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LEARNABILITY OF CONCEPTUAL METAPHOR

The Case of 1st Year LMD Students at Tahar Moulay University of Saida

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Dedication

Words can do no justice in expressing the love I have to my admirable parents
My greatest motivators, my supporters, & my trustees

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS & ACRONYMS

Common Abbreviations

L1   First Language

L2   Target Language

Adopted Abbreviations

Concemap   Conceptual Mapping

Pret   Pre-test

Post   Post-test

Known Acronyms

C M   Conceptual Metaphor

K M   Knowledge Management

EFL   English as a Foreign Language

ELT   English Language Teaching

SLT   Second Language Teaching

SLA   Second Language Acquisition

Adopted Acronyms

C V M   Conventional Metaphor

I A M   Interactive Awareness of Metaphor

L C P   Level of Communicative Proficiency

M L   Metaphorical Language

M C   Metaphorical Competence

M L   Metaphorical Layering

T K   Tacit Knowledge

Note: Conventional Metaphors are written in upper case letters

Idiomatic phrases are written in italics

LIST OF TABLES, FIGURES, BARGRAPHS, & PICHARTS

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Metaphors are

"inventions of thought to explore a certain

kind of possibilities in a heuristic way".

-Scheffler

ABSTRACT

Tests and evaluation of metaphorical competence are efficient ways to assess heuristically the receptive and productive metaphorical abilities. Targeting whether conceptual metaphor is learnable or not, we should approach the student from this side. However, learnability applies to any content, whatever adheres with learning and mental processing. The administered tests aim at measuring EFL students' acuteness to encounter metaphors. This humble attempt shows the elasticity of their linguistic ability, the degree of semantic expansion (analogical reasoning, mapping, and metaphorical thinking) are important factors affecting metaphorical encountering.

As for the salience and opacity of metaphors, the degree of clarity and accessibility were determinedly significant elements in metaphor elucidation. Metaphor interpretation is indeed a challenging task for a non- native speaker whose culture is different from the emerging host one. Consequently, highly conventional idioms involving metaphorical meaning as well as metaphors were problematic for them to understand and hence to depict. The point is that, the more explicit the metaphor is, the more successful the interpretation will be. Furthermore, alien cultural entailments shaping metaphors decrease chances to get into and squander any effort to attain accurate interpretation.

To be a skilled EFL user implies both receptive and productive skills in the language. It means that the student does not contend by receiving metaphorical input and depicting it, but nevertheless, outputting from his/ her own. This involves the way participants had proceeded in depicting the proposed CVM s, taking into account the discoursal and the pragmatic aspects of metaphor. In the same line of thought, sensitivity in the use of metaphor in terms of social and linguistic correctness seems paramount when evoking variables that influence the students' comprehension of figurative language.

The tests reveal that an EFL learner can progressively develop the ability to interpret L2 metaphors, and that he / she can generate only simple metaphors not intricate ones, and that L2 metaphorically organised conceptual system can be learnable. The context of learning is an area where careful and appropriate use of metaphors may spell success. This implies urging students to feel comfortable expressing themselves in the target language. Equally, it fosters students' focus on the power of figurative language involving crucial communication tasks.

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Human being has used metaphor since antiquity. Aristotle himself once commented that "the greatest thing, by far, is to be a master of metaphor…" (as cited in Kittay, 1989, p.1). Moreover, metaphors found in passages from the celebrated Sumerian Epic of Gilgamesh to the Greek plays of Sophocles and Euripides also attest to the long and distinguished history of this trop (Wikipedia). At the present time, (George Lakoff and Mark Tuner 1989) examined the significant role of metaphor in poetry, noting the omnipresence and the outstanding impact of metaphor in poetry and rhetoric. However, Lakoff and Turner's treatment represents a departure from the idea that metaphor is specific to the realm of literature; moreover, several studies have indicated that metaphor is a central property of everyday language as well (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980).

The current interest in accounting metaphor generates the full appreciation of its linguistic significance. Clearly associated with cognitive processes, metaphor calls to mind a number of aspects yet to be explored. My aim in this humble thesis is to get clear about what we mean by learnability, if it comes to learn metaphorical conception and to explain worthiness of the study. First of all, the way the students manifested their heuristic interest about analogy, when dealing with 'Analogy' course in Written Expression subject matter, encouraged me to find out the reasons behind this enthusiasm. Analogy affords an excellent medium to interpret metaphors. Moreover, it paves the way to the reader or user to reduce the chasm between the components of a given conceptual metaphor.

When I tackled 'Metaphor' course, I found that they had manifested a kind of eagerness in finding the link between 'the target domain 'and the 'source domain' in a number of metaphors. The researcher emphasised the most common ones so as to foster logic at the learners' brains at first. They soon responded by accepting other metaphors and started negotiating their meanings and their rhetorical directions as well. A priori, students appreciate the important puzzles about language and meaning that metaphor, in specific, carries. Conceptual metaphor encapsulates the mapping or a mind

representation between conceptual domains and neural mappings in the brain as points of departure yielding to a plausible inference of meaning that we usually refer to as 'interpretation'.

Furthermore, during my presentation of the course I was wondering if they are able to interpret some conceptual metaphors, or conventional ones without being assisted or oriented in a way or another. In fact, I was thinking of exposing them to conventional metaphors, since conventionality accounts a lot (see chapter 1) in understanding one's shared knowledge of human life. Additionally, learners considered the idea that we cannot disentangle conceptual metaphors from people's thoughts and behaviours. Besides, I was wondering if they can actually produce their own metaphors inspired from our culture i.e. the Algerian culture and attitudes or not.

The need to problematise, then on to hypothesise what I have noticed seemed to me significant. Therefore, encapsulating students' common tendency and leaning towards metaphorical language and interpretation as well provided a very effective basis for metaphor analysis. In fact, the present study is an attempt to bridge the gap between what the teacher actually thinks about a given matter or phenomenon and the students' perceptions and viewpoints too. There is therefore, a need for the new language learner to go beyond taking words as they are and appreciating figurative speech, such as metaphorical discourse, if the student wants to reach the ultimate goal of being fully fluent and conversant in his/ her new language. It seems inescapable in this respect to envisage explicit metaphor teaching rather than implicit attainment.

So as to achieve what came above, this work is divided into four chapters. The introductory part sets the stage and tone of the study. It comprises the sample display and the key concepts that are used throughout the work, it provides an overview of the problem that the study addresses as well. The review of related literature constitutes the second chapter; it discusses the prevailing theories on metaphors. In parallel, it displays the learnability question and the opposite view, as it demonstrates the prominent theorists behind these studies. The third chapter focuses on the research instruments, procedural analysis, and data collection; it attempts to cover the tests scopes and participants attitudes too. The second part of the chapter encapsulates the results of the study, and discussion of these results. The last chapter is devoted for recommendations

and implications of the study, along with pitfalls and obstacles encountered in the course of the investigation that might be of use in future academic undertakings in this area.

In order to completely spell out the nature and purpose of the study that tries to gather many variables, the following set of correlational research questions have been formulated:

1. Can EFL learners develop the ability to interpret metaphors?
2. Can learners generate intricate metaphors in their new language?
3. Is an L2 metaphorically organised conceptual system learnable?

The proposed hypotheses are as follows:

a. An EFL learner can progressively develop the ability to interpret metaphors.
b. They can generate simple metaphors in the target language.
c. L2 metaphorically organised conceptual system can be learnable.

One of the criteria in conducting an empirical research is the availability of the ethnographic data. The target population, and indeed first year LMD students of the academic year 2011- 2012 were the best sampling, since I was in charged of teaching them Written Expression. This choice allowed me to follow the process of understanding the concept and testing when it came to check comprehension and assessing responses upon metaphorical language as well. Moreover, they enjoyed the adequate prerequisite to assimilate 'Metaphor', and to be tested in twice after presenting the course. The first test was administered in the month of May 2011, and the second in the following year, May 2013.

There are several standardised instruments that are frequently used in research to approach some pedagogical and linguistic phenomena. In order to achieve the goals of this modest research study, the researcher opted for three instruments: the questionnaire, the test, and the think- aloud protocol. The first tool is meant to collect some information regarding the tackled issue, it establishes the responses towards metaphor interpretation as a figure of speech. The second is administered to meet functional specifications as well as investigating bias and schematic data attached to metaphorical

conception. The third instrument which is the think-aloud protocol is a procedure that allowed participants thinking aloud when they were required to interpret three conventional metaphors. Therefore, the researcher took into account every single word that the respondents uttered (see Appendix E).The goal behind is to witness the stages of the verbal assignment completion rather than final written product as in the post and the pre-tests.

Metaphors need to be taught explicitly rather than implicitly, in this way the learners come to understand this feature of language Ellis (2004) through recurrent focus. For students, it will impress on them the value of familiarising themselves with non- literal expressions of the second language that they wish to master. For full fluency in any language, it is important for learners to feel comfortable expressing themselves metaphorically in the target language; as well as to have good grasp of the linguistic expressions used in common metaphorical domains.

The first domain scrutinised represents the domain called Up and Down, one of the leading embodied metaphorical domains in cognitive linguistic research, originally highlighted by (Lakoff and Johnson 1980). They emphasised the power of figurative forms notably metaphors. Therefore, students can use them as a tool to better articulate their ideas rather than actually writing a metaphor, for instance, in their final projects. Furthermore, they enable them to write wonderful essays and improve thereafter the quality of their pieces of writing that employ metaphors thematically throughout the document, continually tying the components back to these metaphors.

Learnability is not exactly a new concept in linguistics, it was coined to refer to the ease of language learning MacCarthy (2001). In this respect, learnability concerns how learnable a piece of instruction is? The inquiry here is: What makes the content of a figure of speech such as 'metaphor' learnable? Could we say that the main criterion contributing to shape the ease of learning is when students experience good intellectual flow as well as enjoy the course. The sceptic view immediately insists that learning takes place within a learner's mind, and that is the locus that mainly determines learnability. In other words, curiosity, intelligence, motivation, and persistence of the learner should not be taken for granted. Therefore, the teaching materials can only stifle the

process, learners have to make them effective, moreover to make them succeed. While there is some truth to that view, it is certainly not the full picture. The point is that the instructor should maximise the effectiveness of the respective teaching materials. In fact, learning is a process, and so are instructions in the sense of manipulating the situation so as to facilitate learning occurrence. This is why the great deal of research on learning and education over the past century has not dealt explicitly with learnability. The challenge is, to identify features leading to good learning materials as well as the deep issues underlying learnability.

Learnability applies to any content, whatever deals with learning and mental processing. The crucial notion that the 'what' and the 'how' of learning are inextricably linked Carroll (1990), this evokes the three elements of learning: comprehension, interest, and memorising. Comprehension is based on our ability to reason to fit things together. It is the process of generating internal models of the world in all its components. Thus understanding is a process of rational model building.

Interest is the attentional factor in learning. If something stands out from its context, it will be more easily remembered, as with things that are extremely vivid or of a great personal importance. Interest then, has the function of keeping us on task. The third element is memorisation which has a paramount importance in learning. Basically, memory is a set of processes for putting materials into the brain, so they can be retrieved later. In short, it gathers processes encapsulating the functions of acquiring, encoding, storing, and recalling information.

Overall, learnability should be approached empirically, so the challenge ahead is to identify those features of learning attainment, even though it comes to learn something specific to the ability of a native speaker. Learning conceptual metaphor is in fact this challenge, getting the student acquainted in handling metaphors thereby familiarising him or her to metaphorical thinking seems to be an outstanding learning goal. This work tries to delve into some aspects of metaphor to show how we need to be aware of its potent and pervasive power.

CHAPTER ONE

METAPHOR ANATOMY & ITS EDUCATUIONAL CONSIDERATIONS

CONTENT

1.1. Introduction

The introductory chapter attempts to cover the broad spectrum called 'Metaphor' and the attached schematic and cultural issues, moving to the conventionality of metaphor. The term conventional is used in the sense of well-established and well-entrenched in the usage of a linguistic community. The issue conventionality entails both conceptual metaphors and their linguistic manifestations. Pedagogically speaking, metaphors have a significant importance in the teaching process; this means that, teaching is seen as orchestrating, conditioning, guiding or training. Therefore, they could function heuristically as a tool for discovery. Thus, metaphors often operate didactically as approaches for teaching to determine the way the learner manifests his / her straining characteristic as well as knowledge he /she forms and the role he/ she is expected to perform. As a matter of imparting the section phases, participants' identification as well as their metaphorical language and vocabulary are displayed in this chapter. Among headings running this part, the chronology and the procedural layout of this work are entailed. The use of language further implies that the knowing subject (whose tacit knowledge is being externalised) is conscious of the source (the representation) to which his/ her linguistic expressions refer. Moreover, the use of metaphors and analogies implies that the knowing subject focuses on retrieving their contents in a reflective and creative manner.

1. 2. Metaphor in Depth

Metaphor is a type of analogy and is closely related to other rhetorical figures of speech that achieve their efforts via association, comparison, or resemblance including allegory, hyperbole, and simile. The metaphor category also contains these specialised types: allegory is an extended metaphor wherein a story illustrates an important attribute of the subject. Catachresis is a mixed metaphor used by designing an accident (a rhetorical fault). Parable is an extended metaphor narrated as an anecdote illustrating and teaching a moral lesson (Wikipedia) as Aesop's fables (see p. 206).

Rhetoric is the act of discourse, an art that aims to improve the facility of speakers or writers who attempt to inform, persuade, or motivate particular audiences. Metaphors may have two handles, but they also have several sides. Now, a certain thing may be one, but its qualities and capabilities are likely to be many. Consequently, the one thing is not restricted to one effect. Those who employ a figure of speech may do so with different aspects in mind or with a different feature in view, so that even when the depotatum is the same, the significatum will vary (see respectively pp.204, 206). That is why a single image may fulfil several different purposes or meanings even while it remains the same (Egan, 1998, p.125).

According to (George Lakoff and Mark Johnson 1980), our conceptual system, which is largely metaphorical, structures what we perceive, how we get around in the world, and how we relate to other people. To illustrate their point, Lakoff and Johnson choose the example of war, which is said to have structured our style of making arguments. As in real war, we see the person we are arguing with as an enemy; we plan and implement strategies; we attack our enemy's views and defend our own, and of course, we could win or lose arguments.

If we evoke Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) famous equation "LIFE IS A JOURNEY" could be replaced with /drama/, /dream/, /fantasy/, /shadow/, /fog/, /huge waves/, and many more. The reason for such vehicular diversity is that a content word in any language can be analysed into an infinite number of semantic markers. This allows it to be connected with one of the numerous semantic markers of another content word on the basis of similarity. Thanks to the open-endedness of the metaphorical associations, we can easily find a person using hundreds if not thousands of different metaphors in his/ her life; but we can safely claim that his or her way of thinking and behaviour is influenced by a particular group of metaphors.

In cognitive linguistics, conceptual metaphor, or cognitive metaphor refers to the understanding of one idea or conceptual domain in terms of another. An example of this is the understanding of quality in terms of directionality (e.g., the prices are rising). A conceptual domain can be any coherent organisation of

human experience. The regularity with which different languages employ the same metaphors which often appear to be perceptually based, has led to the hypothesis that the mapping between conceptual domains corresponds to neural mappings in the brain.

Conceptual metaphors are seen in language in our everyday lives. Conceptual metaphors shape not just our communication, but also shape the way we think and act (Lakoff & Johnson 1980). Conceptual metaphors typically employ a more abstract concept as target and a more concrete or physical concept as their source. For instance, metaphors such as 'the days (the more abstract or target concept) ahead' or 'giving my time' rely on more concrete concepts, thus expressing time as a path into physical space, or as a substance that can be handled and offered as a gift.

1. 3. Interaction between Metaphor and Metonymy

Particular linguistic expressions are not always clearly metaphors or metonymies. Often, what we find is that an expression is both; the two figures blended in a single expression. In these cases, we have individual examples where metaphor and metonymy interact. This process becomes sharper if we consider for example the expression to be close-lipped. Literally, it means 'to have one's lip's close together'. The expression has two non-literal meanings: the first one means: 'to be silent' and the second means: 'to say little.' When it is used in the sense of 'to be silent', we have a metonymic reading, in that having the lips close together results in silence. However, if we describe as close-lipped a talkative person who does not say what we would like to hear from him or her, we have a metaphoric reading in this instance (Lakoff & Johnson 1980).

Another type of interaction between metaphor and metonymy is the expression to shoot one's mouth off. We can call this case 'metonymy within metaphor'. In other words, it is a metaphor which incorporates a metonymy within the same linguistic expression. In 'to shoot one's mouth off, we have the figurative meaning to talk foolishly about something that one does not know much about or should not talk about. First, we have a metaphorical reading in which a source

3

domain item, the gun, is mapped onto the target domain, speech, more precisely, onto the organ of speech, which is the mouth. In this way the foolish use of a firearm is mapped onto foolish talk Kovecses (2002).

Metonymy-producing relationship, such as part of a thing for the whole thing and agent for action, manifest in a variety of important interrelated outcomes like a complex event, perception, causation, etc. The relationship falls into two large configurations: whole and part and part and part. Certain metonymic relationships can lead to the development of conceptual metaphors Kovecses (2002). These include causation, whole-part, and correlation. In sum, metaphors and metonymies often interact in particular linguistic expressions. Some of these can be interpreted as the mixed case of metaphor from metonymy, while others are a mixture of metonymy within metaphor.

1. 4. Universality of Conceptual Metaphors

The question worth to be asked here is: Are there any conceptual metaphors that can be found in all languages and cultures? This is an extremely difficult question to answer, considering that there are more than 4.000 languages spoken currently around the world. In order to understand better this issue is to look at some conceptual metaphors that one can find in some languages and check whether the same metaphors exist in typologically very different languages. If they do occur we can set up a hypothesis that they can be universal. With further research, we can then verify or disprove the universality of these metaphors Kovecses (2000).

The researcher has chosen some conceptual metaphors from English for the sake of checking their occurrence in some genetically unrelated languages. In this way, certain hypotheses can be proposed concerning the universal or non-universal status of metaphors. If we find that the same conceptual metaphor occurs in several unrelated languages, we are confronted with an additional question which is: Why does this conceptual metaphor exist in such different languages and cultures? This is one of the most interesting issues that the cognitive linguistic

view of metaphor should be able to say something about. Let us begin with some metaphors for happiness in English:

a- BEING HAPPY IS BEING IN HEAVEN

b- HAPPINESS IS VITALITY

c- HAPPINESS IS A NATURAL FORCE

d- HAPPINESS IS A FLUID IN A CONTAINER

e- HAPPY IS UP

From these, there are three important metaphors for conceptualising happiness in English: metaphors that employ the concepts of up, light, and a fluid in a container. The Chinese linguist Ning Yu (1995) in his study checked whether these metaphors exist in the conceptualisation of happiness in Chinese. He found that they all do, below are some examples that he described:

a- HAPPY IS UP

a - Ta hen gao-xing.

a - He is very high-spirited ---means happy

----

b- HAPPINESS IS LIGHT

b- Ta xing congcong de.

b- His spirits are rising and rising ---means he is pleased and excited.

----

c- Tamen gege xing-gao cai-lie.

c- They are all in high spirits and with a strong glow----means

they are all in great delight.

----

d-   Ta xiao zhu gan kai.

d-   His smile drives colour beam----means he beamed with
a smile

----

e- HAPPINESS IS A FLUID IN A CONTAINER

e-   Ta xin-zhong chomgman xiyue.

e-   His heart is filled with happiness.

e-   Ta zai-ye anna buzhu xin-zhong de xiyue.

e-   She could no longer contain the joy in her heart.

Source: (Yu, 1995, p. 92)

As we have seen above that happy is up metaphor in both languages English
and Chinese gives rise to a series of metaphorical entailments. This means that we
carryover knowledge about the behaviour of a happy person in a closed container
onto the concept of happiness. The concept of 'happiness 'in its turn takes several
contextual properties of 'a liquid' and does its function; it might for instance
perform the role of an overwhelming substance in the heart in a fluidly way.

The versatility of metaphor is opening many new doors for scholars working
in diverse fields. The traditional view of metaphor treats it as an embellishment for
artistic and rhetorical purposes. The Cognitive View of Metaphor defines
metaphor as understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual
domain (Kövecses: 2010 p. 4). Abstract concepts that define everyday realities of
states and causation are metaphorically structured and can be reduced to primary
metaphors. Therefore, metaphors in literature are highly conventional at the level
of conceptualisation, as the human experiences from which they take shape.

Concomitantly, metaphors in literature also differ as the writers belong to different sets of society as well as they follow different behavioural patterns, customs, beliefs, institutions, habits and traditions of that particular society. Language takes shape in a particular culture. The sum total of shared traditions, customs and understandings characterise a group of people in a country. Obviously culture also affects metaphorical thought. Consequently, metaphors become culture-specific and vary from culture to culture. The universality in metaphors takes us beyond cultures and makes them discernible in many if not all of the languages of the world Kovecses (2010).

1.5. Conventionality of Metaphor

We can ask how deeply entrenched a metaphor is, in everyday use by ordinary people for everyday purposes. This use of the notion of conventionality is different from the way this concept is usually used in linguistics, semiotics, and the philosophy of language. The typical application of the term in these fields is synonymous with that of the term 'arbitrary', especially when this is used in explaining the nature of linguistic signs (where it is pointed out that 'form' and 'meaning' are related to each other in an arbitrary fashion Kovecses (2002, pp.8-9). However, the term 'conventional' is used here in the sense of well established and well entrenched. Thus, we can say that a metaphor is highly conventional or conventionalised (i.e., well established and deeply entrenched) in the usage of a linguistic community.

Since there are both conceptual metaphors and their corresponding linguistic expressions, the issue of conventionality covers both conceptual metaphors and their linguistic manifestations. Both conceptual and linguistic metaphors (chapter two is going to tackle these thoroughly) are all highly conventionalised, in that speakers of English use them naturally and effortlessly for their normal, every day purposes Kovecses (2002). Thus, the retrieval of metaphors in general occurs in a deliberate way when talking, many words pairs containing a metaphorically used words are adopted as well. Consider the metaphors below inspired by social organisations such as work, life, and so on:

a. SOCIAL ORGANIZATIONS ARE PLANTS: The company is growing fast.

b. THEORIES ARE BUILDINGS: We have to construct a new theory.

c. IDEAS ARE FOOD: I can not digest all these facts.

d. ARGUMENT IS WAR: I defended my argument.

Source: Kovecses (2002, p.7)

The metaphorical expressions given as illustrations of the conceptual metaphors above are highly conventionalised, that is, they are well cliched. Most speakers would not fact even notice that they use metaphor when use the expression 'defend' in connection with arguments, construct in connection with theories, digest in connection with ideas. For native speakers of English, these are some of the most ordinary and natural ways to talk about these matters.

Conventional conceptual metaphors, such as ARGUMENT IS WAR, IDEAS ARE FOOD, etc, are deeply entrenched ways of thinking about or understanding an abstract domain while conventional metaphorical linguistic expressions are well cliched ways of talking about abstract domains (Kovecses 2002, p.8). Thus, both conceptual and linguistic metaphors can be more or less conventional. For example, a conventional way of thinking about theories is in terms of buildings and about life in terms of a journey. In addition, there are conventional ways of talking about the same domains. Thus, we use the verb to construct to talk about some aspects of human life. It is customary to refer to the conventional nature of linguistic expressions with the adjective conventionalised and thus talk about rather than conventional metaphorical linguistic expressions.

Highly conventional metaphors are at one end of what we can call the scale of conventionality. At the opposite end of the scale, we find highly conventional or novel metaphors. To illustrate, let us give an example of both:

LIFE IS A JOURNEY   (highly conventional metaphor)

a- He had a head start in life.   (novel metaphor)

b- Two roads diverged in a wood, and …

I took the one less travelled by,

And that has made all the difference.   Frost (1916)

The examples above are linguistic metaphors that manifest the same conceptual metaphor. The example in (b) comes from Robert Frost's poem "The Road not Taken" (1916). Obviously, Frost uses the conventional LIFE IS A JOURNEY metaphor in conventional ways. He employs linguistic expressions from the journey domain that have not been conventionalised for speakers of English; "two roads diverged" and "I took the one less travelled by" are not expressions to talk about life in English. As linguistic metaphors that they realise remains conventional.

Theses examples of the LIFE IS A JOURNEY conceptual metaphor appear to support the widespread view that novel metaphorical expressions have their source domain in poetry or literature. But conventionalised metaphorical expressions do not only come from arts, strictly conceived. There are many creative speakers who can produce novel linguistic metaphors based on conventional conceptual metaphors Turner (1991). Some well-known categories of these speakers in English include sports journalists, politicians, writers of song lyrics and others.

This linguistic phenomenon i.e., when evoking the overlapping link between conventionality and novelty of linguistic expressions, does not occur exclusively in English speaking context; but it is taking place elsewhere too. In Algeria for instance, ordinary people built some linguistic expressions, metaphorically oriented, upon well entrenched ones. It seems convenient in this respect to cite one of these to serve as an illustration from everyday conversations, when we are

restless or we do not tolerate delay concerning a matter in life, ordinary people say in Dialectal Arabic 'being on an ember bed' which is a linguistic expression built upon the expression in Classical Arabic: 'being on a hot ember bed'.

The example above is a metaphorical linguistic expression to talk about abstract domains in life Kovecses (2002). With regard to deeply entrenched source domains, perhaps one of the shared examples between the Classical Arabic language and the British language is the well rooted expression of 'being on pins and needles' which means to wait impatiently. This has an equivalent in Arabic: 'على أحر من الجمر' as it is translated in the previous paragraph. Both expressions are too close in meaning and convey the frantic state of mind a person might have, incomparably described with another strong emotion. They refer also to matchless unpleasant or burning moments a person might live waiting for something or someone on the edge of impatience.

1. 6. Nature of Metaphor

Image   and   schema are two underlying elements in metaphor, since most of metaphors are based on   our basic knowledge of concepts. Basic knowledge structures constituted by some basic features are mapped from a source to a target. But there is   another kind of conceptual metaphor that can be called image-schema metaphor Lakoff (1987), in which there is no conceptual elements of   knowledge   (like: traveller, destination, obstacles, etc.). Let's   take   the following examples with the word out:

1.	pass out	**5.**	out of order
2.	space out	**6.**	be out of something
3.	zone out		
4.	tune out		

The phrases above have to do with such events and states as losing consciousness, lack of attention, something breaking down, death, absence of something, etc. All of these indicate a negative state of affairs. However, the most important point for the discussion of image-schema metaphors is that these

metaphors map relatively little from source to target. As the name image-schema implies, metaphors of this kind have source domains that have skeletal image-schemas. By contrast, structural metaphors are rich in knowledge structure and provide a relatively rich set of mappings between source and target. Image-schemas are not limited to special relations, such as "in-out" Lakoff (1987). There are many other "schemas" that play a role in our metaphorical understanding of the world.

These basic image- schemas drive from our interaction with the world. We explore physical objects by contact with them, we experience ourselves and other objects as containers with other objects in them or outside of them. We move around the world, we experience physical forces affecting us; and we also try to resist these forces, such as when we walk against the wind. Interactions such as these occur repeatedly in human experience. These basic physical experiences give rise to what are called image-schema structures Lakoff (1987). Here are some examples about abstract concepts metaphorically expressed:

Image-Schema		Metaphorical Extension
in-out	----------------------------	I'm out of money
front-back	----------------------------	He 's an up-front kind of guy
up-down	----------------------------	I'm feeling low
contact	----------------------------	Hold on, please (wait)

Table 1.1   Lakoff's Image – schema Structures

An interesting property of image-schemas is that, they can serve as the basis of other concepts. Thus, for instance, the notion schema underlies the concept of a journey, which is a traveling that takes long period of time. The notion schema has the parts, initial point, movement, and end point, to which correspond in journeys the point of departure, the travel, and the destination. In this way, most apparently non-image-schematic concepts (such as journey) seem to have an image-schematic basis or a set of understanding patterns that occurs in our cognitive processes.

According to Lakoff (1987) the target domains of many structural metaphors can be seen as image-schematically structured by their source (such as LIFE IS A JOURNEY).

But there are other kinds of image-based metaphors that are richer in imagistic detail. These conceptual metaphors do not employ image-schemas but rich images Lakoff (1987). We can call them image metaphors, also sometimes called resemblance metaphors. It interacts with what is envisaged by the contemporary trend in cognitive theory as mental imagery in metaphoric thought. Image- based reasoning is fundamental and abstract reasoning is image-based reasoning under metaphorical projections to abstract domains. They can be found in both poetry and other kinds of discourse.

1.7. Accounting Metaphor

How important is to study metaphors? One of the best illustrations of the seriousness and importance of the metaphor can be found in the myth of Oedipus (wikipedia). As part of the myth, Oedipus arrives in Thebes where he finds that a monster, called the Sphinx, is guarding the road to the city. She poses riddles to everyone on their way to Thebes and devours them if they are unable to solve the riddles. So far, everyone has been devoured when Oedipus arrives. The Sphinx asks him the riddles: which is the animal that has four feet in the morning, two at mid-day, and three in the evening? Without hesitation Oedipus answers: Man, who in infancy crawls on fours, who walks upright in maturity and in his old age supports himself with a stick. The Sphinx is defeated and kills itself. Oedipus thus becomes the king of Thebes. How was Oedipus able to solve the riddle? At least a part of this must have been his knowledge of conceptual metaphor. There appear to be two metaphors operative in figuring out the riddle (Wikipedia).

The first is the metaphor HUMAN BEING LIFE IS A DAY. Oedipus must have been helped by the correspondences that obtain between the target concept of life and the source domain of day. Morning corresponds to infancy, mid-day to mature, adulthood and evening to old age. Since he knew mappings, he offered the correct solution. Another and maybe less important

metaphor that may have played a part in HUMAN LIFE IS A JOURNEY. This metaphor is evoked by the frequent mention and thus the important role of feet in the riddle. Feet evoke the concept of journey that may provide a clue to the successful solution of the riddle through the HUMAN LIFE IS A JOURNEY metaphor. This reading is reinforced by the fact that much of the myth is a tale of Oedipus's life in the form of a journey. All in all, Oedipus's life, at least on this occasion, is saved in part by his knowledge of metaphor (Wikipedia).

Metaphoric expressiveness is committed to present metaphor as a crucial part in language either written or spoken. The way in which accountants create and disseminate meaning about the world, they are accounting discourse and extensions of discursive practices as well. The other aspect of the metaphorical language, apart from vividness, it is important for accountants to possess knowledge of metaphor. In other words, appropriate metaphorical knowledge has its significance in interpreting metaphors.

Besides, Metaphors allow knowledge to be placed in a view that considers organisations as an input or output logistical system Andriessen (2006). Therefore, thanks to CM the ownership, value, and exclusiveness of knowledge are kept. Moreover, metaphor guarantees the legal rights aspect of knowledge and its transferability. As for the cultural detail, there are culture / language specific construals Ansah (2010), or differently speaking, a certain give and take that language and culture perform. Equally, metaphor is not merely linguistic phenomenon, but more fundamentally, a conceptual and experiential process that structures our world I-wen- Su (2002). Because, this new perspective on metaphor has had an impact on linguistics, since studies on metaphor have become much more a matter of seeking empirical generalisations to explain data concerning conceptual and inferential structure (ibid). Hence, metaphor and cultural models always interact with each other, and this interaction leads to their mutual growth Shanghai (2009). In sum, conceptual metaphor contributes in enriching cultural models, and these in their turn influence metaphor.

1.8. Status of Metaphor in Algeria

If metaphors are based on embodiment, that is, correlations between   abstract and physical domains of experience and we share much of this embodiment, why are our metaphors across cultures, groups, and individuals not at least roughly the same? The question was raised in Lakoff and Turner's More than Cool Reason: A Field Guide to Poetic Metaphor (1989). They asked how writers are creative in the use of their metaphors. An important part of the answer, according to Lakoff and Turner, is that people in a culture, including poets, share most of conceptual metaphors. They demonstrated that ordinary people and authors such as Shakespeare and Dickinson have most of their metaphors in common.

Overall, figures of speech have universal dimensions. Paradoxically, in the textual environment in which they appear, they remain culturally specific and, therefore, they are also specific to the language that adopts them. Metaphor in Algeria has its own specificities as long as it overlaps the Algerian culture. Some figures of speech, most importantly, the metaphor are identified in Abdelhamid Benhadouga's novel "Rih el Djanoub" (see p.15). It has been translated from Arabic into the French language by Marcel Bois. The translator adopted an interpretative approach so as to switch from one language to another. He used a cluster of techniques such as literal translation, explanatory paraphrase, corresponding equivalence, and cultural innovation. With the absence of referential elements, the translator might strive in his or her undertaking. Therefore, the translation of metaphors from the source language to the target language is a constrained work, notably if both languages are quite different.

1. 9. Benhadouga's Novel (as an example)

According to Benhadouga, metaphorical language expresses the legitimacy of the actions, choices, and the options running through out the novel. It is persuasive in the sense that it presents one version of the world which is expected to be accepted by the audience to whom it is addressed. Metaphor is depicted as being a mirror reflecting social phenomena occurring within the Algerian society. He encompassed values which are to be held, actions that should be carried out

individually or commonly, as well as eventual outcomes. Hence, metaphor incarnates embedded thoughts, mentalities, and practices that a community can hold; as it concerns individuals living within the same community and share common purposes, this is conventionally called: 'society'.

1.9.1. Metaphor as a Stylistic Process

The novel of Benhadouga is entitled Rih el Djanoub, it was published in Arabic in 1975, and translated into the French language by M. Bois in 1978 "le vent du Sud". Benhadouga's work was one of the most fertile Algerian works in metaphors. The way in which cultural events are narrated in the novel reveals a great deal of cultural aspects typically 'Algerian', and very close to those of the Arab world. The analysis of the translated metaphor lets appear some cultural aspects that orbit around some difficulties that every translator encounters. Another constraint worth entailing while translating metaphors deals with people's way of thinking and cultural values of a given society. In the Arab society, for instance, associating 'man' to 'a lion' represents a metaphor that expresses 'courage and braveness'. This association is not always interpreted as such in the occidental point of view.

The metaphor is considered as a stylistic process more than as an aesthetic feature. The translator relies on his/ her personal creativity more than anything else. The translator might opt to keep the source domain and the target domain that the original text comprises, and does a literal translation. He / she uses all what the target language offers as linguistic and aesthetic possibilities in order to reach an equivalence. As Bois did, he took into account what the source language allows as expressive forms to re-construct the text in the target language. However, these translational possibilities represent a pertinent aspect yielding to a successful translational process.

1. 9. 2. Some Examples Elicited from the Novel

The metaphorical philosophy of Benhadouga reveals a lot, throughout his work, he adopted a number of metaphors that go hand in hand with the Algerian

culture. All characters and their personalities were strongly inspired from the Algerian way of thinking, way of living, and mood as well. The way he expresses, for instance, the beauty of 'Nafissa', a protagonist character in the novel:

a. ' جمال سماوي ' p.68 in the original text ---'beauté céleste' p.54 in the French version. The novelist has associated the charm of this young woman with the beauty of the sky in its both states, either when it is starry or clear; both incarnate the outstanding beauty of this creature. Seemingly, the beauty of the natural world has inspired the author in a tremendous way. Many writers make reference to the sky when evoking beauty, for example, William Wordsworth, said:

The earth and every common sight

To me did seem

Apparelled in celestial light

(Ode: Intimations of Immortality. Wordsworth 1807)

The way the author expresses sadness of 'Keira', Nafissa's mother who says:

b.' ''أما موتانا فهم مدفونين بقلوبنا '' p.26. In the original text --- si les morts sont enterrés dans le coeur, cela veut dire que ce dernier est 'resté inconsolable' p.22 in the French version. Benhadouga portrayed the instances where this lady evoked Algeria's martyrs in lieu of freedom and the scars they have left on the nation.

In the original text, the metaphor which expresses the intensity of the heat and the difficulty of the road that Nafissa used to take is:

c. الحر ولفحات الشوك لسعات بين طريقها في مضت و ' p.186 It connotates 'thirst 'of Nafissa, in Bois's philosophy; it is the equivalent of 'en butte à la morsure des piquants et à la brulure de la soif' p.242. Here, the harshness of the road that the protagonist character took, is characterised by 'thorn and burn', so he said: the thorny and burning path she used to take. (Own translation)

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(Examples a, b, and c are extracted from: Bachir Pacha Abdessalem, L. La traduction de la metaphore: quel (s) procédé (s) pour quelle (s) culture (s)? Université Mouloud Mammeri de Tizi – Ouzou, Algérie. Synergies Pologne n 8 -2011, pp. 69-81). The translated passages in English are done by the researcher.

Benhadouga's work is deemed as being stuff with metaphors. Metaphor for him is an actual rhetorically ambitious use of words. It has attracted more philosophical interest and still provoking controversies than any of the other traditionally recognised figures of speech. This juxtaposition of two things or concepts suitably conspicuous offers a multitude of connotations which requires a deployment of language and a double aboutness that one might strive to understand and find inclusion.

1. 10. Metaphor in Education

Metaphors are everywhere, (Lakoff and Johnson 1980) state that they are 'pervasive in everyday life. Not just in language, but in thought and action' p.3. We studied metaphors in our education, but even without realising it, those of us involved in the educational process use them in education as well. Using metaphors for educational processes is not new. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) recommended searching for appropriate metaphors as a step toward self understanding and to help us make sense of our lives. They suggest that "We seek our personal metaphors to highlight and make coherent our own pasts, our present activities, and our dreams, hopes, and goals as well." pp. 232-233.

Bowman (1993) challenged the participants of Lilly Conference in Excellence in College Teaching to investigate their own view point of the educational process and create a metaphor reflective of these feelings. She presented examples of educational metaphors suggested by teachers and students, like: "Teaching is sowing seed", "Students are vessels to be filled", "Education is discovering our soul", "Teachers are stepping stones to learning", and "Students are budding flowers."

The way we see ourselves and picture our roles influences the way in which we teach and how we interact with our students. Strenski (1989) suggests that "Metaphors have consequences. They reflect and shape our attitudes and in turn, determine our behaviour" p.137. Teaching methods used by a teacher who suggests that "Teaching is a battle, keeping the troops in line" will differ significantly from a teacher who feels that "A teacher is a midwife, assisting in the birth of ideas" Bowman (1993).

The difference between these two approaches lies on the difference in the teaching methodologies. In fact, some teachers find that teaching is an arduous and sensitive task; which demands careful supervision. Others see that teaching requires patience and willingness fostering. The use of teacher-student metaphorical interaction according to Strenski fluids the operation and lets the communicative channel open. Therefore, the student may say to his or her teacher when facing troubles in understanding (a) material (s)still gloomy, sir/ madam', i.e. a given item needs to be re- explained, or clarified.

Rather than having to describe a number of particular events that occurred in his/ her classroom. The teacher might say 'My classroom is a zoo', because people are familiar with zoos. The important thing is that, under the influence of the zoo metaphor, we can perceive the students' behaviour as negative, more than that, uncontrolled. The same thing for the metaphor 'My classroom is a beehive', the teacher perceives the productivity and the business of the learners as if they are bees. Thus, teachers' unconscious metaphors direct their perceptions and their resultant behaviours. Discussing the influence of metaphors on behaviour, (Lakoff and Johnson 1980) state,

> "Metaphors   may   create realities for us, especially social realities. A metaphor may   thus be a guide for future action. Such actions will, of course fit the metaphor.This will, in turn, reinforce the power of the metaphor to make   experience coherent. In this sense metaphors can be self-fulfilling prophecies."

Lakoff & Johnson (1980:146)

Metaphors contain beliefs about knowledge and the expected role of the student.   John Lock   described   the   mind at birth as a   tabula rasa [1],

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1. Tabula rasa means blank slate in Latin, is the epistemological theory that individuals are born without built-in mental content and that their knowledge comes from experience and perception. Generally, proponents of the Tabula rasa thesis favour the 'nurture' side of the nature versus nurture debate, when it comes to aspects of one's personality, social, emotional behaviour, and intelligence.

an empty slate on which all knowledge must be written by others. Similar descriptions of teaching reflect the belief that students' minds are empty vessels. Thus, we frequently hear teachers saying something like this. In recent years, educational researchers studying teacher metaphors have consistently concluded that the metaphors teachers use to describe their work deeply affect their behaviours and perceptions Li (2010). There are a couple of the more common educational metaphors: A LESSON IS A JOURNEY or KNOWLEDGE IS A LANDSCAPE

Education defines metaphor as seeing, describing or interpreting unfamiliar educational phenomenon, event or action in terms of a familiar thing, event or action. A more sophisticated description is one by Scheffler (1979) who says: Metaphors are "inventions of thought to explore a certain kind of possibilities in a heuristic way". pp.128- 130, they give rise to ideas and hypothesis which can be explored and even tested. They act as powerful cognitive models Sun (2010) through which educators and learners can understand educational phenomena by relating them to something previously experienced.

The focus in this section is primarily on the role of metaphors as world views in education at a university level. Metaphors could be constitutive to the educational policies. Metaphors have a significant importance in the teaching process e.g., teaching is seen as orchestrating, conditioning, guiding or training. They could function heuristically as a tool for discovery. They often function didactically as approaches to teaching dramatisation and role playing Bailey (2003). Metaphors determine the way the learner in the learning process is seen as sponge, filter, or strainer. They are also characteristic of the content of the subject matter that is being taught and this in turn is often determined by the curricular metaphors as: system, mechanism, organism, within which the subject matter is taught. Metaphors can function as tools for communication. They mediate the understanding of the nature of the school / university as educational institution

Acquisition of knowledge takes place on a number of dimensions. A significant distinction is the distinction between pedagogy in general and pedagogical content knowledge (Petrie& Oshlag, 1993, pp 590-591) specifically.

The latter is the type of knowledge of the specific pedagogical requirements of a specific field of knowledge. Theories and practice are present at both the general and the specific level. Another dimension is that of the subject matter being taught. When paradigm changes take place in these various dimensions they are often accompanied by shifts in the underlying epistemology of the theories dominant on that level. These changes in turn are reflected in different teaching methodologies.

Besides, the teacher has a role to play in cultivating students' metaphorical awareness in a conscious way. From the plausible point of view, teachers should carry out the job from two aspects. For one thing, they should make students know that metaphors are not only considered to be poetical or rhetorical embellishments, but "in essence a means of understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another". Lakoff & Johnson (1980:42). In brief, metaphor "is a cross domain mapping in the conceptual system" Lakoff (1999:203). Since, "one reflection of our conceptual system is language" Kovecses (1986: 3), thus "language is virtually metaphorical" Richards (1967: 80).

Therefore, metaphors are not only part of our formal speech, but informal as well; and this affects the way we perceive, think, and act too. For another, teachers should instruct students to command the analytical method of metaphors, nurture their ability to think and foster an independent way of learning. In the daily teaching process, teachers can devote part-time of the whole teaching time in class so as to enhance students' analytical ability when meeting metaphors in their readings.

In sum, with the help of CM, many language phenomena that are hard to understand find their theoretical basis and language learning becoming much easier and more enjoyable task. However, as (Cameron and Low 1999) comment, while there is some recognition that the linking of meaning through metaphor can contribute to language learning efficiency (see chapter 4). As a matter of recapitulation, Lakoff & Turner state,

"Far from   being merely a matter of words, metaphor is a matter
of thought- all kinds of thought … It is indispensable not only to
our imagination, but also to our reason. Great poets can speak to
us because they use the modes of thought we all possess."

Lakoff & Turner (1989)

From what came above, Lakoff & Turner (1989) speak about metaphor as if they are speaking about a language that everyone speaks and understands or a shared currency. They stress its universality as well, regardless the level of instruction we have, we do interact and respond when it comes to transact metaphorically. Here, the matter transcends the educational context and goes beyond it.

1.11. Research Objectives

The research attempts to cover the conceptual side of the metaphor as one of the most pervasive and potent figures of speech. It has the quality of extending our understanding of the world by giving us a kind of elastic way of describing our experiences. The way the students manifested their heuristic interest about analogy, when dealing with 'Analogy' course in Written Expression subject matter, encouraged me to find out the reasons behind this enthusiasm. Analogy affords an excellent medium to interpret metaphors. Moreover, it paves the way to the reader/ user to reduce the chasm between the source and the target domain when disambiguating them.

