODE, ENCyclopedia Of Dna Elements).

2. Metaphors of DNA
Scientists and science communicators use a lot of metaphors of the DNA. The discovery of the DNA is probably influenced by a (sort of) metaphor: the use of the terminology of the developing information science (see [Errore: sorgente del riferimento non trovata]). Even the basic existence of a genetic material is impossible to conceive without a clear distinction between genotype and phenotype (See [Errore: sorgente del riferimento non trovata]). Tracing a short taxonomy of DNA metaphors (on this topic, see Griffiths, 2001, Keller, 2009, Rovira, 2008, Nelkin, 2001), we have at first place spatial or geometrical metaphors (immortal coil, used by Richard Dawkins in Dawkins, 1989) which are less significant for the purpose of this presentation. Secondly, we have the blueprints metaphors. The DNA is a blueprint, a detailed description of the developed organism. This metaphor is coherent with the prior “body as a machine” metaphor. Similar to the blueprint metaphor is the computer program metaphor. These metaphors shows some problems, for science — hiding the complex interaction between the genetic information and the ambient – and for scientific communication – if DNA is a blueprint, who and where is the engineering? —. On both
Another cluster of metaphors is centered on the soul. The DNA is conceived as the secular equivalent of the soul (see Mauron, 2001), the essence of the individual. These metaphors are reinforced by the far diffusion of DNA in art and popular culture (see Bell, 2003), for example in the expressions “hard work is in our DNA” or “corruption is in Russia’s DNA”; other elements that reinforce this metaphor is the cinematography cliché of the clones that is linked with the original and has some sort of access to his or her memories. Also the well known (well known in fiction, obviously) forensic use of DNA fingerprinting as a role in the diffusion of the idea that the DNA contains the essence of the individual (this is another aspect of the “CSI effect” analyzed for example in Schweitzer and Saks, 2006).

It is important to highlight the differences between the blueprint and the soul metaphors. Both of them share the aspect of the DNA as a container of the characteristics of the individual. But the blueprint metaphors put this theme in a mechanical or engineered frame: the individual, in particular the body of the individual, is conceived as a sum of isolable traits. The frame of the soul metaphors is holistic and antireductionist: the DNA contains the essence of the organism, essence which is more than the sum of the singular and isolable characteristics of the individual. This view highlights the complex relations and influences between genes and ambience, but also charges the genetic material of symbolic value that goes far beyond the biology.

3. Blueprint, soul and patents
Unsurprisingly, the blueprint metaphors are more often used in discourses favorable to the patent of genetic material, whereas the soul metaphors are used in negative discourses about the patentability of the DNA. Unsurprisingly because patents – and others intellectual property institutions – belong to the engineering frame of the blueprint metaphors but they are incompatible with the essence or soul frame. A similar situation is present in the GMO debate: GMO skeptics are more likely to use soul metaphors than blueprint metaphors, on the opposite of the GMO supporters.

Metaphors are not simply true or false, but adequate or inadequate for a specific field. Therefore the real question is not which is the right metaphor, but which is the more adequate metaphor for discussing intellectual property issue. Both the blueprints and the soul metaphors have pros and cons; maybe the best option is to search a new metaphor.

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EVENT-STRUCTURE METAPHORS IN TRANSLATION: THE CASE OF ENGLISH (AMERICAN) POLITICAL SPEECHES TRANSLATED INTO AMERICAN SIGN LANGUAGE BY DEAF TRANSLATORS

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This case study characterizes the maintenance and shifts of event-structure metaphors in American Sign Language-to-English translations of political speeches. In operating from a cognitive-descriptive framework of translation studies (Samaniego Fernández, 2011; 2013), I build upon the proposed location-object duality of the event-structure conceptual metaphor (Lakoff, 1993; Lakoff & Johnson, 1999). Based on the results of the coding and analysis methods, I propose a third event-structure metaphor system as part of a triadic model of describing the decisions made by the Deaf translator. This third system, called the CONTAINER EVENT-STRUCTURE METAPHOR (Container-ESM), potentially gets its coherent structure from the source domain of the BODY-AS-CONTAINER image schema. This image schema is central to the conceptualization of the target domain of EMOTIONS in many spoken languages (Kövecses, 2000) and in ASL (Wilcox, 2000; Taub, 2001). However, the BODY-AS-CONTAINER image schema and the Container-ESM appears to have a wider scope of target domains in ASL than is exhibited in spoken languages. The proposed triadic model in this study is a starting place for a cognitive-descriptive approach to future characterizations of event-structure metaphors in translation done by Deaf translators. It may also prove to be a tool for exploring preferential conceptualizations (Kövecses, 2005) of competing event-structure versions in bilingual/bimodal translators.

References
CORPUS-BASED APPROACHES TO METAPHORS

METAPHORIC TERMS: MYSTERY OF MEANING TRANSFORMATION

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Recent changes in the nature of scientific and technical texts have made these texts extremely complicated due to hybridity with respect to field, genre and style. The content and structure of the technical text are continuously in the process of change and reorganization. Contemporary technical text is characterized by the growing level of hybridity, cross-disciplinarity, and multi-functionality. This tendency has determined the change in the nature of contemporary terms, which often appear to be polysemic, metaphoric, and context-dependent. A great number of modern terms is based on various expressive means of language, such as an allusion, metaphor and metonymy.

In the present article we analyse one of the most frequently applied mechanisms of meaning transformation, namely, semantic shift based on metaphoric meaning extension, used in creation of new terms in several technical fields, such as civil engineering, technology, mechanics, telecommunications, and computing.

In technical texts metaphoric terms are often used to denote notions that have not received a name yet. They perform several functions: expand the scope of information communicated at the same time compressing the information following the principle of linguistic economy; extending the meaning of the existing linguistic items, they fix new meanings by designating new concepts; make the text more attractive for the reader. Such terms cannot be described in traditional categories due to their complicated semantic structure, and their manifold meaning potential can be revealed only in the particular communicative setting.

Metaphoric terms are investigated using a combination of methods of semantic, pragmatic and semiotic analyses as they may potentially pose communication problems in transferring their meaning into other languages, which may be caused by various reasons, such as their meaning change in the context, lack of referential equivalence, intradisciplinary polysemy, culture specific allusions embodied in the meaning of a term, and impossibility to transfer the metaphoric component of meaning of the term into the target language.

Different degree of lexicalization of certain conceptual metaphors in different languages is determined by the structure of a particular language. Inability to recognize connections and links among symbols and images within conceptual systems of the working languages leads to production of inadequate, inequivalent and reader-unfriendly texts in translation.

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CORPUS-BASED APPROACHES TO METAPHORS

THE THEORY OF LEXICAL PRIMING (HOEY, 2005) AND ITS ROLE IN UNDERSTANDING AND COMMUNICATING WITH METAPHOR - A CORPUS STUDY OF FLAME

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Hoey’s theory of Lexical Priming (2005) presents a usage-based account for both the psychological motivation behind our understanding of language and our ability to use language fluently to communicate within a given context. Presently, the theory accounts for both spoken and written language within particular domains. This research aims to present an account of how lexical priming can be extended to account for metathoric instances of language. In particular, the research aims to adopt the theory as a way of understanding the true pervasiveness and unfixed nature of metaphor within communication. Metaphor will be discussed here within the confines of usage-based lexis.

The notion of metathoric language as a deviation or exploitation from a linguistic norm (Hanks, 2013) is one of central importance to this research. As such, metathoric language operates upon a continuum whereby the types of semantic relations can be strong or weak. Indeed, the very concept of metaphor relies on the idea that words have more than one sense (Charteris-Black, 2014). It is the haziness of the degree to which these ‘senses’ of a word or phrase are lexically distinct, which lexical priming seeks to explain.

This presentation will concentrate on a single study of the lexical item flame within a corpus of Nineteenth Century writing. The corpus data will be divided into three groups: the clear metathoric instances, the non-metathoric instances, and a middle, hybrid group displaying instances of potential or debateable metathoricity. The datasets will each be analysed in terms of grammatical colligations and lexical collocations (primary meanings), and semantic associations and pragmatic associations (secondary meaning). It is expected that the metathoric instances of a word or phrase will avoid the primings of more literal uses of that word or phrase. This will be shown in particular with an old flame and the cluster flame of.

The prevalence of flame metaphors within religious contexts (e.g. faith’s flame) and passionately idealistic speeches (e.g. flames of patriotism) will also be discussed. The data will reveal that the more conventional a metaphor appears to be (in grammatical structure or semantic form), the stronger the primings and associations for the language user. In sum the research will show that stronger primings lead to more fixed uses of metaphor, and consequently aids both our recognition and subsequent usage of metathoric language.

References
CORPUS-BASED APPROACHES TO METAPHORS

TIME IS MOTION A CORPUS-BASED STUDY ON THE QUANTITATIVE DISTRIBUTION OF CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS IN TRANSLATED AND NON-TRANSLATED ENGLISH

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In translation theory, translated language is considered an independent variety of any language with textual features delineating it from similar texts in the target language. One of these features is the exaggeration of target language features in translated text, i.e. translated language exhibits more of these features than non-translated language. The translation of metaphors is investigated as a matter of conceptual equivalence or diversity (i.e. similar or different perception of reality) between languages and cultures. Previous research on various language pairs has revealed a number of culture-overlapping and culture-specific conceptual metaphorical mappings. This paper takes a quantitative approach to metaphor translation (as opposed to qualitative bilingual comparison of metaphors in source and target texts) and aims to test the applicability of a translation universal to conceptual linguistic items. Using two corpora representing the non-translated variety of English (COCA/BNC) and one corpus containing translated English (TEC), the quantitative distribution of metaphorical expressions of the conceptual metaphor TIME IS MOTION was studied. Regarding four different variables, a quantitative deviation in the form of overrepresentation in the translated variety was established. The results suggest that translated English is marked by overuse of certain cognitive metaphorical expressions regardless of source language and text type. This has implications for research into translation strategies and processes as well as translation competence and competence development.

References
CORPUS-BASED APPROACHES TO METAPHORS

THE WAY LINGUISTS WRITE: METAPHORS IN ENGLISH AND LITHUANIAN RESEARCH PAPERS IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS

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As noted by some scholars, of four discourse types (news, conversation, fiction and academic), academic discourse (AD) seems to be mostly prone to metaphoricity (Steen et al. 2010). However, even if restricted to the written mode and/or a single genre, AD seems to be an umbrella term for a large variety of texts. What accounts for their variation, is the field-specific propositional content (cf. sub-fields or sub-registers in Herrmann 2013: 125–126). What seems to be common to all AD texts is metadiscourse. Presumably, each of the two is rendered through its own metaphors, metadiscoursal and propositional, or field-specific (cf. Šeškauskienė 2013). It should also be noted that the propositional content imposes certain prevailing metaphors or, as noted by Zinken, each discourse is framed by a discourse-specific metaphorical projection (Zinken 2008, quoted in Semino 2011: 131).

The present investigation aims at identifying metadiscoursal and field-specific metaphors in research articles written in English and Lithuanian and focusing on translation. An attempt is made to also identify language and culture-specific variation at metaphor and/or expression level.

The data corpus has been compiled from research articles and comprises about 50,000 words in total, in both languages. The methodology of research is based on the Conceptual Metaphor Theory and the main principles of MIPVU (for more details see Steen et al. 2010). An outstanding parameter of metaphoricity employed in the investigation is the combining power of words, or combinatory patterns.

Preliminary results suggest that the pervasiveness of metaphors in AD is mainly accounted for by the ample use of metadiscoursal metaphors. They mostly serve the function of boosting and hedging, which, in broader terms, can be attributed to interpersonal communication between the writer and the reader (for more see, for example, Hyland 2004). This relationship is mainly rendered with the help of the metaphors MORE IMPORTANT IS UP and RESEARCH IS A PERSON (cf. Low 1999, Šeškauskienė 2010). The field-specific metaphors are mostly concerned with language and discourse conceptualized as a journey, a building or a concrete object. The anthropocentric parameter has proved to be an underlying principle of most metaphors identifiable in both cultures. Language-specific variation in most cases emerges on the expression plane manifesting some interesting details in the mappings of some metaphors.

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METAPHORS IN MEDIA AND ARTS

METAPHTONYMY IN SHAKESPEAREAN QUOTATIONS IN ENGLISH AND RUSSIAN PRESS

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Using the theoretical framework of semiotic analysis (Eco 2007) and cognitive linguistics (Dirven & Pörings 2003) this paper examines interactions between metonymy and metaphor in Shakespearean quotations in the English and Russian press. Characterised by “canonicity” and “monumentality” (Bloomfield 1976), Shakespeare’s texts are the most widely quoted literary sources in the English press (Lennon 2004: 97-98); certain quotes are also popular with Russian newspaper journalists. The fact accounts for the variety and rapidity of semantic and structural transformations that Shakespearean quotations undergo in newspaper texts. As a certain type of an intertext a quotation simultaneously belongs to a source and target texts and refers the reader to two contexts represented in them; it evokes two scripts which establish various links with each other depending on those semantic features (essential or accidental ones (Eco 1979)) of the quotation that are “highlighted” or “hidden” (Lakoff & Johnson 2003: 10) in the target text.

Based on the ideas of “metonymy-metaphor continuum” (Dirven 2003: 108) and a metaphor generated by a metonymic chain (Eco 2007: 135-136), the present research aims to demonstrate a double metaphtonymic (Goossens 2003) nature of a quotation which creates both metonymic and metaphoric ties between two scripts activated by it in the source and target. As a metonym the quotation stands for a whole source text, as a metaphor it links two texts on the basis of the analogy between the two scripts activated by it. The analysis is focused on 16 widely known and used Shakespearean quotations which are studied in 118 newspaper contexts. The essential and accidental features of two scripts that the quotation activates in a source and target are compared. Their semantic analysis leads to the supposition that both English and Russian quotations undergo similar sense transformations in similar directions: widely used quotations tend to loosen their metonymic ties with the source; and they may finally turn into lexicalised metaphors representing signs of culture.

References
Latest research within the field of metaphor studies displays a strong tendency to investigate metaphor use in natural discourse environment (e.g. Cameron 2011, Nacey 2013). This recent turn has forced metaphor researchers to look for reliable and replicable methods for identifying instances of metaphor use in different discourse types. One of such methods was proposed by the Pragglejaz group (2007). Their Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP), while not denying the link between conceptual structure and language, shifts the locus of attention from metaphor as a mental strategy to metaphor in real language use, and focuses on identifying ‘metaphorically used words in discourse’ (Pragglejaz Group 2007: 1). MIPVU, a variant of MIP (Steen et al. 2010a, 2010b), also concentrates on the metaphorical potential of linguistic expressions used in discourse and identifies ‘metaphor-related words’ on the basis of contrast and comparison between the basic and contextual senses of an expression.

Although both MIP and MIPVU have been developed in relation to English, they can be applied to other languages (e.g., Pasma 2012). In our study, we have applied MIPVU to Polish spoken data, more specifically to the transcripts of radio programme Dobronocka broadcast on Polish Radio 3 (Trójka). In this presentation, we would like to report on the results and on the difficulties arising in the very process of applying MIPVU to Polish data which mainly stem from the lexico-grammatical differences between English and Polish (for example, problems with establishing the basic sense or distinguishing the boundaries of lexical units).

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This presentation focuses on the metaphorical expressions from the MOVEMENT FORWARDS source domain in a comparable English and Spanish corpus of 300 press popularisation articles on advances in cancer research. It explores the patterns and functions of these expressions and how they are used by scientists and journalists to evaluate and promote scientific discoveries. Metaphorical expressions from the MOVEMENT FORWARDS source domain often convey the importance of scientific achievements in the press, and have sometimes been found guilty of hyping up scientific research (Brown 2000, Nerlich 2005, Nerlich 2009). Cancer is a sensitive topic in Western societies due to its high incidence and mortality rate and because its complexities still challenge the scientific community. Thus, the reporting of advances in cancer should be treated with special care.

The present study follows a discourse approach to metaphor (Semino 2008), and combines computer assisted and manual quantitative and qualitative analyses. In addition, it draws on Fahnestock's (1986) insights from classical rhetoric to account for the role of MOVEMENT FORWARDS metaphors in popularisation articles. Fahnestock (1986) argues that the discourse of popularisations is primarily epideictic, their main purpose being to celebrate science. To achieve this laudatory effect, science accommodators make two basic appeals to their audience: deontological and teleological, i.e. a scientific event is evaluated by attaching it to a positive category in the present (deontological) or by projecting it to a point in the future (teleological).

The analysis of the corpus showed that the metaphorical expressions realising the deontological and teleological appeals help to construct a narrow view of science. However, these two appeals do not encompass all the functions performed by the MOVEMENT FORWARDS metaphors in the corpus, since these were also used to cover the middle ground that stretches between a scientific discovery and its application, thus playing an important role in managing the expectations raised by the aforementioned appeals. From a cross-linguistic perspective, it could be argued that the MOVEMENT FORWARDS expressions in the English subcorpus mainly served to recontextualise the scientific development into a newsworthy event, whereas the focus of the Spanish articles was to position scientific advances within the broader perspective in order to boost the prestige of Spanish science and scientists both at the national and international level.

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ARTISTIC RE-EMBODIMENT: METAPHOR AND EMPATHY IN PICASSO’S PAINTINGS

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In this presentation, I study Picasso’s portraits as a part of an overall research on artistic creativity. Following recent studies on cognition and creativity (see Prager 2012, Veale, Feyearts and Forceville 2013), I analyze a series of portraits (sketches for H. Rubinstein’s portrait, 1955, Gertrude Stein 1913, Olga Khokhlova, Marie-Thérese Walter, Paul Éluard, 1937, and Jacqueline Roque) in terms of the techniques, design, portrayal style and intertextualities. This analysis is situated within the abundant photographic and written documentation of Picasso’s life and work. My main goals are to identify “underlying conceptual mappings,” “the salience and originality of individual metaphorical choices and patterns” (Semino 2008: 54) and how they participate in artistic creation.

The comparative analysis of those paintings and their techniques shows the importance of empathy. Empathy can be understood as a multidimensional process through which the Self is able to invest his or her feelings onto inanimate objects following Vischer (1994 [1873]), and to the Other (cf. Davis 2004, Cameron 2010). The duality knowledge and emotion can be subsumed in the act of creative performance: the act of knowing about the shared emotion and the act of projecting a previously experienced emotion onto another person in order to understand the other’s emotional state (Davis 1996 and Morrell 2010). Picasso’s projection of his own emotional state can result in humor, anger, violence or love. The definition of Picasso’s style or lack of it can be understood better as “erratic leaps” rather than organic growing (see Arnheim, 1962: 131–132). At the same time, there is always a continuity of approach and faithfulness to the cultural and personal world he creates. Understanding Picasso’s way of conceptualizing the world connects the materiality of the objects to his endowed magic (about magic in Picasso, see Gassman 1981). The emotional projection integrates the complex artistic identity of the painter-subject-viewer. Picasso explores his sitter’s features, his or her personality and, at the same time, the artistic means to express his own emotions in order to involve the viewer in the artistic encounter.

In this multilayered and dynamic act, Picasso re-embodies his own emotions on the painting materials, establishes an emotional linkage between the subject of his painting and his own, incorporates artists, artistic traditions or specific paintings as partners in a dialogic action and transforms all of them.

References
Nel Postino di Neruda, il protagonista è accusato di insidiare Beatriz con audaci e penetranti metafore, prestategli da Neruda e degne del Cantico dei cantici. Le aveva detto che il suo riso era una farfalla che si espandeva sul suo volto, una rosa, una lancia che si sfila, un’acqua che prorompe, un’onda d’argento repentina. «Figlia mia, non dirmi altro – la interrompe la madre alzandosi in piedi e incrociando le mani davanti al petto. Siamo di fronte ad un caso molto pericoloso. Tutti gli uomini che cominciano toccando con le parole, poi arrivano più lontano con le mani».

Applicando la più diffusa e importante figura retorica, la metafora, alla più diffusa e importante forma d’interazione, quella più tipicamente umana, il dibattito, si può delineare una classificazione pentapartita dei modi di dibattere, ciascuno riconducibile ad un diverso modo di pensare, di vedere o di sentire il dibattito, vale a dire a cinque immagini metaforiche:

Metafora bellica: dibattere è combattere
Metafora ludico-sportiva: dibattere è giocare
Metafora mercantile: dibattere è trattare
Metafora esplorativa: dibattere è viaggiare
Metafora edile: dibattere è costruire

Partendo dalla duplice constatazione relativa alla funzione argumentativa della metafora ed alla pluralità dei campi metaforici, sembra possibile capire non solo perché si usano metafore, ma perché si usa quella particolare metafora (ad esempio, la metafora bellica anziché quella ludica, mercantile, esplorativa o edile).

La questione non ha rilevanza solo teorica perché dalle parole derivano immagini, dalle immagini nascono idee e le idee determinano il nostro comportamento. Se dibattere è visto e lessicalizzato come un combattimento, viene poi anche vissuto come tale e, di conseguenza, nel discutere, ci comportiamo in maniera aggressiva e scontrosa. Pertanto “aggredire un problema”, “dominare un argomento”, “sbaragliare il campo avverso”, “far fuori l’oppositore”, non sono solo spie linguistiche di campi metaforici, ma anche opzioni comportamentali.

Oltre ad avere una funzione stilistica ed una cognitiva, la metafora istituisce un quadro di riferimento argomentativo e diventa uno strumento di persuasione.

Nella prima parte del lavoro proponiamo una disamina teorico-critica del concetto di scena modello. Successivamente ne suggeriamo un’applicazione alla situazione presentata da Pirandello in “Sei personaggi in cerca di autore”. Alla base del dramma vissuto dai protagonisti della commedia, individueremo una fondamentale incapacità, da parte degli “attori”, ad entrare in relazione con le esperienze metaforiche raccontate dai personaggi e, da parte dei personaggi, a farsi rappresentare metaforicamente dagli attori: l’impossibilità a rispecchiarsi in una metafora di se stessi determina in entrambi i gruppi una fondamentale sensazione di incompletezza e di dipendenza dall’altro gruppo. Definiremo quindi il possibile ruolo delle metafore nel percorso che può condurre il “personaggio” a diventare e sentirsi “persona”, in sintonia con la propria storia e la propria autenticità.

Referimenti bibliografici
La comunicazione si focalizza sull'analisi dei meccanismi semiotici e concettuali che sottendono le metafore terminologiche presenti nelle lingue di specialità. Dopo una breve panoramica sullo stato dell'arte in questo ambito, ci interesseremo in particolare alle funzioni e alle diverse caratteristiche semiotiche delle metafore terminologiche (distinguendo le catacresi dalle metafore condivise, dalle metafore conflittuali), con particolare attenzione ai meccanismi di espressione dei concetti metaforici in sistemi linguistico-culturali diversi. Saranno presi in esame corpus paralleli in francese, inglese, italiano in diversi ambiti specialistici (la moda, la medicina, l'ingegneria).

**Riferimenti bibliografici**


METAPHORS AND EDUCATION (1)

EDUCATIONAL METAPHORS ON THE WEB. A CORPUS-BASED ANALYSIS OF ITALIAN AND ENGLISH/IRISH UNIVERSITIES’ WEBSITES

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Educational contexts have been a much-debated area and metaphor analysis has been a useful means of investigation to understand the complex practice of teaching and learning. Both qualitative and quantitative studies on metaphors have proved that these figures of speech and thought are central in educational discourses (Browne, Hiers, and Quinn 1995, 1998; Cameron 1999; Deignan et. all 1997; Elford 1996). Scholars have investigated metaphors in education with particular emphasis on the student-teacher relationship pointing out how metaphors are used to help students understand complex contents easily, or to construe teachers’ roles and responsibilities (Cameron 2003; Chapman 1997; Clarken 1997).

