



**SPORTS-RELATED ENGLISH METAPHORS IN TEACHING  
ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN TURKEY**

**Amir FARJAMİ**

**DOCTORAL DISSERTATION  
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT**

**GAZI UNIVERSITY  
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES**

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## **TELİF HAKKI VE TEZ FOTOKOPİ FORMU**

Bu tezin tüm hakları saklıdır. Kaynak göstermek koşuluyla tezin teslim tarihinden itibaren ..... ay sonra tezden fotokopi çekilebilir.

### **YAZARIN**

Adı : Amir

Soyadı : FARJAMI

Bölümü : Yabancı Diller Eğitimi

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### **TEZİN**

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## **ETİK İLKELERE UYGUNLUK BEYANI**

Tez yazma sürecinde bilimsel ve etik ilkelere uyduğumu, yararlandığım tüm kaynakları kaynak gösterme ilkelerine uygun olarak kaynakçada belirttiğimi ve bu bölümler dışındaki tüm ifadelerin şahsıma ait olduğunu kabul ederim.

Yazar Adı Soyadı: Amir FARJAMI

İmza:

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**Danışman:** Doç. Dr. Cemal ÇAKIR

Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı, Gazi Üniversitesi .....

**Üye:** .....

**Üye:** .....

**Üye:** .....

**Üye:** .....

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(Doktora Tezi)**

**Amir Farjami  
GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ  
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ  
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**ÖZ**

Bu tez, kavramsal metafor kuramı ve etimolojik ayrıntılandırma tekniği uygulanarak, deyimssel ifadelerin daha iyi anlaşılması ve akılda kalmasında kuram ve uygulamayı bir araya getirmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Metaforların düşünce ve kültürümüzü şekillendirmedeki yaygınlığı bir gerçektir. Dilsel metaforlar için kaynak alan olarak işlev görebilecek birçok yaşam alanı arasında, sporla ilgili metaforlar kuşkusuz, anadili konuşucularının dünyaya ilişkin algılarını ve algılarını nasıl yansıttıklarını kolayca anlamak için büyük bir kaynak alandır. Bu çalışma, kavramsal metaforların yabancı dil bağlamında deyim öğretiminde kullanılmasının etkilerini araştırmak ve sporla ilgili metaforların Türk öğrenciler tarafından nasıl algılandığını belirlemek için yapılmıştır. İngilizceyi etkili kullanmada İngilizcede bulunan spor metaforlarını, birinci dili Türkçe olan ve Türkiye'de Türk kültürel geçmişine sahip olan konuşucuların anlama becerisini belirlemeyi amaçlamıştır. Kavramsal metafor teorisi hakkında açıklamalar, görsel videolar ve imgeler, ve spor deyimlerinin kökenine ilişkin kültürel açıklamalar yoluyla deney grubuna deyim öğretiminin, kontrol grubuna yalnızca geleneksel yöntemler yoluyla (örneğin, ezberleme yoluyla) deyim öğretiminden daha etkili olup olmadığını belirlemek amacıyla, deney ve kontrol gruplarının deyimleri anlama ve akılda tutma oranları karşılaştırılmıştır. Bu çalışmada hem nicel hem de nitel araştırma araçları kullanılmış ve bu uygulamanın dil öğrenenlerin metafor farkındalığı ve deyimlerin anlamını kavramadaki başarısı üzerindeki etkisi ön-test, son-test, gecikmeli son-test ve anketler kullanılarak değerlendirilmiştir. Elde edilen sonuçlar, girdilerin iyileştirilmesinin, çeşitli görsel uygulamaların ve yenilikçi metafor öğretimi malzemelerinin geliştirilmesinin öğrencilerin metaforik dili fark etmelerini arttırdığını; öğrenme ve akılda tutma sürecine büyük ölçüde yardımcı olduğunu; ve hatta metafor farkındalığını güçlendirdiğini ve deyimssel ifadeleri anlamada etkili olduğunu göstermiştir.

Bu bulgu, deneygrubu kontrol grubundan daha etkili performans gösterdiğinden, yabancı dilde deyimleri öğrenmek ve öğretmek için ek bir yol olarak kavramsal metafor konumunu güçlendirmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler : Spor Deyimleri, Kavramsal Metafor, Etimolojik  
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**Amir Farjami  
GAZI UNIVERSITY  
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES  
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**ABSTRACT**

This thesis aims at bringing theory and practice together for learners' understanding and retention of idiomatic expressions, by applying conceptual metaphor theory and etymological elaborations technique. The pervasiveness of metaphors in shaping our thoughts and culture is real. Among many domains of life which may act as source domains for linguistic metaphors, sports-related metaphors undoubtedly are a great source domain, in order to easily understand the way native speakers reflect their perception and conception of the world. The present study was carried out to explore the positive impact of using conceptual metaphors in teaching idioms in a foreign language context and ascertain the Turkish students' perceptions of sports-related metaphors. It aimed to establish the roles that understanding of English-based sports metaphors plays in the effective use of English by speakers whose first language and who have a Turkish cultural background in Turkey. The comprehension and retention rates of the idioms by the experimental group and the control group were compared to determine whether teaching idioms to the experimental group through conceptual metaphor theory explanations, videos and images, and cultural clarification on the origin of sports idioms is more effective than teaching the idioms to the control group through the traditional methods only (for example, through memorisation). In this study, both quantitative and qualitative research tools were used and the influence of this implementation on the awareness of language learners' on metaphor and successful meaning understanding of idioms is evaluated by the use of pre-post-, delayed post-tests and questionnaires. The results obtained showed that the students' awareness of metaphorical language was increased by input enhancement and varied application of visuals and development of innovative metaphor teaching materials. It helped the process of learning and retention and even strengthened metaphor awareness and increased success in understanding sports-related idiomatic expressions and metaphors. This finding strengthens the position of conceptual metaphor as an additional

tool and a new window for learning idioms in a foreign language both in teaching and learning, as the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group.

Key Words : Sports Idiomatic Expressions, Conceptual Metaphors, Etymological  
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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. Introduction

Mert was ready for the major leagues. He knew that he could step up to the plate. He was not going to strike out. He wanted to hit a home run. He knew that this job would be more difficult than the last one and he could be thrown a curveball. Mert touched base with his supervisor and covered all the bases.

Understanding the above short text is not very difficult for a native American English speaker since the baseball idioms used are common in everyday communication. Moreover, if a native speaker is asked to identify where these idioms have originated from, chances are the person would be able to identify the source as baseball, which is one of the most popular sports and common pastime activities in America. The frequency of the use of idiomatic language in English presents a particular challenge to English language learners. Imagine a recent immigrant from Turkey being confronted daily with idioms derived from sports with which they may have no familiarity. Since English, just like any other language in the world, is a language rich in idiomatic phrases that are commonly understood and used, there is a practical need for non-native speakers, and particularly English Language Learners (ELLs), to find ways to readily comprehend and retain common idioms. What information might be helpful to decipher the meanings of English idioms in general and English sports-related idioms in particular? Would it be helpful to know that the original meaning of *hit a home run* is derived from the sport of baseball? Would it be helpful to be aware of the metaphorical nature of idioms? Would it be helpful to know that many idioms are culture-specific and that American idioms are often derived from sports? Could a non-native speaker decipher its idiomatic meaning without explicit



instruction on the idiomatic meaning by the help of Conceptual Metaphor (CM)? The purpose of this thesis is to address many of these questions and to find some practical and helpful answers.

The pedagogical implications and useful findings of some researchers on the pivotal role of metaphors in foreign language teaching and learning have opened new windows for both foreign and second language learning and teaching. According to Beck (1982), the conceptual system of Lakoff and Johnson (1980) has had a productive effect not only in education but also in the study of language and understanding of culture. Boers and Demecheleer (1998), have emphasized the vital role of raising learners' metaphor awareness for vocabulary teaching in English by applying the cognitive metaphor theory. In her arguments, Littlemore (2001) asserted that metaphor is ubiquitous in most of the areas that language learners require to utilize, comprehend or discover. Cameron and Deignan (2003) confirmed that one important factor in shaping children's acquisition of languages and deepening their understanding of idiomatic expressions is the metaphor. Littlemore and Low (2006) pointed out that the importance of metaphor in acquisition and comprehension of vocabulary is so central for the understanding of the connotative meanings, which are more frequently used than denotative meanings of words.

The cognitive study of metaphor by most of linguists and researchers has been claimed to have a great impact in the cultivation of language teaching. Lakoff (1999), after many experiments, states that "The focus of metaphor study should be put on the investigation of the cognitive function of metaphor in language learning and teaching" (p. 89). Littlemore (2001) points out that "A comprehensive study of metaphor, ranging from the theoretical study to their application to language teaching and employing the findings in cognitive linguistics in language teaching is one of the main focuses and trends of the modern study of metaphor" (p. 223). Guerrero and Villamil (2002), suggest that teachers of either foreign or second language might use metaphor as a means of increasing awareness and critical learning. They affirm that teachers need to have the awareness of the powerful influence of metaphors in shaping educational attitude and focus on examining the extent to which these metaphors mirror their beliefs.

Metaphor, which lies at the heart of human communication and thought, has been distinguished as an important part of language use since the time of Aristotle, and still today there is a large body of work in research on the complexity of metaphor. What is

perhaps more fascinating about metaphor is that, despite decades or even centuries of research into this aspect of language production and use, there are still a number of questions that remain unanswered, and if answered there are various, since the definition of metaphor varies greatly according to perspective and there is no fixed or agreed explanation on it. It is quite difficult to easily mention a widely-accepted definition from the literature about the nature of metaphor. “[R]esearch on metaphor is now as multidisciplinary, and interdisciplinary, as perhaps any topic being studied in contemporary academia” (Gibbs, 1994, p. 69).

The question of whether metaphors are considered to be a matter of language or thought or both is crucial to any discussion in foreign language learning and teaching. In the traditional view, “metaphor was deemed to be a figure of speech, matter of language, linguistic phenomenon, fancy speech or something ornamental restricted to poetry. Until the 19th century, metaphor was treated to be largely literary, divorced and isolated from the language of communication and the study of that was confined to rhetorical perspective” (Lakoff, 1987, 1993; Lakoff and Johnson, 1980). However, “Near the turn of the 20th century, the study of metaphor encountered a drastically intensive movement from a purely figurative device to a matter of thought and understanding and a fundamental aspect of discourse programming” (Pollio, 1977).

Over the past decades, the deficiencies and limitations of traditional views have been compensated by many models and theories. Among these frames, the most influential one has been the ‘conceptual metaphor theory’ by the linguist George Lakoff and his colleague Mark Johnson. In their view, “our ordinary conceptual system is basically metaphorical, then the way we think, what we experience, and what we do every day is much a matter of metaphor” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999, p. 3).

Metaphor is no more looked at marginally, rather, “it is at the very heart of everyday mental and linguistic activity” (Harris, 1981, quoted in Lantolf, 1999, p. 42). Therefore, as a result, the past three decades have witnessed a rebirth for metaphor research in different disciplines and metaphor has been highlighted by many researchers and has received a great deal of consideration by many linguists, philosophers, and psychologists. Nevertheless, its importance and necessity in the teaching of both foreign and second language, the design of teaching materials and their use can be studied further.

According to Lakoff and Johnson's point of view, "A metaphor is a figure of speech in which a word or phrase is used to express something it does not literally denote and the essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" (1980, p. 5). The study of metaphor and its impact on language learning and teaching have been so profuse that it has become an indispensable part and instructors have been more aware of its significance. Since the late 20th century there have been plenty of proposals and systematic theories on metaphorical thought, cognitive sciences, and ELT. Metaphor has witnessed an outstanding shift chiefly within the cognitive approach and the connection of metaphor to language teaching and linguistics has grown into one of the most important fields of research.

There are numerous books about metaphor, but ever since the famous book *Metaphor We Live By*, written by George Lakoff and Mark Johnson in 1980, metaphor has taken its decent place in the analysis of human cognition and language. Their book has been regarded as a systematic challenge towards traditional views. Since the conceptual or cognitive metaphor theory puts principal importance of thought over language, it is evident that metaphor has primacy of cognition over language. Lakoff and Turner (1989, p. 127) claim that "metaphors have the power of entailments that put in order our experience and form essential realities." They illustrate this by basically taking concepts apart linguistically and enlightening their underlying metaphorical structure.

In the analysis and evaluation of this thesis, Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT hereafter), a model as proposed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) and etymological elaborations, which has some useful elements for better understanding and retention of idiomatic expressions will be used. Lakoff and Johnson argue that metaphors, as found in text and speech, are manifestations of underlying conceptual structures (conceptual metaphors) in our minds and that these metaphors are necessary for us to be able to grasp and relate to abstract concepts in the world around us. Under this approach, metaphor is not only an integral part of everyday communication but also constitutes an important tool that helps gain understanding of the surrounding world. The essence of CMT consists in the perception of one thing (target domain) in terms of another (source domain). Target concepts are typically abstract and less familiar areas of experience, whereas source concepts are connected with specific and well-known fields. Sources and targets also entail the existence of mappings; a set of correspondences that hold between the source and

target. In other words, understanding metaphors entail “the activation of whole situations or frames” (Aitchison 2007, p. 151).

## **1.2. Statement of the Problem**

Learner types and their proficiency levels, cultural discrepancies, transparency, the format and use of material, as well as the teaching methods, are among some of the main factors that interplay in the actual processes of teaching and learning the metaphorical language, and they mutually influence each other. In recent years, an emerging theme in Second Language Teaching (SLT) has been “ the degree to which L2 learners acquire the capacity to express themselves in the target language (TL) using culturally appropriate figurative language” (Danesi 1994, p. 88).

Most attempts in foreign language teaching have been directed towards the improvement of linguistic and communicative competences. Good mastery over grammar and a certain level of communication have been achieved in training L2 learners. However, “there is something still not quite apparent in the actual L2 learner discourse, something that goes beyond grammatical and communicative proficiency, i.e. something that cannot be explained in precisely grammatical and/or communicative terms” (Danesi 1992, p. 186). Despite showing a high degree of verbal fluency in any discourse, L2 learners seem to suffer from the lack of conceptual appropriateness which results in a misconception or unnatural communication. That is, the learners communicate verbally or orally with the standard structures and rules of the TL but thinking and analysing in the frame of their mother tongue’s conceptual system, as carriers of their own L1 concepts to express themselves or communicate can lead to misunderstandings or hindrance to communication. When L2 learners’ concepts are in harmony with the TL and its natural and appropriate cultural nuances, which is rare in most of the cases, everything goes smoothly, otherwise using L1 unique concepts to express it in L2 which has a totally different language form and conceptual system would definitely cause serious problems.

Being competent only in semantics and syntax of any language does not guarantee a full mastery of that language. According to Danesi (1992) “Metaphorical competence (MC) is as crucial as the linguistic and communicative competences since it is tightly linked to the ways in which a culture organizes its world conceptually. Not only thinking and acting are based on this conceptual system, but in large part communication as well” (p.165). Besides

the importance of MC in naturally organising and shaping any target language, mastery over knowing and recognising how the target language's concepts are shaped and the most common sources are used in shaping their figurative language are crucial, too. As a result, conceptual fluency (CF) is typically one the weakest parts of the learner's discourse.

The pervasiveness of metaphors in shaping our conception and culture is something unavoidable. There are many domains of life which may act as source domains for linguistic metaphors, for example, horticulture, journey, eating and so on. Sports-related metaphors undoubtedly are no exception and if we recognize their importance as a great source domain, in that case, we can easily understand the way native speakers reflect their perceptions and conceptions of the world. Beard (1998) states that "not only are many sporting terms metaphorical in origin, drawing on other fields of activity for their semantic connection, but sport increasingly acts as a source of metaphors too" (p. 53).

### **1.3. Aim of the Study**

In this study, CMT is used to help Turkish university students; learn and use English, mainly as a source domain of sports. Since metaphors in sports language have the capacity to be likened to various domains in life, it is one of the most common sources for connecting most of the domains in the English language. According to Beard (1998), sport as cultural production is always regarded as an icon of a country, such as soccer among European countries, baseball in the USA, kendo in Japan, bullfighting in Spain and oil wrestling in Turkey. This thesis's main focus is to re-emphasize the credibility of CMT over the traditional method of rote learning of idiomatic expressions.

The present study also aims at using and focusing on the effectiveness of etymological elaboration on idiom acquisition by its beneficial factors and elements such as source domain, metaphorical awareness, cultural knowledge, transparency, imageability, and dual coding. CMT with etymological elaboration, which are a crucial part of the metaphorical awareness, will give extra emphasis for enhancing students' CF and command of metaphorical language, with a special focus on sports-related metaphors in English. For this purpose, two groups, namely control and experimental, are selected and materials are designed and implemented. After their implementation, the implication about them are drawn.

#### **1.4. Significance of the Study**

Since English is one of the major world languages, the power to communicate naturally and understand it by non-native speakers is deemed necessary for their progress in the fields of education, academic life, and career. It is integral for learners and job seekers, to learn English for guaranteeing their dreams of studying or working abroad. For those who were not born into English speaking countries, English learning has been an inevitable necessity and fact. Like learning any language acquiring English language, stipulates grasping a large number of factors such as linguistic rules, exceptions, culture-specific, and communication strategies and practices. Among these, one of the serious challenges and highly problematic issues is mastering the figurative language. Like most of the languages idioms and metaphoric discourse are very common in English, in which confusing the original meaning of a text could be a big burden. Therefore, a desperate need for the new language learners is to welcome and appreciate figurative discourse and metaphors by going beyond merely taking words as they are literally. In other words to reach the ultimate goal of being competent enough in that language.

Kövecses and Szabó (1996) point out that “linguists, philosophers, psychologists, psycholinguists, and anthropologists have begun to challenge many dogmas about some fundamentally important aspects of the study of language” (p. 326). Lakoff, Langacker, and Johnson have challenged the standard views of the nature of meaning. Deignan, Gabryś, and Solska (1997) suggest that “more attention should be given to the teaching of strategies for comprehending and generating metaphors in L2 as metaphor is recognized as being pervasive in language” (p. 68). Guerrero and Villamil (2002) state that “metaphors are recognized not only for their pervasiveness in the language teaching profession but also for their ability to capture complex constructs in the field and their utility as vehicles for reflection and consciousness-raising among educators” (p.95). For these reasons acquiring and mastering metaphoric competence plays a crucial role in language learning, and in Turkey, learning or teaching metaphoric language is only recently focused on by some researchers such as Alptekin (1993) and Cakir (2011) to name some.

Although there are many domains from life which could be used and acted as sources in the study of metaphor, and there are significant number of published studies; the sports domain is chosen in this study by focusing on this conceptual usage for the English language learners. Correct usage and natural understanding of sports-related metaphors

have a key role for Turkish learners of English. Since the sport chosen for this thesis is baseball, which is not played in Turkey and the rules and the terms with its idioms, which are very common pastime hobby for most of the American people, are totally unknown and even strange. The present study is designed to ascertain the mastery of Turkish learners over these sports-related idioms. Ultimately, this thesis aims at bringing practice and theory together by focusing on establishing the pivotal roles of understanding and using English-based sports metaphors effectively by learners whose language and culture are based in Turkey.

Since the literature on the application and usage of conceptual metaphor by Turkish university students, who want to improve their English for academic purposes, with emphasis on sports-related idioms is still scanty; studying and applying the CMT's findings in the field of metaphorical language to the specific area of teaching English sports idioms is implemented in this study for the purpose of reaching some practical and useful findings in sports domains. It is also hoped to highlight the importance of CMT on other domains by English instructors.

### **1.5. Methodology**

For this study, the quasi-experimental research paradigm is used. It is similar to the true experimental paradigm in that they both use a control and an experimental group. Whereas true experimental research uses a control group and experimental group with randomly assigned participants, quasi-experimental research does not (Creswell, 2013).