When tackling 'Metaphor' course, the researcher felt that they have already nurtured patience in finding the link between the components of a given CM 'the target domain 'and the 'source domain' in a number of metaphors. The researcher emphasised on the most common ones so as to foster logic at the learners at first. They soon accepted handling other metaphors and started negotiating their meanings and their rhetorical directions as well. Nevertheless, the interpretation of metaphors in the folds of the course content and within practice pertained to in the one hand stimulation, and sporadicness on the other.

The acquaintance question is raised here, when evoking metonymy as a rhetorical strategy of describing something indirectly by referring to things around

it, as in 'hand for help', or 'crown for power'. In fact, the target population had this notion without knowing the labelling, and it was the case for analogy. The prior knowledge they had enhanced their understanding of metaphor. They knew that it is crucial to comprehend figurative language in literature and to improve writing as well. Oftentimes, readers/ users have to not only identify the metaphor, but also infer an accurate distinction to what is being compared.

Metaphor is used to add interest and depth to writing, it creates more specific and clear visual images of what the writer is trying to express. Pedagogically speaking, using metaphor based instruction i.e., the classroom metaphor suggests that instruction is what goes on in classrooms during the allotted time. However, following this way of thinking, the emphasis is often on the teacher's presentation activities. In everyday language, our use of instruction often rests on the classroom metaphor. Thus, this work tries to shed some light on the interplay between language and metaphor, which can effectively bridge the gap between the teacher knowledge and the student knowledge (Petrie & Oshlag included in Ortony 1993). In other words, the learner's heuristic intent might converge with that of the teacher while reading a metaphor.

The current interest in accounting metaphor generates the full appreciation of its linguistic significance. Clearly associated with cognitive processes, metaphor calls to mind a number of aspects yet to be explored. My purpose in this thesis is to get clear about what we mean by learnability, if it comes to learn metaphorical conception and to explain worthiness of the study. Displaying the dichotomy appeared crucial prior operating, between learnable and unlearnable accounts there are too much things to say. The   important   foray linguists made (e.g., G, Lakoff, and M, Johnson 1980, 1999; Z, Kovecses 1996, 2002), opens doors to researchers to explore conceptual domains and life expressions.

The multifaceted properties of metaphor allows for the study of micro-interactions between cognition and culture. Because metaphors are of high plausibility in everyday experience, they are context-sensitive, in the same time they are abstract models of reality. Moreover, there is a conception of metaphor as a fountain of meaning; it generates a flow of interrelated ideas that shape the

perception of a given 'metaphor'. For that, this work attempts to cover the broad spectrum called 'Metaphor' and the attached schematic and cultural issues.

All in all, this research seeks to demonstrate the potential role of explicit metaphor teaching by displaying its learnability character. Using metaphor based instruction can effectively overcome the asymmetrical knowledge of the teacher and the learners. The starting point is then to find a heuristic congruence between the two partners of the teaching / learning process. In parallel, collaborative activities Holme (1991) seem to be an effective way -among the bias that the student is going to be equipped with- to work on paraphrases of metaphors by writing their own versions.

1.12. Research Chronology

This section tries to trace the path of the thesis, starting from the inspiring factor to the work layout, then the findings. The idea of delving into metaphorical domain came in teaching 'Figures of Speech' course in Written Expression subject matter , namely when dealing with 'Metaphor'. A priori, students appreciate the important puzzles about language and meaning that metaphor raises. Conceptual metaphor encapsulates the mapping between conceptual domains and neural mappings in the brain as points of departure yielding to a plausible inference of meaning. We usually call this process: 'interpretation', the remarkable 'link' that the human brain does by blending available data in a short-term duration of time.

The second phase was to choose the target population, and in deed first year LMD students of the academic year 2011- 2012 were the best sampling, since I was in charged of teaching them Written Expression. This choice allowed me to follow the process of understanding the concept and testing when it came to check comprehension and test response as well. Moreover, they enjoyed the adequate prerequisite to assimilate 'Metaphor', and to be tested in twice after presenting the course. The first test was administered in the month of May 2011and the second in the following year May 2013, this means that when the participants were in the 2nd year of their degree.

Thirdly, the other dimension testing affords is to enable the researcher to compare his / her findings with those of authors involved in the topic. Review of literature related to the tackled issue will be displayed in chapter two. The asymmetrical accounts between learnability of conceptual metaphors and the unlearnability discourse constitute the core of the research. Besides, it sheds light on language and metaphor interplay as well. An emphasis is made on the cultural aspect metaphor has with regard to the interpretative consideration that orbits the social phenomenon. Chapter two discusses also the societal consensus that metaphor functioning requires as a socio-cultural construction.

The third part of this work dismantles the process of learning metaphors with regard to the cultural prerequisites. The focus is on the compatibility criterion between metaphor content and its associations, in other words, between the source domain and the target domain. The reading of metaphors shouldn't be constrained by perplexed analysis. However, the reader should be able to provide a clear cut interpretation so as to curtain any doubt about the intended meaning. Tests analysis and a series of treatments are undertaken to cover the requirements of the study.

Among these, seeking ways to attain students' awareness vis- à- vis metaphorical conception and interpretative inclination. As well as investigating the suitability or unsuitability of mappings between conceptual domains and neural mappings in the brain. Overall, to spot tendencies of metaphor learnability with regard to the multifaceted properties of metaphor which allow for the study of micro-interactions between cognition and culture. The focus is often on metaphor interpretation and the socio-cultural interplay. We try to examine the interaction as well as external stimuli i.e. complementarities that emerge by matching societal and cultural factors.

Chapter four suggests that classroom presentation should be a 'plethora' to metaphor comprehension. In this respect, the emphasis is on the teachers' presentation activities, since in everyday language; our use of instruction often rests on the classroom metaphor. However, it is crucial to look more closely at how metaphorical thinking affects our perception of an issue. The adoption of metaphor-based instruction can effectively bridge the chasm between the teacher's

knowledge and the students' knowledge. In this way, the teacher is the provider of keys to infer metaphors interpretation; cultural details in this instance are not taken for granted, in the contrary, they have a significant importance. Students in their turn can follow the steam of ideas that the teacher is offering to them in order to reach a consented deduction.

A parallel importance is drawn here to metaphor familiarisation. Thus, figurative language in general is targeted via this humble research study. Metaphor is known by its positive impact on written productions, literary arguing, it adds depth and emeritus to writing. Metaphors have the capacity of portraying clear visual images of what the writer is trying to express. They sharpen the ambiguity of messages and turn them as transparent as water. Opaque concepts sometimes are misunderstood, since they lack directness; by adding vividness, the learner can decipher the deepest meaning of a piece of writing. However, nurturing students' metaphorical analysis seems to be a fundamental learning goal. To achieve this, they need to be equipped with a cluster of strategies and mental acuteness as well so as to cope with the most subtle metaphors.

Subtle metaphors seem to be difficult to encounter, as when Macbeth asserts that life is a 'brief candle'. Metaphors can be subtle and powerful, and can transform people, places, objects, and ideas into whatever the writer imagines them to be. L2 learners find themselves in perplex moments when asked to analyse such abstruse metaphor whose meaning as well as intent are delicate to spot. This modest work tries to suggest some strategies to reduce the degree of perplexity at the learners in dealing with such metaphors.

1. 13. Research Tools

Metaphors are visible because we spot them immediately, and therefore have no need to pay attention to their metaphorical character. Metaphors by large are conceived and grasped with the same facility as our ordinary literal vocabulary. There is no problem in understanding metaphors: the problem is to explain how we understand them. Moreover if one attends carefully to the sentences of any fluent speaker, he or she finds that they contain a steady stream

of metaphors Kovecses (2002). However, the metaphors of ordinary discourse are transparent, so we pay little or no attention to the metaphorical character of ordinary discourse and the role that metaphor serves.

There are several standardised instruments that are frequently used in research to approach some pedagogical and linguistic phenomena. In order to achieve the goals of this modest research study, the researcher opted for three instruments: the questionnaire, the test, and the think-aloud protocol. The first tool is meant to collect some information as far as the tackled issue is concerned; it establishes the responses towards metaphor interpretation as a figure of speech. The second is administered to meet functional specifications as well as investigating bias and schematic data attached to metaphorical conception. The third instrument is think-aloud protocol. This procedure allows participants thinking aloud when they were required to interpret three CVMs. Therefore, the researcher took into account every single word that the respondents uttered (see p.230).The goal behind is to witness the stages of the verbal assignment completion rather than final written product as in the Pret and Post.

Every empirical research requires the adoption of a backing up tools. The synchronisation of the questionnaire and the test scopes in this modest study might lead to the understanding of metaphor in the learning environment. The purpose is then to comprehend, perhaps full comprehension, classroom metaphor. Hence, the investigation emphasises the way students interpret metaphors with regard to heuristic implications. The analysis tries to make the amalgam between cultural approach of metaphor interpretation, stylistic, and cognitive.

The sustaining tools comprise sections, each section entails questions and enquiries. The questionnaire as a flexible way is meant to gather information relevant to the current study. The couple of tests have been administered separately, one in 2011/12 and the second in 2012/13 to find out metaphorical tendencies as well as to check improvement. Therefore, strategic aspects of testing are to capture meaningful information related to the topic. In this respect, both the preliminary and the final tests encapsulate tasks aiming at retrieving metalinguistic competences and idiosyncratic traits as well.

First, it is possible to achieve a specific linguistic focus when learners perform a task by negotiating utterances that seemed, sometimes quite perplexing. The tests constituted a way of overcoming the difficulty of the designed tasks to make the targeted structure natural and purposeful. Second, this focus is achieved linguistically and it results in intertwining cognition with culture. This junction is significant in dealing with metaphor interpretation i.e. the interpreter should use his / her prior knowledge about the target culture melted to a thorough linguistic analysis. The chosen tools attempt to report on the way the participants actually deal with metaphorical expressions.

The intercourse between language and culture is indisputably symbiotic. Language plays a cognitive function and culture in its turn shapes linguistic utterances of a nation. It is crucial to understand the societal mechanisms reining a society and the overlapping thoughts and behaviours as well prior handling a metaphorical expression. A priori, some metaphors remain still ambiguous for L2 students since they are full of cultural features of the respective society. This humble undertaking tries to bend on this subtle aspect of metaphorical language and sheds some light on how non-native learners approach metaphor from this angle.

1.14. Research Procedures

Metaphor as a subtle concept needs to be clarified since language users or learners in the educational context make use of their knowledge of the world to help them comprehend a learning task like 'metaphor interpretation'. Research in cognitive psychology has shown that learners possess schemata, i.e., mental structures that organise their knowledge of the world which they draw on it interpretation keys. There is a general distinction between content and formal schemata. The former are structures that organise our knowledge of the world. The latter are structures that represent our knowledge of different ways in which textual information can be organised.

 In the preliminary test, learners were asked to cope with a couple of tasks starting from encountering idiomatic phrases to metaphor interpretation. In the post-test section one is entitled 'Metaphor Interpretation' and section deals with

'Testing improvisation', they were asked to improvise some metaphors from their own. The interval between the first and the second test administration reveals that students were quite ready to receive another test. During both tests no communication was tolerated between the students, they replayed in an individual manner to ensure the 'personal factor' of a test. The preliminary test tried to gather all the criteria to fit Pilot testing requirements in order to capture as much information as possible.

Listeners like readers, use this schemata to comprehend a text in three major ways: one, interpretation, second, prediction, three, hypothesis testing. Interpretation involves recognising key lexical items that activate an appropriate schema. Prediction occurs on the basis of the initial interpretation. For example, listeners who activate a content schema for weather forecasting will be able to predict that there will be information related to weather (whether there will be sun, rain, or snow) and the temperature (both minimum and maximum) Lakoff (1987).

Hypothesis testing involves further processing of the language of the test in order to confirm or disconfirm predictions. In cases where they are disconfirmed, new schemata are evoked in the process of prediction and hypothesis testing. The processes of interpretation, predicting, and hypothesis testing do not necessarily occur sequentially. They are dynamic and can be carried out in parallel. Both the activation of schemata and constituent identification involve processes identical to those involved in higher order language processing. The tests revealed that metaphor interpretation is conceived from the perspective of what language users do with the vehicle or (source domain) term, its connecting concepts and lexical fields, in the dynamic flux of language use. Both tests yield a patent linguistic mappings and the ability of relating words and phrases. The related domains that underlie vehicle terms are inherently fuzzy in nature. For real speakers in real discourse contexts, the domain of a lexical item is everything activated in memory by the use of that item Kovecses (2002).

The participants strove to make sense of unfamiliar ideas using incomplete knowledge of topic domains, vehicle, re-deployment might happen by accident and lead to, perhaps temporarily, inaccurate interpretations of metaphors. In the

conciliation period, where participants were trying to make themselves understood i.e. expressing their own versions, some perplex moments were witnessed. Besides, more deliberate vehicle re-deployment could signal a desire for alignment through metaphor appropriation.

Deployment in tasks involving figurative meaning, such as interpretation of metaphors requires analysing the entailments at linguistic, cultural, and societal levels. This implies the ability of retrieving tacit knowledge covering a given metaphor. Here the detail of the conventionality seems to be of a pivotal importance, because participants cooperated greatly with some conventional metaphors that are well established and greatly entrenched, that have a universal interpretation as well. Hence, the significance of the conventionality criterion is highly assisting thus, determining.

It is worth focusing that the societal factor encompassed in the interpretative process of a metaphor is crucial. Therefore, societal means all that has a relationship with the functioning of the society, metaphor as a phenomenon is generated by emergent societal properties. For a non- native English speaker is perhaps not evident to gather all the variables leading to the depiction of a metaphorical expression. Thus, metaphors are given the complexity and intangibility because they serve as a substitution for an unobserved reality, for that developing a metaphorical bias is the ultimate purpose of this modest study.

1.15. Participants' Identification

The target population is 1st year LMD, two groups of 50 university students. They are learners of English as a foreign language (EFL), and study at Tahar Moulay university of Saida. They are both males and females, their age range is between seventeen and nineteen. Saida is accustomed to receive students from other African countries like Republic of Mali and Burundi, but the target groups are exclusively Algerians. This makes this study purely Algerian, hence, the testees have all the same linguistic background but certainly not the same idiosyncrasies.

This is as far as learners profile is concerned now, the focus is on their proficiency level. LMD students have asymmetrical levels of proficiency. This lack of homogeneity gives birth to three proficiency groupings among the respective groups. Linguistic background, stream belonging, secondary pathway, all these are factors that justify this incongruence. The elite grouping is basically characterised by good linguistic repertoire, attentiveness, and perseverance. Students belonging to this ranking are few in terms of number, but they monopolise participation. They enjoy the quality of motivating the others and leading the course process.

The second grouping has average proficiency, it gathers students that possess modest vocabulary stock, lack of concentration, and rely on repetition to attain a good assimilation. The third category has a poor linguistic repertoire, struggle to understand a structure, and rely on L1 to simplify the course content; (students' competences as well as weaknesses will be discussed in length in chapter 3). These three categories call attention to a clear distinction when dealing with each of them. In other words, a special care is given to the less able students so as to compensate their lacks. Teachers help them in terms of guidance, further explanation, and extra time adding in order to catch the delay they have.

What is linguistically worth entailing, is that the target population is not proficient in the French language and because the majority of them belong to a rural background as well as a unilingual familial context. Consequently, students do not consider this latter as a reference when the linguistic transfer occurs. Generally speaking, learners emerging from a culturally advantaged milieu are more eager to use other foreign languages as a linguistic remedy when they fall in troubles. The case of students of Saida is not unique, there are learners who succeed in learning a new language without relying on the other.

Concerning the way students manage their studies in consolidating or revising the contents of their courses rely heavily on what the teacher provides them with. Other mediums are less adopted except by some students, not forcibly belonging to the elicit grouping, as consulting books or others, it is worth evoking here the use of the Internet. The Internet is in fact a very effective and

indispensable means in updating information nowadays. Therefore, all students are aware about the usefulness of having the Internet at home or at least consulting it outside. However, few of them use it purposefully in studying (revising, checking, and preparing courses); the remaining number do not rely on the Internet at all notably those who live in the campus. This is not an investigation done by a scholar for instance, but a confession of the researcher's students living in the university campus.

Generally speaking, students appreciate class revision at the end of each term. For the teacher, it allows him /her to do a synoptic assessment i.e., to get on the one hand a sharp idea about the way and rhythm the material is processed by the learners. On the other, it enables students to deepen their understanding and ask emergent inquiries. This is what the researcher does to avoid confusion and accumulated ambiguity, because carefully planned revision does a lot for both lazy students as well as perseverant ones. The point is that, some students adore spoon feeding, and get accustomed to this learning ritual. The focus when doing class revision is on making links between courses which are actually interrelated. For active students, as it is the case for the elite grouping, it is an opportunity to check and consolidate their understanding as well.

1.16. Metaphorical Language and EFL Learners

The understanding and use of metaphorical language is quite limited when we are newly learning a foreign language. In addition, although EFL learners encounter English metaphorical expressions in reading and listening, they usually learn them. Even idioms having metaphorical meaning are generally dealt with them as just idioms, even though they may provide opportunities for exploring metaphors. However, metaphor in language education can offer an excellent way to learn how our conceptual system is organised, and how it functions. In addition, this enables learners to develop a heuristic ability to link between the mind and language.

Consequently, in order to develop a holistic linguistic ability, it is necessary to boost learners' lexical semantic and cultural knowledge of the various aspects of

the target language. Metaphorical competence in English in an EFL context can be defined as how well students comprehend and use metaphorical expressions. Thus, in their 'Metaphor We Live By', (Lakoff & Johnson 1980) argue by saying that: "metaphor is for most people a device of the poetic imagination and the rhetorical flourish – a matter of extraordinary language."

Furthermore, metaphorical competence in an EFL situation concerns (1) learners' recognition in listening and reading English metaphorical expressions in discourse, news, academic writings or others. (2) Use of these metaphorical expressions in appropriate ways in writing and speaking. (3) Understanding the concepts of English metaphors and the concepts behind English metaphorical expressions (Lakoff & Johnson 1980). Among these three items, item two and three seem to be the most arduous for students to reach. Probably, because they have low metaphorical competence, therefore they can not encounter intricate metaphors. The second assumption is that: may be it is due to lack of the mechanisms reigning metaphor. Chapter three will attempt to provide answers to these two assumptions.

We consciously or unconsciously understand and use metaphorical expressions in our native language. What is taken for granted in our language is not forcibly applicable in a foreign language. The point is that, the amount of exposure to this type of figures of speech is unfortunately insufficient to have a full access to them. Besides, opportunities to receive and interpret, or more than that to produce are quite limited, for that the learner has to manage undertaking further researches so as to cover the concept. Broadening his / her linguistic repertoire is another problem that should be added and how do we remediate this restriction?

Recent studies, such as the work of (Lakoff & Johnson 1980) have encouraged renewed interest in metaphor. Their findings have led to more thorough examination of the subject in the years since publication of their famous book 'Metaphor We Live By'. Studies in cognitive linguistics have confirmed their claim that metaphor has conceptual and cognitive foundations. According to them, metaphor is now widely recognised as representing and relating to conceptual

domains and life experiences. Yet, despite these welcome forays, many scholars still point out that inadequate attention is being directed towards the examination of metaphor (Corradi Fiumara, 1995).

The pervasiveness and everyday utility of metaphors are just two prominent factors that add importance to the study of metaphor. However, the difficulty in the study of this figure of speech is the fact that language is dynamic. Thus, the figurative language of today may be seen as literal in the future Gumpel (1984). Most scholars agree that metaphor is conceptual and that the great number of one reasoning thought processes are guided by metaphorical conceptions Lakoff (1993).

Equally, Low (1988) believes that metaphor should be given a more important place in language teaching. Since metaphor is central to the use of language, it pervades large parts of the language system, and therefore, contributes to many key language-related activities. He proposes activities, such as the improvisation of new metaphors (chapter 4 will display in depth this kind of activities). Low (1988) makes efforts to combine metaphor study with applied linguistics synthesising the existing views of metaphor and their educational implications.

A worth incorporating detail is the evocation of grammar of metaphor. The earliest well-known work on the grammar of metaphor is Brooke- Rose's analysis of the language of metaphors in literature (1958). Her work shares some goals of modern corpus work in that she analyses a large corpus, considers linguistic patterns and contexts, and gives frequency information. We can find subtle semantic variations associated with different linguistic forms. Metaphorical adjectives for example are identifiable through being used in an unconventional context to modify a noun not usually associated with them as in Goatly's (1997) example "dry and thirsty hair" (p.90), where thirsty is more usually used to describe animate beings.

Prepositions and adverbs are often much more difficult to identify as metaphors, though some writers consider the metaphorical use of prepositions to be very important. Apart from these few noteworthy studies there has been relatively little interest in grammar of metaphor, and it maybe that in neglecting

this aspect of figurative language some useful insights have been missed. This has a link with the claim that the use of metaphor in the Hallidayan use of the expression 'grammatical metaphor' is metaphorical and has a metaphorical meaning. In addition, the notion of grammatical metaphor is metaphorically constructed from an outdated notion of metaphor and that there are metaphors that depend exclusively on the grammatical structure of an expression.

Nevertheless, the notion of grammatical metaphor refers to certain non-natural grammatical variations of natural grammatical structures and thus the expectations are not fulfilled. There are metaphors that depend exclusively upon the grammatical structure. The best way to handle such metaphors is to analyse this notion and see what examples are considered to be cases of grammatical metaphors. Halliday's (1985) approach **2** relies on the fact that there are different choices of grammatical structures, congruent and incongruent ones.

The concept of grammatical metaphor depends on the idea that there is a direct line of form or meaning to experience. Thus, metaphor is a conceptual phenomenon and therefore it is impossible to dissociate it from lexis. Besides, it is described in opposition to literal language. This adds the possibility of paraphrasing metaphor **3**. The type of process involved in the grammatical metaphors is better described as a usual grammatical realisation.

Nonetheless, this usualness does not mean to us an artificial way of expressing something that might have been expressed naturally, it is just another option offered by the language for the expression of meanings which is less frequently used. This option may be marked because of different reasons (marked thematic presentation for instance).

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2. Halliday's definition of metaphor presents two problems. It does not serve to distinguish the literal from the metaphorical language, that is, it does not offer a criterion for the identification of metaphor. Second, it does not provide a characterisation of the similarity involved in metaphor.

3. The problem of paraphrase in relation to metaphor has been largely discussed in the specialised literature, for example Black (1955)

1. 17. Metaphorical Language and Learners' Vocabulary

(McCarthy, 2001, pp.21-30) emphasises the importance of the metaphorical extension of words, stating that metaphor as a device for creating and extending meaning is crucial for the study of vocabulary. HE MADE A VICIOUS ATTACK ON MY POSITION, AND MY DEFENCES WERE DOWN. This is an example of an institutionalised or conventional metaphorical expression. Native speakers are unconsciously aware of metaphorical use of the lexical field, hence the range is unlimited. However, this does not seem to be applicable to EFL situations, because non-native speakers may not have fully acquired linguistic and semantic abilities.

The point is that, as McCarthy suggests is to pay attention to the notion of the central or focal, or peripheral meaning of a word and the notion of metaphorical extension as well. In this respect, second language figurative proficiency or MC is connected   to broadness of the   linguistic repertoire. In the same line of thought, SLFP   examined in English and Malay speaking learners by Charteris-Black (2002); discovered that the easiest figurative expressions performed by the Malay speaking learners of English whose average age was 23 were the figurative expressions with an equivalent conceptual basis and linguistic form between the two languages. The most difficult were the figurative expressions that have an equivalent linguistic form but have a different conceptual basis. The third type is figurative expressions having different conceptual bases and different linguistic forms, these are culture-specific expressions.

As a matter of recapitulation, the degree of easiness then goes hand in hand with the cultural similarity aspect. In other words, the more akin the metaphor is to the target language, the more accessible it will be for non-native speaking learners. In fact, cultural differences are a perplexing question for a foreign language learner. It accentuates when dealing with metaphorical language, and here the aptness of the interpreter/ student has a role to play. As in Aristotle's advice in Poetics and Rhetoric, the similarity of tenor and vehicle reduces the obscurity of the metaphor but it decreases its quality.

A very significant question imposes itself when evoking tacit knowledge, so, does metaphorical interpretation rely on tacit knowledge? We should first define this latter prior answering. Metaphor interpretation is a task where a set of heuristic abilities are activated. Therefore, this abilities-amalgam that gathers a multitude of sub-tasks of analysing, mapping, inferring, and linking is guided by a hidden vast knowledge. It is then, implicit, unwritten, and unspoken; this kind of knowledge emerges in laborious thinking when the human mind struggles to find solutions.

It is important to make a gradual link between what has been said above and what is being said with the target population. Externalised or tacit knowledge is a critical procedure in knowledge management. The conception of the explanation of tacit knowledge is based upon epistemological assumption that, there are two kinds of knowledge, tacit and explicit. This view is said to be adopted from Polanyi's (1962) philosophy. With regard to cognition, the requirement for the externalisation is in fact a linguistic representation of the externalised material; therefore, it is applicable for metaphors and analogies interpretation.

The use of language further implies that the knowing subject (whose tacit knowledge is being externalised) is conscious of the source (the representation) to which his/ her linguistic expressions refer. Moreover, the use of metaphors and analogies implies that the knowing subject focuses on retrieving their contents in a reflective and creative manner. Hence, it is assumed that beliefs, perceptions, assumptions, and values, etc, are states of tacit knowing, and as the knower identifies these states, they can be transformed into natural language Polanyi (1968). Further, this view adds that shared understanding is possible once tacit knowledge is made linguistic.

Polanyi made this distinction between focal and subsidiary awareness. Basically, subsidiary awareness covers the realm of tacit knowledge whereas explicit knowledge belongs to focal awareness. Focal awareness added Polanyi (1968) is always conscious. Hence, focal awareness refers to anything on which focal attention is directed, whether it is perceived object or a mental representation. The content of subsidiary knowledge, in turn, is essentially unspecifiable (Polanyi, 1968, p. 31).

There is too much to say when associating focal and subsidiary awareness with conceptual metaphor. This split makes from the focal awareness the inner mental power that fragments such material and does the necessary treatments at the linguistic, heuristic, and socio-cultural levels. Now, focal awareness refers to what the interpreter / learner does as purely linguistic analysis of a given metaphor, but not beyond the linguistic frame. Therefore, this is related to finding equivalent meanings, antonyms, and lexis, beside, the familiarity as well the accessibility of the vocabulary being proposed. It is important then to focus on both levels lexical and heuristic. Heuristic always means speculative formulation that the one does in serving as a guide in the investigation.

The choice of words is extremely important in communicating an accurate response. Therefore, writers must be alert to their possible choices, and sensitive to the meanings and nuances of each. In sum, figurative language is more picturesque. It enables writers to indicate layers of meaning of each context and instance as well. Hence, picturesque language is tremendously expressive and quaintly attractive in an extent that it draws an accurate image with the surrounding details. For that literary men adopt metaphorical language seeking its unusual interestingness to express their thoughts and ideas in an effective way. The following figure tries to synthesise what has been said:
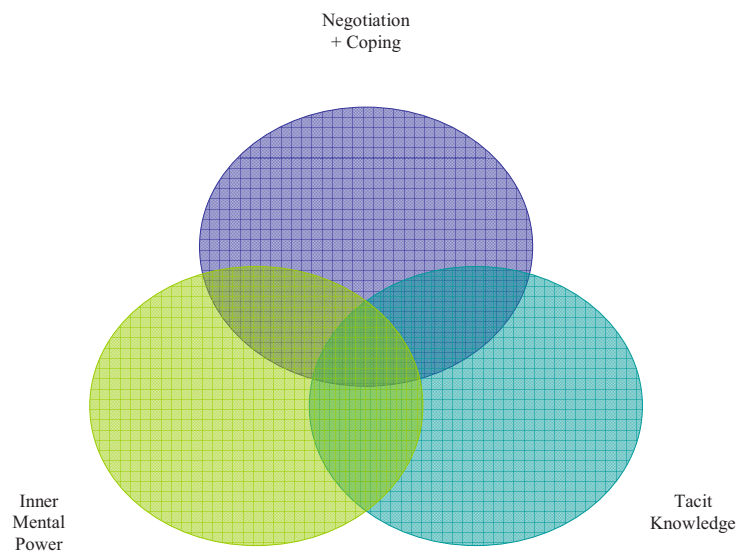
Figure 1.1 Metaphorical Realm (Own elaboration)

Comment

The above figure synthesises a material called CM,   such material requires an intricate   fragmentation. This means that while depiction, our brains blend heuristic details that we have already stored regarding the matter in hand, this is what we call tacit knowledge retrieval. TK generally encapsulates perceptions, assumptions, beliefs, etc. Then, a complex treatment takes place concomitantly with a serious negotiation of sudden difficulties, or unusual perplexing data in the negotiation and coping stage. This juxtaposition that the knower does yields to palatable or sometimes pertinent interpretation, it is possible once T K is made linguistic i.e. externalised.

1.18. Kinship in Metaphorical Language

When language is used in contexts of communication, it is bound up with culture in multiple and complex ways. But people use language differently because of the different linguistic varieties of each language. These varieties can be attributed to the cultural differences among the languages. In other words, the linguistic variation is tied very much to the existence of different cultures. Since language is a subtle concept, so what can be said literally can also be transformed easily into a beautiful flow of words that adds too much profoundness to what has been said. This is what figurative language is, the ability to inconspicuously define the literal.

However, kinship may be described as the bond of relationship created by procreation and defined by society **4**,   and the conception of what constitutes kin, will, therefore, be found to vary according to the social organisation of the community in which the term is applied. Some languages make it easy to express concepts which in other languages are at best very difficult to express. Such a difficulty may be attributed to the linguistic differences in each language as well as the different cultures in each society.

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4. Kinship in anthropology means the system of names applied to categories of kin standing in relationship to one another. Historically, the systematic study of kinship terminology began with the American anthropologist Lewis Henry Morgan, whose pioneering work, Systems of Consanguinity and Affinity of the Human Family, was published in 1871. An important element in Morgan's formulation was the distinction between classificatory and descriptive systems of kinship.   (From Encyclopaedia Britannica)

Kinship has become an important division of study within the discipline of anthropology. It has an intimate relationship with almost every social level, influencing how people interact and ultimately how they see and understand themselves. It also refers to the likeness in comprehending each other without exertion as if by intuition (Encyclopaedia Britannica). In order to depict such social phenomenon it is crucial to approach the matter a little more closely and observe some of the primary differences that could result in confusion when an analytical methodology is taken from a modern perspective.

Lakoff's emphasis on the classical theories of metaphor and meaning requires that there is a language based on classical categories, necessary and sufficient to predict. With that belief come certain necessary principles for a theory of metaphor that there is a literal, non figurative language in contrast to the figurative language of In 'Metaphors We Live By' (1980), Lakoff & Johnson argued that far from being decorative or parasitic upon ordinary language. Metaphor is not an intellectual   abstraction, but   it is based   in what   Johnson   was   to call our "embodied   human   understanding figures in most, if not all languages, and is fundamental to our understanding".p.239

Perhaps most language is non- metaphorical and that there is a significant distinction between deviant and non-deviant language richer than the distinction between grammatical and ungrammatical utterances. When we construe literary metaphors, we modify our conception of the world to fit the deviant metaphorical expression (Lakoff & Johnson 1980). The reader must start from the actual utterance being aware of the author's original insight. This negotiation on the part of the reader is in fact a semantic construal.

Likewise, Turner's (1989) theory seeks to explain why we do not produce kinship metaphors like 'sable night, father of dread and fear. He seeks to account for the deeply explanatory power of metaphor in culture. He best formulates this power potentially in discussing science. The conceptual metaphors implicitly embodied in language are 'a kind of science'. It might be said that genetic laws of transmission or the sociological principle of inclusive fitness makes sense out of

metaphors in language based on metaphoric inferences like inheritance or functional property transfer.

Those finite means, Turner argues persuasively, consist of seven basic kinship metaphors coupled with ten ways of interpreting those metaphors that he calls 'metaphoric inference patterns'. Some combinations of these 'conceptual inference patterns', Turner (1955) concludes 'account for everyone of the indefinitely many specific kinship metaphors in our language. As in our command of language, we make infinite use of finite means.

An example of a basic kinship metaphor is THE WHOLE IS THE MOTHER OF THE PARTS, which explains why Russians speak of Russia as the mother land, as long as there has been Russia, it has had restive parts And why Germans speak of a United Germany as the father land, for Germans whether or not the nation has been divided at a particular historical moment, its unity has always been both a goal and an instrument Turner (1955). Further metaphors focus on instrumentality, an example of a metaphorical inference pattern is place and time as parents since they provide the interpretational template.

In contrast to the rich, creative kinship metaphors that involve the causation as regeneration inference pattern are those interpreted through mere similarity. In creative metaphors, Turner (1955) argues, we conceive the target domain with the result that these metaphors create meaning. In similarity metaphors we merely seek to match concepts with each other. When interpreting metaphors depending on similarity, the question is which connections to encompass and which to ignore. Therefore, our first move is to seek to match the stereotypical behaviours or operations of the two concepts. These concepts have the same stereotypical components and differ only in material.

1.19. Metaphor and Inspiration

Research in the cognitive sciences over the last twenty years has shown us that metaphor is more than a fancy language device used by writers and poets, it is in fact, the main way in which our minds work. That is, when we construe things, when we make comparisons, we do it via metaphorical use. The following

examples are taken from the work on metaphorical cognition done by the three exponents in this field: George Lakoff, Mark Johnson, and Mark Turner (1989)

LIFE IS A JOURNEY
TIME IS MONEY
IDEAS ARE FOOD

These are all fairly common metaphors dealing with life, time, and ideas. The metaphors above are combinations of general structural metaphors, and every language shapes its version as is the case for: 'Her goal in life…', 'Spending time in doing…' The general structural metaphors are those metaphorical concepts which help us to make sense out of the world around us. Metaphors are excellent ways to convey in an efficient manner our ideas and thoughts. It is natural that our language would reflect those understandings through what are known as speech formulas.

The focus is in fact on the boundary between a semantic theory of metaphor and a psychological theory of imagination. What we need is an inquiry into the capacity of metaphor to provide untranslatable information, and accordingly, into metaphor claim to yield some true insights about reality (Lakoff et al 1989). By adopting a substitutive explanation, we accede to an attempt to derive a significance of metaphorical phrases from their capacity to display streams of images. They are not only able to provide images, but eliciting feelings that we hold for genuine information and for fresh insight into reality.

Hence, the informative value of a metaphor and truth claim emphasise on images and feelings that have a constitutive function. It will be pertinent hereafter, to ask this question in this respect: Do learners enjoy this ability of eliciting informative data yielding to an ultimate depiction of one's metaphor? Before anticipating the reply, better to introduce it by the following fact: when English speakers talk about some kind of failure of communication, they might say: 'his or her thoughts were locked in cryptic verse' (Lakoff et al 1989). It depicts language as a container of particular objects, here thoughts, to which access seems to be complicated by the absence of a key are constrained by an enigmatic message.

It is important to do the distinction between first –order understanding which implies a move from an individual understanding to the understanding of the group members. This shift is crucial in enabling an efficient understanding of 'others', therefore, interacting easily with them. However, second order understanding offers a way of reflecting on one's own role and embraces self-referential phenomena Tuner (1989). Whereas, first- order understanding reflects on human knowledgeable participation and fluids communication.

If the student comes to cope with the two levels of understanding and depicts a metaphorical expression within the folds of communication means that he / she gathers all the components of a successful interpretation. Furthermore, it will be great if the student comes to express himself or herself orally or in a written form by using a metaphorical language. Because metaphors are of high plausibility in everyday experience, they are context-sensitive, in the same time they are abstract models of reality.

Figurative language can shape perception. The metaphor for example of 'surfing the web' implies different mental images, and with that different understandings of the Internet, whether as a nature phenomenon to be experienced or a man-made network to be travelled. New denotations for words can evolve from figurative use of words Richard (1936). Translations attempt to capture both the denotation of words, as well as the cadence of the language. As far as implications for readers are concerned, the choice of words can shape how a text portrays the world, and so readers be sensitive to those choices.

Readers need to be sensitive to the matter of denotation and connotation. By choosing between terms, authors define their topic and shape their readers' perception of that topic. One of the most critical decisions an author makes, then is the choice of words, exactly what to call things. Writers must be alert to their possible choices, and sensitive to the meanings and nuances of each. In sum, figurative language is more picturesque. It enables writers to indicate layers of meaning of each context and instance as well. Hence, picturesque language is tremendously expressive and quaintly attractive in an extent that it draws an accurate image with the surrounding details. For that, literary men adopt

metaphorical language seeking its unusual interestingness to express their thoughts and ideas in an effective way.

There is another way to approach metaphors, but the annotation **5** should be at the word level as opposed to identifying metaphorical relationship between words or source- target domain mappings which means inter-conceptual procedure. Such annotation can be viewed as a form of word sense disambiguation with an emphasis on metaphoricity (Wikipedia). In order to discriminate between the verbs used metaphorically and literally, one can adopt (it would be better to equip the learner with) a panoply of strategies. First, for each verb we should establish its meaning in context and try to imagine a more basic meaning of this verb on other contexts. Second, meanings normally are more concrete, related to bodily action, more precise as opposed to vague in metaphors annotation. Third, establishing the basic meaning that is distinct from the meaning of the verb in the context, the verb in this instance is likely to be used metaphorically.

It is important to take into account selectional preferences of the verb figuring among the list of verbs in the metaphor. The verbs used metaphorically are likely to demonstrate strong semantic preference for the source domain. Although English verbs are fairly flexible with respect to the types of subject and object arguments (Wikipedia). For example, the verb 'drink' usually takes a liquid as an object argument. Arguments outside of these preferred classes usually seem odd in context. For example, drink does not usually take computer as an argument.

Learning such selectional preferences for verbs has many valuable applications in natural language as the ability to determine whether a given argument is valid for a particular verb, this is important in natural language

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5. Annotation refers to the procedure of underlining or highlighting passages. Annotated bibliographies give people a source that is useful to an author in constructing a paper or argument. Creating these comments, usually few sentences establish a summary and express the relevance of each source prior to writing. The term also has a special meaning in a number of other fields. (Adapted from Wikipedia)

generation. In order to learn the selectional preferences of verbs, one could simply look at the training data and keep track of what arguments have been seen with each verb. Although many verbs selectively take particular classes of arguments, these classes can potentially include a large number of individual arguments (Wikipedia).

1.20. Metaphor Shifting in the Dynamics of Talk

Metaphor is always a rational term for metaphorical use to some language users. The sociolinguistic question of metaphorical issue to whom idealised native speakers, for instance, are abstractions glossing over a good deal of variation on a number of parameters among real native speakers of the same language. Another important advantage is its independence from conceptual analysis Gibbs (1994): linguistic forms are identified as related to metaphor on the basis of overall lexico-semantic analysis that only involves distinct meanings.

Implications may subsequently be analysed for possible relation to one or more cross-domain mappings in conceptual structure, but this is not required for the identification of metaphor in the language data. Evidence about the processing side of metaphor in usage can only be gathered on the basis of behavioural data, which involves the observation of people doing things with language in real time (Kovecses,. 2002, 2005). The focus is on the study of linguistic forms of metaphor at the level of the sign system and its manifestation in meaningful expressions.

Metaphor shifting refers to changes and adaptations made to the metaphor as the talk or text proceeds. Shifting is analysed from the perspective of what language users do with the vehicle or source domain term, its connecting concepts and lexical field in the dynamic flux of language use (Kovecses, 2002, 2005). We study metaphor in the dynamic context of language use, the concern is with linguistic mappings that are adaptive term, and related words and phrases. The domains that underlie vehicle terms are inherently fuzzy in nature. For real speakers in real discourse contexts, the domain of a lexical item is everything activated in memory by the use of that item.

This encyclopaedic nature encompasses everything that includes images, words, meanings, and concepts personal episodic memories. There will be certain commonality across speakers with similar cultural experiences and from our shared physical interpretations with the world, but there will also be many individual differences. Metaphor shifting in literary texts addressed by Goatly (1997) **6** in a chapter entitled 'The Interplay of Metaphors', where he sets out categories and labels to describe how writers of novels, plays, and poems shift their metaphors across and within domains as a text proceeds.

Using the idea of the emergence of vehicle domain across a discourse event, and collecting together connected metaphor vehicle as metaphors shift across the talk, we talk a larger metaphor set whose vehicles describe partial problematic or deficient ways of seeing, contrasting these with whole or true ways of seeing. This vehicle domain is connected in the metaphor set to a topic domain of not fully understanding the other. This emergent metaphor set is a context-bound phenomenon related to specific discourse event and speakers Goatly (1997).

Systematic metaphors are emergent phenomena that arise on the level of the discourse event out of decisions made in the minute- by – minute dynamics of talking and thinking. Systematic metaphors are not the same as generalised conceptual metaphors. Their relation to the conceptual metaphor understanding is seen as a variation around a large stability or, a specific instance of a more generalised form Goatly (1997).

Conceptual metaphors may offer established way-routed paths that speakers are more likely to take because they are more visible. The aspect of visibility lies on the sharp picturing of an event, an object, or a creature Goatly (1997). They are not, however, the only possibility opened to speakers. The multiple possibilities opened up by the use of a metaphor vehicle term are both derived forms and constrained by speakers' experience of the world, their socio- cultural contexts, and their discourse purposes.

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6. Goatly (1997) underlines in his chapter 'the Interplay of Metaphors' the symbiotic progression of metaphors throughout the literary text.

The use of linguistic metaphor vehicles in talk creates an affordance which speakers can use in various ways and for various interactional purposes. The outcomes of vehicle re-deployment manifest themselves in various ways including metaphor appropriation and topic reference shifts, as language is used in different discourse contexts driven by differing goals and purposes(Cameron &Low 1999). In the educational context where students struggle to make sense of unfamiliar ideas using incomplete knowledge of topic domains vehicle re-deployment might happen by accident and lead to perhaps temporarily inaccurate interpretations of metaphors

Metaphor shifting is considered as a phenomenon of metaphor in use. When people use metaphor in talk, they seldom produce neatly constructed figure in a single utterance other than when a metaphorical idiom is used at the end of a turn (Cameron & Low 1999). Spontaneous talk is dynamic and approximate with metaphors introduced, adjusted, and developed over utterances and turns. Therefore, the adjustment and development depend on the speaker's conceptual potential and situational knowledge he/ she has at his/ her disposal.

When speakers engage in a discussion, they shift from one domain of talk to another in a smooth way, as they retrieve all what enjoys as well as hinders them in their daily life. It seems that linguistic metaphor by bridging a vehicle term with its lexical field and semantic domain into the talking acts conveys all that. In other words, metaphor shifting occurs as speakers move through a social, linguistic, and cognitive landscape adjusting and adapting contingently [7]. This accidental adjustment takes place concomitantly within the delivery instances.

A rigorous analysis of talk leads us in concluding that it is as if we are allowed to view that landscape from a distant angle and thereby see it as a whole in a way that the speakers themselves could not. What appears to us a path across the   landscape   is   the   avoidance   of   obstacles,   immediate   hindrances,

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[7]. Cameron & Low (1999) raised the issue of metaphor as a landscape in their 'Metaphors in real-time: Evidence for Effective Models', they associate it with socio-cognitive view of metaphor and its impact on someone's talking and thinking.

and the negotiation of sudden difficulties. In other words, tactics affecting the strategies chosen or available which in turn influence the social interaction between speakers inside the community (Cameron & Low 1999).