It has been revealed that metaphors are powerful tools appealing to the shared beliefs and values of potential students and that they are an open window on the perceptions and experiences of the participants of a given community. It has emerged that growth, market and family metaphors are common conceptual frames when talking of learning, teaching and education. In fact, it has been shown that schools are conceived in terms of prisons, gardens, factories, societies and families, teachers are portrayed as parents, guides, directors, actors, animal trainers, students are perceived as containers, plants, animals to be controlled, and learning is described in terms of growth, life, acquisition of goods.

Against this framework, the present paper aims to compare, through a qualitative and a quantitative approach, how Italian universities and English/Irish universities employ movement metaphors on their institutional websites. The study wants to examine to what extent Italian universities tend to use the conceptual frame of movement with a self-promotional purpose as English and Irish universities seem to do. It also intends to explore whether Italian universities are competing in a globalized era to attract a greater number of international students and are boosting the implementation of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) set by the regulatory framework of the Bologna Process.

References

The question of how pedagogical use may be made of metaphor research in the teaching of foreign languages has been the focus of numerous studies since the publication of Low’s seminal article “On teaching metaphor” (1988). In reality, Low’s article – and many of the research publications which have followed it – could have been renamed “On teaching English metaphors”, for the focus has most often been on the pedagogical applications of applied metaphor research to the English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) classroom. Likewise, the linguistic evidence for the need for such pedagogical applications has often been drawn from corpora of native-speaker data, such as the British National Corpus, the Bank of English or the Corpus of Contemporary American English. In this presentation, I will suggest that some of the assumptions behind applied metaphor research of this kind may sometimes be misguided and fail to meet the real needs of learners of English worldwide. First and foremost, the current status of English as an international lingua franca casts doubts on the appropriacy of adopting the ‘native’ or ‘inner circle’ speaker of English as a model for metaphor use (cf. Seidlhofer 2005, 2008). Secondly, the reliance on corpus evidence for models of metaphor use may actually prove a handicap in English language classrooms, for such evidence favours the conventional over the creative, and may class as erroneous metaphorical language use that turns out to be perfectly successful in intercultural communication. Favouring the conventional over the novel and creative may well deprive metaphor of much of its power, relegating metaphorical competence to the sphere of linguistic (grammatical) competence (Canale & Swain 1980). Indeed, such a view of metaphor may consider it to be as rule-bound as syntax or phonology, and regard metaphors as right or wrong, rather than more or less apt or more or less communicatively successful in particular discourse contexts. To illustrate and support the views outlined here, I will use evidence from the Vienna International Corpus of English (a corpus of English when used as a means of communication among non-native speakers of the language). This corpus allows us to examine how novel or unconventional metaphors emerge in the discourse of non-native speakers of English and proves enlightening for those interested in the applying metaphor research to ESL/EFL.

References
METAPHORS IN EDUCATIONAL DISCOURSE: THE NOTION OF FUNCTION IN MATHEMATICS EDUCATION

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Lakoff & Núñez’s (2000) work on metaphors in mathematics was the first systematic attempt to apply the Conceptual Metaphor Theory to the analysis of mathematical ideas. In their view, the conceptual structure of mathematics can be seen as a construction grounded on embodied image schemas, direct experience and innate numeric abilities which by means of metaphorical mappings give rise to more and more complex mathematical notions. Such a view seems especially fruitful in the sphere of educational discourse where many linguistic manifestations of the metaphorical mechanisms can be seen at a middle stage of development of presented mathematical ideas, as opposed to expert mathematics where such manifestations would be much more difficult to identify. Educational discourse may provide access to many metaphors structuring mathematics for students, many of whom will use the metaphorically grounded concepts in future life.

In my presentation, I will show the results of a case study of the mathematical notion of function in educational discourse. The goal of the study was, first, to identify metaphors used by teachers to present the notion of function, and secondly, to evaluate my hypothesis that the full presentation of the concept in question can only be done by using different groups of metaphors, or cognitive models (see Holland & Quinn, 1987), often complementing one another. The research data consisted of three mathematical textbooks presently used in Polish schools and three interviews with experienced Polish secondary school teachers. The interviews were semi-structured with the teachers prepared for a “general talk about mathematics”, unaware of the linguistic framework of my study and the fact that they would be asked about functions. In the gathered data I have managed to identify 6 major groups of metaphors, which is interestingly more than mathematicians acknowledge when they talk about 4 interpretations of functions (see Stewart, 2011). An analysis of the found data on the basis of the Conceptual Metaphor Theory proved the metaphors to be complementary, with each highlighting and hiding (see Kövecses, 2002) different aspects of the notion of function. One of the conclusions of the research is that the Conceptual Metaphor Theory applied to the analysis of mathematics education discourse has the potential to show didactic materials and teacher’s instructions from a new perspective and reveal various relationships between them.

References
Since the first steps towards European integration were taken in the 1950s, Britain's relationship with continental Europe and its role within the community of states have been ambivalent. This has not only gained Britain the reputation of the 'awkward partner' (George 1998), it also accounts for the passionate debate EU-related topics trigger in British public discourse.

Political media discourse is generally known as a particularly productive environment for metaphor, where discourse metaphors (Zinken et al. 2008) and metaphor-based scenarios (Musolff 2006) are traditionally used to frame issues of political and social relevance. EU-related discourse in particular is almost notorious for its metaphors: not only have they played a crucial role in political negotiations, they have also been the object of meta-comment in the public debate (Musolff 2004).

News reports, press commentaries and editorials typically provide rich sources for the study of metaphor in discourse. Over the last decades, however, new interactive genres have emerged online, which give everyone with internet access the possibility to make their voices heard in the ‘virtual conversation’ of public discourse. The reception and negotiation of metaphors in online discussions has not been in the focus of research so far.

Taking a discourse-analytical approach to computer-mediated interaction (Herring 2004), the paper focuses on the discursive functions of metaphors and metaphor-based scenarios in public online debates about Europe/the EU in the Guardian's Comment is free section. After a brief sketch of the interactional conditions at Comment is free, the paper introduces strategies of metaphor negotiation, such as meta-discursive comment, modification, and alternative conceptualisation, on the basis of previous discourse-analytical research into metaphor in interaction (Musolff 2004; Cameron 2010). It is argued that the strategies realise three distinct patterns that can be related to different aspects of the functioning of a metaphor. Further, the strategies are discussed in terms of their potential for macro- and micro level positioning, i.e. in relation to the discussed topic and in terms of more local, temporary orientations of discourse participants (Bucholtz & Hall 2005, 2010). The paper thus opens up an interactional perspective on metaphor use and negotiation in computer-mediated public discourse.

References


The most powerful and dominant metaphor used to describe memory throughout history has been the ‘archive’ (storehouse): an allegedly permanent and unmediated locus of storage and retention. This classification was conceptualized by Plato’s use of metaphor to describe memory as a kind of ‘wax tablet’, where impressions and experiences are ‘imprinted’ into a block of wax that congeals the image into a permanent material structure. These problematic assumptions about memory’s materiality, objectivity, and permanence continue today, especially in digital photography. Photography is situated amongst a complex conjuncture of discourse, technology, and practice – yet its relation to memory has been solidified as an idealized ‘essential’ means through which memories are captured, framed, communicated, and distributed. This relationship is largely due to the metaphorical construction of memory over time. This paper deconstructs the metaphor of the memory-archive, which has naturalized the relationship between memory and technology that has come to serve as the dominant model for the design and ongoing use of new (photographic) media. It argues for a ‘sociology of metaphor’, informed by Cameron’s (2010) discourse analysis approach, which can account for the ideological potential of metaphor to construct a specific paradigm of memory, while advancing the material consequences of metaphor as a constitutive agent that enables and constrains the possibilities for memory making. The paper focuses on the transformation from analogue preservation or ‘archiving’ to digital distribution or ‘sharing’ images online. By providing a case study of the photo-sharing application Instagram, this paper shows how culturally specific metaphors of memory become inscribed in digital tools and stabilized in photographic practice. In this way it advances interdisciplinary collaboration between the socio-technical spheres of culture by advocating for both the discursive and material potential of metaphor to become embedded in digital tools, enabled by practice and embodied in cultural conventions of memory-making.
This paper will focus on metaphor in the language system of English, and will provide an overview of the metaphorical connections which have been available to speakers and writers of the language since the Old English period. This research is part of the ‘Mapping Metaphor with the Historical Thesaurus’ project, currently being undertaken at the University of Glasgow. The project’s source data is the Historical Thesaurus of English (HT, published as Kay et al. 2009), itself based on the data of the second edition of the Oxford English Dictionary, and supplemented by A Thesaurus of Old English (Roberts and Kay 2000) for the earlier period. The project is creating an interactive ‘Metaphor Map’ for English, which will show the metaphorical connections between semantic domains made by speakers and writers of English from the Old English period to the present day. A beta-version of the Map will be presented.

The complex hierarchical semantic structure of the HT has been adapted and simplified within the context of Mapping Metaphor to produce three hierarchical levels, with 411 semantically coherent categories at the lowest level (e.g. ‘Fear’, ‘Intelligence’, ‘Birds’, ‘Social Event’). The lexical content of each of these categories in turn has then been compared automatically with the lexical content of every other category, to produce a database of lexical overlap between categories. Detailed manual analysis has subsequently been undertaken for each pair of categories, to identify the overlap which is a result of systematic metaphorical connections, and discard the significantly larger amount of overlap which is due to homonymy and to polysemy resulting from mechanisms other than metaphor.

At higher levels, the 411 Mapping Metaphor categories are grouped to map onto the HT’s 26 Level 2 categories (superordinate categories such as ‘Emotion’, ‘Mental capacity’, ‘Life’ and ‘Leisure’), and these further grouped to map onto the HT’s 3 Level 1 categories (‘The External World’, ‘The Mental World’, ‘The Social World’). The resulting shallow hierarchical system enables us to identify patterns of metaphorical transfer between semantic categories at different levels of abstraction. At the highest levels, expected patterns of metaphorical transfer between concrete and abstract types of category are visible, while at lower levels, there is ample empirical evidence of more and less well studied conceptual metaphors, such as EMOTION IS HEAT and IMAGINATION IS TEXTILES.

References
In this study we look at metaphors that are part of linguistic models introduced to (re-)conceptualise the urgency, impacts, and political implications of climate change in UK media discourse. Since climate science became climate politics (Jaspal and Nerlich, 2012) various discursive entrepreneurs have used rhetorical means to legitimatize normative claims about global warming impacts. Metaphors with high public resonance occupy an important place in such contestations of different policy and science and technology-based solutions to the problem.

Using the framework of critical metaphor analysis (Charteris-Black, 2004) we identify linguistic and conceptual metaphors in Guardian Online and Mail Online editorials and discuss the aspects of climate change that these metaphors emphasize and neglect. We study Guardian Online and Mail Online, as they have consistently attracted major online traffic (Press Gazette, 2013). We examine frequency trends for metaphor use per newspaper and overtime, while paying attention to the sources of metaphor (journalists/politicians/NGO representatives/etc.) and whether the metaphor was used to advance a pro- or anti-climate change argument.

The analysis of media reports over the 2006-2013 period revealed that metaphors were used to discuss climate change in 117 (63.6%) of the total of 184 analysed editorials. Metaphors were used to discuss climate change in 62 (70.5%) of the 88 analysed Guardian Online editorials and in 55 (57.3%) of the 96 analysed Mail Online editorials. In both newspapers metaphor use peaked in December 2009 when the United Nations’ Climate Change Conference (COP15) took place.

We found that the conceptual domain from which metaphorical expressions were most frequently drawn was war in Guardian Online and religion in Mail Online. In Guardian Online, war metaphors were used to legitimise arguments about the nature of dealing with climate change, the nature of climate change politics, the effects of climate change on humanity or the work of climate change activists. In Mail Online, metaphors of religion were used to furnish mostly sceptical or contrarian arguments that questioned the science behind global warming, and criticised policy efforts to deal with climate change, as well as efforts to raise awareness about it.

We conclude by discussing the implications stemming from these strategic conceptual reinterpretations of environmental uncertainty. Whereas the associations of warfare might trigger the very anxiety and resistance the use of the metaphor is intended to overcome, discussing climate change as a matter of (religious) ‘belief’ can serve to undermine both science and policy and polarise public opinion.

References

METAPHORS AND CLIMATE CHANGE

WHO WILL ‘FIX’ OUR PLANET? AN ANALYSIS OF METAPHORS USED BY PRESIDENT OBAMA TO ASSIGN RESPONSIBILITY FOR FIGHTING CLIMATE CHANGE

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Increasingly alarming reports on the devastating effects that climate change has on the future of our planet raise serious concerns over what measures should be taken to reduce the negative impact on the environment and who should take responsibility for putting these measures in practice. Climate change is no longer just a problem of the natural world whose solutions are likely to come from within the scientific community; its scope has extended to social, political, even group or individual areas, and affects various interests, in accordance to the diversity and complexity of actors involved. For instance, well known world leaders publicly address the issue of the changing climate from a domestic (the immediate effects on the lives of their fellow countrymen) and a global prospective, respectively (the impact on the entire planet), and frequently use metaphors to describe the utmost gravity of the problem and the actions necessary to combat this threat. In a 2013 speech delivered at Georgetown University, President Barack Obama uses a wide range of climate change metaphors to convey to the audience the need to take urgent action. The US President’s speech is built around popular climate change metaphors (e.g. ‘carbon pollution’, ‘greenhouse gases’, ‘trap heat’, ‘clear/ dirty energy’) and American and internationally-sensitive stories about how we perceive the planet we live on. Furthermore, the President discusses the need to take responsibility for combating climate change and ensuring the future of the planet. This paper draws on a discursive approach to metaphor use in an attempt to examine the way in which responsibility in fighting climate change is metaphorically assigned to America, the global leader called upon to ‘solve this challenge’, ‘fix’ the planet and ‘lead by the power of example’. Using the Pragglejaz procedure, climate metaphors will be identified and analyzed in the context of this political speech. Findings will be compared with results of other studies examining framings of climate change in scientific and media discourse. A particular attention will be given to the war metaphor – one of the most frequently used frames to discuss climate change – as a tool used by politicians to convey to the public that they are in control of the issue and to emphasize their commitment to solving the problem. There are at least three audiences targeted by Obama’s speech: college students, US politicians and decision-makers, but also the leaders of other countries, as the changing climate affects everyone. The use of metaphors to express and construct the relationship between the speaker and the different audiences is investigated alongside the analysis of metaphor choices used to evaluate and promote the USA’s vanguard role in leading the world’s combat effort against climate change.
“A BRIGHT BLUE BALL” – “BRUSHED WITH CLOUDS” OR “PARCHED, SCORCHED, AND WASHED AWAY.” OBAMA’S USE OF CONTRASTING METAPHORS IN FRAMING CLIMATE CHANGE

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This paper examines President Barack Obama’s use of contrasting metaphors and metaphorical stories to frame the issue of climate change and the associated political controversies in a major policy speech at Georgetown University. One major theme in the speech contrasted a series of metaphors based on violence and destruction with a series of metaphors based on peace, tranquillity, and health, all within an overall framing story about the Apollo 8 astronauts and the picture they took of the Earth from lunar orbit. Another major theme is the contract between metaphors of passivity or obstruction and metaphors of movement and dynamic activity. Within these two sets of thematic contrasts are more subtle contrasts between metaphors associated with the effects of climate change and metaphors associated with ameliorative actions to counteract climate change.
MULTIMODAL METAPHORS AND FICTIONAL STORYLINES IN PRINTED AND INTERNET ADVERTISING DISCOURSE

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This paper proposes a study of the narrative potential of multimodal metaphor by exploring the way in which the interaction of multimodal metaphor and story/narrative as cultural artifacts provide framing devices which help a potential reader make sense of ads. For this purpose we analyze a selection of printed and internet advertisements in English from various countries. Our study is framed theoretically within the current Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, Lakoff & Turner, 1989), its applications to the study of discourse (see, for example, Charteris-Black, 2004; Musolff, 2006; Semino, 2008) and in particular, of multimodal metaphor in advertising discourse (Forceville 1996, 2009; Urios-Aparisi 2009). Our data is a sample of advertisements from two different genres: printed ads on global ICT products and services from English speaking business magazines where we focus on how fairy tales and stories of relationships are triggered by metaphor and the internet ads in English of the product Coca-cola aimed at the audience of various cultures. Our aim is to discuss how local cultures adapt advertisements through the telling of local stories, some of which exploit well-known cultural stereotypes. This selection of ads illustrates the tendency of advertising to have a global projection while appealing to specific markets and audiences. For this purpose, we apply qualitative analysis of the mechanisms of interaction between multimodal metaphor and fictional storylines. Our objectives in this paper are the following: (1) to discuss the relation between the framing roles of multimodal metaphor and the activation of story-lines in ads; (2) to compare the role of metaphor in printed and internet ads in creating stories and identify differences between its role in two different genres; (3) to analyse the role of features of the fairy tale, the fantastic, the magic and of wish worlds in ads. We argue that the fairy tale genre is exploited often to evoke explicitly or implicitly alternative storylines which give the ad an additional meaning based on MAGIC and FANTASY metaphors. And (4) to explore the distribution of source and target domains across the verbal and visual modes of metaphors in the analyzed ads.

References
MULTIMODAL METAPHORS (1)

BUILDING BLOCKS FOR MULTIMODAL METAPHORS: ICONIC SEGMENTS AND ARTISTIC PARODIES IN CARTOONS

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This paper examines multimodal metaphors (cued in visual and verbal modes) whose mappings link facts in cultural history with contemporary events. These correspondences override or amend well-known conceptual schemes discussed by Bounegru and Forceville (2011), Ng and Koller (2013). For instance, cartoonists often modify famous artistic works, i.e. monuments and pictures through their trivialisation, exaggeration, blending and twists. The parodies have not being used for denigrating the masterpieces but to communicate an evaluation of recent events in a dramatic form. However, the interpretation of such cartoons requires the acquaintance with the history of cultural products. Ten Russian political cartoons have been served for a pilot study which was later augmented to the research of parodies of the same visual themes world-wide.

Verbal metaphors based on cultural allusions are defined as intertextual metaphors (Zinken, 2004). The study of their multimodal counterparts raises many methodological issues (see Schilperoord, 2013). A single picture can accommodate several fragments of different origins and experiential inputs. Each visual unit, as an identifiable object, may evoke multiple analogies which are to be assembled into a coherent narrative by a viewer (see Šorm and Steen, 2013).

This investigation will attempt to run an inventory of strongly coded visual units stimulated by some masterpieces (e.g. the figure of Liberty from Delacroix painting “The Liberty leading the people”, "Laocoon" sculpture and “Bronze horseman” monument in St Petersburg as well as fragments portraying bare breast, bare feet, struggling with serpents etc.). Several recurrent patterns can be encountered in adaptation of these cultural products for portrayal of contemporary events. For instance, the Delacroix’s Liberty has been used for cuing radicalism and extremism let alone other symbolic perspectives. Her bare breasts often embodies in cartoons a libidinal power and anarchic freedom. Her bare feet, ironically, sometimes allude to the poverty. The serpents from “Laocoon” sculpture and “Bronze horseman” represent evil and brutal opponents. However, “Laocoon” has also been used for hybridisation of snakes with ill-fated pipelines, tubes and graphs. In other words, similarly to verbal metaphors the icons can display multivalency (i.e. application of the same concept to different topics and targets; see Goatly 2007).

References
The starting point of this paper is the notion of discourse metaphor, which can be described as a relatively stable metaphorical mapping that works as a key framing tool within a particular discourse over a certain period of time and in relation to different sociocultural contexts (Zinken, Hellsten and Nerlich, 2007; Cameron, 2009). As has been shown, discourse metaphors are not only functional to describe how discourses change and evolve through time, but also to understand which ideological implications lay behind them (Musolff, 2006; Musolff and Zinken, 2009). The understanding that discourse metaphors tend to remodel themselves during periods of emotional turmoil or in years of scientific, political and economical uncertainty (Underhill, 2011), moved me to describe how consumerist ideology has been framed in the pre-Great Recession period (2004-2006) and in the subsequent years of crisis (2010-2012). To identify such conceptual and ideological shifting, two groups of TV car commercials belonging to those periods of time have been analyzed. The analysis aims to understand how a group of subjects process multimodal metaphors in TV commercials, focusing in particular on the choice of source domains that constitute the conceptual mappings in relation to central targets domains such as: THE CAR, THE BUYER or THE CAR OWNER, THE ACT OF BUYING, THE REASON FOR BUYING\OWNING and THE FEELING\EMOTION AFTER BUYING\OWNING THE CAR.

In order to describe the conceptual relation between source and target I have used an adapted version of the “Think Aloud” procedure recently proposed by Šorm and Steen (2013). Our hypothesis consists in the describing how the consumerist ideology quickly adapts their contents and the conceptual metaphorical structure in relation to external conditions (such as the austerity and reduction of consumption relative to the economic crisis), which in different ways represent a contradiction to the typical values and attitude that consumerist ideology itself implies.
One of the most significant impetuses to redefining approach to metaphor and moving a research focus from the level of words and expressions towards the level of thought was diachronic. It was noticed that synchronic polisemy often reflects diachronic development and linguistic change in the sense that non-metaphorical meaning evolves and motivates metaphorical meaning (Sweetser 1990, Geeraerts 1997, Evans i Wilkins 1998, Johnson 1999, Fabiszak 2000, Allan 2003, Kövecses 2010 etc.). Although this diachronic impetus has led to the radical change of perspective in the approach to metaphor and to the development of the conceptual metaphor theory (Lakoff and Johnson 1980; Lakoff and Johnson 1999; Lakoff 1987; Sweetser 1987; Gibbs 1994, Grady 1997, Steen 1999, Kövecses 2000, Kövecses 2010, Kövecses 2011, Feldman 2006, Lakoff 2009, Lakoff 2012 etc.), metaphor in a diachronic perspective has gained much less research interest than metaphor in a synchronic perspective, which is especially true for the Croatian language. In this paper, after a brief overview of the research results of the figurative language in a diachronic perspective (Sweetser 1990, Evans i Wilkins 1998, Gevaert 2002, Allan 2003, Gevaert 2005, Raffaelli and Kerovec 2008, Raffaelli 2009, Allan 2010, Štrkalj Despot 2012, Allan 2014), attention will be directed towards metaphor and metaphorical thought in a diachronic perspective in the Croatian language.

Evolution of Mind in the Croatian language is “reconstructed” by comparing examples of (metaphorical) linguistic expressions for mind and cognizing in Old Croatian with those from modern Croatian focusing on the The Mind as Body metaphorical system. Research corpus consists of: Croatian Linguistic Repository (Institute of the Croatian Language and Linguistics), Google examples (cautiously used), Dictionary of the Croatian or Serbian Language (known as Academy’s Dictionary) and the corpus of texts for the Old-Croatian Dictionary (Institute of the Croatian Language and Linguistics). Analysis has shown that the metaphorical system of the earlier stages of the Croatian language was less ramified and that the metaphorical hierarchical structure was fairly simple. Primary metaphors and general level metaphors are regularly present in Old Croatian, but the system is poor in source and target subcases, entailments and special cases in comparison with nowadays Croatian. Analysis also reveals that the general tendency of using linguistic expressions of conceptual metaphors is much lower in medieval and early modern times and that language of those times was much more straightforward and simple (using literal expressions and basic level and prototypical words). Based on these insights and following evolutionary logic, it is cautiously hypothesized that metaphorical systems are gradually developing from the primary metaphors and general level metaphors towards complex metaphors, and special cases and that the initial hierarchical structure is getting more and more complex throughout the history of language use.