Experimental research, which continues to be a common approach to L2 research (Johnson, 1991), is often used because it is intended to determine if one teaching method or learning strategy is more effective than another. The goal of experimental research is to try to establish a cause-and-effect relationship between an independent and dependent variable. The experimental method was well suited for this study because by examining whether providing etymological elaboration and CMT knowledge of sports idioms, using both words and supplied visual videos and images, improves adult English learners' comprehension and retention of these idioms.

For this study, the independent variable was the absence or presence of CMT information. A set of English baseball metaphorical expressions was collected from different sources. From an instructional point of view, these sports metaphors were analyzed in the field of

teaching English language and their effectiveness in both learning and teaching was highlighted by the findings. In short, the main purpose is the studying and applying the conceptual metaphor theory's findings in the field of metaphorical language to the specific area of teaching English sports idioms thus this contribution aims at bringing theory and practice closer together.

The dependent variable was the degree of comprehension and retention of the meaning of these idioms. The comprehension and retention rates of the two groups is compared to determine whether providing information, including CMT, supplied visual videos and images, cultural clarification on the origin of an idiom are more effective than just using traditional method alone.

Regarding the nature of the study, a qualitative study seems apt since it is the most suitable in the investigation of social phenomena in their natural contexts, whereas qualitative studies rest on the inductive reasoning which focuses on issues best covered by language, as compared with the computations and figures produced in quantitative research. Creswell (2013) writes that mixed method is getting popular over an only-qualitative, or only-quantitative research which does not suffice for reliable results. A concurrent mixed methods design in which the researcher brings qualitative and quantitative data analyses together (Creswell, 2013) is used in this study. The researcher specifies the sources of datum in sports. Great care and precision are taken in the choice of the corpus and other sources of data collection in terms of content and importance.

## **1.6. Research Questions**

In order to completely explain the purpose and nature of the study, the following set of research questions will be addressed:

1. Are English instructors in Turkey aware of the sports-related idioms? If yes, do they teach them for English learners?
2. To what extent is it necessary to teach sports-related idioms to EFL learners?
3. To what extent are the conceptual metaphors effective in improving Turkish students' proficiency level when sports-related metaphors in English are taught?
4. What problems might arise for learners of English whose first language is Turkish when encountering these sports expressions in learning English?



5. To what extent can cultural differences enhance the process of learning these sports metaphors?

### **1.7. Organization of the Dissertation**

This thesis is composed of five chapters. The basic framework and background of this study which establishes the focus of this thesis is in the first chapter. The problem that the study addresses is over-viewed in this chapter. The history and the most prevailing theories of metaphors, since its advent, have been addressed and discussed in chapter two. This section also provides an overview of different types of conceptual metaphor and different schools of metaphor. In the third chapter the research methodology is outlined. Research procedures and instruments used in collecting and analysing of the data and selecting the relevant materials and the participants' information are provided in this part. The fourth chapter focuses on the results and the discussion of these results. Finally, the last chapter provides the conclusion and relevant recommendations for the further studies and scholars who may be interested in exploring and implementing sports-related idioms in their metaphorical language research or even in their teaching styles. Limitations along with pitfalls of the study will be also discussed and hoped to pave the way for further academic research in this area.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

#### **2.1. Introduction**

This chapter focuses on the historical background of metaphor and its different theoretical approaches which have been shifted dramatically from its previously believed ornamental and marginal to its cognitive, perceptive, and conducive nature. The concept of metaphor from Aristotle to the present day has taken a winding and bumpy path. In the following section, classical views of metaphor and some current theories and assumptions about metaphor will be discussed and finally, culture-specificity of metaphor and metaphor in the realm of sports will be reviewed.

According to Johnson (1981), metaphor has been used and valued since the dawn of recorded history. Despite being an exceptionally complex phenomenon, it has occupied a central position in human thinking, and members of different fields, such as philosophers, linguists, poets and writers in general, have all contributed to the body of knowledge on metaphor that has accumulated throughout the ages. Aristotle mentioned that “the greatest thing, by far, is to be a master of metaphor. It is the one thing that cannot be learnt; and it is also a sign of genius...” (as cited in Kittay, 1989, p. 1). Several studies have indicated that metaphor is a central property of everyday language and it is not only specific to the realm of literature. Moreover, since the first critics of conventional metaphor to its cognitive nature people in all languages have been using metaphors for creating and framing various abstract concepts. Although metaphor is omnipresent and has a potent and significant role in literature, rhetoric, and poetry, its key role in influencing our reasoning, attitudes, and thought should not be denied.

The work conducted by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) is a pioneer work in the field of cognitive linguistics. They (1999) define metaphor “As a process by which we conceive one thing in terms of another and its primary function is understanding something abstract in terms of something concrete” (p. 89). According to them “Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is basically metaphorical in nature” (ibid). We are not normally aware of our conceptual system since in our daily routine activities we simply act and think more or less unconsciously or automatically. By looking at language, which is our primary means of communication, acting, and thinking and regarded as a crucial source of proof for analysing the conceptual system, it becomes obvious that our religious beliefs, social organizations, figurative arts, and the language itself are rooted in the conceptual system. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) assert that “Most of our ordinary conceptual system is metaphorical in nature. Metaphor is not just a matter of language or of mere words; rather, human thought processes are largely metaphorical. Metaphors as linguistic expressions are possible precisely because there are metaphors in a person's conceptual system” (p 164).

With the advent of Lakoff and Johnson's *Metaphors We Live By* in 1980, the study of metaphor and its vital connection to language and cognition has taken a new direction and taste since 1980. One of their main focuses is that “metaphors are not merely an embellishment of language, a rhetorical device, or a poetic reference, but rather metaphors and the capacity to metaphorize are a fundamental aspect of human cognition” (p. 59). According to their theory, “the relationship between the concepts in the conceptual system is metaphorical, so metaphor at the conceptual level becomes understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another” (ibid, p. 67). In other words, our perception and understanding of our world or experimentalism are controlled by and guided through a non-linguistic conceptual system.

In everyday communication, education, politics, science, or some various fields metaphors are used frequently. A better and clear understanding of abstract concepts such as quantity, quality, time, power, and affection becomes easy by applying metaphorical mappings in which our concrete daily experiences and knowledge of the world provide better understanding and pave the path about universal and common concepts. For instance, the conceptual metaphor MORE IS UP reflects a mapping process of vertical and upward movement of quantity in the example of *Prices are high* or even prime and better feeling in

*I'm feeling up.* “Our conceptual system, the way we understand, behave, conceive, and worldview, are based on metaphorical concepts that shape, structure and influence our language and plays a central role in defining our everyday realities” (Lakoff and Johnson 1980, p. 86).

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) have provided new interest and point of view in using metaphors. Since the publication and emphasis of their celebrated seminal work, *Metaphors We Live By*, metaphor has been widely recognized and acknowledged as the pivotal role in representing and relating conceptual domains and experiences in life. Their findings have contributed to a more comprehensive investigation of the subject in the upcoming years. Studies in cognitive linguistics have confirmed the previously unacknowledged fact that their claim about metaphor has conceptual and cognitive foundations. Many scholars still claim that there is still inadequate attention in the thorough examination of metaphor.

In supporting earlier studies, Littlemore (2001) “[R]eiterated the salience of approaching cross-cultural studies by focusing on language. In this view, language provides an important glimpse into local cultures, and as metaphor is ever-present in a language it exhibits a great potentiality for mirroring the culture” (p. 101).

Deignan (2003) noted that “[c]ulture can best be communicated through metaphorical language. Metaphor is credited with passing cultural traditions from one generation to another and is recognized as a means, repository and agent for conditioning cultures” (p. 95). It is discussed that the conduct of American life can be described by the core business metaphors BUSINESS IS FOOTBALL (‘Football’ in the U.S. not ‘Soccer’ of the U.K.) and BUSINESS IS COMBAT (Lantolf, 1999).

According to Lantolf “For most people, metaphor is a device of the poetic imagination and the rhetorical flourish, a matter of extraordinary rather than ordinary language; it is by and large taken as typical of language alone, a matter of words rather than thought or action” (ibid p. 42). It is assumed by most people that metaphor is trivial and they can get along without it, but the fact is that metaphor is not only pervasive in everyday life communication, but also in perception and action. Contrary to the position often expressed in mainstream linguistics, Lantolf states that “metaphor is not at the margins of language; rather, as it is convincingly argued, it is at the very heart of everyday mental and linguistics activity” (ibid p. 48)

Studying metaphor across languages and cultures has given extra emphasis to the pervasiveness and everyday usages of metaphors. Kittay (1987), who in among the scholars who supported to the commonness of metaphor in the daily communication, emphasized the widespread usage of metaphors in dancing, arts, and philosophy which are beyond the linguistic domain.

What arouses the interest and the challenge in the study of metaphor is the dynamic nature of language. Since it continually evolves, it needs new concepts to be communicated and understood. Thus, as Lakoff (1993) states “[t]he figurative language of today may be seen as literal in the future; likewise, at any given point, a language tends to contain many expressions that fall somewhere in-between the clearly figurative and the literal” (p.127). Although we may not realize it consciously, most scholars agree on the fact that metaphor has conceptual nature and that a great number of our abstract ideas, feelings, reasoning and thoughts are guided and shaped by metaphorical conceptions.

Since the advent of metaphor, its study has received some supporting and even raging debates. According to Littlemore (2003) “[t]here is no one theory that could possibly account for the full origin, evolution and social significance of metaphor. Moreover, the range of theories currently in vogue are often contradictory, some theories suggest that metaphors are intrinsic in us, while some state that they have developed over time and, thus, are not inborn” (p. 164). Among many other unanswered questions, there are the debates of separating metaphorical language from literal, or availability of the dividing line between metaphors which are universally valid and common and metaphors which are special to any culture. The fact that metaphor encompasses our worldview and discourse, make the whole subject of metaphor interesting and relevant for a thorough investigation. As for the main purpose of this study, there is a noticeable need to study the crucial role of metaphor application for sports idioms with foreign language learning.

The following parts will outline the development of a cognitive theory of CMT out of a traditional view, and some recent contributions which have shed some new lights about teaching and learning a foreign language in a better and reliable way. From Aristotelian times to the 21st century, many different theories of metaphor have been developed. The subsequent sections are designed to furnish a general overview of the following four prominent metaphor model: The Substitution Theory of Metaphor (Aristotle), The Speech Act Theory (John Searle), The Interaction Theory (Max Black) and The Conceptual

Metaphor Theory (Goerge Lakoff & Mark Johnson). The main emphasis of this study will be on the CMT because it provides a theoretical outlook on the current study. Furthermore, the theory has its own standardized system of terminology and definitions developed for the description of conceptual metaphors. They will be applied throughout the present thesis.

## **2.2. Classical Views on Metaphor**

The significance of mathematics and geometry was raised from Aristotle's time till the nineteenth century. According to this school revealing reality precisely was the purpose of language and that literal language was impartial enough to mirror reality. Metaphor, on the other hand was restricted only to poetry and literature and regarded as a purely decorative device. Since, metaphor was a deviance from reality and violation of linguistic rules metaphor did not convey true messages. As a result, it was accepted as secondary to literal language (Deignan, 2005). However, Aristotle's metaphor theory and his concept of analogy have had a great impact on the evolution of contemporary metaphor theories. Lakoff, Taylor, and other contemporary cognitive linguists have been inspired in a great deal by applying Aristotle's old category theory in their carrying on and investigations of metaphor studies. In addition, Aristotle's theory of metaphor based on analogy also play a crucial role in conceptual and metaphorical studies.

Aristotle is most probably regarded as one of the first scholars to deal with metaphor systematically. The cognitive value of metaphor or the existence of metaphor in thought had been a turning point in some linguists like Richards (1936), who opposed the classical view on metaphor. Instead, he argued that "metaphor is an interaction between two thoughts of different things active together and supported by a single word or phrase" (p. 93). Metaphor is divided into two halves by Richards: "the tenor and the vehicle. For instance, in the metaphor '*MEN ARE WOLVES*', *MEN* is the tenor whereas *WOLVES* is the vehicle. In this example, the tenor (*MEN*) is understood in terms of the vehicle (*WOLVES*) metaphorically" (ibid, p.211).

Black in his interaction theory, inspired by Richards' theory on metaphor, renamed Richards' 'tenor' and 'vehicle' terms as 'frame' and 'focus' respectively. Black (1993) by following Richards ideas on metaphor attempted to "interpret metaphors at a cognitive-conceptual level, a level different from treating metaphors as mere language. He argues

that metaphor is the interaction of the ‘systems of implications’ of the two domains, an idea similar to Richards’ notion of interaction between two thoughts” (cited in Ortony 1993, p. 30).

Richards and Black’s claims clearly clarified and illustrated the encyclopedic nature of metaphor. The natural understanding of metaphor entails the shared beliefs and concepts by communicators, rather than only the unnatural and literal meaning of the idiomatic expressions. Metaphor is the system of implication and mapping and its nature is complex and cognitive in which there are interactions between and among thoughts.

### **2.2.1 The Substitution Theory of Metaphor**

It is generally believed that Aristotle is the first person to outline the notion of metaphor systematically. He regarded metaphors as “transference of a name to something it does not belong to” (Charteris-Black & Jonathan 2004), i.e. talking about an object as if it were another thing. Aristotle in *Poetics* gave his famous definition of metaphor as “movement [epiphora] of an alien [allotrios] name from either genus to species or from species to genus or from species to species or by analogy” (Kennedy’s translation, 2001, p. 295[1457b]).

Aristotle in his famous work *Poetics and Rhetoric*, looked at and showed the conceptual metaphor as a scientific discussion. In his perspective, metaphor was regarded as the transfer of a name of a thing to another thing. The transfer takes place, from genus to species as “There lies my ship” where “lying at anchor” is a species of the more generic term “lying”; from species to genus as “Verily ten thousand noble deeds hath Odysseus wrought” where “ten thousand” is a species of the genus term “large number”; from species to species as “With blade of bronze drew away the life” and “Cleft the water with the vessel of unyielding bronze” where both “to draw away” and “to cleave” are the species of the genus term “take away”; by analogy, that is, by proportion as “The cup is to Dionysus as the shield to Ares” where analogy makes it possible to define “the cup” as “the shield of Dionysus” and to define “the shield” as “the cup of Ares”. Aristotle characterized metaphor into four forms. The first three forms are simple metaphors that are related to each other by similarities, while the fourth one is the complex form of metaphor that involves the use of analogical grounding. (see, Aristotle, *Poetics*, XXI)

Aristotle's hypothesis of metaphor can be characterized as substitutionalist because it follows from the theory that metaphor involves the replacement of one term for another. The reason for applying the name of one kind of thing to another is believed to be the intrinsic similarity between those things. In the Aristotelian approach, the much-celebrated simile *Achilles is like a lion* would be the same as *Achilles is a lion*, the only difference being that in the former, the comparison is made explicit through the specific resemblance term *like* whereas in the latter it is implicit. It is important to point out that Aristotle's comparison hypothesis has received criticism from cognitive linguists and there seem to be solid reasons to be skeptical of the theory. For example, in the Aristotelian approach, the above-mentioned utterance *Achilles is a lion* would be interpreted as a metaphor that brings together two different things (Achilles and the lion) on the basis of some intrinsic similarity (courage). Cognitive linguists argue that *Achilles is a lion* does not provide evidence for the similarity theory of metaphor because the theory holds that all metaphors are based on the intrinsic literal similarity.

According to Lakoff and Turner (1989), for the similarity view to be feasible the 'courage' of the lion would have to be 'the same literal property' as the 'courage' of Achilles. However, literally, lions do not have human courage (which is a property of human character); they have an instinctive behavior that we understand metaphorically in terms of human courage. According to the authors, the similarity between the 'courage' of Achilles and that of the lion is not literal but metaphorical.

According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980 & 2003), the discovery of a huge system of conceptual metaphors in recent years has shown that metaphor resides not merely in language at the word level, but primarily in thought and cognition. It was established that metaphors help us structure our everyday concepts and make sense of the world. Moreover, there is enormous linguistic evidence that metaphor is pervasive in ordinary conventional language. All these findings are clearly at odds with the Aristotelian view that metaphor is merely a matter of language as well as with his standpoint that metaphor is a deviation from the ordinary conventional language.

As Black (1979,1993) notes the classical views are not broad in scope, there is a clear vagueness in them that causes some serious problems such as not being able in finding clear and obvious similarities in two compared things. The limited association of metaphor to only literal discourse may cause problems mostly for metaphor's cognitive nature.



### 2.2.2. The Speech Act Theory of Metaphor

Searle (1979) in *The Speech Act Theory* approached and investigated the concept of metaphor. According to him, there are two types of meaning in any statement or discourse the first one is a sentence meaning and the second one is the speaker's utterance meaning. Like literal meaning, the sentence meaning is a coded, fixed, nonfigurative, plain meaning, and autonomous of the speaker's intentions. In addition, compositionality is important in sentence meaning because for any sentence to be understood there should be some constituent elements and some rules. On the other hand, utterance meaning of the speaker is a kind of meaning that is different from sentence meaning and the speaker wishes to communicate differently to the hearer. As a result, metaphor is a deviation from the literal meaning and is regarded as the speaker's utterance meaning. For instance, the author explains this idea as follows,

Whenever we talk about the metaphorical meaning of a word, expression, or sentence, we are talking about what a speaker might utter it to mean, in a way that departs from what the word, expression, or sentence actually means. We are, therefore talking about possible speaker's intentions. Even when we discuss how a nonsense sentence, such as Chomsky's example, "Colorless green ideas sleep furiously", could be given a metaphorical interpretation, what we are talking about is how a speaker could utter the sentence and mean something by it metaphorically, even though it is literally nonsensical. (p. 84)

Searle further claims that, in the case of literal statements, sentence meaning and speaker's utterance meaning coincide. The speaker means what he says. For instance, if a speaker says S is P he/she means "S is P". In metaphorical statements, the speaker's utterance meaning does not coincide with sentence meaning. If the speaker says that S is P he/she means "S is R". For example, if the speaker says *Sally is a block of ice*, this does not entail literally that (x is a block of ice). The meaning of the utterance is understood to be "Sally is emotionally reserved".

Searle goes on to claim that the speaker uses sentence meaning as a point of departure in order to be able to decipher the speaker's utterance meaning. In the first step, the interpreter tries to analyse the literal meaning of a statement. When the interpreter assesses that meaning as literally anomalous, he/she starts looking for a different meaning that is, the speaker's meaning. For instance, if the interpreter hears the sentence *Sally is a block of ice*, he/she would assess its meaning to be literally deficient. He/she would understand straightaway that Sally is not a solid frozen block of water and; therefore, the sentence's literal interpretation is not apt. He/she would realize that the author of the utterance may

want the utterance to be interpreted metaphorically. In this way, the hearer will be able to decode the meaning of the metaphorical sentence.

Searle's metaphor theory has been criticized by cognitive linguists on several points. For example, Searle's assumption that metaphor is confined to the speaker's utterance meaning is refuted by Lakoff (1993, pp. 238-239). Lakoff's arguments on this issue are based on the analysis of several metaphorical utterances presented by Searle in his work on metaphor. Among them is the example *Sally is a block of ice*. According to Lakoff, the meaning of *Sally is a block of ice* is based on shared human knowledge of temperatures and the everyday system of metaphorical mappings and is not merely a matter of pragmatics.

An important point that follows from Searle's doctrine is that literal language is comprehended through normal cognitive operation while figurative language demands a specific cognitive effort to be grasped. Cognitive linguists consider this view to be false and their standpoint is supported by the outcomes of empirical research. For instance, by referring to the results of numerous psycholinguistic studies, Gibbs (1993) argues that listeners and readers are able to understand figurative interpretations of metaphor, metonymy, sarcasm, idioms, proverbs and indirect speech acts without having first to scrutinize and refute their literal meanings when these tropes are seen in realistic social contexts (pp. 254-255). According to Gibbs, similar cognitive processes lie behind our understanding of both literal and figurative language. These outcomes invalidate the traditional assumptions that figurative language is a deviation from literal language and that its interpretation requires a specific cognitive effort. Nevertheless, thanks to the recent findings, it is a myth that understanding the figurative language is more difficult than the literal language. It is shown that average people have no difficulty in recognizing and using the figurative language and interestingly people succeed in understanding the figurative language faster and better than the literal language.