1.21. Conclusion

Chapter one tried to demonstrate the relationship between a CM and a metonymy, metaphors and metonymies often interact in particular linguistic expressions. Some of these can be interpreted as the mixed case of metaphor from metonymy, while others are a mixture of metonymy within metaphor. Equally, it raised the issue of conventionality; the term 'conventional' is used here in the sense of well established and well entrenched. Thus, we can say that a metaphor is highly conventional or conventionalised which means well established and deeply entrenched in the usage of a linguistic community. The multifaceted properties of metaphor allows for the study of micro-interactions between cognition and culture. Because metaphors are of high plausibility in everyday experience, they are context-sensitive, in the same time they are abstract models of reality. Moreover, there is a conception of metaphor as a fountain of meaning; because it generates a flow of interrelated ideas that shape the perception of a given implicit comparison or connection. The pervasiveness and everyday utility of metaphors are just two of the most prominent factors that add importance of the study of metaphor. Kittay (1989) for example insisted that metaphor goes beyond the linguistic domain into arts to other media of expression. In the same line of thought, Goatly (1997) in a chapter entitled 'The Interplay of Metaphors' sets out categories and labels to describe how writers of literary works shift their metaphors across and within text domains. As it traced the research layout and the general organisational principles that the work is going to adopt. The incoming chapter will cover the historical background as well as the researches tackling metaphor starting with Aristotle till nowadays.

CHAPTER TWO

DICHOTOMIC ACCOUNTS OF METAPHOR IN PEDAGOGY

CONTENT

2. 1. Introduction

This chapter considers metaphor as a conceptual phenomenon, we have access then to the metaphor that structures our way of thinking. Some metaphors are linguistic reflections that see linguistic communication as the transfer of thought, emotions, and feelings by means of language. This part tries to shed some light on their cultural aspect as well, because metaphor is considered as a consented socio- cultural product. A great deal of emphasis will be given to the dichotomic relationship between learnability and unlearn- ability accounts of conceptual metaphor. The important question that will be raised in this chapter far from the pedagogical point of view is that: How do people interpret metaphors? The traditional assumption, still held in some areas of cognitive science, turns around the idea that figurative language is deviant and requires special cognitive processes to be understood. Whereas literal language can be understood via normal cognitive mechanisms, listeners should recognise first the deviant nature of a figurative utterance before determining its non-literal meaning whether it is metaphoric, analogical, or metonymic.

2.2. Figurative Language

Figurative language allows speakers / writers to communicate meanings that differ in various ways from what they literally say. People speak figuratively for reasons of politeness to avoid responsibility for the outcomes of what is communicated Grice (1989), to express ideas that are difficult to communicate using literal language, and to express thoughts in a compact and vivid manner. Among the most common forms of figurative language, often referred to as "figures of speech" are metaphors, where ideas from dissimilar knowledge domains are either explicitly, in the case of simile (e.g., My love is like a red, red rose) or implicitly (e.g., Our marriage is a rollercoaster ride compared, metonymy, where salient part of a single knowledge domain is used to represent or stand for the entire domain (e.g., The White House issued a statement); idioms where a speaker's meaning cannot be derived from an analysis of the words' typical meanings   (e.g., John lets the cat out of the bag about Mary's divorce) ; proverbs,

where speakers express widely held moral beliefs or social norms(e.g., the early bird captures the worm.)

One traditional assumption, still held in some areas of cognitive science, is that figurative language is deviant and requires special cognitive processes to be understood. Whereas literal language can be understood via normal cognitive mechanisms, listeners must recognise the deviant nature of a figurative utterance before determining its non-literal meaning (Grice 1989, Searle 1979). For instance, understanding a metaphorical comment, such as 'Criticism is a branding iron' requires that listeners must first analyse what is stated literally, then recognise that the literal meaning (i.e., that criticism is literally a tool to mark livestock) is contextually inappropriate and they infer some meaning consistent with the context and the ideas that the speaker must be acting cooperatively and rationally (i.e., criticism can psychologically hurt the person who receives it, often with long-lasting consequences).

For Lakoff and Johnson, metaphor is in essence "understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another". (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980: 5), it is a matter of thought rather than language. Traditionally, figurative language, especially in literary contexts is regarded as something used for effect or for ornament and contrasts with literal language. Cognitive metaphor challenges the very basis of that notion. We are aware that in traditional rhetoric there are subtle differences between figures of speech, notably metaphor and metonymy for instance.

Cognitive linguistics recognises this difference, whereas metaphor treats one thing, in culturally determined and cognitively recognisable ways, as another for the purpose of understanding a metonymic utterance. Like metaphors, metonymic concepts reflect more than one use of language i.e., more possibility to shape a metonymic meaning. So, a generic term adheres better, when speaking about metaphorical applicability to all categories. Metaphor thus, might be used as a generic term to cover all aspects of figurative language.

2. 3. Conceptual Metaphor in Figurative Language Comprehension

The strong and weak versions of the metaphoric representation claim have not fared well empirically. However, an even weaker version of the claim might be worth considering. According to this version, schemata like THEORIES ARE BUILDINGS do not structure our understanding of theories in general which is the strong version, nor do they exert an indirect influence on the structure of our theory knowledge (the weak version). They nonetheless are part of our knowledge of how people talk about abstract concepts. Gibbs (1992, 1994) has been the major proponent of this version, which amounts to a process claim i.e., that conceptual metaphors underlie the cognitive process by which we interpret figurative language.

Gibbs (1992, 1994) has proposed that our comprehension of the vast majority of linguistic metaphors -both idiomatic and novel figurative expressions- is fundamentally a recognition process. Consider the statement OUR MARRIAGE IS A ROLLERCOASTER RIDE, according to Gibbs; we comprehend this statement by first recognising it as an instantiation of the LOVE IS A JOURNEY schemata. We then use the conceptual mappings that the schemata entails (e.g., lovers---travellers---relationship---vehicle---excitement---speed---positive affect---upward direction of travel---negative affect ---downward direction of travel, etc.)

To interpret the statement as an assertion that the marriage in question is emotionally unstable, these conceptual mappings are presumably retrieved to comprehend other love- journey expressions as well e.g., LOVE IS A TWO WAY STREET, OUR RELATIONSHIP IS AT A CROSSROADS, etc. According to (Lakoff, in press), "the system of conventional conceptual metaphor is mostly unconscious, automatic and is used with no noticeable effort." What cues can such a system use to activate the appropriate metaphorical mappings for any given metaphorical expression?

We have already seen that surface characteristics of a metaphor do not specify which conventional metaphor is relevant (if any). In our love-journey examples, even the presence of words such as journey-related concepts or

properties at least as evidenced in people's interpretations. As Austin (1962) pointed out, even the presence of the words 'I promise' in an utterance does not guarantee that the utterance is intended or understood as a promise. For example, the utterance "You do that again and I promise I'll smack you" is not a promise but a threat.

If the words of a metaphorical expression do not elicit or activate the relevant conceptual metaphor, then what does? One possibility is that the relevant conceptual metaphors can only be identified after the metaphor itself has been interpreted. If conceptual metaphors are used to interpret metaphorical expressions, then it would seem that they would have to be used in the context of an inference process that can evaluate the potential relevance of alternative metaphorical mappings before settling on the one that is most relevant in a given discourse context.

Gibbs (1992) points out that the systemacity of literal expressions is one reflection of how abstract domains may be metaphorically structured. Because some aspects of our concept of love may be likened to some aspects of journeys, we can have systematic correspondences between entities within the domains of journeys and love: Two travellers in a vehicle, travelling to common destination, can correspond to two lovers in a relationship, pursuing common life goals (Lakoff, in press). But what does it mean to have such correspondences? It can mean that we appreciate and understand the analogies between travellers and lovers when it is pointed out to us.

It can also mean that these systematic mappings between travellers and lovers, vehicles and relationships, and destinations and goals are pre-stored in semantic-memory that is, they are available when appropriate occasions arise. It can, again not necessarily mean that such conventional mappings are accessible in ay given context and thus can serve as the conceptual basis for understanding. In other words, they can reflect patterns of response sequence, or succession of responses to these mappings that shape understanding. The available data cannot distinguish among these alternatives.

2. 4. Metaphors as Cognitive Instruments

It is common knowledge that words are often used in figurative senses. Even young children are apt at using figurative language. Nevertheless, the study of this linguistic phenomenon was for a long time the exclusive domain of literary scholars who were interested in rhetoric or stylistics. In view of this it is perhaps appropriate to begin our discussion of figurative language with some examples like 'the foot of the mountain' or 'talks between Washington and Moscow' that the two phenomena also play an important part in every day language (Lakoff and Turner 1989). Moreover, philosophers and cognitive linguists have shown that metaphors and metonymies are powerful cognitive tools for our conceptualisation of abstract categories.

Now, consider the following instances of the word 'eye' extracted from Shakespeare's sonnets (The New Penguin, ed.j.Kerrigan, 1986).

(1)   So long as men can breathe or eyes can see,
 So long lives this and this gives life to thee. (18, 13-14)

(2)   Sometimes too hot the eye of heaven shines,
 And often is his gold complexion dimmed. (18, 5-6)

Taking for granted that the attribute list of the category 'eye' includes properties like 'part of the body of people and animals',' located in the head', 'organ of sight', 'locus for production of tears', we have no difficulty in interpreting the first two instances. However, the same can certainly not be said for the second example, because they involve figurative uses of the word 'eye'. The expression 'the eye of heaven' in (2) is meant to refer to the sun.

The question that imposes itself here is how can these two major types of figurative uses of words, metaphor and metonymy, be characterised in more general terms and how can they be distinguished from each other? To take the latter first, it has been argued that metonymy involves a relation of 'contiguity' which means nearness or neighbourhood between what is denoted by the literal

meaning for a word and its figurative counterpart. Typical examples of such contiguity –relations were given above in figure 2.1

In contrast, metaphor has traditionally been based on the notions 'similarity' or 'comparison' between the literal and the figurative meaning of an expression. Setting out from such a 'substitution' or 'comparison' view of metaphor, I.A. Richard (1936) and Max, Black (1962, 1993) developed the so-called 'interaction theory' of metaphor. They maintained that the essence of metaphor lies in an interaction between a metaphorical expression and the context in which it is used. In our example, the interaction can be described as a semantic clash or tension between the metaphorically used category 'eye' and the context of 'heaven', and this results in the interpretation of the expression 'eye of heaven' as 'sun'.

The basic assumption behind the writing of cognitive authors like Lakoff, Turner, and Kovecses is that although metaphor is a conceptual phenomenon, we have access to the metaphors that structure our way of thinking though the language we use. One of the consequences of taking this view is that the notion of 'dead metaphor' is rejected. The idea behind the death of metaphors is that the conventionalised metaphorical extensions (e.g. head of the department) get their own entries in the lexicon and thus considered part of the literal meaning of a word. From a cognitive point of view, this is highly misleading, in the words of (Lakoff & Turner 1989:129).The mistake derives from a basic confusion, it assumes that those things in our cognition that are most alive and most active are those that are conscious. On the contrary, those are most alive and most deeply entrenched, efficient, and powerful are those that are so automatic as to be unconscious and effortless.

The conclusion from a cognitive perspective is that, the metaphors that have unconsciously been built into the language by long established conventions are most important ones. Let us have a look more closely at the mechanisms governing the use of metaphors. We often use related metaphors to conceptualise how linguistic communication works. Some metaphors illustrate the conventional image that when we speak we take ideas, thoughts, and emotions and put them into words and sentences. Others are linguistic reflections of the metaphor that sees linguistic communication as the transfer of thoughts and feelings by means of

language. The overall picture is that ideas are objects, and these refer to ideas out of their containers i.e. words.

The importance of this set of examples or metaphor types from a cognitive view is that metaphors are not just semantic extensions of one isolated category to another category in a different field, but that the connections and relations between categories play an important part. Thus, it is not enough to state that ideas are objects and words are containers. Instead, the systematic and coherent analogy between the two conceptual fields sending and receiving of 'parcels' and 'linguistic communication' must be recognised and emphasised. In addition, the wealth of knowledge associated with concepts and conceptual fields must be taken into account.

2. 5. Basic Metaphors & Structural Similarities

The perception of structural similarity may be induced by what was called basic metaphors, these include ontological and orientational. Ontological metaphors, involve ways of viewing intangible concepts, such as feelings, activities, and ideas as entities. When we identify these experiences as substances, "we can refer to them, categorise them, group them, and quantify them- and by this means, reason about them" (Lakoff and Johnson 1980:25) e.g., 'We are working toward peace' Orientational metaphor organises concepts by giving them a special orientation, they are not random; but based on structure of our bodies, and how people physically interact in a specific culture or environment, e.g., " I'm falling asleep" (Lakoff and Johnson 1980: 14). If two concepts (one abstract, the other concrete) share this basic shape status, this can induce the perception of certain structural similarities between the two.

As an example, consider now the conceptual metaphor that was introduced by (Lakoff & Johnson 1980): IDEAS ARE FOOD. What enables us to perceive structural similarities between the abstract concept of idea and that of food? In order to reply to this question, let us first see some of the perceived structural similarities between the two:

Food	Ideas
a- we cook it	**a-** we think about them

b- we swallow it	**b-** we accept or reject them
c- we chew it	**c-** we consider them
d- the body digests it	**d-** the mind understands them
e- digested food provides nourishment	**e-** understanding provides mental well- being

Table 2.1   Lakoff& Johnson's Structural Similarities between Food & Ideas

We can also represent these perceived structural similarities in the form of mappings:

Food Mapping	**Ideas Mapping**
cooking--thinking	
swallowing--accepting	
chewing--considering	
digesting---understanding	
nourishment---mental well-being	

Table 2.2   Lakoff & Johnson's Structural Similarities Mappings

These mappings can also be considered as conceptual metaphors that provide the sub-mappings of the IDEAS ARE FOOD metaphor: (Lakoff & Turner 1989: 155)

Sub-mapping	**Conceptual Metaphor**
Thinking is cooking-----------------------------------'Let me stew over this'	
Accepting is swallowing------------------------- -----'I can't swallow that claim'	
Considering is chewing------------------------- 'Let me chew over the proposal'	
Understanding is digesting ------------------------'I can't digest all these ideas'	
Mental well-being is physical nourishment -------'He thrives on stuff like this'	

Table 2.3   Lakoff & Turner's Sub-mappings of IDEAS ARE FOOD Metaphor

But what facilitates the perception of these similarities for us? The perceived structural similarities are in all probability induced by some basic ideas we have about the mind:

The mind is a container.

Ideas are entities

We receive ideas from outside of the mind and ideas go into the mind. This view can be given as a set of interrelated ontological metaphors that characterise our conceptions of the mind and human communication.

The mind is a container

Ideas are object

Communication is sending ideas from one mind-container to another. This set of metaphors is known as the 'conduit' metaphor. It is called 'the conduit' metaphor because ideas are assumed to travel along a conduit, as shown by sentences such as 'His message came across'. These ontological metaphors for the mind arise from certain non-metaphorical assumptions we make about the human body: (Lakoff & Turner 1989: 155)

The body is a container.

Food consists of objects or substances.

We receive food from outside the body and it goes into the body.

These non-metaphorical assumptions about the body and the ontological metaphors map this understanding onto the mind. It makes sense for us that we talk and think about ideas and the mind in ways that reflect our structured knowledge about food and the body. This is how ontological metaphors may facilitate the perception of structural similarities between conceptually distinct domains.

2. 6. Cultural Models & Conceptual Metaphors

Contrary to the view often expressed in mainstream linguistics, metaphor is not at the margin of language; rather, as Harris (1981) convincingly argues, it 'is at the very heart of everyday mental and linguistic activity' (cited in Lantolf 1999 b: 42). Gibbs (1994), in surveying the psycholinguistic literature on figurative language, demonstrates that in appropriate context, people more often process the metaphorical properties of a message than they do its so called literal meaning.

Metaphors are therefore an equally, if not more important feature of communicative interaction. It needs to be made clear that conceptual metaphors are distinct from linguistic metaphors, although they are not unrelated. Thus, expressions such as 'Is that the foundation for your theory? , 'The theory needs more support ', and the like, are linguistic metaphors that manifest different underlying concepts through which we attempt to understand one domain (i.e. the target domain) in terms of another domain (i.e. the source domain) (Kovecses 2002:4-5).

Cognitive linguistics distinguishes primary and secondary conceptual metaphors. Lakoff and Johnson (1980; 1999) propose that bodily metaphors are universal, given that people appear to have similar physical experiences of the world through their bodies. Example of so called ' primary conceptual metaphors' include 'more is up, less is down, good is up, bad is down (for example, high language proficiency vs low language proficiency) or the body is a container for the emotions (for example, she is filled with hatred, don't keep your anger inside) (Boers 2003:233).

Secondary conceptual metaphors, which combine different primary metaphors, are clearly culturally influenced (ibid.).Examples of secondary metaphors include 'theories are building' for example, the theory has a solid foundation. 'Abstract competition is racing' for example, running for office (ibid.) Gibbs (1999:153), however, argues that even body metaphors are influenced by culture, because culture plays a role 'in sharing embodiment.'

Consider for example a seemingly universal concept such as 'self'. The Anglo- Saxon concept is sharply distinguished from 'other' and is smaller than one's body. Thus, Anglos often talk about 'my body' and 'my face' and distinguish quite clearly the solo individual from groups of individuals, indeed, in the US, much of the legal system is concerned with the protection of the individual, individual privacy, and private property from infringement by others. In contrast, the Wintu culture of northern California conceptualises the self and other as a 'continuum with an unspecified self at one end which emerges by degree with the other' (Kearney 1984: 150).

This does not mean that the self and other are distinguishable, but that the connection between these is continuous rather than 'walled off'. Indeed, Wintu does not have a word for the diffuse concept. Linguistically, the Wintu normally do not distinguish between singular 'I' and the plural 'We' as in the verb *harada,* which means 'I go' and 'we go', and the pronoun *ni* 'I' and *niterum* 'We' are reserved for clarification purposes (Kearney1984: 151). Similarly, Scollen (1993; 1999) points out that in Cantonese culture, the self and the other are not sharply demarcated as they are in the Anglo culture but instead from an integrated unit to the extent the freedom for Cantonese is the freedom 'to flock together'.

According to Gibbs (1999:154) cultural models are inter-subjectively shared schemas 'that function to interpret experience and guide action in a wide variety of domains, including events, institutions, and physical and mental objects'. These models 'do real work for individuals and collective communities in shaping what people believe, how they act, and how they speak about the world and their own experiences'(ibid.).The question that needs to be settled , however, is what precisely constitutes a cultural model? Cognitive linguists and cognitive anthropologists disagree on the answer. Both groups agree that conceptual metaphor in the sense of Lakoff and Johnson (1980) and literal representations derived from basic experiences are implicated in the formation of cultural models; however, they disagree on which of the two is primary.

One view of cultural concepts, 'the weak view' (Gibbs 1999: 147), holds that people have distinct literal, non metaphorical, representations of abstract concepts but these are connected to metaphorical concepts. The opposing, strong view contends that 'concepts are not understood via their own representations but by metaphorical connections to knowledge in different domains' (Gibbs 1999:147). On the weak view, the cultural model for anger is understood as an emotional experience directed at someone or something and connected to the metaphor 'anger is heated fluid in a container'. On the strong view, it is the conceptual metaphor itself that constitutes the cultural model for anger. The source of metaphor is our bodily experience with containers (for example beds, rooms, houses, clothes, etc.) and liquids (for example blood, sweat, tears, etc.)

As examples of cultural influence on primary metaphors, consider the cross-cultural appearance of conceptual metaphors for anger based on 'the body is a container for the emotions. In Anglo varieties of English, the conceptual metaphor 'anger is a hot fluid in a container' is quite productive, giving rise to such linguistic expressions as ' my blood is boiling', 'smoke is coming out of her ears' (Kovecses 2000:148). In Chinese, on the other hand, the container metaphor is also productive for conceptualising *nu* 'anger'; but unlike in English, the metaphor *qi* 'energy' is not hot 'anger is excess in the body'(Kovecses 2000:151).This gives rise to such expressions as ' anger is qi in one's heart', 'to keep one's spleen qi'. While things can explode, they do not do so because of heat in the container, as in 'the pent-up anger qi (nuqi) in one's breast finally explodes' (ibid.).

2. 7. How Do People Interpret Metaphors

English native speakers use metaphors such as OUR MARRIGE WAS A ROLLERCOASTER RIDE in everyday discourse, and they are easily understood by their addressees. Some theorists have argued that metaphors are interpreted as implicit comparison statements, rather than categorical assertions. For example, Ortony (1979) and (Gentner 1983; Wolff & Gentner, 1992) have proposed that metaphors of the form 'X is a Y' are interpreted as comparisons of the form X is like a Y. Once the implicit comparison is recognised, these theorists argue, the addressee then, conducts a search for matching properties in the topic (e.g., our marriage) and vehicle (e.g., rollercoaster ride) concepts. The implication of these 'comparison models' is that metaphors are understood in essentially the same way as literal comparisons, such as 'nectarines are like oranges'

Although attractive in their simplicity, comparison models fail for the important case in which the addressee is not aware of the relevant properties that the topic and vehicle concepts share. Consider once more the claim 'Our marriage was a rollercoaster ride. For people who are not familiar with the marriage in question, there can no a priori representation of the marriage that includes properties such as 'exciting', 'scary', or 'unstable'. Yet these are exactly the sorts of properties that come to mind upon a uniformed reading of the statement.

Comparison models are ill-equipped to deal with any metaphor that is used to make informative assertions about a topic i.e., to introduce properties that are not part of the addressee's mental representation of the topic ((ibid). This argument applies with equal force to many literal comparisons. For example, if a person knows nothing about 'kumquats', then telling him/ her that a kumquats is like an orange' this will introduce new properties into his or her mental representation of the concept 'kumquat' rather than produce a match between 'kumquat' and 'orange' properties.

Instead of property matching informative literal comparisons require a property attribution strategy to be understood. The vehicle concept provides candidate properties that may plausibly be attributed to the topic. This attribution process is often based on an implicit categorisation of the vehicle. Upon hearing the statement 'a kumquat' is like an orange, the addressee may infer that they are alike in that they are both citrus fruits. Once the 'citrus fruit' category is inferred, the addressee may attribute properties of this category (Ortony 1979) and (Gentner 1983; Wolff & Gentner, 1992), such as pulpy, flesh, tangy taste, and high vitamin C content, to the unfamiliar concept 'kumquat'.

The question is: Can this strategy be extended to metaphors? Recall our marriage was a rollercoaster ride. The topic and vehicle concepts may each belong to several categories. A marriage is a type of relationship and more generally, a type of social contract. A rollercoaster ride is a type of recreational activity and also a type of journey. These concepts belong to other categories as well, but it does not appear to be conventional category that contains them both Glucksberg (1991).

Consider two possibilities. One possibility is that the metaphor implied a common category, but not a conventional, lexicalised category. For example, the relationship between a marriage and a rollercoaster ride may be understood in terms of metaphorical correspondences. Either of these possibilities would provide the interpreter with a way to attribute the properties of a rollercoaster ride to a marriage. But which scenario describes that people actually do? This has been a matter of debate Glucksberg (1991).

Glucksberg (1991) has argued for the first scenario, proposing that metaphors, like literal comparisons, are understood by casting the topic and vehicle concepts in a common category. Lakoff (1993) has argued for the second scenario. According to his proposal, metaphors and other figurative expressions are understood via reference to metaphoric correspondences that structure the interpreter understands the implications of these two proposals for a general account of metaphor interpretations.

2. 8. Types of Metaphors

Metaphors can be classified in a range of different ways based on various criteria, from complexity to level of usage Kovecses (2005). There are absolute metaphor, active metaphor, dead metaphor, dormant metaphor, extended metaphor, mixed metaphor, pataphor metaphor, root metaphor, submerged metaphor, and synechdochic metaphor. The most common ones are: megametaphors, simple, and complex metaphors.

a. Megametaphors

Some metaphors, conventional or novel, may run through entire literary texts without necessarily 'surfacing' i.e., what someone finds at the surface level of a literary text are specific micro-metaphors. Megametaphors, have been studied by a number of authors like Dylan Thomas in his work Under Milk Wood that illustrates sharply this idea:

It is spring, moonless night in the small town, starless

The houses are blind as moles (through moles see fine tonight in the snouting velvet dingles) or blind as Captain Cat … (Quoted in Werth, 1994, p.84)

In the passage, inanimate things are characterised in terms of human properties. The process of personification is at work here, in which some properties of a town are understood in terms of the properties of human beings. We would propose a number of specific, surface metaphors to account for the particular linguistic examples. For instance, we could say that darkness is viewed as blindness, etc. According to Werth (1994), there is a megametaphor i.e., a metaphor which is extended, here SLEEP IS A DISABILITY. This metaphor provides a certain 'undercurrent' to the micrometaphors that appear to the surface of the text. The connection between Sleep is physical disability and the concept of town is provided by the metonymy: 'The town stands for its inhabitants'

The megametaphor becomes especially interesting if we consider that the concept of sleep often functions as a source domain for the concept of death. Since death is viewed as sleep and sleep is understood as a disability, death is also seen as a disability beside other human disabilities which are blind, deaf, dumb, immobile, etc Werth (1994). The identification of sleep with death is prefigured already in the passage above, where the author frequently mentions blackness and darkness. Thus the down is conceived as dead though a complex interaction of specific metaphors, metonymy, and an extended metaphor that runs through the text

b. Simple & Complex Metaphors

There are two distinct kinds of metaphor: simple and complex. So far we have characterised the metaphors in which the source concepts of building participate as Complex systems are buildings. But we have also noted that given the central mappings of these metaphors. It is reasonable to suggest that the same data can be accounted for by postulating four other metaphors such as: ABSTRACT CONSTRUCTION IS BUILDING; ABSTRACT STUCTURE IS PHYSICAL STRUCTURE, and ABSTRACT STABILITY IS PHYSICAL STRENGTH. This set of metaphors for instance is used for complex systems as well as to express the intensity of the situation Kovecses (2005).

Concerning complex abstract systems include theories, relationships, society, social groups, political systems, and others. All of these can be individually conceived as buildings. The resulting metaphors: THEORIES ARE BUILDINGS, RELATIONSHIPS ARE BUILDINGS, etc are complex metaphors, in that they are constituted by the corresponding submetaphors e.g., Abstract creation is physical building….Submetaphors are considered as simple, in that they are the ones that make up complex metaphors, and they characterise an entire range of specific-level target concepts Kovecses (2005).

In sum, simple metaphors constitute mappings in complex ones. Complex metaphors like: THEORIES ARE BUILDINGS or ANGER IS FIRE do not constitute mappings in simple ones like: ABSTRACT STABILITY IS PHYSICAL STRENGTH or INTENSITY IS HEAT. It is simple metaphors or mappings that provide the major theme of complex metaphors by means of the process of mapping the meaning focus of the source onto the target. Thus, for example, the various complex fire-metaphors like ANGER IS FIRE, ENTHUSIASM IS FIRE, and CONFLICT IS FIRE which

expresses the intensity of a state or event. This mapping can be restated as a simple metaphor: the intensity of a situation is the intensity of heat.

In addition to what came above, we can distinguish metaphors according to conventionality, function, and level of generality. This distinction comes from the basis of their complexity. The point is that, the extremely simple local metaphors that are based on basic correlations in human experience jointly apply to complex ones and make them a very natural conceptual metaphor. **"This situation shows very clearly that complex metaphors are based on simple ones, which are in turn based on tight, local correlations in experience"**.

Source: Zoltan Kovecses, Metaphor in Culture: Universality and Variation. Cambridge University, Press (2005).

2. 9. Conceptual Metaphor as a Set of Mapping

CM is merely characterised by mapping, which is the systematic group of correspondences that exist between features of the source domain and others from the target domain. (Lakoff and Turner 1989: 72) introduce the following set:

Plant Mapping	Social Organisation Mapping
(a) the whole plant	the entire organisation
(a) a part of a plant	a part of the organisation
(b) growth of the plant	development of the organisation
(c) the root of the plant	reducing the organisation
(d) the flowering	the origin of the organisation
(e) the fruits or crop	the most successful stage

Table2.4 Lakoff & Turner's Mappings between Social Organisations & Plants

In this case, constituent elements of plants correspond systematically to constituent elements of social organisations such as companies and the words that are used about plants are employed systematically in connection with organisations. This correspondence can be seen in all of the mappings except mapping (a), which is merely assumed by the sentence: "He works for the local branch of the bank." The mappings (indicated by the letters used above) and the

matching expressions that make them manifest in the PLANT metaphor are listed below:

(1) branch

(1) is growing

(2) prune

(3) root

(4) blossom,

(5) flower

(6) flourishing.   (Lakoff and Turner 1989: 72)

In the light of the discussion so far, we can ask: What does it mean to know a metaphor? It means to know the systematic mappings between a source and the target (Lakoff and Turner 1989). It is not suggested that this happens in a conscious manner. This knowledge is largely unconscious, and it is only for the purposes of analysis that we bring the mappings into awareness. However, when we know a conceptual metaphor, we use the linguistic expressions that are conventionally fixed for the linguistic community. In other words, not any element of B can be mapped on to any element of A. The linguistic expressions used metaphorically must conform to established mappings, or correspondences between the source and the target which means the reversibility of source and the target domains.

2. 10. Common Source Domains

The human body is an ideal source domain, since it is clearly delineated and we know it well. This does not mean that we make use of all aspects of this domain in metaphorically abstract targets. The aspects that are especially used for metaphorical comprehension involve various parts of the body, including the head, face, legs hands, back, heart, bones, shoulders, and others. Some examples:

       a- the heart of the problem

       b- to shoulder a responsibility

       c- the head of the department   Kovecses, (2002)

Over two thousand of metaphorical idioms have to do with the human body. This remarkable finding shows that a large portion of metaphorical meaning derives from our experience of our own body. The embodiment of meaning is perhaps the central idea of the cognitive linguistic view of metaphor and indeed of the cognitive linguistic view of meaning. As can be expected, the human body plays a key role in the emergence of the cognitive linguistic view of metaphor and indeed of the cognitive linguistic view of meaning. As can be expected, the human body plays a key role in the emergence of the metaphorical meaning not only in English and other "Western" languages and cultures Kovecses (2002), but also scholars. They have abundantly demonstrated its central importance in human conceptualisation in languages and cultures around the world Kovecses (2002). Health and illness are, of course, aspects of the human body. Both the general properties of health and illness and particular illness frequently constitute metaphorical source domains. Some examples include:

> **a-** a healthy society
>
> **b-** a sick mind
>
> **c-** she hurt my feelings   Kovecses, (2002)

Another significant source domain is the domain of animals. Human beings are especially understood in terms of assumed properties of animals. Thus, we talk about someone being a brute, a tiger, a dog, a fox, a snake, and so on. The body parts of animals are also commonly used in the metaphorical conceptualisation of abstract domains. Concerning the domain of plants, people cultivate plants for a variety of purposes: for eating, for pleasure, etc. In our metaphorical use, we distinguish various parts of plants; we are aware of the various actions we perform in relation to plants; and we recognise many different stages of growth that plants go through. Below are some examples:

> **a-** he cultivated his friendship with her
>
> **b-** the fruit of her labour
>
> **c-** exports flourished last year   Kovecses, (2002)

As far as buildings and construction are concerned, human beings build houses and other structures for shelter, work, storage, and so on. Both the static object of a house and its parts and the act of building it serve as common metaphorical source domains. Some examples follow:

    a- a towering genius

    b- He is in ruins financially

    c- She constructed a coherent argument   Kovecses, (2002)

From very early, people living in human society have emerged in economic transactions of various kinds. These transactions often involve the use of money and commodities in general. The commercial event involves a number of entities and actions: a commodity, money, handing over the commodity, and handing over the money. Our understanding of various abstract things is based on this scenario or parts of it. Below are some examples:

    a- Spend your time wisely

    b- I tried to save some energy

    c- She invested a lot in the relationship   Kovecses, (2002)

Now, if we return to cooking and food, cooking food as an activity has been with us ever since the beginning of humanity. Cooking involves a complex process of several elements: an agent, recipe, ingredients, actions, a product, just to mention the most important ones. The activity with its pats and the product serve as a deeply entrenched source domain. Here are some examples:

    a- What's your recipe for success?

    b- That's a watered –down idea.

    c- He cooked up a story that nobody believed. Kovecses, (2002)

Another source domain which is heat and cold, they are extremely basic human experiences. We feel warm and cold as a result of the temperature of the air that surrounds us. We often use the heat domain metaphorically to talk about our

attitude to people and things. Among a series of emotions and behaviours that a person can live and pass through, there are attitudes that we appreciate, however, we find others deplorable. Below are some examples:

> **a-** in the heat of passion
> **b-** a cold reception
> **c-** a warm welcome   Kovecses, (2002)

The domain of fire is related to that of heat. In addition to using fire to keep ourselves warm, we also use fire to cook, to destroy things, etc. This source domain is especially common in the metaphorical conceptualisation of passions and feelings such as rage, love, hate, and some others. For example, a person can be described as "smouldering with anger." But the source fire enables us to observe an interesting aspect of many conceptual metaphors. Often, in the case of conceptual metaphors, a typical source; that is source domains can also be target domains. Thus, the domain of fire itself is a typical source for many conceptual domains. As an example, consider the FIRE IS A HUNGRY ANIMAL metaphor which produces linguistic metaphors such as THE FIRE DEVOURED EVERYTHING.

The same process producing metaphor chains can be noticed in the body metaphor discussed above; that is, the human body can also function as a target domain, as when we say I FEEL A LITTLE RUSTY TODAY which means that my mental or physical state is not well as usual. If we are rusty, it means that we are not as good as we used to be, because we have practised (something) for a long time. This chain producing aspect of metaphor has not been explored in the cognitive linguistic approach.

 Source: The above illustrations and explanations are borrowed from: Metaphor: A Practical Introduction by Zoltan KOVECSES. (2002).

2. 11. Cognitive Function of Metaphor

When we ask what the function of metaphor is for ordinary people in thinking about a matter in life and seeing the world, we are asking a question about the cognitive function of metaphor. Conceptual metaphors can also be classified according to the cognitive functions that they perform. On this basis, three general

types of conceptual metaphors have been distinguished: structural, ontological, and orientational.

2. 11.1 Structural Metaphors

In this kind of metaphor, the source domain provides a relatively rich knowledge structure for the target concept. In other words, the cognitive function of these metaphors is to enable speakers to understand target A by means of source B. This understanding takes place by means of conceptual mappings between elements of A and elements of B.

2. 11. 2 Ontological Metaphors

Ontological metaphors provide much less cognitive structuring for target concept than structural ones do. Their cognitive job seems to give an ontological status to general categories of abstract target concepts Kovecses (2005). What this simply means is that we   conceive   of our   experiences   in terms of objects, substances, and   containers in general   without specifying exactly what kind of object,   substance, or container is meant.   Since our knowledge about them is rather   limited at this general level,   we   cannot   use these   highly general categories   to understand   much about   target   domains. This is the job of structural metaphors, which provide an elaborated structure for abstract concepts.

But it is nevertheless a cognitively important job to assign a basic status in terms of objects, substances, etc, to many of our experiences. The kinds of experiences that require this, the most are those that are not clearly delineated, vague, or abstract Kovecses (2005). For example, we do not really know what the mind is, but we conceive it as an object. If we can conceptualise the mind as an object, we can easily provide more structure of it by means of the 'machine' metaphor for the mind as in: MY MIND IS RUSTY THIS MORNING. We can conceive of personification as a form of ontological metaphor. In personification, human qualities are given to nonhuman entities. Personification is very common in literature, but it also figures in everyday discourse, as the example below show:

      a-   Life has cheated me.

      b- Inflation is eating up our profits.

      c- Cancer finally caught up with him.   Kovecses (2005)

Life, inflation, and cancer are not humans, but they   are   given   qualities   of human beings, such as cheating, eating, and catching up. Personification makes use of one of the best source domains we have ourselves.

2.11. 3 Orientational Metaphors

Orientational metaphors provide even less conceptual structure for target concepts than ontological ones. Their cognitive job, instead, is to make a set of target concepts coherent in our conceptual system. The name orientational metaphor derives from the fact that most metaphors that serve this function have to do with basic human spatial orientations, such as up-down, centre-periphery, etc. Source: (Metaphor: A Practical Introduction by Zoltan KOVECSES, p.56).It would perhaps be more appropriate to call this type of conceptual metaphor 'coherence metaphor', which would be more in line with the cognitive function these metaphors perform.

By coherence, we simply mean that certain target concepts tend to be conceptualized in a uniform manner. For example, all the following concepts are characterised by an 'up ward' orientation, while their opposites receive a 'downward' orientation e.g., *More is up, less is down*: Speak up, please. Keep your voice down, please. *Control is up, Lack of control is down:* I'm on top of the situation. He is under my control.

Upward orientation tends to go together with positive evaluation, while downward orientation goes with a negative evaluation. But positive-negative evaluation is not limited to the spatial orientation in up and down. It has been pointed out that various spatial image schemas are bipolar and bivalent. Thus, whole centre, link, balance, in goal, front…are mostly regarded as positive, while their opposites, not whole, periphery, no link, imbalance, out, no goal, and back as negative. Just to give one example, it is remarkable that in English the phrase' half the man' denotes someone who is not positively viewed ,n as in : He is half the man he used to be. Obviously, 'the whole' vs 'no whole' opposition is at work here (Kovecses p. 56).

2. 12. Supraindividual Level

What we call the 'supraindividual' level of metaphor is the level at which the conceptualisation of a conceptual domain (the target) by means of another

conceptual domain (the source). This makes it natural and motivating for the speakers, since the bringing together of the two domains into conceptual metaphor is often motivated by sensorimotor experiences. Because human beings, no matter which language they speak, share these experiences; this is a level that corresponds to the universal aspects of metaphor (Lakoff and Johnson 1980).

The most obvious cases, in which two different kinds of experience are seen as being in correlation, are those that involve the human physiology. Bodily experiences are often correlated with certain abstract or subjective experiences which give rise to conceptual metaphors (Lakoff & Johnson 1980). Perceptual, cultural, category-based correlations in experience can also do so. Some researchers conducted several experiments which show that abstract domains such as emotions regularly correlate with physiological changes in the body. For example, anger has been shown to be correlated with an increase in skin temperature, blood pressure, and other autonomic nervous system activities.

These physiological changes make other emotions, which are characterised by different ANS profile. These studies provide 'independent' which means non-linguistic motivation for the existence of the ANGER IS A HOT FLUID. Similar to this one, many other metaphors could be characterised at each of the supraindividual, individual, and subindividual levels. This is to claim, however, that each and every conceptual metaphor is based on correlation in experience (Lakoff & Johnson 1980). Many are not, and these may obtain their motivation from that we called 'perceived structural similarity', or even real, objective, and pre-existing similarity.

The two types of motivation (correlation in experience and resemblance or similarity) should be seen as complementary rather than mutually exclusive. Peoples in different cultures may take the same thing to be similar and can have unique concepts that may function as either source or target domains. Because of these possibilities, the supraindividual level of metaphor is only partially universal to the degree to which motivation is based on correlations in experience (Lakoff & Johnson 1980). The issue of how many conceptual metaphors can be accounted for by correlations in experience is one that requires a great deal of more future research.

There are several distinct kinds of metaphor; metaphors can be classified according to their cognitive function (structural, ontological, etc.), their nature (knowledge based-or image-based), their conventionality (conventional or unconventional), their complexity (simple or complex), and so forth. The question worth asking here is: Which of these distinct kinds of metaphors are based on correlations in experience? The kind of metaphor that is most studied by cognitive linguistics is 'structural metaphor', but these are not all necessarily based on correlations in experience. Instead, it can be suggested that simple or primary metaphors are the ones that most obviously have a clear experimental basis. These simple metaphors function as mappings within larger, complex structural ones (Lakoff &Johnson 1980).

The notion of correlation brings with it an important implication in the study of the relationship between metaphor and metonymy. Correlation in experience brings together two (no matter how) distant domains of experience in a single one. If we characterise as involving two distant domains and metonymy as involving a single one, then we should regard correlation as a metonymic relationship. The implication is that correlation-based metaphors can all be seen as having a metonymic basis. Thus, in this view metonymy is a bridge between experiencing two domains simultaneously, on the one hand, and seeing them as metaphorically related, on the other (Lakoff &Johnson 1980).

Where do metaphors 'reside' in the human organism? The most natural location for metaphors, and especially for simple, or primary, metaphors, is the brain. Given a source and a target domain, if one domain is activated, the metaphorically connected domains are also activated. This shows that metaphors not only have linguistic and psychological reality but are also real in our neuroanatomy. But metaphors have further bodily motivation. As (Lakoff and Johnson 1980) have observed, we have three ways in which simple or primary metaphors are embodied: (1) correlations are embodied in our neuroanatomy; the source domains arise from the sensorimotor experiences of the human body; and (2) we repeatedly experience in the world situations in which source and target domains are connected.

Thus, the cognitive linguistic view of metaphor works on three levels: the subindividual level corresponding to how a given language and culture reflects metaphorical patterns, the individual speakers of a language, and the supraindividual level corresponding to universal aspects of various kinds of embodiment. However, it is not claimed that the three levels are all equally well understood, researched and described at the present time, and it is not claimed either that we know precisely how the three levels work together (Lakoff & Johnson 1980). But what is certain the cognitive view as presented in this chapter has produced significant results; perhaps the most important of which being the realisation of that language, culture, thought, and the body all come together and play an equally crucial role in the study of metaphor.

2.13. Teachability of L2 Metaphors

There has been very little research reported in the literature that addresses the teachability of conceptual metaphors in L2. Several papers have been published which make suggestions for teaching orientational metaphors, for example, 'more is up, less is down' (Putz et al.2001 a and b), but to our knowledge, other than studies by Kovecses and Szabo 1996, Kovecses 2001, Boers and Demecheleer 2001, and two experiments reported in Boers 2000), these have not explored the impact of teaching on learning.

For the four experiments reported by Boers (2000) two investigated conventional metaphors; the other two focused on orientational metaphors. The first study investigated the effects of conceptual organisation on L2 vocabulary retention. The participants in his study were intermediate EFL (Flemish) secondary school students. In one task, students were given a modified English text about IQ (intellectual quotient) which contained language expressing the conceptual metaphors 'anger is a hot liquid , angry people are animals, anger is fire.' One group of students was given a list of expressions (for example, 'he is hot under the collar') organised around the concept. A second group of students was given the same set of expressions but this time they were organised functionally (for example to describe a sudden anger, angry personalities, the way angry people speak).

Following 15 minutes class discussion about anger and conflicts, the lists of expressions were moved and the students were given the text as 10 –item close passage targeting words from the metaphorical expressions. The group whose expressions had been organised conceptually produced significantly more of the targeted words than did the group receiving the functionally organised list. In a second study Boers assessed the ability of university business students (L1 French) to categorise a series of English linguistic metaphors according to these concepts-machinery, health, war-and the fourth that was self-identified.

Prior to the task, the students were given a text in English explaining various metaphors used to describe economic processes. The students were highly accurate in categorising expressions such as 'to tighten the screws' and 'the economy is overheating' as machinery and 'to invade weaker markets' and 'to conquer market share' as war. They were also fairly accurate in generating their own fourth category. For such expressions as 'a flourishing company' and 'the company will prune some of its branches' p.564.

Boers comments that although the students in his studies were able to demonstrate awareness of conceptual metaphors in the new language, it is not assumed that the ability will serve the learner to generate 'figurative expressions in the target language. Instead, its primary use proposed here is a channelling device for learners to organise the steady stream of figurative language they are exposed to' p.564. This is certainly an important ability to develop and in our view clearly plays a role in self-mediation as it would allow the individual to make sense of the language, and therefore, regulate their thinking as least some extent, more studies of the type reported by Boers are needed, but the need to assess the long-term effects of instruction rather than one-off assessments of performance following immediately the heels of instruction.

(Hays and McCagg 1999) conducted a study to determine if Japanese L1 university students of English as a foreign language could learn English idioms based on emotional data (for example, anger, fear, happiness, sadness) and health related metaphors, including several based on supposed universal embodied experiences, where UP generally indicates positive features and DOWN often

signals negative features. Examples of the idioms presented are 'My heartsank'; He came down with the flu'; She got hot under the collar' and 'He was jumping for joy.' The researchers' idea was that raising students' awareness of the relationship between metaphors and embodied experiences would help them learn the relevant concept. The students were divided into a control and an experimental group. Each group received a pre-test which asked if they had heard or seen each expression before, if they knew what it meant and if they knew how to use it.

As for treatment, the controls were provided with a worksheet listing the idioms and were taught their meanings through group discussion and use of a dictionary. Students then grouped and even commented on their observation that heat seemed connected to anger and cold to fear. Via these comments, the students could identify their misunderstanding of some key concepts in the given idioms.