References


METAPHORS OF THE MIND

THE BRAIN AS THE MIND’S MACHINE: A METAPHOR AS THE BASIS FOR ELABORATE ANALOGIES IN TEACHING COLLEGE STUDENTS CONCEPTS OF THE MIND

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Metaphor use in educational contexts has received considerable attention in research studies (e.g. Aubusson et al. 2006; Cameron 2003; Corts & Pollio 1999; Low et al. 2008), since Lakoff and Johnson (1980) postulated that metaphor allows us to understand abstract concepts in terms of more concrete ones. At university level, teachers are primarily concerned with communicating abstract knowledge in form of concepts that are unfamiliar to the students. This accounts for a multitude of investigations examining metaphors in education. However, studies comparing the metaphors for a particular topic in the students’ readings with those used to negotiate the texts’ meanings in class seem to be missing.

The present study sets out to fill this void. An article by Searle (1980) arguing against Artificial Intelligence and the response to it by Hofstadter (1981), constitute the basis for a philosophy lecture about the mind that was filmed at an US-American college. Metaphors for the brain and the mind, including forms of analogies (cf. Steen 2008 for a definition of metaphor including analogies), were identified in the text and the transcribed philosophy lecture. The metaphors in the texts were then compared to those in the lecture in order to see how the professor handles the metaphorical models dominating both texts. Metaphors in the text constitute complex, nested analogies, for example, comparing the brain to a computer and then comparing both brain and computer to a stomach.

The comparison of the metaphors in the texts and the lecture was supposed to answer the following questions: Does the professor take up the metaphors found in the text? Does he simplify or modify the analogies in any way to provide “stepping stones” for the students’ understanding of the concepts or the philosophers’ reasoning?

The results of this study reveal the apparent inability of the classroom discourse to step outside the metaphors used by Searle. In the first half of the lecture, professor’s inability to probe the texts’ metaphors or to elucidate the exact mappings of the analogies shows the possible problems of complex metaphor use in educational contexts. However, the second half of the lecture, in which the professor accomplishes to break down the complex analogies and to introduce additional metaphors, demonstrates the chances and the value of using metaphors when teaching abstract concepts.

References
METAPHORS OF THE MIND

IMAGINING THE HUMAN BRAIN – MULTIMODAL METAPHORS IN SCIENCE TELEVISION PROGRAMS

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The various ways we think about the human brain and cognition is not only a matter that concerns the neurosciences, psychology or medicine. Over the last years, neuroscience has entered popular culture in a vast spectrum of media formats, science television programs and documentaries (Heinemann 2012, Lehmkuhl 2013). As experimental settings and scholarly thought are complex and discipline-specific, delivering information to a lay audience heavily draws on the use of metaphors, both language-based and multimodal ones. The metaphors elaborated in these programs help explain neuroscientific research methods, and, more importantly, shape a popular knowledge about how the human mind itself works. Multimodal metaphors can not only be formulated with regard to conceptual metaphor theory (Fahlenbrach 2010; Forceville & Urios-Aparisi 2009), but also need to be regarded within their temporal context, as they are dynamic phenomena, emerging in time (Müller 2008). With Lakoff and Johnson in mind, we will approach the issue of how metaphors might arise from “our physical and cultural experience” (1980: 14). Emergent figurative phenomena have become a growing research field – how new metaphors come into existence in blends (Fauconnier/Turner 2002), how they establish dynamically (Cameron 2011, Müller 2008) in concrete embodied situations (Gibbs 2006, Johnson 2007, Müller 2008), and how they interrelate with affective processes (Kappelhoff/Müller 2011). Within this theoretical framework, we analyse how audiovisuals aesthetically address spectators, how multimodal metaphors emerge and are dynamically activated within a situated and embodied experience. This perspective draws upon the model of “multimodal metaphor and expressive movement” (Kappelhoff/Müller 2011).

We will show the integral part that multimodal metaphors play in science television programs about the brain. We will present two case studies to exemplify that metaphors are interwoven with entertainment practices: they merge fictional and nonfictional and deploy an array of aesthetic strategies and affect poetics of various film genres: the amazement of science fiction, the tension of a thriller and the dread of a horror film. The metaphors found can not be traced merely in verbal utterances. Instead, they arise and develop over time and are articulated through a vast set of aesthetic means and expressive modalities, be it spoken language, mise-en-scène, camera work or animation.

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TEACHING (IN) METAPHORS

Susanne Niemeier, University Koblenz-Landau, Germany

Although metaphors are ubiquitous and pervasive in language and thus represent an important linguistic feature also for the foreign language classroom, teaching (in) metaphors is not frequently practiced, at least in German EFL classrooms. The traditional teaching and learning of idiomatic expressions may already have involved and still involve dealing with the underlying motivation behind such expressions to a certain extent, nevertheless, even this is far from being the standard procedure. In fact, students’ English text books – if at all – elaborate on idioms by humorous visualizations that may influence the learners emotionally, but only occasionally do they give background information on the experiential grounding or embodied nature of figurative language.

If learners are made aware of meaning extension processes and especially of metaphorical processes they can understand texts better, can detect manipulation better and can extend their stored vocabulary in novel ways. Indeed, in foreign language teaching the term novel metaphor seems to gain a new quality as L2 learners are very likely to encounter most metaphors as novel and consequently process them as such. Therefore, it is not so much the degree of conventionality but rather the degree of compositionality and opaqueness that is important in the context of teaching figurative language.

As a number of scholars (e.g., Boers 2004, Littlemore 2011, Littlemore & Low 2006, MacArthur 2010, Skoufaki 2008) have already highlighted the importance of metaphor in the foreign language classroom, the presentation will start with an overview of some studies on metaphor in EFL teaching from various perspectives, such as recognition of metaphors, production of metaphors, vocabulary extension, learner-relatedness and methods how to introduce metaphor into the foreign language classroom. What seems to be important for the majority of these studies is “fine-tuning the student’s brain for acquiring conceptual competence” (Danesi 2003: 72ff.).

The overview is followed by a detailed example of how to deal with metaphor in the foreign language classroom, which discusses a case study in which medium-advanced German learners of English were confronted with English colour expressions. The colours blue, red, green and yellow were selected for this purpose as they yield many examples of figurative expressions, as for example blue blood, red tape, green thumb or yellow-belly. The competences aimed for being intercultural awareness and conceptual competence, the lesson sequence focussed on establishing a radial network of meaning by tracing certain colour expressions’ extension strategies from quasi-universal meanings to culture-specific meanings.

References


In my presentation, my goal is to explore the role of metaphor and metonymy in the folk (everyday) understanding of emotion, as opposed to its expert (scientific) understanding. (On the folk-expert theory distinction, see Holland and Quinn, 1987.) Since folk and expert understandings constantly interact in a given culture (and also globally), I wish to explore the issue of HOW the two different types of theories (or models) interact with each other. A further specific issue that I plan to examine is whether the metaphors and metonymies play a different (or the same) role in the folk theories of emotion versus the corresponding expert theories (Kövecses, 1990, 2000).

References:
FIRST PANEL: METAPHOR IN HUMAN SCIENCE

METAPHOR AS A CONCEPTUAL RESOURCE AND A COMPUTATIONAL SERVICE

Tony Veale, University College Dublin, Ireland

Picasso famously claimed that “art is a lie that tells the truth.” Fittingly, this artful contradiction suggests a compelling reason for why speakers are so wont to use artfully suggestive forms of creative language – such as metaphor and irony – when less ambiguous and more direct forms are available. Whereas literal language commits a speaker to a tightly fixed meaning, and offers little scope for the listener to contribute to the joint construction of meaning, creative language suggests a looser but potentially richer meaning that is open to collaborative elaboration by each conversational partner.

In effect, a metaphor X is Y establishes a conceptual pact between speaker and listener (Brennan and Clark, 1996), one that says “let us agree to speak of X using the concepts and norms of Y”. In the words of Veale (2008, 2012), the metaphor suggests conversational talking points for X. Suppose a speaker asserts that “X is a snake”. This metaphor conveys an affective viewpoint – the speaker views X negatively, like a snake – and suggests a range of talking points, such as that X is charming and cunning but also dangerous perhaps, and is not to be trusted. A listener may respond by elaborating the metaphor, even when disagreeing with the basic conceit, as in “I agree that X can be charming and clever, but I see no reason to distrust him”. Successive elaboration allows both speaker and listener to arrive at a mutually acceptable construal of “snake” in the context of X.

Because so many familiar stereotypes offer polarizing talking points – think of the endearing and not-so-endearing qualities of babies, for instance – metaphors are the ideal vehicle for conveying an affective view of a topic. Even when stereotypes are not used figuratively, as in the assertion “Steve Jobs was a great leader”, the stereotype (that of a great leader) is likely to elicit metaphors in response, such as “yes, a true pioneer” or “what an artist!”, or even “but he was also a tyrant!”. Familiar proper-named stereotypes can also be used figuratively, as when Jobs is compared to the fictional inventor Tony Stark, or Apple is compared to Scientology, or Google to Microsoft. We use stereotypes effortlessly, and their exploitations are common currency in everyday language.

Metaphors achieve their balance of suggestiveness and concision via the use of dense descriptors, familiar terms like “snake” that evoke a range of talking points through their rich variety of stereotypical properties and behaviors (Fishelov, 1992). Though every concept has the potential to be used figuratively, casual metaphors tend to draw their dense descriptors from a large pool of familiar stereotypes that is shared by all speakers of a language (e.g. see Taylor, 1954). A robust and scalable computational model of metaphor processing must demonstrate both how it can acquire a wide diversity of stereotypical descriptors and how it can flexibly represent the semantic denseness of these descriptors in a way that allows their figurative meaning in context to be inferred as needed. In this talk I will show how a large lexicon of reusable dense descriptors — familiar stereotypes — can be mined from web content, and further, how these stereotypical representations can be used selectively, to highlight relevant aspects of a given target concept in the computational treatment of a specific metaphor. Finally, I will show how a robust computational implementation of this model has been provided for research use on the Web in the guise of a multi-featured Web
Service. This service may be exploited by human users and by third-party software applications that aim to exhibit a measure of their own linguistic creativity.

References
It is a commonplace to remark that we can’t fully access other people’s thoughts directly, so we might as well be indirect, but this does not guarantee per se that indirect methods like eliciting metaphors (EM) from learners, teachers or other stakeholders will be any better. Indeed, the effort frequently needed to obtain relevant data, plus the difficulty of analysing and interpreting the results, persuading the stakeholder to act in line with them and checking that they have done so, may make one question whether EM is really worth the effort. And underlying the whole procedure are the higher-level questions: just which educational phenomena can validly be investigated by EM? Which can be ‘changed’ by using EM? And why might one imagine in the first place that any given teacher or learner would necessarily have coherent, active symbolic worlds for ‘designing a timetable’ or ‘listening to L2 conversations about buying bread in France’?

Researching aspects of education via EM has a distinctly chequered history. Apart from researchers finding what they want to find, the problems tend to centre round minimal (or dubious) methodology reports, and one has some sympathy, as to date there have been few detailed educationally-relevant validation studies published. Researchers can thus have considerable difficulty knowing which techniques are likely to be suited to a particular educational context, and how to adapt and validate appropriately the one(s) they choose.

In this talk I want to present an overview, based on my own observations, as well as recent research studies by various colleagues around the world, of key questions that need asking if you are thinking of doing an EM study, what will help you design your study and analyse your data, what should you avoid, or be very careful about, and what exactly do we know we don’t know about EM (our ‘known unknowns’ as Donald Rumsfeld, 2002, so eloquently put it)?
METAPHORS AND ECONOMICS

CREATIVITY AND INNOVATION IN SPANISH ECONOMICS METAPHORS IN JOURNALISTIC DISCOURSE

Alicia Urquidi, Universität Bamberg, Germany

An in-depth study of the conceptual structure of metaphors can provide insights into the cultural and ideological background of those who utter them. In extension, the old (conventionalized) and emergent or novel metaphors of a language may reveal the worldviews and ideologies that dominate the culture of a speaker community at a given historical moment (see Goatly (2007), Lakoff (2009), Kövecses (2004), among many others). One might expect strong similarities in the metaphorical treatment given to the subject of Economics by most Western European languages – with its frequent crises within an ever-changing world system –, as this would reflect the globalization of media and the dominant role the English language plays in communicating Economics concepts worldwide. However, like other Romance languages, Spanish (the subject of this PhD project) has produced some unique novel metaphorical expressions in this context (Orts and Rojo, 2009), which are worth studying on their own and could reveal some cultural particularities.

Novel metaphors have been studied extensively, conceptually from a production perspective (e.g. Kövecses (2010)), and pragmatically, in a Relevance theory framework, from a reception perspective (e.g. Carston (2010)). My focus, however, will be in describing the “metaphorical thoughts” – the conceptual structures that could plausibly underlie these novel metaphorical expressions in the speaker’s mind, with special care to choose the most convincing descriptive models for each type. Skirl and Schwarz-Friedel (2013) distinguish between creative and innovative metaphors, in which the former refers to Lakoff and Turner’s notion of metaphorical extension of existing domain pairings, and the latter refers to the creation of entirely original domain pairings. Based on the Spanish data gathered so far, it is possible to support the argument these types are best described with the two-domain model of Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Lakoff (1993)), and the Conceptual Integration, or Blending model (Brand and Brand (2005)), respectively. It is likely that this divided approach will provide for a more adequate interpretation of these metaphors than a single-model approach. It will also pave the way for further characterizations, for example in terms of conventionality, metaphoricity (Hanks (2006)) or metaphorical strength (Svanlund (2007)) and, crucially, it will provide a solid basis for judgments regarding their ideological contents and cultural relevance. For this study, metaphorical expressions will be manually extracted from one month’s issues (print) of the Spanish-language daily newspaper El País, published in Madrid, and the most widely read daily newspaper. If similar expressions are found in other media, these will be considered if found relevant and only as long as they are well documented. In these cases, expressions originating in publications with the higher circulation numbers will be prioritized. As a part of a larger dissertation project dealing with economic metaphors in journalistic texts, this study seeks to test the method presented above before applying it in further studies to larger, electronic corpora.

References
Metaphors can make complex topics, such as politics or economic developments, more accessible to citizens. They are also a powerful tool for creating subtly persuasive messages serving ideological purposes (e.g. Charteris-Black, 2004; Chiang & Duann, 2007; Kitis & Milapides, 1997; Musolff, 2006; Santa Ana, 1999; Zinken, 2003).

If metaphorical language can potentially influence people’s views on topics, and consequently their actions, it is important to know when people are most likely to build their mental representations of a spoken or written text on a metaphorical schema.

As news contributes to building and adapting knowledge and beliefs and may thus influence how we view events, I experimentally investigate when people build their textual representations of a news article on economic competition. In a memory study I probe the effect of signaling and the level of conventionality of metaphorically used lexis on textual representations – two variables that have been ignored or conflated in previous studies.

The news production process allows journalists to carefully craft their texts and make precise lexical choices. I will therefore discuss the results in relation to deliberate metaphor in news reporting.
METAPHORS AND ECONOMICS

METAPHOR IN POLITICAL COMMUNICATION ACROSS CULTURES: WHAT IS ECONOMIC RECESSION? A (POT)HOLE OR A BURDEN?

Jurga Cibulskienė, Lithuanian University of Educational Sciences, Lithuania

Metaphor being a constituent part of different forms of communication is highly prevalent in political communication. As Paivio and Walsh (1993: 150) put it “Metaphor is a solar eclipse. It hides the object of study and at the same time reveals some of its most salient and interesting characteristics when viewed through the right telescope”. Apparently, this metametaphor provides credible explanation why there is such increasing interest taken by cognitive linguists (Chilton 2004, Mussolf 2004, Charteris-Black 2005/2011, 2013, Goatly 2007, Semino 2008, Hart 2010, Neagu 2013, etc.) in how political ideas are communicated (encoded and decoded) from the perspective of CMT (Conceptual Metaphor Theory). Cognitive linguists tend to claim that political language being one of the constituents of political discourse is metaphorical, and the political world is constituted by public communication which facilitates the division of the world into more simple and easier accessible models which are easy to manipulate.

This study of metaphors in political communication across cultures is carried out within the framework of Critical Metaphor Analysis (CMA) developed by Charteris-Black (2005/2011) and it borders on two types of discourses—economic and political—as it focuses how politicians conceptualize economic recession via the conceptual element of OBSTACLE within the JOURNEY metaphor scenario. Furthermore, this is a cross-cultural study as it analyzes the discourses of the Conservative Party in Lithuania and the Conservative Party in the United Kingdom (UK). Accordingly, two corpora of the Conservative Party in Lithuania and the United Kingdom, containing 115,170 and 98,284 words respectively, were constructed. In order to look into how politicians of the two countries metaphorically comprehend the economic recession, a three-step procedure (Identified→ Interpreted→ Explained), originally suggested by Charteris-Black (2005), was employed. First, linguistic metaphors were identified in the discourse by using the Antconc concordance program and manual metaphor search. Secondly, they were interpreted in relation to their underlying conceptual metaphors. Both steps provide statistical data. In the final step, metaphors were analysed from a rhetorical perspective. This study primarily focuses on the third stage of explanation which deals with the ideological motivation of language use. Here metaphor is understood as a persuasive and rhetorical tool of argumentation. In other words, an attempt is made to look into how the analyzed participants of political discourses in Lithuania and the UK legitimize their political agendas via the conceptual element of OBSTACLE within the JOURNEY metaphor in attempt to overcome the economic recession.

References
Cognitive Linguistics claims the experiential and Gestalt roots of language conceptualization and its metaphorical expressions (Kövecses 2000; Lakoff & Johnson 1980, 1999). However, little experimental work has been done to prove the assumption from a phenomenological viewpoint (Pinna, Albertazzi 2010). The present study - following previous ones that showed the existence of naturally biased associations in vision among the general population (Albertazzi et al., 2013; Dadam et al., 2012; Jürgen & Nikolić, 2012; Spector & Maurer, 2011) - extends the research to language, verifying the association between shapes and their semantic adjectival properties. In previous work, certain characteristics of shapes were found to be naturally associated with certain colours. In this study we tested the hypothesis of a non-random, consistent, association of some characteristics with certain affordances expressed by natural language categories, like adjectives. Using the Osgood semantic differential, we considered the appearances of biological shapes in terms of proportion, activity, warmth, brightness, weakness, softness, lightness, boringness, pleasantness, and maluma/takete. The results support the idea of a correspondence, not only between different dimensions of visual modality, as already proved, but also between perceptual and semantic processes, which are basic to understanding the process of metaphorical expressions.

References
Delivering effective speeches is crucial for politicians on the campaign trail trying to get the public’s attention. According to the Limited Capacity Model of Mediated Message Processing (Lang et al., 2000), presenting deviant information is an effective way to get immediate attention. Thus, rhetorical formulations like contrast, list of three, position-taking and name-calling should be effective attention getters in political speech. After all, such rhetorical formulations are typically defined as “artful deviations from expected language” (McQuarrie & Mick, 1996).

However, most research analysed the effects of rhetorical formulations in political speech by studying audience applause at political-party conventions (Bull & Wells, 2002; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1986). While these studies provided valuable insights, this approach also has several disadvantages, as speakers’ reputations, non-verbal behaviour and attractiveness could bias the effects of the rhetorical formulations used. Therefore, to complement such research, we conducted two experimental lab studies. To the best of our knowledge, these are the first experimental studies to establish the effects of rhetorical formulations in political speech on immediate attention, and recall, outside the context of political party conventions.

Furthermore, the level of negativity can be an important moderator of rhetorical-formulation effects. Many social-psychological studies document the negativity bias (e.g., Baumeister, et al., 2001; Ito et al., 1998) which posits that negative information has a greater impact on individuals than positive information. Therefore, we also focus on framing (positive/negative) as a potential moderator of rhetorical-formulation effects.

In Experiment 1 (N=120, Mage=29.62, SDage=10.76, 62.2% female), we presented participants with short radio speeches in various conditions following 2 (frame: positive or negative) x 2 (rhetorical formulations: present or absent) x 2 (speaker: male or female) x 2 (topic: violent crime or child abuse) mixed design with frame, rhetorical formulations, and speaker as between-subjects factors. We measured immediate attention on moment-to-moment basis with the program Inputlog (Leijten & van Waes, 2013), and speech recall with open questions.

Experiment 2 (N=80, Mage=30.46, SDage = 13.18, 50% female) had a similar design, but immediate attention was now measured through a Secondary Task Reaction Time (STRT) test.

Both studies consistently show that rhetorical formulations and negative framing attract more immediate attention (vs. no rhetorical formulations and positive framing, respectively). Furthermore, Experiment 2 also showed how rhetorical formulations increase speech recall. Thus, both studies demonstrate how political speeches can benefit from including rhetorical formulations and negative framing. Implications for metaphor studies and political communication will be discussed.
References
Psychotherapy is fertile ground for metaphor research because it is primarily verbal and involves much linguistic conceptualization of abstractions. Both therapists and linguists have studied metaphors in psychotherapy, but with different objectives and assumptions which could be brought closer together. While therapists conduct qualitative and quantitative analyses to answer such questions as the contents of metaphors and correlations with treatment outcome, they do not fully capitalize on latest findings in metaphor theory which may help to deepen their understanding and operationalisation of metaphor. Meanwhile, linguists well-versed in metaphor theory understandably hesitate to propose concrete therapeutic applications of their analyses, and stop short of probing for correlations between linguistic/discourse analytic variables and therapeutically relevant variables. In light of the above and the increasing salience of quantitative metaphor research, we present an exploratory study connecting linguistic and therapeutic variables at different levels, in ways which may bring the two strands of research closer. We identified metaphors from transcripts of ten consecutive sessions of meta-cognitive therapy, and doubly coded them for linguistic (i.e. word class, domain, novel vs. conventional, therapist vs. patient-uttered) and therapeutic variables (i.e. type of therapeutic function performed) which were then permutatively correlated. Certain correlations (e.g. therapist/patient utterance and therapeutic function; Cramer’s V=0.3265) were found to be stronger than others (e.g. word class and therapeutic function; Cramer’s V=0.1266), which may help clarify which linguistic and/or interactional aspects of metaphor are more therapeutically sensitive for future applicative research. We also present another level of relating the linguistic with the therapeutic, by investigating metaphor trends across the ten sessions as potential markers of therapeutic progress. We conclude that the explanability of our findings with respect to both linguistic and therapeutic factors suggests deeper ways in which linguists and therapists can collaborate to research and apply metaphor in this important mental health resource.
The psychotherapy literature suggests that the reuse and co-creation of metaphoric themes may create a mutually understandable terminology and context of meaning between the therapist and client. Therapists may respond to client metaphors in a number of ways, including ignoring, repeating and asking elaboration. While a number of studies have investigated the role of metaphor in psychotherapy, there has been very little empirical investigation of metaphors in cognitive behaviour therapy (CBT). There is an enthusiastic practice-based literature in CBT advocating therapist use of metaphors while some suggest that collaborative co-construction and transformation of client metaphors may be a rich source for conceptualising clients’ problems and enhancing CBT. This paper reports on an investigation of the co-construction of metaphor by clients and therapists in an existing set of CBT session transcripts, in particular the extent to which metaphors are introduced by therapists and clients and the range of therapist responses that occurs. The analysis takes a dynamic systems approach, using Cameron and Maslen’s (2010) method of metaphor identification and draws on potential responses identified by Ferrara (1994). The paper will also discuss the suitability of this methodology to investigate this area of practice.