### **2.2.3. The Interaction Theory of Metaphor**

The Interaction Theory of Metaphor was first introduced by Black (1962) and it was elaborated further by himself (Black, 1993). The theory was inspired by the work of the celebrated English literary critic and rhetorician Richards, who characterized metaphor as "the omnipresent principle of language" (1965, p. 92). It was Richards who first shook the classical substitution notion of metaphor. In Richards's view, metaphor is operative not at

the level of word conjugation but it emerges out of the interaction between the conceptual structures underlying words.

In Black's account, a metaphor takes place at the sentence level and not merely at the level of individual words. A metaphorical statement has a focus on the word or words used non-literally, and the frame on the surrounding literal context. To illustrate this idea, Black uses the sentence *The chairman plowed through the discussion* as an example. In this utterance, the word *plowed* is the focus and the rest of the sentence is the frame. Moreover, a metaphor has two distinct subjects: the "primary" or "principal" subject and the "secondary" or "subsidiary" subject. For example, in the metaphorical statement *Man is a wolf*, *man* is the primary subject and *wolf* is the secondary one. The two subjects under consideration are the systems of things rather than individual things. Metaphor involves the interaction between the two systems.

In Black's account, *wolf* in the metaphor *Man is a wolf* does not function in conformity with its standard dictionary meaning. In a contemporary dictionary the standard meaning of *wolf* may be characterized as "a wild animal of the dog family". However, this is not the intended meaning of *wolf* in the above-mentioned metaphor. Therefore, it is necessary that the reader or the listener knows the system of associated commonplaces about wolves in order to adequately understand the meaning of the metaphor under discussion. In Black's interpretation, the wolf system of associated commonplaces is the system of ideas, features and beliefs regarded as characteristic of wolves. The scholar's main point here is that a metaphorical statement operates by projecting onto the primary subject the associated commonplaces that are predictable in regard to the secondary subject. Moreover, the system under discussion need not always be true. What is most important for the effectiveness of metaphor is that the system of associated commonplaces is readily and easily evoked. The system may vary with regard to which community the speaker or the reader belongs and depending on the inclinations of the reader or the listener.

Furthermore, Black emphasizes that when a man is called a wolf, this evokes a system of associated commonplaces in the mind. The hearer uses the wolf system of implications to build the corresponding system of implications about the primary subject. This helps the hearer organize the features of the primary subject. Any human characteristics that can be expressed with the help of the "wolf language" will be rendered prominent whereas other features will be suppressed.

To summarize, Black's interaction theory differs from the traditionalist approaches in the sense that it assigns metaphor an active role as a cognitive, rather than a purely rhetorical device. According to Black (1993, p. 113)

The interaction theory brings along significant progress in metaphor conception in two ways. First, it establishes that metaphor comprehension cannot be reduced to mere detection of similarities and that metaphor cannot be reduced to literal counterpart without loss of cognitive content. Second, by highlighting the interaction between the two components of a metaphor, the interaction view has already begun to recognize the cognitive value of metaphor and thus has paved the way for other theories, such as the CMT.

Contrary to the substitution theory where similarity is emphasized, the interaction theory calls attention to both the similarity and dissimilarity of the topic and vehicle.

## **2.3. Some Current Theories and Assumptions about Metaphor**

### **2.3.1. The Realization of Metaphor and the Notion of Embodiment**

According to *objectivism*, the world consists of objects which are independent of mind, in other words, these objects are not influenced by people's understanding or experiencing them. In this view, our world is regarded objectively without any trace of particular bias, culture or experience of the observer. There is another view as *experiential realism* by Lakoff which criticises *objectivism* and according to Lakoff (1987, pp. 266-267) "where objectivism defines meaning independently of the nature and experience of human beings, experiential realism characterizes meaning in terms of embodiment, that is, in terms of our collective biological capacities and our physical and social experiences as beings functioning in our environment". Based on experiential realism everything which involves our mind is embodied. The way we try to understand our physical world, our perception of any object, and even our bodily movement are all embodied which is a basic mechanism of human thinking. Moreover, Lakoffian Notion of embodiment argues that the mapping is grounded in our embodied experience. Lakoff and Johnson (1980, 2003, 2002) called it the embodiment hypothesis. In addition, Gibbs supports the same view as, "[o]ur bodily experiences provide the source domains for metaphorically structuring aspects of abstract target domain spaces" (2006, p. 436).

Prior to learning about the surprising role and impact of metaphor in human cognition and thought, it will be helpful to learn about the hierarchy of concepts which consists of four

levels. The first level which is the most basic one and universal is *image schemas*, and it is one of the primary building blocks of metaphors. During the pre-verbal stage, human infants observe things and people in motion. They come to understand how the world works at a physical level by grasping things, picking them up, dropping them, pulling and pushing them, hitting them, and throwing them, always watching how the object responds. All of these observations become learned patterns of spatio-temporal relationships and as a result, they understand and predict how external objects and their own bodies interact with the world. These patterns which give rise to such pre-verbal inferences are called image schemas.

The second level is *Primary Metaphor* and it is claimed that there are certain metaphors such as KNOWING IS SEEING; AFFECTION IS WARMTH etc. (Grady, 1997, 1999), which are universally shared. Therefore, some but not all of metaphors, are not dependent on a specific language or culture. Since there are certain number of universal concepts it comes to the third level as the *Complex Metaphor* which is both universal and language-culture specific. According to Grady's theory, Primary Metaphors can be combined with larger structures, the so-called Complex Metaphors. Most of these molecular structures are stable and therefore determine an important part of our conceptual system. Thus, whatever we think, say, or do, is influenced by Complex Metaphors, they even structure our dreams.

The fourth Level is *Linguistic Metaphor* which is mostly language-culture specific and partly universal. This happens in the surface level, unlike the conceptual metaphor. Our conceptual metaphor could be universal, since across cultures many of our bodily experiences are similar and for the same embodied experience. Nevertheless, some of our conceptual metaphors may vary across cultures as our bodily experience is culture-specifically derived. All in all our linguistic metaphors are both unique and universal.

### **2.3.2. The Centrality of Metaphor to Thought**

Two influential scholars of metaphor, George Lakoff and Mark Johnson, ascribe to metaphor a dual and ubiquitous role in thought and language although we tend to think of metaphor as primarily linguistic embellishment. Metaphor, they argue, helps us understand and categorize our perceptions by constructing connections between distinct concepts. "[T]he essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one thing in terms of another" (1980, p. 5). After connecting concepts through a metaphor, we use the more

familiar concept to understand the less familiar one. Thus, Lakoff and Johnson argue that metaphors are not just for dressing our language but at the same time, they disclose the way we act, think, and perceive. Indeed, according to them, metaphors systematize our conceptual systems. They highly support the idea that our language is metaphorical in nature and in our daily communication many expressions that we use are mostly impossible without metaphor. As Deignan (2005) comments, “metaphors are so pervasive and common that we may even be unaware and unconscious of their usages therefore our language is barely metaphor-free” (p. 18).

Moreover, metaphors not only structure our thought also guide our thinking. In the realm of learning a foreign language, if we carefully look at phrasal verbs in English, it will be obvious that many prepositions and particles used, which are just memorised and regarded as fixed grammatical words, are metaphorical. As in ‘down’, which is used for showing a bad situation in economy, in ‘Inflation Is Down’ we often treat the preposition ‘down’ as a fixed word which should be memorised and do not recognise the metaphoric association. However, according to CMT, the preposition ‘down’ is motivated from the fact that there is a decrease in quantity with its falling physical level.

Furthermore, without using metaphors many fundamental concepts which are abstract like life, time and argument are difficult to express. For instance, ‘Life’ is often depicted as a journey which has destination, crossroad and ups and downs. By referring to ‘Time’ people normally express it as an abstract object which can be spent, saved, wasted, gained and lost. ‘Argument’ is regarded as a war which requires strategies and weapons (Lakoff & Johnson 1980, 1999, 2003, Gibbs 2004, Deignan 2005, Kovesces 2000). Languages function like conduits, which have ‘inside’ and ‘outside’, containing, receiving, and delivering our thoughts and emotions as entities. Moreover, According to Deignan (2005), “Metaphor is indispensable and crucial in constructing knowledge. In the 1990s, when Information Technology knowledge emerged, metaphors such as ‘surfing’ in relation to sports and ‘spiders’ were employed to structure this new knowledge” (p. 124).

On Lakoff and Johnson’s analysis, we can speak literally of only the most ordinary and immediate experiences; all other talk is metaphorical. Metaphor guides our thinking and structures human thought. In order to think everyday thoughts, we use the metaphor. Our conceptual system hangs together in part by means of the relations of the metaphors we think with and use linguistically. Some of these metaphors are more obvious metaphors

than others. Those that are less obvious or appear to be literal expressions are simply more fundamental to our conceptual scheme.

### **2.3.3. Lakoffian and Johnsonian Cognitive Definition of Metaphor**

The Lakoffian and Johnsonian understanding of metaphor is broader than the traditional ones. Traditional metaphor theories are fundamentally different from the cognitive theory of metaphor and it is illustrated in the following two definitions that Lakoff and Johnson provided in their book *Metaphors We Live By*:

Definition 1: “The essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another.” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 5)

Definition 2: “Metaphors are the mapping relations between two independent conceptual domains: the source domain and the target domain.” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 117).

The above definitions are consistent semantically. They have raised the concept of metaphor to human thinking rather than just to language. In human thinking, the basic function of conceptual metaphor is clarified in Lakoffian and Johnsonian’s school in cognitive linguistics. The first definition shows the function of conceptual metaphor by highlighting the important role of conceptual metaphor in shaping our thought, and the second definition focuses on the frame and structure of conceptual metaphor. In their book *Metaphors We Live By*, Lakoff and Johnson systematically discuss that “[M]etaphors are conceptual in nature and are not only the linguistic forms of conceptual metaphor, but the tools to understand human perceptions and conceptualizations as well.” (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p. 159).

In most of our discussions and discourses, we speak and think by using metaphor either subconsciously or unconsciously. In spite of the vital roles that conceptual metaphors shape our everyday verbal communication and thinking, there is no guarantee that we are aware of the hidden pattern of conceptual metaphor in of our mind. Thus, language which is a good indication of our metaphorical thinking and our deepest feelings and expressions can be a dependable proof for our cognition’s conceptual metaphor nature.

#### **2.3.4. Linguistic Definition of Metaphor**

Goatly (1997, p. 11) defined metaphors in two linguistic ways, by emphasising that “[m]etaphors are discourse phenomena and context-based, and furthermore figures of speech like metonymy is excluded.”

His first definition is when “An unconventional act of reference or colligation is understood on the basis of some similarity, matching or analogy involving the conventional referent or colligates of the unit and the actual unconventional referent or colligates” (1997, p. 16).

His second definition is that, a metaphor mostly happens when,

A unit of discourse is used to refer to an object, concept, process, quality, relationship or world to which it does not conventionally refer or colligates with a unit(s) with which it does not conventionally colligate; and when this unconventional act of reference or colligation is understood on the basis of similarity or analogy involving at least two of the following: the unit’s conventional referent; the unit’s actual unconventional referent; the actual referent(s) of the unit’s actual colligate(s); the conventional referent of the unit’s conventional colligate(s). (1997, p. 108)

The conceptual and linguistic metaphor which are mutually related to each other, are distinct from each other. The conceptual metaphor, which exists in our mind, is an abstract notion realized through linguistic metaphors. Linguistic metaphors are what native speakers say and belong to language and are the concrete product of conceptual metaphor. Conceptual metaphors are the mental depiction of the way we associate two apparently different domains. What comes from our culture-based or embodied conceptualization of our surrounding world are linguistic metaphors.

#### **2.3.5. Classifications of Conceptual Metaphor**

Besides the differences between conceptual metaphors, which are the metaphorical concepts existing in our thinking, and linguistic metaphors, which are the linguistic expressions showing themselves in everyday language, conceptual metaphors are divided into three different types according to their functions such as structural, orientational, and ontological metaphors.

Structural metaphors refer to the metaphor themes (e.g. TIME IS MONEY) in which “the source domain provides a relatively rich knowledge structure for the target concept”



(Kövecses, 2002, p. 33). They permit us to understand the target domain in terms of the structure of the source domain in other words, “one concept is structured metaphorically in terms of another” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 14). Conceptual metaphor entails understanding one conceptual domain of the metaphor in terms of another. This means that the cognitive function of the structural metaphors is to enable the speakers to understand target A by the means of the source B. ARGUMENT IS WAR metaphor is an instance of a structural metaphor since it involves “using a concept from one domain (WAR as a physical or cultural phenomenon) to structure a concept from another domain (ARGUMENT as primarily an intellectual concept, but with cultural content)” (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980: 461).

The orientational metaphors are the metaphors that give a concept a spatial orientation (viz up/down, in/out, front/back, on/off, deep/shallow, central/peripheral, etc.). Put another way, they enable us to understand abstract concepts in terms of spatial orientation. The cognitive role of orientational metaphors consists in making a range of target concepts coherent in the human conceptual system. What distinguishes this group of metaphors from structural metaphors is that they do not introduce much structure to the target domain. Ontological metaphors in cognitive linguistics, are defined as follows: An ontological metaphor is a metaphor in which abstraction, such as an activity, emotion, or idea, is represented as something concrete, such as an object, substance, container, or person. For example, the following metaphorical expression describes hope as a physical object that can easily be broken, damaged or destroyed: *A fragile hope*. These types of metaphors are also called entity metaphors. Moreover, container metaphors are typical ontological metaphors. A container metaphor is one that describes a concept as equipped with an inside and outside and as having the capability to contain something within it: *An empty threat* or *A mind filled with fantasies*.

In the above metaphorical expressions, the concepts of threat and the mind are conceived of as containers. Personification is yet another type of ontological metaphor. In personification, an abstract concept can be ascribed human qualities. For instance, in the following metaphorical expressions, hunger and flowers are conceptualized in terms of a person:

*Hunger sat shivering on the road* or *Flowers danced about the lawn*.

Some cognitive linguists employ a different classification of conceptual metaphors. For example, Barcelona (2000), considers orientational and ontological metaphors under the general category of perceptual metaphors, based on the fact that the notions of object, substance and spatial position emerge directly from our perceptual experience. He argues that there is also a range of other perceptual experiences that give rise to metaphorical conceptualization. For example, some widely known metaphors are based on our experience of temperature perception: *This is hot news* or *Cold war*. The author labels such metaphors as the heat perception metaphors. Yet some other metaphors are motivated by the experience of light perception: *The news saw the light last week*. Hence they are classified as the light perception metaphors. Barcelona suggests considering the heat and light perception metaphors in the category of perceptual metaphors mentioned above. The author includes in the same group the metaphors based on the experiences of touching and physical handling: *A touch of irony* (“a degree of”) and *I cannot grasp your theory*.

#### **2.3.6. The Conceptual Theory of Metaphor**

The term metaphor because of its omnipresence and complexity has been looked at from various angles. Since Aristotle, there has been considerable debate over its definition, structure, and usage. Despite all other theories and intellectual debates on metaphor at least the demarcation line for the approach employed by the conceptual theory of metaphor radically differs from that used by the traditional metaphor theories because of the contrast with its traditional role and expectation. Hence, the need for a major departure from the limited and traditional notion of metaphor arose the CMT by Lakoff and Johnson (1980), which is a revolutionary approach on metaphor, since it demolishes the foundations of the traditionalist view by considering metaphor primarily as a matter of thought and as a matter of language just decoratively. The solid linguistic evidence found by the authors has convinced them in the belief that in both language and thought metaphor is available and it can be fundamental to human cognition. Such observational evidence could not be accounted for within the narrow framework of traditionalist theories. Due to its cognitive position, metaphors’ status today has been elevated, and they are present in most of the domains not only in linguistics but also in sports, anthropology, literature, philosophy, psychology, politics, economics, and musical science.

As has already been demonstrated, the CMT treats metaphor first and foremost as a matter of thought and cognition and only secondarily as a matter of language. According to CMT metaphor has two levels one is conceptual and the other is linguistic. While the former operates at the level of thinking, the latter is present at the surface level of language and is viewed as the verbal manifestation of conceptual metaphor. Cognitive linguists claim that “metaphors partially structure our everyday concepts and that structure is reflected in our literal language” (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, p. 46).

Metaphor is renamed as conceptual metaphor in CMT and in order to distinguish it from its linguistic expressions it is usually written in capital letters. The source domain is predominantly associated with some tangible physical experiences and therefore it is more concrete than the target domain. For instance, the source domain of JOURNEY is more concrete and less complex than the target domain of LOVE in the LOVE IS A JOURNEY metaphor. It is a conceptual domain that we utilize in order to understand the target. The target domain is more abstract than the source domain and it is primarily associated with such intangible, abstract experiences as emotions, ideas, thoughts, etc. The target domain is comprehended and structured in terms of the source domain. The conceptual metaphor is designated in the form of a formula A is B or A as B. Here A and B stand for disparate conceptual domains. Furthermore, in cognitive linguistics a conceptual domain is understood to be any coherent organisation of experience.

Due to metaphorical expressions being linked to metaphorical concepts in an organised manner, such expressions are regarded to be as the main evidence for the existence of conceptual metaphors. As Lakoff and Johnson (1980) put it “since metaphorical expressions in our language are tied to metaphorical concepts in a systematic way, we can use metaphorical linguistic expressions to study the nature of metaphorical concepts and to gain an understanding of the metaphorical nature of our activities” (p. 7). The CMT gives more cognitive-oriented nature to metaphor rather than just being ornamental to language. As a result, metaphors are neither used as just decorative nor limited merely to poetry and literature; rather, they are common and pervasive in our thought, everyday experiences, and life. Thanks to this quality and our ability of the cognitive process to our concepts, we as human beings can easily conceptualize abstract ideas through our bodily experiences and then map these complex concepts to other tangible and understandable domains.

### **2.3.7. Metaphorical Competence or Conceptual Fluency**

Learning a foreign language is a laborious and challenging process. Being conceptually appropriate is necessary for foreign language learners since it is an integral trait of native speakers' competence. Studies on metaphor and accepting metaphor as a competence have changed the traditional point of view towards teaching and learning in a great deal.

The notion of metaphorical competence (MC), or in a simpler definition the ability to comprehend and use metaphors which are applied in natural discourse in a given language, was examined by some scholars (Pollio & Smith, 1979), before its introduction to L2 by Danesi (1986). Later changed to conceptual fluency (CF) (Danesi, 1993), "A cognitive mapping operation underlying the programming of discourse in metaphorical ways as a basic feature of native-speaker competence" (p. 493). This was later revised as "The ability to give appropriate structural form to all kinds of meanings, literal and non-literal that constitute the semantic system of the L2" (Danesi, 2008, p. 233). According to Danesi (2003), conceptual competence is composed of three sub-competencies namely metaformal, reflexive and associative competences. Metaformal is defined as appropriately, naturally and efficiently using and applying the conceptual system of the target language which is one of the features of the native speaker's competences. Mapping and transforming concepts to its linguistic forms is regarded as reflexive competence. And by associative competence, one should take mastery over how to connect, interrelate, and acculturate target language's abstract and culture-specific concepts. Danesi argues for the vital role of conceptual competence in language learning which is echoed in studies such as the acquisition of formulaic expressions (Kecskés, 2000; Wray, 2002), idioms (Bortfeld, 2002, 2003; Cooper, 1999), and phrasal verbs (Matlock & Heredia, 2002).

There are different ideas about MC by different scholars. Danesi (1993) has described it as

The ability to understand and use metaphors in natural communication. The progressing of discourse in metaphorical ways is a basic feature of native speaker competence. It underlies conceptual fluency. As a competence, it can be thought about pedagogically in ways that are parallel to other competencies that SLA has traditionally focused on (grammatical and communicative).