According to researchers, however, the students did not appear to make 'the overt connection to the physical nature of the symptoms, they may merely have been drawing patterns from the (lexis or noticing similarities to their L1 (Hays and McCagg 1999: 36). The experimental group was given a 60-minutes lecture on the nature of embodiment; for example, that the body can be understood as a container for emotions and that 'we experience much of our world in terms of the vertical orientation of our bodies'. p.37. The students were also 'encouraged to examine consciously the nature of the expressions that arise from the physical symptoms that associated with the various emotions' (ibid.). This group also received the same worksheet given to the control group.

After two weeks the students submitted their worksheets and were then given a post-test which was similar to the pre-test but included some new items and also asked the students to use in a sentence any expression whose meaning they said they knew. Results showed that both groups made modest improvements from the pre-to the post test. However, this improvement was limited to recognition ability since most of the students in either group were unable to define or use the idioms appropriately. The experimental group was slightly better (not reaching statistical significance) at recognising the novel idioms than was the control group. (Hays and McCagg. p.38) are not overly optimistic about the prospects of developing effective pedagogical materials based on recent research in cognitive linguistics.

2. 13. 1. A Rational for Teaching Conceptual Metaphor

The notion of a metaphoric competence is discussed by Low (1988) in his paper "On teaching metaphor". The focus is on alerting learners (L2) to the presence and effects of conventional metaphor and pedagogical approaches to achieving this in ELT contexts. Therefore, the emphasis is on the "discoursal and pragmatic aspects of metaphor rather than literary uses" (ibid.). He identifies a number of functions of metaphor in language use and includes "how things in life are related in systematic ways we can at least partially comprehend through the complex structure of conceptual metaphor" (ibid.). Although the term "competence" is used, Low writes in terms of skill or strategy as this carries within it the notion of "behaviour which is variable between individuals and which appears to be alterable under appropriate instruction" (ibid.) - skills which native speakers are expected to be proficient at and which learners need to master if they are to be competent language users.

It is possible that Low uses the term in a way which is analogous with "communicative competence" Hymes (1972). Intrinsic to the notion of competence in this sense is the notion of skill, a variable of an incremental nature that can be influenced through instruction and practice. To be a skilled language user implies both receptive and productive skills in the language. However, in addition to linguistic knowledge, learners need socio-linguistic skill and knowledge to be 'proficient', or to have attained a level of proficiency that is 'native-like'. As (Cameron and Low 1999) point out, the universality and systematicity of grounded, generic-level metaphors are more transparent and more easily understood by most L2 learners but problems occur in linguistic choices with attempts at linguistic metaphor and the pragmatic context. Low (1988) enumerates a number of areas that could be addressed by language teachers, and course and materials designers through explicit instruction in the conceptual basis of language. These are listed below:

* Developing an understanding of the metaphorical nature of language and the normal metaphors "we live by".

* Arriving at plausible meanings for utterances that contain semantic anomalies and contradictions.

* Knowing the boundaries of conventional metaphor; understanding what is heard in terms of conventional metaphor but also knowing what is not said. What are acceptable extensions of conventional metaphor? When can speakers acceptably innovate? When can metaphors be acceptably mixed?

* Areas where word-class differences and cross-linguistic preferences can lead to unconscious innovation or simply error in the L2. In many cases where metaphors are analysed cross-linguistically, understanding can be achieved but there are problems in the linguistic choices L2 learners make.

* Typical hedging devices which are metaphorical in nature but part of native-speaker usage.

* Awareness of metaphorical layering; many utterances and expressions can be interpreted on a number of levels easily perceivable in the L1 but require more explanation in L2.

* Sensitivity in the use of metaphor in terms of social and political correctness. This is important when learners come from diverse social and cultural backgrounds.

* Developing an interactive awareness of metaphor - why do speakers use metaphor? What are the positive and negative purposes of using metaphoric language in everyday use, in literature and in different walks of life? What do metaphors highlight and hide? Low (1988)

2. 13. 2. The Attributive Categorisation View

Glucksberg and his colleagues (Glucksberg, 1991; Glucksberg & Keysar, 1990; Glucksberg & McGlone, in press) have argued that metaphors as they appear to be: category- inclusion assertions of the form 'X' is a 'Y'. According to this proposal, interpreters infer from a metaphor a category (a) to which the topic concept can plausibly belong, and (b) that the vehicle concept exemplifies. For example, consider '*Their lawyer is a shark'*. Since the topic 'their lawyer' cannot plausibly belong to the taxonomic category named by the vehicle 'shark'.

This category is not ultimately considered as the basis for interpreting the expression; instead, the interpreter infers a category of things that the vehicle exemplifies (e.g., vicious, cunning beings) and can include the topic among its members Glucksberg (1991). When such a category is used to characterise a metaphor topic, it functions as an attributive category, in that it provides properties (vicious, cunning) that may be attributive to the topic. With extensive use, the attributive category exemplified by a vehicle concept may become conventional. For example, many dictionaries include the attributive category exemplified by 'shark' as a secondary meaning of the term.

In property attribution terms, the attributive categorisation view suggests two kinds of knowledge that interpreters should have to make sense of a metaphor Glucksberg (1991). First, one must know enough about the topic concept to appreciate the attributive category to which it plausibly and meaningfully belong. Second, one must be sufficiently familiar with the vehicle concept to know the categories it can exemplify or epitomise. The most apt and comprehensible metaphor vehicles are typical members of the attributive categories to which they are used to refer. Thus, a literal 'shark' is typical member of the category of 'vicious, cunning beings' among with wolves and snakes. Conventional metaphor vehicles such as: shark, wolf, and snake can be understood immediately, given a relevant metaphor topic. Understanding a novel metaphor such as 'their lawyer is a vampire' may take more time because one must infer the attributive category that the vehicle exemplifies (e.g., for an opportunist person.)

According to this view, a metaphor vehicle may elicit different interpretations depending on the topic and other contextual constraints Glucksberg (1991). For example, the expression 'a lifetime is a day' may be interpreted in several ways, depending on the kind of thing a day is perceived as symbolising. A day may symbolise a relatively short time span, and so the expression may be interpreted to mean that life is short. Alternatively, a day can be perceived as a symbol of a series of temporal stages, and thus the expression may be interpreted as an assertion of the correspondences between dawn and birth, morning and youth, night and death, etc.

2. 13.3. Conceptual Metaphor View

Rich interpretations of this latter sort have been the focus of another theory of metaphor that has been proposed by the linguist George Lakoff and his colleagues (Lakoff, 1987, 1990, 1993; see also Gibbs, 1992, 1994). According to their proposal, the production and comprehension of figurative expressions are mediated by metaphorical correspondences that are part of the human conceptual system. For example, consider the concept of Love. According to Lakoff, Love is understood in terms of conceptual metaphors' that assimilate this abstract 'target concept', such as 'container' and 'journey'. For example, the conceptual metaphor 'relationship' and 'container' entails correspondences between both concepts.

(Gibbs 1992, 1994) has extended Lakoff's original proposal to account for the production and comprehension of novel metaphors in the same system as idiomatic expressions. According to Gibbs, novel metaphors rarely create attributive categories de 'novo', but rather instantiate established conceptual metaphorical themes. For instance, the metaphor 'Our marriage was a rollercoaster ride employs topics and vehicles that are consistent with the conceptual metaphor 'Love is a journey'. By virtue of this common conceptual core, Gibbs argues the two metaphors convey only slightly different entailments about love 1992, p.574).

The systematic clustering of figurative expressions around conceptual metaphors is striking. At the very least, this systematicity implies that many of these expressions have a common metaphorical derivation Sweetser (1990). However, the functional role of conceptual metaphors in idiom and metaphor interpretation remains unclear. Although conceptual metaphor theorists have not articulated this role, there are at least three possibilities. One possibility is that conceptual metaphors play no role in the interpretation of figurative expressions. As with most words, the comprehension of metaphorical expressions may proceed without awareness of their etymological origins. People may be able to appreciate the underlying metaphor when it is pointed out to them, but it does not need to be explicitly represented.

A second possibility is that conceptual metaphors are available in conceptual semantic memory, and may be retrieved in certain situations. In this scenario

conceptual metaphors are not necessarily for immediate comprehension, but may be recognised and appreciated in contexts that motivate people to search for an underlying metaphorical theme (Nayak & Gibbs 1990). A third possibility is that conceptual metaphors are both available and accessible in any context, and thus may serve as the conceptual basis.

In order to explain why Nayak and Gibbs (1990) results diverge from Glucksberg et al's (1993) ones; first, the demands of the task may influence the use of the conceptual mappings in on-going discourse. In fact two previous studies adopted different tasks to test this issue. Participants were asked to judge the appropriateness level of idioms to prior contexts in Nayak and Gibbs (1990) off-line study, but idioms were simply read in Glucksberg et al.'s (1993) study. It is possible that the conceptual mappings in on –going discourse are only activated under the condition of a judgment task, but not during a reading task, since it requires more processing resources to read and make a judgment.

Second, the way in which materials were presented may also have affected the on-line access of conceptual mappings in on- going discourse. Nayak and Gibbs (1990) gave participants paragraph- long texts with a terminal idiomatic sentence to read texts sentence-by-sentence. It is possible that the paragraph presentation allowed the metaphorical concepts to build on one another, which allowed the access of the conceptual mappings.

2. 13. 4. Pedagogical View of Metaphor

The work by Petrie and Oshlag included in Ortony (1993, pp.579-609) has led to extensive discussion on the use of metaphors in second language teaching (SLT) and second language acquisition (SLA). Petrie pointed out that metaphors and analogies hold great instructional value in many major subject fields including literature, business, politics psychology, physics, etc. He suggested that using metaphor based-instruction can help students to view situations from a fruitful new perspective, and that metaphors and analogies help students to learn unfamiliar and abstract concepts. For example, a teacher can raise students' interest in new subjects by telling them that they are going to meet many new friends (a metaphor

for new ideas) during the unfolding school year. The above mentioned authors have argued that such instruction can effectively bridge the gap between the teacher's knowledge and the students' lack of knowledge by drawing on the teacher's and students' shared experiences.

In the same way, (Danesi 1993, pp. 489- 500) introduced the idea of 'conceptual fluency', i.e. how a given language builds concepts on the basis of metaphorical structuring. He argued that conceptual fluency is a largely unconscious mechanism in native speakers that is deficient in learners. Learners tend to think within their L1 conceptual system, which means that their utterances do not quite fit into the structure of the L2. Works mentioned in Danesi's study (e.g., Sontag, 1975; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, Kovecses, 1986) present the following ideas:

* We are living in a world of conceptualisation.
* Conceptualisation is an intrinsic feature of discourse programming.

* The programming of metaphor into discourse is a feature of L1 competence.
* Metaphorical concepts are as systematic as grammar rules.

These points form the basis of Danesi's arguments regarding conceptual fluency, metaphorical competence, and the teachability of metaphorical concept. In recent years, insights into the nature of language in use in vocabulary studies have emerged through corpus analysis. In particular, there is greater evidence of the range in which words occur together: collocation. This has influenced ELT methodology towards a focus on words in "strings" or "phrases" (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992) with an emphasis on functionality and pragmatic awareness. This fits within the paradigm of communicative language teaching and can be found in many recently published course books and ELT materials. It is debatable whether this has improved on simple item-by-item rote learning with regard to the teaching of lexis. The emphasis on functionality is limiting as it excludes a closer examination of the cultural aspects of language as well as the elements of systematicity and coherence identified through a conceptual approach.

There have been some interesting contributions made in the literature of language teaching. Lindstromberg (1991) advocated raising awareness of metaphor in teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP). In subject specific areas such as business, law or medicine students, will encounter (in addition to technical terminology and genre conventions) a wider range of extraneous and unpredictable lexis. In these contexts, specific-level metaphors around and can be identified and categorised. For example, the competitive nature of the free-market or the volatility of the stock exchange is often conceived in terms of BUSINESS IS WAR. Students can find instantiations of this metaphor and make decisions about them; they could also be asked to reflect on what this metaphor says about the culture and conceptualisation of business, and to examine and comment on aspects of the metaphor in terms of its implications.

Cross-cultural and cross-linguistic comparisons could also be discussed. Lindstromberg (1991) makes the point that in learning subject matter, the potential role of explicit metaphor teaching ought to be an area of urgent interest. In ELT, Holme (1991) considers collaborative activities for learners to work on paraphrases of metaphors provided by the teacher from a text. Students are asked to make their own versions and compare these with the originals. A further activity requires students to consider why the writer chooses the metaphors in question. One area which lends itself to a pedagogical approach to conceptual metaphor is basic prepositions and articles in English.

Typically, in a learner dictionary the numerous but related senses of basic prepositions are listed as polysemes: the learner is confronted with a variety of meanings and needs to identify the one needed. Lindstromberg (1996) points out that this method overlooks the systematic nature of prepositional semantics and demonstrates this with a look at the preposition *on*. His teaching techniques (1997) are inductive, with the use of iconic and illustrative devices in the classroom, and involve looking at prototypical meanings and focusing on the roots of metaphorical expressions. Boers and Demechelmeer (1998) take a similar approach in a treatment of prepositions and adverbs of direction, emphasising how a cognitive semantic analysis of a preposition can be used to anticipate

comprehension problems about an area of perennial difficulty for learners and to facilitate greater comprehension of unfamiliar uses.

Other examples include classroom activities which use gap-fill and classifying activities and require learners to consider aspects of metaphoric use Lazar (1996) and specifically cross-linguistic comparisons (Deignan, et al., 1997). Low (1988) emphasises the role of analytic discussion in developing metaphorical awareness and understanding. This method is more appropriate to the capabilities and needs of more advanced learners. However, as (Cameron and Low 1999) comment, while there is some recognition that the linking of meaning through metaphor can contribute to language learning efficiency; this does not seem to have been developed in mainstream.

2. 14. Unlearnability of Conceptual Metaphor

Cognitive linguists and cognitive anthropologists agree that conceptual meaning is a central feature of human thinking. They disagree, however, on whether conceptual meaning is grounded fundamentally in conceptual metaphors, in the sense of (Lakoff and Johnson 1980), or in schemas that have a literal basis with metaphors serving as a means of clarifying rather than organising the relevant concept. (Strauss and Quinn 1997) contend, contrary to the generally accepted anthropological stance rooted in the writings of Geertz (1973) that cultural meanings are not only situated in symbols and external artefacts but are primarily located in the minds of flesh-and –blood members of cultural communities. These meanings constitute cultural models, or schemas, that arise from the basic cultural experiences of individuals and are eventually internalised.

Lantolf (1999b) proposed that learning a second language from the perspective of culture entails much more than complying with the behavioural (linguistic or otherwise) patterns of a host culture. He argues that it is about the appropriation of cultural models, including conceptual metaphors, and therefore entails the use of meaning as a way of (re) mediating our psychological and, by our communicative activity.

Kovecses and Papp (2000) argue that if learners acquire grammatical and communicative knowledge but fail to develop conceptual knowledge in a new language; their language use will be significantly different from that of native users. Danesi (1993: 490) concurs with this observation in commenting that even if students develop high levels of communicative proficiency but continue to think in terms of native conceptual system using L2 words and structures to carry their own L1 concepts, they may be understood, but their discourse may be inappropriate.

Boers(2000:564) , on the other hand, proposes a less ambitious goal in arguing for the need for learners to develop 'metaphor awareness' as opposed to the ability to generate metaphors in the L2, so that they will at least be able to 'organise the steady stream of figurative language they are exposed to '. Likewise, Littlemore (2001: 484) suggests that 'the ability to interpret metaphors quickly in conversation can be a crucial element of interaction'. However, Valeva (1996:36) problematised the question of L2 metaphor interpretation as well as generation by non-native learners.

She maintains that there is little value in trying to develop a pedagogical programme for teaching metaphorically organised conceptual knowledge if such knowledge in an L2 is unlearnable in the first place. Others, such as Danesi (1993:497) believes that conceptual knowledge can be effectively taught in the classroom setting if we are able to integrate appropriate materials and pedagogical practices: students do not develop MC metaphorical competence by osmosis. It would seem that competence, must be extracted from the continuum of discourse and held up for students to study and practise in any ways that are similar to how we teach them grammar and communication.

For Chomsky (1972), language is basically abstract syntax and as such arguably homogeneous and systematic. Yet, most linguists would not agree that language, even if taken in the sense of a universal language faculty, equals abstract syntax. For them, language would also include – at the very least – lexicalised conceptual-semantic systems, phonology and prosodies, and various pragmatic abilities such as those of text-building (e.g. story-telling) and inference making. In all probability, there are also numerous interconnections with perception (through

different senses), cognition and memory, various interactional and communicative abilities such as metaphor production and interpretation.

Other researchers have accumulated massive evidence that human interaction precedes and explains many aspects of language (Levinson, 2006). Generativists often defend the innateness hypothesis by claiming that there are structurally complex language structures that allegedly cannot be acquired by learning. Examples could be intricate subordinations of clauses. Now, these intricate structures are virtually non-occurring in normal spoken language e.g. (Laury, 2008). Karlsson (2007a, b) has adduced substantial data that the recursion of embedded subordinate clauses is highly limited in actual language use, even in written texts.

However, we cannot exclude that some individuals can learn to use exceptionally complex language, with the support of writing. Some may even develop an ability to produce such structures in improvised talk (Laury 2008, Karlsson 2007). But it seems ludicrous to argue, on the basis of such cases, that extreme linguistic-structural complexity must be assumed to be innate. It would be analogous arguing that the abilities of some individuals to achieve 2 metres or more in high-jump, or to juggle seven cones in the air, a couple of which behind one's back, would be innate in the human species. These are cases of exceptional individuals, with especially suited physical endowments and with a very long biography of learning and training.

These considerations alone would be enough to show why the classical theory has been held in such high regard. But the classical theory receives further motivation through its connection with a philosophical method that goes back to antiquity and that continues to exert its influence over contemporary thought (Smith and Medin1981, Murphy 2002). This is the method of conceptual analysis. Paradigmatic conceptual analyses offer definitions of concepts that are to be tested against potential counterexamples that are identified via thought experiments. Conceptual analysis is supposed to be a distinctively a priori activity that many take to be the essence of philosophy. To the extent that paradigmatic conceptual

analyses are available and successful, this will convey support for the classical theory.

The classical theory has come under considerable pressure in the last thirty years or so, not just in philosophy but in psychology and other fields as well. For psychologists, the main problem has been that the classical theory has difficulty explaining a robust set of empirical findings. At the centre of this work is the discovery that certain categories are taken to be more representative or typical and that typicality scores correlate with a wide variety of psychological data (for reviews, see Smith & Medin 1981, Murphy 2002).

In philosophy, the classical theory has been subjected to a number of criticisms but perhaps the most fundamental is that attempts to specify definitions for concepts have a poor track record. Quite simply, there are too few examples of successful definitional analyses, and certainly none that are uncontroversial (Wittgenstein 1953, 1958, Fodor 1981). The huge literature on the analysis of knowledge is representative of the state of things. Since Edmund Gettier (1963) first challenged the traditional definition of Knowledge (as Justified True Belief), there has been widespread agreement among philosophers that the traditional definition is incorrect or at least incomplete (e.g., Dancy 1985). But no one can seem to agree on what the correct definition is. Despite the enormous amount of effort that has gone into the matter and the dozens of papers written on the issue, we are still lacking a satisfactory and complete definition. It could be that the problem is that definitions are hard to come by. But another possibility-one that many philosophers are now taking seriously-is that our concepts lack definitional structure.

2. 15. Prototype Theory

What other type of structure could they have? A non-classical alternative that emerged in the 1970s is the Prototype Theory. According to this theory, a lexical concept C for instance does not have definitional structure but has probabilistic structure in that something falls under C just in case it satisfies a sufficient number of properties encoded by C's constituents. The prototype theory has its philosophical roots in Wittgenstein's (1953,1958) famous remark that the things

covered by a term often share a family resemblance, and it has its psychological roots in Eleanor Rosch's experimental treatment of much the same idea (Rosch & Mervis 1975, Rosch 1978).

The prototype theory is especially at home in dealing with the typicality effects that were left unexplained by the classical theory. One standard strategy is to maintain that, on the prototype theory (e.g., Lakoff 1987) categorisation is to be understood as a similarity comparison process, where similarity is computed as a function of the number of constituents that two concepts hold in common. On this model, the concept 'brotherhood' shares more of its constituents with 'love'.

The prototype theory does well in accounting for a variety of psychological phenomena and it helps to explain why definitions may be so hard to produce. But the prototype theory has its own problems and limitations. One is that its treatment of categorisation works best for quick and unreflective judgments. Yet when it comes to more reflective judgments, people go beyond the outcome of a similarity comparison Lakoff (1987). If asked whether a dog that is surgically altered to look like a raccoon is a dog or a raccoon, the answer for most of us, and even for children, is that it remains a dog.

Another criticism that has been raised against taking concepts to have prototype structure concerns compositionality. When a patently complex concept has a prototype structure, it often has emergent properties, ones that don't derive from the prototypes of its constituents (e.g., pet fish encodes properties such as brightly coloured, which have no basis in the prototype structure for either pet or fish). Further, many patently complex concepts don't even have a prototype structure.

2.17. Lexical Association Networks

As Grabois (1999: 214) notes, the idea that words are organised into specific semantic systems or lexical networks is not new idea. One bit of evidence supporting the lexical network hypothesis is that in the production of normal speech words are easily accessed thus suggesting that 'they are not floating around haphazardly in our minds' (Aitchison 1994: 214). While several theories have

been proposed to account for the mental organisation of the lexicon , two that have dominated the scene until very recently are the 'classical category theory', dating back to Aristotle, and 'prototype theory', generally ascribed to the work of Rosch (1975; 1978). Grabois (1999: 208) describes the classical category in its modern version, as 'determined by the presence of necessary and sufficient conditions, which allow for clear category boundaries to be drawn. This in turn allows for all members for a category to have equal status.'

The classical category has primarily been employed in formal approaches to semantics, in particular componential analysis, which essentially decomposes a concept into a set of absolute features. Thus, 'woman is decomposed into the following set of features, (+ Noun, + Count, + Animate, + Human, + Adult, + Female). Prototype theory developed as reaction to problems that arose in the classical category approach, not the least of which was 'that not all category members are equal, as predicated by the lexical category theory' (Grabois 1999: 209). Labov (1973), for example, found that people had fuzzy rather than discrete notions of category membership when asked to label such items as 'bowl',' cup', and 'vase'.

Prototype theory posits that people are able to judge which members of a particular category are better representatives of the category than others; thus, 'sparrow' is assumed to be a better representative of the category 'bird' than is 'penguin'. But prototype theory is also not without its problems, in particular with regard to prototypes for abstracts concepts- for example, odd numbers, while people can rely on prototypes to identify categories (Grabois 1999: 209).Aitchison (1994), recalling notion of 'family resemblance', proposes that prototypes may well be comprised of clusters of features that have family resemblance stating that 'prototypes are somewhat like games. They have a family resemblance, but not single definition covers them all' (p.67).

What is considered a prototype in one culture may be quite different in another or from one domain to another within a given culture? Thus, 'sparrow' is not a likely candidate for prototypical bird in parts of the world where sparrow do not live. A prototypical fish may be very different for a sport fisherman than it is

for a commercial fisherman might shift prototypes when participating in a sport fishing competition or when seasonally harvesting different species of fish. Recall from our earlier discussion of empirical and theoretical concepts in the research of Luria (1976), Scribner and Cole (1981), and Tulviste (1991) that members of the same culture may organise their lexical concepts depending on whether they adopt a functional perspective or rely on taxonomic principles-for example, schooled vs. unschooled individuals.

Grabois (1999: 212) suggests that prototypes more closely reflect Vygotsky's notion of pseudo concepts; complex types of everyday thinking; which are formed experientially and therefore, tend to have a functional organization. In opposition, the classical category would be equivalent to Vygotsky's notion of theoretical concepts that are developed principally through participation in formal schooling. Whether an individual relies on everyday or theoretical concepts when thinking may well depend on the nature of the activity at hand- in other words it depends on how things are conceptualised. Everyday concepts are formed from specific experiences (bottom up, to use the standard metaphor) are usually not things we spend a great deal of time reflecting on. Theoretical concepts, on the other hand, are specifically and consciously taught in school, and are much more likely to be visible to us and therefore, more open to conscious control.

The implications of these issues on conceptual networks are profound. For one thing is that to avoid the pitfalls of a semantic model which is based on a single cognitive principle (Grabois 1999: 214). Instead of positing multiple networks, features can be handled by a single network. The meaning of a word depends on 'what part of the network is appropriate (ibid: 215). Jumping ahead to an example from Gravois's studies of L2 conceptual organisation, the word 'electricity', associated with 'power' by many English speakers, is considered a metaphorical extension of power rather than as part of a separate network (p.215).

2. 18. Words Association

One of the most widely used procedures for investigating the organisation of the mental lexicon by means of word-association tasks. The procedure has been

particularly attractive to researchers interested in the conceptual organisation of bilinguals. Clark (1970:272) states that word association is important not because it is interesting in itself, but because it reveals properties of linguistic mechanisms underlying it. Our ability to produce associations is presumably derived from our ability to understand and produce language. According to Clark (1970), word association tasks produce different possibilities as well as combinations.

The history of vocabulary assessment in the twentieth century is very much associated with the development of objective testing, especially in the United States Clark (1970). Objective tests are ones in which the learning material is divided into small units; each of which can be assessed by means of a test item with a single correct answer that can be specified in advance. Most commonly, the items of multiple- choice type are dealt with. The tests are an objective in the sense that they can be scored without requiring any judgment by the scorer as to whether an answer is correct or not. The first modern language tests; for Latin, French and German; were published in the US by Daniel Starch in   a choice items in a similar way, with an L2 word in the stem and four or five L1 words as the options. It is easy to see how vocabulary became popular as a component of objective language tests.

Words could be treated as independent linguistic units with a meaning expressed. As a result; it was relatively straightforward to write a set of multiple – choice items consisting of a word followed by four or five possible meanings, or a matching test comprising jumbled lists of words and short definitions. There was a great deal of work in the 1920's and 1930's to prepare lists of the most frequent words in English, as well as other words that were useful for the needs of particular groups of students.

According to Lado (1961: 181) similar to that, more limited work done on the vocabulary of major European languages. These lists provided a large stock of vocabulary items that could be conveniently sampled to select the target words for a test. Multiple choice vocabulary tests proved to have excellent technical theory. Well written items could discriminate effectively among learners according to their level of ability, and thus the tests were highly reliable.

Rather than simply measuring vocabulary knowledge, objective vocabulary tests seemed to be valid indicators of language ability in a broad sense. As Anderson and Freebody (1981:78-80) noted, one of the most consistent findings in L1 reading research has been shown to apply in second language assessment (e.g. Pike, 1979). Furthermore, 'the strong relationship between vocabulary and general intelligence is one of the most robust findings in the history of intelligence testing.' (Anderson and Freebody, 1981:77)

In parallel, great deal of evidence testifies to a strong relationship between vocabulary and comprehension. As Baumann (2005) points out, the evidence for this relationship includes:

- the close relationship between vocabulary and IQ,
- early descriptive studies,
- a number of correlational and factor analytic studies,
- the close relationship between vocabulary and achievement tests, and
- the centrality of vocabulary to readability.

2. 19. Implicit & Explicit Knowledge

Focused communicative tasks involving both reception and production are of considerable value to both researchers and teachers. For researchers, they provide a means of measuring whether learners have acquired a specific feature. They are often preferred to tests because they provide evidence of what learners do when they are not consciously focused on using a form correctly and thus can be considered to elicit implicit knowledge rather than explicit one.

Focused tasks are of value to teachers because they provide a means of teaching specific linguistic features communicatively. There are two psycholinguistic bases for focused communicative tasks. The first involves skill-building theories and the notion of automatic processing found. The second rests on accounts of implicit learning, the claimed importance of noticing and noticing-

the-gap in the context of what Long (1988-1991) has called 'focused-on-form', i.e. the incidental attention to form in the context of communicative activity.

The word ""to understand" is used to characterise the relationship between two concepts (A and B) in the metaphorical process. But what does it mean exactly that A is understood in terms of B? The answer is that there is a set of systematic correspondences between the source and the target in the sense that constituent conceptual elements of B correspond to constituent elements of A Kovecses (2002, 2005).

Technically, these conceptual correspondences are often referred to as mapping. In other words, constituent elements of conceptual domain A are in systematic correspondence with constituent elements in the target domain B. From this discussion it might seem that the elements in the target domain have been there all along and that people came up with the metaphor because there were pre-existing similarities between the elements in the two domains Kovecses (2002, 2005). We can now consider another example of how correspondences, or mappings, make up a conceptual metaphor?

e.g., SOCIAL ORGANISATIONS ARE PLANTS

Plants Mapping	Social Organisations Mapping
branch ----------------------------	He works for the local <u>branch</u> of the bank.
growing --	Our company is <u>growing.</u>
prune --------------------------------------	They had to <u>prune </u>the workforce.
rooted -------------------------	The organisation was <u>rooted </u>in the old church.
flourishing-----------	There is now a <u>flourishing </u>black market in software there.
blossomed ----His business <u>blossomed </u>when the railways put his establishment within reach of the big city.	

Table 2.5 Kovecses's Correspondences between Social Organisations & Plants

This seems to be characterised by the following set of mappings:

Source: PLANT   Target: SOCIAL ORGANISATION

Source: Kovecses (2002. p.8)

Orientational metaphors provide even less conceptual structure for target concepts than ontological ones. Their cognitive job, instead, is to make a set of target concepts coherent in our conceptual system Grabois (1999). The labelling 'orientational metaphor' is derived from the fact that most metaphors that serve this function have to do with basic human spatial orientations, such as: up-down, centre – periphery, etc. It would perhaps be more appropriated to call this type of conceptual metaphor 'coherence metaphor' Lakoff (1987), which would be more in line with the cognitive function that these metaphors perform.

By coherence, we simply mean that certain target concepts tend to be conceptualised in a uniform manner by an "upward" orientation, while their opposites receive a "downward» orientation e.g., MORE IS UP, LESS IS DOWN: Speak up please, keep your voice down, please. CONTROL IS UP, LACK OF CONTROL IS DOWN: I'm on top of the situation. He is under my control. Upward orientation tends to go together with positive evaluation, while downward orientation with a negative one.

But positive or negative evaluation is not limited to the spatial orientation up and down. It has been pointed out that various spatial image schemas are bipolar and bivalent Lakoff (1987). Thus, whole, centre, link, balance, in, goal, periphery, no link imbalance, out, no goal, and back as negative. Just to give one example, it is remarkable that in English the phrase 'half the man 'denotes someone who is not positively viewed, as in He is half the man he used to be. Obviously, the whole vs not whole opposition is at work here.

2. 20. Conclusion

Chapter two traced the path of metaphor researches. Starting from Rosch (1975), who claimed that metaphor, is related to thought. The two exponents of the

conceptual metaphor theory Lakoff and Johnson (1981) regard metaphor as a way of thinking or a matter of mind. This idea made possible the conceptualisation of metaphor. In the same direction the psychologist Gibbs (1992, 1994, 1999) went further in associating metaphor with the cultural aspect. Because human beings, no matter which language they speak, share these experiences; this is a level that corresponds to the universal aspects of metaphor. The synthesis from a cognitive perspective is that the metaphors that have unconsciously been built into the language by long established conventions are most important ones. We often use related metaphors to conceptualise how linguistic communication works. Some metaphors illustrate the conventional image that when we speak we take ideas, thoughts, and emotions and put them into words and sentences. Others are linguistic reflections of the metaphor that sees linguistic communication as the transfer of thoughts and feelings by means of language. The analytical part will display students' competences in metaphor interpretation and production. In parallel, it will treat in depth the research tools revelations.

CHAPTER THREE

EXAMINING LEARNERS' METAPHORICAL BIAS

CONTENT

3.1. Introduction

In the previous chapters I have outlined the research that has warranted this study as well as provided a conceptual framework, specifically, delving into learners' attitudes toward metaphor depiction. Fifty students were the essence of this modest attempt to explore how a non- native learner approach metaphorical expressions. The Pre-test and the Post-test are two tools that would become the basis for this analysis. Furthermore, trying to capture the sampling response to the figurative language, the researcher attributes a paramount importance to the enrolling of the administered tests as well as to the interval period between them (improvement or stagnation). Basically, the understanding of metaphor goes much deeper than a simple comparison between two objects or sets. Broadly, this is what the students have grasped from the beginning, but going further in their conceptual mapping was somewhat problematic. Generally, describing unfamiliar issues in such complex and profound manner seems to be a way for grappling with new experiences, flexibility, and pliant mind. Accounting conceptual metaphor as an explicit concept in conjunction with other forms of figurative language is the major concern of this part. The rationale for this study stems from Ortony's (1984) research on metaphor use in the classroom. The emphasis is then on the degree of ease as well as plasticity the learners can acquire in managing their interpretations.

3.2. Metaphorical Language & Semantics Interplay

Historical semantics studies, among other things, the historical development of the senses of words. A major question is whether the changes are random and unpredictable or there are systematic changes in the development of the senses of related words Sweetser (1990). Cognitive linguistics has made interesting discoveries in this field as well, in light of which it has become possible to explain phenomena that were unaccounted for or simply unrecognised before. In many such cases, the cognitive mechanisms that helped scholars in their work were again metaphor and metonymy. They highlighted as they allowed a profound understanding of some mental processes related to higher mental levels.

a. Model Verbs

Modal verbs in English and in many other languages develop their senses in a certain direction: from the so-called root sense to what is called the epistemic sense. The root sense has to do with socio-physical obligation, permission, and ability, whereas the epistemic sense involves logical necessity and probability. The two senses can be illustrated in the case of the modal 'must' as follows:

a- John must be home by ten, mother won't let him stay out any later.
b- John must be home already; I can see his coat.   Sweetser (1990)

In (a), we make a statement about a social obligation, while in (b) we make a logical inference on the basis of some evidence. Thus, (a) exemplifies the root sense and (b) the epistemic sense of must. The root senses of must, may, might, can, will, etc, tend to appear historically before the epistemic senses of the same modals.

The question that imposes itself is the case that the epistemic senses of models drive historically from the root sense? Sweetser's (1990) idea is that the root senses reflect a reality external to the speaker, while the epistemic senses a reality external to the speaker given this, it becomes possible to conceptualise the internal in terms of the external (i.e., INTERNAL IS EXTERNAL), the less physical in terms of the more physical, that is, to apply what Sweetser (1990) terms THE MIND AS BODY metaphor. But what is the structure of the external reality associated with root modality, such as social obligation, permission, and so on.

Sweetser (1990) argues that is structured by force, dynamic notions (such as force that compels one to act in someway) and barrier (to action). Thus, it is based on the metaphor THE SOCIAL WORLD is THE PHYSICAL WORLD. In the case of the root sense of must, a social force (understood as a physical force) compels an entity to do something. But what corresponds to this social force in the case of the epistemic sense? Consider the following pair of examples, illustrating the two senses of must (a corresponding to the root sense, b to the epistemic one):

(a) You must come home by ten.

(b) You must have been out last night.   Sweetser (1990)

To reveal the difference in meaning between the two senses, we can distinguish the two sentences as follows:

(a) "A social authority (mother) compels you to come by ten."

(b) "Some evidence (I saw the light in your room) compels me to conclude that you were home last night."   Sweetser (1990)

The social force of the root model in (a) corresponds to some evidence available to the speaker in (b). In other words, the epistemic sense (the internal world of the speaker) is comprehended via the social sense as structured by physical forces. In another example, let us take the model may. This can be illustrated with the sentence pair:

(a)   John may go.

(b)   John may be there.

(a)   "John is not barred by authority from going."

(b)   "The speaker is not barred from the conclusion that john is there."

Source: The above examples are borrowed from Sweetser (1990). From Etymology to Pragmatics: The Mind -as Body Metaphor in Semantic Structure and Change.

Here as well, the social world is understood in terms of the physical world, and the social world so understood is used as a source domain for the comprehension of the internal world of epistemic modality. It should be noticed that the historical development of the modal senses from root to epistemic is at the same time a case of polysemy: meaning differentiation through time. It is thus, not surprising that the same mechanisms that apply to polysemy, such as metaphor, apply and produce historically new senses. But of course, the new senses coexist today and constitute true cases of polysemy.

b. Grammar

(Lakoff and Johnson 1980) showed that conceptual metaphor plays a role in grammar as well. Other researchers have found that conceptual metonymy should also be taken into account if we wish to understand some grammatical phenomena in actual language. One aspect for grammar involves morphology, that is, the study of the smallest meaningful elements (morphemes) of language and their combinations. One question that arises in morphology is the following: What is the cognitive basis of shifting the grammatical status of words and expressions from one class to another? It is a well known phenomenon that speakers of languages often shift the grammatical classes of words. This is called functional shift, or conversation, and involves cases such as shifting nouns to verbs, verbs to nouns, adjectives to verbs nouns to adjectives, etc.

c. Denominal Verbs

The (Clark and Clark's 1979) work on the so- called denominal verbs, involves noun-to-verb shifts, as an example to demonstrate the point that metonymy may be involved in various aspects of grammar and conceptualisation, and it is not only and simply a property of isolated words. Clark and Clark ask the question: Why do people readily create and understand denominal verb? Like porch (enclose) the newspaper and Houdini (name of a famous magician) one's way of a closet (chamber), that they may have never heard before? The denominal verbs in the expressions are Porch and Houdini, which represent noun-to- verb shifts. Clark and Clark's (1979) proposal is that in using such verbs people follow a convention: **"the speaker means to denote the kind of state, event, or process that, he has good reason to believe, the listener can readily and uniquely compute on this occasion on the basis of their shared knowledge."**(1979, p.767) **1**

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1. Clark emphasises reasonability, plausibility, and consistency on behalf of the listener in order to be in harmony with the speaker regarding their shared knowledge. Besides, he has many articles tackling semantics and language such as: Semantics & Comprehension (1976), Arenas of Language Use (1992), and Using Language (1996).

d. Denominal Adjectives

Denominals are formed from nouns belonging to semantic categories whose members share the same meaning. Denominal adjectives for example are formed from a noun, usually with the addition of a suffix such as: earthen- Kennedyesque- Hollywoodian- etc. Denominal adjectives are frequently used in metaphorical language. We are concerned in this section with the effects of denominalisation 'rule derived' on production and comprehension of figurative language. Therefore, denominalisation occupies a great deal of metaphorical vocabulary. In the following examples, the way the detective was listening to the woman's tales is characterised by an extreme attention. The fact of being 'all ears to somebody' is expressed differently and demoninally: wood------wooden, as in 'with a wooden face'; the same relation of derivability is applicable in e.g. 2: gold-----golden.

e.g.,   1. The detective listened to her tales with a <u>wooden face</u>.

2. Her hair was a flowering <u>golden river</u> steaming down her shoulders.

As far as our population is concerned, participants came to recognise denominals, thanks to their structure v + suffix or n + suffix and distinguish them from other parts of the speech including grammar words as well as function words. The functional shift students made on purpose was for the sake of explaining, displaying their understanding, and showing how well they have depicted the metaphors.

3. 3. Learners' Idiosyncratic Abilities

Learners not only use strategies that they have developed during their learning process, but they imply what we call idiosyncrasies to ensure a better understanding of classroom language as well. The term idiosyncrasy comes from Ancient Greek, idiosyngkrasia, which means a peculiar temperament, habit of body, etc. The prefix idio means 'one's own', syn means 'with', gkrasia is equivocal to mixture, and it is defined as an individualising quality or characteristic of a person or group to express eccentricity (paraphrased from Wikipedia). The starting point is that any individual or group has his / her / its proper way to approach learning materials.

The target population as a group belonging to the same level of learning, sharing the same age, and learning antecedents (see chapter one) has a priori a

shared perception. However, when starting reading their interpretations, asymmetry emerges at different levels. Firstly, flagrant syntactic disorder, rigid manipulation of language, and obviously grammatical lacuna were noticed. Besides, the way they have conveyed their replies revealed an individualistic reasoning and idiosyncratic response that disconnected the common idiosyncrasy.

Second, respondents were dismantled with regard to their linguistic abilities. Quite contrastive answers were registered due to language proficiency level and other considerations worth encapsulating in the coming analysis. Third, the way some of them had covered their interpretations was pertinent and seemingly geared by metaphorical competence. Third, what appears relevant to encompass is that even though some of them were slightly relevant in their analyses, but communicating them in a correct language seemed problematic. Eventually, it is not enough to understand the matter correctly; its conveyance has a lot to do with the entire success of figure depiction.

Hence, being linguistically proficient provides a great contribution to reaching pertinence in metaphorical language. This implies that lack of accurate language sinks meaning conveyance. In other words, accurate language determines   a better communicated interpretation, since nearly the half of the respondents came to reach the exact depiction of the proposed figures of speech. Ultimately, this affords a triangulation in considering figurative language interpretation, a- possessing metaphorical competence, b- enjoying correct language, c- and being equipped with metaphorical culture (knowledge of factual information).

3.4. Learners' Metacognitive Skills

Metacognition refers to learners' automatic awareness of their own knowledge and their ability to understand, control, and manipulate their own cognitive processes. Metacognitive skills are important not only in education, but throughout life. A person who can identify and overcome difficulties, can bring learning from off- the - job learning to on- the- job situations [2]. Most metacognitive research falls within the following categories Mumford (1996):

1. **Metamemory:** refers to awareness of and knowledge about one's own memory systems and strategies in an effective way. Metamemory includes (a) awareness of different memory strategies, (b) knowledge of which strategy to use for a particular memory task, and (c) knowledge of how to use a given memory strategy most effectively. Participants relied on their memories to recognise the different figures of speech proposed to them that they have already tackled within the courses of written expression as an initiation to figurative language) and in literature subject matter too.

2. **Metacomprehension:** is having the ability to monitor the degree to which the person understands information being communicated to him / her, to recognise failures to comprehend, and to employ repair strategies when failures occur. Respondents were asked to cope with interpretative as well as translative tasks. Although interpretation was a novel concept for them, but they managed their replies. Students with poor metacomprehension skills often finish depicting metaphors without even knowing that they have not understood them. However, learners who are more adept at metacomprehension will check for confusion or inconsistency, and undertake a corrective strategy, such as re-reading, relating different parts of the metaphor to one another, or relating the current information to prior knowledge.

3. **Self- regulation:**   is having the ability to make adjustments and manipulating one's learning processes in response to perception of feedback with regard to one's current status of learning. The concept of self- regulation overlaps with the ability of monitoring one's   learning and the awareness of and knowledge about our memories. Participants were aware of the fact that the current task relies on the prior knowledge they had, i.e. knowledge about the cultural entailments of the proposed metaphors.   In addition to the appropriateness (the degree   to   which this prerequisite is suitable) of   the chosen   strategies,

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2. Mumford (1996) says that it is essential that an effective manager be a person who has learned to learn. He describes this person as one who knows the stages in the process of learning and understands his or her preferred approaches to it.

students should not only understand what strategies are available, but also the purposes these strategies will serve.

Metacognition often has important affective or personality components. For example, a great deal of comprehension consists of approaching a reading task with the attitude that the topic is interesting and worth comprehending. Being aware of the positive attitude and deliberately fostering such an attitude is an example of a metacognitive skill. Hence, knowledge of factual information and basic abilities provides a foundation for developing metacognitive skills.

3.5. Learners' Metaphorical Competence

The Pre-test and Post-test reflect sharply the respondents' metaphorical bias in the initial stage as well as the final. In this respect, the difference between the Pret and the Post was noticeable at three levels: Since the two tests were administered separately, one in May 2011 and the other in May 2013, the two years length between them constitutes a significant variable for the overall analysis. This means that a language learner in his / her first year of graduation is not the same as in the third year. This implies that he/ she becomes more knowledgeable, more skilful, and more competent linguistically and even metaphorically.

Encountering metaphorical expressions orbits figurative language, thus customising students to deal basically with metaphors, idioms, and analogies opens doors to further thorough explorations. Yet, the target population started dealing with these in both subject matters Written Expression and Literature since the first year of the degree. But this does not mean that students had not a metaphorical prerequisite learned in the secondary level, they were lightly equipped with some notions in this domain. What was noticeable at the beginning is that they immediately translated the encountered metaphors and idiomatic expressions into the Arabic language.