References
METAPHOR AND COGNITIVE DISORDERS

HIGH-FUNCTIONING AUTISM SPECTRUM AND METAPHOR COMPREHENSION: RECENT COGNITIVE PERSPECTIVES AND EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

Lucia Morra, University of Turin, Italy

Recently, cognitive scholars of metaphor understanding have drawn more closely their attention on metaphor comprehension in High Functioning Autism/Autism Spectrum Disorders. Language disorders characterizing HFA/ASD, essentially of pragmatic nature, do in fact represent an interesting field for testing cognitive models of understanding metaphors (and more generally language).

In the last two years, many findings about metaphor comprehension in high-functioning ASD individuals have been produced. They show a peculiar understanding of metaphors in ASD individuals, who prove as well relatively weak in suppressing irrelevant information (amongst others, Mashal, N., Kasirer, A. 2012; Mascaro, Sperber 2009). Further, neuroimaging studies show that ASD individuals show, at a neurological level, a lower functional connectivity (synchronization of brain activity among activated areas, amongst others Williams et al. 2013).

The (provisional) outcomes of the experimental research in the domain of metaphor and metonymy competencies in ASD (critically reviewed, cfr. Melogno, Pinto, Levi 2012; Giora, Gernsbacher 2012) will then be tested against some cognitive models of metaphor understanding, considering the consequences for ASD understanding they imply (for instance, Wearing 2010). The contribution will focus in particular on the bilateral neuropragmatic approach to metaphor understanding (Jung-Beeman 2005, Giora 2007, Bambini et al. 2011), on the cognitive model coined in a relevance-theoretic framework by Carston (2012), and on models in which the two approaches are merged (Morra 2013, Huang 2007).

Theoretical issues raised by empirical findings and suggested by new theoretical frameworks about metaphor comprehension in general and in HFA/ASD in particular will then be discussed. One of the questions discussed will be the necessity of a more tailored application of the theory of mind to HFA/ASD individuals (Chevallier 2012; Chevallier et al. 2012; Tomasello 2008). Another problem that will be tackled is the importance of the comprehension of the context of ‘conversation’ in which the empirical experiments took place and of its conventional rules. Provided that metaphor understanding –how deep or creative this understanding may be – in typically developed subjects is deeply influenced by the comprehension and endorsement of the interpretive moves speakers and interpreters are allowed to do in a given context of dialogue (Bazzanella, Morra 2007), it may be of interests evaluating how a weaker understanding and then endorsement of the mutual restrictions of the individual interpretive freedom a cooperative communication entails (Morra i.c.s.), typical in HFA/ASD subjects, may influence their answers in the experiments and then the empirical findings.

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Metonymy is a cognitive and linguistic process through which we use one thing to refer to another, so for example, we might use the word ‘Hollywood’ to refer to the mainstream American films, or the word ‘Shakespeare’ to refer to plays and poems written by Shakespeare. In these examples, a place and a person are used to refer to things that are strongly related to that particular place and that particular person. It often involves using a simple or concrete concept to refer to something that is more complex or more abstract, or even sensitive, so in American history the terms ‘9/11’ and ‘Pearl Harbour’ are used to refer to the events that took place on that date and in that place respectively.

Various theoretical models have been proposed to explain metonymy and different claims have been made regarding its status with respect to metaphor. For example, it has been claimed that metonymy can be either ‘rerential’ or ‘propositional’, thet referential metonymy less likely than metaphor to be involved in language play, that it typically draws on existing relationships rather than creating new ones, that it typically appears in the noun phrase, and that it rarely operates at the level of the text.

Somewhat surprisingly, there have been relatively few studies to date of role played by metonymy in authentic linguistic data, which have allowed these claims to be tested. Such studies would be useful as they would show how metonymy is really used, and how its use is affected by genre and register.

Several features of text messaging make it a good place to investigate metonymy. It is often conducted between friends, there is need for speed and brevity, it tends to contain abbreviated forms, and there is considerable scope for language play. In this study, we explore the extent and role played by metonymy in a text messaging corpus consisting of 1000 messages in order to provide preliminary answers to the following questions: How extensive is the use of metonymy in the text messaging corpus? What types of metonymy occur and to what extent is it possible to use existing metonymy classifications to identify metonymy? To what extent does the use of metonymy reflect claims made in the literature? To what extent and in what ways is the use of metonymy shaped by genre and register?
METAPHOR AND METONYMY

METAPHOR, METONYMY AND MEANING MAKING IN THE BOLOGNA PROCESS DISCOURSE

Katarina Rasulić, University of Belgrade, Serbia

This paper presents a cognitive linguistic account of metaphors and metonymies in formal and informal discourse related to the ongoing higher education reform process in Europe widely known as “the Bologna process”. The Bologna Process, aimed at creating “the European Higher Education Area”, has been met with praise and criticism, and the discourse related to it has been critically examined from different theoretical perspectives (e.g. Keeling 2006, Fairclough and Wodak 2008, Fejes 2008).


The findings show that the discursive construction of contemporary European higher education is pervasively shaped by conceptual metaphors arising from a variety of source domains such as SPACE, MOTION, BUILDING, MARKET ECONOMY, and, especially in informal discourse, COOKING, as well as by toponymic metonymies in which BOLOGNA features as a catch-all metonymic vehicle with often blurred and agency backgrounding target concepts. The identified conceptual mappings are discussed with respect to their role in the making of descriptive and associative meaning in English and their ensuing impact on the global conceptualization of higher education. The theoretical considerations concern the benefits of the interdisciplinary dialogue between cognitive linguistics and critical discourse analysis.
The theoretical approach of this paper is cognitive stylistic. It enables me to explore the functioning of metonymy in multimodal discourse. The method offered for identification and analysis of phraseological units (Naciscione 2001, 2010) has been used to identify and analyse metonymic multimodal conceptualisations, taking into account extra-linguistic factors (political, social, cultural).

My research is mainly based on material from Latvian advertisements, focusing on metonymy in its verbal and visual representation. The paper deals with interdiscoursal use of the metonymic image of the bottle. I would argue for the term “interdiscoursal use” to describe the type of use which arose at the appearance of the first advertising posters in Latvia in 1863 and is still in use in various advertising campaigns in the 21st century in both its verbal and visual expression.

Diachronic research reveals that social campaigns against alcohol abuse have always been topical throughout the world. For instance, in the Latvian language the bottle is to blame for a misfortune or an accident, which is reflected in a number of stable language units, e. g., the Latvian phraseological unit skatīties/ieskatīties/ielūkoties pudelē (to look/glance/peep into the bottle), which means “to drink; to use alcohol” (euphemistic metonymy).

The development of the metonymic image of the bottle forms a sustainable figurative network. The image of the bottle appears repeatedly in different advertising campaigns; these images go beyond the boundaries of one discourse or one advertising campaign. Sustainable stylistic use demonstrates the strength of stylistic use of the image, and reveals stability and continuity of figurative thought.

Examination of cases of use of metonymic images of the bottle leads me to the conclusion that metonymy is an important cognitive mechanism in visual representation. Sustainability of the visual image and its interdiscoursal use plays a significant role in thinking and conceptualisation of experience. As a rule, metonymy functions together with other stylistic means, for instance, metaphor, pun, allusion, personification and other stylistic patterns which contribute to conceptualisation of thought, motivated by conceptual metaphor.
METAPHORS AND EMOTIONS

METAPHORICITY AS EMOTIONAL CO-EXPERIENCE IN DIALOGUE

Thomas Wiben Jensen, University of Southern Denmark, Denmark
Elena Cuffari, University of the Basque Country, Spain

In this talk we will lay out an account on metaphoricity as a whole-body phenomenon emerging from the dynamic coordination of action, attention and emotional value in social interaction. In recent years the idea of metaphors and metaphor production as a primarily individual achievement based on activations of an underlying conceptual system, as proposed by Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Lakoff and Johnson 1980, 1999), has been challenged by dynamical approaches to the temporal, interactional and multimodal dimensions in metaphor production in spoken dialogue (Cameron 2007, Gibbs and Cameron 2008, Müller 2008, Müller and Cienki 2009). These approaches often conceive individual’s behavior as emerging from the interaction of brain, body, and environment, especially interactions with other persons, rather than viewing metaphor performance as individually separate and decontextualized autonomous meanings. Instead the socio-cognitive dimensions involved in metaphoricity are now analyzed as self-organizing processes emerging from the inter-dynamics of human dialogue.

In this talk we build on this highly important empirically-led work while also offering a further theoretical level to the understanding of metaphoricity in dialogue. We will argue that an over-arching account of cognition and language that further ties cognition with whole body interactional dynamics is still called for. We need a theoretically grounded approach to languaging (Lowe 2007, Thibault 2011) that understands metaphor as not just indicative of cognition, i.e. metaphors are not just ‘windows’ to goings-on in the mind ‘in the mind’, and they are not just cognitively prepared. Instead metaphors are enacted as a special mode of cognition entailing a specific quality of doubleness.

Based on video data, analyzed via our method for identifying metaphoricity in whole-body social interaction (forthcoming), we suggest an ecological and enactive framework for metaphoricity as one domain of languaging. Informed by recent developments within dialogism (Linell 2009), distributed language and cognition (Hodges 2009, Cowley 2011, Pedersen 2012, Steffensen 2012), and enactive cognition (De Jaegher and Di Paolo 2007) we lay out an account of metaphoricity in (spoken) languaging, which we demonstrate via a video case study from couples counseling. The example shows how whole-body metaphoricity coordinates the interaction affording a co-experiencing between the man and woman in the way his metaphorically expressed experience is reflected in her embodied emotional behavior leading the couple to co-inhabit an emotional understanding. Metaphoricity emerges as a doubleness in experience from and reciprocally intervenes in the local ecology of perspectives, needs, and values.

References
In the discipline of Cognitive Linguistics, the view that our conceptual systems are structured and grounded in bodily experiences and that metaphors are rooted in our embodied experiences (Lakoff 1987) has gained wide acceptance. Studies on emotion metaphors have given evidence to support this view (e.g. Lakoff and Johnson 1980, Lakoff and Johnson 1999, Kövecses 2000, Kövecses 2005). Conversely, other cognitive linguists (e.g. studies in Sharifian et. al., 2008, and studies in Maalej and Yu, 2011) have found resonance in their view that metaphors are components of cultural cognition. One of the groundbreaking arguments that culture plays an important role in metaphorical conceptualisation was presented by Geeraerts and Grondelaers (1995), in which they convincingly demonstrated that the metaphor of anger as a heated fluid in a container is a culturally Eurocentric conceptualisation inspired by the medieval doctrine of bodily humours (see also Gevaert 2001, and Gevaert 2005). A new theoretical framework of cultural conceptualisations which aims to view language as being grounded in cultural conceptualisations and cultural cognition has been drawn in recent studies (e.g. Sharifian 2011).

Taking my starting point in the different views of the basis of metaphors, I studied emotion metaphors in pre-modern Malay society collected in the corpus of the Malay Concordance Project (http://mcp.anu.edu.au/). Based on corpus linguistic methods for metaphor analysis proposed by Deignan (2005) and Stefanowitsch (2006), I describe concepts of some basic emotions represented as the following lexical items takut, 'fear', malu 'shame', heran 'surprise', sukacita 'joy', duka 'sadness' in pre-modern Malay. My study focuses on the most frequently encountered emotion terms in the corpus. Two main questions are addressed in the paper: (1) Are there universal and/or culture-specific metaphors of emotions? (2) Is there a specific source domain associated with some emotion concepts but not with others? I observe that the more general event-structure metaphors apply to all those emotion concepts investigated in this study. However, this study suggests that in spite of similarities in the embodied experience of emotions across cultures, there are important differences between cultures in the conceptualisation of emotions.
FEELING FOR SPEAKING: BODILY EXPERIENCES GROUND FIGURATIVE AND NON-FIGURATIVE WAYS OF TALKING ABOUT EMOTIONS

Cornelia Mueller, European University Viadrina Frankfurt, Germany
Benjamin Marienfeld, European University Viadrina Frankfurt, Germany

The title of this talk alludes to Dan Slobin’s famous dynamic reformulation of the so called linguistic relativity hypothesis. Slobin criticizes von Humboldt and Whorf for their static understanding of the relationship between “thought and language”. Instead he puts forward the idea of “thinking for speaking”, because he looks at language in use. Speaking is a process in which: “the expression of experience in linguistic terms constitutes thinking for speaking – a special form of thought that is mobilized for communication.” (Slobin 1996: 76) In our talk we would like to draw the attention not to thought, but to the actual experiences that are mobilized, when people talk about their emotions and we will argue that very often, speakers not simply express conceptual content, instead they use a bodily movement, an embodied experience before they actually verbalize a description of an emotion.

The data was collected in the context of an interdisciplinary research project “Language and Gesture of Alexithymia”, associated with the Languages of Emotion Cluster at the Free University Berlin. Alexithymic people are diagnosed as having difficulties verbalizing emotions. The present article is based on a data subset of this project: 62 videotaped interviews in which we elicited identification, conceptualization and contextualization of six basic emotions in control subjects: pride, surprise, fear, happiness, anger, jealousy.

The analysis revealed that bodily enactments of the emotions recurrently precede semantically conjunct verbalizations of emotion concepts. Thus somebody being asked to describe his or her concept of surprise, answers with an elaborate bodily enactment of surprise: raised arms, shoulders, chest, head and eyebrows, which after holding it for a moment she describes verbally: “Well such a (…) deep breath, such a straightening of oneself, I don’t know, like what I just did”. She thus first feels the “deep breath” and the “straightening up” before verbalizing it. This is what we term feeling for speaking: the bodily experience that grounds talking about emotions in situ, irrespectively of whether the emotion concept was metaphorical, metonymic or a non-figurative description of body movements. Some of the ‘literal’ emotion descriptions may in other contexts well be used metaphorically. We believe that, the phenomenon of feeling for speaking throws new light on an embodied understanding of emotion concepts and opens up new lines of reflection upon the relation between embodiment and figurative language in general (Gibbs 2005; Kövecses 2002, 2008; Niedenthal et al 2009).

References
METAPHORS AND EDUCATION (2)

METAPHOR AS A STRATEGIC TOOL FOR EDUCATION

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Metaphor is a major and indispensable part of our conventional way of conceptualizing the world (Gibbs, 1990). As such, it may be a very important tool in educational contexts. This paper aims at presenting three different uses of metaphor in Education (Ward, 1996). The first one sees metaphor as a strategic key to understand relationships among professionals of an Educational institution, and catch the ideas people have about their working setting, about the management and the projects they are expected to develop. In this sense, metaphor permits to say something without exposing one’s point of view openly, and at the same time it becomes a very interesting tool for creating debate (Tannen, 1998). Thus, it can be used for training, or group management sessions, or any situation of a school context that requires dealing with the topics delicately. A second use of metaphor in Education is for qualitative research goals, especially when a research activity involves children. In this case, the use of images or words to explain feelings or opinions can be of a great efficacy for the researcher to find lines and categories of thoughts. The paper will present some examples of both applications of metaphor, within the context of a three years fieldwork research on a specific educational project – named One Laptop per Child – which implemented with the same methodology in primary schools of three different countries: Italy, Ethiopia and Brazil. To realize a qualitative research of these three case studies, metaphor was used both in teachers’ training and focus group with children. The main findings show the importance of this tool in order to understand and evaluate the project and its achievements (Pischetola, 2011).

Finally, we present a third use of metaphor, as a strategic key for learning. This has to do with conceptual maps and their use to approach reading and systemizing contents. As Lakoff (1993) points out, there are kinds of metaphors that function to map one conventional mental image onto another. Some example will be given from the course in Teachers’ training I am offering at the PUC-Rio University with undergraduate and post-graduate students in Education. In this case, metaphor is a way to organize thoughts and reach a deeper understanding while approaching texts for study.

All three fields of application demonstrate how metaphor is not only interesting for its own sake. It is especially useful as a multiple and varied tool for the educational field, whether it is for training, research or teaching strategies.
METAPHORS AND EDUCATION (2)

METAPHOR AND THE SHAPING OF EDUCATIONAL THINKING

John Wade, University of Cagliari, Italy

Block (1999: 135-137) describes metaphor, according to the thinking of Schön (1979), as both a product through which we make sense of reality and a process through which it is possible to remodel our perception of the world which surrounds us. Does such a view have implications for teaching, training and learning? How, for example, can we describe or explain the professional “artistry” of a talented sportsperson, musician, architect or teacher (Schön 1987: 13) for pedagogical purposes? Or how may we explain the complex processes that contribute to the success or otherwise of educational outcomes? It is argued here that metaphor is a key factor in describing and modelling educational processes. The purpose of this paper is to briefly examine one aspect of how metaphor is used in educational discourse, with particular reference to the concept of EDUCATION as JOURNEY, for instance in the following example from Hamilton (1990: 38): “Destinations may be specified without including an indication of the routes to be followed. And routes may be presented as compass bearings that point across otherwise uncharted terrain (the italics are mine)”. Here we might assume that it appears to be a simple matter defining objectives for the curriculum, but it is far more complex to arrive at those objectives in concrete terms, since solutions require new thinking in an unexplored world, both linguistically (framing the problem) and physically (implementation).

This ongoing study is based on a corpus of about a million words gathered from open-source material available on the Web (Sharoff 2006), which was computerised, annotated and analysed with the use of a concordancer (Hunston 2002). The paper illustrates how the material for the study was gathered and analysed, discusses some of the advantages and disadvantages of this approach and finally shows the findings of this research with regard to the JOURNEY metaphor in educational discourse, with a specific focus on the relative frequency of metaphorical references, their syntactic collocation and the extent to which they might model our perspective on issues concerning education.

References


WHAT IS METAPHORIC COMPETENCE AND HOW CAN IT BE MEASURED?

Sarah Turner, University of Birmingham, United Kingdom

The study of metaphor has enjoyed significant interest in recent years. Far from being considered a mere rhetorical or poetic device, metaphor has now been shown to play a fundamental role in human language and cognition. Numerous studies have illustrated the high frequency of metaphor in discourse, with Steen, Dorst et al. (2010), for example, showing that 18.5% of lexical items in academic texts were metaphorically used, 16.4% of news texts. These figures are hardly surprising given the wide range of functions metaphor has been shown to perform in discourse (Semino 2008).

Despite its prominence and utility in discourse, learners of English have been shown to struggle with both the production and comprehension of metaphor (Littlemore 2001, Kathpalia and Carmel 2011), to the point where they frequently avoid using the metaphorical senses of words (Danesi 1992). This ‘over-literalness’ (Danesi 1995: 4) of non-native speech and writing is a barrier to fluency and native-like language use, and ‘metaphoric competence’ should thus be considered an important aspect of language teaching and learning (Littlemore and Low 2006).

However, the measurement of metaphoric competence is somewhat problematic. The Metaphor Identification Procedure (‘MIP’), developed by the Pragglejaz Group (2007), constitutes a significant tool in empirical research into metaphor, but metaphoric competence cannot be measured by merely identifying the metaphors used in learner language output. This is because it is closely linked to other areas such as phraseology, creativity and pragmatics, which the MIP does not take into account.

This presentation uses an investigation of metaphor use in a small corpus of learner English to exemplify these links and explore what ‘metaphoric competence’ means in practice. On the basis of this definition, a proposed expansion to the MIP will then be discussed, with the aim of moving towards a more comprehensive framework with which to assess metaphoric competence in learner language.

References
SECOND PANEL: METAPHOR IN NATURAL SCIENCES

DEGENERACY AND DEXTERITY: TWO METAPHORICAL DEVICES IN NEUROSCIENCES FOR THE INTERPRETATION OF THE MIND-BODY RELATIONSHIPS

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The historical and epistemological dimensions of two common concepts today in use in cognitive neurosciences will be explored: ‘degeneracy’ of the nervous system and behavioral ‘dexterity’. The common idea – related to plasticity, redundancy, and individual variability (all constitutive features of the new model of the mind-body relationship) – will be proposed as a key to understand the connection between development and functioning of the central nervous system and the development of the cognitive system in complex behaviors.
In the promising field of Systems Biology (SB), an interdisciplinary approach to the systematic study of complex interactions in biological systems which seeks to decipher common, emergent or hidden behaviors, a brand new metaphor is hard to find. It is quite atypical, for SB, as recent as it is, shall have put forth a new series of metaphors on which underpin its theoretical novelties and still undefined terminology, according to a well-established strategy used by newborn or developing disciplines in the XX century. On the contrary, the fundamental terms used by SB such as information, data, network, modules, degeneracy are all worn tropes that indeed came from other scientific fields and that in the new context of SB appear to be revitalized. The rejuvenating process, it is our hypothesis, is permitted by new tools —i.e. bioinformatics, data mining, network theory, artificial intelligence, statistical and mathematical modeling— which reshape the old terms by sieving and selecting the meanings that seem to be crucial for the recent needs of SB. Special attention will be paid to the biomedical field where SB’s metaphors vividly reveal the loss and gain process of the meanings and where new tropes seem to be able to design new hypothesis, new experiments and new unexpected results.
That metaphors are widely used in practically all scientific fields appears to be out of question to modern historians or philosophers of science. As regards to the history of physics, even fundamental terms like ‘force’, ‘fields’, ‘pointlike particles’, ‘atoms’, etc. have a patent metaphorical meaning. Nevertheless, the emphasis on metaphors in science appears to be a recent historiographic attitude, tracing back to the 1960s. Moreover, as a matter of fact, scientists have not always regarded the terms they employed — ‘force’, ‘fields’, ‘pointlike particles’, ‘atoms’, etc. — as metaphors. At the dawn of modern science, Galilei contrasted the Scriptures, which speak metaphorically (Lettera a B. Castelli, 1613) with natural philosophy, which grasp the real geometrical-mathematical language of the “Great Book” of the universe (Il Saggiatore, 1623). Another example is Newton: as metaphorical the language of his “Queries” to the Opticks might appear today, Newton himself would hardly recognize e.g. his imagine of the infinite space as the “sensorium of God” as a metaphor. I will propose to understand both this apparent failure to recognize metaphorical tools in science and our habit to emphasize metaphors as the effect of a radical change in the relation we pose between words and things.
INTERACTIVE METAPHOR: HOW METAPHORIC MEANING EMERGES FROM CONVERSATION

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Our paper targets, what we believe to be a further interesting facet of the dynamic nature of metaphoric meaning making (Cameron 2009, 2010; Müller 2008): the interactive foregrounding of linguistic metaphor in conversations. We will suggest that by using a broad range of metaphor activation devices (e.g. speech and gesture, semantic oppositions, intonation, or metaphoric elaboration), co-participants show each other that and how they understand a particular metaphor (Müller and Tag 2010; see also Cameron’s and Deignan’s tuning devices 2003). Speakers use them to draw the attention of their conversational partners to their individual understanding of a metaphor. By foregrounding selected metaphors a shared meaning emerges. What we see here is a level of metaphoric meaning that overspans and sometimes structures entire conversations. However, it is not a “systematic metaphor” in Cameron’s terms, which is located on the discourse level of potential metaphoricity and which is based on every potential metaphor identified by the analyst. What we are referring to is ‘a bit closer’ to the interaction. We are aiming at reconstructing the perspective of the co-participants: Since we do not look at each and every single metaphor in the text, but only consider those that have been (inter-)actively foregrounded by the participants. This kind of emergent metaphoric meaning might tentatively be termed as “conversational or interactive metaphor”.