(p. 493)

MC is not limited to linguistic proficiency; it correlates with our perception of the world because it is typical of humans to think and act metaphorically, cf. (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p. 3). It also establishes the framework for clear concept mapping within particular

cognitive models and/or categories. It is argued that MC originates from cognitive science, as its foundation comes from cognition development, MC is the reflection of the so-called 'conceptual fluency' (Danesi, 1992, p. 493), which implies the advanced command of cognitive modeling and conceptual mapping implemented in the deep understanding of the concept-object relationships and their role in the comprehension of the world. The same view is also supported by Littlemore (2008), who refers to 'metaphoric' competence as to "the ability to perceive and create metaphoric relationships between different concepts" (p. 201). MC, which is somehow a new competence, compensates learners' non-native production and has made a number of L2 researchers interested.

Littlemore (2001a) mentions that MC has some necessary elements such as, production, clear comprehension and understanding of the meaning of any metaphor and doing all these by swift grasping. Low (1988) holds that "Metaphorical competence includes an individual's ability to produce plausible meanings, knowledge of the boundaries of conventional metaphor, awareness of metaphors that are socially sensible and their multiple layers" (p. 137). In spite of the variety of ideas about MC, there is a consensus among scholars that this competence in language learning plays a vital role. MC is regarded as "Crucial in achieving fluency in the target language, and being able to metaphorize in L2 can be a sign of the development of communicative fluency and proficiency in the learners and mastery over the target language"(Danesi, 1994, p. 147).

The learner can interpret idiomatic expressions in L2 by gaining metaphorical competence. Due to the lack of this competence, misunderstanding, breakdown, and low self-confidence may be the result in any discourse. According to Cooper (1999), "Successful interpretation of figurative language is inextricably linked to the cultural knowledge of the learners, the literal meaning of the expression, and also the context in which it is used" (p. 186).

In spite of learners' struggle on using and comprehending metaphors naturally and appropriately in the target language, there are still some practical problems in reaching these goals. What makes the situation even worse is relying mainly on the conceptual system of the mother tongue while expressing something in the target language. Having problems with conceptualization results in literal discourse and not being able to communicate native-like since conceptual competence "serve[s] as a basis for grammatical and communicative knowledge" (Kecskés & Papp, 2000, p. 104).

High degree of literality and interference of the L1 are compensated by systematically

incorporating MC in L2 textbooks and teaching methods. In addition, for conceptual syllabi, whose specific goal is the development of L2 learners' CF or MC, there are proposals in which metaphoric awareness and approaching idioms or metaphors through conceptual domains are highlighted (Lazar, 1996). As pointed out by Littlemore (2001a) gaining mastery over MC helps L2 learners in developing their receptive and productive fluency in the language they are learning. Improving metaphorical competence should be regarded as a core ability and it should receive more attention by both instructors and learners, as held by Littlemore and Low (2006), "[c]ontrol over metaphor is one of the essential tools for empowering learners to cope successfully with native speakers" (p.2).

#### **2.4. CMT and FL Teaching**

Metaphor has been an underutilized and forgotten resource in foreign language pedagogy. As in almost every aspect of language education the power of metaphor is something unavoidable and indispensable, it is highly advisable to emphasize the value of metaphor in language research and L2 education.

Metaphors have the cognitive tool which makes abstract domains understandable. They are used most frequently and convey intangible knowledge. Language teaching has been cultivated by the cognitive study of metaphor by many researchers and linguists. Shuwu (2002), points out that "it is one of the trends of the modern study of metaphor to employ the finding of metaphor in cognitive linguistics in language teaching" (p. 48). Ortony (1984) "states that the focus of metaphor study should be put on the exploration of the cognitive function of metaphor in language learning and teaching" (p. 106).

language is motivated in other words, the relations between use, form, and meaning are not arbitrary. learners who are aware of the motivated nature of language and analyse the relationship between form and meaning are more likely to learn it in an effective way. Mapping from one domain to another one is not arbitrary but motivated since there are linguistic representations of coherent concepts in metaphors. If both language instructors and learners pay core attention to the importance of metaphorical language, being competent and proficient in the target language will be possible. As an indispensable part of language learning, acquisition and mastery over the conceptual knowledge and system together with the syntax and semantics of the target language should equally be given importance. Guerrero and Villamil (2002) suggest that "[m]etaphor might be used as a tool

to increase self-reflection and critical awareness among working L2/FL teachers. They state that teachers need to become aware of the powerful way in which metaphors shape educational beliefs and to critically examine the extent to which these metaphors reflect their beliefs” (p. 48).

Historical, political, and social differences and similarities which exist between L1 and L2 may mislead and confuse language learners. Language learning is regarded as a lifelong and bumpy path in which sometimes there is a need for learning and acquiring language-specific or a thoroughly new and strange metaphorical system. The ability to differentiate the cross-cultural differences, ubiquity, non-arbitrary nature of metaphorical expressions and production of figurative language should be seen of immediate necessity since metaphor is seen as “a channeling device to comprehend, store, and reproduce figurative language input” (Boers, 2004, p. 217). MacArthur (2010) in her paper puts extra emphasis in the benefits of encouraging metaphor production as,

Insights into how the first (L1) and second language (L2) systems interact, how the privilege of access to two linguistic and conceptual systems may favour, rather than necessarily hinder, the bilingual’s metaphoric production, and to what extent the resulting metaphors are felicitous in the context of intercultural communication. (p. 156)

Being equipped with a figurative mind and the most common concepts of the target language paves the way for L2 learners in order to learn the target language naturally. As discussed before L2 learners’ metaphor production is not an easy task, and it is really surprising that learners’ productive use of metaphor has not been given due attention. By integrating CMT in L2 curriculum learner’s of any foreign language can master not only linguistic but most importantly the metaphorical competence to a large extent.

In L2 classroom it is accepted that the process of language learning can be fostered by using CM, which not only grabs learners’ attention to the processes of metaphORIZATION in a foreign language, but also helps comprehend better the complex and unfamiliar idiomatic expressions. When learning idioms “CMT-based instruction can also foster learners’ engagement, motivation and productivity” (Csábi, 2004). Beréndi et al. (2008), found that if idioms are taught in relation to their underlying conceptual metaphors retention and understanding can be enhanced. In another study, Li (2009) also found that the intended application of conceptual metaphors has led to higher retention and comprehension.

Therefore, it is highly recommended to explicitly instruct conceptual metaphors in the classroom.

## **2.5. Metaphor and Idiom**

Using idioms correctly is a very difficult task for English learners even if they know the intended meanings. Therefore, mastering idioms becomes a hard goal for L2 learners since the meaning of the text cannot be determined through individual analysis of each word since language and culture are two parts of each other; they should never be separated.

The theory of CM in relation to idioms, states that they “are used as evidence in favor of the hypothesis about the existence of conceptual mappings that are independent of language and govern the corresponding linguistic structures in their semantic and pragmatic behavior... they tend to fit one or more patterns already present in the speakers’ conceptual system” (Dobrovolskij & Piirainen, 2005, p. 122). Conceptual metaphors are already present in the human mind, and their presence enables people to recognize and understand the meaning of idioms containing such kind of metaphors. The myth that metaphors are arbitrary has already been successfully changed. According to Kövecses (2010), “metaphors, i.e. concepts underlying metaphors, participate in the creation of idioms; moreover, idioms are creations of the conceptual system rather than of language, i.e. words that comprise them” (p.210). As a result, idioms based on metaphors, i.e. on conceptual knowledge, are conceptual, rather than linguistic; and the meaning of idioms can be reached through this knowledge. An assumption for ELT is that learners will acquire L2 idioms more easily if they are provided with the knowledge of a cognitive mechanism that links domains of knowledge to idiomatic meaning” (ibid, 2010, p. 233).

The fact that most of the idioms are deeply rooted in the culture of the target language is a stumbling block for learning and using them properly. There are morals, themes, and stories behind idioms and L2 learners do not have a chance to learn and read about them. Cakir (2011) pointed out that idioms are the reflection of customs, cultural beliefs, specific features, social attitudes and norms of a society. As Boers et al. (2009) point out, if students fail to identify the correct ‘source domain’ of an idiom, its meaning can easily be misinterpreted. Like other cognitive abilities, sensitivity to figurative language and their ‘source domains’ develops with age and exposure (Cain, 2005).



Finally, due to their limited knowledge of metaphorical expressions, during the processing of idiomatic language L2 learners tend to rely on L1 conceptual systems. Literal meanings of the phrases are accessed more quickly than the figurative ones (Kecskes, 2000). The saliency of literal meanings is natural, considering that learners become familiar with the literal meanings of individual lexical items long before they encounter their figurative meanings (Cieślicka, 2006). Research with formulaic language, however, has shown that idiomatic senses are often used more frequently than literal ones (Low, 1988).

The sheer number of idioms, their frequency in the English language and the extended difficulties that learners experience with this type of language are compelling arguments for making idiom learning an integral part of foreign language learning. There is a clear need to look for approaches that will minimize the learners' burden, and increase the probability that the idiomatic expressions they encounter are understood and remembered. In the EFL field, however, idiomatic language has been a neglected area of language teaching. While no one seems to dispute the benefits of explicit instruction of figurative language, for many years teachers were at a loss as to how to assist their students with the acquisition of idiomatic expressions. Because of the alleged arbitrary semantics of the idiomatic language and fixed word order, it was believed that the only way learners could master these expressions was by rote memorization (Boers, Eyckmans & Stengers, 2007). Idioms were seen as "dead metaphors", fixed multi-word units which must be learned as a whole. As a result, second-language teaching materials often either ignored idioms completely or just listed them as 'other expressions', without providing any opportunities for practice (Irujo, 1986).

Lakoff (1987) gives as an example the idiom "to keep someone at arm's length which is motivated by an image of 'defence' and two metaphors: 'INTIMACY IS PHYSICAL CLOSENESS' and 'SOCIAL (or PSYCHOLOGICAL) HARM IS PHYSICAL HARM'. This scheme does not work if the meaning of an idiom is arbitrary, when the meaning of the idiom is not predictable just from the meaning of the individual words that make it up" (ibid, p. 168), i.e. according to him "the formation of an idiom is not based on the image and metaphors, but if idioms' meanings are motivated, then they have patterns in the conceptual system which can be identified, i.e. a link between a source domain and a target domain can be traced, and, therefore, idioms become subject to processing. The meaning

of idioms that are motivated by conceptual metaphors appears to be easier for guessing.” (ibid p. 245)

## **2.6. Culture-specificity of Metaphor**

One of the major hurdles for the EFL learners is the challenge of transferring idioms and figurative expressions between their mother tongue and the target language mostly because of the cultural differences and similarities which are embedded in languages. Different activities and the shared ways of life like dress codes, carnivals, sports, films, music and the like are the constituent elements of a culture and ordinary aspects of a specific community. All these elements are the necessary pieces which shape and differentiate the culture of a community. We as humans, need a tool like language for construing the world, use metaphors to make communicative discourse in most of the abstract domains by considering the fact as positioned by Lakoff and Johnson (1980, p. 22) that “The most fundamental values in a culture will be coherent with the metaphorical structure of the most fundamental concepts in the culture”.

According to Littlemore & Low (2006) “knowledge of shared cultural references is necessary (...) to understand and produce the target language with any degree of accuracy” (p. 9). For sure each language has its own unique and culture-specific concepts that have molded that language. When there are various cultures with their underlying and deeply rooted concepts, appropriate metaphorical utterances and good command of the target language seems really challenging. It should be born in mind that cultural differences in understanding and recognizing metaphors exist even though conceptual metaphors are mostly considered to be universal. In other words, this universality of metaphors does not necessarily have to show up in all languages since some of these experiences are culturally and socially dependent, such as register, style, religion, and customs, or are even individually acquired.

Some conceptual metaphors may not exist in another language, or different source domains might be used or even if the same source domain is used in both languages but the way the mappings from a source to target domain takes place could be totally different from one language to another language. Research on source domains’ culture-specific nature in English and French socio-economic discourse has been done by Boers and Demecheleer. They found that, “English newspaper articles were significantly more likely

to use figurative language related to gardening than French newspaper articles. Conversely, French newspaper articles were significantly more likely to refer to the source domain of food, or eating in general” (1997, pp. 127-128). In short, source domains build the unique cultural grounding for languages so in this regard loving garden is attributed to English people and the French cuisine is for the French.

Not being familiar with the underlying culture is definitely one of the major problems for non-native speakers. Indeed, “the diversity of a particular metaphor can be taken as a reflection of a country's history . . . or even its national stereotypes.” (Boers et al. 2004, p. 57). A very frequent and tangible example for a source domain, which is culture dependent, is national sports. Boers, Demecheleer, and Eyckmans (2004) have found that source domain in sports for British and American people are different “Whereas American English is more likely to incorporate baseball based idioms, British English widely draws on horse racing and cricket as source domains. Different geographical locations and ways of living may lead to different value systems, living standards, interests and professional foci that all have influenced language throughout the years and resulted in different shades of meaning to be expressed” (pp. 56-57). Irujo (1986) worked on cross-linguistic variations for advanced Spanish learners of English in L2 teaching. In that study, it was examined whether they could use L1 knowledge to understand and produce L2 idioms in different contexts. In the results, it was seen that the easiest ones to produce and learn were identical idioms. However, the idioms which were totally different in both languages were the hardest to comprehend for these participants.

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) argue that “The most fundamental values in a culture will be coherent with the metaphorical structure of the most fundamental concepts in the culture” (p. 22). Not having enough cultural background causes confusion and misunderstanding of culture-specific concepts and metaphors for the L2 learners. Lack of appropriate cultural knowledge should be strengthened since most of the metaphors are highly cultural.

## **2.7. Concluding Remarks**

As metaphors help shape our discourse and the perception of the world, one of the most crucial steps is the awareness and familiarity of the language learners with conceptual metaphors, which are based on the experiences of the community. The conceptual metaphor of any specific language can be considered as the reflection of thought and views

on the world by that society. Gibbs (2008), states that “Metaphor is not simply an ornamental aspect of language, but a fundamental scheme by which people conceptualize the world and their activities” (p. 3). Deignan (2003), believes that “Because metaphors are coherent with cultural values and reflect and construct our cultural obsessions while diverting our attention from other values and meanings, metaphor is therefore intimately connected with the construction and expression of ideology” (p. 260).

At the same time, “[i]f metaphor is based on the way the human body and brain function and we as human beings are alike at the level of this functioning, then most of the metaphors people use must also be fairly similar, that is, universal at least on the conceptual level” (Kövecses, 2005, p. 34). Integrating metaphor teaching into the curriculum can help improve linguistic, metaphoric and conceptual fluency to a large extent and foster learners’ mastery over the target language.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1. Introduction**

This chapter explains how the study was conducted, including the research questions, the design of the study, participants and context, data collection procedures, and data analysis methods.

In the context of Turkey, where English is taught as a foreign language, like other non-native learners, language learners mostly focus on the grammar and literal language, and they have difficulty when they encounter different use of language, particularly figurative and idiomatic language. It is argued that, for L2 learners, not knowing or learning the conceptual system of any foreign language even after years of learning that target language has been an insurmountable barrier. According to Danesi (2008), these problems originate from conceptual errors of learners activating the wrong source domain of a metaphor because of L1 interference. Learners may come across various metaphors from different fields, including sport-related ones, and it may become a problem when they are not familiar with the sports themselves and idioms surrounding them. Sports metaphors are very common within the English language and their application in mastering the target language is an important field to examine. In particular, the popularity and use of sports metaphors in any context and discourse, not only in English language but also in most of the foreign languages, present a challenge in which the language learners, depending on their L1 knowledge or their capacity to use metaphor strategies, become frustrated.

Although we do not always see it so obviously, we are constantly hearing and using metaphors in our daily lives. Even turning on the sports network, a decidedly non-literary source, will reveal countless examples of metaphorical usage: “It was a David versus Goliath match-up,” “Their backs are against the wall, and”, “He launched a rocket

over the wall in right field” are all very common sporting expressions that are metaphorical in nature, and this is just a tiny sampling of the thousands of metaphors that have become commonplace in everyday life. Metaphors are so commonplace in our daily life that we might not realize their importance and presence, and their fundamentals are neglected in the first language let alone a foreign language (Lakoff and Johnson, 2003). Since knowing the importance of grasping the conceptual metaphors of a target language will emphasize using a meticulous method to the teaching of various idiomatic expressions, such as sports ones, it can facilitate learning and processing information for language learners, too. Danesi (2008,) points out “the necessity of inclusion of metaphoric and idiomatic expressions in the process of language teaching and suggests that the learners’ unnaturalness speech mostly results from its literalness and he argues for the need for the development of conceptual fluency. By this, he means knowing how a language encodes concepts on the basis of metaphorical reasoning” (cited in Charteris-Black, 2002). To master any foreign language, it is not only important to acquire metaphoric competence, but also how the concepts of a language are metaphorically coded should be considered (Gibbs, 1994; Boers, Demecheleer, & Eyckmans, 2004; Littlemore & Low, 2006). The problem is that in most of the cases L1 interference can be an obstacle since “Conceptual transfer from the first language to target language can be a source of error” (Charteris-Black, 2002). As Littlemore (2001) reports, over 3000 metaphors are used weekly by English-speaking people. However, when learners encounter with this huge number of metaphors their inclination is referring to their denotative meanings or analyzing it based on their L1 knowledge. In addition, there are researchers, like Lazar, Fernando, and Deignan et. al., who have emphasized that if the purpose of education is the natural use of the target language, instructors should consider the importance of learning and teaching idiomatic expressions. Since foreign language learning is facilitated by focusing on learning L2 figurative expressions, it is suggested by some prominent scholars that the dominance of learning idiomatic expressions in different forms in a target language is one of the vital component of successful language learning.

Last but not least, due to the heuristic (i.e., involving or serving as an aid to learning, discovery, or problem-solving by experimental and especially trial-and-error methods, <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/heuristic>) function, usage and the impact of metaphor, its teaching should be given importance among ELT instructors. The fact that metaphor is used ubiquitously either consciously or unconsciously and is a necessity for

learning a foreign language at any age should not be forgotten, however in the case of foreign language learning the importance of conceptual metaphor and MC have been paid little attention. As held by Danesi (1994, p. 127), “A pressing need in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) has been the extent to which second language learners acquire the capability of expressing their thoughts and ideas in the target language with the application of culturally suitable and acceptable figurative language.” the ability to comprehend and/or produce metaphors and idiomatic expressions in the target language gains significance. The idea of implementing conceptual metaphors when teaching idioms has been “proved beneficial in helping learners recognize the systematicity between two concepts, and hence improves meaning comprehension” (Kömür & Çimen 2009).

### **3.2. Research Design**

For the investigation of social phenomena in their natural contexts it is suggested that a qualitative study is the most suitable one (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003; Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). Furthermore, qualitative studies rests on the inductive reasoning which focuses on issues best covered by language, as compared with the computations and figures produced in quantitative research. However, Creswell (2013) writes that mixed method is getting popular over an only-qualitative, or only-quantitative research which does not suffice for reliable results. A mixed methods design in which the researcher brings qualitative and quantitative data analyses together (Creswell, 2013) is used in this study.

In this research, it is examined whether CMT knowledge of sports idioms and providing etymological elaboration by using both words and supplied visual videos and images, improves adult English learners’ comprehension and retention of these idioms. Experimental studies are sometimes entitled the most powerful research method, the best tools for establishing a relation of cause and effect between the variables (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1993). An experimental study gives the researcher the possibility to isolate the matter under study and concentrate on it by controlling the surrounding world (Walliman, 2006).

The model of the quasi-experimental section of the current study can be associated with two groups’ pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test group design; a model in which two groups are involved and the effect of the variations in the independent variable of interest on the studied dependent variable is measured (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1993).

In an experimental research design, dependent variable plays a decisive role in the results of the study (Adams, Khan, Raeside, & White, 2007). The variables on which the response variable is dependent on are called independent or explanatory variables. For this study, the independent variable was the absence or presence of CMT information.