The Pret consists of eight items, four idiomatic phrases and four conventional metaphors. It was felt that any task complexity that might have arisen in experiment one was maintained or became more complex, other CVM s were

proposed in the Post. Therefore, conventionality was irreplaceable criterion among other criteria like: accessibility of the language, i.e. a simple language that fits first year language learners. Basic verbs were used such as to pull, to use, to ring, to lead, to send, to measure, etc. Metaphorical expressions were built up with familiar words such as: carpet, vessels, bell, way, journey, ideas, food, etc.

The Post language was quite advanced, even responses were more elaborated. It comprises three instructions, the first consisted of identifying three expressions, the second was to interpret them, and the third, consisted of translating them into French or Arabic. The third instruction aimed at checking understanding as well as spotting any cultural interference. In other words, it seemed paramount to investigate whether L2 learners consider their L1 as a reference so as to understand some societal phenomena, therefore, trying to duplicate them.

We made the difference between conventional metaphors and non-conventional ones, when dealing with conventionality. This explains that they knew before hand that they have to handle internationally employed expressions that every English speaker comprehends. Nevertheless, some of them came to convey relevant interpretations, the others tried, but language adequacy hindered them to communicate exactly what they wanted to write. In addition, what was noticed is that they could hardly depict the four idiomatic phrases which were: 1.*Pulling the carpet under feet, 2.Using two different vessels for measuring, 3.Ringing the danger bell,* and *4. The way leads to each other*, whereas, metaphors interpretation was enjoyable task for certain students.

Students in the first year of their degree usually adept at decoding words, but many still have troubles identifying source domains and concepmapping. Figurative language is quite difficult to approach, because many of them grasp only the literal meanings of words. In the second idiomatic phrase that was proposed to participants: '*using two different vessels for measuring*', the fact of making the link between vessels and measuring was problematic. Therefore, matching two different, may be contrastive, domains by extrapolating a shared feature seemed too far reaching. Perhaps, what they could reach was lenient

achievement, approximate replies were registered this is what the Pret revealed, except course leaders who gave pertinent answers.

3.6. In-depth Analysis of Learners' Metaphorical Interactive Awareness

The juxtaposition of conceptual domains or relating conceptual domains and life expressions, richness of knowledge, and enjoying metaphorical thinking; these are the three basic ingredients in metaphor interpretation. Therefore, interactive awareness implies the fact of becoming aware of how metaphor works. This glimpse on metaphor anatomy is always attached to the way in which metaphorical meanings are connected with literal meanings, this is on the one hand. On the other, trying to relate new words and expressions that we come across in our reading to the words we already know.

Spotting any metaphorical awareness is based on what came above and will be taken as a reference. Section two of the Pret was devoted for metaphor depiction, four CVM s were proposed to the participants: HAPPY IS UP, LIFE IS A JOURNEY, COMMUNICATING IS SENDING, and IDEAS ARE FOOD. The accessibility of their vocabulary was for a great help in acceding to the tenor thus depicting them with a certain ease. Moreover, participants were kin to reach true interpretations as if they become acquainted with metaphor mechanisms; we can assume thus, that they possess IAM.

In fact, the proposed metaphors did not require a great deal of tacit knowledge retrieval, apart some beliefs like the fact of feeding our bodies and minds as well, or the brief duration that life has with its amazing succession of events. Furthermore, they distinguished between containers which are Life, Ideas, Communicating, Happy, and vehicles which are: journey, food, sending, and up. Besides, respondents accounted pivot roles that the vehicles play in these CVM s comprehension, even extensions of the vehicle concepts were stifled with respect to intended domains. For example, in HAPPY IS UP metaphor, the vehicle up has several extensions related to the well being: mental adaptability, compatibility, intellectual brilliance, success, self-satisfaction, remarkable accomplishments, etc.

When both the container and the vehicle are inspiring, the predictability of relevance with respect to the degree of inference is high to not say optimal. This means that almost 80% of the respondents gave correct interpretations, among this percentage lies 20% of pertinent answers delivered by course leaders. Very able as well as able and less able replies are worth illustrating here as samplings not randomly selected. The researcher has chosen one answer sheet from each learners' groupings (see Appendices A1 B1 C1):

1. Very able students' responses:

a. When we are happy we feel just like we are flying up.

b. When we are rich and you have a good and up status in society you are happy because you are not waiting for someone to give you what you need.

c. It means that the happiness makes people feel so high.

d. It means that we are just passengers in this life and it is like a travel.

2. Able students' responses:

a. This means that when we feel great and good is like when we are on the top.

b. It means that when you are happy you feel like you are in the sky or flying.

c. To be happy is to make yourself in a good moral position and to stay always a hopeful one.

d. Being happy is being hopeful and optimistic and cheerful.

3. Less able students' responses:

a. When you are happy, you feel that you are not anxious, great feeling make you up.

b. Life is very short so we shall make good things.

c. Ideas are food of minds.

d. When you communicate with others, you send your ideas, feelings, and information.

Throughout these samplings, students could, to a certain extent, convey their interpretative versions. This means that, most of these are relevantly depicted, but surely not, perfectly done; at the expense of grammar they have proceeded so as to manage true interpretations. However, grammatical lacunae did not constitute an

obstacle for them to communicate what they thought expressing one's opinion. The way some students had conceived the container of the HAPPY IS UP metaphor: as being on the top, absence of anxiety, flying up, etc. Therefore, they have tied terminology newly learned with the one they had as in LIFE IS A JOURNEY metaphor: the container 'journey' was substituted in meaning by: a travel, a short period, brief moment to live, etc. Being aware of the mechanisms of metaphor is a tremendous step leading to metaphor comprehension. Nevertheless, subconsciously acting, participants had shown IAM i.e., a significant attraction to metaphorical language. Overall, not all types of figurative language concern the target population since they afforded trivial interest to idiomatic expressions.

It is convenient to say in this respect, in order to avoid generalisation, that not all metaphorical language notably CVM s language is approachable. From this angle the researcher has viewed the selection of the above metaphors not as a challenging task, but as tendency test. As far as the choice of the four idioms was not random, but on the basis of common knowledge: the first one is: *Pulling the carpet under feet*, the second is *Using two different vessels for measuring,* the third, *Ringing the danger bell*, the fourth one is: *The way leads to each other*.

Additionally, thanks to the differences of our brain hemispheres, we can accomplish heavy as well as light mental tasks. For instance, what catches our attention and sticks with us is what we see and feel via our right hemisphere. After that, the left part of the brain in this context can be engaged in the rational nature of the metaphorical information itself. In other words, T K retrieved for a given task from this rank serves to broadly cover the entailments of the matter in hand. Furthermore, cultural as well as linguistic background fit together so as to yield approximate, or sometimes accurate interpretation of a given figure of speech. Nonetheless, L2 learners struggle to comprehend intricate CVs, which are generally focussed on rather than none conventional ones.

What is worth starting with is the emphasis that we should put on the split participants have made between metaphors and idioms. Therefore, idiomatic language appeared quite ambiguous for them, they replied with a great deal of reticence and lack of ease. Almost 25% gave half answers, the remaining

percentage which is 73% belongs to those who answered to both tasks and thus most of them fail to reach the accurate depiction. Nearly 02 % submitted empty sheets. Bellow is displayed learners' idiomatic language and metaphoric language acceptance as well as abstention rate:
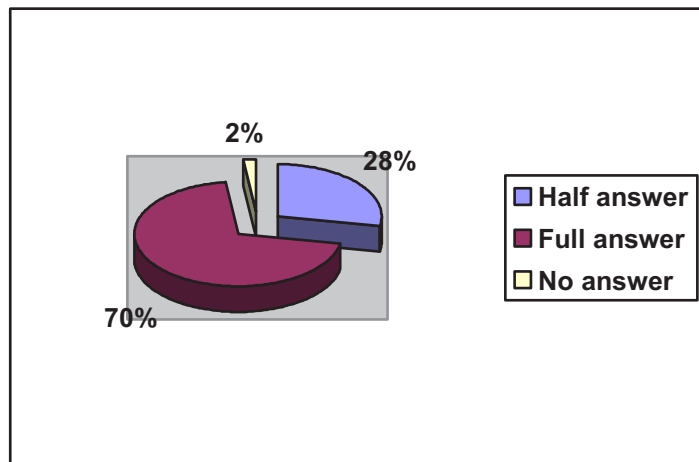
Pie chart: 3.1   Learners' Idiomatic & Metaphoric Language Acceptance

Comment

Over 70 % of the subjects accounted metaphor interpretation more than idiomatic phrases depiction. Therefore, those who have provided full replies emphasised on the correctness of metaphors rather than idioms. Apriori, the accessibility of metaphorical language (not all ML, but the current CVM s language) affords an accentuation of concentration, or let's say tendency versus eccentricity upon idiomatic one. Thus, metaphors monopolised 50 % out of 70, which is the percentage of full answers and that random guesses were merely idiomatic. That's why, the Post focuses on metaphor, and only metaphor, interpretation as well as students' ability of improvising metaphors.

3.7. Pre- test Revelations

The Pret administered in May 2011 comprises four idiomatic phrases and four conventional metaphors. It was designed   after clarifying the notion of figurative language in general. This means that students knew the content of the test because they dealt with previously. What was proposed to them was simple, accessible not intricate or opaque CVM s, so was for idioms. Firstly, the suggested set of idiomatic phrases was based on emotional data as well as daily experience (inspired by idioms testing Nayak & Gibbs 1990). Secondly, the conceptual metaphors embodied experiences corresponding to how a given language and culture reflects its patterns. Therefore, participants were required to interpret them in accordance to what they have deduced, since both are down - to-earth. The starting principle is that straightforward idiomatic phrases are supposed to allow ease of understanding and accessible CM s can afford accessibility as well.

In order to be fair, the researcher took into account these two parameters. On the one hand, the prior knowledge respondents had with regard to figurative language; on the other, suggesting not overly ornate idioms and CM s to encounter. The Pret revealed learners' concentration on metaphor interpretation rather than idioms, because 70% of the full answers encompasses correct CM s depiction more than idiomatic phrases. The expected estimation of wrong replies was, as in actual ratings, idiomatic. Thus, the potential rate was metaphoric; this implies that an obvious tendency upon CM emerged. Regarding their sharp keen-ness on CM, the Post was designed to account exclusively its interpretation as well as generation.

Therefore, the purpose behind mixing idiomatic phrases with CM s within the Pret was to spot preferences without compelling students. Awkwardness appeared notably in handling idioms. Consequently, trying to approach CM for the sake of measuring metaphorical competence which might yield to learnability or unlearnability property is in fact the intent of this analysis. For that, following the target population during two years long might achieve the above mentioned scope. Eventually, if CM disposes of learnability property the coming treatments are indispensably pertaining to metaphor attainment.

a. CM 1 Analysis

The focus is then on the way respondents approached the suggested CM s, after categorising them into three groupings regarding their metaphorical competence. The respective groupings achieved convergent and sometimes divergent results. The first CM, LIFE IS A JOURNEY, there were different levels of conceiving the source domain 'life' and the target one 'journey', so it was for the concemap. Further, conceptual mapping is mental process that occurs in the human being's mind so as to depict relationships between concepts. A graphical tool is adopted below displaying how a language learner organises and structures his / her knowledge hierarchically. In this instance, respondents conceived a number of concemaps so as to cover conceptual entailments:
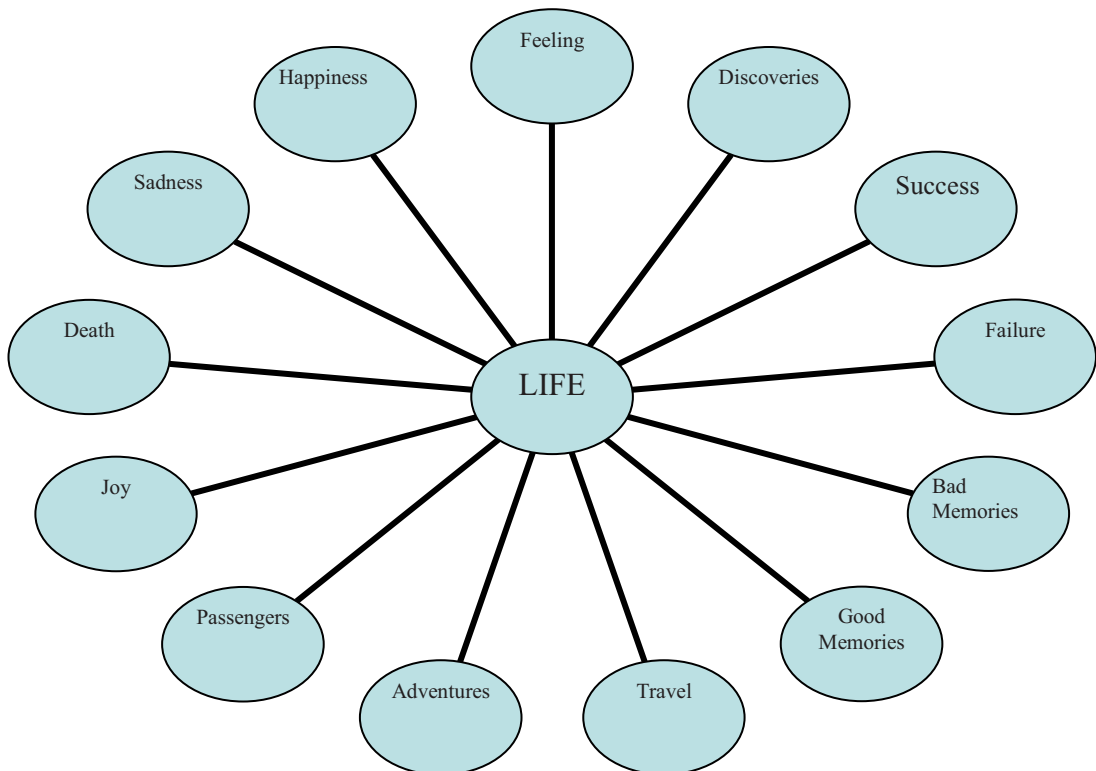
Figure: 3.2   Learners' Conception of the Concept 'Life'

Comment:

The above technique of visualising what resides in the brain as a conceptual net is called conceptual mapping, which is the relationship between different concepts. The proposed material in the first CM constituted a fostering agent leading to activation of a set of interrelated concepts pertaining to the initial one. What the respondents have generated reflected the availability of conceptual adjacency close to 'Life'. The constraint, among other constraints, was notably on the unreadiness of appropriate concepts, or spelling lacunae, or syntactic mistakes that impeded them to write in a correct way one's concept / term. In fact, the picked up concepts were correctly written which was not the case for misspelled terms:

> e.g. 1 "begening and ending don't last long"
>
> e.g. 2 " life is like an text"
>
> e.g. 3 "life is temperatly moment and exam that lived"
>
> e.g., 4 "what ever you live you finally day life spend like a day"

Some students' replies were constrained as cited in the previous page by several hindrances such as spelling, syntactic, grammatical, and unavailability of concemaps. Therefore, what seems significant in this analysis regardless of grammar or syntax is the unavailability of conceptual coverage. Thus, the amalgam that a L2 learner might fall into is digressed from the present study. The amalgam that could occur concerns conceptual mappings from different domains of life i.e. knowledge management, but it was not the case. Moreover, relevant T K respondents disposed to was at asymmetrical degrees sufficient, for example consider, interpretative expressions that some subjects held:

In the CM   IDEAS ARE FOOD, they retrieved the followings: Our bodies need food in order to stay alive; also our brains need ideas to work. Ideas are the power which makes the brain works. And, knowledge feeds our brains as food does for our bodies. These students' samples converge to the same interpretation and the most relevant one. Practically, more than 90% of the participants encountered this

CM in this way, although great deal of them were constrained by grammatico-syntactic inaccuracy. The bargraph bellow tries to clear out these data:
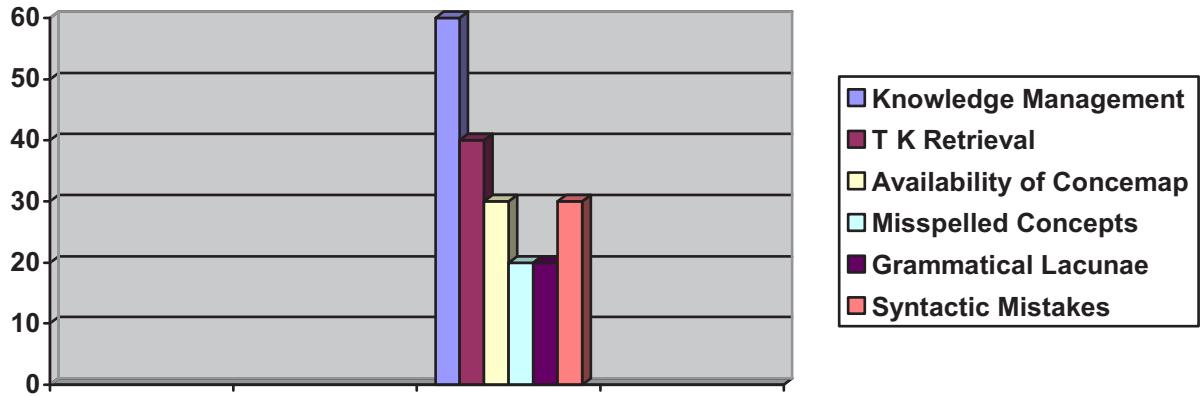
Bargraph 3.1 Learners' Encountering of LIFE IS A JOURNEY CM

Comment:

According to the above graph (*KM = 60 + TK = 40 +* unavailability of Concemap *= 30) = 130, is rate of embedded features yielding to MC investigation.* This implies that any latent metaphorical ability appears through out this triangulation. Grammar end syntax lacunae are attributed to lack of practice since participants are still in their first year; this means that some rules need fossilisation. The essence of metaphorical competence is then, tacit knowledge retrieval which is experience- based knowledge in addition to skill to monitor it.

b. CM 2 Analysis

The second suggested metaphor IDEAS ARE FOOD was encountered by the entire number of students apart 02% without including the abstention percentage which means *(50 subjects - 02 = 48 interpretations).* So, the elicited concemap of this CM is: Thought, Enrichment, Intelligence, Power, Project, Development, Knowledge, and Strength. What is worth entailing here is that 48 respondents structured the same cluster of concepts thereby the original focus. This procedure

generally occurs within cluster analysis step. The bargraph below demonstrates the related percentages:
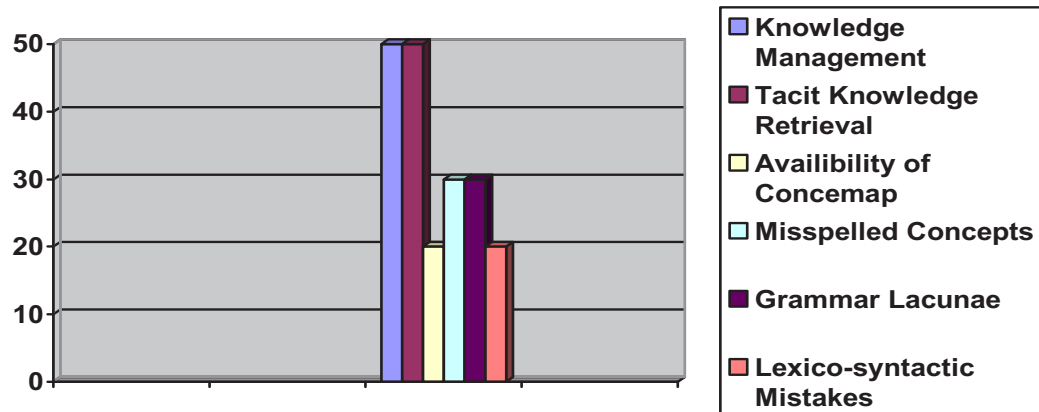
Bargraph 3.2 Learners' Encountering of IDEAS ARE FOOD CM

Comment

Some changes occurred between the previous interpretation and this one at the level of the interpretative triangulation. The input fragmentation has been treated in the same way at almost all the participants. Apriori, the second CM generates the same webbing and that connotation rate was quite higher than in LIFE IS A JOURNEY, this can be attributed to the transparency of both source and target domains. In other words, the assent that took place among the respondents can be argued by the clarity of the original focus i.e. the vehicle as well as the tenor explicitness.

The obtained MC equation is then *(KM = 50 + TK = 50 + concemap = 20) = 120*. The point is that the more complex metaphors are the fewer connotations will be, and the more simple metaphors are the more connotations will generate; metaphor simplicity thus fluids conceptwebbing process.

c. MC 3 Analysis

In COMMUNICATING IS SENDING CM, the answers rate pertaining to a relevant or half-relevant depiction is quite few i.e., over 30% of it constitutes inappropriate concemap. Thereby, the retrieved tacit knowledge did not cover the spectrum of communication which is the source domain here. Therefore, it is

convenient to site some elicited concepts from students' replies: Relationships, Sincerity, Love, Kindness, Clarity, Reception, Feelings, Messages, and Opinions. The abstention rate was remarkably high in comparison with the three previous CM s; apparently, semi- opacity surrounded this metaphor due to vagueness of the target domain 'sending'. The registered rates are the followings:
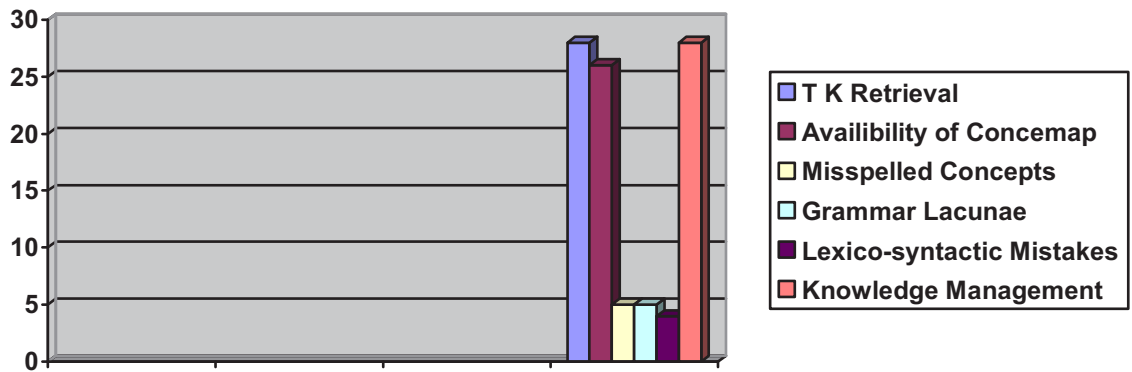
Bargraph 3.3 Learners' Encountering of COMMUNICATING IS SENDING CM

Comment

According to the graph, tacit knowledge rate is 30% and knowledge management is 30% too, besides these there is the availability of concept mapping which is 10%. So the equation is *(TK = 30 + KM = 30 + concemap = 30) all = 90, this seems an insufficient rate yielding to an acceptable MC level).* Therefore, the origin of the hindrance might be: first, the vagueness of the target domain 'sending'; second: its lack of logic, since more than the half of the total number of respondents did not succeed to reach a plausible interpretation- or at least palatable-   of 'sending' which is the necessity of expressing one's self in order to be understood, whatever the instance is and by whatever means.

d. CM 4 Analysis

From the first checking HAPPY IS UP CM seemed to be conceptually greatly accepted by more than 60 % of the subjects. Therefore, both the vehicle and the tenor are in absolute compatibility, that is why the human brain tends to assimilate

more easily convergent input rather than divergent one in such instances. But, what went wrong in this conceptual conventional metaphor is that the available vocabulary that affords a good coverage regarding the wealth of ideas did not seem to be at their disposal. This implies that, the respondents' evocation of conceptual mapping that governs this CM was quite restricted. The graph below tries to interpret in number the above data:
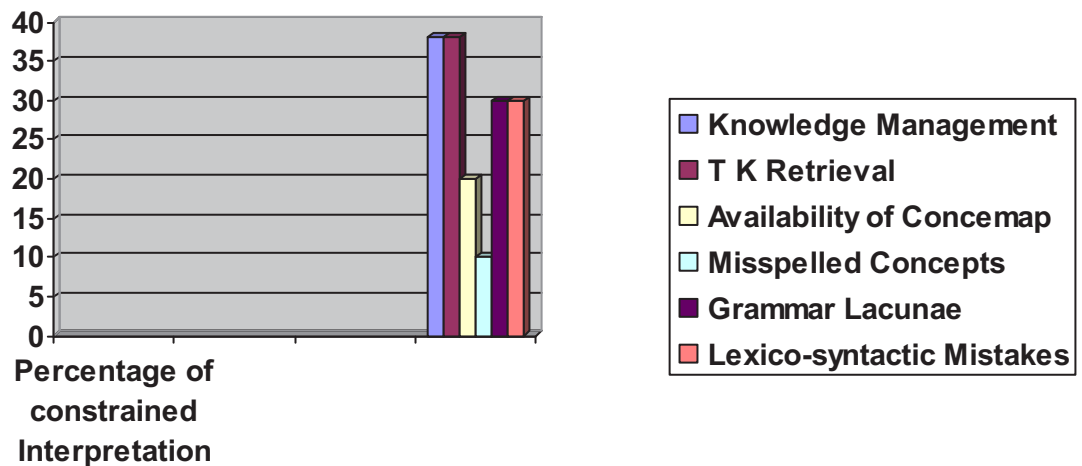
Bargraph 3.4: Learners' Encountering of HAPPY IS UP CM

Comment:

The elucidation of the target domain 'up' was not fully covered, the way participants operated was quite economic regarding the amount of inspiration that could this term generate. Up is perhaps considered in all cultures 'something good that the one can live 'or generally, 'having good posture in all domains of life'. In addition to that, students fell in the mistake of retrieving concepts that have no link with both domains, for example: "Expressing one's self is one of the best wishes in this life". So, the concemap related to this CM, as it was provided by some testees, is: Status,   Richness, High, Optimism, Cheerfulness, Feelings, Happiness, Wishes, Sky, Top, Heaven, Joy, etc. Thence, the respective collected ratings are the followings:

(T K = 40 + K M = 40 + Availability of concemap = 20) = 100

e. Comparative Account

The cornerstone of a successful interpretation is then the triangular overlapping of the three elements which are *(appropriate T K + CM adequacy + logical KM)*. In other words, their occurrence is an unconscious activation of an extremely complex mechanism prior delivery, which consists of displaying metaphorical patents. Suppose that the scale is on 200 top, the analysis of the four CM s reveals asymmetry in learners' encountering, more than that, we notice a flagrant gap notably between the second and the third CM s, consider:

IDEAS ARE FOOD --- reached 150 out of 200, whereas the third CM COMMUNICATING IS   SENDING ---- reached 70 out of 200. Thus, the juxtaposition of conceptual domains that the participants ought to attain in COMMUNICATING IS SENDING did not occur and that layering as far as the target domain is concerned was not sharp. Because the essential structural property of metaphor is that it represents layered conceptualisation of the target domain. However, the simplicity of IDEAS ARE FOOD C M allowed an easy interaction among conceptual domains. The target domain 'food' for example has as conceptual layering: -knowledge, Enlightenment, Enrichment, Improvement, Evolution, etc.

The results of the Pre-test administered in May 2011 were: (1) an obvious tendency upon metaphor rather than idioms. Additionally, subjects could handle metaphorical language better than idiomatic one. Thus, metaphorical mechanisms seem to be more approachable / comprehensible than the idiomatic ones. (2) 1st year students, previously exposed to metaphor, could encounter simple conceptual metaphors; and that they handle current CM s in asymmetrical degrees of cooperation. (3) The affinity respondents showed to metaphorical thinking might revolve around certain disposition to learnability. An inclination to latent metaphorical thinking, despite the imbalance set of metaphors that has been proposed to them is synonymous to inherent sensitivity. Apriori, idiomatic language is hard for an L2 learner to understand, because in idioms words when combined can convey a multitude of meanings different from those of the dictionary.

3.8. Post- test Revelations

The Post administered in May 2013 encompasses two sections, section one entails four CM s to interpret; section two deals with metaphor improvisation. Therefore, the reason behind this shift is first to know in which extent testees went in their improvement; second to find out their abilities in deliberately building metaphors by their own. Hence, idiomatic expressions are no more encapsulated in this test since they have shown an entire commitment to metaphor depiction. Further, respondents managed CM s involving emotional data more than metaphors dealing with pragmatic content, i.e., actual occurrences. Following this path, the essence of the current MC s then is emotional data.

It seems convenient to start this analysis by asking the coming question, then, we can assess afterwards if it converges or diverges with the formulated hypotheses. Did respondents follow the metaphoric schemata already shaped in their minds? In order to guarantee the optimal relevance respondents have to follow the schematic representation already stored as a mental model. The target population had a recurrent meeting of this figure of speech during two years long not only in Written Expression, but in other subject matters. Therefore, the interval between the preliminary and the final tests was not random; this might yield to reliable results with regard the degree and the way of improvement as well.

More importantly, the adoption of the interval seems to be significant variable in undertaking the second test. Hence, it might determine whether conceptual metaphor is learnable or not, therefore allotting more time in framing expected improvement would change the scenario. Moreover, the fact that respondents become more adept to the figurative language, particularly metaphor could constitute a subject to variation sustaining the above question in considering metaphorical consolidation.

The Post encapsulates two tasks, the first comprises four CM s to interpret, the second deals with metaphor improvisation. The current conventional metaphors are down -to- earth, because the researcher assumes that straightforwardness is an important parameter in assessing non- native learners in a fair way. For that, asking respondents to encounter non- conventional metaphors would be a bit

compelling, with all their contextual constraints. As for metaphor generation, it is a task where testees can involve schemata so as to produce their own metaphors; the purpose behind is then, to find out embedded figurative faculties.

Ultimately, the scope of this test is to shape salient metaphorical features, after repeated exposure to metaphor, the target population might intuitively attain skill in depicting metaphors. The first CM then is ANGRY IS A HOT LIQUID, the second is MORE IS UP, the third is: ANGER IS FIRE, the fourth one is, IT DOES NOT MATTER IF IT IS BLACK OR WHITE AS LONG AS IT CATCHES MICE. The three respective CM s deal with human emotions because the cooperation rate in tackling metaphors based on emotional data was remarkable in the Pret. The last CM is rather based on human experience in handling everyday matters.

a. CM 1 Analysis

The CM ANGER IS A HOT LIQUID was greatly inspiring, regardless its transparency, this metaphor incarnates the most critical human feeling in particularly its management difficulty. The effervescence state in which angry person is has as 'lava' or other hot liquids connotation. This means that it encapsulates the property of burning or hurting somebody or something. Thus 99% of the testees provided relevant replies, very few of them were pertinent (see appendix 05). Few grammar mistakes were noticed, notably on behalf of very able and able students. The graph below attempts to display in number the related data:
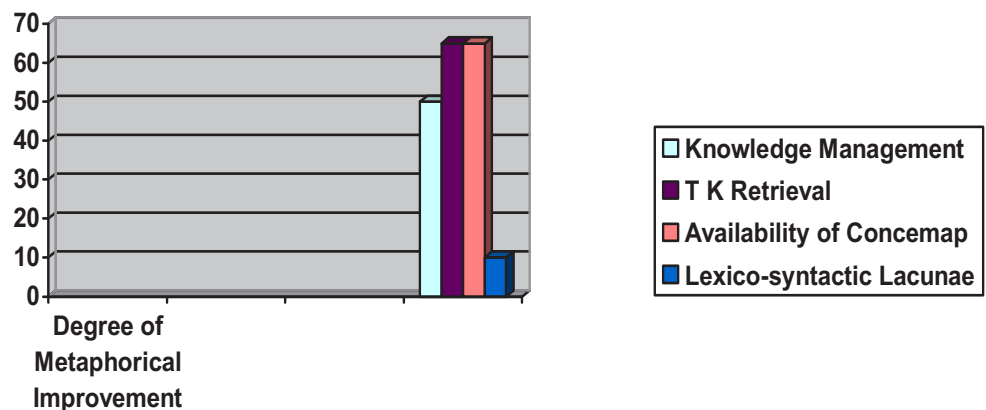
Bargraph 3.5 Learners' Encountering of ANGER IS A HOT LIQUID CM

Comment

The source domain 'angry' and the target domain 'hot liquid' are in total congruence, and this makes the above metaphor transparent. Transparency refers to the ease of thought transmission without destructing relevance in conveying ideas.   And,   this   might   fluid   the   tenor-   vehicle   correlation and thus, an eventual depiction takes place. Furthermore, experiences   inspired from   human feelings are highly grasped by either a student's mind or a layperson's one, because they are considered as genuine emotional data. So, emotional states vary between the feelings of intense joy, exaltation, gratification, etc, and the states of embarrassment, agitation,   and despair, etc. Angry state was interpreted as losing one's mind by almost 50% of the respondents, 'hot liquid' was associated by hurting or burning somebody. In addition, testees argued by the fact that an angry person might say or do things which really hurt his / her environment. In sum, the collected ratings are as follows: *(if TK = 50 + KM= 70 + Availability of concemap = 70) all equals 190 out of 200*

b. CM 2 Analysis

Metaphors   are   sometimes substitutions of unobserved reality, because their intangible   as well as   complex nature,   finding   appropriate   interpretations is somewhat   a   perplexing matter. The case of 'MORE IS UP' conventional   metaphor that   encompasses inherently fuzzy features. From this   angle participants have dealt   with it, since   their interpretations   were   quite distinct. This   divergence is attributed   to the ambiguity that surrounds this CM. Over 50% of the testees opted for the end of the limits, the   others   opted for the well being in all domains of life e.g.,1. it means you have to be multivated …to live in a comfortable life. 2. Whatever   you   learn   in   life   you will   increase   your   knowledge (improve). 3. It means   progress   and   increasing   chances   to   live well (Examples 1, 2, and 3 are extracts   from   students' replies). Although,   the source   and   the target domains are very close, this did not   help the participants to reach   consented   replays. Thus, pertinence was   rather   sporadic in this C M. The proposed graph demonstrates further the collected data:
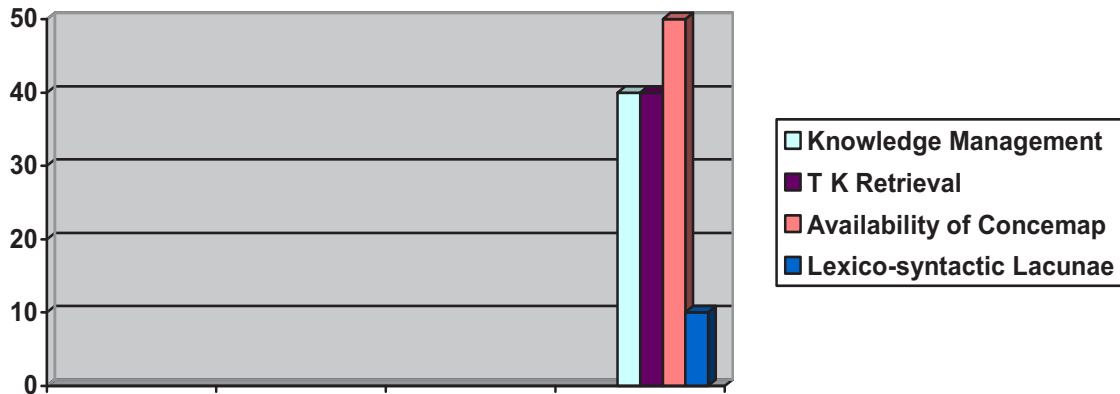
Bargraph: 3.6   Learners' Encountering of MORE IS UP CM

Comment

In this semi- opaque   metaphor- from what had been concluded- subsidiary (tacit) knowledge activation was not abundant regarding MORE IS UP metaphor and what can generate. However, wealth of ideas ought   to be in concordance with the weight of the CM in hand. Seemingly, over   50% of   the   subjects did not show emotional commitment to integrate new with existing knowledge i.e. connotation of both 'more' and 'up' for most of us.   Nonetheless, the   remaining   percentage deliberately approved the content of the metaphor as in " Whatever you learn in life you will   increase   your knowledge,   it will lead you to more possibilities". As a matter of   recapitulation, to characterise success in metaphorical interpretation the one should   find a   symbiotic link between the original focus and the target domain. Essentially, input analysis should occur concomitantly with the conceptual webbing. In sum, according to the proposed graph*: (TK retrieval = 40 + KM = 40 + Availability of concemap = 50) = 130*

c. CM 3 Analysis

NIGHT OWL CM generated asymmetrical versions in approaching it. Therefore, both the tenor and the vehicle are informative and indisputably tightly linked. Generally speaking an owl which is a nocturnal bird is known by its sharp as well as dominating sight, since it can turn its neck till $360°$. The second

significant fact is that its instinct of hunting at night impedes it to sleep in order to nourish   itself   and its little birds too. Despite   its apparent transparency, some respondents did not come to reach a relevant depiction; an owl for them is synonym to 'wisdom' others to cases of 'insomnia', but the gap resided in their incapability to link between the former and the latter. Thus, logically speaking, absence of anomalies should trigger the reader to better decipher a given metaphor, unless it has a multitude of interpretations which is not the case for conventional metaphor. The followings are the registered rates related to this metaphor.
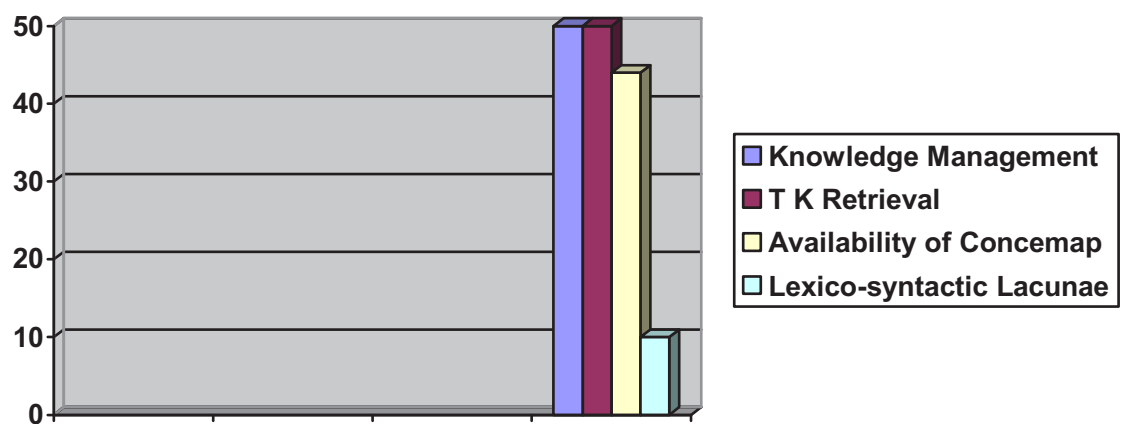
Bargraph 3.7 Learners' Encountering of NIGHT OWL CM

Comment

Apriori, the respondents could not cover the CM as it was expected from them. What was tackled was certainly not the full picture, nor the most useful one; because comprehension is based on our ability to reason to fit things together, i.e. gathering all the entailments yielding a concomitant culmination. This is metaphor interpretation, therefore, during recall; the brain replays a pattern of neural activity that was originally generated in response to a particular event, echoing the brain's reception of the real facts. Our memories are not frozen in time, and new information and suggestions may become incorporated into old memories overtime. So, the above chart demonstrates that *(TK= 50 + KM= 50 + Availability of concemap = 44) = 144*

d. CM 4 Analysis

The last proposed CM is: IT DOES NOT MATTER IF IT IS BLACK OR WHITE, AS LONG AS IT CATCHES MICE. The respondents replied amply to this metaphor, since it evokes life experiences that everybody endures. In this respect, it is worth to illustrate by some students' interpretations: "It means that it does not matter the colour and shape of something, as long as it functions …"; "What is really important is what we do and not the social position we occupy, the way of living, or our appearance…". " We do not have to care about the shape or the colour of something since it is useful and we can benefit from it." Accordingly, over 90% of the participants monitored well this CM because it reflects an embodied experience. Thus, down-to earth metaphors- as it was mentioned previously- are better grasped, better understood, and ultimately better depicted. Lastly, straightforwardness is considered as being a variable that either impedes or triggers learners' interpretation. This implies that CM s highly inspired from genuine facts have a big deal of chances pertaining to relevance. In parallel, metaphors not overly ornate, or simple in style versus intricate fluid the depiction process.   The coming graph demonstrates in number the respective data: Knowledge management = 69, T K retrieval = 68, Availability of conceptual mapping=50,Lexico-syntacticlacunae=10
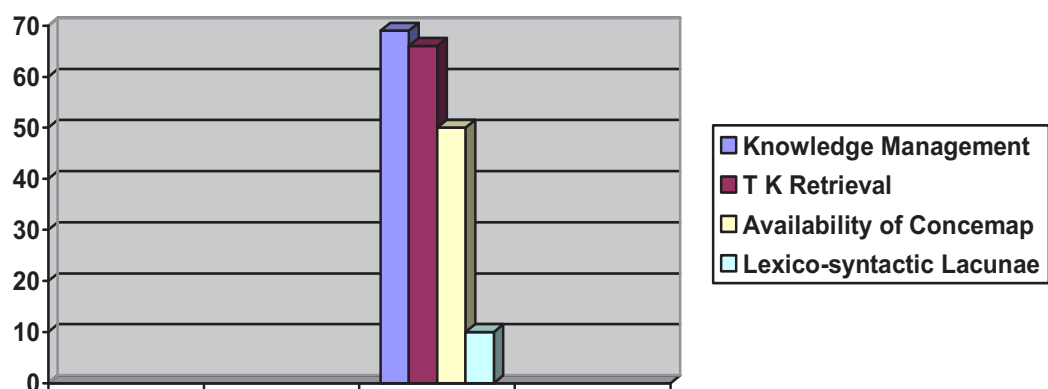
Bargraph 3.8   Learners' Encountering of IT DOES NOT MATTER IF IT IS BLACK OR WHITE AS LONG AS IT CATCHES MICE CM

Comment

Apriori, metaphors derived from factual knowledge tend to be easy material to handle, and that the interpreter on his / her behalf will not apprehend. In similar CM s, the material encapsulated represents common sense knowledge, i.e. everybody agrees upon its existence or significance. Furthermore, the degree of cooperation is rather important in this metaphor. However, very few students did not reach the expected interpretation; those whose estimated percentage equals 06%. As a matter of argumentation, it is worth to incorporate some irrelevant replies: "It is not a problem when you do not care about a problem, or somebody that has no importance in your life; it is the same thing as if it has the value of mice in your life." "We should do important things in life and do not care about what others say, we should do them in the right way in order to gain confidence." In sum, *if (TK retrieval = 70 + KM = 70 + Availability of concemap = 50) all = 190*

e. Comparative Account

A comparative approach seems to be significant here, the procedure yields two levels of comparison. The first consists of measuring the four conceptual metaphors proposed in the Post in terms of cooperation rate, improvement as being advanced learners in metaphorical thinking, as a recall: a significant interval was undertaken between the preliminary test and the final, and eventual learnability. The second, bends on the Pret results, that is, the way the testees approached the suggested CM s as novices in conceptual metaphor encountering.

It seems indispensable in this respect, to start by sporadic relevance or sometimes pertinence in analysing a given CM. This implies that sometimes, some subjects succeeded in surrounding the link between the source and the target domain as they had encircled appropriate concepmaps nevertheless able or less able learners they were. It leads us to conclude that conceptual thinking is not a far reaching accomplishment, thus, it could be an attainable goal for every language learner proficient or not.

More essentially, at the beginning some students strived to depict metaphors, because of their intangible as well as complex nature, this is on the one hand. On the other, they were not acquainted to handle figurative language in a frequent manner. Moreover, when we relate one's thinking, and do not let room to creativeness is like we are amputating facts from reality. Since our memories are not frozen in time, and new information and approaches may emerge thus, become melted into old memories overtime.

In the Post, some testees whose estimated percentage is 20% were quite economic in their analyses, although the proposed CM s required ample explanations as in CM1: ANGER IS A HOT LIQUID. Therefore, they had opted for substitutions to convey their interpretative versions e.g., "It means an angry person may hurt like boiling water." According to them 'hot water' substituted for thorough interpretation thereby source and target domains. As for CM 2: MORE IS UP, almost, 45% of the respondents were economic in this metaphor but verbose in the third and fourth ones. This could be attributed to perplexity upon this latter i.e. when the learner is not convinced about the relevance of his / her interpretation, then, he / she opts for either abstention or economy. For example, "It means hard you work, more you gain." And, "when something pissed you off or makes you feel sad or angry".