In this talk we would like to substantiate this argument by presenting some results from two studies: (1) a group discussion based on a news-paper article on self-realisation and (2) dance workshops on balance, posture, walking and turning in dance (ballet, modern, tango, waltz). We have applied a Metaphor Foregrounding Analysis (Müller and Tag 2010) and combined this with a Keynote based time-line annotation (Müller and Ladewig in press).

Our analysis aims at illustrating that such a shared metaphoric meaning of “what self-realisation is” or what “balance in tango or ballet is” emerges for the members over the course of the respective interactive event. We will suggest that by documenting all instances of foregrounded metaphor across the communicative event, it is possible to reconstruct the perspective of the co-participants. The perspective on metaphor presented in this talk contributes not only to a further differentiation of the dynamics of metaphoric meaning making in discourse, but also offers new insights into the consciousness and deliberateness of metaphor (Gibbs 2011; Müller 2011; Steen 2011) let alone to what Steen has termed the paradox of metaphor.

References


The term “register” has been used over the past 40 years with different meanings within Applied Linguistics (Giménez-Moreno, 1997, 2006, 2011a and 2011b; Giménez-Moreno & Skorczynska, 2013), but also distinct terms and parameters have been used to refer to “register” (e.g. Gregory and Carroll, 1978; Halliday, 1978, 1980; Ghadessy, 1988; Biber, 1995). Giménez-Moreno (2006) proposed an approach considering the register as a dynamic continuum from the most intimate and informal to the most ritual and formal, covering a wide range of everyday situations and contexts. Registers also vary according to the participants’ roles, so that at least two macro-registers are distinguishable in our private lives: (1) a family one, used with relatives, and (2) an amicable one, used with friends. In the same vein, in our public life at least two other macro-registers can be differentiated: (3) a social one, used with neighbours and other citizens in social open settings, and (4) a professional one, used with colleagues and other professionals in institutional and work settings.

A few studies, to our knowledge, have specifically focused on register variation and metaphor (Goatly, 1994; Krennmayr, 2011; O’Halloran, 2007; Steen et al., 2010), and they all considered register in terms of very broad language variations, such as conversation, news, science popularization or academic prose, and one study only (Krennmayr, 2011) regarded sub-registers of news (e.g. world affairs, natural sciences, social sciences, applied sciences), reporting significant interaction with metaphor-related language. The results of quantitative studies of metaphor in different registers can be distorted if the register analyzed is not clearly defined in terms of the tenor, field and mode. The register of conversation, for instance, covers different settings (more formal or informal), with different participants (family members, colleagues, friends, students, etc.), and therefore should not be considered as such because of multiple contextual variables influencing the choice of lexico-grammatical forms and pragmatic meanings. Comparing, therefore, metaphorical uses of language between news and conversation in general may be misleading and can obscure the actual metaphor variation in different contexts, and so in distinct registers.

This study looks into the register used in private communication, and in particular into conversation with family members. Preliminary research, based on the analysis of chapters from two popular TV series (The Royle Family and Gavin & Stacey) has approached its broad characteristics (Giménez-Moreno & Skorczynska, 2014). This study will concentrate on the metaphorical language used in the conversations between family members in these two series, and will specifically aim to describe the type of metaphor used (Krennmayr, 2011), its lexicogrammatical forms and communicative functions. The results obtained in the qualitative analysis will provide insights into the use of linguistic metaphors in the family register in British English, and so will help advance the knowledge of interaction between register variation and metaphor.
References
This paper focuses on the alternative choice between metonymic and literal expressions for the concept GOVERNMENT from an onomasiological point of view. For example, CHINESE GOVERNMENT can be expressed by the metonymic capital name Beijing, or the literal phrase the Chinese government. In line with current developments in Cognitive Sociolinguistics (Kristiansen & Dirven 2008; Geeraerts, Kristiansen & Peirsman 2010), we argue that the alternation is not a question of free variation, but signals a specific lectal stratification of the linguistic community. In this case study, we tackle the variation between two varieties of Chinese: Mainland Chinese (MC) and Taiwan Chinese (TC).

We compiled a corpus with newspaper articles and online forum postings from MC and TC. Firstly, we developed an inventory of possible expressions for GOVERNMENT, i.e. literal expressions (zheng-fu government, dang-ju authorities), country names (e.g. zhong-guo China), capital names (e.g. hua-sheng-dun Washington), etc. Then, we confronted all these expressions against the corpus and manually extracted those observations with GOVERNMENT interpretation. For each extracted observation, we coded the stylistic register (news vs. online forum), the language variety (MC vs. TC), the topic of the context (political, financial, social, etc.), the syntactic position of the expression (subject vs. non-subject), and a number of discursive features (e.g. juxtaposed metonymies) as independent variables, with the response variable being the semantic status of the alternative expressions: metonymic (i.e. place names) or literal (e.g. the XX government). With the help of mixed effects logistic regression analyses, this study models the binary designations for GOVERNMENT.

The statistical results unveil that the choice of metonymic vs. literal designations is a result of complex interplay of a number of conceptual, grammatical and discursive factors and no single decisive factor would determine people’s onomasiological choice. Also, for the specific concept CHINESE GOVERNMENT, significant lectal variation has been found between MC and TC, and the lectal variation is more outspoken to the rise of place name metonymy (cf. Markert & Nissim 2003; Brdar & Brdar-Szabó2009) in the newspaper language rather than the online forum language. This lectal variation may link up with the ideological difference between people from Mainland and Taiwan towards the concept under discussion.

References

In July 2013, the British Civil Service issued a new style guide for its online documents, Government Digital Service Content Principles. In itself, this is nothing remarkable: all forms of publishing require style guides to ensure consistency across authors, text types and topics. What is remarkable, however, is the peculiarly prescriptive tone of the document, particularly evident in Section 1.5, “Plain English - mandatory for all of GOV.UK”. Here, readers are told to simplify their language, and to avoid “government ‘buzzwords’ and jargon” because “these words are too general and vague and can lead to misinterpretation or empty, meaningless text” (ibid.). Introduced with the statement “We can do without these words” (ibid.) is a list of 37 words, followed by a further list of phrases under the separate subheading “Always avoid metaphors”.

The word-lists generated a flurry of interest in the press at the time of the document’s release, and are of interest to linguists for a number of reasons, not all of which will be discussed here (but see Author, in prep.). The tone is prescriptive; contemporary uses of language, together with Latinate vocabulary, are disdained and discouraged in favour of ostensibly simpler language. And figurative language, whether explicitly identified as such or otherwise, is deemed to be the worst culprit of them all.

It is the flagging up of only some of the metaphorical vocabulary as “metaphors” which is of particular interest to metaphor scholars. Indeed only two of the 37 words on the general list are *not* metaphorical (if we class as metaphorical any meanings which differ from the “basic” one), and none are any less metaphorical than those in the metaphor list: compare “pizzas, post and services are *delivered* - not abstract concepts like ‘improvements’ or ‘priorities’” in the general list, with “you can only *drive* vehicles; not schemes or people”, ibid). The only distinguishing feature which separates the vocabulary in the two lists is that the general list is composed of one-word items (with one exception), while the metaphor list features multi-word items (again, with one exception). In other words, it seems as if phrasal vocabulary is more easily identifiable as metaphorical (by non-specialists) than apparently stand-alone lexical items. This study investigates this notion further, using a specially-collected corpus of all the civil servant policy documents published online in the year 2013.

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METAPHORS AND L2 ACQUISITION (1)

METAPHORS IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION RESEARCH

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This paper aims at discussing some metaphors used in the field of second language acquisition and the concept of “participation”. I will compare some metaphors which have been used in second language acquisition research and defend that all of them are important to describe the phenomenon although none of them describe all the processes involved in learning additional language. I will examine a corpus of 8 theories – behaviorism, acculturation, universal grammar, input hypothesis, interaction hypothesis, output hypothesis, connectivism, sociocultural theory – in order to identify their main metaphors. I will demonstrate that when a metaphor names a phenomenon it highlights one of its aspects and hides others. In the case of the “acquisition” metaphor, language is conceived of as a commodity, something the learner (a recipient) acquires from the ones who possess it. This metaphor has been criticized and avoided because it does not fit in with some of the more recent theories such as the sociocultural. Sfard (1998), building on Lave and Wenger’s theory (1991), proposes the “participation” metaphor (becoming a community member) to complement the acquisition metaphor (mind as recipient). The “participation metaphor” has been accepted by several researchers in second language acquisition. In this presentation, I will argue, in the light of the cognitive theory of metaphor (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980; Kövecses, 2002), that “participation” cannot be a metaphor because we cannot trace back any mapping between two conceptual domains, a source and a target. Nevertheless, the concept of participation fits in with the definition of metonymy as defined by Radden and Kövecses (2007: 336): “a cognitive process, in which a conceptual entity, the vehicle, provides mental access to another conceptual entity, the target, within a same cognitive model”. Learning as a process of participation in a community of practice is part of the same cognitive model of the language learning context. I will conclude that to describe complex human phenomenon, such as language learning, we need a constellation of metaphors, i.e. “an interrelated set of conceptual metaphors and their entailments that contribute to a meaning system” (Kochis & Gillespie, 2006).

References
Metaphor research has been calling for a systematic inclusion of metaphor into English Language Teaching (ELT) materials design, and metaphor scholars have highlighted the potential benefits of Task-Based Teaching (TBT) for teaching metaphor (e.g., Low, 2008; Littlemore & Low, 2006). TBT involves communicative and goal-oriented tasks that engage learners in naturalistic language-use (Willis & Willis, 2007). Metaphoric competence, which is problematic for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners, could be enhanced through TBT due to its communicative nature and emphasis on noticing forms through task performance (Low, 2008). However, this cannot be straightforward given the individual differences among learner-groups and the shortage of empirical research investigating the teaching of metaphor through TBT. To address these issues, this study utilizes an experimental approach to examine the appropriateness and effectiveness of teaching metaphoric vocabulary through TBT. The study investigates whether increasing awareness of metaphor through TBT could facilitate its comprehension and production in the L2. It is a part of a PhD project investigating metaphor teaching among EFL Saudi university students. Participants were 67 female pre-intermediate students divided into an experimental group (37 students) and a control group (30 students). The custom-designed experimental materials highlighted the communicative function of metaphoric vocabulary and were designed to encourage metaphor awareness through the task-cycle. The treatment involved the lesson “The Value of Time” teaching 17 metaphoric expressions related to the conceptual metaphor TIME IS MONEY. It followed a TBT approach, asking learners to fill out a time-log (pre-task), read a magazine article on the importance of time (task), report on the best methods to manage time (planning and report), and practice metaphoric vocabulary (language focus). During the language focus stage, the experimental group dealt with the vocabulary in the framework of conceptual metaphors. The intervention focused on raising the experimental group’s awareness of the source and target domains MONEY and TIME; and learners were encouraged to link the metaphoric expressions to their source domain. On the other hand, the teaching material designed for the control group focused on the theme “The Value of Time” without making links to the source domain. Metaphor receptive skills were tested through a pretest, posttest and one-week-delayed-test in form of cloze tasks with missing metaphoric expressions. Statistical data analysis is currently under process to compare the participants’ use of metaphoric expressions and the results will be presented at the conference.

References
MULTIMODAL METAPHORS (2)

PROCEDURE FOR THE IDENTIFICATION OF POTENTIAL MULTIMODAL METAPHOR IN TV COMMERCIALS

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The issue of an identification procedure for detecting metaphor in both monomodal and multimodal discourse has been a critical topic for metaphor researchers to deal with. Some analytical tools have been proffered for metaphor identification in spoken and written language (MIP [The Pragglejaz Group, 2007], MIPVU [Steen et al, 2010]) as well as visual promotional discourse (Forceville, 1998, Schilperoord et al., 2009). As for the identification of metaphor in multimodal discourse, there has been offered an approach developed by Forceville (2008, 2009). Though its theoretical value is unquestionable, Forceville’s model has a problem, i.e., the methodological aspect of metaphor identification is not well-elaborated. Forceville (2008, 2009) specifies three criteria for multimodal metaphor contrasting multimodal with monomodal metaphor, however, he neither articulates a specific set of sequential procedural steps for detecting metaphor, nor explains how to justify source and target domains. This proposal offers a well-defined procedure for recognizing and construing metaphor in multimodal discourse — consisting of linguistic, sonic, and visual representations.

The procedure is grounded in three premises. The first holds that the primary unit of commercial meaning is the image of an object, scene, and event displayed in commercials. The second states that the image carries three types of meaning: denotatum, connotation, and signification of an image (Whittock, 1990). The third holds that knowledge of an object, event, and scene is grounded in cognitive schemas that serve as the source of expectancy and become the source of the cognitively prominent features projected from one phenomenon to another phenomenon.

In my presentation, I will first address the concept of multimodal metaphor; then, I will discuss Forceville’s approach, addressing its problems and shortcomings; finally, I will present my proposal and compare it with Forceville’s using an example of a TV commercial.
One of the central tenets of Cognitive Grammar is that part of speech are not empty formal categories but « abstract schemata » based on conceptual archetypes (Langacker 2000, 2008). Thus « the archetypal notion defining the noun-class prototype is (…) the schematized conception of a physical object » (Langacker 2000) and its default « propositional function » is considered to be « reference » (Croft 2003). An observation of the spontaneous gestural action of speakers provides empirical evidence of the validity of this claim, while confirming Lakoff and Johnson’s early analysis of « ontological metaphors » (1980).

The presentation is based on a corpus study of symbolic acts of gestural reification performed by native speakers of French in Alberta and Quebec. After identifying three gesture families involved in the creation, and manipulation of invisible entities, we explore a recurring and relatively fixed or standardized type of gesture - the GLOBE gesture – which is consistently used by French-speaking writers, academics or artists, to encapsulate fictive blobs of semantic substance or to model fictive objects of conception, while displaying them for expressive purposes. A formal and functional description of the gestural action is provided that shows how the GLOBE is first shaped and positioned in gesture space, before being reshaped, « opened » (Calbris 2011), or moved as postmodification occurs (at the syntactic level) and meanings are further elaborated (at the discourse-pragmatic level).

Figure 1 –« Donc ça fait UNE PROVINCE qui est devenue UNE PROVINCE PHARE DU CANADA »
(So we have a province that has become a leading (« radiating ») province of Canada)
The manual creation and display of nominals validates Lakoff and Johnson’s early claim that « ontological metaphors » (1980) are a crucial component of human cognition, and further substantiate Langacker’s theory of « conceptual reification » (2000, 2008). More significantly, the gestural reification of concepts is a sure indicator of the representational nature of language in a dual symbolic (cognitive) and dramatic (performative) sense. The entire semiotic organization of language is primarily designed to be played out on the social stage. Gestural action, postural shifts, facial expressions, intonation patterns are built-in coarticulators of verbal forms, because all language symbols are orally realized as embodied symbolic acts (Kendon 2004, Streeck 2009). As speakers physically engage in the public performance and social transmission of experience, they resort to spectacular forms of expression, especially when dealing with abstractions (McNeill 1992). The globe gesture is one among many spectacular form of conceptualization, both abstract and concrete (Goldin Meadow 2003, McNeill 2005), which allow « concepts to take shape » (Arnhem 1969). As « gestures of the abstract » (McNeill 1992, Calbris 2011) are produced, rational ontological boundaries dissolve: speakers pretend to model and manipulate invisible « things » that addressees are invited to watch but will never see. Concepts are presented as real and « substantive », yet allowed to float and dissolve in gesture space. The presentation closes with a filmed experiment carried out with general linguistics and morphology students who were asked to test the use of the GLOBE gesture to explore the morphology and semantics of word-formation in English: modeling / shaping abstract de-adjectival and de-verbal nouns in – hood, -ness.

Results of corpus study

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<th></th>
<th>Frédéric Boily Droite Alberta 13’</th>
<th>Maxime Coulombe Philosophie Zombie 6’30</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GLOBE* mass of meaning</td>
<td>44 (40 %)</td>
<td>24 (60%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RH or LH* cup / grip of meaning</td>
<td>62 (54 %)</td>
<td>12 (30%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RH and LH*</td>
<td>7 (6%)</td>
<td>4 (10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 - Entification, reification and NP reference: gesture families
References
Colletta, Jean-Marc, 2004, Le développement de la parole chez l'enfant âgé de 6 à 11 ans:
corps, langage et cognition, Sprimont : Editions Mardaga.
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Humaines.
This paper gives an overview of how temporal information is indicated by spatial cues in Polish Sign Language (PJM – polski język migowy), a full-fledged natural language used by the Deaf community in Poland. Our research is based on video material selected from an extensive corpus of PJM (more than 300 hours of footage), consisting of utterances produced by signers who either have Deaf parents or have used sign language since early childhood. The informants are asked to react to certain visual stimuli, e.g. by describing a picture or discussing a video recording. This material includes numerous examples of how the human mind is able to move from one kind of cognitive domain into another. In particular, we want to show how the ‘TIME is SPACE’ metaphor (cf. Lakoff and Johnson (1980), among others) is realized in PJM, i.e. how the signing space is employed to represent temporal relations.

We discuss PJM examples showing that if a sign is produced in the neutral position in front of the body, its temporal interpretation is underspecified. However, if the spatial location of the sign is moved backward (toward the signer’s shoulder), the interpretation changes to past tense. On the other hand, future tense is indicated by moving forward away from the body. This metaphorical correlation between time and space may be referred to as the ‘time line’ – cf. Brennan (1983), Engberg-Pedersen (1993). This paper discusses a number of time-line constructions in PJM: both those that are perpendicular to the signer’s body (‘front’ vs. ‘back’) and others, e.g. parallel to the body (‘left’ vs. ‘right’) and vertical ones (‘up’ vs. ‘down’). We show that the metaphorical system of time lines (i.e. abstract lines within the signing space that represent the flow of time) forms the basis of temporal relations both within a sentence and at the discourse level.

This paper also argues that the time-line mechanism described above represents a wider phenomenon, i.e. the influence of iconic motivation on the structure of language. One of the most important characteristics of the grammatical system of PJM is that it is driven by ever present iconicity. This term is meant to refer to the situation in which the form of a linguistic structure conveys the desired meaning by somehow resembling the denotation (see e.g. Taub (2001)). The ‘TIME is SPACE’ metaphor hinges upon the iconic interpretation of the signing space.

References
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METAPHORS IN SIGN LANGUAGES

EMBODIED COGNITION AND SPATIAL METAPHORS

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Valentina Cuccio, University of Palermo, Italy

In the past twenty years, many studies have shown that bodily experiences play a crucial role in human cognition. Embodied Simulation (Gallese & Sinigaglia 2011) has enlightened the role played by the body in mental state representations and by the mirror mechanism in reusing their own mental state to attribute it to others. Although this claim is still controversial (Mahon & Caramazza 2008; Alsmith & de Vignemont, 2011; Caruana & Borghi, 2013), all scholars agree on the fact that cognition is the result of the kind of events a body can afford with its own perceptual and motor capabilities. The body generates concepts through the way it moves and interact with the world. After the discovery of Mirror Neurons (Pellegrino et al. 1992) and of the involvement of the mechanism of simulation during language comprehension (e.g., Hauk et al., 2004; Kemmerer et al., 2008; Pulvermüller et al., 2001; Tettamanti et al., 2005), it has been proposed that motor simulation, that is, the activation of motor neurons when we are not actively carrying out any motor act, has a constitutive role in the comprehension of action-related language. On the other hand, it has also been widely investigated the role of co-speech gestures during the production and comprehension of language (Kendon, 2004; McNeill, 2005) in adults and in children (Volterra & Erting, 1994; Capirci et al., 2005). According to this perspective, gesture is part of language and it is bound to speech in close synchrony, reflecting various semiotic aspects of the cognitive structure that underlines them both (McNeill, 1992, 2005). Both the mechanism of simulation and the production of gestures while we are speaking can be considered expressions of the embodied nature of meaning (Marghetis & Bergen, 2014) and are tightly interconnected.

Starting from this conceptual framework, we focus on the interplay of universal and cultural traits in linguistic description of space to understand how internal spatial cognition and external spatial representation are strictly coupled by mean of embodiment. Currently, the debate on this topic has been carried out both on spoken languages (Talmy, 2000, 2003, Fauconnier, 1985, Langacker, 1991; Le Guen, 2011) and on sign languages (Liddell, 1995, 2000, 2002; Tang & Yang, 2007; Emmorey and Reilly, 1995). The comparison between spoken and sign languages on spatial descriptions has also been much researched (Talmy, 2000; Emmorey, Tversky & Taylor 2000; Emmorey, 2002; Petitta, 2010). Humans have innate core abilities in spatial reasoning, shared with other animals that arise through bodily interaction with the world (Spelke, 2003), but language enhances our possibilities of spatial representations (e.g. navigation, reorientation), to the extent that they are species-specific.

In this paper, we will focus on the interaction between motor simulation, due to language processing, and the observation of co-speech gestures during the comprehension of spatial or orientational metaphors (Lakoff & Johnson 1980). Multimodal metaphors result from

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1 This subject is linked to although it should not be confused with the widely discussed subject of space as a phonological, morphological and syntactic dimension. Sign languages use space also to convey information about location and movement of the objects by using the so-called classifier handshapes (cfr Meier, Cormier, Quinto-Pozos, 2002). This is slightly different from the way we intend space here. We are analysing the modality effects on the encoding of spatial information from a cognitive point of view rather than focusing on the grammatical role of space in sign language linguistic structure.
embodied meaning and show the crucial role of the body in building spatial representation and of language for making sense out of this primary senso-motoric experience.
This research looks forward to contributing to the Teacher Education issue in Chile through the use of metathor analysis, following studies on beliefs and metathor representations that have long been applied to the educational field (Northcote 2009; Low 2008; Zapata & Lacorte 2007; Cameron 2003; De Guerrero & Villamil 2001; Oxford et al. 1998). Metaphors can help teachers to put together and construct their professional experiences (Kramsch, 2003) and ameliorate classroom practice (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; Nikitina & Furuoka 2008). Metaphors help pre-service teachers make sense of the world and are a powerful tool for them to verbalize their professional identity. They are in fact indications of the way student-teachers think of their role as teachers.

The general objective is to describe fifth year pre-service teachers’ metathorical representations about 1) their role as professionals and 2) the existing representations of teachers in Chile. The specific objectives are to i) classify conceptual metaphors, ii) identify pre-service teachers’ attitudes towards metaphor classification and iii) to compare the metaphor classification with pre-service teachers’ attitudes.

Based on the revision of several studies that we have previously conducted, this paper mainly approaches the multi-method perspective, through which the validation process of metathorical representations’ analysis is increased.

Qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques are applied. For the qualitative perspective, a metaphor questionnaire is designed under the line of studies from Kasoutas & Malamitsa (2009), Nikitina & Furuoka (2008). This questionnaire is analysed through discourse content analysis. A focus group is later conducted to gain more depth on why the participants identify certain metaphors. All this will allow researchers to contrast and specify the metaphor classification done during content analysis. From the quantitative perspective, a Likert scale is designed to measure pre-service teachers’ degree of agreement with the set of metathorical categories obtained from content analysis.