First stage was a quasi-experimental study of the traditional and CMT teaching methods of sports-related idioms which was conducted on the upper-intermediate students of different departments from a state university based in Ankara, Turkey. Establishing the cause and effect relationship by controlling all the major influencing factors is aimed at experimental studies. Quasi-experimental is the same as experimental study only it differs from the latter in that there is no random selection of subjects in the quasi-experimental study (Walliman, 2006).

At the second stage, teachers' knowledge of idioms in general and knowing and applying CMT in particular were measured through a questionnaire, which is a type of survey aimed at collecting information by means of asking questions from a sample of a number of people representing a population (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1993). The questionnaire in this study was also aimed at gaining an idea of the teachers' approaches to teaching idioms and CMT to their students. The data gathered by this means gave us both numerical and descriptive data.

The aim of the thesis is to discuss the crucial and pivotal role of applying CM in idioms and phrases related to sports and discuss the need to use sports-metaphors and the benefits of using them through CMT within the classroom. There are some lesson plans on a selected sport and each of the lessons starts with various kind of exercises to attract the attention of students to the related metaphors. The selected activities included introducing baseball idioms, watching short relevant videos with sports idioms, role plays, playing some games and negotiating on the meaning and usage. These activities are taught differently for the two selected groups. Then, the literal and metaphoric meanings of the baseball expressions, are classified by showing differences and similarities in L1 and L2. Then, the idiomatic expressions that go around on conceptual metaphors are presented by demonstrating how some popular sports metaphors can aid students in understanding, learning and consolidating their metaphoric knowledge.



### 3.3. Research Questions

Five research questions have been formulated for the purpose and nature of this study. It is discussed whether the incorporation of CMT and selected materials have any impact on the process of learning and retention of sports idioms into regular preparation classes in Turkey by investigating the following issues.

1. Are English instructors in Turkey aware of the sports-related idioms? If yes, do they teach them for English learners?
2. To what extent is it necessary to teach sports-related idioms to EFL learners?
3. To what extent are the conceptual metaphors effective in improving Turkish students' proficiency level when sports-related metaphors in English are taught?
4. What problems might arise for learners of English whose first language is Turkish when encountering these sports expressions in learning English?
5. To what extent can cultural differences enhance the process of learning these sports metaphors?

The main motivation to conduct this thesis is to highlight the positive effects of practical application of CMT in the context of teaching sports metaphorical language, and to develop a systematic knowledge of better understanding of idiomatic language. The first question dealing with the awareness and teaching English sports idioms by Turkish instructors needs some discussion and the main focus will be on the need to use sports-metaphors and the benefits of teaching and learning them in general and baseball idiomatic expressions in particular. For instance, according to Boers and Lindstromberg (2006), "Researchers have found that using sports can assist children to learn difficult math problems. .... court judges often use sports metaphors in their judicial opinions to capture a point quickly" (p. 198). It is better to know the fact that baseball in America, and even other countries, encompasses a lot of aspects and this sport is entrenched in political, social, historical, and cultural context. By using popular sports metaphors people can communicate easily and more efficiently. For example, Littlemore (2001), argues that "Because many people participate or have participated in athletics, sports metaphors are often likely to generate listener interest. So sports metaphors are of educational value because they can simplify difficult concepts, shorten communication cycles, and generate listener interest in many subject areas" (p. 165). In a nation whose pastime activity is

playing and watching baseball, its importance in the creation of idiomatic language in American English should not be denied.

It is hypothesized in this study that the EFL instructors pay little attention to the importance of metaphor in learning any new language, and that students often complain about the difficulties involved in understanding idiomatic expressions such as *to hit a home run*, *to drop the ball* or *to take a rain check*, when the image of a person hitting a home, dropping the ball or checking rain apparently holds no relation whatsoever with the states of a great success, making a mistake and an excuse from participating in an event conveyed by these expressions respectively. Crystal (2003) reports an incident that vividly illustrates the confusion and misunderstanding that the use of sports-related expressions may cause:

Some time ago, I was attending an international seminar at a European university. Around the table were representatives of some 20 countries. (...) The lingua franca of the meeting was English, and everyone seemed to be using the language competently. Someone then made a telling remark. There was a silence round the table, which was broken by one of the US delegates observing: "That came from out in left field". There was another silence and I could see some of the delegates turning to their neighbors in a surreptitious way, as one does when one does not understand what on earth is going on, and wants to check that one is not alone. But they were not pondering the telling remark. They were asking each other what 'from out in left field' meant. My neighbor asked me: as a native speaker, he felt confident I would know. I did not know. Baseball at that time was a closed book to me – and still is, very largely. One of the braver of the delegates spoke up: "out where?", he asked. It took the US delegate by surprise, as plainly he had never had that idiom questioned before; but he managed to explain that it was a figure of speech from baseball, a ball coming from an unusual direction, and what he had meant was that the remark was surprising, unexpected. There were nods of relief from around the table. (Crystal 2003, p. 186)

Teaching idioms and finding reference materials are two very challenging burdens for the teachers since most of the selected sources on English sports idioms are primarily based on intuition. Typically idioms, which are commonly used in spoken and written discourse both formal and informal, are defined as expressions whose natural meaning cannot be derived from their single parts. They are common in everyday life, movies, on television, in journalism, as well as a variety of subjects such as economics, politics, etc. According to Polio, Barlow, Fine and Polio (1977), most English speakers utter about 20 million idioms in their lifetime, or 7,000 idioms per week. This means that about four figurative expressions are produced in every minute of speech.

The requirement and broad usage of idiomatic language in native speaker's discourse present considerable hindrance for language learners. Knowledge of the literal meaning of the constituents parts of any expression is a prerequisite for the correct interpretation of figurative meaning. Learners, however, often have a limited L2 vocabulary and many

words that appear in idiomatic phrases may not be familiar to them. Furthermore, even if learners are familiar with the literal meaning of the constituent words, it does not always mean they will be able to interpret the meaning of the idioms correctly. In fact, idiomatic expressions and figurative language have not received enough attention from both teachers and learners, as a result, a great number of the learners suffer severely in this regard.

If the concept of learning a foreign language focuses on natural production, therefore teaching methodology and materials should mostly provide assistance on comprehending and living it rather than mere memorization. In the realm of foreign language teaching according to Littlemore (2013) “Grammatical structures or semantics were taken for granted and students were instructed to simply learn vocabulary and grammatical rules as well as the exceptions to these rules in order to acquire or increase their language proficiency, which for many years was equated with drill” ( p. 218). With the advent of CMT, instructors should increase the mastery of learners over the target language systematically and deeply. In short, whereas the CMT highlights learning and language processing ensuring comprehension, the traditional theories of language mostly focus on just teaching. Second language learners, however, often do not have sufficient exposure that would allow them to develop the ability to identify the relevant metaphoric constructs, and interpret figurative expressions correctly. Furthermore, there may be misunderstanding or communication breakdown with the use of grammatically and lexically accepted and correct but pragmatically ambiguous and sometimes bizarre language. The necessity and usage of metaphor in our perception and comprehension of the world is something unavoidable and clear. Metaphors are based on the experiences of the community. The figurative language of the community can be considered to be the reflection of thought and views on the world by the community: “Metaphor is not simply an ornamental aspect of language, but a fundamental scheme by which people conceptualize the world and their activities” (Gibbs, 2008, p. 3). They appear to be specific to that community.

Although cognitive metaphor theory has experienced a long and winding path from the traditional, it is still far from being firmly accepted. There are no broadly accepted findings and comprehensively researched areas and reached ideas are not agreed on comprehensively. Thus, the application of metaphors and how to teach them are necessary to set the framework for research into language acquisition.

The second research question, concerned with the reason for teaching sports idioms has received meticulous care in choosing. In other words, among various topics for teaching, firstly sports is selected and secondly baseball is singled out for this study. As metaphors deeply influence and shape our language, attitudes, perceptions, and worldview, one of the extremely common sources of metaphors and ways in which we understand our realities is the world of sports. R. Palmatier and H. Ray (1989) identified over 1,700 commonly-used sports metaphors from 100 sports, including “take the bull by the horns,” (bullfighting), “pull your weight,” (rowing), and “catch someone off guard,” (boxing) “take a rain check” (baseball). The sports metaphor was one of the most widely employed and recognized linguistic tools during the days of William Shakespeare (Littlemore, 2006). Today, no institution has further used, and perhaps unknowingly perpetuated, the sports metaphor than the media; the dominant way the public consumes and experiences sports.

In the twenty-first century, sports language has broadened its reach in the new communication techniques with emotional reinforcement aimed at generating trust, creating messages that are easy to remember or to tell, to give new meaning to data in order to influence in their interpretation, synthesise states of mind, classify experiences and create opinions. The presentation of reality in sporting terms saves space, it transmits images that at the same time summarise facts and emotions and it benefits from an all-around enthusiasm that generates icons, brands, personalities and spaces to represent stories, values, dreams or aspirations (Blain, Boyle, and O'Donnell 1993; Bairner 2001, Charteris-Black 2004: Chapter 6).

Turning to sports metaphors, some studies have focused on the transfer of sports-related vocabulary to other fields, such as politics or business. Other research has been concerned with military rhetoric echoed in sports metaphors. Finally, there are a number of studies on the use of metaphors in particular sports, including chess, cycling, or soccer (Rada & Wulfemeyer 2005).

Competitive challenge is forced to players in most of the sports in different levels and degrees. sports often require not only physical challenges of power, athleticism, endurance, but also mental challenges are expected such as fast and logical decisions, confidence for emotional strength, perseverance and reacting to the strategic decisions of opponents. All of these aspects of challenge in sports shape and require metaphorical relations with our conceptual system. Like art or religion, sport is one of the main systems of meaning in our

lives. So sport is as serious as “winning and losing in life.” If art can be life, then sport can be life, as well. Sports metaphors could be criticized as they describe aspects of contemporary culture in which we regard life as a game that we just win and lose. (Beard, 1998).

For the third question, dealing with the degree of effectiveness of using conceptual metaphor in teaching sports idioms for improving students’ command of language, it would suffice to say that “metaphors are a phenomenon of thought and not merely of language, and as such they have a physical, that is a neuronal basis.” (Lakoff, 2008, p.18). “The theory of enactment has actually shown that whether someone perceives something and acts respectively or only visualizes himself acting, more or less the same parts of the brain are active.” (ibid, p. 19) Accordingly, the learning of metaphors does not need the keeping of whole source domains with the relevant target domains, in fact “solely the establishment of new neural connections from the source to the target domain is necessary, which saves mental space” (Lakoff and Johnson 2003, p. 258). Therefore, it is advisable for language learners to link already existing lexis by comparing source and target domain structures.

Metaphors are different in degree of conventionality and are thus most likely processed differently. Indeed, language learners may profit from raising their awareness for the metaphors which are totally different from language to language. Therefore, the foreign language instructor by contrasting the way native speakers express their ideas and thoughts in their mother tongue and comparing this to focused target language, contribute a great deal.

The fourth question which is about the problems arising for learners of English whose first language is Turkish when encountering these expressions in their learning English is another factor that needs deeper analysis. The challenges with learning and teaching strategies for comprehending and generating metaphors in L2 is something crystal clear; therefore, most of the scholars in the field of conceptual metaphor suggest that more attention should be given to it (See Low, 1988; Danesi,1993; Littlemore; 2001a; Littlemore & Low, 2006). Metaphors are a natural phenomenon and are not just in language but in thought and action as well, as a result, they are pervasive in everyday language. In fact, “metaphor is the main mechanism through which we comprehend abstract concepts and perform abstract reasoning” (Lakoff 2006, p. 232). Guerrero and Villamil (2002), state that

“metaphors are recognized not only for their pervasiveness in the language teaching profession but also for their ability to capture complex constructs in the field and their utility as vehicles for reflection and consciousness-raising among educators” (p. 95).

Turkish like other L2 learners despite their syntactic or semantic understanding of the foreign language, they generally have problems in recognising and understanding idiomatic expressions and figurative language due to many reasons. They are mostly exposed to structured grammar and literal meaning in which the result is unnatural communication and inappropriate discourse.

Being ubiquitous and frequently used, metaphors cannot be avoided in daily discourse. They are cognitively used by native speakers of any language to utilize concrete ideas and concepts for conveying abstract ones. Metaphors are not arbitrary they are motivated. Even though the kind of motivation may vary from language to language, through elaboration it explains and facilitates language learning understanding. Furthermore, knowing and spotting the specific type of metaphor motivation in the target language is one of the key features of foreign language teaching in figurative language and abstract discourse.

It can be discussed that metaphorical language is believed to be stylistic means of utterance and is used mostly by talented speakers. Metaphors according to Deignan (2003), have been considered “The icing on the cake that language learners could easily do without. Thus, they were either simply ignored (consciously or most likely unconsciously due to lack of better knowledge) or singled out as fixed expressions listed in the vocabulary section to ensure general comprehension or to simply offer easy access for rote learning” (p. 201).

If it is looked at genderly, female Turkish learners who are dealing with male dominant sports like football can be alienated and the feeling of detachment is most likely. Despite their valuable and effective impact, sports idioms should be selected with care for avoiding male-dominated sports. When it comes to teaching and using baseball idioms for Turkish language learners, being male oriented sport is not a problem since both genders are not familiar with the game itself and the rules and expressions around this American sport.

The fifth and the last question puts the importance of cultural differences in relation to the previous questions different answers. To begin with it is discussed by Charteris-Black, (2002), that “the easiest metaphoric expressions are the ones that have *equal conceptual*

*foundation and linguistic forms* both in the native and target languages” (p. 104) (e.g. “to walk on the air” English and “bulutlarda yürümek” or “havalarda uçmak” in Turkish).

Since metaphors and idiomatic expressions are different across languages and cross-cultures, the easiest ones are quite the same conceptual idioms in both languages and the most difficult ones are the expressions which have equal linguistic forms but different conceptual basis.

According to Charteris-Black (2002), “Metaphoric language and metaphoric thought are closely connected to each other, and they affect each other in the dynamic speech-thought process. When there are differences between conceptual systems and cultural meanings in the native language and the target language, it is inevitable that difficulties are experienced in understanding metaphoric expressions in the target language” (p.128). The acquisition or learning of conceptual metaphors of target language should be familiarized with the conceptual system of the that language, since each language has its own unique culture, as a results the concepts and idioms used change from language to language, so does and the concepts. It is necessary for the language instructors and learners to be familiar with the conceptual systems and linguistic expression of the target language. Kövecses points out that “the theory of conceptual metaphors is emerging as a new tool that is capable of providing serious assistance to both teachers and students in teaching and learning foreign languages” (2003, p. 311).

Baseball idioms, indeed, for Turkish students constitute a notoriously difficult area of foreign language learning and teaching because, by definition, idioms, in general, are conventionalized expressions whose overall meaning is totally different from their constituent parts let alone baseball idioms which are totally new as an unknown and unplayed sport in Turkey. As a result, at the beginning of teaching baseball idioms for the experimental group the rules and special terms were explained thoroughly (Appendix 3). Hence, an idiomatic expression like *a whole new ball game* is composed of several words (a/whole/new/ball/game) whose individual meanings do not seem to contribute to the meaning of the idiom as a whole (*a completely different situation*). In addition to this apparent incongruity between form and meaning, not emphasizing the fact that our language is metaphorical, the scarcity of teaching materials and the lack of a clear methodology make learning idioms a stumbling block for EFL students.

### **3.4. Data Collection Procedure**

Firstly, the achievement test (Appendix 1) was piloted with two groups of total 30 students of approximately the same level of English proficiency for making necessary revision and corrections before applying to the target group. The results of the test showed that the idioms selected were new to most students.

Secondly, by multiple choice and an open-ended item questionnaire opinions of the learners were obtained. In order to come to common pattern learners' reflections were examined several times. Then, metaphorically-enriched lesson plans were selected implemented. Additionally, during the implementation stage the learners attitudes, recommendations and behaviors were taken and observed by the researcher.

Thirdly, from instructors' point of view, there was a questionnaire in which the main focus was on gaining an idea of the teachers' approaches to teaching sports idioms in general and within the conceptual metaphor method to their students in particular (Appendix 5).

The data of the current study were collected in three independent stages: in the first stage, achievement test was given in three different parts in total of 22 questions to check learners understanding and familiarity about baseball-related idiomatic expressions. In the second stage, three questionnaires were given to the English instructors, control group and experimental group. English instructors were asked to answer questions about their attitude towards teaching idioms in general and sports-related idioms through CMT in specific. This questionnaire had three separate parts. After collecting their personal information and their degree whether in ELT or other fields, they were asked to answer eight questions in Part I about idioms in general. Then in Part II, five questions were answered about sports-related idioms. Finally, in the third part, they were given some basic information about the conceptual metaphors and linguistic metaphors and were asked to answer seventeen statements about the teaching English sport-related metaphors through conceptual metaphors to learners of English as a foreign language. They were asked to choose the choices changing from strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree to strongly disagree.

For the students of the control group, a questionnaire was applied on learning of English sports-related idioms. It had fifteen items with options similar to the teachers' questionnaire. In the experimental group, the questionnaire was similar to the control group plus answering five questions about their feedback on metaphor-based teaching sessions and the importance and helpfulness of applying CMT in learning sports-related



idioms. The third stage was administered using the same achievement test's questions through pre-, post- and delayed post-tests after two weeks.

### Testing Conditions

The baseball sports idioms were presented in two different learning conditions:

- 1) A control group: Idioms were taught by traditional approach, without giving any extra explanations about the host culture, the origin, the rules and format of baseball.
- 2) An experimental group: idioms were taught by CM, with definitions and example sentences supported by relevant videos and game in English (henceforth "CM group").

Both groups were judged to be similar in terms of English proficiency level, because the students in both groups were placed in the same-level English classes based on their performance on the in-school placement test. In addition, their classroom exposure before the study were similar, because the classes shared the same goal, the same content, and the same textbook.

### 3.5. Treatment of Baseball Idioms for English Language Learners in Control Group

The students in the control group were presented with the sports idioms based on the traditional method in which an idiom's meaning is viewed as arbitrary and rote memorization is applied and used by students. The instructor told the students what each of the idioms meant in English. The students after being provided by verbal and written form of the idioms were instructed to memorize the sports idioms by doing the exercises in the four week's time lesson plans (Appendix 2). By the end of the sessions a checklist was given to this group by providing both meaning and examples as follows.

**A *curveball*** It is used to express something that is unexpected at causes someone to adapt to a situation.

*This might be a curveball, but I don't want to marry you after all.*

**Drop the ball** To make a mistake.

*I think she really dropped the ball when she decided to quit that promising internship.*

***Hit a home run*** This refers to a highly successful operation

*How did the new business venture go? – We hit a home run.*

The pre-test was applied in the first session and the students were not told that they would have to be evaluated with the same material again. After this stage the target idioms were presented in verbal and written form over four weeks with nearly 6 idioms covered in each lesson. In each learning session, the students were asked to memorize the selected 6 idioms and learn the definitions and the examples of baseball idioms.

Different activities were then used to check the correct meaning and usage. Four weeks after the initial presentation of the idioms, the post-test was re-administered to the students to measure the medium-term retention of the target idioms. There was no revision of the expressions before the test.

### **3.6. Treatment of Baseball Idioms for English Language Learners in CM Group**

In contrast, the students in the experimental group or CM group were presented with the same 22 sports idioms through the cognitive approach of etymological elaboration with a brief explanation of the metaphorical nature of idioms in regards to how understanding the literal meaning can help them decipher the figurative meaning. All of the steps of the researcher's teaching for the CM are explained in great detail as follows:

The meanings of these 22 idioms were explained based on the CMT by various and systematic integration of metaphor teaching such as contrastive research, visualization, production encouragement and the hidden motivation. The instructor emphasized that the concept of metaphor facilitates and contributes to the meaning of the whole string rather than simply memorising it; thus, concepts, which ease understanding, were taught and focused on the students' creative production, retention and retrieval. At the beginning of the experiment, students in CM Group were introduced in non-specialist terms to the notion, usage and omnipresence of conceptual metaphors in its contribution to a better understanding of idioms in general and specifically baseball sports idiomatic expressions. It was briefly explained that the metaphorical nature of idioms in regards to how comprehending the literal meaning can help decipher the metaphoric meaning. Only for the experimental group it was explained and emphasized that many American idioms originate from sports.