Concerning CM 3: NIGHT OWL gained 144 out of 200, this means that respondents ought to be more relevant than they were with regard to the transparency of this metaphor. Therefore, what went wrong with it, is that poverty of the retrieved tacit knowledge and consequently, the restriction of conceptual mapping did not allow an in depth coverage. Sometimes, lack of knowledge related to a particular topic hinders the interpreter to reach clear cut answers. Moreover, the irrevocability of interpretations of some CVM s opens doors to mathematical thinking when both the source and the target domains are symmetrical as in 1+1= 2.

Lastly, NO MATTER IF IT IS BLACK OR WHITE AS LONG AS IT CATCHES MICE was quite inspiring and down-to- earth, thereby, almost the entire number of the students interpreted it correctly. They had generated interesting conceptual

mappings like: goal, functioning, purpose, focusing on the result, objective, action not appearance, positive results, care about the end, etc. Eventually, the transparency of the above CM paved the way to better decipher it, because it was an echoing of the brain's reception of genuine events and real facts. Thus, this might reply to the first formulated hypothesis that says: An EFL learner can progressively develop the ability to interpret CM s; and that opacity could be an impulsion to reversibility.

Now, at the level of improvement, it seems significant to set a comparison between the Pret as well as the Post findings. First, in the Pret, testees were confronted to LIFE IS A JOURNEY that gained 130 out of 200, it was considered as transparent metaphor, but what went wrong is that the appropriate knowledge corresponding to its content was not available; so, this implies that even concemap was not enough. Therefore, participants managed the current knowledge they had at their disposal without going further.

In IDEAS ARE FOOD, the second CM proposed in the Pret, the testees showed less interest since it gained 120. This could be attributed to lack of insight and it was sharply noticed in their unsophisticated analyses. Yet, it was clear in meaning, but not to the extent of stimulating imaginativeness. Thus, when stimuli i.e. metaphor entailments; are not sufficiently inspiring, the interpreter could struggle in depicting them in an ample manner. Here, the threat resides in lack of inspiration not in relevance.

The most opaque CM in both tests is COMMUNICATING IS SENDING that amassed 90 out of 200 only. The anomaly according to the testees lied on the fogy target domain that this metaphor has, thus unbalanced. Consequently, the source 'communicating' carries a multitude of meaning, among these: the conventional sense of give and take. Since it is 'two ways', this fact perplexed them, because communicating is not uniquely sending, but receiving too. The fact that made them strive so as to depict it in a correct manner, in short; they could hardly find the conceptual mapping between the tenor and the vehicle.

MORE IS UP is the fourth CM in the Pret; it collected 100; it was considered as being subtle metaphor. Thereby, the corresponding concemap was not displayed as it was expected. Therefore, the reason behind that is assumed to be a deficiency of covering material converging to the ultimate interpretation. In other words, metaphorical thinking requires direct retrieval rather than sequential scan in order to frame the entire picture. In sum, comprehension is based on our ability to reason to fit things together, since boundaries of application can vary according to the context or conditions. It seems convenient in this respect to incorporate a comparative graph:
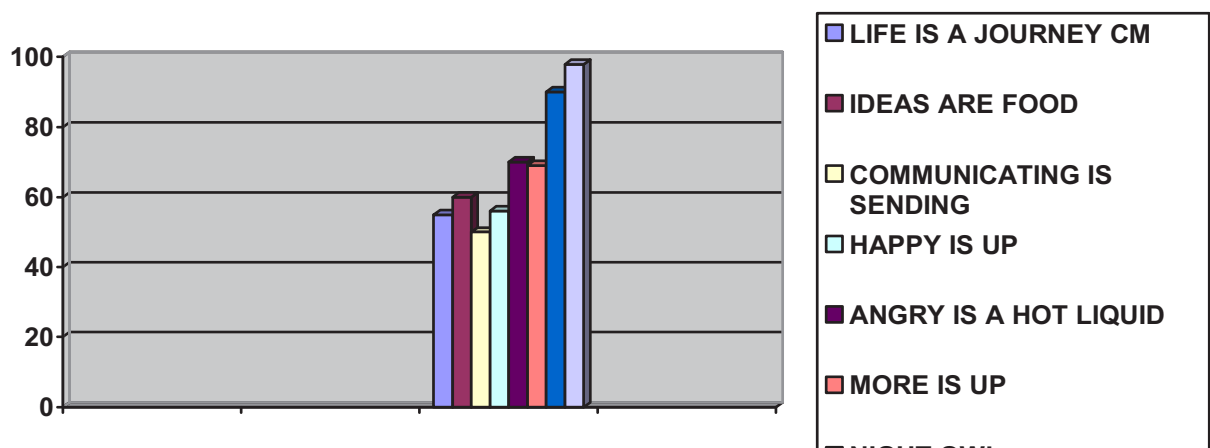
Bargraph 3.9   Pret & Post Relevance Rate

Comment

According to the above graph, the degree of improvement was significant since a comparison imposes itself when considering the fact that two tests were administered separately. Therefore, the way the testees approached a metaphor whether opaque, semi-opaque, or transparent in the Pret changed with that adopted in the Post. This means that, mental changes occurred in considering metaphorical reasoning; we are referring here to a certain acquaintance. Thus, development of metaphorical acquaintance is a pivot element when evoking CM interpretation. More importantly, after repeated exposure to metaphor examples, students intuitively attain skill in metaphorical interpretation.

3.9. Task Two Revelations

Task two, turned around metaphorical improvisation exclusively. It aimed at testing participants' degree of acuteness. All in all, this task stimulated the creativeness of the students; as it offered a margin of generating their own metaphors. Therefore, it is worth to start this analysis by putting an emphasis on the fact that this section reflected enthusiastic leaning in metaphorical generation among respondents. This enthusiasm was sharp in the wealth of improvised metaphors and sporadic explanations accompanying their replies too.

The registered rate of contribution was remarkably high, from three till thirteen CM s per student. Some had generated two, but correctly structured, obeying to metaphorical structural norms. Over, 20% was the abstention rate divided into 10% of those who had written: 'No, I can not'; others 'No, I need wisdom'. What was noticed is analogical interference in 04% of the testees' products, which equals two analogies among fifty metaphors. It seems convenient then to encapsulate a sampling: a. Faith is like shining stars b. Cunning as a fox

Additionally, what was remarked is that some respondents, whose estimated rate was 02%, converted Arabic idiomatic phrases into English and adopted them as being theirs. In this respect, let us consider the followings:

a- Woman has a long tongue, but man has a long hand
b- Only rocks and stones will stay in the river

(a and b are participants' products)

Thence, they have shown emotional commitment in creating their own metaphors, participants deliberately duplicate their metaphorical experience – prerequisite related to metaphor's anatomy- in building their own products. As for the functioning, it was extremely important to know how to join one domain to the other in order to have well rooted in context conceptual metaphors. Before displaying participant's product, it seems suitable to turn the preliminary findings in number:
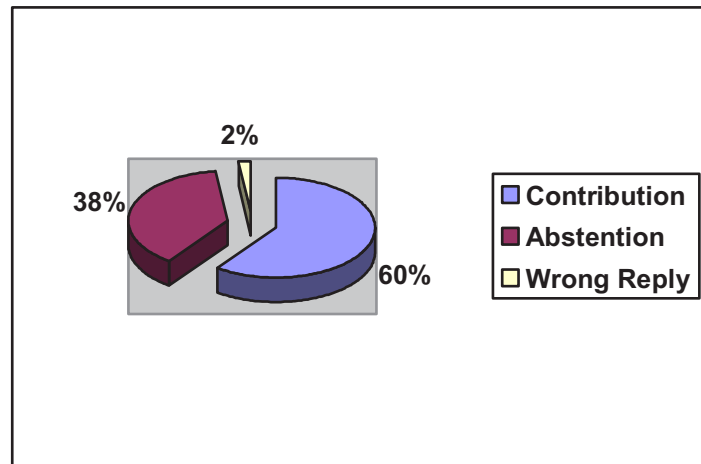
Pie chart 3.2 Participants' Contribution Rate

Comment

Although a great number 60 % of the respondents succeeded in identifying a range of features which are compatible with standards i.e., the way words function in metaphor as well as its language; the remaining percentage which is 02 % fail in doing so. The abstention rate estimated to 38 % represented the testees, whose conceptual thinking was not mature at the extent of fabricating CM s based on authentic facts and palpable or lived experiences. Additionally, wrong replies occupied minor number, about which the anomaly lied on the amalgam that occurred in their minds between both metaphor and analogy mechanisms. Hence analogous interference constituted weakness point in some students' answers.

Now, it seems appropriate to state some subjects' products, the selected set is randomly chosen among 100 improvised metaphors; since all of these have a degree of plausibility and palatability as well. Therefore, the ability to weave a conceptual metaphor in a spontaneous way is perhaps, a challenging accomplishment for a non-native language learner. It is important in this respect to do a recall regarding the allotted time for the both tasks encapsulated in the current Post, which was 60 minutes; which were well managed and distributed between the assigned tasks. In the coming page some students' products are displayed:

1.   The teacher is a candle

2.   Marriage is the gata of war

3.   Woman is peace and war

4.   The prophet is the light

5.   Health is gold

6.   Life is a game

7.   Patience is the key to happiness

8.   Mother is an ocean

9.   Do not judge the book by its title

10.   Money cannot buy happiness

11.   You cannot climb the ladder of success with your hands in your pockets

12.   Get ready in life does not mean be speedy

13.   Beautiful life needs beautiful eyes

14.   Higher you climb, deeper the fall

15.   The scandal is big and the only dead is a mouse

16.   Technology is a two-sided weapon

17.   If you want to change the world, get to change your own world

18.   I will never stop as long as I'm running near the cup

19.   Money does not sleep, so, we cannot take a rest

20.   You were running before I could walk

21.   The rate can kill the cat, but when it fears

22.   Colourful roses are the most poisoned ones

23.   Metal is hard, but not with fire

24.   All animals fear the lion, but not when it is injured

25.   Do not let what you have, and run after what is in the hole

26.   Do not take a short cut when it is not necessary

Comment

The metaphorical picking up was inclusive i.e., all students' replies were taken into account encapsulating very able and able mental products. As it came above, an important percentage of abstainers was registered 38%. The researcher assumed that it is due to unavailability of conceptual material or at a lesser extent to syntactic unreadiness or poor linguistic repertoire, and other considerations.

First, both the structure and language were respected. In addition, they have taken into account the interplay between the source and the target domain. Essentially, they were aware of the fact that metaphorical language is picturesque and therefore, can convey an embedded idea. The above improvised metaphors are likely to be straightforward thereby reality. Conceptual mappings, then, are sharply displayed, each CM they had produced, has its respective concemap in their minds, since a logical correspondence seemingly took place. Nonetheless, processing metaphorical language requires an asset pertaining to mechanisms reigning metaphor.

Regarding ML, metaphor structure requires conceptual layering, if we consider the first CM: The teacher is a candle, the starting point here is the teacher who is given an overwhelming importance and extreme potent as well. He / she is the enlightener and the guide. Therefore, the association was quite successful, since nobody can deny his eternal role in facilitating knowledge. Thus, he / she incarnates a prophetic power of instructing generations. As for the remaining generated CM s, no amputated metaphor was registered, all of them were fully designed/ built. The constraining detail was that some, were less convincing than these, as a matter of evidence, the coming examples are worth incorporating:

> 1. The scandal is big, and the only dead is a mouse
> 2. Woman has a long tongue, but man has a long hand
> 3. Only rocks and stones will stay in the river
> 4. Killing two birds with one stone

In this respect, controversial opinions in metaphor generation for a non-native language learner were raised, and more than that some researchers problematised the matter as Valeva (1996) did. For instance, Danesi (1993) commented that if students develop high levels of communicative proficiency, but continue to think in terms of their native conceptual system, using L2 words and structures so as to carry their own L1 concepts; he added that they may be understood, but their discourse may be inappropriate. (See chapter two)

Here, the cultural parameter has a role to play in calibrating the appropriateness of a given CM. According to Lantolf (1999b), non- native language learners / speakers have to adjust their CM s in order to fit the host culture's patterns. This means that following these models in weaving a CM linguistically accurate, might open doors to insightful attempts; regarding cultural shared data between the two cultures oriental and occidental. Nonetheless, conceptual metaphor in all over the world reflects conceptual meaning in experiencing as well as conceiving matters which constitute the core of the human thinking.

Overall, attaining perfection in conceptual thinking seems to be an ideal goal. In other words, generating simple CM s is heuristically reachable. Therefore, learning conceptual metaphor 'by osmosis' according to (Anna Sfard 1992) occurs when students are committed in absorbing the mechanisms of how a CM functions, and that, it encompasses a double aspect of outer and inner and thus makes possible an eventual impregnation. Hence, the conclusion is that an L2 learner can generate simple CM s as it was assumed in the formulated hypothesis, and that metaphorical system is learnable. In addition, great emphasis should be given to the underlined variables so far evoked. First, the quantity of exposure to CM s, second, the degree of metaphorical clarity; third, conventionality.

3. 10. Questionnaire Analysis

Throughout this research that displays how students actually reason with metaphorical language or apply their tacit knowledge to solve conceptual problems in response to what is required. There is even greater need for appropriate assessment approach to measure students' tendencies so as to achieve more relevant objectives, such as being able to explore data and to think profoundly about entailments of a given situation. Regarding its timing, the researcher opted for delaying it, just to allow more proficiency in metaphor's undertaking depiction.

Questioning is a basic human activity attempting to investigate, understand, and diagnose. Hence, a questionnaire as a data gathering tool consists of a series of questions and statements for the purpose of eliciting information relevant to a given issue or research. Moreover, this semi- structured questionnaire is designed

for the sake of extracting the respondents' perceptions as well as attitudes upon figurative language and more precisely metaphor. A parallel importance is given via this instrument so as to better capture how they think and feel upon a particular aspect under the framework of metaphorical learning.

3.10. 1. Task One:

Moving to the content of this questionnaire, it comprises two sections, and each section entails free questions as well as directed statements. Section one is entitled: Testing Tendencies, it is accompanied by directions urging respondents to decide their replies among five proposed choices and nine respective statements as well. Convincingly, participants had to make a cross where appropriate. Thus, the choices were: (1) strongly agree (2) agree (3) I'm neutral on this point (4) disagree (5) strongly disagree (see appendices A1, A2, A3, A4).

It seems necessary to expose the questionnaire's statements in order to proceed. An in-depth analysis imposes itself to cover amply what came in it: 1. If you do not have a special aptitude, it will be really hard to grasp / learn the meaning of metaphors. The registered rates were as follows: 38% of the respondents strongly agree, 60% agree with the above statement; 02% disagree. This explains that 98% of the participants were between strongly approving and approving the fact that metaphorical interpretation depends heavily on the individual's acuteness.

Statement two says: Is it really important to be equipped with such figure of speech when communicating? So, 70% of the subjects strongly agree, 25% agree, and 05% were neutral. This implies that 95% approved that it would be desirable for the communicator to have under his/ her disposal this figure of speech to better convey what he or she wants to say or writes. More arguments regarding this point are coming within section two of this questionnaire.

Reading is important in reinforcing or broadening your linguistic repertoire including metaphorical one, is in fact the third statement entailed in the questionnaire. So, 80% of them gave their approval with regard the fact that reading is the cornerstone of every instructional building including metaphorical

enrichment as an ornament to that building. The remaining percentage which equals 20% represents the rate of those who agree with the statement.

As for the fourth statement which is: Some metaphors are by their nature easier than others. The rates were: 60% strongly agreed, 35% agree, and 05% disagree. This could be commented by the fact that there are degrees of opacity, which means that there are some metaphors which are more accessible than others. According to some of them, students retain what they find it comprehensible, and neglect ambiguous metaphors which might go beyond their current metaphorical abilities or transcends what they had already met.

The following statement is: Some metaphors are wide-spread than others (common), so, 90% of the testees approved this fact, among them 65% strongly agree and 25 % agree, the remaining percentage, which is 10% adopted a neutral position upon this latter. What could be incorporated here is that they believe that there are what we call conventional metaphors, the most universally known ones, beside these, there exist- if we want to evoke the socio-cultural appurtenance- other less known CM s culturally oriented.

Statement number six turns around the mechanisms of the CM, it says that: If you can analyse how a metaphor works, you will be able to employ it in the future. Amazingly, all the respondents gave their assent upon this statement; the respective rates were as follows: 50% strongly agree, 50% agree. Here, the heart matter is in the combination that lies between the tenor as well as the vehicle, in addition to the implicit dissimilar link they share both of them. Moreover, students knew in advance that the relevant depiction of a given CM depends on the alchemy that the conceptual ingredients make.

Statement seven is: You can learn metaphors more easily, if you like the culture from which these emerged. The cultural influence is in fact the essence of this issue, there are some Chinese, Persian, and English- language metaphors among the most pervasive cross- cultural CM s. This means that the impact of the culture on the learning of a given CM is very significant as long as both of them perform the role of the classical interplay between the body and the soul. Since

CM s are culture-oriented data, this calls to uniqueness as well as content singularity distinguishing a CM from another. Therefore, the registered rates are: 20% strongly agree, 40% agree, 20% were neutral, 20% disagree.

The following statement is: Being interested is usually favourable in learning metaphors. Opinions were quite divergent concerning the issue of interest in learning CM s in general. Nonetheless, respondents exhibited their sharp interest upon this figure of speech and expressed their particular preference for it. The rates were as follows: 50% strongly agree, 40% agree, 10% neutral on this point. The last statement is in connection with that, it evokes indifference in learning, it says that: Being indifferent is usually harmful in learning something. Thus, over 60% of the students gave their strong approval regarding this fact, and 40% simply agree on the fact that absence of interest is in deed a hindering factor upon learning of whatever matter in life, and vice-versa. By their approval, they underlined the importance of interest in the chain of learning. It seems convenient to insert a table to display the picked up data:

Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD
Statement1	38%	60%	0%	02%	0%
Statement2	70%	25%	0%	05%	0%
Statement3	80%	20%	0%	0%	0%
Statement4	60%	35%	0%	05%	0%
Statement5	65%	25%	10%	0%	0%
Statement 6	50%	50%	0%	0%	0%
Statement7	20%	40%	20%	20%	0%
Statement8	50%	40%	0%	0%	0%
Statement9	60%	40%	0%	0%	0%

Table 3.1   Task One Display Table

3.10.2. Task Two:

Section two of this questionnaire is entitled Idiosyncratic Implications, is in fact a free task through which respondents were confronted to three questions:
1. Do you use metaphor in your daily conversations, formal and informal?
2. Is it difficult to interpret metaphors when they are mixed with speech? Say why?
3. Does understanding of metaphors depend on one or many factors? Could you cite it/ them?

A split was registered as far as question one is concerned, replays revealed that 60 % of the participants use CM s in their daily formal conversations, meanwhile, the remaining percentage which is 38 % belonged to those who adopt CM s only in their informal speech. Therefore, this was argued by 02 % of the subjects who do not use CM s at all, neither academic, nor casual. They have added that it is difficult to understand a metaphor when it is melt with speech, in parallel it is not evident to answer metaphorically. Hence, a display representation imposes itself to better demonstrate the above data:
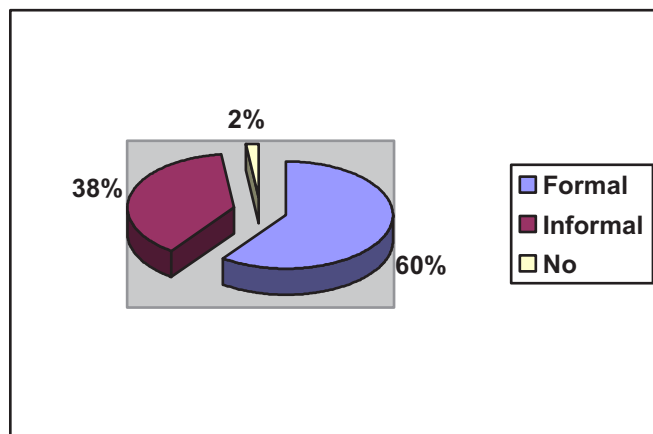
Pie chart 3.4   Participants' Adoption of CM in their Daily Conversations

Question two is: Is metaphor difficult to interpret? Why? 50% of the students answered by: yes it is. Some of these replays were argued by the fact that CM is exclusively employed when expressing something unusual, in other words in exhibiting something amazingly beautiful. Others wrote that CM is ideal to focus

on the matter, and this in its turn depends on what happens in our minds; they referred here to imagination that directs the speech. Other arguments were presented as the adoption of CM s reinforce the idea as well as the intended meaning. Furthermore, a CM gives the power of convincing one's mind and clarifying what seems ambiguous to interlocutor(s) as it fluids communication. Some added that a CM is used as an ornament that embellishes our speech.

The remaining percentage belongs to those who think that it is hard to depict a CM when it is melt with speech because they can not actually understand the meaning conveyed via this latter. Moreover, and eventually they could not give a persuasive feedback either. According to them the problem lies on the fact that a CM has a perplexing nature, in which the speaker is bound by a shared concomitant interpretation with the listener. Additionally, the receiver(s) have to be in the same wavelength with the speaker so as to reach a consented convergent point, which is the ultimate discussion metaphorically oriented. The following chart tries to display in number what came above:
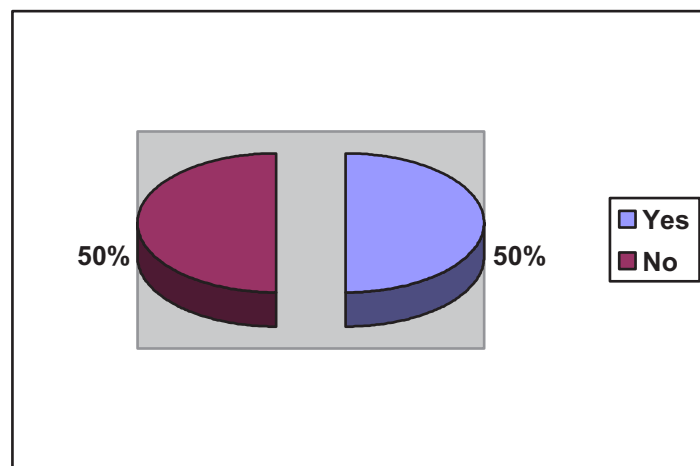
Pie chart 3.5   Participants' Opinions Regarding Metaphorical Accessibility

Question three is: Does the interpretation of metaphors depend on one or many factors? Would you cite it / them?
 In this part respondents replied amply in arguing their view points. Referring to a consensus, metaphor interpretation depends heavily on the intelligence of the

speaker/ writer. In addition, a very significant factor was raised recurrently, which is the impact of old conceptions on the process of interpretation. The next, less emphasised factors is nature of the discussion/ text, according the 55% of the subjects the nature of the discussion determines the content as well as the form, incorporation of CM s generates fertility and interestingness too.

Besides, a significant factor was tackled which is: richness of vocabulary. Relying to what have been presented, wealth of ideas is strongly associated to the broadness of one's linguistic repertoire. In other words, more the speaker / writer enjoys heavy equipment vocabulary, more picturesque his / her sayings / writings will be. More importantly, testees added that the speakers / writers have to enjoy communicative skills so as to converse or write metaphorically, i.e. the ability of encompassing strategies metaphorically- oriented to speech.

In parallel, it is crucial to be knowledgeable and multivated, since this can afford an excellent roadmap prior undertaking a discussion or an academic piece of writing. CM is intimately linked with cultural parameters, and this could be attributed to the complexity of societal occurrences as well as phenomena. What seems indispensably needed in such instances is the fact of fragmenting metaphorical data into culturo-linguistic entities. Because, cultural details shape CM s which give them a universal dimension.

Now, inside a CM, a mechanism engages and the challenge resides on the fact of finding the implicit link between the tenor and the vehicle. Once it is achieved, the current CM turns transparent. Furthermore, students wrote that metaphor is subject to confusion. And that, perplexity surrounding CM s makes them difficult to approach since they entail complicated sentences tackling baffling situations / contexts. Nonetheless, we might solve a CM, but all along our interpretation, sceptic visions might threaten our analysis. Doubting the authenticity and pertinence as well is one of the most dissuasive elements orbiting metaphorical

interpretation, notably non-conventional one. Ultimately, a common shared knowledge could constitute a guarantee to such undertaking. It seems convenient then to demonstrate what came above graphically:
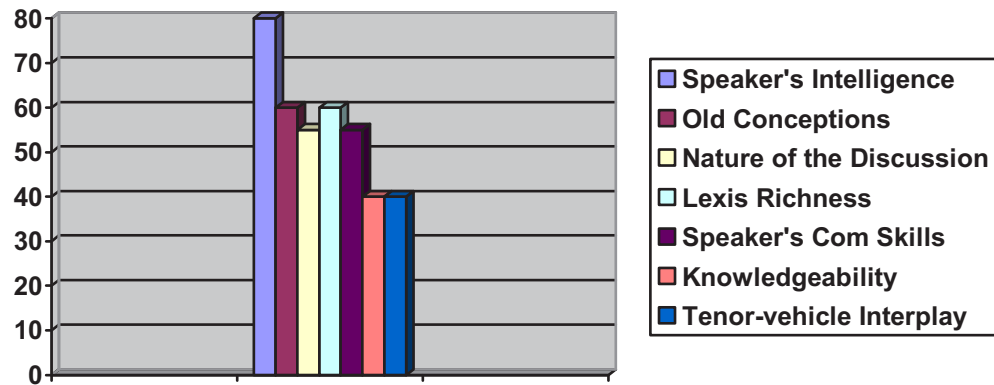
Bargraph   3. 10 Participants' Conceptions of Interpretative keys

Comment

After encountering Test one and Test two, and accumulating strategies in depicting and solving conceptual problems. It seems suitable to emphasise students' conceptions of keys of interpreting a given CM. Therefore, significant parameters have been advanced regarding CM interpretation. This amalgam that has a concomitant occurrence thereby ultimate delivery differs from one learner to another. Asymmetrical levels of treatment might revolve around affinities in considering conceptual matters. This could be attributed to the degree to which a person can analyse an abstract fact which has a palpable side, part of reality, embodied in his or her own linguistic equipment. In other words, speaker's / writer's intelligibility has a great to do in transpiring relevance in interpretation, or more than that pertinence.

3. 11. General Discussion

The current questionnaire attempted to display cognitive processes involved in CM depiction as well as some significant elements that might yield to reliable findings. Trying to substantiate what came in the advanced hypotheses such as the ability to interpret and generate simple metaphors by a non-native learner. Since the participants assimilated the juxtaposition of strongly dissimilar elements,

which is referred to as CM. Conceptual data have shown an embedded overlapping of internal ingredients in decoding CM s. Moreover, so as to recognise linguistic constituents making higher order processing at work involving schemata, this study was conducted. This activation, even in its embryonic stage, but nonetheless turns promising notably if is accompanied with an emotional commitment to relate new with existing relevant knowledge. Equally, the study tried to highlight the capacity of weaving a deliberate metaphor on the behalf of the target population.

Assuming that conceptual system is learnable, that is, getting familiar with the mechanisms reining that system as well as the ability of applying them on future encountering. Basically, the challenge lies on the fact of acquainting the inherent fuzzy nature of a CM. Since, it is a substitution of unobserved reality with all its intangibility and complexity. Irrevocably, a CM is marked by ornament, thus it is not an easy matter to acquire rhetorical style; or even to monitor it. The point is that, heavier the equipment is, the sharper his / her acuteness will be. Accordingly, an important number of participants came to adjust their style in accordance to metaphorical language requirements.

The essence of metaphor then is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another. This definition recognises that metaphor is about capturing the essential nature of an experience. First, when the student succeeds in describing his / her situation as a peculiar instance in a symbolic representation. Second, the definition acknowledges that metaphor is an active process which at the very heart of understanding ourselves. Third, when it is conceived as a reflection of discrete and flagrant phenomena in the society, with regard to the fact that CM is highly inspired from it.

In other words, whatever, a person says, sees, hears, feels, or does, can be used to produce, comprehend, and reason, through metaphor. Metaphor is not an occasional foray into the world of figurative language, but the fundamental basis of everyday cognition. Andrew Ortony has identified three characteristics of metaphor that account for their utility, i.e. vividness, compactness, and expressibility. In short, metaphors carry a great deal of abstract and intangible

information in a concise and memorable package. Moreover, some metaphors are embedded in language. As a matter of consolidation, and as it was noticed, consistency and logic in the metaphors emanate from the target population proved certain flexibility in shaping CM s.

Metaphors embody the intangible and sometimes unseen realities, but this process inevitably constrains perceptions and actions to those which make sense within the logic of the metaphor. As students become aware of their own metaphors for learning, they can recognise how these bound them. In this way, they can learn from their own learning process! It is a way to enhance creativity and picturise facts. Convincingly, asymmetrical levels of treatment might revolve around affinities in considering conceptual matters. This could be attributed to the degree to which a person can analyse an abstract fact which has a part of reality, embodied in his or her own linguistic equipment. In other words, learner's intelligibility has a great to do in transpiring graspability or relevance in interpretation.

In connection with that, a complementary strategy already mentioned, is the accumulation of the experience gained throughout time in depicting CM s. This is what we call, the degree of exposure, more the learner encounters metaphors more proficient he will be in monitoring them. A parallel importance is drawn to the issue of flexibility as well as acuteness in doing so. In addition to that, the compactness of CM s, the density of their entailments allows a fountain of meanings across, which might foster a deliberate interpretation. The emphasis in this approach is on the adoption of collaborative activities (Holme 1991) for instance (see chapter 2) via encountering and paraphrasing. After repeated exposure to examples of metaphor students will intuitively attain skill in interpretation. Thereby, stressing the role of analytic discussion (Low 1988) in developing metaphor awareness (see chapter 2); in parallel, he focuses on both, the linguistic as well as pragmatic aspects of CM s, as it was noticed on behalf of the respondents, accounting metaphor as being a two- faceted data.

Eventually, the two-faceted nature of the CM involves the use of lexical item to evoke the sense of something that is not conventionally linked to that particular

lexical item. Here, it is a contingent relation that stops at the sense level, more than that it goes beyond to societal standards of thinking. Thence, facetisation encapsulates the use of conventional data of lexical items as well as contextual readings. The below figure tries to display the whole process in a synthesis:

1 Degree of Exposure --------**2** Linguistic Aspect ------- **3** Pragmatic Data ----

4 Acquired Flexibility ----------**5** Deliberate Interpretation
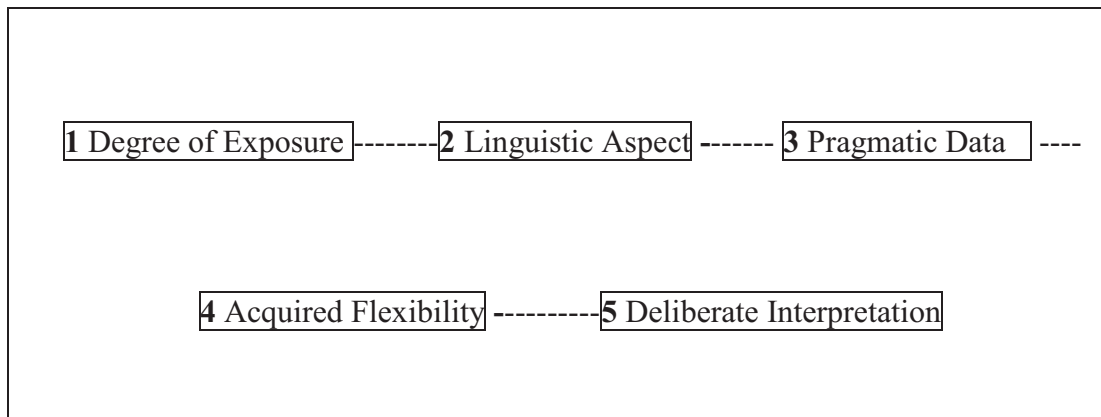
Figure 3.3 Synthesising Metaphor Interpretation as an Active Process
(Own elaboration)

Comment

Wherever human beings live together, they develop a system of talking to each other literally or figuratively. One reason is that the development of human culture is made possible to a great extent by our ability to share experience, to exchange ideas, and to transmit messages. Moreover with regard to the societal parameter, the consented code that every society has and each individual is committed to, determines the degree of acceptance/ pertinence in this process. The synthesised metaphorical chain compactuses the five interrelated chain links that are connected together by consequence. Therefore, before reaching the ultimate phase which is the deliberate interpretation, the   one should pass throughout these steps so as to gain proficiency in handling one's CM.

Although a CM is very brief, it is nonetheless packed with wonderful insights. For example, different parts of the body have traditionally represented different

social functions. We refer here, to the head, when we say 'the head of state' without really recognising the metaphor. Besides, the heart as a vital organ has always been a tremendous source of ideas about life, emotions, and feelings. The hand also plays an important role in entrenched imagination regarding things that are beautiful, damaged, or incomplete/ handicap. All in all,   the locus of metaphor is a 'great substitution', the focus is then on the word or expression having distinctively metaphorical use within a literal frame. It is used to communicate a meaning that might have been expressed literally. The author substitutes A for B, it is the reader's task to invert the substitution by using the literal meaning of A as a clue for the intended literal meaning of B.

So, the intended flexibility comes from this recurrent encountering and certainly not occasional. What seems to be pertinent to add is that, the capacity to depict a CM is not a disrupted process; in the contrary it is a well- bound operation in which individual/ inner data fuses with outer / external ones. Ultimately, the interpreter acquires gradually skill in so doing, till he / she reaches deliberate interpretation, which is in its turn the path to gain proficiency in managing CMs. In parallel, it is a way that might guarantee the equipment with an interesting repertoire of figures in general for the sake of adding further persuasion upon students' written as well as spoken discourses.

Eventually, sporadic C Ms handling does not seem to be sufficient to monitor metaphorical mechanisms. However, frequent exposure can be beneficial in accumulating   proficiency   in   the   matter   inhand. Therefore, students can do this thorough active practice, which is facilitated if the instructor guides and urges them to summarise main points leading to the ultimate interpretation. Furthermore, extensive practice and persistent review are needed after the material is first learned so that it can be recalled effortlessly in future assignments.

3. 12. Conclusion

What this chapter has been trying to demonstrate is that an L2 learner can generate simple conceptual metaphors as it was assumed in the hypotheses, and that metaphorical system is learnable. In addition, a significant importance should

be attributed to the variables of the study, which were, first, the quantity of exposure to C M, second, the degree of metaphorical clarity and third, conventionality. In parallel, the study showed that   metaphors derived from factual knowledge tend to be easy material to handle and do not constrained the student. Equally, chapter three underlined the degree of improvement which was significant when considering the fact that two tests were administered separately. Therefore, the way the testees approached a metaphor whether opaque, semi-opaque, or transparent in the Pret changed with that adopted in the Post. In the same respect, this part emphasised the fact that down-to earth metaphors are better grasped, better understood, and ultimately better depicted. Lastly, straightforwardness is considered as being a variable that either impedes or triggers learners' interpretation. This implies that CM s highly inspired from genuine facts have a big deal of chances pertaining to relevance. Additionally, metaphors not overly ornate, or simple in style versus intricate, boost the depiction process. In sum, to be a skilled EFL user implies both receptive and productive skills in the language. In other words, the student does not contend by receiving metaphorical input and depicting it, but nevertheless, outputting from his or her own. It seems worth noting that students' response toward idiomatic language was quite perplexed. Because, some of them conveyed relevant interpretations, the others tried, but language adequacy hindered them to communicate exactly the intended meaning. Furthermore, what was noticed is that they could hardly depict the proposed idiomatic phrases, whereas, metaphors interpretation was enjoyable task for certain students. Lastly, chapter four will consider the potential role of explicit metaphor teaching and will try to suggest some recommendations as s well as approaches regarding this important line of inquiry.

CHAPTER FOUR

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF EXPLICIT METAPHOR TEACHING

CONTENT

4.1. Introduction

Chapter four focuses first on some of those variables that influence the students' comprehension of literal and figurative language. Second, using, applying, and understanding metaphors is more than just simply comparing two unlike things, but by contrasting current approaches about metaphor interpretation. Third, it suggests equally recommendations regarding needed research and practice in this important line of inquiry. Chapter four considers the potential role of explicit metaphor teaching. Petrie, Oshlag included in Ortony for example advocate that using metaphor-based instruction can effectively bridge the gap between the teacher's knowledge and the students' knowledge. Holme (1991) in his turn affords to collaborative activities a paramount importance. This type of activities fosters the students to work on paraphrases of metaphors i.e. writing their own versions about the gist of a given metaphor. In fact the creation of metaphors relies on several teachable skills such as vocabulary skills, abilities to make connections, and creativity too. This part tries to focus on these considerations with regard to learners' conceptual system.

4. 2. Pedagogical Implications of Metaphor Research

The pedagogical   implications   of   the   line of research as far as the metaphorical conceptualisation   is   concerned is   an   intrinsic feature of discourse. In addition,   what Denesi calls conceptual   fluency,   people call metaphorical competence Danesi says:

> "The programming of discourse in metaphorical ways in the basic
> feature of native –speaker competence. It underlies what I have
> designated conceptual fluency. As a "competence", it can be thought
> about   pedagogically in ways that are parallel to the   other
> competencies that SLT has traditionally focused on(grammatical and
> communicative)".   (1993, p. 493)

(Kovecses and Szabo 2002) report on an experiment that gives us a way of building up metaphorical competence in learners of English as a foreign language. We conducted an informal study in which one group learned idioms

that are motivated by a special type of metaphor- metaphors based on 'up-down' orientation, such as phrasal verbs, cheer up, and break down. The results showed that learners who learned idioms, which were considered as a motivated way, performed roughly 25% better in an idiom-related task than those who did not. Thus, the results of the experiment give us real evidence for the claim that idiomatic learning ca be greatly successful with the help of the ideas that have been developed in this study.

Conceptual metaphor is not only cognitive mechanism (Lakoff and Turner 1989) that can motivate idioms. To see how two further mechanisms conceptual metonymy and conventional knowledge are also involved in this process. Another implication which is conventional knowledge is considered as a cognitive parameter. We mean by that the shared everyday knowledge including standard information about the parts, shapes, functions, sizes, etc, for instance: the human hand, as well as the larger hierarchy of which it forms a part hand as a part of the arm, for example.

Let us begin with general conventional knowledge, consider the expression 'have one's hands full' which means to be busy. Now, what is the explanation of the particular meaning of this expression? If we hold things in the hand already, we can not easily pick up other things with it and use the hand for another task. This is perhaps not the only explanation one can come up, but it is this kind of conventional non-metaphoric and metonymic knowledge that underlies and thus motivates its meaning (Lakoff and Turner 1989).

Consider now, the expression 'with an open hand' which means 'generously', as in 'She gives her love to people with an open hand'. The image of a person physically giving objects to another with an open hand implies the knowledge that nothing is held back and every thing can be taken (Lakoff and Turner 1989). This image stands in marked contrast to the knowledge about the image of a person who gives with his / her (fist held tight). As a matter of fact, it is hard to

imagine how this person can hand over anything at all. Indeed, the expression tight fisted indicates just the opposite of giving with an open hand. The latter suggests willingness and the former reluctance in giving generously.

4.3. Teaching Metaphorical Extensions

Polysemy involves words that have a number of related senses (as opposed to homonymy where the senses are completely unrelated. This is the traditional definition of polysemy that cognitive linguists also accept (Werth 1994). A crucial question here is what meant by two senses being related. It is by taking this question profoundly that cognitive linguists can greatly contribute to a fuller understanding of the phenomenon of polysemy. It can be suggested that polysemy is often based on metaphor and metonymy, that is in many cases there are systematic metaphorical and metonymic relationships between two senses of a word.

The most obvious and most analysed examples of how polysemy can be based on metaphor come from prepositions and adverbials, such as: over, up, down, on, in, etc. The word up for instance can have many senses. We can exemplify two of these with sentences such as the following:

(a) He went up the stairs, so that we could see him. (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 56)

(b) He spoke up, so that we can hear him. (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 56)

In (a) the sense of up is 'up ward', while in (b) there is more intensity. Now the problem is how these two senses of up are related. The explanation is that they are related by a conceptual metaphor: MORE IS UP , whereby, in this particular case, more intensity of sound is understood as being physically higher on some scale. Thus, the metaphor MORE IS UP provides a systematic link between two very different senses of the same word. In the traditional view, where there are no conceptual metaphors, this explanation would not be available because it could only be suggested that there is some kind of pre-existing similarity between the two. Now, consider a content (or open class) word, such as 'climb'. We can

demonstrate three of its senses, or uses with the coming sentences:

(a) The monkey climbed up the pole.   (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 54)

(b) The prices are climbing up. (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 54)

(c) She is climbing the corporate ladder. (Lakoff & Johnson: 54)

In (a) the verb to climb means simultaneously 'climbing' and 'up ward'. The clambering component is cancelled out in a sentence such as 'the plane climbed to 30.000 feet." Planes do not have arms and legs, so they can't clamber, but they can 'move up ward". (b) is related to (a) by means of the same conceptual metaphor that we saw above for up: MORE IS UP. Prices cannot physically move up, but they can metaphorically do so by means of 'MORE IS UP': the increase in prices is understood as up ward physical movement. (c) also systematically related to (a), in that there is a productive conceptual metaphor which is : A CAREER IS AN UP WARD JOURNEY, that links them to acquire a socially higher position is comprehended as upward physical movement in the course of a journey (Lakoff and Johnson 1980).

What is common to the two cases (up and climb) is that the two words have a physical sense (up ward) and this physical sense is extended to metaphorical senses by means of conceptual metaphors (MORE IS UP AND CAREER IS AN UPWARD JOURNEY). In other words, physical sense serves as a source domain conceptualising certain target domains, such as quality and career, but are less clearly physical. Less physical target domains are quite arduous to identify and then to have sharp associations, thus a clear mapping (Lakoff and Johnson 1980).

Let us now consider the case of fire as a source domain. It was pointed out that the domain of fire is used to conceptualise a wide variety of intense states and events, such as anger, love, enthusiasm, imagination, energy, etc. This means that fire, and the near – synonymous word flame, will predictably have the sense of an intense state or event because there is the mapping in the FIRE metaphor: the (heat of) fire corresponds to an intense state or event. That is, the word fire (and flame) will be as many ways polysemous as a number of target concepts the source domain of fire applies to: anger, love, energy, etc. Most of these are given in dictionaries as conventionalised senses (Lakoff and Johnson 1980).

The scope of metaphor, then and the main meaning focus of a source domain can determine the polysemy of words e.g., fire and flame, in that source domain e.g., FIRE by means of the mappings that characterise that meaning focus for example (the heat of fire corresponds to an intense state or event). In this way, we get a powerful mechanism to account for many cases of polysemy. The cases we have seen so far were all based on metaphor. Now, what role does metonymy play in polysemy? To see that, let us take the word love, as used in the sentences below:

  (a) I was overwhelmed by love. (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 53)

  (b) The love between them is strong. (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 53)

  (c) Her love of music knows no boundaries. (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 53)

  (d) I love ice- cream. (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 53)

  (e) I gave her all my love. (Lakoff & Johnson 1980:53)

 Love is used in different senses in the examples above:

  (a) intense emotion or passion (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 53)

  (b) relationship (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 53)

  (c) enthusiasm (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 53)

  (d) liking (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 53)

  (e) affection (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 53)

  Source: Lakoff & Johnson (1980). Metaphors We Live By

    In these several distinct senses, we can account for the extension of the basic sense of love. In sum, it be claimed that meaning extension often takes place on the basis of conceptual metaphor and metonymy. These take as their source domains the more central senses of the words concerned. The metaphors and metonymies serve as cognitive links between two or more distinct senses of a word (Lakoff and Johnson 1980). But the most significant point is that the metaphors and metonymies that serve as cognitive links between two or more distinct senses exist independently in our conceptual system. MORE IS UP, A CAREER IS A JOURNEY, etc, have separate and independent existence in our conceptual system; nevertheless, we call on them to extend the range of the senses of the words we use.