This contrast is based on method triangulation, since a combination of different techniques is used to approach a similar problem (Denzin, 1978). The contrast between quantitative and qualitative analysis will be done from the multi-method strategy, named combination (Bericat, 1998), since quantitative analysis will be integrated into qualitative analysis, as a way to strengthen results’ validity, therefore, it is expected to potentiate pre-service teachers’ metathorical representations, on teacher role in society and their own role as students.
Previous studies have demonstrated the likelihood and risks of misinterpreting metaphors among (second language/ foreign language) L2/FL learners at university level (Azuma, 2005, 2006; Denesi, 1992; Littlemore, 2001). A myriad of research exists documenting the frequent use, distribution and types of metaphor in different disciplines as well as the advantages of learning them in L2/FL classrooms (Cortés de los Ríos, 2001, 2007; Koller, 2003; Sacristán, 2004; Skorczynska, 2010). At present, what is lacking in this strand of research is investigation of the self-perceived need for metaphor instruction among L2/FL learners. Therefore, this paper focuses specifically on the use of metaphors in written texts in the field of business studies, an area which has a high concentration of non-native English-speaking students (British Council, 2010), and on how international students with advanced English proficiency perceive the issue of metaphor.

62 students at a Russell Group university (33 international students and 29 native English-speaking students) participated in the research. They were first given a C-test, a cloze test for measuring their general English proficiency. A metaphor comprehension test was then used to assess their metaphor comprehension ability. Semi-structured interviews were conducted in an attempt to find out how international students assess their own metaphor comprehension ability, how they approached the metaphor comprehension test, and to which factors they attribute their successful interpretation of metaphorical expressions.

The most striking finding to emerge from this study is that the international students relied heavily on the context and did not seem to have made use of the literal meaning of a test item in interpreting its metaphorical meaning. The quantitative data illustrated that both literal meaning and context, which might have assisted native English-speaking students, were of limited help to the international students. Also, it is found that participants’ general English proficiency level was positively correlated to their metaphor comprehension ability. Furthermore, the international students in this study, despite having attained a high level of proficiency in English, still evidently had difficulties comprehending unconventional metaphorical expressions. However, the interview data showed that the business students with advanced proficiency level may lack motivation to hone their metaphorical competence.

This study tries to develop an approach to measuring metaphor comprehension ability, and has also attempted to generate pedagogical implications for English language teachers at various levels based on the findings. The findings may also be of interest to English as a second language (ESL)/foreign language (EFL) learners who have to engage in business discourse in an English-speaking country.

References


METAPHORS AND EDUCATION (3)

THE CULTURAL MODEL(S) OF A GOOD COLLEGE TEACHER IN THE AGE OF GLOBALIZATION

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It is universally agreed that teachers matter to the quality of education. It is even suggested that there are commonly shared traits that belong to all good teachers. However, some cross-cultural studies of learning models in learning languages found that Chinese students prefer teacher-centered learning whereas those in English-speaking cultures adopt a student-centered learning cultural model, indicating that there could be differences in the conceptualization of a good teacher in different cultures. These possible differences have become more important as many universities in Taiwan adopted a Likert-scale student evaluation survey from the US to evaluate their teachers whose future employment and salary may hinge upon such an evaluation. This trend in turn is a reaction to the globalization of higher education in Asia in recent years where waves of decentralization, marketization, and privatization have swept over (Mok, 2009). Unfortunately, as some professors in the US and Taiwan argue, such evaluation is easily susceptible to personal biases. In Taiwan, professors and students alike believe it does not reflect the reality as its design is more or less based on a western model. A small scale pilot study had been set out to investigate the cultural models of a good college professor that a scalar, quantitative survey fails to capture. In order to uncover the cultural models of a good teacher, a qualitative research approach was adopted by employing the framework of conceptual metaphors and metonymies developed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980). Students’ (N=57) conceptualizations of a good teacher were investigated with a survey of four open-ended questions asking them to give verbal description of a good college professor. Together with these descriptions, a students’ blog, TKU_Talk, was also used as a complementary source of data to give rise to the cultural model(s) of a good teacher. This preliminary study on language majors illustrates some tentative results indicating ENTERTAINER, FACILITATOR, and SERVICE PROVIDER being the crucial metaphors in structuring the model students have regarding a good teacher. These results echo strongly an impact of globalization on higher education in Taiwan where traces of BUSINESS model (Urban, 2010) are highly palpable. A unique “cram school” culture in Taiwan has also impacted the conceptualization of a good college professor within this model. A second study followed this that included more participants of varied academic disciplines partially supports these findings. This suggests that students of different disciplines may have different expectations towards professors.
Many researchers such as Lakoff and Johnson (1980), Gibbs et al. (1996), Gibbs (2008) and Kövecses (2007) have shown that by investigating conceptual metaphors manifested in a society, we can understand their cultural models. Additionally, as a specific kind of text, proverbs are words of wisdom that reflect cultural values and people’s cognitive models. This study aims to investigate the utility of metaphor to reveal cultural values in proverbs among Mandarin Chinese, Taiwanese, Japanese, and English data, with a specific focus on the multifacetedness of cultural values. For instance, caution is taken as an important cultural value in Chinese and Japanese cultures. Since caution is an abstract concept, it is usually expressed by metaphors, such as A little spark kindles a great fire, or It is too late to cast anchor when the ship is on the rock. After a careful scrutiny, we found that cultural values are multifaceted notions and plain metaphors usually emphasize one facet of that notion. Hence, caution is not an easily explained idea; rather, it is a multifaceted unity and a culture-laden concept (cf. Wierzbicka 1997). In Chinese proverbs, caution is expressed by various metaphors of which each emphasizes different facets of an event where caution is needed, such as watchfulness, undesirable outcome, accumulated damage, second thought, patience, hasty, timing, sedulousness, taboo, excess, and other facets. However, in English proverbs, only undesirable outcome, accumulated damage, timing, and sedulousness are found to be taken as facets of caution, when manifested by metaphors. In this way, a more detailed account can be made regarding how metaphor constructs cultural values and how a cultural value manifests itself as a multifaceted whole. This research is a cross-linguistic study which also gives implications to the field of cultural typology.

Data:
Japanese proverbs
慌てる蟹は穴へ入れぬ
Literal meaning: A hasty crab can hardly enter the hole (where he lives).
鰹節を猫に預ける
Literal meaning: to leave dry fish to cats

Chinese proverbs
錯走一步棋，滿盤皆是輸
Literal meaning: (When playing chess,) one improper move may lose the whole game.
千里之堤，潰於蟻穴
Literal meaning: One ant hole may cause the collapse of a great dyke.

References


In traditional Kenyan societies, the payment of dowry to the bride’s family by the groom’s clan fostered relations, ensured responsibility, and promoted hard work. Today, the changing socio-economic dynamics have seen the emergence of a capitalist individual whose clan plays a minor role in their affairs. To this individual, the dowry payment practice has been carried over, but not with its past meaning. This has resulted in the OBJECTIFICATION and COMMODIFICATION of the Kenyan woman, a scenario I interrogate and demonstrate in this paper.

This paper discusses several metaphors that conceptualise women as commodities or food items within the framework of Discourse Career of Metaphor (Steen, 2011) model. These are metaphors such as gacungwa (orange), kagwacĩ (potato), gatheremende (sweet), ihũa (flower), ithaga (jewel), and kamubango (plan). This, I demonstrate, lowers women’s social standing, putting them at a disadvantage in competing with men in the various fields of human enterprise.

Together with these metaphors, there is feminification of machines. For example a car can be referred to as a girl. These metaphors then undergo a reverse cross-domain mappings so that attributes are mapped onto cars from women and then, having shared domains, object attributes are recast from cars to women, thereby equating women to cars, some other commodities.

I have collected the metaphors from men, using questionnaires I identified the terms they use in describing women, and on the items men refer to as feminine. From these I have identified the scenarios (Musolff, 2006) that inform the macro concept, WOMEN ARE OBJECTS. I have subjected these metaphors to a qualitative analysis as well as presented them to respondents to expose their aspects of naming, framing and changing. I, like Goatly (2007) and Semino (2008) finally propose a replacement of these negative metaphors with alternative positive ones.
METAPHORS AND (INTER)CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

THE ANIMAL METAPHOR AND THE CONCEPTUALIZATION OF CABRA (GOAT) IN BRAZILIAN PORTUGUESE

Fernanda Cavalcanti, Universidade Federal do Ceará, Brazil

This work focuses on polysemic uses of the conventional expression cabra (goat) and highlights uses of this expression which in certain regions of Brazil, can be applied to refer both to the animal itself or to a man. According to a definition provided by Aurelio Buarque de Holanda (2004), a prestigious Brazilian Dictionary, such expression can be used to refer both to the animal or an ordinary man, either a courageous man or a violent man. As part of the research methodological procedure, four different surveys were applied to 123 participants with 3, 13, 16 and 10 questions designed to probe into (i) participants’ mental images of cabra, (ii) their beliefs and perceptions about the relationships between man and animal and between culture and language, (iii) their judgments about real life usage examples of such expression, (iv) and their judgments about the different definitions of this expression. The administration of the four surveys took place in two different occasions. In August 2010, we administered the first survey of three questions with five employees of a social project of the Fortaleza Municipal Government, and with 28 respondents of the Physical Education Program of the Federal University of Ceará; and in July, August and September 2013, we administered the other three surveys with 90 respondents (students and teachers) from undergraduate programs from the University of Fortaleza (a class of Advertising in August 2013) and from Federal University of Ceara, (one class from the Psychology Program in July 2013 and two classes from the Dance Program in September 2013). Based on the data collected through the four survey applications, it was observed that the expression understood in terms of “man” can be assessed on negative or positive ways. That is, the conventional expression cabra (goat) understood in terms of a man can be used to refer both to a man of courage, value and in a sense of friendship, but it can also refer to an unsophisticated, rude unreliable and even violent man. One objective of the survey applications was to discuss in light of Conceptual Metaphor Theory how animal metaphors motivate the conventional expression cabra. The analysis of the expression is guided by the animal metaphors: HUMAN IS ANIMAL, OBJECTIONABLE PEOPLE ARE ANIMALS and PEOPLE ARE ANIMALS according to Koveceses (2010) and a GREAT CHAIN OF BEING METAPHOR according to Lakoff and Turner (1989).
From a 'Western' perspective the prototypical myth is the Greek myth, which is known only in various written versions. Yet even the Greek myths originated in a purely oral culture, continuing to exist in the first instance orally even after they had been written down. Myth is primarily an oral phenomenon and it is primarily as such that it is of interest for cognitive and anthropological study. The term 'allegory' has a range of wider and narrower senses. In this presentation it will be used in the narrow sense for which works such as 'The Pilgrim’s Progress' and 'La Divina Comedia' are prototypical. Allegory is a distinctively written genre. Some of its earliest manifestations in fact involved written interpretations of originally oral myths which were no longer morally and religiously acceptable in their most obvious interpretations for the world of classical Greece. Allegory involves, at least, a continuous mapping from a story world that functions as the metaphoric/metonymic source to the underlying discoursal topic that is the metaphoric/metonymic target. This continuous and frequently detailed mapping puts such demands upon short term working memory that it is only possible when that memory is aided by the resource of writing functioning as an externalized form to memory. The continuous and continuously detailed mapping of allegory would not be possible with oral myth. With myth metaphoric/metonymic mappings must, as with parable which is another originally oral genre, be occasional rather than continuous. This is the approach to myth to be explored here. This exploration will to a considerable extent take the form of a critique of the theory of myth of Lévi-Strauss, upon whom Maurice Godelier has recently published a major book. Jack Goody has pointed out that Lévi-Strauss approaches myth as if it were something written. It is only by doing this, working with written transcriptions of many American myths which he can compare and cross-reference at will, that he is able to develop the kind of systematic mappings that he claims to find as the semantic key to the myths. Such systematicity would in fact be beyond the resources of a working memory lacking the mnemonic aid of writing. Yet Goody does not deny that the kinds of mapping that Lévi-Strauss deals in are sometimes to be found in myths. (Geertz also, though more fiercely critical of Lévi-Strauss than Goody,admits that his myth analyses sometimes have analytic plausibility). The question then is to what extent we can find metaphoric/metonymic mappings in oral myths given the limitations of human short term working memory. In approaching this question fundamental issues of methodology in the human sciences will be addressed.
METAPHORS AND L2 ACQUISITION (2)

AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE FIGURATIVE INTERLANGUAGE OF TWO CHINESE L1 AND TWO SERBIAN L1 SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH

David O'Reilly, University of York, United Kingdom

Despite various studies on metaphor comprehension and retention, very little is known about how foreign learners actually use tropes such as metaphor and metonymy in their interlanguage (Littlemore & Low, 2006). The present study (an MA thesis) aims to address this gap by investigating similarities and differences between a) a native English dyad, Chinese L1 dyad and Serbian L1 dyad’s usage of metaphor when speaking English, and b) similarities and differences between the Chinese and Serbian dyad’s L1 and L2 usage of metaphor. All three pairs of speakers took part in separate conversations in English; in addition, the Chinese and Serbian pair had conversations in their L1. All conversations (in English, Chinese and Serbian) were semi-structured and collected participants’ verbal conceptualisations of love, anger and happiness, emotions for which a number of culture specific linguistic and conceptual metaphors exist (Kövecses, 2010). Potential variables such as age, gender and level of proficiency were kept similar. Picture description and poetry tasks were also used to examine differences in metaphorical competence (Littlemore, 2001, 2004). Cameron’s VIP (2003) was used (and adapted) for metaphor identification. Analysis of the two sets of conversations yielded the following findings.

1) Across Participants
All three pairs used verb metaphors the most frequently and adverb metaphors the least in their English. The English native speakers had the highest rates of metaphor usage. All pairs used linguistic metaphors pointing to well-documented conceptualisations (e.g. THE BODY IS A CONTAINER FOR THE EMOTIONS), however in contrast to the L1 English; the L2 English was marked on a) the conceptual level by the use of certain source domains, and b) on the linguistic level by a significantly lower amount of hedging.

2) Within participants/ cross linguistic influence
The Chinese pair used nominal metaphors more frequently than all other grammatical types in their Chinese conversation and nominal metaphors in proportionately high numbers (in comparison to the other pairs) in their English. Verb metaphors were the most common for the Serbian pair in both their L1 and L2, however the proportion of verb metaphors used (in relation to other grammatical types) was significantly higher in their L1.

The systematic metaphor coding of interlanguage and adaptation and use of VIP on languages other than English marks a new direction for metaphor research. Understanding more about the nature of metaphor in interlanguage and L1-L2 usage is of potential value to a number of research areas.

References


THE USE OF NON-LITERAL LANGUAGE IN L1 AND IN L2: EVIDENCE FROM FRENCH LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

Justine Paris, Université Sorbonne-Nouvelle – Paris III and Université Vincennes – Saint-Denis – Paris XIII, France

Significant research has shown that metaphor pertains to our way of thinking (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980; Lakoff and Turner, 1989) and to cognition (Gibbs, 1995 and 2006). Some researchers think that the comprehension and production of metaphor – and more generally, of non-literal language – is highly dependent on relational and pragmatic knowledge (Sperber & Wilson, 1986/1995; Carston, 2000; Gentner et al., 2001). In the light of this theoretical framework, I examine implications from the perspective of adult second language learners since we know that they struggle to develop a successful command of the L2 conceptual and figurative system (Irujo, 1986; Danesi, 1992, 1995; Cooper, 1999; Andreou et coll., 2009), but also because little is known about their actual metaphorical performance. I will first present a general picture of the way French intermediate learners of English make use of non-literal language. Two groups of thirty students – B1 and C1 levels – majoring in French literature and Communication Studies were asked to write essays for the purpose of an English course. Using a method inspired by that of MIPVU, six types of non-literal sequences building up the learners’ non-literal performance could be identified – overgeneralizations, L1 transfers, personifications, comparisons, idioms and metaphors. Each of these forms and their functions in learner discourse will be introduced before we review the general trends found in the data (learners’ preferences in relation to their proficiency level). Later on in the semester, the participants had to answer the same essay question again, this time in their mother tongue as elements of comparison. Since we know that language learners tend to cling to literalness – up to giving an “unnatural over-literalness” aspect to their speech (Danesi, 1992) – it appeared relevant to observe the way our participants made use of non-literalness in their mother tongue. The outcomes of this investigation will be provided before moving onto an L1/L2 comparative summary analysis.

Preliminary results showed that we do not treat non-literalness the same way depending on the type of language that we are using (one’s native language vs. a foreign language). While the essays in L1 revealed a high number of conventional figurative forms (idioms) and fewer novel ones (metaphors); the essays in L2 revealed an experimental approach to non-literalness via transitory figurative forms (overgeneralization, L1 transfers) and a preference for functional non-literal forms (discursive idioms).
METAPHORS AND L2 ACQUISITION (2)

METAPHORICITY IN ENGLISH L2 LEARNERS’ PREPOSITIONS

Susan Nacey, Hedmark University College, Norway

This paper investigates preposition use in written and spoken language of advanced Norwegian learners of English, to provide empirical evidence concerning the nature of the ‘problem’ with prepositions – typically considered “a traditional and recurring nightmare for all learners of English” (Littlemore & Low, 2006, p. 285). The following research questions are answered:

1) How often do these learners produce an inappropriate preposition?
2) Is there a correlation between inappropriate use and metaphorical use?
3) Is there a significant difference between metaphorical use of prepositions across the oral and written modes in L2 learner English?

The data for this investigation consists of all prepositions employed in roughly 20,000 words of argumentative texts retrieved from the Norwegian component of the International Corpus of Learner English, together with all prepositions uttered by fifty L2 English students in approximately 13 hours of recorded and transcribed conversation from the Norwegian subcorpus of the Louvain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage (1773 and 5171 prepositions respectively). Informants for both corpora were Norwegian college students characterized as higher-intermediate to advanced learners of English.

All prepositions were first classified by metaphorical status using the Metaphorical Identification Procedure, calling for comparison of their contextual and basic (most concrete) senses (see e.g. Steen et al., 2010). In addition, all contextually inappropriate prepositions in the material were identified, indicating the frequency with which these learners produce inappropriate prepositions in both spoken and written language, as well as showing which prepositions prove most difficult. Previous studies based on the same data indicate a 44% correlation between inappropriate use and possible L1 transfer in both written and spoken modes (Nacey, 2013a, pp. 205-240; 2013b; Nacey & Graedler, 2013, submitted). The present investigation provides evidence about the extent to which metaphor might also play a role with respect to learner difficulties, by considering whether challenges increase as the contextual meaning shifts away from a core, concrete meaning to a more peripheral, metaphorical meaning. This paper follows on the heels of recent research about adapting the cognitive view of metaphor as a pedagogical tool through showing how metaphorical senses are related to the core senses of prepositions in a principled manner, replacing conventional wisdom that there is no rhyme nor reason for why one preposition is preferred over another in a given context (see e.g. Lindstromberg, 1998; Tyler & Evans, 2003). What this investigation adds is empirical evidence from one group of L2 English learners concerning the real magnitude of the challenge preposition use presents, and the true extent of the role of metaphor in preposition use.

References
Nacey, S. (2013b). What learner corpora can reveal about preposition use. Paper presented at the Compiling and using learner corpora to teach and assess productive and interactive skills in foreign languages at university level Conference, University of Padua, Italy.
The current talk purports to contribute to measuring the receptive and productive metaphorical proficiency of male and female Arabic-speaking learners of English from the College of Languages of Translation, King Saud University. This proficiency is measured through Hiraga’s (1991) scenarios of linguistic-cum-conceptual distribution of metaphor against three factors, namely, (a) saliency of domain of knowledge in the learners’ experience, (b) disembodied metaphors, and (c) type of embodiment carried by the metaphor (Maalej, 2004, 2007, 2008, 2011). It is hypothesized that female students will perform better than their male counterparts in both the receptive and the productive proficiency across the three factors. It is also hypothesized that both male and female students will perform better in the receptive than the productive levels, and that they will perform even better when the metaphor is physiologically embodied than when it is culturally embodied. It is further hypothesized that both male and female students will perform better when Arabic and English converge linguistically and conceptually than when they diverge. Last, it is hypothesized that both male and female students will perform better when the domain of knowledge of the metaphor is familiar to them than when the domain is unfamiliar to them. To do so, the talk collects data on the receptive skill through a multiple-choice task from English into Arabic, and on the production skill through a bilingual-translation task from Arabic into English. The metaphorical proficiency is analyzed through qualitative and quantitative methods.

References
People mentally represent the shapes of objects. For instance, the mental representation of an eagle is different when one thinks about a flying or resting eagle. The present study examined the role of shape in mental representations of similes. We tested the prediction that when people process a simile they will mentally represent the entities of the metaphoric comparison as having a similar shape.

We conducted two experiments in which participants read sentences that either did (experimental sentences) or did not (control sentences) invite to compare two entities. For the experimental sentences, the ground of the comparison was explicit in Experiment 1 (‘X has the ability to Z, just like Y’) and implicit in Experiment 2 (‘X is like Y’). After having read the sentence, participants were presented with line drawings of the two objects, which either were similarly or dissimilarly shaped. They judged whether both objects were mentioned in the preceding sentence. For the experimental sentences, recognition latencies were shorter for similarly shaped objects than for dissimilarly shaped objects. For the control sentences, we did not find such an effect of similarity in shape. These findings suggest that a perceptual symbol of shape is activated when processing similes.

In a current extension of this study, we are investigating whether this also holds for the mental representation of negative similes. If people read a sentence like ‘X is not like Y,’ do they still mentally represent the two objects as similarly shaped objects or would they, as the sentence implies, be represented as dissimilarly shaped objects?
METAPHORS AND SIMILES

BEYOND A IS LIKE B: THE LINGUISTIC, CONCEPTUAL AND COMMUNICATIVE PROPERTIES OF SIMILES IN FICTION

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Metaphor and simile are generally distinguished on the basis of their form, metaphors involving A IS B mappings and similes A IS LIKE B (cf. Lakoff and Johnson, 1980). The main functional difference is often considered to be that metaphors invite categorization, i.e. A shares all of the features of B, while similes invite comparison, i.e. A has some but not all of the features of B. Much attention has been paid to such differences in form and function between metaphors and similes, yet most studies deal exclusively with linguistic expressions in prototypical A is B and A is like B forms (e.g. Aisenman, 1999; Chiappe, Kennedy and Smykowski, 2003; Bowdle and Gentner, 2005; Gentner and Bowdle, 2001).

Recent corpus analyses by Steen and colleagues (e.g. Steen et al., 2010a, b, c) show that linguistic metaphors and similes identified using MIPVU (Steen et al., 2010c) rarely take this prototypical form. Moreover, statistical analyses show that there is a significant interaction between register and linguistic form, with the majority of similes occurring in the fiction sample (see Dorst, 2011). The manual analysis of some 45,000 words of contemporary British-English fiction confirmed that similes are indeed typical of fiction – as claimed by e.g. Goatly (1997), Lodge (1977), Sayce (1954) – though by no means as frequent as may be expected. In addition, the similes in fiction are generally far more complex in structure than a one-to-one correspondence between A and B and can often be considered to involve whole ‘scenarios’ (cf. Musolff, 2004, 2006). A closer look at the mappings involved also reveals three dominant mappings, namely between people and animals, between people and people, and between plants and people. In addition, similes employ a variety of markers, including <with the …of a …>, <as … as a …> and verbs such as seem and appear (see Goatly, 1997; Miller, 1979). As stressed by Miller, ‘different copulas of similitude are not interchangeable; they impose different syntactic requirements on the constituents being compared, and often have different meanings’ (1979: 371).