It was clearly explained that historically, the meaning of idioms was believed to be arbitrary, or unanalyzable (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). However, researchers have shown that a considerable number of idioms are not arbitrary but *motivated* (Gibbs, 1994; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Motivated, in this sense, means cognitive processes can be used to derive the idiom's current figurative meaning from the meaning of the original context in which it was used (Kövecses & Szabó, 1996). This original usage is referred to as the *source domain* (Boers et al., 2007). The term *source domain* refers to the historical origin of an idiom. One of the most common source domains, which is the main focus of this study, is sports. Due to the importance of sports and competition in US American society, nobody would argue the place of sports in American life; they are big business, they fit with the widely accepted American dream of being the best. Americans believe in competition, thus it fosters and encourages their lives. They live by its rules. No wonder the language of athletic competition has found its way as metaphor into every aspect of American life.

Corpus research on the frequency of particular source domains shows that certain cultures use specific domains more often than other cultures (Deignan, 2003). English has a high number of idioms derived from sailing and sports (Boers et al., 2007). For example, the source domain for the idiom '*rain check*' is the sport of baseball. To *take a rain check* means that if it rains and the game of baseball is postponed or cancelled, the ticket holder can come and take a refund or a new ticket. Outside the context of baseball, it is a polite way of turning down the invitation or postponing a meeting with the implication that another time will be acceptable for you.

Ching (1993) identifies "life is playing a game" as an underlying metaphor for life in the United States and points out that playing results in attaining the American middle-class ideal of investing our lives in competitive, risky activity that might reap rewards of enjoyment, self-esteem, and survival. We prove our worth and gain our identity through winning games. To Americans, "TO LIVE IS TO PLAY" (Ching 1993, pp. 43-46; emphasis in original). Here for this it is clearly explained that the way they think and what they expect from life has a close relationship with winning and competition. As a result, their source domain for idiomatic expressions would be mostly sports.

Kövecses (2005) goes even one step further by assuming a foundational metaphor in American culture that is "life is a show or spectacle, or more generally, entertainment"

(Kövecses, 2005, p. 184, emphasis in original). Liu and Farha (1996), identify the major driving forces for the increasing popularity and pervasiveness of sports metaphors in American culture in particular: “a growing intensity of competition in almost all aspects of public and private life, as well as the increasing commercialization of sports, accompanied by an ever-growing coverage and accessibility of sports events in the media” (p. 38). It is important to point out that competition can be considered a general source domain for common concepts like success, progress, and failure that are used to comprehend and evaluate everyday situations and activities. Thus “the claim here is not that only Americans have the game and sports metaphors, but that they have them for a more extensive range of target concepts than other nations” (Kövecses, 2005, p. 244). Like most of the other countries, sports metaphors have also become increasingly popular in Turkey in the last decades when socio-political and economic reforms have raised Turkey’s level of competition in both economy and sports.

Many different sports abound as source domains in metaphorical mappings, but the types of sports that have been shown to feature most prominently as source domains in American English are baseball, American football, and boxing (Kövecses, 2000b). However, it is interesting to note that there appears to be a growing awareness among speakers of other varieties of English that certain types of “American” expressions are spreading due to linguistic and cultural contact. Consider the following quote from *The Sydney Morning Herald*: “Baseball has invaded the Australian language without most of the population ever having seen a game. Only Australians over 60 continue to derive imagery from our own sports: a “three strikes you’re out” crime policy; businessmen talking about “ballpark figures” or “a whole new ball game”; surprises coming “out of left field”; and acquaintances wanting to “touch base” or asking for a “rain check” if they can’t.”(Dale, 2004). The question is, to what extent there is the degree of familiarity and spread of baseball idioms usage among Turkish people?

It seems apparent that a NNS must have some degree of metaphorical awareness in order to link the literal and figurative meaning of an idiom, but what if the literal meaning is derived from a culture-specific source domain with which the NNS is unfamiliar? Both English and Turkish languages have this generic-level metaphor (same source-target mapping). However, the two cultures differ as to the kinds of sports that are popular, and this, results in variation when the generic-level metaphor is instantiated at the specific

level. In American English, the specific source domain is typically baseball, but Turks use soccer as common source domains for sports metaphors in political and everyday discourse.

An example of cross-cultural variation where two languages use different source domains for a certain target domain is one of the important factors for consideration. Americans view their life as sports and therefore tend to think about life and act in such a way as if they were in a game (*Life Is A Game*). Thus, politics, business, and personal relationships are viewed as a game in which one has to win, and thus they serve as target domains to which the source domain sports applies. The Turks, however, do not view their world as a game, and so in this context sports is not considered a dominant metaphor in Turkey. I believe that what is more central to Turkish life is, to mention some, family and fate, and accordingly, these occur as source domains for the conceptualization of the target domain life (Wierzbicka, 2005).

For many idioms, the source domain is culture-specific. For example, English contains a large number of idioms derived from sports. However, there are variations even within a source domain of the same language if one crosses cultures. For instance, British English sports idioms often reference cricket whereas American English sports idioms are often derived from baseball. These cultural variations are one of the reasons that idioms continue to be identified as one of the most difficult aspects of language for NNSs to comprehend (Cooper, 1999; Kövecses & Szabó, 1996). Importantly, metaphors can vary not only cross-culturally but also within cultures and languages. Kövecses points out that an obvious place to look for variation in metaphor are the “social, cultural, stylistic, individual, and so on, dialects and varieties that have been identified by sociolinguists, linguistic anthropologists, and other researchers of language variation in a social and cultural context.” (Kövecses, 2005, p. 88). Lack of cultural knowledge leads to difficulty of understanding or even misunderstanding. It would be difficult, if not impossible, for NNSs who are not familiar with the American Civil War, football, or basketball to comprehend relevant idioms. Not only can this lack of cultural knowledge affect a NNS’s daily communication with others, but it can also affect them academically.

The sports-related idiomatic expressions studied in this thesis do have an underlying conceptual motivation that is also reflected in a considerable degree of lexico-grammatical variability. Obviously, this has some implications for the present study. Assuming that life

is playing a game (and the underlying conceptual key sport is a struggle for survival) is a conventional and entrenched generic metaphor that motivates the expressions listed and explained in the relevant videos, this should correlate with, or at least enable, the potential for idiom creativity and variation of sports-based idioms in English through the source domain sports (baseball). In other words, the more prominent a specific source domain is in a certain variety of a language, the higher the potential for lexico-grammatical variability of the idiomatic expressions that are based on that conceptual metaphor.

In addition to lacking cultural background knowledge, a NNS may also lack a clear idea of the connection between figurative and literal language (Cooper, 1998; Lennon, 1998). Raising the learner's awareness of the metaphorical connection that can often be made between the original and current figurative meanings has been shown to aid comprehension and retention of idioms (Kövecses & Szabó, 1996).

To this group it is clearly explained that the transparency degree which is the ease at which the figurative meaning of an idiom can be derived from the literal one (Steinel et al., 2007) plays a significant role such as the higher the transparency, the easier it is to derive the meaning of the idiom. Since the least transparent which are described as opaque ones or even culture-specific idioms are unavoidable in any discourse, for example, an idiom from an unfamiliar culture-specific source domain may not be as transparent for a NNS as it is for a NS. *To hit a home run* is a baseball idiom that would be relatively transparent to a native-English speaking American but may be opaque to a Turkish student. One reason it might be opaque is because the learner from Turkey may not be able to independently form a mental image of someone hitting a home run.

The next step for this group is emphasizing *Imageability* which is the ability to evoke a mental image and has similar subjectivity as transparency in regards to idioms (Steinel et al., 2007). *Imageable* idioms are “figurative expressions that tend to call up a conventional scene in a native speaker's mind” (Boers & Demecheleer, 2001, p. 255). These idioms can be traced back to specific source domains and are also referred to as *figurative idioms* (Boers et al., 2007). *Hitting a home run* would be an example of a figurative idiom.

Most American English speakers can visualize someone literally *hitting a home run* because baseball is a popular American sport. These same speakers probably could not visualize *hitting someone for six* from cricket because it is not a well-known sport in America. This inability to create a mental image can make the idiom less transparent and

limit the ability to better comprehension. In my study, I used idioms that are imageable because I wanted to focus on idioms that are considered more etymologically opaque to NNSs because of their cultural specificity.

The mental process of connecting the figurative meaning of an idiom to its source domain is called *etymological elaboration* (Boers, Demecheleer & Eyckmans, 2004). By thinking about the literal meaning of an idiom, the learner can often form a mental image that can lead to making the metaphorical connection between the literal and figurative. In this way, etymological elaboration incorporates the *dual coding hypothesis* by providing two pathways to encoding the idiom in the learner's lexicon and thus increases retention. The *dual coding hypothesis* states that providing both a visual and verbal/written form of information is a more effective retention method than rote memorization of verbal/written information (Paivio, 1986).

The effectiveness of etymological elaboration on idiom acquisition is affected by the factors discussed such as source domain, metaphorical awareness, cultural knowledge, transparency, imageability, and dual coding. In the first stage, the pre-test was applied and the students were not told that they would have to be assessed with the same material again. Then in all learning conditions, the target idioms were presented over four weeks with nearly 6 idioms covered in each lesson. In each learning session, the students were shown almost a 10-minute video to learn the definitions and the examples of baseball idioms. The students were asked to think metaphorically and cognitively about all the important factors which were mentioned in details such as metaphorical and cultural awareness, transparency of these idioms, the source domain and its imageability and finally dual coding in which the selected and relevant videos had done their purposes successfully in a great deal. This group received explicit instruction on the origin of these selected baseball idioms. In addition to verbal and written description, photos and videos were provided. After four weeks of focusing on etymological elaboration and learning metaphorically, the post-test was re-administered to the students to measure the medium-term retention of the target idioms. There was no revision of the expressions before the test.

### 3.7. Participants

The participants were 20 English language instructors, both Turkish and international, and 50 Preparatory-school upper-intermediate students of different departments from state university based in Ankara, Turkey. The preparatory school of this state university has one-year compulsory program for mainly Turkish citizens, and also many international students who have not passed the proficiency exam, in this university called Annual General Assessment (AGE), which is available twice a year. During the preparatory year, students learn academic English by getting trained in four skills. There are four semesters in one year and each semester has two periods. The ages of the participants range from 18 to 29. Being proficient in English language after graduation is one of the main purposes of this program. Upon passing the exam, they are expected to understand their whole departmental lessons in English medium. The courses in the preparatory classes are intended to develop students' language proficiency. There are at least two instructors for each level and the medium of instruction for the all levels is english

### 3.8. Sources of Metaphor

The main sources of idiomatic expressions of sports considered in this thesis are books, dictionaries, sports-related videos, and websites. *Idioms Organiser*, written by Jon Wright (2002), which has one hundred and ten units with four separate sections as: (1) "Areas of Metaphor", (2) "Individual Metaphors", (3) "Topics", and (4) "Keywords". In "Areas of Metaphors" 12 selected conceptual metaphors which are focused and are especially relevant for the sports discourse like 'Life Is Gambling'. In "Individual Metaphors" there are some sports dioms. The "Topics" section, examines different target domains, and the final "Keywords" section teaches fixed expressions by prepositions and conjunctions. Wright's book *Idioms Organizer*, provides a systematic integration and valuable resource for teachers aiming at metaphors and figurative language.

*Meanings and Metaphors*, by Gillian Lazar (2003), has 34 units covering figurative language for different levels from lower-intermediate to advance aiming at explaining what figurative language is and providing activities to foster understanding and awareness raising. Like *Idioms Organiser* its main focus is on the origins of idioms and specific conceptual metaphors (e.g. Life Is A Game).



Number of dictionaries such as *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (1989) and *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (2003) as well as *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (2002) were used. Another useful resource along with other books is the OneStop English Internet Site, which currently containing twelve units on conceptual metaphor and metaphor teaching. Sports-related videos and websites which are unavoidable and naturally-used and spoken sources are vitally important and needed. A very helpful website *Learn English with Simple English Videos* contains step by step explanations of baseball idioms with their origins and examples in which, the video parts and dialogues are presented interactively, and mainly aimed at classroom discourse that requires additional language input from the teacher, thus they cannot be seen as self-study exercises. Last but not the least the book, *The Field Guide to Sports Metaphors* by Josh Chetwynd is used for it covers well known and great sports idioms under two parts, Team Sports and Individual Sports. In each part, these sports are organized in alphabetical order, which makes it easy to find various sports will be used for data collection purposes.

### **3.9. Data Analysis**

Parametric tests are based on the normal distribution. Using a parametric test when the data are not parametric, the results will probably be inaccurate. So, assumptions must be checked before choosing the statistical test for the data analysis. The tests of normality are Kolmogorov-Smirnov, which is used when the sample has more than 50 cases and Shapiro-Wilk which is used when the study has a small sample (<50). Because this study has a small sample size, Shapiro-Wilk test results are taken into consideration. If the Shapiro-Wilk test is significant (sig.<.05) then the scores are significantly different from a normal distribution. Table 1 represents the results for normality assumption.

Table 1.

*Tests of Normality*

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Control Group Pretest	,218	25	,004	,897	25	,016
Control Group Posttest	,125	25	,200*	,950	25	,247
Control Group Delayed Posttest	,123	25	,200*	,953	25	,289
Experimental Group Pretest	,168	25	,068	,923	25	,060
Experimental Group Posttest	,302	25	,000	,777	25	,000
Experimental Group Delayed Posttest	,265	25	,000	,837	25	,001
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.						
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction						

The results show that  $p$  values of Shapiro-Wilk test are less than .05 for the following data: Control Group Pretest ( $p=.016$ ), Experimental Group Posttest ( $p=.000$ ) and Experimental Group Delayed Posttest ( $p=.001$ ). It is interpreted that they are not normally distributed. It means that the normality assumption is not held for the half of the data studied in this research. Therefore, non-parametric tests are used in the study since parametric tests would be inaccurate.

This study is quasi-experimental and there are two groups as control and experimental group. Since there are three-time measures for each individual, techniques for repeated measures are required to analyze the data. Friedman test is a nonparametric alternative to the one-way repeated measures of analysis of variance. It is used when the same sample is measured three or more points in time. Therefore, Friedman test is used for the control group and experimental group separately in order to figure out whether there are statistically significant differences between these measures. Since the results of Friedman test is significant, it indicates that there are significant differences between at least one pair of measures. To obtain the pairs which differ from each other significantly, Wilcoxon

Signed Rank Test, a nonparametric technique used to investigate the difference between two dependent tests was conducted. To control for Type I error, a Bonferonni adjusted alpha value is considered. Since three Wilcoxon tests are conducted after each Friedman test, the revised alpha level for determining statistical significance would be  $.05/3=.017$ . After these analyses, it is seen that there are significant differences between many pairs of measures. Thus, besides the p-values, it is important to provide the effect sizes in order to see the degree of difference between these pairs. However, SPSS does not provide an effect size statistic for the Wilcoxon test. Therefore, it could be calculated by using the formula,  $r = \frac{z}{\sqrt{N}}$ .

The value of z is reported in the output, and N is the number of observations over two time point (Pallant, 2007). Effect sizes could be evaluated by using the Cohen (1988)'s criteria of .1=small effect, .3=medium effect, .5=large effect.

Moreover, it was investigated that whether control and experimental group differ from each other significantly at each measuring point. The Mann-Whitney test is a nonparametric test that compares two unpaired groups. It is the non-parametric equivalent of the independent samples t-test. It ranks all the values from low to high regardless of which group each value belongs. Then for each group, ranks are averaged and reported. If the *p* value for the analysis is less than .05, it means that the means of the ranks in the two groups differ significantly from each other. Therefore Mann-Whitney u tests were conducted at each measuring point (pretest, posttest, delayed posttest) separately.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

#### **4.1. Introduction**

Research in ELT and cognitive linguistics provide important evidence about the conducive role that metaphoric thought has in the processing of idiomatic language. Conceptual metaphors bring order to the seemingly chaotic world of idiomatic expressions. Rather than being isolated, frozen lexical items in the mental lexicon, they are part of a coherent system of metaphorical concepts. Metaphoric themes and source domains, which are crucially important and sometimes culture-specific in shaping our figurative discourse, are constituent parts of metaphoric language. While the mechanism of grasping metaphor is largely unconscious and tacit for native speakers, language learners' understanding of conceptual metaphors in the target language motivates and requires both natural production and comprehension of idiomatic language. As focused in this thesis, the results of the influence and importance of applying CMT in teaching sports-related idioms for two groups are explained in the following sections.

#### **4.2. Quantitative Research Findings**

All the following results are based on the number of correct and wrong answers of two groups' pre-, post- and delayed post-test (Appendix 6). Besides all the tables and graphics for the quantitative research findings, there is a descriptive statistics finding, too (Appendix 9). The results comparing the pretests, posttests, and delayed posttests of control and experimental groups by Mann Whitney U test are presented in Tables 2, 3 and 4 respectively.

Table 2.

*Results of Mann Whitney U Test Comparing the Scores of Pretests for Control Group and Experimental Group*

<i>Ranks</i>						
	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	<i>U</i>	<i>p</i>
pretest	Control	25	24,60	615,00	290,00	,655
	Experimental	25	26,40	660,00		
	Total	50				

The results show that students' thoughts on learning idioms through conceptual metaphor in the experimental group ( $Mdn = 2.00$ ) do not differ significantly from control group ( $Mdn = 1.00$ ) in terms of pretests,  $U = 290.00$ ,  $z = -.477$ ,  $p = .655$ (ns),  $r = -0.067$ . It means that in the beginning, the groups were not different from each other significantly, which shows that they are identical in terms of learning idioms through conceptual metaphor.

Table 3.

*Results of Mann Whitney U Test Comparing the Scores of Posttests for Control Group and Experimental Group*

<i>Ranks</i>						
	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	<i>U</i>	<i>p</i>
posttest	Control	25	13,82	345,50	20,50	,000
	Experimental	25	37,18	929,50		
	Total	50				

According to Table 3, students' thoughts on learning idioms through conceptual metaphor in the experimental group ( $Mdn = 22.00$ ) differ significantly from control group ( $Mdn = 16.00$ ) in terms of posttests,  $U = 20.50$ ,  $z = -5.733$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $r = 0.81$ . From this data, it can be concluded that the scores of learning idioms through conceptual metaphor in the experimental group are statistically significantly higher than the control group. It is clear that the experimental group taking the implementation have higher scores on posttest than the control group.

Table 4.

*Results of Mann Whitney U Test Comparing the Scores of Delayed Posttests for Control Group and Experimental Groups*

<i>Ranks</i>						
	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	<i>U</i>	<i>p</i>
Delayed-posttest	Control	25	13,74	343,50	18,50	,000
	Experimental	25	37,26	931,50		
	Total	50				

When the scores of delayed posttests are compared (Table 4), the scores of learning idioms through conceptual metaphor in experimental group (*Mdn* = 20.00) differ significantly from control group (*Mdn* = 11.00) in terms of posttests,  $U = 18.50$ ,  $z = -5.748$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $r = 0.81$ . From this data, it can be concluded that levels of learning idioms through conceptual metaphor in the experimental group is again statistically significantly higher than the control group.

#### 4.2.1. Analysis of Control Group

The Friedman test results for the control group are presented in table 5.

Table 5.

*Results of Friedman Test Comparing the Scores of Pretest, Posttest and Delayed Posttest for Control Group*

Measures	N	Median	Mean Rank	Chi square	Degrees of Freedom	P value
Pretest	25	1,00	1,00	47,27	2	,000
Posttest	25	16,00	2,92			
Delayed-Posttest	25	11,00	2,08			

The results of the Friedman Test indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in learning idioms through conceptual metaphor test scores of control group across the three time points ( $\chi^2(2, n=25) = 47.27$ ,  $p < .005$ ). Inspection of the median values shows an

increase from pretest (Md=1,00) to post-test (Md=16,00), but a decrease from post-test to delayed post-test (Md=11,00). In order to investigate which pairs have a statistically significant difference, post-Hoc tests were conducted. For this purpose, the Wilcoxon signed rank test was used. The results of the Wilcoxon signed rank test are presented in Table 6:

Table 6.