4.4. Identification of Similarities and Differences Through Creating Metaphors

Creating metaphors in the process of fostering deeper connections between two ideas or concepts. Metaphor   is a statement that compares two things without the word 'like' or 'as' " The brain is a computer". In order to create metaphors, students have to recognise that there are some important similarities between the two ideas or concepts, and they have to recognise critical differences, as well as that may take the metaphor misleading or false. While the creation of metaphors often seems to be intuitive and   can have almost a   'magical' quality about it , in fact, the creation of metaphors relies on several underlying, teachable skills (Marzano et al 2001):

- Vocabulary skills
- Abilities to make connections
- Creativity

"Using metaphors is letting students play with words"states Brigid Schultz(2007) Ed.D, assistant professor in the School of Education at Layola University Chicago, Who has done research   using metaphors as an instructional strategy. "Metaphors free students to look at concepts in a way that other instructional strategies can't", Dr. Schultz (2007) reports,   she continues, "It adds a level   of depth   to the Understanding that students can't get by just giving them the definition to a term." The teacher   should   consider helping students develop   the skill of creating metaphors because of the   following benefits:

- Encourages   students to   uncover   similarities and differences by paying attention to salient features of the two concepts for which the comparison is made.
- Helps students   develop   more   complex patterns of thinking by making deeper connections between the two concepts.
- Promotes deeper levels of vocabulary development by using richer language patterns.
- Supports development of creativity and imaginative thinking that is needed for non-linear problem solving.

Source: Schultz, (2007). Using Metaphors as an Instructional Strategy

4. 5. Steps to Implement

Teachers   committed to   conceptual metaphor   implementation may design their courses in this way:

a. Start with having a good reason to create metaphors:

Analyse the concepts and ideas that you will be teaching and see what ideas lend themselves to create   metaphors. All of them should converge into one shared theme, the sample list from the "compare and contrast" materials applies to creating metaphors as well.

b. Move from the concrete to the abstract:

Show   students   a variety of teacher – constructed metaphors. Walk through the essential questions on   the   cognitive   map   for   creating   metaphors. "Think out loud" to demonstrate the thinking process while you create metaphors for a concept you are teaching. Shultz (2007) suggests a metaphor grab bag as a strategy to help students practise the kind of thinking used in   creating metaphors. Fill a shopping bag with common objects. Using the concepts that you are trying to teach, helps   the   student create a metaphor. This concrete method will help student creatively link the character analysis with literal   objects   based   on common characteristics to deepen the   comparison process. Over time the   teacher   can reinforce these supports to move to student- generated metaphors.

c. Provide instructional   support   for   ongoing use of the creation of Metaphors:

When asking students to create metaphors, provide access to the cognitive map and graphic organiser to support this kind of work. These visual tools should also be posted   to serve as   reminders for students to use systematic methods to create metaphors.   The process   of creating   metaphors   starts with identifying the concept for which you would like to create the metaphor. For example, we might   want to use democracy as a concept to serve as the basis of a metaphor. The next   step is to identify   the key characteristics about the idea that we want to express. For our example of democracy according to Schultz (2007) we might   list the key characteristics as follows:

- Satisfying to people when it works
- Very hard to accomplish
- Demands that people work together

- Heart of American history for more than 200 years

After this step,   the student   should   brainstorm   the   objects or activities that could   possibly have the same key characteristics. Several examples would include: Riding   a tandem   bike in the   mountains,   climbing   a cliff or   sky   diving. Next, we   could   choose   one element and   determine if it possesses the key characteristics. For example, we can see that sky diving may be satisfying when it works and hard to accomplish (the first two key characteristics may not be relevant). If we look at riding a tandem bike in   the mountains, there might be a better fit. In order   to ride a tandem bike in the mountains, it is satisfying when it works, it is hard to accomplish and it demands that people work together. Therefore, we might say that democracy is a tandem bike ride in the mountains Schultz (2007).

However, the creation of an apt metaphor depends most on the key characteristics that we   want   to express Schultz (2007). For example, suppose that the key characteristics that we   want to express in the metaphor are as follows (rather than the first set of key characteristics mentioned in the previous example): Form of government   where   each voice is heard and all agree to act on what the majority   decides. We see that our original metaphor is misleading. We may have to choose   other   objects   or activities to create a more fitting metaphor such as a chatroom, coffee   house or   family. Again, we   would   repeat the process of determining which of these would best fit the   key characteristics Schultz (2007):

4.6. Pitfalls to Avoid

A pitfall in language has two meanings, the first is an unexpected or surprising difficulty. The second is a trap in the form of a concealed hole. A more fitting designed activities and tasks require more energy and more bending from the part of the teacher. In other words, being strategic might pose a problem; another hindering point is that the instructor might be unaware of the developmental level of the learners. He / she should be aware of the complex thinking which takes a longer time than the simple one once the student engages in the metaphorical task.

Pitfall a: Superficial use of the strategy

Sometimes it is easy to encourage in a strategy just because you know that it is a good strategy. It is better to be strategic and to use the strategy to achieve an instructional outcome.

Pitfall b: Being too abstract for the developmental level of the learner

As you start to think about using metaphors, keep in mind the developmental level of the learners with whom you are working. It is important to keep in mind that this can be a viable strategy to the younger thinkers, but that it will have to be "scaffolded" from concrete experiences to more   abstract examples. The use of the stepwise graphic organiser will help guide this process.

Pitfall c: Becoming frustrated with the process

Unlike the quicker success that you might experience with the "compare and contrast" strategy presented with the last issue of notes, the wins may be a little slower with creating metaphors. Because this type of thinking is more complex, likelihood that students will take a longer time to master this type of complex thinking pattern is   exactly   what we want our students to form as a result of our instruction.

Pitfall d: Being afraid to use this strategy

Admittedly, using this strategy   may   not be comfortable for many teachers. When faced with   creating metaphors, many people withdraw because correctly or incorrectly, they   associate it with unpleasant memories of logic problems found on standardised   tests. Also, it   is not a comfortable way for people to engage in the process of identifying similarities and differences because it requires greater tolerance of ambiguity.However,as Schultz(2007) re-assures,"It may not even be your favourite strategy; however, research shows that it promotes lasting results in student thinking."

4. 7. Implementing them together

Use the questions on the cognitive map and the   prompts   on   the graphic organiser to have fun creating   examples of metaphors   to get the strategies for the thinking process you   want your students to use. In learning teams,   go deeper. Examine   the   steps   and the pitfalls. Select one   or two concepts you are currently teaching about where you could use the strategy of creating metaphors to help students deepen   their understanding. Post   examples of student- created   metaphors   on   an "Expanding our Thinking" bulletin   board in the school. At the next team meeting, share observations about using   the   strategy and   its impact on learning. Refine and agree on actions   for the next two weeks. Include all three skills   used   for the identification of similarities and differences Schultz (2007).

4.8. Identifying Similarities and Differences Purpose

Comparing, classifying, creating metaphors and analogies, each involves identifying How items, events, process, or concepts are similar and different.

- To compare is to identify similarities and differences between or among things or ideas.
- Classifying involves grouping things into definable categories based on like characteristics.
- Metaphors link two things that appear to be quite different on the surface but have some likenesses (e.g., 'She was a grizzly bear in the morning.')
- Analogies involve relationships between pairs of concepts. Typically an analogy follows the form A : B as C: D (e.g., 'happy is to sad as big is to small)

Source: Marzano, et al. (2001). A Hand book for Classroom Instruction that Works. Virginia: ASCD

Procedures:

a- Comparing

1. What do I want to compare?

2. What things about them do I want to compare?

3. How are they the same? How are they different

Comparison Matrix

Characteristics Items to be compared

	Similarities
	Differences
	Similarities
	Differences
	Similarities
	Differences

Conclusions

b- Classifying

1. What do I want to classify?

2. What are alike that I can put into a group?

3. How are these things alike?

4. What other groups can I make? How are the things in each group alike?

5. Does every thing fit into a group now?

6. Would it be better to split up any of the groups or put any groups together?

c- Creating Metaphors

1. What is important here?

2. How can I say the same general pattern?

d- Creating Analogies

1. What is the connection between the first two things?

2. How can I describe this connection?

3. Do the second two things have a connection like the first two?

4. 9. Metaphor & Creativity

Metaphor can be used to focus, direct, or limit the scope of discussion. It can be used to facilitate, broaden, stimulate, and open up dialogue and the thinking that is going on too. Metaphor can stimulate inquiry, curiosity and creativity, co-evolving a frame as dialogue progress. In this respect, Lakoff and Turner(1989)suggest four ways in which it is possible to be creative metaphorically: extension, elaboration, questioning, and combining. One can elaborate on an existing element of the source domain in an unusual way, thereby achieving a novel linguistic expression that is based on this conceptual metaphor. Once the anatomy of metaphor has been learned, there are various options for using new-found awareness. The focus should be on these four metaphor source domains, in order to become familiar with certain widely used metaphors:

- Journey Metaphor
- Building / construction Metaphor
- Games / sports Metaphor
- War / fight Metaphor

Let us look for the structure of these metaphors and how they help us further the mediation process:

Exercise 1:

a- In whole group, select two metaphors in one.

a- Pick a case from those given, or own case.

b- Assign roles and briefly play roles to gain understanding.

b- Break into groups; list the entailments for each metaphor.

c- Report back.

d- Use alternate submapping of the chosen metaphor source domains.

e- Continue role play

f- Report to whole group.

Exercise 2:

Look at the lexicon for this group of entailments.

a. Take a word.

b. What is something that someone in mediation might say using this word?

c. What other words might be added to this lexicon?

Source: Marzano, R.J., et al. (2001). A Hand book for Classroom Instruction that Works.

Virginia: ASCD

Exercise 3:

a. Take one of the examples, and the relevant entailment groups, and talk about
questions to ask.

Mr. Kelly needs the house for *stability* and *continuity* for the children.

This suggests 'foundations', 'joining'

'foundations are solidly grounded, laid out carefully…

'fitting / joining / reinforcing / has to do with care in putting things together,
fastening them firmly, making sure connections.

Exercise 4: Whole group or two volunteers

In a divorce case, mother wants to move to a distant city after divorce. Father says
he will lose connection with the children and their relationship will be undermined.

- What do you notice?

- What is a possible metaphor? Name it.

- What are the entailments of this metaphor?

- Keeping these in mind, ask a question to suggest entailments of the same
  metaphor again as necessary.

- Discuss correspondence between the metaphor and the situation.

- Discuss the rhetorical direction.

- Overall evaluation communicated.

   Collectively, there are several   hundred techniques published in books, they are like tools in a workshop, with different   parts of the   creative process. For example, they are techniques for defining a problem, exploring attributes of a problem, generating   alternatives, visual explorations, metaphors, analogies, and evaluating   and implementing ideas. People   tend   to think of the mind as analogies to current   technology over the last few centuries, the mind has been likened   to a steam   engine, or   a computer. A metaphor is a soft thinking connecting two different universes of meaning.

Source: Smith, (2005).ACM paper

Thus, the key to metaphorical thinking is similarity. The human mind tends to look   for similarities. A roadmap is a   mode or   metaphor of reality   and useful   for explaining things. Excessive logical thinking then, can stifle the creative process.

4. 10. Applying Learning Environment Theory

   The emphasis is often on the teacher's presentation activities, our use of instruction often rests on the classroom metaphor. What is targeted here is the 'macro' level, which includes the surrounding culture, organisation, and facilities Harris (1992). It focuses on the individual learner as a system interacting with a teacher. The interactive conversation between the learner and the instructor fosters metaphorical language.

   Like the classroom metaphor, thinking for instruction as an environment gives emphasis to the 'place' or 'space' when learning occurs. At a minimum, a learning environment contains: first the learner,   second a setting or 'space' where in the learner   acts using tools and devices, collecting and   interpreting information, interacting, perhaps, with others, etc. Some metaphors hold considerable potential because instructional   designers like to think   that effective instruction requires a degree of student initiative and choice Harris (1992).

    An environment where students are given room to explore, and determine goals and learning activities seems a good atmosphere. Students who are given generous access to information resources, books, print, video materials, etc; learning is fostered and   supported, but not   controlled or dictated in   any strict fashion. For this reason,   we tend   here less about instructional

environment and more about learning environments. Instruction connoting more control and directiveness being replaced by the more flexible focus on learning Harris (1992).

Difficulties remain, however, with the idea of a learning environment. For one thing, learning environments seem intrinsically fuzzy and ill- defined. That is an environment which is good for learning cannot be fully pre-packaged and defined. If students are involved in choosing learning activities and controlling space and direction, a level of uncertainty and uncontrolledness comes into play Harris (1992). Thence, the teacher or instructional designer is in a situation of continuing tentativeness and guidance.

For all their care and attention, the system will often appear chaotic to outside observers and even participants. In short, it seems to be a tendency toward chaos and entropy in open learning environments that are not well- designed. The complexity of a learning environment includes proper support, guidance, and rich resources and tools. The focus for designers merely shifts from pre-specification of complete strategies to providing tools and resources for participants that can be used in modular and flexible fashion as learning requirements want Harris (1992).

The purpose behind this theory is to articulate a set of principles or conceptual models to aid teachers and designers in creating, nurturing, and maintaining environments where students are successful in attaining learning goals. In sum, a place where learners may work together and support each other as they use a variety of tools and information resources in their pursuit of learning goals and problem – solving activities Harris (1992). Moreover, recognising problems and opportunities, perceiving how things work together; discovering mechanisms that reign some simple as well as complex concepts.

It encompasses not just explicit but tacit knowledge, not just focal awareness but peripheral one, not just a source of what is there, but what is interesting and valuable as argued by Michael Polanyi (1958). Better than knowing that, how or like names of knowledge, knowing your way around resonates with the notion of a learning environment. Perkins' (1996) point is well taken, as we simplify and package instruction for consumption, the richness of the subject can be bleached away. Learning outside the context of its natural setting also has this effect.

Approaching instruction as a constructivist learning environment theory is an attempt to preserve the richness and complexity that draws people into a subject in the first place. Metaphor is considered by cognitive scientists to be a very powerful conceptual tool because it allows language users to express abstract concepts by reference to more concrete concepts which are more accessible and understandable.

4. 11. Applying Schema Theory

When trying to extrapolate meaning from a metaphor, the learner should have some basic knowledge about at least one of the metaphor's conceptual domains (the source and the target). In creating an understanding of this new domain (the target), the learner must be able to have a basic understanding of the attributes or qualities of the source domain. Since the basic framework is that the target domain maps onto. Subsequently, schema theory (Anderson & Pearson, 1984) accounts for the prior knowledge and prior experience that a learner might use to understand a particular metaphor. Likewise, schema enrichment is important to vocabulary development.

Furthermore, in understanding the characteristics of learners, students also incorporate a variety of procedural, episodic, and heuristic schema into their acquisition of new knowledge. Procedural schema may deal with how students understand the writing process, or the protocol for in-class discussion. Episodic schema may include experiences with reading specific texts like 'a visit to the Eiffel Tower' or 'The Smithsonian Museum' (Anderson and Pearson, 1984). Additionally, a learner's heuristic schema may also include experiences learned like trial-and-error. Taking into account each individual learner may have different schema for the same vent, activity, or concept, and in many ways the teacher's responsibility is to reconcile these different schemata into some new, greater, and collective body of class knowledge.

The teacher not only develops specific conceptual schema, but also prepares his / her learners to acquire new knowledge once they have left the teacher's classroom. Furthermore, one limitation to schema theory is that, it accounts for every aspect of a student's knowledge base: encoding, storage, and retrieval.

Subsequently, schema theory may lack the explanatory power to explain how knowledge could also be hereditary and potentially passed on by a learner genes. According to Rosenblatt (1978), textual interpretation depends on the goals and purposes for reading, and can be subjected to variety of dynamic factors such as emotion and prior experience.

Therefore, the contribution of the reader response approach to direct metaphor instruction is that the reader's / interpreter ability to appreciate or make meaning from a metaphor in literature may be dependent on the purpose for reading, i.e. aesthetic , efferent or both of them. Aesthetic reading for pleasure and efferent reading is reading for information. Teachers who model critical reading approaches to literature give instruction on differentiating between figurative and literal language, and in doing so, differentiate between those metaphors that contribute in making meaning from the text (efferent or informational) Rosenblatt (1978). These metaphorical instantiations and transactions are both pleasurable to read and textually descriptive.

4. 12. Using Metaphor to Explain Complex Ideas

By associating an unfamiliar idea with one that is commonplace, you can spark better understanding of complex ideas (Petrie, Oshlag included in Ortony 1993). For instance, the instructor wants to explain to his or her learners the concept of the business cycle. He / she could use many words, definitions, and drone on for five or ten minutes leaving them bored and confused. Then, he /she could use graphs and diagrams, to help improve understanding and interest. The diagram in page 167 will illustrate and make better emphasis on the role of graphs and drawings in disambiguating what seems opaque in metaphors.

Another approach worth applying, the teacher could explain using a metaphor e.g., The business cycle is a pendulum, swinging back and forth from peaks of prosperity, down through economic troughs, and back up again. The metaphor captures the essence of the business cycle- the listener immediately relates to the continuous back and forth movement. The vivid image helps learners understand and also remember the idea (ibid). So, simply and in just a few words, everyone suddenly 'gets it' to use another metaphor the light bulb suddenly goes on.

Metaphors are great for creating impact and making something memorable. So making use of them is a technique often used in marketing and advertising. But it is just as effective for making impact in your courses, speeches, and even in everyday discussions with metaphors, you help people get the idea quickly and efficiently (Petrie, Oshlag included in Ortony 1993). In marketing for example, in a pitch to sell a vacuum cleaner you could go on and on about how great the new cleaner is and why people should buy it. See how much more impact you could create with metaphors: this vacuum cleaner is so powerful; it can suck the light out of a black hole.

The vivid image helps the teacher to get his or her message across. The secret is to use a metaphor that instantly rings true with your learners and generates a flood of connections as well as associations i.e. metaphorical mapping. Below are four points to apply so as to communicate the content of a given metaphor (Petrie, Oshlag included in Ortony 1993).

a- Identify what you are tying to communicate.

b- Determine the essence of the message.

c- Think of other instances in life where that some charactersable ideas, emotions, states, etc, apply.

d- There may be many metaphors for the situation you are describing, choose the one that will best relate to your audience.

When you use a metaphor to link two ideas together, you are combining elements that have little or no logical connection. By breaking the rules of logic in this, metaphors can open up the creative side of the brain the part that is stimulated by images, ideas, and concepts. So, metaphorical thinking can help with creative problem solving by using another famous / conventional metaphor (Petrie, Oshlag included in Ortony 1993). Problem solving often starts with brainstorming and bouncing ideas back and forth (individually or with a team). Brainstorming is great for getting the creative juices flowering; it can open up a floodgate of ideas and triggers more connotations.

However, students may still be constrained by the images they have of the current problem, or by their preconceived notions about the potential solutions. Metaphors are powerful shortcuts to instant and memorable understanding. They evoke vivid images and allow us to see things from new perspectives, and so are

useful tools for creative problem solving. Use metaphorical thinking to help explain complex ideas, create impact in our presentations, writings as well as speeches.

As a first step the teacher might stick / project a picture to open the deduction doors, then he / she asks about the students' response towards the content as well as the message conveyed via this drawing. The second phase is the introduction of the figurative expression that he / she wants to communicate and asking about the appropriateness of both the figure of speech and the corresponding picture.
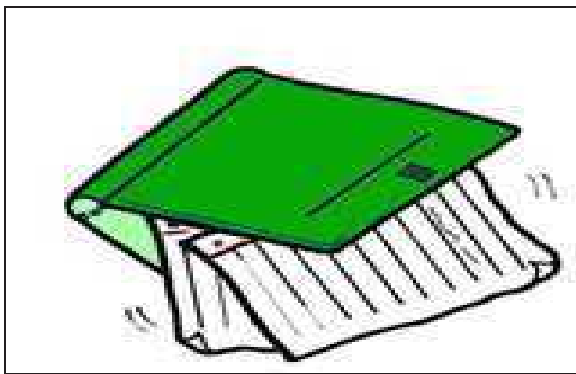
Figure 4.1

Figure 4.2

My binder is an overflowing sea of papers

Our lives are grapes, bitter and sweet

Figure 4.3

As she dreamed about winning her eyes became stars twinkling with the possibilities

4. 13. Coping with Opaque Metaphors

There are some common metaphors that are slowly but surely losing their meaning as people get them missed up or use them to describe an ever broadening set of nouns Low (1988). They are most often used to refer to processes and procedures. In all kinds of literature and used to describe everything from word definition to philosophical ideas. Transparent metaphors are easy to understand, they are accessible to the reader native and non-native. Opaque processes are not, hink of a box full of gears, if the box is transparent; we can see how the gears move and can therefore anticipate actions. If the box is opaque, we cannot see any gears moving, so, we have to guess how things might work.

This is why the metaphors get confusing when used to describe things that are not processes, that is why the instructor might simplify for his / her learners by saying: If we are talking about a thing (such as an idea), you might think, if this idea was a physical thing. The rule is that, the transparency / opacity refers to an imaginary enclosure. If it is transparent, you can see what is going on inside. If it is opaque, you cannot i.e. transparency means something understandable and opacity equals mysteriousness.

This may explain why the optimistic assessment of the value and force of metaphor that should at the same time often be an uneasy matter. A rather extreme example of this tendency is the argument that metaphor although highly useful in human communication Low (1988). With conventional metaphors for example there is no serious problem (even according to persons who are rather sceptical about the cognitive possibilities of metaphors).

The teacher might introduce, for even the assessment of rich and complex, and therefore opaque metaphors, these three different concepts and to consider the distinction between them. Metaphor can serve the progress as well as the dissemination of knowledge Low (1988). This optimistic assessment of the cognitive value metaphor has gained favour, because of rather radical changes in the general view of knowledge and science.

Metaphor is considered by cognitive scientists to be a very powerful conceptual tool because it allows language users to express abstract concepts by reference to more concrete ones. For example, many words for concepts without visible correlation, such as temporal terms, are taken the vocabulary of spatial language. The words long and short describe a spatial dimension (for example, a table) but they also can describe a span of invisible time. Metaphors occasionally impede understanding, when people fail to recognise the metaphor Low (1988). For example, petrified literally means 'turned to stone', but figuratively means 'terrified' because of the way that people and animals freeze when in extreme fear).

Those who do not know the literal meaning and take the metaphorical meaning as the basic one may wonder why the word petrified has the name it does! Sometimes what was originally a metaphor can completely lose its metaphorical force, when most or all speakers can no longer see the metaphor Low (1988). Here, raises again the issue of opacity that can be viewed as a continuum to the question of semantic transparency.

Previous studies have concluded that transparent metaphors are generally easier to decipher than opaque ones. Gary Libben (1998) presents a model of compound representations and processing in which the crucial notion is that of semantic transparency. Libben's model distinguishes between semantically transparent compounds (for example blueberry) and semantically lexicalised biomorphemic units which, as Libben assumes are monomorphemic in the minds of language users (strawberry). To put another way, native speakers realise that while strawberry does not contain the meaning of straw.

This difference in semantic transparency is captured at the conceptual level. Libben distinguishes two types of semantic transparency. Constituency pertains to the use of morphemes in their original / shifted meaning (in shoehorn, shoe is transparent because it is used in its original meaning, while horn is opaque). Componentiality bears on the meaning of a compound as a whole Libben (1998): for example, bighorn is non – componential because the meaning of this word cannot be inferred from the meanings of its constituents even if these are related to independent morpheme.

This makes it possible to inhibit, for example, the lexical representation of strawberry. By referring to these considerations in Libben (1998), (Wolf gang) Dressler (in press) distinguishes four fundamental degrees of morphosemantic transparency of compounds:

1. Transparency of both members of the compound e.g., door-bell

2. Transparency of the non –head member, opacity- of the head member e.g., strawberry

3. Transparency of the non- head member, opacity of the head member e.g., jail-bird

4. Opacity of both members of the compound: hum- bug.

It goes without saying that type1 is most appropriate and type 4 the least appropriate in terms of meaning predictability.

Source: Pavol Strekauer, Meaning Predictability in Word Formation. John Benjamins (2005).

4. 14. Metaphorical Language Effectiveness

A metaphor creates a direct comparison between two different concepts. Metaphors allow to the language user / student to take a single connection and build upon it to clarify a point in a piece of writing or blend it with other themes in an extended story. Prior insertion, it is important to display the steps below in order to add effectiveness to the manuscript. (MacCarthy 2001: 21-30) Metaphorical language offers a multitude of pictures to better represent the message content.

Step 1: Identify the object of the metaphor. Select the word that is important to your overall story.

Step 2: Use imagery to construct a comparison that explains, exemplifies, or contrasts.

Step 3: Select your words carefully to avoid reader confusion and make sure that your metaphor says what you intend to communicate.

Step 4: Build on your metaphor by adding specific elements that help you establish a dual purpose or second meaning. Add elements to your metaphor that are specific to the object you are changing.

Step 5: Add other elements of your story to your metaphor, while keeping to the theme and the meaning of your metaphor. Select another element or character and consider their relationship.

Aristotle for example has emphasised the power of metaphor to effectively inform and persuade. Metaphors allow us to make the complex simple and the controversial palatable. Conversely, metaphors allow to the user the creation of extraordinary meaning out of the seemingly existent. People often associate metaphor with poetry, literature, and art, but we all use metaphor in our day- to-day conversation, often without realising it (Lakoff and Johnson 1980). Because they are so effective at instantly communicating both tangible and conceptual information, metaphorical expressions are woven throughout the fabric of the English language.

Metaphors are so powerful because of one simple fact of human psychology, we create more readily to the emotional than the rational. Thanks to the differences existing between the two human hemispheres of our brains, what catches our attention and sticks with us is what we see and feel via our right brain. After that, the rational left hemisphere can be engaged by the rational nature of the metaphorical information itself (Lakoff and Johnson 1980).

4.15. Exploiting Learners' Heuristic Abilities

Because of their lack of exposure to non- literal forms of language, this latter needs to be explicitly taught to students with language difficulty. So, it is a form of language that students will encounter again and again in text. Some language learners struggle with classroom discourse as well as written and oral language assignments. In other words, their abilities to inference and problem solving, thus interpreting figurative language are weak. They find that some of words are difficult to decode, mainly, because they had never come across them before. In addition to the fact that most passages are stuff of striking imagery which is embedded in the text, and often a time uses figurative language to help communicating those images.

The complex combination of these interrelated mental processes can be schematised as follows: The graphical overview of metaphor building designed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) summarises the succession of the different phases that occur in the second fraction i.e., an ultra- rapid operation that leads to the ultimate phase which is metaphor interpretation. Prior delivery, the human mind collects all

what is in its disposal from sensorimotor and non-sensorimotor experiences to neural connections and brain regions activation, until conventional conceptual blending. This mental amalgam is the result of a mixture of prior knowledge with the new data to fit the requirement of the situation, what we call coping with the metaphor whether transparent or opaque.
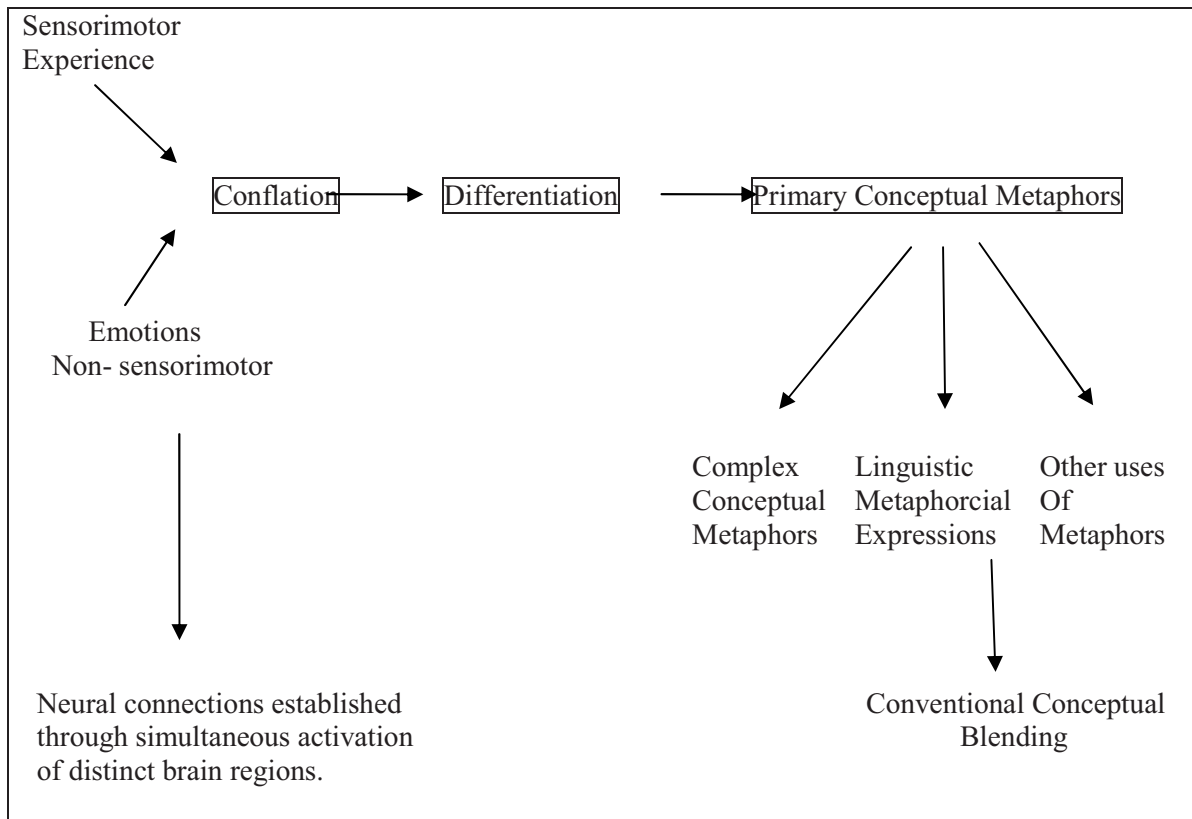
Figure 4.4   Lakoff/ Johnson's

Graphical Overview of Metaphor Building

Here emerges again the concept of transparency as opposed to opacity that comes into the equation, usually along with its connotations. Transparency has strong positive role on figurative language interpretation that cannot be taken for granted. Some language learners tend to anticipate the interpretation of a given metaphor, because they find it obvious. The definition is broad enough to accommodate the wide range of ways in which the label of transparency is currently applied. It tells us that transparency is about making knowledge available, and answers the question 'what knowledge does it cover?

The starting point is when the learner comes to decipher a transparent metaphor easily, then progressively the degree of difficulty increases. Therefore, he or she begins to nurture a sort of familiarity with the figurative language. Then, the student starts collecting purposefully in his/ her mind the most known metaphors in terms of conventionality. This figurative background can serve to backup a piece of writing, either a story, an essay, or a play. It is hopeful that our language learners can be equipped with a metaphorical bias from the first year of their degree till the last.

Afterwards, the retrieval of figurative material already learned will be effortless, since ideas were consolidated at each use. The process of finding arguments for discourse whether oral or written i.e. what we call backing up is guaranteed. Thanks to the recurrent employment of some figures of speech such as simile, metaphor, analogy, etc, the student can monitor a panoply of metaphorical expressions. He or she needs stifled activities as well as carefully selected texts for his/ her cultural enrichment.

In order to cope with the problem of opacity of metaphorical language and sporadic understanding, schematising one's figure of speech mainly metaphor seems pertinent. Therefore, the mapping domains become sharp for the student as well as correspondences and logical links. The graphic organisers are designed to improve the students' inference ability by providing a visual outline of how this mental process can be analysed. Furthermore, it fosters simplification and clarity, thanks to shaping, some ideas can be fossilised. Concomitantly, neural connections establish simultaneous activation of distinct brain regions that in their turn initiate a complex process while depicting a given metaphor.

4.16. Speech   Management & Metaphorical Thinking

Speech management has many different angles, depending on the needs of the students they engage in. Some students have difficulty understanding concepts that come up in speech, such as idiomatic language. Others have difficulty pronouncing certain consonants or identifying sounds in words. As a remedy, teachers can teach these concepts though activities that tackle various types of figurative language, including idioms, alliteration, and onomatopoeia.

Idiomatic expressions   for instance   that have a different connotation than their denotation, are important for students with speech issues to learn. One fun way to get students interested in discussing idiomatic expressions is by using comic strips as a solution. The fist step is choosing a strip that includes an idiom that the teacher thinks is important for students to understand and help them discuss what they think the comic is trying to say. The instructor might start with easier idioms that some students in the group probably already know, so that they can share the humour.

Students who need speech therapy may have problems identifying sounds in speech that they hear. One way to address this issue is to help learners hone in on the noises around them and identify the sounds that make up those noises. Onomatopoeia is the aspect of figurative language that describes the sounds that noises make. In order to acquaint the students with metaphorical language, teachers recommend their students to consult some figurative language books.

Prior tackling the selected books that an L2 learner can consult, for the sake of urging them doing so, the teacher might introduce the gist of some references so as to open stimulation doors. Depiction level will vary from student to another according to his / her figurative competence. It is tightly linked with the linguistic repertoire a student might have as well as the cultural knowledge he / she has gained. In parallel, instructors could help greatly in increasing chances of a successful metaphor interpretation. Metaphorical thinking, as it was mentioned before, is the most intricate ways of thinking, and that, it requires a tremendous mental flexibility. Therefore, the instructor is in fact an agent who facilitates or fluids the process for the learners.

Graphic Organisers comprise key information written in big sheets of papers serving as highlights in displaying the content of an idea. The worksheets pictured above might schematise the mapping domains of a given metaphor. The graphic organisers are designed to improve the students' understanding of deducing concepts by providing a visual outline of how this mental process can be analysed. Furthermore, it fosters simplification and clarity, thanks to the oval balloons as well as grids understanding can occur. Therefore, they act as a roadmap, so, the

learner does simple links so as to reach ultimate interpretations (source domain and mappings). Therefore, Graphic Organisers serve as diagrammatised replies as well, to metaphorically competent and less competent students; since they create a foundation for learning.

Figure 4. 5   Exemplified Graphic Organisers

4.17. Book Selection Criteria

Books dealing with rhetoric represent useful resources on figures of speech with some material on broader rhetorical concerns. They afford overviews of the history of rhetoric, especially as a discipline in competition with philosophy. In parallel, they provide literary terminology for namely advanced studies in rhetorical theory broadly conceived. There are some academic books treating style and the figures of rhetoric, they depart from chiefly historical approach to one informed by the taxonomies of modern linguistics. Others are highly recommended for beginning students of the history of rhetoric. They afford an accurate introduction to the path of rhetoric and major trends. In addition to that, they reflect the full manifestation of rhetorical theory and practice in the last century.

Selecting the right book for language improvement then, is an important process. It is significant at this stage to do the good choice of the book. It should be at the right level of complexity for the student i.e. adhering to the same level of figurative competence. Therefore, if the book is too difficult to understand, the learner may flounder and if the book is too easy, the student will learn very little. The Fry Readability Graph **1** is useful tool for selecting books based on grade level. But perhaps the most important method of book selection is to encourage students read to their teachers from their grade level.

The teacher   in   his or her turn   notes number of miscues. Then he or she asks a series of comprehension questions to determine how well they have understood the story and its themes. The story of Edward Tulane (2006) was selected as a language teaching tool because it is a well constructed story that features excellent story grammar principles. The Edward Tulane's book also has some striking imagery embedded in the text, which often uses figurative language to help communicate those images.

Manin's (2007) book 'Mathematics as Metaphor' turns around the relationship between mathematics and figurative language notably metaphor. The basis of all human culture according to him is languages and mathematics. Hence, language is a special kind of linguistic activity and mathematics is handling numbers as if they are real, as an activity, so both are mental activities. The 'Miraculous Journey' of Edward Tulane as well as 'Mathematics as Metaphor' by Yuri Manin both are referential in the realm of figurative language, in addition to their availability; they attribute a tremendous importance in metaphorical improvement and linguistic progress in general. Learners' competence regarding this linguistic field is then an accumulative process, and one's rhetorical knowledge could only be built upon reading. Eventually, this should be consolidated by the teacher's directiveness and feedback.

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1. The Fry Readability Graph is perhaps the best known of the readability measures available. It is a very handy tool because it helps the teacher or speech- language pathologist to determine at which reading level a particular text is.

4. 18.   Raising Metaphorical Awareness

Various figurative expressions can often be traced back to a common metaphoric theme or source domain. First, we would check out the students' awareness of metaphor by asking the following questions to our students: 'What do you understand by metaphor?', 'What types of metaphor do you know?', 'What other figures of speech e.g., metonymy, simile, etc, do you know? What is the difference between them and metaphor? Can you provide examples of metaphors used in literary texts, general English language texts, specific language texts or spoken discourse! What is metaphor used for e.g., identification, clarification, comparison, etc.

Second, students would be introduced to the topic of cognitive metaphor by giving them the Lakoffian definition and its characteristics. In this respect, we would teach the terminology of the structure of this figure i.e. target domain and source domain, the directionality between them i.e., the comprehension of an abstract concept via another specific one. We would illustrate this explanation with typical examples of conceptual metaphors taken from Lakoff & Johnson's (1980) Metaphors We Live By. LIFE IS A JOURNEY, AN ARGUMENT IS WAR or IDEAS ARE FOOD.

In the same way, we would present the metaphorical concept and the metaphorical expressions and show how they are different. We would also illustrate this explanation with linguistic expressions typical of the above – presented conceptual metaphors. Lastly, we would explain the difference between literary metaphor and cognitive metaphor and would refer to other contributions as regards. In order to put these rhetorical concepts into practice we have established the following sample exercises:

1. Which metaphor, i.e. which source domain and which target domain, can you recognise in the following linguistic expressions: (1) economic growth, (2) corporate disease, (3) a price war, (4) a bear market end, (5) cash flow?
Source: Adapted from Z. Kovecses(2002) Metaphor A Practical Introduction, p.13
Answers 1 and 2: Business is target, IS A HUMAN BEING (source)

    3: Business (target) IS WAR (source)

    4: Business (target) IS AN ANIMAL (source)

    5: Business (target) IS WATER (source)

2. What linguistic expressions can you collect as examples of the conceptual metaphors BUSINESS IS WAR

Source: Adapted from Z. Kovecses (2002).Metaphor: A Practical Introduction, p.13

Possible answers: 'trade war', 'a price war',
'advertising campaign', ' a takeover battle'
'invading new markets' , ' conquering the market'
'Joining forces with other companies, market competition'
'mobilise ones sales force' ' beat the competition, corporate raiders, etc.

3. What mappings characterise the ECONOMY IS AN ORGANISM
metaphor? Layout the set of correspondences between these elements of the
source and those of the target domain.

Source: Adapted from Z, Kovecses (2002) Metaphor A Practical Introduction, p.13

Possible answers

Source: AN ORGANISM	Target/ ECONOMY
a. a growing organism	economy is going up
b. a changing organism	economy is changing
c. a decaying organism	economy is going down
d. a healthy organism	economy is in a good state

b. Methodology and Sample exercises

Metaphors provide insight into particular ways of thinking in relation to the
development of technical and semi- technical registers Boers (2000).
The following sample exercises are geared towards teaching typical business
metaphors (i.e., BUSINESS IS AN ORGANISM, BUSINESS IS WATER,
BUSINESS IS HEALTH, BUSINESS IS HEALTH, BUSINESS IS
SPORTS or BUSINESS IS A PLANT) to assist L2 learners in the understanding of
content specific business lexis:

4. Match the following expressions of the conceptual metaphors
THE MARKET IS AN ORGANISM AND THE MARKET IS WATER
(indicated by numbers) with their meanings(indicated by letters)
1. the market is progressing   x a. supply exceeds demand
2. the market is depressed   b. the market is in a good state

3. the market is flooded   c. the market is in a bad state

4. the market is buoyant   d. the market is bigger than it used to be

5. the market has suffered   e. the market is smaller than it used to be

6. the market has dried up   f. the market is undergoing a gradual process

Source: Adapted from M. Powell (1996). Business Matters, p.28

Answers: 1d, 2e, 3a, 4b, 5c, 8f.

5. Now complete the following extract with some of the expressions from exercise 1:

The US market was fairly 1. _____ when we finally managed to penetrate it three years ago, even though it was largely dominated by two or three big American players. And over the next two years both the market itself and our market share2._____. Significantly (…). I'm afraid the picture in western Europe is not much better. European trade disputes have futher3._____ a market which was already 4._____ from the effects of the recession.

Source: Adapted from M. Powell (1996). Business Matters, p. 28

Answers: 1 buoyant, 2 flooded, 3 depressed, 4 suffering i.e. verbs, nouns and adjectives) commonly used to talk about markets and marketing in terms of something else (i.e. ships, people, water, war, etc.). Can you match them?

Collapse prune target   launch   saturate flood

Skim   dry up penetrate blitz shrink   push

1._____ send a rocket into space or a new ship into water for the first
      time.
2._____ aim at something – when shooting at something.
3._____remove something from the surface of something.
4._____go into something – a bullet into a body.
5._____ cover with water- when a river bursts its banks.
6._____move soothing away from you.
7._____ drop a lot of bombs on one.

8._____ when some soft substance is full of water so that it cannot absorb anymore.

9. _____ fall suddenly - a building during an earthquake.

10._____ when something gets smaller – clothes when they are washed.

11._____when all the liquid in something disappears- perhaps because of too much heat.

12._____ when you cut branches off a tree so that it will grow better in the future.

Source: I. Mackenzie (1997). Management and Marketing, p.80

Answers: 1. launch, 2. target, 3. skim, 4. penetrate, 5. flood, 6. push, 7. blitz (vigorous attack), 8.saturate, 9. collapse, 10. shrink, 11. dry up, 12. prune

6. Match up the metaphors on the left (taken from horse-racing, athletics, football and chess, and indicated by numbers) with the meanings on the right (indicated by letters).

1. an outsider   **a.** a contestant through to have little chance of winning.

2. the front runner   **b**. an action that causes damage to who ever does it.

3. the odds   **c.** a serious setback that ends your hopes.

4. a knockout blow   **d.** a situation in which neither side can win.

5. on the ropes   **e.** barriers or obstacles to overcome.

6. hurdles   **f.** to be in a difficult situation.

7. an own goal   **g.** the chances or possibilities of winning.

8. to be shown the red card   **h.** the contestant currently leading a race.

9. to move the goalposts   **i.** to be disqualified.

10.a stalemate   **j.** to change the rules while something is in progress.

Source: Adapted from I. (Mackenzie 1997, Management and Marketing, p. 20)

Answers: 1a, 2h, 3g, 4c, 5f, 6e, 7b, 8i, 9j, 10d.