In this presentation, I will discuss the linguistic, conceptual and communicative properties of similes in fiction, and illustrate their role in fiction with regard to characterization, plot development and the evocation of emotions in the reader.

References
The accounts of traumatic experience are often very concrete and factual. One clinical reason is believed to be the difficulty to integrate the traumatic experience into the person’s life narrative (c.f. Stroinska & Szymanski 2012 and Szymanski, Stroinska & Sawyer 2013). The traumatic experience is frequently so overwhelming that emotional and cognitive processing of trauma is severely impaired. Figurative language may be considered the “metaphorical” glue (cf. Bornstein & Mecker-Metero 2011) that helps in the process of integration of the traumatic experience. Thus, its emergence may signal the beginning of healing.

In this paper, we analyse a set of ten interviews with trauma survivors in order to discover the role of similes in the progression towards symbolic thinking. The incidence of similes in the texts we studied is higher than that of metaphors, in particular in those parts of the narratives that describe the traumatic event itself. Based on comparison rather than re-categorization (cf. Glucksberg, S. & Haught, C., 2006), similes may be easier to incorporate into the narrative of events. Barnden (2012) suggests that simile and metaphor could be seen as end points of a scale, with metaphors being an extreme instances of similarity: likeness to the point of identity. We may see the use of similes in trauma narratives as hedged attempts at metaphors and first steps towards a symbolic account of the inner reality.

The paper analyses the frequency and types of similes used at the before and after stages of traumatic experiences and for the description of the traumatic event itself in order to gain a better understanding on the relationship between simile, metaphor and the stage of trauma integration by the survivor. We focus on similes introduced by stative verbs describing mental states, e.g. “I felt like this outsider, like I was just kind of faking it” or “it really does feel like a miracle” as these examples point to the process of finding words to describe the survivor’s state of mind and are therefore of particular importance in communicating about the unspeakable and making healing possible.

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METAPHORS IN MOTION

WATCHING FICTIONAL MOTION IN ACTION

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Fictive motion is a common form of nonliteral language. It uses motion metaphorically to describe particular spatial configurations such as The road runs along the river. Linguistically, this sentence is similar to actual motion such as The man runs along the river, however, unlike the man, the river does not actually move. Despite the lack of real motion, a growing body of cognitive research suggests that we mentally simulate some form of motion while processing fictive motion (Matlock 2004a, 2004b; Matlock & Bergmann, in press). Evidence from neuroscience reveals that fictive motion engages some of the same brain functions as processing actual motion does (Saygin et al. 2010).

Most research on fictive motion, however, has primarily relied on the conceptual structure (Langacker 1986; Matsumoto 1996; Talmy 2000) or the comprehension of fictive motion (Matlock 2004b, Richardson & Matlock 2007). The current approach is the first large-scale study to examine the production of fictive motion sentences in the “wild”. A total of 98 instances of fictive motion sentences with co-occurring gestures were found using the TV News Archive (http://archive.org/details/tv), a collection of TV news of the last couple of years. Among the results, we frequently found fictive motion sentences with subject noun phrase referents associated with motion (Interstate 15 runs from San Diego out to Las Vegas, 45 instances) and referents not associated with motion (The invasive species of plant that runs along the shore line, 41 instances). We also observed that even abstract concepts not grounded in visual scenes can be expressed with fictive motion, such as The interest rate hit the ceiling and went above it.

Our analysis of gestures that occur with fictive motion shows that speakers incorporate extra-linguistic knowledge into their gestures. For example, the direction of the gesture (forward or sideways) seems to be strongly related to the perspective the speakers take, i.e. more or less subjective. Moreover, some gestures encode additional information that is not present in the linguistic fictive motion, such as manner of motion encoded by a wavy gesture for the sentence The road goes up the mountain.

Our research shows that fictive motion is not purely a linguistic phenomenon, but a general cognitive process. The study of fictive motion gestures will help us understand fictive motion better overall, and contribute important insights to the overall enterprise of metaphor research, and spatial metaphors in particular.

References
The metaphors we live by are not only instantiated in language, but also in culture. This paper shows how the metaphors *DARK IS BAD* (“these are *dark* times”) and *DOWN IS BAD* (“he is feeling *down* today”) are realized with striking consistency across a wide range of horror movies.

In horror movies, *DARK IS BAD* and *DOWN IS BAD* are instantiated multi-modally (Forceville, 2006). They are realized via dialogue, lighting, camera angles and narrative structure (cf. Ortiz, 2011), and through this, they appeal to multiple sensory modalities. The mapping between the source domain and the target domain frequently follows metric principles, for example, increasingly bad events occur at increasingly deeper depths, exemplifying a metric mapping of verticality onto mood.

Going beyond horror movies, the results support the more general claim that metaphors are not only internalized but also externalized (e.g., Gibbs, 1999). We are constantly surrounded by cultural metaphorical representations, as in the case of watching horror movies. Such a “cognitive ecology” (Hutchins, 2012) of metaphors has two larger implications:

First, metaphors such as *DARK IS BAD* and *DOWN IS BAD* become enriched with specific memorable examples. In the case of horror movies, these examples are particularly intense, resolving around feelings of fear and shock. I will argue that such enrichment may help to keep the metaphors active in our minds and to maintain them within our culture; moreover, I will argue that culturally manifested metaphors can be understood through Hutchin’s notion of “material anchors” for cognition.

Second, the ubiquitous presence of cultural metaphorical representations invites us to re-think the view that primary metaphors such as *DARK IS BAD* and *DOWN IS BAD* purely stem from perceiving environmental correlations. If metaphors are externalized, they serve as input to new generations, and perhaps more speculatively, they could be learned without environmental correlations purely through exposition to cultural representations.

References
In social media environments, such as YouTube, text and talk are produced in dynamic environments. Tracing the use of metaphor over time can, therefore, be particularly challenging, with interaction occurring both in videos and text comments across numerous pages. This presentation will show the process of identifying and mapping metaphor development in one such environment, with the goal of showing how metaphor use in a YouTube community contributed to the emergence of ‘drama’, or antagonistic debate. Following a two-year observation of more than 20 users discussing Christianity and atheism, 20 video 'pages' (including talk from videos and text comments) from a disagreement in the community were identified and transcribed, producing a 86,859 word corpus comprising 136 minutes of video talk and 1,738 comments. Using metaphor-led discourse analysis (Cameron & Maslen, 2010) of the total corpus, metaphor vehicles were identified, coded, and grouped by semantic and narrative relationships to identify systematic use and trace the development of metaphor use in the disagreement. Findings showed that systematic metaphor use and development of metaphor were not only present in the arguments, but contributed to the development of antagonism in the community, with metaphorical language and discussion of metaphor emerging as a key source for disagreement.

References
Games and play, in rich diversity, have been a part of everyday human life as long as human beings have existed. Despite of being a universal human fact, philosophy has paid less attention to it because it has always been considered marginal (compared to other forms of human action) or frivolous (compared to the goals of those forms of human action). However, there have often been references to games and play in the major works of Western thought; from Heraclitus’s cosmological fragments to Wittgenstein’s language games. Metaphors related to play and games are then more common in philosophy than what it is usually assumed. Another surprising fact is the variety of phenomena that are referred through the use of playing metaphors, being some of these phenomena even ontologically opposed. We have, i.e., the aforementioned Heraclitus’s cosmological fragments representing time as a child playing, which has been interpreted as an illustration of the contingent human fate. Another relevant example is Kant’s definition of the aesthetic experience as the free play of the human faculties. But we also have the language games due to Wittgenstein as a representation of our being constrained by conventional norms while using language.

Roger Caillois named ludus and paideia as two contradictory movements within human play. Brian Sutton-Smith classified the different uses of the play metaphors in seven types of “rhetorics”: animal progress, child play, fate, power, identity, imaginary, the self, and frivolity. These approaches have not lost their explanatory power, but still arise some questions: Why are opposite phenomena represented by playing metaphors? What allows play and games being metaphors of such a wide range of phenomena? What do all these phenomena should have in common for allowing the metaphorical use of play? The first hypothesis presented in this paper is that the diversity of uses of the metaphor is directly related to the ontological character of play, its internal openness and its external opacity. The second hypothesis presented is that the ontological particularity of play is precisely its being the metaphorical form of action per excellence.

The paper is organized in the following sections: (1) The refusal of play and games as a full form of action within the Western philosophical tradition; (2) Relevant uses of play in philosophy: Heraclitus, Kant, Wittgenstein, Fink; (3) Playing metaphors and play ontology.
METAPHOR AND PHILOSOPHY

METAPHOR AS STRUCTURE AND METHOD OF LANGUAGE. GRAMSCI AND WITTGENSTEIN

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If on one side metaphor is constitutive of language in the sense that, as Gramsci says, “all language is metaphor”, on the other side we can choose a metaphor as a method of particular linguistic productions. In Letters from Prison, for example, Gramsci chooses metaphors to transmit his thoughts or educational messages addressed to his children escaping censure. In these cases, metaphor is something like a strategy of communication. We could say that it is less spontaneous than a metaphor used daily and often thoughtless, but they are not arbitrary. In fact, according to Gramsci’s thought, who produces them is a historical individual, that is a person determined by historical contingencies. Metaphors in Gramsci’s Letters arise from a thinking process and aim to communicate indirectly, so to say, from a distance. They are events of sense much sought and aware. They display the infinitive capacity of the playing with language to transcend ordinary uses and literal meanings of words. Wittgenstein taught us that we think in language, so to change the thinking we need to change the language. One side there is the necessity to reveal misunderstandings hidden in obvious and thoughtless metaphors used daily; and, therefore, we need to become aware about the constitutive character of metaphor in language to recognize the mistakes transmitted by Language. On the other side, metaphor is the vital necessary linguistic mechanism to rethink, to convert the look. We can see this conversion of look through metaphors in Wittgenstein’s philosophy, in which metaphor is the “liberating” creation that subverts an idea, renews a thought and opens new knowledge. So for Wittgenstein, for example, language is a game or a city; the work of a philosopher is always grasping the same stone and the thought is a carriage that must be placed accurately on the rails.

We will observe the metaphor through two thinkers who gave much attention to the language. In particular, to its capacity to produce misunderstandings as one way; and to renew itself and so the thinking that takes form in it in another way. We want to analyze the use of metaphors by Gramsci and Wittgenstein to show the structural role of metaphor in our thinking and speaking, that is often forgotten, and the possibility to choose metaphor as method to think differently.

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METAPHOR AND PHILOSOPHY

METAPHOR ANALYSIS AND METAPHOROLOGY, OR: WHAT DO WE WANT TO KNOW FROM METAPHORS?

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This presentation explores the connection between two domains of metaphor research, metaphor analysis and metaphorology. Geert Keil (2010) introduced this distinction, choosing ‘metaphorology’ as an umbrella term for investigations into how metaphors function in different types of discourse. Metaphor analysis, on the other hand, principally aims at providing an account or even a definition of metaphor.

Against the backdrop of this distinction, the presentation addresses three questions. Firstly, how do these two domains of metaphor research hang together? Secondly, is there a vicious circle involved in the way the two relate to each other? Thirdly, what are the epistemological interests that drive the respective enterprises?

With regard to the first question, this presentation argues that metaphorology presupposes metaphor analysis. For without any conception of what metaphors are it is hardly possible to identify them and, thus, characterizing the way they function in discourse.

As far as the second question is concerned, Jacques Derrida (1972) argued that metaphorology not only presupposes metaphor analysis, but that metaphor analysis inevitably involves metaphorology, therefore leading to a vicious circle of sorts.

In order to clarify this argument, the presentation adopts Eugen Fink’s (1957) distinction between operative and thematic concepts. In metaphor analysis, metaphor is the thematic concept, that is the concept is being investigated with the help of other concepts. In metaphorology, metaphor is an operative concept, that is the concept is being used for investigating other concepts or phenomena.

By further drawing on commentaries by Michael Morris (2000) and David Novitz (1985), this presentation shows that Derrida’s argument rests on questionable assumptions and neglects Fink’s distinction.

Lastly, the presentation reflects the third question by asking what the operative concepts are in the case of metaphor analysis and, respectively, what the thematic concepts are in the case of metaphorology. This perspective highlights the problem that across and within these two domains, people turn to metaphor while trying to find out quite different things. In conclusion, the presentation critically evaluates the feasibility of an integrated approach to the study of metaphor.

References
METAPHOR AND PHILOSOPHY

METAPHOR, PARAPHRASE AND INEFFABILITY

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One of the most debated issues about metaphors is whether they can be paraphrased. Some authors maintain that metaphors are essentially paraphrasable (e.g. Cavell, Hills). Considerations from understanding usually support this claim: if a subject is not able to provide a paraphrase, she has not understood the metaphor. Other authors, instead, maintain that metaphors cannot be paraphrased. The champion of this view is Davidson, who claims that metaphors are not paraphrasable simply because there is nothing to paraphrase: metaphors do not communicate any content whatsoever beyond their literal meaning. They manage to accomplish some effects on the hearer exactly in the same way a picture or a bump in the head do.

The aim of my talk is to argue in favour of a weakened version of Davidson’s view. Here is how I will proceed. I will first clarify my assumptions. I will thus borrow from (e.g.) Kittay (1987) the distinction between vehicle and topic. I will not commit myself, however, to any theory that, like hers, seems to maintain that metaphorical meaning is a semantic notion: I will assume that if metaphors have a metaphorical content, such content is pragmatic. Coherently with this, I will exclude that paraphrases are semantic equivalents of the corresponding metaphors. Instead, I will take side with Hills (2011), claiming that a paraphrase of a linguistic expression is an exemplification of a method of comprehension.

I will then argue that the claim that metaphors cannot be paraphrased is correct, but only for some kinds of metaphors, and even for these latter, only in a relative manner (i.e. there are no metaphors that are absolutely non-paraphrasable). Thus, metaphors like “Juliet is the sun” will turn out to be paraphrasable in my view, while metaphors like “This dark brightness that fall from the stars” will not. To explain the difference between paraphrasable and (relatively) non-paraphrasable metaphors, I will make appeal both to the above mentioned distinction between vehicle and topic - claiming that non-paraphrasable metaphors are those in which the distinction gets blurred - and to the notion of phenomenological ineffability recently put forth by Liang (2011). Phenomenological ineffability is the impossibility to give an exhaustive description of subjective experience: indeed, we can try to describe, up to a certain point, what is like to hear this clarinet playing, or to smell this evening air of spring, but such descriptions will always be partial and imperfect.

References
MESSAGING BATTLES IN THE EUROZONE CRISIS DISCOURSE: A CRITICAL COGNITIVE STUDY

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We know from research in cognitive science that all thought is physical, with mostly unconscious mental structures characterized by neural circuitry in the brain. Fillmore has shown that frames are the most commonplace mental structures, and Lakoff has shown that a huge number of mental structures are metaphorical, mapping from one frame to another. All forms of communication, whether language, images, cartoons, or gestures work via the activation of such frames. The more a mental structure is activated, the stronger the neural circuitry that comprises it will become. World-views are long-term systems of conceptual frames and metaphors in the brain. People can only make sense of ideas that fit their fixed systems of frames and metaphors. Many people have access to more than one world-view. If one is activated more than another, the one most activated will become increasing strong and the others increasing weak. The use of language and cartoons in the media can have a strong effect on which world-view will be strengthened in the brains of members of the public. The author analyses a corpus of 1000 op-eds employing political cartoons and pertaining to the ongoing Eurozone crisis (2010- ), and finds that the English-language media is attempting to undermine the euro and to foment the crisis. More specifically, the US and UK discourses on the crisis are a panorama of metaphors, categorizations, and blendings. These are normal in discussions of any important topic, but here are one-sided. Such communicative devices have the effect of moving the understanding of the public in an anti-euro direction.
In 1903, Charles S. Peirce made a distinction between icons and iconic signs, or hypoicons, and briefly introduces a division of the latter into images, diagrams, and metaphors. According to this division, images represent simple qualities involved in iconic sign-mediated processes. Differently, diagrams represent, through the relations between its parts, the analogous relations that constitute the related parts of the object it represents. The object of the diagram is always a relation. Unlike the image, which stands for superficial qualities, the diagram is an arrangement of related parts, and its object is an analogous relation. Finally, the metaphor is an icon of analogous relations between sign effects (or interpretants) by creating an analogical parallelism with another interpretant. Unlike most studies on metaphor, Peirce didn’t restrict this phenomenon to verbal processes and systems. For the founder of Pragmatism, metaphor is a subdivision of hypoicons, which includes multimodal semiotic processes (visual, auditory, haptic, etc.). A metaphor establishes a relation of similarity between interpretative effects, revealing similar properties of compared signs. As an iconic sign, it establishes relations of analogy between distinct objects, enabling them to be compared, and creating a heuristic space of discovery of common properties. But, differently from images and diagrams, which reveal material and structural properties, metaphors lead us to discoveries through analogous interpretations.

Our major proposal here is to introduce this division, and provide an example of its application in dance intersemiotic translation from literature. Roman Jakobson defined intersemiotic translation (IT) as a “transmutation or interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs of nonverbal sign systems” (Jakobson 2000 [1959]). We have assumed a broader sense of this notion including several sign systems and processes (see Queiroz & Aguiar 2013). Based on this approach and on Peirce’s hypoiconic division, we consider three types of IT -- imagetic, diagrammatic, metaphorical. We focus on an example of a metaphorical translation of “Macunaíma”, one of the most important novels of the Brazilian modernist movement by Mario de Andrade, by the Brazilian choreographer Paula Carneiro Dias in her solo piece “Para o herói: experimentos sem nenhum caráter - corpo sobre papel”.

References
EMBODIED SIMULATION AND METAPHORS. TOWARDS A DIRECT ROLE OF THE BODY IN LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION

Valentina Cuccio, University of Palermo, Italy

In the last years behavioural (e.g. Glenberg & Kaschak, 2002; Sato et al., 2008), neuroimaging (e.g., Hauk et al., 2004; Kemmerer et al., 2008; Pulvermüller et al., 2001; Tettamanti et al., 2005) and neurophysiological (e.g., Buccino et al., 2005; Papeo et al., 2009) studies have shown the involvement of the sensorimotor system in language understanding. Listening to a sentence such as “John grasps the glass” determines the activation of hand-related areas of the motor cortex even if we are not carrying out any hand-related action. Analogously, empirical findings have also shown that this mechanism, known as Embodied Simulation (Gallese & Sinigaglia 2012), is a widespread mechanism in the brain. It also characterizes areas of the brain that control emotion and perception. To give an example, reading the linguistic description of a particular landscape determines the activation of the visual cortex as if we were actually looking at that landscape (Wojechowski & Gallese 2011). It has been suggested that Embodied Simulation is constitutive of the process of language understanding (Gallese & Sinigaglia, 2011; Pulvermüller, 2012; 2013). Interestingly, Embodied Simulation also occurs during metaphor comprehension (Boulenger, Hauk, & Pulvermüller, 2009; Boulenger, Shtyrov, & Pulvermüller, 2012; Desai, Binder, Conant, Mano, & Seidenberg, 2011).

However, although many findings seem to support the idea that Embodied Simulation is a constitutive process of the understanding of language, this claim is still controversial (Mahon & Caramazza 2008; Alsmith & de Vignemont, 2011; Caruana & Borghi, 2013). Moreover, the definition of the mechanism of Embodied Simulation is equally controversial. According to some authors (e.g. Goldman and de Vignemont 2009) Embodied Simulation should be thought of as the occurrence of a representation in bodily format. However, other authors in the Embodied Cognition debate reject the notion of representation. For example, Hutto & Myin (2013) not only do not buy into the definition of representation in bodily format, they go even further denying the role of the notions of mental content and representation in our mental activities.

In this paper I will review the debate on the notion of representation in the Embodied Cognition literature, I will provide arguments against the definition of representation in bodily format and I will then define the mechanism of Embodied Simulation as bodily attitude. Embodied Simulation gets us attuned with our social world and provides us with a brain/bodily disposition that is the starting point of many cognitive processes such as action understanding, social cognition and, indeed, language comprehension.

I claim that the understanding of bodily-related sentences does not only determine somatotopic activations in the brain, but also determines the experience of specific bodily feelings. Embodied Simulation during language comprehension hence determines the experience of particular bodily states (Foroni & Semin, 2010). These bodily states are directly involved, being part of it, in the cognitive task that we are carrying out. The mechanism of Embodied Simulation allows speakers to share motor, viscero-motor or somatosensory experience of actions, emotions or sensations.
What contribution can the debate discussed above give to metaphor studies? What is the role of Embodied Simulation, defined as bodily attitude, in metaphor comprehension? In the case of bodily metaphors, the bodily state that, by means of the mechanism of simulation, we are directly experiencing is the source domain that we map onto the target domain. And to directly experience the source domain during the metaphorical mapping makes stronger and more vivid the mapping itself. Thus, it is here proposed that the recruitment of the mechanism of ES could be the reason of the communicative effectiveness of bodily metaphors.

These are the issues I am going to address in this paper.
The paper focuses on some cognitive and cultural aspects of metaphors for basic emotions in English and Bulgarian, applying a corpus-based method. Examples from on-line corpora of contemporary British and American as well as phraseological dictionaries have been used. The concept of basic emotion is defined while trying to illustrate it with examples from both English and Bulgarian. Metaphors of happiness, sadness, anger, fear and joy are analysed as examples of emotions which are most commonly referred to as basic in cognitive linguistics. The approach is based on former research by Lakoff, Johnson and Kövecses. The paper takes an up-down approach i.e. from general conceptual metaphors to linguistic metaphors in English and Bulgarian. Generally, in both languages the same schemas are present in cognitive metaphors for basic emotions such as THE CONTAINER SCHEMA, THE VERTICALITY SCHEMA, THE FORCE SCHEMA, THE TASTE SCHEMA etc. There are some differences on the level of linguistic metaphors that correspond to common conceptual metaphors in the languages under discussion. Some dissimilarities are due to certain cultural specificities where myth and culture-bound philosophies are intertwined. For example, the exact 'location' of some emotions in the body is language specific as well as the colours used in metaphors for particular emotions. Generally, there are more similarities than differences between English and Bulgarian regarding conceptual metaphors for basic emotions.
HUMANISATION AND DEHUMANISATION: A STYLISTIC APPROACH TO METAPHORICAL AND METONYMICAL EXPRESSIONS IN OUR MUTUAL FRIEND

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Dickens’s novels include a large number of rhetorical tropes, such as metaphor, metonymy and simile, by which various scenes, substances or human characters are vividly or symbolically described. In Our Mutual Friend (1864-65), we can see hundreds of similes and metaphors by which the author attempts to elaborate and delineate the physical appearances or distinctive personalities of characters. Above all, he makes particular use of metaphor and metonymy to depict each appearance or personality of his human characters as though they were non-human living creatures or inanimate objects by drawing close analogies between the natural attributes or physical appearances of two things. Therefore, the main purpose of my presentation is to examine the metaphorical and metonymical descriptions frequently used in Our Mutual Friend, and thereby bring to light the main semantic processes and functions performed by these rhetorical tropes. Additionally, I shall focus on his remarkable tendency to either humanise objects or dehumanise various characters in order to elucidate the mechanisms of analogical relationships between human beings and non-human living creatures (or inanimate objects) by considering the author’s keen observation and power of imagination.

Thus, I shall first look at Dickens’s typical devices, in terms of forms and techniques, and second explicate the mechanics of conceptual linkage between tenor and vehicle so as to discover the affinities between the different things that are compared in context. For the purpose of further exploring the structural functions and effects of various Dickensian metaphorical expressions, I shall apply some cognitive linguists’ ideas/theories of metaphor to his metaphors and consider the cultural context, the historical background of his age and the author’s/characters’ point(s) of view regarding descriptions of dehumanised characters. These methods will cast light on the semantically close relationship between human and animal (or artefact and human) in Dickens’s animation and mechanisation through metaphor and metonymy.