*Results of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test as Pairwise Comparisons for Control Group (Post-Hoc Tests)*

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	Asymp. Significance	Effect Size
Posttest - Pretest	Negative Ranks	0	,00	,00	-4,38	,000	0,62
	Positive Ranks	25	13,00	325,00			
	Ties	0					
	Total	25					
DelayedPosttest - Pretest	Negative Ranks	0	,00	,00	-4,80	,000	0,62
	Positive Ranks	25	13,00	325,00			
	Ties	0					
	Total	25					
DelayedPosttest - Posttest	Negative Ranks	22	12,39	272,50	-4,10	,000	0,58
	Positive Ranks	1	3,50	3,50			
	Ties	2					
	Total	25					

When Table 6 is examined, it can be observed that there are statistically significant differences between all pairs of test scores. A Wilcoxon signed rank test reveals a statistically significant increase in test scores from pretest to posttest,  $z = -4,80$ ,  $p < .017$  with large effect size ( $r=.62$ ). The median score on the test increased from pretest (MD=1,00) to post-test (16,00). Similarly, a Wilcoxon signed rank test reveals a significant increase in test scores from pretest to delayed posttest,  $z = -4,80$ ,  $p < .017$  with large effect size ( $r=.62$ ). The median score on the test increases from pretest (MD=1,00) to delayed post-test (11,00) However, a Wilcoxon signed rank test reveals a statistically

significant reduction in test scores from posttest to delayed posttest,  $z = -4,10$ ,  $p < .017$  with large effect size ( $r = .58$ ). The median score on the test scores decreases from posttest (MD=16,00) to delayed post-test (11,00).

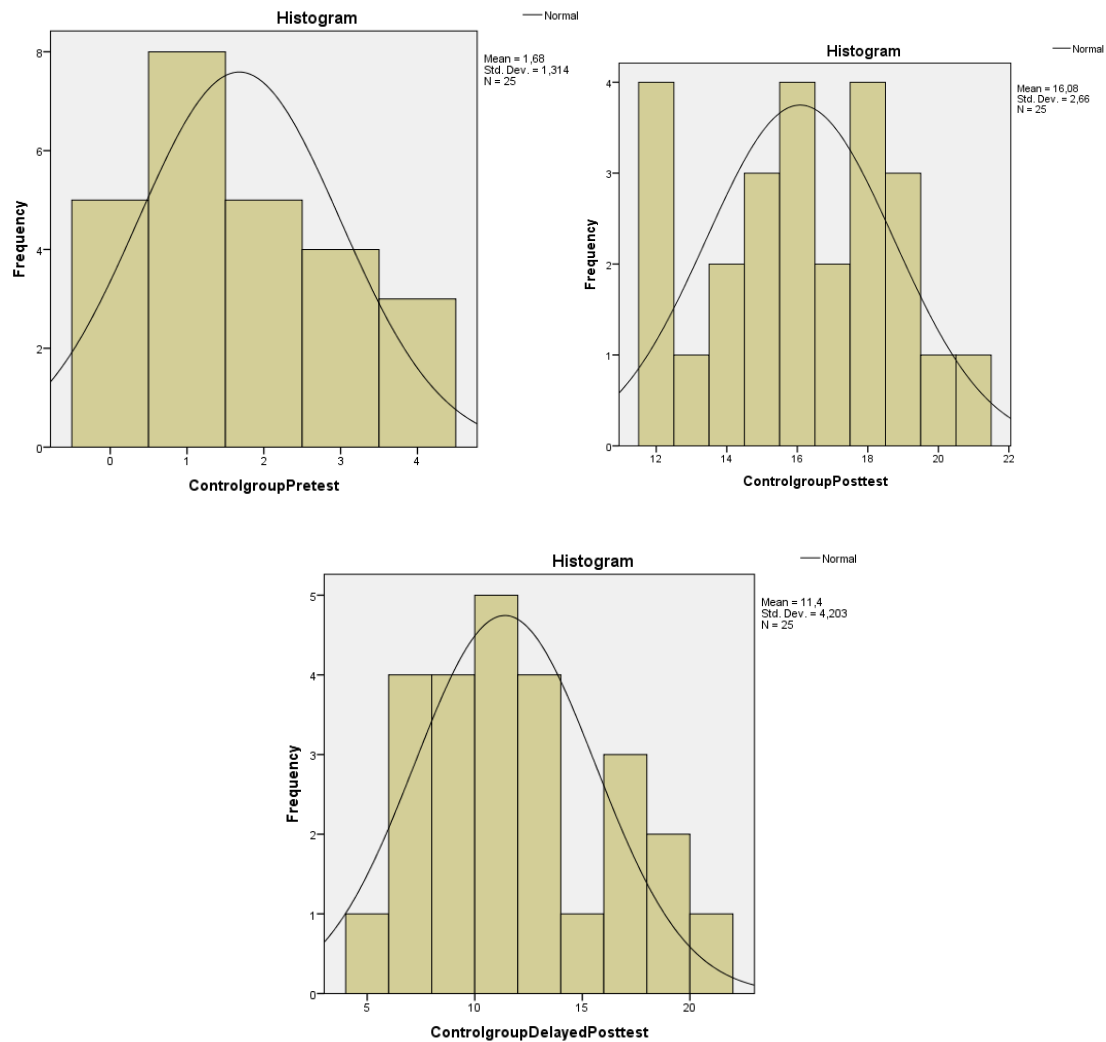


Figure 1. Graphics for Control Group's Pre-, Post- and Delayed posttest



#### 4.2.2. Analysis of Experimental Group

The same analysis was conducted on the scores of the experimental group. The Friedman test results for the experimental group are presented in Table 7:

*Table 7.*

Results of Friedman Test Comparing the Scores of Pretest, Posttest and Delayed Posttest for Experimental Group

Measures	N	Median	Mean Rank	Chi square	Degrees of Freedom	P value
Pretest	25	2,00	1,00	42,94	2	0 ,00
Posttest	25	22,00	2,62			
Delayed- Posttest	25	20,00	2,38			

The results of the Friedman Test indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in learning idioms through the conceptual metaphor test scores of the experimental group across the three time points ( $\chi^2(2, n=25) = 42.94, p < .005$ ). Inspection of the median values shows an increase from pretest (Md=2,00) to post-test (Md=22,00), but a decrease from post-test to delayed post-test (Md=20,00). In order to investigate which pairs have a statistically significant difference, post-Hoc tests were conducted. For this purpose, Wilcoxon signed rank test was used. The results of the Wilcoxon signed rank test are presented in Table 8.

Table 8.

*Results of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test as Pairwise Comparisons for Experimental Group (Post-Hoc Tests)*

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	Asymp. Significance	Effect Size
Posttest Pretest	Negative Ranks	0	,00	,00	-4,38	,000	0,62
	- Positive Ranks	25	13,00	325,00			
	Ties	0					
	Total	25					
Delayed Posttest Pretest	Negative Ranks	0	,00	,00	-4,39	,000	0,62
	- Positive Ranks	25	13,00	325,00			
	Ties	0					
	Total	25					
Delayed Posttest Posttest	Negative Ranks	10	8,70	87,00	-2,21	,027	-
	- Positive Ranks	4	4,50	18,00			
	Ties	11					
	Total	25					

Table 8 shows that there are statistically significant differences between two pairs of test scores, posttest-pretest and delayed posttest-pretest. A Wilcoxon signed rank test reveals a statistically significant increase in test scores from pretest to posttest,  $z = -4,38$ ,  $p < .017$  with large effect size ( $r=.62$ ). The median score on the test increases from pretest (MD=2,00) to post-test (22,00). Similarly, a Wilcoxon signed rank test reveals a statistically significant increase in test scores from pretest to delayed posttest,  $z = -4,39$ ,  $p < .017$  with large effect size ( $r=.62$ ). The median score on the test increases from pretest (MD=2,00) to delayed post-test (20,00). However, this Wilcoxon signed rank test reveals that there is not a statistically significant difference in test scores from posttest to delayed posttest,  $z = -2,21$ ,  $p < .017$ .

Like a number of experimental studies which adapted the CMT to English language teaching this study has reached positive results as well. The results suggest that raising learners' awareness of conceptual metaphors can facilitate not only the learning process

but also the retention of idiomatic phrases. The positive results of this study could be attributed to the fact that the CM categorization of idiomatic language provides learners with a meaningfully structured network, which facilitates the comprehension and production of the target phrases. Another possible reason for the superiority of CM conditions might be their helpfulness in creation of mental images. In other words, association of verbal information with a mental image facilitates recalling since CM helps the learners visualize the input easily. As verbal and non-verbal pieces of information are processed along separate channels and are represented differently in the human mind, the generation of mental images provides learners with an alternative way of encoding the input, which subsequently provides an extra pathway for recall.

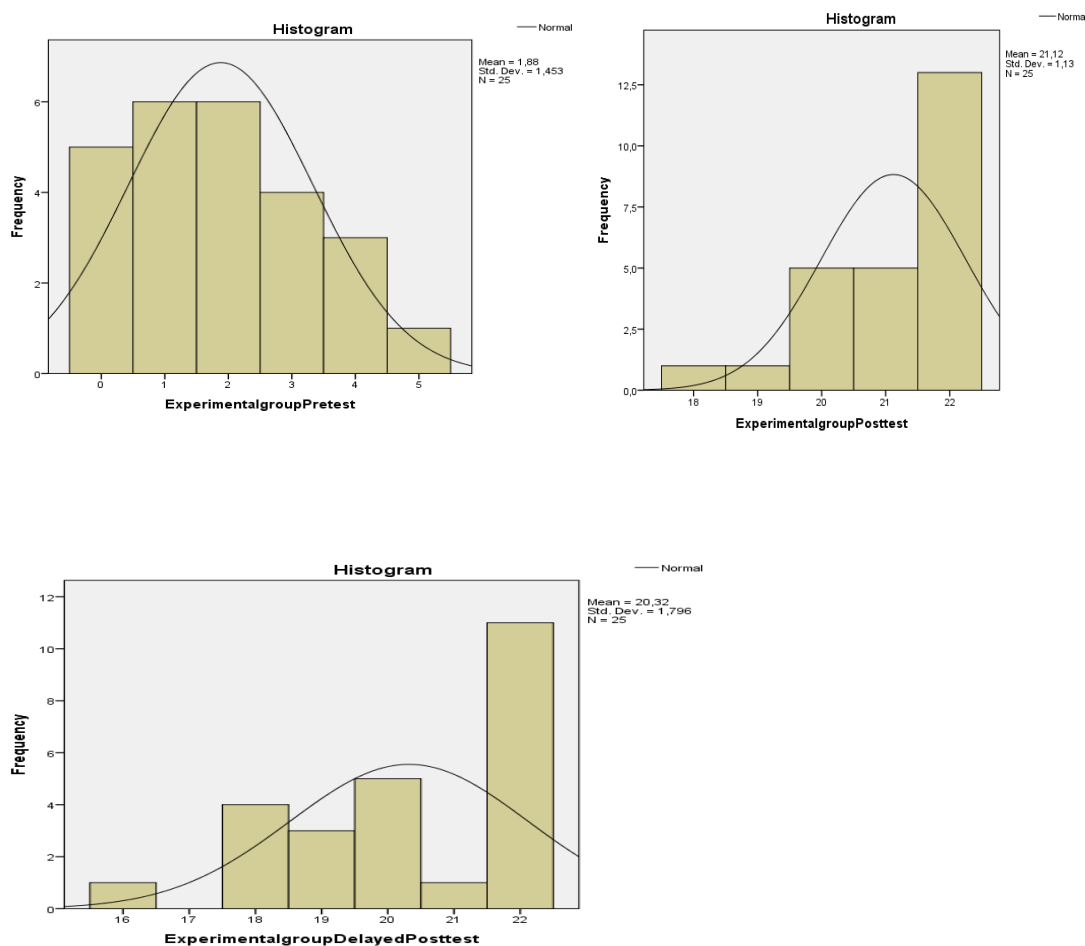


Figure 2. Graphics for Experimental Group's Pre-, Post- and Delayed Posttest

### 4.3. Qualitative Research Findings

#### 4.3.1. Findings of Student Data

For the purpose of finding out the students' thoughts about the learning idioms in general both for the control and experiment groups and through conceptual metaphors just for the experimental group, there are students' responses to the questionnaire for both groups which is composed of 15 items (Appendix 4). The items and the percentages and choices mostly selected by the students for each item are presented at the Table 9.

Table 9.

#### *Students Thoughts about Learning of English Sports-related Idioms*

Items	Groups	F	%	Choice
1. I think we should learn English sports-related idioms for effective communication.	Control	23	92,00	Disagree
	Experiment	22	88,00	Agree
2. I think English sports-related idioms should be a part of the English language curriculum at university preparatory classes.	Control	13	52,00	Strongly Disagree
	Experiment	15	60,00	Strongly Agree
3. Knowledge of English sports-related idioms is important for me to read and understand English texts more effectively.	Control	20	80,00	Disagree
	Experiment	13	50,00	Agree
4. Knowledge of English sports-related idioms is important for me to listen to and understand English texts more effectively.	Control	13	52,00	Disagree
	Experiment	13	52,00	Strongly Agree
5. Knowledge of English sports-related idioms is important for me to understand the English culture effectively.	Control	12	48,00	Disagree
	Experiment	12	48,00	Agree
6. Knowledge of English sports-related idioms is important for me to perceive the similarities and differences between the Turkish culture and the English culture.	Control	17	68,00	Disagree
	Experiment	16	64,00	Strongly Agree
7. Learning English sports-related idioms can help me get more familiar with the English figurative expressions.	Control	16	64,00	Strongly Disagree
	Experiment	14	56,00	Strongly Agree
8. Learning English sports-related idioms can help me express myself more effectively while using figurative language in English.	Control	15	60,00	Disagree
	Experiment	13	52,00	Strongly Agree
9. The ability to use English sports-related idioms in oral communication is necessary for the development of my speaking skills.	Control	15	60,00	Disagree
	Experiment	12	48,00	Agree
10. Knowledge of English sports-related idioms is necessary for me to understand the everyday language.	Control	14	56,00	Disagree
	Experiment	13	52,00	Agree
11. We might need to use English sports-related idioms when we have to communicate in English outside the classroom.	Control	16	64,00	Disagree
	Experiment	12	48,00	Agree
12. I think it is important to learn English sports-related idioms in English classrooms.	Control	12	48,00	Disagree
	Experiment	9	36,00	Strongly Agree
13. Our course materials have enough English sports-related idioms.	Control	16	64,00	Agree
	Experiment	12	48,00	Disagree
14. My English teacher uses sports-related idioms in classes.	Control	13	52,00	Agree
	Experiment	14	56,00	Disagree
15. I would definitely teach English sports-related idioms to advanced learners if I were an English teacher.	Control	16	64,00	Disagree
	Experiment	9	36,00	Strongly Agree & neutral

When looking at Table 9, it is seen that the experimental group agree with the Item 1, “I think we should learn English sports-related idioms for effective communication” while the control group disagrees with it. For Items 3, 5, 9, and 10 the results are similar. Also, when looking at Item 2 which says “I think English sports-related idioms should be a part of the English language curriculum at university preparatory classes”, it is seen that the experimental group strongly agrees with it whereas the control group strongly disagrees. This finding is identical for Item 7 as well. When checking Item 4, “Knowledge of English sports-related idioms is important for me to listen to and understand English texts more effectively”, it is seen that experimental group agree with it however, control group strongly disagree. The findings resulting from Item 6, Item 8, and Item 12 are similar again. Moreover, there is a finding which is vice versa of findings of Item 3, Item 5 and Item 11. When looking at the finding of Item 13, “Our course materials have enough English sports-related idioms” it is seen that the experimental group agrees while the control group disagrees and the same goes with Item 14. Lastly, for Item 15 “I would definitely teach English sports-related idioms to advanced learners if I were an English teacher” experimental group selected the agree choice mostly. However, two choices have the same weight for the control group with the choices of neutral and strongly disagree.

In general, there is no consensus between the experimental group and control group. Moreover, there is only one “neutral” choice with the Item 15. The students do not hesitate about their thoughts in terms of the items related to the learning idioms through conceptual metaphors. Distributions of the frequencies with the percentages for the other choices of the items are presented through attachment (Appendix 7)

#### **4.3.2. Findings of Teacher Data**

For the purpose of finding out the teachers thoughts about the teaching English sport-related metaphors through conceptual metaphors to learners of English as a foreign language, there are teachers’ responses to the questionnaire which is composed of 17 items. The items and the percentages and choices mostly selected by the teachers for each item are presented at Table 10.

Table 10.

*Teacher Thoughts About Teaching English Sport-Related Metaphors*

Items	F	%	
1. English sport-related idioms are very common in everyday speech.	5	35,7	Disagree
2. I deem it necessary to teach English sport-related idioms.	9	64,3	Neutral
3. I find out that my students are eager to learn English sport-related idioms.	7	50,0	Disagree
4. It is difficult to teach idioms of a foreign language if the cultures are totally different.	8	57,1	Agree
5. I know exactly what conceptual metaphor is.	7	50,0	Disagree
6. I know different types of conceptual metaphor.	5	35,7	Disagree
7. I was taught at a BA TEFL program as a trainee teacher how to teach English idioms.	6	42,9	Disagree
8. I was taught at an MA TEFL program as a trainee teacher how to teach English idioms.	6	42,9	Disagree
9. I was taught at a PhD TEFL program as a trainee teacher how to teach English idioms.	5	35,7	StronglyDisagree
10. I know how to teach English sport-related idioms by conceptual metaphors.	5	35,7	Disagree
11. I have never taught English sport-related idioms by conceptual metaphors.	4	28,6	Neutral & Disagree
12. I was taught at a BA TEFL program as a trainee teacher how to teach English idioms through conceptual metaphors.	7	50,0	Disagree
13. I was taught at an MA TEFL program how to teach English idioms through conceptual metaphors.	6	42,9	Disagree
14. I was taught at a PhD TEFL program how to teach English idioms through conceptual metaphors	7	50,0	Disagree
15. I learned about conceptual metaphors when I attended academic events like conferences, workshops etc.	5	35,7	Disagree
16. I learned about conceptual metaphors when I read academic texts like journal articles, books etc.	7	50,0	Agree
17. I learned about conceptual metaphors from my colleagues.	6	42,9	Agree

When looking at Table 10, it is seen that the teachers disagree with the Item 1, “English sport-related idioms are very common in everyday speech”. This finding is identical for Items 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12, 13, 14 and 15. Moreover, for Item 2, “I deem it necessary to teach English sport-related idioms” teachers’ thoughts are neutral and for Item 9, “I was taught at a PhD TEFL program as a trainee teacher how to teach English idioms”, they strongly disagree with it. However, for the Item 11 “I have never taught English sport-

related idioms by conceptual metaphors”, two choices which are “neutral” and “strongly disagree” have the same weights. In other words, half of the teachers strongly disagree with this item whereas half of them are neutral about it.

In general, teachers disagree with the items about the teaching English sport-related metaphors through conceptual metaphors to learners of English as a foreign language. Detailed table about the percentages and frequencies of the choices are given at the attachment (appendix 8).

#### **4.3.3. Data Analysis Part for Open-ended Questionnaires**

For getting the thoughts of the students and teacher about the teaching English sport-related metaphors through conceptual metaphors to learners, there were two separate questionnaires were administered for each.

##### ***4.3.3.1. Findings of Students’ Open-ended Questionnaire***

In order to figure out the thoughts, the questionnaire items were analyzed through the descriptive statistics. For each item frequencies and percentages of each choice are investigated and mostly selected choices were reported. Open-ended items in the questionnaire were analyzed by listing all raw data under each item. Then they were put into groups in terms of the similar responses and codes were created. In this part, since the comments of the teachers were important to provide deeper insight about using idioms, the qualitative method was used for open-ended questions. For the students’ parts since there were only five questions and most of the students did not tend to answer them in details, only twelve students answered thoroughly, their general ideas about the effectiveness and conduciveness of CMT are selected and discussed for the following questions.