7. Choose from the following list of metaphors [3] the most common ones, then try to interpret them. (Own elaboration)

1.   THE DETECTIVE LISTENS TO HER TALES WITH A WOODEN FACE

2.   SHE WAS FAIRLY CERTAIN THAT LIFE WAS AFASHION SHOW

3.   THE TYPICAL TEENAGE BOY'S ROOM IS A DISASTER AREA.

4.   THE CHILDREN WERE ROSES GROWN IN CONCRETE GARDENS.

5.   THAT WOMAN IS THE CANCER OF MY DREAMS AND ASPIRATIONS.

6.   KISSES ARE THE FLOWERS OF LOVE IN BLOOM.

7.   HIS COTTON CANDY WORDS DID NOT APPEAL TO HER TASTE.

8.   KATHY ARRIVED AT THE GROCERY STORE WITH AN ARMY OF CHILDREN.

9.   HER EYES WERE FIREFLIES.

10.   I WAS LOST IN A SEA OF NAMELESS FACES.

11.   JOHN'S ANSWER TO THE PROBLEM WAS JUST A BAND- AID, NOT A SOLUTION.

12.   IN CAPITALISM, MONEY IS THE LIFE BLOOD OF SOCIETY AND CHARITY IS THE SOUL.

13.   CAMERON ALWAYS HAD A TASTE FOR THE FRUIT OF KNOWLEDGE.

14.   THE PROMISE BETWEEN US WAS A DELICATE FLOWER.

15.   HE PLEADED FOR HER FORGIVENESS BUT JANET'S S HEART WAS COLD IRON.

16.   THE JOB FAIR WAS A CIRCUS AND JOHN WAS A DANCING BEAR.

17.   SHE WAS JUST A TROPHY TO RICARDO, ANOTHER OBJECT TO POSSESS.

18.   THE PATH OF RESENTMENT IS EASIER TO TRAVEL THAN THE ROAD TO FORGIVENESS.

19.   THE CHILD WAS OUR LONE PRAYER TO AN EMPTY SKY.

20.   KATIE'S PLAN TO GET INTO COLLEGE WAS A HOUSE OF CARDS ON A CROCKED TABLE.

21.   THE WHEELS OF JUSTICE TURN SLOWLY.

22.   THE JOB INTERVIEW WAS A ROPE LADDER DROPPED FROM HEAVEN.

23.   THE COMPUTER IN THE CLASSROOM WAS AN OLD DINOSAUR.

24.   LAUGHTER IS THE MUSIC OF THE SOUL.

25.   THE TEACHER PLANTED THE SEEDS OF WISDOM.

26.   THE BURDEN IS MY CROSS TO BEAR.

27.   IN THE RING EMILIO WAS BERSERK PIT BULL HUNGRY FOR BLOOD.

28.   HER HOPE WAS A FRAGILE SEED.

29.   WORDS ARE THE WEAPONS WITH WHICH WE WOUND.

30.   THE TEST WAS A WALK IN THE PARK.

31.   SHE CUT HIM DOWN WITH HER WORDS.

32.   THEY SAY THAT SCARS ARE THE ROADMAP TO THE SOUL.

33.   DON'T TROUBLE YOUR LITTLE PEANUT HEAD OVER THE PROBLEM.

34.   THE QUARTERBACK WAS THROWING ROCKETS AND BOMBS IN THE FIELD.

35.   WE ARE ALL SHADOWS ON THE WALL OF TIME.

Answers: the students' own answers

4. 19. Collaborative Learning Activities

Collaborative learning activities **3** aim at involving all the students to work and share and not inviting them. Holme for example (1991) considers collaborative activities as an enhancing way to work on paraphrasing of metaphors. The process of paraphrasing consists of restating a text by giving the meaning another form (Dictionary.com), or say it differently. In other words he emphasises the importance of writing their own paraphrases and sharing or exchanging with the others. So, the procedures to follow in order to involve entire groups are:

Three Step Interview: It consists of organising students' interview i.e. with one student and his / her partner, and reports it back to a larger group. Interviews serve as introductions and icebreakers, helping students cover a lot of material (e.g., sharing what they learned from reading within a collaboration framework); starting class discussion, allowing all students to speak without taking lot of class time. Here, students should split into pairs; each one interviews the other with question provided by the instructor. Then the pair finds another couple and forms a quad. Each student takes turn introducing his / her partner and a summary of his or her response(s) to the group.

Round Table: It consists of urging students take turns responding to a prompt or question. It encourages brainstorming, collaborative writing prompts, identifying key points from a reading assignment which could be a set of metaphors to depict or paraphrase. It aims at involving students from small groups, then giving them a question or a problem. Beside, it fosters learners to provide quick replies that promote in their turn readiness in delivery of speech when the occasion demands. The   student then should be alert to   answer at any moment so as to push the talk forward. The goal behind is to incite   them state their ideas aloud as they write them down, each taking turns. Ideally students will not skip turns, but if one gets stuck, he or she may pass.

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3. Cooperative learning is an approach to organise classroom activities into academic and social learning experiences. It differs from group work, and it has been described as 'structuring positive independence'. Students must work in groups to complete tasks collectively toward academic goals. Furthermore, the teacher's role changes from giving information to facilitating students' learning. Ross & Smith (1995) describe successfully cooperative learning tasks as intellectually demanding, creative, open- ended, and involve higher order thinking tasks.

Think-Pair-Share: It is a quick activity that allows students to think before sharing their responses with the nearby partner. It is good for giving students time to think independently before responding to prompts or answering questions orbiting around eliciting target and source domains of a CM as well as its mapping. It is an efficient group activity in which all students can speak without taking a lot of class time. It aims at fostering rapid answers, since each student is given at least 30 seconds to think prior delivery. Then, the task turns from individual to common when they start sharing their responses and collecting guesses Holme (1991).

Knotty (thorny) Problems: Each student gets feedback from a peer in resolving obstacles to complex problems such as opaque metaphors. It is good for identifying obstacles or roadblocks to solve complex tasks as well as giving students opportunities to learn from one another. In order to fulfil the purpose of this activity, students should be divided into   small groups. One student of each group has two minutes to explain the obstacle he/ she has encountered. During this time no one has the   right to intervene   with comments or questions. Then, each of the other group members has two minutes to share ideas about possible solutions. After the first student's reply or problem has been discussed, another student can go next, and then another repeating the same process; until each student has had time to discuss his / her obstacles.

Jigsaw (missing piece): Consists of forming small groups of students and urging them to work on different aspects of one problem, then present their findings in a logical sequence. It aims at allowing students to become 'experts' in subtopics, deriving the components of headings. In order to fulfil the purpose of this activity, students should be broken into small groups. Each group is tasked with solving some aspects of one problem or prompt. After working on the assigned matter, each group takes turn explaining its piece of puzzles Holme (1991).

Speed Dating: It consists of forming pairs of students, each pair shares ideas with one another in quick succession. It is good for making introductions and icebreaking, receiving feedback on new ideas, helping students identifying partners or teams for group projects, and exchanging metaphorical knowledge with each other. The instructor gives students a list of questions or prompts- either ahead of time or during class- to respond to (e.g., what are your mappings? what is the source domain ? etc.). Then the teacher has to divide the class into pairs and have them

stand facing one another. In 3 minutes round, students share their responses and their date gives suggestions and / or feedback. One member of each pair will stay in place while the other members circulate down the line until each set of pairs have spoken with one another Holme (1991).

Discussion Leaders: Prior to class, students prepare metaphors (simple or intricate) and insights from the course reading in order to lead a discussion. It is good for allowing students to become 'experts' in mappings, motivating students to come to class prepared, receiving feedback on students' inferences. It aims also at teaching students how to ask good questions, giving students opportunities to learn from one another. The ultimate goal of this step is to give students an idea of about how long they can expect to facilitate a discussion in class. Each student should prepare to lead a discussion by 1. preparing at least two metaphors. 2. Preparing in advance two questions to motivate their classmates as well as activating the classroom discussion. 3. Offering two implications leading to metaphors interpretation Holme (1991).

4. 20. Explicit Metaphor Teaching Approach

With conceptual metaphor, the words that are used are often of little interest, what is important is the abstract underlying relationship (s) between two concepts or entities. With linguistic metaphor the entities may have to be inferred, but the conceptual metaphor, they almost always have to be, leading to frequent arguments concerning their optimal specification Kovecses (1997). Conceptual metaphor can be said to represent ways of thinking, in which people typically construe abstract concepts such as time, emotions, and feelings in terms of easily understood and perceived entities, such as places, substances and containers (Lakoff and Johnson 1980).

a. Procedures

Approaching metaphor conceptually has several advantages. Firstly, it allows for instance a picturesque understanding. Secondly, as Kovecses (2000) cites that some phrasal verbs such as 'calm down' or 'simmer down' have a special significance when used in metaphorical language. Thus, conventional expressions such as plan ahead, keep on working, or back in the 60's, as well as less standard ones like: a career crossroad.

In addition to requiring inferences by the listener/ reader to establish what word or concept is being treated? In general, researchers have found that when teachers teach concepts and skills explicitly Lindstromberg (1991) so as to introduce metaphorical thinking, they are forging the students' MC gradually. In order to fulfil what came above, teachers committed by implementing metaphor within explicit metaphor teaching framework, are invited to follow these guidelines:

- Begin a lesson with a short statement of goals;
- Begin a lesson with a short review of previous prerequisite learning;
- Present new material in small steps, with student practice after each step;
- Give clear and detailed instructions and exclamations;
- Provide active practice for all students;
- Ask many questions, check for students understanding, and obtain responses for all students;
- Guide students during initial practice;
- Provide systematic feedback and corrections;
- Provide explicit instructional practice for seatwork exercises; and where necessary, monitor students during seatwork;
- Continue practice until students are independent and confident.

Source: S, Lindstomberg (1991).Metaphor and ESP: A Ghost in the Machine p.210

The major components include teaching in small steps with students' practice after each step, guiding them during initial practice and providing all students with a high level of successful practice. It would be a mistake to say that this small-step approach applies to all students or all situations. It is most important for slow learners and for all learners when the material is new, difficult, or hierarchical. In these situations, relatively short presentations dealing with metaphor interpretation are followed by students' practice Lindstromberg (1991) **5**. However, when teaching in the middle of a unit, the steps are larger, that is, the presentations are longer, less

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5. The metaphors students select could represent central theme for future discussions. Then, during class, the teacher randomly selects a student or two to lead the discussion.

time is spent in checking for understanding or in guided practice, and more independent practice can be done as homework because the students do not need as much help and supervision.

To understand the need for explicit metaphor teaching is to look at recent research on human information processing. The information – processing results apply in three areas, the limits of our working memory, the importance of practice, and the importance of continuing until students are competent. Current information-processing theories suggest that there are limits to the amount of information learners can attend to and process effectively Lindstromberg (1991). We can only process about seven points at a time in our working memory.

This is why when teaching new or difficult material, as metaphorical thinking is, it is better to teach only a small amount and arrange for student practice. So what is taught at any time is manageable for working memory Lindstromberg (1991). In addition, by reviewing relevant learning and providing an outline, a teacher can help students focus more readily on major points. Another worth entailing point is that, we have to process mew material in order to transfer it from our working memory to our long-term memory. That is, we have to elaborate, review, rehearse, summarise, and enhance the material.

Students can do this through active practice, which is facilitated if the teacher asks questions, requires students to summarise main points leading to the ultimate interpretation. Furthermore, extensive practice and frequent review are needed after the material is first learned so that it can be recalled effortlessly and automatically in future work. When prior learning is automatic, this frees space in our working memory, which can be used for application and higher- level of thinking Lindstromberg (1991).

Finally, we might summarise these three points by saying that it is important for the teacher to provide instructional support for students when introducing new material. Such support occurs when the teacher (1) breaks material into small steps in order to reduce possible confusion. (2) Gives the students active practice in each step in order to move the new learning into long- term memory, and (3) provides for

additional practice so that the learners are using the new material or skills effortlessly Lindstromberg (1991).

It seems paramount to recognise that many collaborative exercises can be developed to fit within multiple categories. Categories include: discussion, reciprocal writing, and problem solving. Each category includes a number of potential structures to guide the development of a given collaborative learning activity. Creating collaborative learning opportunities is based on students' sense of innovation; they can thus create or construct their learning. In particular, an activity to help students learn not only how to evaluate their sources (source domain as well as mappings). Make sure how to keep it open ended and beneficial for students while also being able to manage it from an instruction point of view, and this implies the way it is monitored and assessed.

b. Examples of Collaborative Learning Techniques

Holme (1991) considers collaborative learning activities as a way to consolidate metaphorical prerequisite,the following techniques are displayed to fulfil their goals:

1. Think- Pair- Share: The learning activity involves explaining/ interpreting one metaphor to another student. The instructor asks a question to the class. Students clarify their positions and discuss points of agreement and disagreement. The instructor can use several answers to illustrate important points, facilitate inferences, or fluid discussion. As it is demonstrated in the following guidelines:

> **a.** Instructor poses questions to classroom;
>
> **b.** Students write a response (1-2 minutes);
>
> **c.** Student pair up with another student nearby;
>
> **d.** Each student explains his/ her response to the other;
>
> **e.** If they disagree, each clarifies his/ her position and determines how /why he / she disagree.

Source: R, Holme (1991). Taking Texts

This technique aims at eliciting target key concepts as well as enhancing students' metacognition. Students' responses according to this technique are feedback to the instructor about how they are making sense of the material.

2. Reciprocal Teaching **6:**   The learning activity involves students' teaching to one another in groups. One student jointly proposes a metaphor. Another one takes turn being the teacher for a segment of the task. In their teaching role students lead the discussion synthesising the material. Asking question is part of this segment and clarifying ambiguous material as well. It aims at improving students' ability to do specific intellectual activities such as interpreting other figures of speech. Role of teaching puts student in position of monitoring their comprehension and re-organise the material. Furthermore, it exposes student to other ways to interpret the material.

The purpose of reciprocal teaching thus is to facilitate a group effect between teacher and students as well as involve students in the task of bringing the meaning to the text. It is applicable for depicting some aspects of figurative language. The instructor should foster students' initiatives and responsiveness, since they are going to be teachers and learners at once. Each strategy was selected for the following purpose (paraphrased from Palincsar, A.S (1986). Metacognitive Strategy Instruction p.118):

a. Summarising: provides the opportunity to identify and integrate the most important information in the metaphorical expression. Metaphor can be summarised across sentences even paragraphs, if it generates too many ideas. When students first begin the reciprocal teaching procedure, their efforts are generally focused at the sentence and paragraphs levels. As they become more proficient in interpreting and synthesising.

b. Question generating: reinforces the summarising   strategy and leads   learners to one more step along in   the comprehension   activity. When   students generate questions, they first   identify the kind of information that   is significant   in question form and   self-test   to ascertain that they can   indeed answer their own question. Question generating is   flexible   strategy to   the extent that students can be taught and encouraged to generate questions at many levels.

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6. Palincsar (1986) has conducted a series of studies to determine the effectiveness of reciprocal teaching. Reciprocal teaching according to him refers to an instructional activity that takes place in the form of a dialogue between teachers and students regarding segments of text. The dialogue is structured by the use of four strategies: summarising, question generating, clarifying, and predicting. The teacher and students take turns assuming the role of teacher in leading this dialogue.

c. Clarifying: is an activity that is particularly important when working with students who have troubles in comprehension/ depiction. These students may believe that the purpose of reading is saying the words correctly; they may not be certain upon the meaning of some phrases. When the students are asked to clarify their attention is called to the fact there may be reasons why text i.e., metaphorical expression is difficult to understand. They are taught to be alert to effects of such impediments to comprehension and to take the necessary measures to restore meaning Palincsar (1986) (e.g., re-interpret, ask for help).

d. Predicting: occurs when students hypothesise what the author will discuss next. In order to do this successfully, student must activate the relevant background knowledge that they already possess regarding the topic (see tacit knowledge in chapter 2). The students have the purpose for reading to confirm or disconfirm their hypotheses. Furthermore, the opportunity has been created for the students to link the new knowledge they will encounter in the text with the prerequisite knowledge. The predicting strategy also facilitates use of text structure as students learn that headings, subheadings, and questions imbedded in the text are useful means of anticipating what might occur next Palincsar (1986).

4. 21. Conclusion

Chapter four considered ways to approach conceptual metaphor practically. The purpose behind this theory is to articulate a set of principles or conceptual models to aid teachers and designers in creating, nurturing, and maintaining environments where students are successful in attaining learning goals. Thence, a place where learners may work together and support each other as they use a variety of tools and information resources in their pursuit of learning goals and problem – solving activities. In addition, the instructor makes sure how to keep them beneficial for students all along the process of instruction, and this implies the way they are encountered and assessed. Beside, collaborative learning activities Holme (1990) trigger students' ability to do specific intellectual assignments such as interpreting other figures of speech. The role of the teacher here is putting students in position of monitoring their comprehension and re-organise the material. Furthermore, it exposes students to other ways of interpreting the material being learnt. In parallel,

current information processing theories suggest that there are limits to the amount of information learners can attend to and process effectively. Thus, the teacher should not take for granted the fact that the learner can only process about seven items at a time in his or her working memory so as to grantee a better grasp. In sum, the suggested approaches and activities might foster students to recognise problems and opportunities, perceiving how things work together; discovering mechanisms that reign some simple as well as complex concepts. Furthermore, the production of images in students' minds will become more elaborated so as to express thoughts in fresh, vivid, and picturing ways rather than ruminating duplicated styles in writing and in depicting figures too. Ultimately, the ability of extrapolating meaning from a figurative text depends heavily on overlapping steps of inferring and speculating all along with employing new skills. This relies on the fact of familiarising the student with metaphorical thinking. Thus, developing new asset in encountering figurative language in general, and this might yield to an important mutation in the student's way of thinking and analysing.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

Studying in higher education is associated with reflectivity and problem solving which entail assessing the information that students may receive in the course of their university education. Considering non- literal language notably the metaphorical one, resorting on salient analysis, seems paramount at this level. In the light of the results of the present study it is hopeful that students' ability to grasp the intent of the famous conventional metaphors along with their ability to go beneath the figurative language in general is likely to be remarkable.

On the part of teachers, the concept of direct explicit teaching of comprehension processes according to (e.g., Pearson, 1984) and current metaphor theory as detailed by (Ortony et al., 1985) the potential role consists of being strategic besides being aware of the developmental level of learners. In so doing, they will guarantee a total awareness of the complex thinking that the figurative language requires and that the tremendous mental devotion on behalf of their students. Therefore, the process could foster the activation of this mental exercise that progressively turns to a mental habit, thus, an asset.

Teaching students reading between the lines as well as equipping them with an insightful spirit, mental acuteness, and self efficacy enhancement are great achievements. Thence, the students will be typically engaged in a wide range of activities in pursuit of multiple learning goals, with the teacher serving the role of coach and facilitator. In addition to a rich learning environment could more easily be called constructivist, because it calls to instructional guidance and learning challenges as well.

However, poorly planned learning environment is vulnerable due to lack of support and comprehensibility. Approaching metaphorical language explicitly is an attempt to preserve the richness as well as the complexity of the human phenomena in general, since it is inspired from what goes on in the human minds and kits. It is a trial to understand and discover the behaviour and thought of people. Metaphors are crucial to the writer's craft and form an integral part of our everyday speech, so, they cannot be ignored. Direct explicit teaching in

metaphorical processing offers a practical approach that seemingly can be implemented by teachers at any level. The starting point is to familiarise the student with metaphorical language; this comes gradually by introducing simple metaphors then intricate ones. It is certainly not an effortless process, but nevertheless perseveringly, reachable. Hence, it seems crucial in this respect to forge students' metaphorical skills permanently.

What this humble paper has been trying to demonstrate is the results of the pre-test and its implications. First, an obvious tendency upon metaphor rather than idioms manifested itself. Thus, metaphorical mechanisms seem to be more comprehensible than the idiomatic ones. Second, 1st year students, previously exposed to metaphor, could encounter simple conceptual metaphors; and that they handle the proposed conceptual metaphors in asymmetrical degrees of cooperation. Third, the affinity respondents showed toward metaphorical thinking revolved around a kind of disposition to learnability.

Equally, the post-test considered the guarantee of an optimal relevance. Students have to follow the schematic representation already stored as a mental pattern. Thence, they have shown emotional commitment in creating their own products, participants deliberately duplicated their metaphorical experience – prerequisite related to metaphor's anatomy- in building their own products. As for the functioning, it was crucial to know how to join one domain to the other or to juxtapose two dissimilar domains for the sake of eliciting a resemblance so as to have well rooted in context conceptual metaphors.

Learnability was the core of the conceptual metaphor in this humble research, what came in the previous chapters tried to demonstrate some features pertaining to learnability property such as approachability, familiarity, irrevocability, and pragmatism. Eventually, boosting MC students' metaphorical competence will help them in future handling; as it underlined the fact of gaining proficiency in managing conceptual metaphor, and this would be undoubtedly a desired accomplishment on behalf of a non-native learner.

Apriori, metaphors derived from factual knowledge tend to be easy material to monitor, and that the interpreter does not fall in perplexity. In similar conventional metaphors, the material encapsulated represents common sense knowledge; it means that everybody agrees upon its existence or significance. As for metaphorical improvisation assignment, it aimed at testing participants' degree of acuteness. Beside, this task stimulated the creativity of the students since it offered a margin of generating their own metaphors. Therefore, it is worth to stress the fact that this section reflected enthusiastic leaning in metaphorical generation among respondents.

As it was mentioned so far, the compromise that occurs between the tenor and the vehicle so as to fit things together; irrevocably, it is based on genuine experience rhetorically directed. Conceptual metaphors are most often used, namely the opaque ones, to refer to processes and procedures in all kinds of literature and used to describe everything from word definition to philosophical ideas. However, what seems significant as a finding is that transparent metaphors are more approachable and easy material to retrieve than opaque ones by an L2 learner.

As a recall, the ability of extrapolating meaning from a figurative text depends heavily on overlapping steps of inference and speculation, all along with employing new skills. The starting point is then, acquainting the learner with metaphorical thinking. Additionally, developing new asset in encountering figurative language in general, this might yield to a serious mutation in the student's way of thinking and analysing. Ultimately, metaphor incorporation serves to ornate what was conceived as being simple and superficial in meaning.

The multifaceted properties of metaphor allows for the study of macro-interactions between cognition and culture. Because metaphors are of high plausibility in everyday experience, they are context-sensitive, in the same time they are abstract models of reality. Moreover, there is a conception of metaphor as a fountain of meaning, since it generates a flow of interrelated ideas that shape the perception of a given implicit comparison or connection. For that, this work attempted to cover the broad spectrum called 'Metaphor' and the attached

schematic and cultural issues. What should be noted in Cameron and Low (1999b:90) is that the universality and systemacity of metaphors based on embodied experience should make many metaphorical uses of language transparent cross- linguistically.

Finally, what this modest manuscript has been trying to emphasise is urging L2 learners resorting on metaphorical language instead of duplicating literal one. The study devoted a section displaying some improvised metaphors, and stressed the fact that they were all simple as it came in the hypothesis. In students' products, both the structure and language were respected. In addition, they have taken into account the interplay between the source and the target domain. Essentially, they were aware of the fact that metaphorical language is picturesque and therefore, can convey an embedded idea.

As for limitations, the sake of this humble research study has been to delve into the issue of possibility to teach conceptual metaphor to non-native learners and its implications as well. It attempted to consider the metaphorical potential at an L2 student by testing the extent to which he/ she can encounter conventional metaphors and generate eventually his/ her own products. Currently, what seems relevant is the fact of accounting metaphor learnability in a larger scale that encompasses the graduate years. In so doing, the pervasiveness might be an irrevocable matter, since it guarantees both boosting and acquainting figurative thinking.

The current study shed light on the metaphorical responses at a given population which was university students of Dr. Tahar Moulay, Saida , if it occurred elsewhere, the scenario will be perhaps different. Some considerations should not be taken for granted especially when dealing with linguistic competences or peculiarities. Down-to- earth analysis might establish the interplay between language and culture upon metaphorical patterns. The paradigm that rests on portraying disciplinary basis here is the symbiotic relationship between linguistico-cultural details.

What this thesis has been trying to bring is suggesting ways of fostering metaphorical thinking that ultimately captures creativity. For the same sake, students have to explore new areas, as they can adopt novel discoursal approaches; this mutation in language affords a palatable manipulation at the spoken as well as written levels. Consequently, other paradigms might emerge which call to unconventionality of ideas, innovative rather than duplicated ways of communicating, and new stylistic insights. This perspicacity in monitoring linguistic tasks pertains to strategic overall techniques.

What could be a raw material for post- doctoral work is tackling figurative language neurologically, notably conceptual metaphor, and that by letting no vacuum without detail between what is thought and what is delivered during depiction elderly and terminally. Potentially, the need for further research related to explicit metaphor teaching seems pertinent regarding this humanistic aspect of language too. In fact, learning to interpret makes a great deal of education necessary, and this consists in no small measure in the learning of unconscious norms of our brains.

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THESIS GLOSSARY

Aesop Fables:

Aesop's Fables or the Aesopica is a collection of fables credited to Aesop, a slave and story-teller believed to have lived in ancient Greece between 620 and 560 BCE. The stories associated with Aesop's name have descended to modern times. They continue to be reinterpreted in different verbal registers and in popular as well as artistic mediums.

Allegory:

A story in which the characters and events are symbols that stand for ideas about human life or for a political or historical situation.

Analogy:

Similarity in some respects between things that are otherwise dissimilar.

Conceptual System:

May be found within the human mind. Broadly, it includes a range of values, ideas, and beliefs. A conceptual system may refer to an individual's mental model of the world. In humans, a conceptual system may be understood as kind of metaphor for the world. In science, there are many forms of conceptual system including laws, theories, and models. Those conceptual systems may be developed through inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning, and empirical analysis.

Container:

Anything that contains or can contain something. A large cargo carrying standard-sized container that can be loaded from one mode of transport to another. In the current context is used as a word carrying several meanings.

Catachresis

Catachresis is a misuse or stained use of words, as in a mixed metaphor, occurring either in error or for rhetorical.

Contiguity

Contiguity is a series of things in connection, a continuous mass or extent.

Depotatum

It is derived from the word deposit, which means to put or set down.

Efferent

Efferent means carrying out, from the verb 'efferre' that takes its origin from Latin. Efferent means conducted or conducting outwards or away from something.

Epitomy

Epitome is a typical example of a characteristic or class, embodiment, personification; via Latin from Greek epitome, derived from epitemnein: epi+ temnein.

Graphic Organiser

Graphic organiser is a visual and graphic display that depicts the relationship between facts, terms, and ideas within a

learning task. Graphic organisers also referred to as knowledge maps, conceptmaps, storymaps, cognitive orgnisers, or concept diagrams. There are many types of organisers such as: Desriptive, Thematic, Networtree, Spidermap, and Sequential map organisers…

Hyperbole

 A figure of speech in which exaggeration is used for emphasis or effect.

Heuristic Schema

Serving to indicate or point out, stimulating interest as a means of   furthering investigation.

Imaginary Enclosure

Unreal area that is surrounded by a barrier.

Idiom

A group of words established by usage as having a meaning not deducible from these of the individual words. It takes its origin from the late 16 th century from French idiome, or via late Latin from Greek idioma. It means 'private property' or 'peculiar'.

Interactive Awareness

 Having knowledge or cognisance influencing two partners.

Kinship   Kinship is a feeling of being close or connected to other people.

Metaphorical Association

Metaphor is a type of analogy and is closely related to other rhetorical figures of speech that achieve their effects via association.

Metonymy

Metonymy is a substitution of the name of an attribute or adjunct for that of thing meant, for example, the use of the crown to refer to a monarch, from late Latin from Greek which means changing of name, from meta (indicating change) + onoma name

Neural Mapping

Neural mapping is a map of neurons in our brains and how interact with each other, a certain network is therefore created.

Nonliteral

Used of the meanings of words or text, it is the equivalent of not literal, and based on the use of figurative language.

Parable

A parable is a short story that uses familiar events to illustrate a religious or ethical point.

Prototype Structure

Is a form or a base that serves to illustrate the typical qualities of a class, model, and exemplar.

Rational

Rational means fundamental reason or reasons serving to account for something, it might be the equivalent of logic, basis, or grounds.

Rhetorics

Rhetorics is the art or study of using language effectively and persuasively.

Semantic Markers

Semantic markers are words as although, however, and moreover. Semantic markers indicate the relationship between statements.

Significatum

The significatum is usually opposed to the depotatum, which is that class of objects of extralinguistic reality to which a given word can be corrected. The significative and denotative aspects of linguistic meaning are inseparably linked because of the function of language to both designate objects and phenomena of external world and simultaneously express the way in which speakers of the language interpret these objects and phenomena.

Source:
From Oxford Dictionary and Wikipedia

APPENDICES

APPENDIX   A

Learners' Questionnaire

Every one has beliefs about how language is learned and improved. Therefore, aiming at gathering information about the use of figurative language; I will be very grateful if you can respond to the following questions:

Section one: (guided) **Testing Tendencies**

Directions: Read each statement, then decide if you: (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) I'm neutral on this point, (4) disagree, (5) strongly disagree

1. If you do not have a special aptitude, it will be really hard to learn/ grasp the meaning of metaphors.

2. It is really important to be equipped with such figure of speech when communicating.

3. Reading is crucial in reinforcing one's linguistic repertoire including metaphorical one.

4. Some metaphors are by their nature easier than others.

5. Some metaphors are wide-spread than others.

6. If you can analyse how a metaphor works, you will be able to employ it.

7. You can learn metaphors more easily if you like the culture from which these emerged.

8. Being interested is usually favourable in learning metaphors.

9. Being indifferent is usually harmful in learning metaphors.

Section Two: (free)   **Idiosyncratic Implications**

Reply please to these three questions amply:

1. Do you use metaphor in you daily formal conversations?

2. Is it difficult to interpret metaphors when they are mixed with the speech? Say why?

3. Does the understanding of metaphors depend on one or many factors? Could you site it / them?

APPENDIX A1
Students' Replies (Raw Data)

APPENDIX A2 (Follow up)

APPENDIX A3 (Follow up)

APPENDIX A4 (Follow up)

Pre-test / May 2011

Level: 1st Year / Written Expression Subject Matter
Duration: 1h: 30

Task One: Try to infer the meaning of the following idiomatic phrases:

1. *Pulling the carpet under feet*

…………………………………………………………………

2. *Using two different vessels for measuring*

…………………………………………………………………

3. *Ringing the danger bell*

…………………………………………………………………

4. *The way leads to each other*

…………………………………………………………………

Task Two: Try to interpret (give the meaning) of the metaphors below:

 a. LIFE IS A JOURNEY

…………………………………………………………………..

………………………………………………………………….

b. IDEAS ARE FOOD

…………………………………………………………………..

…………………………………………………………………..

c. COMMUNICATING IS SENDING

 …………………………………………………………………..

 …………………………………………………………………..

d. HAPPY IS UP

…………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………

APPENDIX B1

Very Able Students' Replies (Raw Data)

APPENDIX B2

Able Students' Replies (Raw Data)

APPENDIX B3

Less Able Students' Replies (Raw Data)

APPENDIX B4

Less Able Students' Replies (Raw Data)

APPENDIX C

Post-test / May 2013

1ST Year Level / Written Expression Subject Matter

Duration: 1h: 30

Section One: Metaphor Interpretation

Try to interpret the metaphors below:

1. ANGRY IS A HOT LIQUID

……………………………………………………………………….

………………………………………………………………………..

…………………………………………………………………………

2. MORE IS UP

…………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………

3. NIGHT OWL

…………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………

4. IT DOES NOT MATTER IF IT IS BLACK OR WHITE AS LONG

AS IT CATCHES MICE

…………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………..

Section Two: Testing Improvisation

Could you write some metaphors from your own?

APPENDIX C1

Very Able Student's Replies (Raw Data)

APPENDIX C2

Able Students' Replies (Raw Data)

APPENDIX C3

Less Able Students' Replies (Raw Data)

THINK-ALOUD PROTOCOL

RECORDING

APPENDIX D
Pilot Test Requirements

A pilot testing is a standard scientific tool for soft research, allowing scientists to conduct a preliminary analysis before committing to a full study or experiment. Therefore, so as to test the feasibility, equipment, or method, researchers often use a pilot test.

Pilot Test Requirements:

1. Timing: Record the start and the endtime, so you can tell how long it takes to answer.

2. Clarity: Pay attention to instances when respondents hesitate to answer or ask for clarification, as this may be an indication that questions are too vague, difficult to understand, or have more than one meaning.

3. Checking understanding: After the respondents have finished, go over the test again and for each question have the respondents tell you what they think is being asked. You could follow by asking about wording that would have been clearer.

Source: Centre of Evaluation and Research
http:// programeval. ucdavise.edu

APPENDIX E

Think-aloud Protocol Requirements

Protocol analysis is a rigorous methodology for eliciting verbal reports of thought sequences as a valid source of data on thinking. Think-aloud protocols involve participants thinking aloud as they are performing a set of specified tasks. Participants are asked to say whatever comes into their mind as they complete the task. This might include what they are looking at, thinking, doing, and feeling.

1. It gives observers insight into the participant's cognitive processes (rather than only their final product), to make thought processes as explicit as possible during task performance.

2. In a formal research protocol, observers are asked to take notes of what participants say and do, without attempting to interpret their actions and words, and especially noting places where they encounter difficulty.

3. Test sessions are often audio- and video-recorded so that developers can go back and refer to what participants did and how they reacted.

Source: Wikipedia

APPENDIX E (follow up)

During Performance

During the think- aloud protocol that took place in the end of May 2011, the researcher has chosen three students from each grouping. The observer has tried to make them at ease as much as possible so as to elicit what could be necessary and genuine in the coverage of this modest analysis. Participants were quite glad to contribute on the topic of this work and to be recorded as well.

aspect 1/ Positivism upon task performance: Verbal performance is somehow a compelling assignment for our students, but nevertheless challenging. However, self confidence has a lot to do with learning (in these instances). In addition, contextual performance has emerged as an important aspect of the overall task.

aspect 2/ Apprehension period: Respondents seemed apprehensive at the beginning of the meeting, and that because they did not know what was it about! Once the topic has been delivered, they started forwardly thinking and negotiating the meaning. Transaction period took actually few seconds prior delivery, then spontaneous verbal interpretation occurred.

aspect 3/ Reticence moments: According to the think- aloud protocol norms, the observer should note every single word and action uttered or done by the participants. Actually, performance was not linear, at first the subjects were troubled by the newness of the situation as they were a bit stressed about the deliberate replies they had to give. After a short moment, they found calm again.

aspect4/ Vocabulary appropriateness constraint: In this aspect, the student's lexis does pose problem, whether for this instance or other situations that require deliberate verbal production. Conceptual mapping i.e. words finding and matching shaped some perplexing moments of uncertainty and doubt when the respondents did not find the accurate word/s to cover their interpretations.

Learners' Questionnaire

Every one has beliefs about how language is learned and improved. Therefore, aiming at gathering information about the use of figurative language; I will be very grateful if you can respond to the following questions.

Section one: (guided) **Testing Tendencies**

Directions: Read each statement, then decide if you: (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) I'm neutral on this point, (4) disagree, (5) strongly disagree

	1	2	3	4	5
1. If you do not have a special aptitude, it will be really hard to learn/ grasp the meaning of metaphors.	1				
2. It is really important to be equipped with such figure of speech when communicating.			3		
3. Reading is crucial in reinforcing one's linguistic repertoire including metaphorical one.	1				
4. Some metaphors are by their nature easier than others.		2			
5. Some metaphors are wide-spread than others.	1				
6. If you can analyse how a metaphor works, you will be able to employ it.		2			
7. You can learn metaphors more easily if you like the culture from which these emerged.			3		
8. Being interested is usually favourable in learning metaphors.	1				
9. Being indifferent is usually harmful in learning metaphors.	1				

Section Two: (free) **Idiosyncratic Implications**

Reply please to these three questions amply:

1. Do you use metaphor in you daily conversation formal and informal?

2. Is it difficult to interpret metaphors when they are mixed with the speech? Say why?

3. Does the understanding of metaphors depend on one or many factors? Could you site it / them?

① Yes, I do, because the metaphor gives argument in my research or my talking, it provides power to convince the listener or the reader. I use it in Formal,

② It is difficult, because metaphors have indirect meaning, and there are many people who do not understand them in Speech

③ Metaphor understanding depends on many factors such as:
- Imagination
- Intelligence
- The nature of words
- Good vocabulary
- The quality of the sentence

Learners' Questionnaire

Every one has beliefs about how language is learned and improved. Therefore, aiming at gathering information about the use of figurative language; I will be very grateful if you can respond to the following questions.

Section one: (guided) **Testing Tendencies**

Directions: Read each statement, then decide if you: (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) I'm neutral on this point, (4) disagree, (5) strongly disagree

1. If you do not have a special aptitude, it will be really hard to learn/ grasp the meaning of metaphors. — SA

2. It is really important to be equipped with such figure of speech when communicating. — SA

3. Reading is crucial in reinforcing one's linguistic repertoire including metaphorical one. — SA

4. Some metaphors are by their nature easier than others. — SA

5. Some metaphors are wide-spread than others. — SA

6. If you can analyse how a metaphor works, you will be able to employ it. — SA

7. You can learn metaphors more easily if you like the culture from which these emerged. — SA

8. Being interested is usually favourable in learning metaphors. — SA

9. Being indifferent is usually harmful in learning metaphors. — SA

Section Two: (free) **Idiosyncratic Implications**

Reply please to these three questions amply:

1. Do you use metaphor in you daily conversation formal and informal?

2. Is it difficult to interpret metaphors when they are mixed with the speech? Say why?

3. Does the understanding of metaphors depend on one or many factors? Could you cite it / them?

1/ - Yes, I usually use this kind of metaphor, for example when I talk about something amazing which you can't express it eazly, or to show the beauty of something, you use this figure in both (formal and informal).

2/ - Yes, sometimes it is difficult because you don't know the true meaning of the words within methors, generally, it is not easy.

3/ - Generally, it depends on one factor,

Souar Messaouda.

1 - Yes, I do, because the metaphor gives argument in my research or my talking, it provides power to convince the listener or the reader. I use it in formal.

2 - It is difficult, because metaphors have indirect meaning, and there are many people who do not understand them in speech.

3 - Metaphor understanding depends on many factors such as:

- Imagination
- Intelligence
- The nature of words
- Good Vocabulary
- The quality of the sentence.

the characteristic of a thing or a person, but the necessary and the most important that it finish your work. You focus on the result.

* Life is a game -

1) Only rocks and stones will stay in the river
   - it's mean that every thing change and nothing
   will be the same

2) "The skandal is big and dead's only a mouse"
   - we should not make a lot of noise and debate
   for a stupid things.

A. Some idiomatic phrases and its interpretations:

1. 'Pulling the carpet under the feet' => means that when we do something wrong or bad, we will hurt just ourselves and not the others.

2. 'Using two different vessels for measuring' => means that we need to think about our next step from all its sides, before do it.

3. 'Ringing the danger bell' => means that we should pay attention, and be carefull, because we are in real danger.

4. 'The way leads to each other' => means that to release just one aim or objectif, we have many way to follow.

B. What is the meaning of metaphors below ?

1. Life is a journey => means that life is as short as a journey, and we feel like our life is just a brief moment that we live.

2. Ideas are food => means that we have to think to enrich our mind and to be more smart and intellegent, like we should eat to built our bodies

3. Communicating is food) => means that in our relationships sending we should give all what we have of love and sincerity without wait for any payment from the otherside.

4. Happy is up => means that when we are happy we feel just like we are flying up.

Fissah Hafida   Gn° 06

Some idiomatic phrases:

1) "Pulling the carpet under feet"
2) "Using two different vessels for measuring"
3) "Ringing the danger bell"
4) "The way leads to each other"

Their Interpretations:

1) It means trying to interogate someone for something without asking him directly
2) It means judge and evaluate the others diffrently and in different ways.
3) It means that a person is in dangerous situation and she has to pay attention
4) It means to reach the goal we have just to follow the way that we had chosen.

What is the meaning of methaphors below:

A 1) Life is a journey
A 2) Life has a end and we are like passengers we live in it but one day we will day.

B 1) Ideas are food
B 2) it means that ideas feed our brains, so our brains need ideas to work and have informations

C 1) Communicating is sending
C 2) it means to communicate with the others and make relationships we have to give them all what they want (love_ kidness ...) without waiting them to give us their turn

d 1) Happy is up
d 2) it means when you are rich and you have a good and up status in society you are happy because you are not waiting fore someone to give you what you need.

Naari Hina.

Group : 05

① some idiomatic expressions:

- Pulling the carpet under the feet.

- Using two different vessels for measuring

- Ringing the danger bell.

- The way leads to watch other

   - Their interpretations:

1. it means to sheet someone.

2.

3. Doing an act that however we know that it's dangerous but we^do it.

4.

   ② what is the meaning of metaphors below ?

- Life is a journey.

1. it means life is short.

- Ideas are food.

2. it means we don't keep them for a long time in our brains, one goes ^and another comes.

- Communication is sending.

3. it means when we communicate we send messages to the others.

- Happy is up.

4. it means that the happiness makes people feel so high.

1⇒ it means you defeat some one he was usually the first or the stronger.

2⇒ don't be quickly in any situation, you should ask and ask about it or don't ~~~~ look to the thing from one side.

3⇒ it means something horrible is happening.

4⇒ it means all the solutions are the same and have the same resultes.

2) - 1⇒ It means that all this life is one day, because yesterday was going and tomorrow will not come yet.

2⇒ It means = food is necessary for the body, it gives power and energy so the ideas also gives power to a plan or project.

3⇒ It means your ideas and concepts are clear.

4⇒ It means to be happy you should work hard.

Benali Om El Khier,
group = 5

Try to interpret the metaphors below

SEHIBI
SIHAM
Groupe: 01

① Angry is a heart liquide

② More is up

③ Night owl

④ It doesn't matter if it is black or white as long as it catches mice.

Explanation?

① Angry is a heart liquide a Metaphor which means that when we get angry it is like some hot liquid like water, Milk or something which makes us burned or hurt us. when some one get angry so he fills like a hot liquid Circuling in his body.

② More is up: is a Metaphor we use it when we mean that the things is up from my ability, it's over come the limits and the limes and this thing should be stopped.

③ Night owl: it is a metaphor which means that the person who say it, he didn't sleep all the night, he stay all the night opening his eyes.

④ it doesn't matter if it is black or white as long as it Catches mice: this metaphor means that you don't care about

1/ "Angry is a hot liquid ."

-) Angry is very defficult person to get in with him at that
time , as if you try to put your hand in a hot boiling liquid

2/ More is up ."

-) More you progress with your mind and with your knowledge
the more it gives you chances and posibilities

3/ "Night owl ."

-) It means that some one is a lover of looking for others secret
and privet information, or that some body likes to stay awake
in night. Or, they have big rounded eyes.

4/ "It does not matter if it is black or white as long as it
cashs mice."

-) It is not important the way, the race, the social position
what is realy important is what you do and achive in your
life.

My own metaphors:

=) Clauds are in the sky to make rain -) be hopeful and
see problems as if it is a prob claud will make it raining

) true love is a pillow => love can be owned only by one

- Try to explain The following methaphore:

1) Angry is a hot liquid.
2) more is Up.
3) a neight Owl.
4) It doesn't matter if it is black or white as long as it catches mice.

___ ___ ___ ___

1) When some One feel angry, he becomes harmful like a hot liquid, when he contact with some person he will hurt him.

2) If some one had beign pation for the longest Possible time, so he announce that it's enough by "more is Up"

3) person who doesn't sleep at neight, we call Them "Owls" because this kind of birds can't sleep at neight

4) We can not judge some one on his appearance because it's may turn Us wrong, and we can not know the truth by the outside look.

Guettafi
Kawla

Question: try to intrepet the methaphores below ? G: 04
- "Angry is a hot liquid"
- "More is up"
- "Night owl"
- "It does not matter if it is black or white,
As long as it catch it mice"

- "Angry is a hot liquid": when you get angry you can say and do everything bad at that time because you lost your logic and your mind and "hot liquid" means : liquid becoming down as water or hot water which means you involve your angry in your actions to burned your environment.

- "More is up": every thing you know about him is some thing good it means you have to be multivated in all the subjects which has relationship with life. to know more to live more confortable life.

- "Night Owl" means that when you could not sleep; when you feel tired and bored and awful ; your eyes can be not closed as owl's ones.

- "It does not matter if it black or white, as long as it catch is it mice"; It is not a problem; when you don't care about a problem or somebody; it h no importance in your life it is the same thing; it has the value of mice in your life.

Question: try to interpret the methaphores below? G=04
- "Angry is a hot liquid"
- "More is up"
- "Night owl"
- "It does not matter if it is black or white,
As long as it catch it mice"

"Angry is a hot liquid": when you get angry you can say and do everything bad at that time because you lost your logic and your mind and "hot liquid" means = liquid becoming down as water or hot water which means you involve your angry in your actions to burned your environment.

"More is up": every thing you know about him is some thing good it means you have to be multivated in all the subjects which has relationship with life. to know more to live more comfortable life.

"Night Owl" means that when you could not sleep; when you feel tired and bored and awful; your eyes can be not closed as owl's ones.

"It does not matter if it black or white, as long as it catch is it mice"; It is not a problem; when you don't care about a problem or somebody; it has no importance in your life it is the same thing; it has the value of mice in your life.

women is peace and war =) it depend on the men how to treat women and make her in a Relaxing ease or in an storm that destroy every thing in it way.

Be Simple is shine => when you behave in a simple way you will leave a lovely soft impresion in the others move than if you are complecated in your way of life.

THINK- ALOUD PROTOCOL

RECORDING