My analysis then goes on to observe both conventional and unconventional forms of Dickens’s figurative language, by highlighting the linguistic features of Dickens’s animal metaphors and clarifying various constituent elements of metaphoric words from a historical or diachronic standpoint. This criterion will be a crucial key for elucidating the historical development of rhetoric and the particularity of Dickens’s linguistic style.
Knowledge as a concept is important for society, organizations and the communication and usage of science, but too little effort has been given to understanding the concepts of knowledge and the transfer of knowledge often suggested (Kane, 2010). However it is widely accepted that metaphors for knowledge is important in understanding what knowledge is and how it behaves in a cognitive process (Andriessen, 2008; Morgan, 2006; Nonaka, 1994). This abstract presents a multimodal approach to analyzing metaphors. Three methods are applied; language analysis using MIP (Pragglejaz Group, 2007; Steen, 2010), gesture analysis (Kendon, 1997, 2004; Müller, Cienki, & Müller, 2008) and analysis of a gestalt made by the group.

The method has been applied on six creative start-ups in Aarhus, Denmark and the study of their metaphor creation process shows two clear tendencies:

1) Though the same language metaphors are used across groups they are not representing the same concept as buildings or gestures are drawing on different source domain. E.g. the language metaphors “knowledge has a level” is predominant in all cases but build and gestured as “knowledge is a fluid in a tube”, “Knowledge is a stair you walk up” or “knowledge is a tower of employee competencies”.

2) Groups co-construct the metaphors using very different approached. In some groups clear alignment and affiliation (Steensig, 2012; Stivers, Mondada, & Steensig, 2011) takes place and the metaphors are thus adapted as a common concept. In other groups this co-construct does not happen and the metaphors do not become shared.

The case groups are interviewed for approximately one hour and recorded on video. After a brief introduction, the groups are asked to build first “justice” and then “knowledge” in their company in LEGO bricks. As shown in prior studies, performing a common task like that will not only show the level of agreement and reveal metaphors, it also synchronizes the heart rate over time, and thus the initial task of building “justice” serves to establish a physical alignment in the group. The use of LEGO Serious Play in investigation of metaphors and emergent understandings has become more widespread in both commercial use and in research (Frick, Tardini, & Cantoni, 2013; Roos & Victor, 1999).

After the building procedure follow a semi-structured interview focusing on the concept of knowledge, which is analyzed separately as language and gesture as well as from an alignment and affiliation approach.
TEACHING CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS TO EFL LEARNERS IN THE EUROPEAN SPACE OF HIGHER EDUCATION

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The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) encourages a more effective international communication. It is only through a better knowledge of European modern languages that it will be possible to facilitate communication and interaction among Europeans of different mother tongues in order to promote European mobility, mutual understanding and cooperation, and overcome intolerance and xenophobia. Given that “effective communication in a second language involves the ability to use […] metaphors” (Littlemore, 2001), this figure becomes of prime importance to the teaching of languages. Traditionally, students were taught to learn the meanings of idioms by heart and, therefore, these would be difficult to remember in a long term period. Now that metaphor is recognized as being ubiquitous in everyday language, more attention should be given to the teaching of strategies for comprehending and generating metaphors in L2.

The present study applies a methodology for teaching English metaphors and idioms following the tenets of Cognitive Linguistics. It argues the importance of “metaphoric competence” (Low, 1988), and by a conceptual metaphor awareness method (discussion and comparison of metaphors in L1 and L2) advocates its usefulness in language teaching and its explicit inclusion in a language syllabus aimed at increasing proficiency in L2. Thus, it should be considered an additional technique for lexis improvement. This conceptual basis for language is almost entirely unavailable to L2 learners in course books and reference materials. For this reason we offer some pedagogical suggestions and teaching material. It will be proved that language learners can overcome the difficulties idioms accompany.

References
Image schemas form core cognitive structures of the human mind and arise from daily interaction with the environment (Lakoff & Johnson 1980; Johnson 1987). Image schemas can be described as abstract, multimodal sensorimotor patterns that structure human perception and include force dimensions like ATTRACTION and BALANCE, spatial dimensions like NEAR-FAR and physical object attributes like HEAVY-LIGHT and WARM-COLD (Hurtienne 2011). By using the structure of image schemas, more abstract concepts can be described and understood via the process of metaphorical mapping (Lakoff & Johnson 1987). For example, the concept of social proximity can be described on a continuum from WARM to COLD, expressed in the image-schematic metaphor DISTANT IS COLD – INTIMATE IS WARM (Ijzerman & Semin, 2009), and instantiated in language in sentences like “I gave him the cold shoulder” and “a hot relationship”.

Most interestingly, image schemas are not only coupled with abstract concepts in language, but also with colors as well, e.g. in sentences like “a painting in heavy colors” and “a cold blue”. These couplings of image schemas and colors have received a lot of empirical investigation so far (e.g., Payne 1958; Ou, Luo, Woodcock & Wright 2004) and are explained in terms of biology-based or learned associations (Elliot & Maier 2007). However, so far only few researchers systematically investigated if color attributes are linked to particular abstract concepts via image-schematic metaphor. For example, Sherman and Clore (2009) explored the image-schematic color metaphor MORAL IS WHITE - UNMORAL IS BLACK and Song, Vonasch, Meier and Bargh (2012) investigated HAPPY IS WHITE – UNHAPPY IS BLACK.

The work presented in this paper utilizes the theory of image-schematic metaphors as a tool to predict how abstract concepts are linked to specific color attributes. For example, the image-schematic metaphor HAPPY IS WARM – SAD IS COLD states that happiness is metaphorically linked to temperature (“That warmed my spirits.”, “A deep cold sadness overtook me.”, Hurtienne, Stößel & Weber 2009). Since temperature is in turn associated with color temperature, color temperature should be associated with happiness as well, expressed in the image-schematic color metaphor HAPPY IS RED – SAD IS BLUE (Löffler 2014).

Experimental results are reported that validate selected image-schematic color metaphors as population stereotypes (i.e., participants based decisions about abstract concepts on color in line with the image-schematic color metaphor in a forced choice task). Designing for intuitive human-machine interaction is discussed as a possible field of application of image-schematic color metaphors.

References


Coloro che per motivi di studio o di lavoro si trovano ad usare tutti i giorni una lingua straniera a livello avanzato e accademico conoscono la difficoltà di usare correttamente espressioni figurate convenzionali nella seconda lingua (Philip, 2010). La mancanza di una trattazione esplicita e sistematica nei corsi di lingua per stranieri o di strumenti per l’autoapprendimento ai livelli intermedio e avanzato fa sì che questo aspetto del linguaggio venga generalmente acquisito in modo incidentale e spontaneo, spesso nel corso di molti anni. Le difficoltà e il successo nell’apprendimento e il conseguimento di un uso native-like delle espressioni figurate sono in parte determinati anche da quella che possiamo chiamare la ‘distanza metaforica’ tra due lingue, ovvero la misura in cui L1 e L2 condividono metafore e metonimie sia sul piano concettuale che nella loro realizzazione linguistica.


**Riferimenti bibliografici**


« L’UNIVERS, UN MONSTRE INFORMATIQUE»: HOW UNIVERSAL ARE METAPHORS ABOUT THE UNIVERSE?

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The role of metaphor in the communication of science has been widely demonstrated in the literature (Baake, 2003, Bailer-Jones 2000, 2002, Bicchieri 1988, Black 1962, 1993, Boyd 1993, Bradie 1999, Brown 2003, Jacobi 1999, Knudsen 2003, 2005, Leatherdale 1974). However, the migration of scientific metaphors from one language to another, e.g. through translation, has to date aroused little scholarly interest. The purpose of this presentation is to explore the various linguistic realisations of the conceptual metaphor the UNIVERSE IS A COMPUTER in English, and in French and Arabic translations through the analysis of a small parallel corpus of popular science articles from Scientific American and its French and Arabic versions, Pour la Science and Majallat Al Oloom respectively. The UNIVERSE IS A COMPUTER metaphor seems to be embedded in modern scientific thinking, as argued by Lloyd and Ng (2007): ‘to a physicist, all physical systems are computers. Rocks, atom bombs and galaxies may not run Linux, but they, too, register and process information’. Our approach to date has been to work from a close linguistic analysis of parallel texts towards the identification of conceptual metaphors. This method reveals the metaphorical landscape in each language/set of texts. We now propose to work from a given metaphor, for which the source can be assumed to be universal in a scientific context, towards a linguistic analysis in order to establish how this common metaphor is realised linguistically in translation, if at all. The French and Arabic expressions will then be compared with a comparable corpus of original French and Arabic texts in order to establish the possible influence of the translation process on linguistic choices, and hence on conceptualisations.

References
The present paper and poster discusses the notion of temporal cognition in the English language. Its purpose is to present a study on the material extracted from the British National Corpus and a survey about perception of time. The paper is divided into three sections. In the first part theoretical aspects of cognitive and corpus linguistics are discussed. Here is also the place to present the research on collocations and metaphors. It is also important to provide information about the metaphor and time as viewed in interdisciplinary approaches. The second part contains a practical analysis of the survey based on the selected examples generated from the corpus. A detailed discussion of the records is provided and analyzed in terms of the theoretical assumptions put forward in the paper. The third section is devoted to the conclusions of the analyzed material, which puts up a discussion on how time is conceptualized by the speakers of English and methods to investigate the temporal dimension in language. This paper and poster is an attempt to create a point of reference for further research in the field of cognition of time and its linguistic description.

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In previous work I have shown that stories are often used as metaphors, and provided a structure for analyzing story metaphors. In this paper I will carry this line of research farther, and argue that even single words and phrases, used as metaphor vehicles have the potential to index and activate extended stories. Stories may be activated by way of enriched perceptual simulations, but it is also possible that lexical associations with the metaphor vehicle, interacting with the topic, may activate stories. Whether activated by way of perceptual simulations, lexical associations, or both, a story about the vehicle may then be metaphorically transformed into a story about the topic and provide the basis for drawing inferences about the topic.
(WHEN) IS TIME AN OBJECT, MASS OR A CONTAINER?

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In my presentation I will discuss a number of time expressions from Stephen Hawking’s book “A Brief History of Time” and explore the conceptual metaphors and image schemata beyond their linguistic occurrences. Based on the fact that our way of speaking about time is (almost) always metaphoric, there are probably no conceptual metaphors that have been more explored in cognitive linguistics than TIME-metaphors. It has also been largely accepted that physics uses a certain variant of the TIME LANDSCAPE metaphor (Lakoff 1999). Without a doubt, the LANDSCAPE metaphor is the main vehicle for handling time for physical purposes as a parameter of moving (through space) – i.e. the LANDSCAPE describes mainly temporal relationships between events, their locations and distances, as it is mostly the case (e.g. using temporal adverbs) in everyday language, too. However, the metaphorical focus seems to be changed when the purpose is to characterize time itself, the nature of time, e.g. specifying different scientific views on time throughout history.

I will demonstrate that first the the abstract phenomenon TIME has to be delimited and constrained as an OBJECT and only after determining the different aspects of the postulated object as its attributes will it be possible to specify what kind of time one is dealing with. I argue that such an explanation needs to follow the order from the metaphorical projection of the preconceptual OBJECT-schema on TIME, which in turn makes it possible to focus on the different aspects of the OBJECT with its modifications from the WHOLE-PART, LINK and MASS-AMOUNT viewpoint. Depending on how and which of the aspects of TIME-OBJECT as WHOLE-PART and LINK are highlighted, it can be metaphorically defined on the conceptual and linguistic level with terms as "absolute" or "relative" time, as "real" or "imaginary" time, which can transmit the attribute to the TIME LANDSCAPE as well. Further, the specification of TIME-OBJECT as MASS or an AMOUNT is the basis for the TIME-AS-RESOURCE metaphor, according to which light "takes" an AMOUNT of TIME for traveling. On the other hand, when specifying the same aspect of TIME as MASS, the theoretical concept and term "the past / future light cone" will be constructed, beyond which we can find another specification of an ordinary TIME metaphor, namely TIME IS A MASS sort of CONTAINER.

References


METAPHOR USE IN FRENCH LANGUAGE IDEOGRAPHICAL DEBATE: THE FIORASO BILL

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Article 2 of the Fioraso bill, proposed late March 2013 by the French Minister of Higher Education and Research, aimed to provide greater flexibility for tertiary institutions to teach and conduct research in a language other than French. The bill was subject to intense controversies because it was read by many as a tacit endorsement of the use of English in the domain of teaching and research in academic settings. Claude Hagège, a high profile linguist, strongly opposed the bill as did other prominent intellectuals and a range of members across political parties. For them, the bill represented another step towards the marginalisation of the French language on the global scene.

The present study will focus on an editorial written by Hagège on 25 April 2013, entitled “Refusons le sabordage du français” (literally “say no to the scuttling – or sabotage – of French”). It was published online in Le Monde, one of the largest French daily newspaper and is 646 words long.

Based on Cameron’s (2007) approach to metaphor identification that primarily focuses on vehicle terms rather than lexical units, three main scenarios were identified: ‘treason’, ‘enslavement/loss of dignity’ and ‘self-destruction’. This paper will demonstrate how metaphor use in this carefully crafted opinion piece, is key in the framing of particular ideologies and in achieving and sustaining a highly emotive tone throughout the piece. Key examples will be selected to show how conventional metaphors are reactivated either by clustering vehicle terms from the same semantic field to achieve redundancy or by selecting strong, unusual or unlikely collocates. The way in which innovative metaphors are deployed to ground highly emotive arguments into the body and blur boundaries between emotional and physical responses to the text will also be discussed. Finally, the way in which metonymy, particularly in relation to the English language, is a means to manipulate by establishing natural or commonsensical connections between English and a range of undesirable attributes will be also be scrutinised. In fact, it will be argued that beyond the somewhat generic ‘war scenario’ that transpires at the surface level of the text, the whole text could be seen as metaphorical with a number of extended metaphors nested within an overarching metaphorical or allegorical narrative. Potential implications for metaphor analysis in the context of language ideological debates will be highlighted.
DO FOREIGNERS HAVE THE SOUL? SOUL-MAPPING FROM CORPUS PERSPECTIVES

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The existence of the soul (psyche in Greek or spiritus in Latin) has been a matter of discussions from the ancient times in different social sciences and religions. Through many years a number of approaches have been proposed varying from Aristotelian view that the soul is a constituent part of the human body, animals and even plants, René Descartes and David Hume who maintained that all people have the “animal spirits” to many those who are highly sceptical about its existence. Most philosophers assumed that human nature is universal, “although they occasionally remarked on some foreign (and largely unknown) people across the seas who lacked such [psychological]features and were, accordingly, thought to be something less than human” (Solomon, 2002: 128). Apart from philosophical, religious and psychological discussions on the issue, natural language data makes its own profile of the soul and thus, a specific linguistic study may shed some light on such an abstract concept and a general issue.

The study presents a corpus-based approach to the soul. The analysis of English and Lithuanian metaphorical and metonymic expressions reveals the cultural paradigm of the soul which is the key to cultural understanding of such an abstract and highly complex issue. The findings show that the soul is comprehended as the part of the human body and takes part in the conceptualization of various phenomena such as emotions on equal terms with other parts of the body such as hands, eyes or the heart. In many cases, the soul is a constituent part of the conceptual metaphor of CONTAINER and it is employed in many metonyms. Via language, and hence, within our cultural thought, it is sometimes seen as an external part of the body which is perfectly visible and transparent. The study focuses on naturally occurring data that conveys cultural idea of what the soul is, where it is and how it looks like. These three dimensions permit making a linguistic profiling of the soul and may contribute a linguistic approach to modern theories in social sciences.

References
WOULD SYSTEMATIC METAPHORS BE SYSTEMATIC METONYMIES? AN ANALYSIS OF THE DISCOURSE OF VICTIMS OF VIOLENCE IN FOOTBALL IN THE LIGHT OF COMPLEX ADAPTIVE SYSTEMS

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This talk assumes that discourse is a complex adaptive system in which a number of agents of various sorts (psychological, social, cognitive, cultural, ecological etc) interact in complex and unpredictable ways as participants dynamically negotiate meaning in the discourse interaction. Having Cameron et al. (2009); Cameron and Maslen (2010); Morin (2013); Vygotsky (1987) among other authors, as our theoretical and methodological backgrounds, we analyse the talk of 06 football supporters as they talk about their fears and uncertainties as regards their being present at football matches which are marked by acts of violence in Fortaleza, Ceara, Brazil. We discuss findings in the light of metaphor-led discourse analysis and complex adaptive systems theory. Considering that during discourse, speakers express linguistic metaphors, or metonymies which are semantically similar among themselves, connecting them to discursive topics which emerge in participants’ talks. Technically, linguistic metaphors and metonymies are named metaphorical vehicles and metonymical vehicles respectively. The analyst tracks a web of such vehicles connected to the identified discursive topics. Once such a web and topics are tracked, they compose a systematic metaphor, which is, then, proposed by the analyst as a reflexive methodological step of the research procedure. Systematic metaphor notation is, basically, X IS Y. In other terms, systematic metaphor can also be seen as an ad hoc conceptualization which emerges from the complex and dynamic interactions among the speakers as they use linguistic metaphors and metonymies in order to refer to some topic into the discourse. We argue in favour of the plausibility of considering systematic metaphors, systematic metonymies since those are in actual fact only emergent portions or parts of a much larger complex adaptive system - discourse itself. In this sense conceptualization emergent in discourse is systematically metonymical, therefore, always partial and incomplete.
TESTING THE TRANSPARENCY OF WIDELY-USED METAPHORICAL MEDICAL TERMS

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Since the cognitive turn in the study of metaphor, the phenomenon has been studied as a trigger of creativity and concept creation. Metaphor has been said to facilitate understanding of cryptic concepts, a bridge between cryptic knowledge often contained in scientific literature (Knight 2003) and the lay person. However, studies looking into the real effectiveness of metaphor in the access to knowledge by non specialists are still scarce. Medicine is based on understanding between patients and medical personnel (Hadlow and Pitts 1991). In the process of communication, metaphor is used by doctors and patients alike with the aim of bridging communicative gaps. In this regard, metaphoric processes have been studied as facilitators in the understanding of cryptic concepts, as for example those contained in research articles (Knight 2003), which through resources such as metaphor are made accessible in dissemination to lay audiences. But patients use metaphor too as a creative resource to express their symptoms (Teodoro Ricci 2010). Thus, metaphoric conceptualization is a cognitive operation with a key role in creativity and knowledge representation and dissemination in specialized fields (e.g. Temmerman 2000; authors 2012; Vandaele and Lubin 2005). In this paper we propose a typology of metaphors in medical language, emphasizing those revealed by neologisms showing metaphoric motivations. Our data comes from experiments carried out within the VariMed project [varimed.ugr.es]. Our findings aim to show some light on the comprehension of widely used metaphors in medicine both by patients and by doctors.

References
The use of gendered metaphors in philosophy and science is a major concern in feminist theory. By and large, feminist philosophers are engaged in the project of explaining how misleading metaphors can impair our understanding of scientific facts, reinforce damaging gendered stereotypes, distort our philosophical views. Thus, the feminist writing on the gendered metaphors aims to question the tendency to describe – for instance – reason and mind as male, and emotions and bodies as feminine.

However, there is a genuinely disagreement among feminists concerning how to evaluate the use of gendered metaphors and the role that they play in the history of philosophy. Many continental feminists think our tradition is conceptually flawed because its core concepts (“reason”, “objectivity”, “truth”, “justice”) are all male gendered therefore not useful to feminist purposes. Consequently, we should reject the philosophical tradition so far and think of the main canonical philosophers as sexist. By contrast, feminist philosophers in the analytic legacy disagree and consider many traditional philosophical notions as valuable: these notions are not in themselves “masculinist” – even though they have often been misinterpreted and based on gendered metaphors – and do not necessarily carry gender implications. Rather, the logical and linguistic analysis can provide us objective basis (i) to show that some gendered metaphors are deeply mistaken about women or oppressive to women and consequently (ii) that they should be rejected. If it is so, then we should re-conceptualize notions as “reason” or “objectivity” rather than reject them.

In this paper, I will discuss gendered metaphors and its relevance to the history of philosophy. The general question I will focus on is how analytic feminist philosophy might have something to contribute to this topic and how this way of re-interpreting the gendered metaphors can find a place in analytic feminist philosophy. More specifically, the aim of the paper is twofold. I will first define the two concepts of “gendered metaphor” and “gender-neutral metaphor”. In my analysis, particular attention is given to the tension between analytic philosophy and history of philosophy and to the fact that analytic tradition is hostile to the textual commentary. Second, I will defend a way of understanding philosophical metaphors as extrinsically gendered (namely do not carry implications concerning gender). I will show how this project of interpreting a certain canonical tradition might find a place in analytic feminist philosophy (even thought it has devoted not much attention to the history of philosophy).

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POSTER SESSION

THE METAPHORIC FRAMING OF VIOLENCE: SYSTEMATIC AND SITUATED METAPHORS IN DISCOURSE

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The recent cognitive-discursive turn in metaphor studies, characterized by approaching metaphor and metonymy “beyond the Contemporary Theory of metaphor” (Gonçalves-Gracía et al., 2013) can be seen as an attempt to establish systematic links between two distinct but complementary dimensions of meaning production: metaphor in use and metaphor in the conceptual system. To this end, different concepts of metaphor – both as theoretical constructs and analytical units – have been proposed. In this paper, we aim at exploring two of these concepts – systematic metaphor and situated metaphor – to investigate the ways violence, a concept with an ever-increasing social relevance throughout the world – is constructed as an object of discourse through metaphoric language. Systematic metaphors (Cameron et al. 2009; Pelosi et al. (forthcoming)) are viewed as discourse emergencies which result from the progression of discourse topics as well as the trajectory of metaphor vehicles in talk interactions. They result from both bottom-up and top-down analytical procedures, which involve on the one hand, the analysis and coding of discourse topics and the grouping of semantically related metaphor vehicles (i.e. linguistic metaphors) into metaphor families, as well as methodological reflective decisions on the part of the analyst in order to formulate appropriate metaphor labels to such discourse emergencies. Situated metaphors (Vereza, 2013), like systematic metaphors, pertain to discourse, as they are ad hoc phenomena which are peculiar and pertinent to a specific discourse event. However, unlike systematic metaphors, situated metaphors are overtly deliberated and can be seen as a powerful rhetorical and/or argumentative tool in the construction of the object of discourse. The cognitive mappings established through situated metaphors are developed textually and are, therefore, of an online nature, creating unexpected meanings and effects of persuasion and/or humour. In both systematic and situated metaphors, cognition and discourse are clearly interwoven. These two closely related concepts will be used, in this paper, to investigate the way the concept of violence is constructed discursively and cognitively in different communicative acts. Data analysed from Metaphor-Led Discourse Analysis perspective aimed at identifying systematic metaphors, was gathered from the talk of 12 victims of violence in urban Brazil. To understand the way situated metaphors produce meaning through textual mappings, utterances with the simile “violence is like…” are also analysed. Underlying the analyses is the view that cognition and discourse, on the one hand, and system and use, on the other, cannot be dichotomized in the process of understanding the role of metaphor in the conceptualization of abstract notions, such as violence, and their social entailments.