1. How far the conceptual metaphor-based teaching sessions have helped you understand the concept of metaphor?
2. Can you tell whether and how far the metaphor-based teaching sessions have helped you cope with the difficulty of learning sports-related idioms?
3. How much using of conceptual metaphors in learning idioms has helped you to guess the meanings of the sports-related idioms?

4. Is Learning idioms through conceptual metaphors a very entertaining and amusing subject?
5. Has using conceptual metaphor in learning idioms encouraged you to try to understand figurative expressions independently?

Based on the overall performance the twelve students in experimental group agree unanimously that the CMT has fostered learning not only in sports idioms but also it has raised their awareness for applying CMT in handling other common idioms. Since most of the learners only rely on memorization and are only taught before by memorization, which is a dominant strategy, to learn idioms among English learners in Turkey. The participants stated that the use of metaphors in learning idioms can help them to guess the meanings of the idioms, and thus, contribute to their metaphoric learning development. Regarding the five questions, there are some quotes from the students as follows:

*“ ...Studying metaphors were very entertaining for me, especially to discover the meanings of baseball idioms which I did not have any idea .”*

*“... I think that learning a language by just focusing on grammar and translating words from English to Turkish is not enough. Learning a language and its culture by considering the role of metaphor adds new dimensions to our conception of that language. It also makes us different from those who do not learn in this way.”*

*“...Learning baseball idioms through metaphors was very entertaining for me. It was very helpful to learn the things I had never seen and heard before.”*

*“... It was useful and joyful for me to learn the importance of conceptual metaphors in learning a foreign language, because now I can see that the meaning of an idiom does not directly derive from the individual words that make it up. After this useful way of learning idioms I can make interpretations about most of the idioms.”*

The findings and the analyses of the qualitative data from the experimental group reveal that the students benefited not only from this implementation in learning baseball idioms but also in other idioms as well. They find it easier and reliable to consider conceptual motivation in learning idiomatic expressions.



#### ***4.3.3.2. Findings of Teachers' Open-ended Questionnaire***

The teachers' ideas about the idioms and sport-related idioms are analyzed in the open-ended question part. It is divided into two parts as idioms and sport-related idioms. The results of the qualitative analysis will be given for each question separately.

For the first part about idioms, in which eleven participants answered the items, the first question was "How do you recognize whether the expressions you encounter are idioms or not? What features of idioms indicate that they are idioms?" The teachers stated that "they recognize the idioms from context (2 instances), unexpected wording or grammatical structure, not using words in their literal meaning (2 instances)". According to them, the features of idioms are as follows: "cultural elements of a language, having a different meaning from the other sentences, grammatical structure, groups of words (2 instances)".

The second question was "How do you teach idioms?" One of the teachers said s/he teaches them by using compare and contrast method and translating from Turkish. Five of them stated that "they present idioms in context. The others added that they teach them by means of visual aids, flashcards, demonstration (2 instances), videos, texts, and pictures".

The third question was "In English classrooms, in the teaching of which language skills and components do you encounter idioms?" The teachers were asked to put a check next to the skills listed. They stated that "they encounter idioms in teaching speaking (10 instances), listening (8 instances), vocabulary (9 instances), writing (2 instances), reading (11 instances), grammar (1 instance)".

The fourth question was "Do you find the parts related to idioms in the course books sufficient? If you find them insufficient, do you try to make these parts more effective by using some useful and productive methods?" Four of the teachers found them sufficient. Seven of them found the course books insufficient. They stated that "they made these parts more effective by various methods such as introducing them separately, preparing vocabulary exercise for idioms, teaching them according to the context, giving extra examples to the contexts where students can utilize idioms (2 instances)".

The fifth question was "Do you teach all the idioms provided by the course book? Do you use extra materials other than the course book to teach idioms?" Six of the teachers stated that "they teach all the idioms provided by the course book. One teacher stated that s/he do not teach all of the idioms but those which affect the understanding and the other said that

it depends on their relatedness to the students' lives or interests". Three teachers pointed out that "they use extra materials such as flashcards, comics, video, movies, some extra books consisting of idioms, exercises, and pictures". Two of the teachers expressed that "they do not use the extra material."

The sixth question was "In what situations/for what purposes do you/would you use English idioms in teaching English in the classroom?" The teachers stated that "they use English idioms in classroom activities, in teaching general English, YDS, TOEFL, IELTS, TOEIC, COPE (2 instances), in listening activities (2 instances) and in teaching vocabulary". They pointed out that "while teaching idioms they aim to help students use them in daily life, to help them understand idiomatic situations (2 instances), to enhance speaking abilities (2 instances), to improve their ability to understand and to express in the target language, to introduce the culture (2 instances), and to raise awareness as to the similarities in human nature across cultures and linguistic diversity".

The seventh question was "What kind of advantages and disadvantages might be teaching English idioms bring to learners?" The advantages stated by the teachers were that "idioms are common in spoken English (5 instances), the students of academic exams are able to increase numbers of terms in writing essays, idioms might enable learners to discover the target language more easily (2 instances), students can learn the target culture better" (3 instances). However, they mentioned some disadvantages of teaching idioms to students. Four of the teachers stated that "idioms are difficult to understand and use. The other one points out that it might be difficult to transform the meaning and use from one culture to another".

The eight question was "Have you ever been taught about CMT in your studies for your BA degree (MA if you hold the degree / PhD if you hold the degree)? If your answer is 'YES', please state the degree level where you were taught about conceptual metaphor theory." All the teachers answered this question as "no".

For the second part about the sport-related idioms, in which eleven instructors answered the items, the first question was "To what extent do you give place to the teaching of sport-related idioms?" Two of the teachers did not answer the question. Four of them stated that "they do not teach sport-related idioms while two teachers stated they give place to the teaching of sport-related idioms relatively limited". Five of the teachers stated that "they teach those idioms as far as they are included in the course book."

The third question was “Do you think course books you teach give enough place to the teaching of sport-related idioms? Explain.” Two of the teachers did not answer the question. The rest stated that course books do not give enough place to the teaching of sport-related idioms.

The third question was “How do the course books you teach present English sport-related idioms?” Three of the teachers did not answer the question. The teachers stated that “course books present them through the usage of reading and listening activities (4 instances), examples, texts, and vocabulary exercises”. Two of them stated that “they have not encountered any of them in the course books and the other two stated that they have not taught it before”.

The fourth question was “How do you think English sport-related idioms can be taught more effectively?” Three of the teachers did not answer the question. Some of the teachers think that “sport-related idioms can be taught more effectively by showing real videos, sport programs, real sports articles (4 instances), by presenting them in a context (3 instances), and by practice with more exercises. One of the teachers stated that s/he has no idea”.

The fifth question was “What would you say when you compare your knowledge of Turkish sport-related idioms with your knowledge of English ones? Can you give one or two examples of English and Turkish sport idioms? None of the teachers stated any comparison about Turkish sport-related idioms and English ones. In addition, most of them stated that they are not interested in sports. The Turkish idioms that they gave as examples are as follows: “*kafaya çıkmak*” (in football), “*ofsayta düşme*”, “*laflı taca atmak*”, “*havlu atmak*”, “*takım tutmak*”, “*maça çıkmak*”, “*boşa kürek çekmek*”, and “*yelkenleri suya indirmek*”. The English idioms that they gave as examples are as follows: “*let the cat out of the bag*”, “*piece of cake*”, “*when pigs fly*”, “*spill the beans*”, “*once in a blue moon*”, “*high as a kite*”, “*sick as a dog*”, “*best shot*”, “*time out*”, “*front runner*”, “*neck and neck*”, “*be on the ball*”, “*on the home stretch*”, “*the ball is in your court*”, “*out of somebody’s league*”, and “*two strikes and you are out*”.

To sum up, analyses of both quantitative and qualitative data indicate that there is a significant change in the experimental groups’ beliefs and attitudes towards the impact of CMT-inspired teaching together with visual manifestations and cultural background in natural acquisition and retention, accuracy and fluency of sports idiomatic expressions.

Similar to previous studies, which have focused on the positive pedagogical impact of etymological elaboration and CMT, both the qualitative and quantitative findings of this study are in complete concordance with the findings of other studies. In the light of the previous studies, (Danesi, 1995; Boers & Littlemore, 2000; Deignan, 2003; Littlemore & Low, 2006; Hashemian Talebi Nezhad, 2007; Kömür & Çimen, 2009; Cakir, 2011; Rahmani & Hashemian, 2012; Chen, 2014) which mainly focus on the positive effectiveness of the metaphor awareness and etymological elaborations' great results in enhancing idiomatic competence, findings of this study support that if language teachers lead their students to be sensitive to conceptual metaphors, students tend to be better at understanding and retaining them.

Thanks to the application of CMT, and CM-inspired instruction the students in the experimental groups had the chance to learn idioms in a more systematic way and they raised their awareness of the semantic motivation behind the target expressions; therefore, they viewed these expressions as meaningful parts of certain structured networks rather than rigid or isolated pieces of language. The cognitive approach in teaching idioms assisted the subjects to create mental images, allowing dual coding of information. Since CMs are grounded in bodily experience and in cultural and social practices (Kövecses, 2002), the explicit instruction of these metaphors could possibly stimulate the learners' visualization of the input and improve their comprehension and memory. Last but not least, the students' mental processing of the information at a deeper level was facilitated thanks to the employment of CMs. During the instruction, the students were encouraged to activate their prior knowledge about a familiar, concrete or physical concept to understand an unfamiliar and abstract concept, and simultaneously associate the verbal information with a mental image. This process provided a stimulus for the input to be converted into the intake which was then stored in the learners' memory. It can be concluded that the application of CM to teaching idioms could have significant effects on the students' reception and production of idiomatic language over time.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS**

#### **5.1. Introduction**

The shift in understanding metaphor in its cognitive, pervasive and embodied nature has provided some helpful empirical results. The conceptuality of metaphor, its commonness, motivation, and heuristic functioning have made CMT essential for any English classroom. Having the awareness of the centrality of CM and being able to detect metaphors and finally grasping the abstract nature of metaphors would result in successful and standard communication. Learning and retention of idioms in general and sport ones specifically call for the motivation of metaphors by elaboration could result in assisting students receptively and productively.

On the whole, the constraints and the possibilities of teaching metaphors to the EFL students are provided in this study by empirical results and contributing insights. One of the foremost implications of this study could be the insertion of metaphor instruction into all levels of English proficiency in EFL programs for L2/FL learners. Language development is not an easy task, in other words, learners constantly become proficient and then they seem chaotic as a result the winding patterns of learning and then getting baffled becomes a natural part of language learning and development. Developing learners' mastery over idiomatic expressions is a dynamic process and there are some key factors which interplay in learners' better acquisition, retention and production. The factors that have affected Turkish learners' development of baseball metaphors are summarised as follows: frequency of the metaphor, cultural factors, and topic familiarity.

Unlike the native speakers, who use metaphors smoothly, naturally, and mostly unconsciously, the foreign language learners are most likely to take most of the new and unknown target language metaphors as something strange, unnatural and baffling. As a

result by the help of their mother tongue's and their worldview, learners try to give order to this target language's seemingly chaotic metaphoric discourse and thus analyse metaphorical and figurative language logically which not only does not work but also misleads them. Foreign language instructors in this regard should explicitly illustrate the way any language perceived and construed mostly based on metaphoric motivation. In other words, as this thesis has focused on baseball idioms, besides having some common or international sources, there are some unique or cultural-specific sources in molding the conceptual system of any individual language in which the source domain is constructed and then transferred to the target domain.

Elaborating and expanding learners knowledge on metaphoric motivation together with explicit metaphor teaching could compensate the drawbacks of the traditional and rote learning of individual metaphoric and idiomatic expressions. In this study CMT-inspired teaching has been one of the main focuses and by changing teaching strategies from traditional to conceptual and cognitive one for preparatory courses of the state university better results have been achieved. Metaphor awareness-raising activities, explicit conceptual metaphor teaching, and focusing on culture or sport-specific idioms have been integrated for learners natural acquisition and retention of sports idiomatic expressions as well as their accuracy and fluency. The researcher hopes to have the chance to share the central role and the successful results of applying CM in paving the bumpy path of both teaching and learning a foreign language to language instructors and learners. Future instructors should focus more on concepts which are motivated rather than mere memorising the expressions.

The results of teaching baseball idiomatic expressions to the learners through CMT revealed that conceptual metaphors together with visual manifestations had high effectiveness, better comprehension and long-term retention. Unlike the experimental group the control group relied heavily on rote learning rather than idiom itself. The rate of retention of the meaning of the idioms was low in this group since the traditional method of learning idioms even worse than that literal translation of them did not contribute to natural realization of the wholeness of these idioms. In contrast, high rate of retention and using these sports idioms in their discourse of the experimental group once more showed the usefulness of applying conceptual metaphors in dealing with idiomatic expressions and figurative language. In sum, it is clearly concluded that systematic pattern and highly

effective nature of CMT and providing cultural background knowledge of baseball sports idioms, using both words and supplied visual images, can improve learners' comprehension and retention of these idioms.

Regarding the questionnaire, the control group's participants found idiomatic expressions and understanding them confusing, difficult and tiring. However, the experimental group's participants found them enjoyable and rewarding. Style of teaching, variety of activities and using short relevant videos were attracted to them. Unlike the experimental group, who learned the sports idioms in a productive and enjoyable way, the control group mentioned that style of teaching and the methods they used in learning them were exactly similar to normal English lessons and even more troublesome, confusing and demanding regarding baseball idioms.

I have focused on baseball a great deal, by bearing in mind the importance of instilling the models or concepts dealing with baseball and its reflection in American society and mind. Shore (1996) considers sporting events as a kind of model that engages serious cultural issues in the very rules and structures constituting the field of play:

Baseball, as our most venerable national sport, has something to tell us about the American mind. More specifically, in its complex representations of time, space, and action, baseball models important tensions in mainstream American culture between communitarian and individualistic values. And, in turn, baseball provides a source domain for modeling other areas of life where analogous tensions are experienced. (p. 75)

Assuming that figurative language can be considered a reflection of a community's conventional patterns of thought or worldviews, sports metaphors are thus an ideal testing ground for the interaction of studies on language. The fact that most of the idiomatic expressions are conceptually motivated, the extent to which a structure can be motivated in relation to one or a set of conceptual metaphors depends on a language user's ability to relate the words used in an expression to a certain domain. If this is not achieved, then the expression remains opaque.

Turkish and American sports metaphors are sometimes culture-specific, a most noticeable fact. It is proved that for the baseball expressions to be learned by Turkish learners, an underlying conceptual motivation without knowledge of sport-specific terminology or rules is impossible, and therefore these metaphorical expressions that belong to a conceptual metaphor in one language (American English) is less transparent in another language (Turkish). The cultural gap includes differences of language, religion, and

worldview. This thesis has aimed at strengthening the study of baseball sports metaphor, between the two very different cultures that these two languages represent. Teachers should provide the target language learners of any language with the powerful tool of conceptualization together with a thorough understanding of the target culture, from which students through CMT decode and open the window of the target culture.

If language teaching accompanies by conceptual metaphor teaching and target culture familiarization, the risk of first language interference and literal translation or misunderstanding will be diminished.

Since the learners' noticing of metaphorical language increases by input enhancement, innovative metaphor teaching materials, and application of visuals so the process of learning and retention develops in a great deal as the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group.

## **5.2. Implications of the Study**

In particular, the frequency of the source domains as reflected themselves in linguistic metaphors in the mother tongue has an important impact on learners' acquisition of conceptual metaphors of the target language. Learners naturally grasp and stick to those conceptual metaphors that are highly frequent and common in their mother tongue rather than English. When it comes to Turkish learners dealing with baseball idioms teaching them without the help of CMT is mostly impossible and demanding. For the cultural factors metaphors reflect different cultural models which are used and applied in different languages, as a result metaphors could serve as a useful tool for knowing different cultures. The learners if dare to use, tend to use the baseball idioms superficially not metaphorically as native speakers. Mostly they misunderstand the whole message of these idioms since they are not available and popular in their Turkish language's conceptual system. Due to their zero exposure and familiarity with baseball and its rules a greater degree of unpredictability and confusion arouses. Finally, idiomatic nature and topic familiarity of the baseball expressions affect Turkish learners' use of them. Since baseball is not played or even given importance like the USA and some other countries Turkish learners like to learn and grasp the idioms or topics which are familiar. Overall, as discussed in detail foreign language learning is a dynamic and complex process and learners' CF, MC, and CMT knowledge play vital roles in both fluency and accuracy of the target language.



In this study regarding the constraints and limitations in general and motivating the foreign language instructors or even the students to fill the relevant questionnaires in specific, research into teaching and learning all sports metaphors is hoped with its invaluable and applicable results for gaining insights into the bigger picture of whole Turkish learners.

### **5.3. Suggestions for Further Research**

Considering the results of the present study, several hypotheses are highlighted for future research and some recommendations have been sketched out by the researcher.

The present study has focused on a positive contribution of CMT on better grasping, recognising, and retention of baseball idioms with just 50 students all from the preparation department. Further studies conducted in big samples will be more detailed and reliable.

More research is needed relating to culturally specific idioms and etymological elaboration for tackling the question of how much meta-language is actually needed in teaching these metaphors. That is, do the learners need to know what a source and a target domain are and how the transfers work?

Productive and natural metaphor use in both written and oral communication and discourse need to be developed as a metaphoric curriculum for not only high levels but also for lower ones, as well. Language learners' course books should show explicitly and emphasise the importance of CMT in learning idiomatic expressions for different age groups and levels.

All in all, most English idioms are motivated by conceptual metaphors in a systematic way; therefore, they can be analysed, which makes it feasible for the CMT to be used in idiom teaching and learning. Learners' belief and attitudes should be adapted and exposed naturally to the conceptual system of the target language. However, we must not abandon the traditional teaching method completely. We can treat the conceptual metaphor teaching method as an effective complement to accelerate the teaching and learning of idioms.

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## **APPENDICES**

## **Appendix 1.**

### **An Achievement Test**

**Name:**                      **Date:**

**A) Choose an appropriate word from the list below and write it down to the appropriate blank:**

curveball    touch base    hardball    home run    ballpark figur    hit it out of the park  
out of left                      right off the bat                      big leagues                      stepped up to the plate

1. Give me a .....of how much the project will cost.
2. He doesn't want to be a fish in a small pond. He wants to play in the.....
3. This might be a....., but I don't want to marry you after all.
4. When you go to work, you'll be playing..... No more mistakes allowed.
5. I think he .....during his presentation. Everyone was listening very carefully and seemed very enthused.
6. This dinner is superb. You've hit a .....
7. I have to go to an appointment, but let's ..... tomorrow.
8. He finally..... and asked her to marry him.
9. He .....field just announced that he was making a career change.
10. I could tell they liked each other .....

**B) Choose the idiom which best completes each sentence:**

1. I tried to make friends with Mary, but she wouldn't talk to me. I .....
  - a. struck out.
  - b. played hardball
  - c. hit a home run
2. Jack told a nasty joke at the company meeting. He .....
  - a. was off-base.

b. played hardball.

c. threw a curveball.

3. I cannot talk to you right now. I'm busy at the moment. Please .....

a. Throw a curveball.

b. Pitch it to me later.

c. Hit a home run.

4. That was a very effective speech. Yes, it was .....

a. a strong pitch.

b. a curveball.

c. a whole new game.

5. I have a serious problem. I can't make Friday's meeting. Could I.....?

a. drop the ball

b. play hardball

c. take a rain check

6. Sam ..... when he lost the report.

a. dropped the ball

b. hit it out of the park

c. on the ropes

**C) Choose the correct choice which best completes each idiom.**

*1. How long have you been living here, tom? Fifty years.*

*And you've always had the same life? Yes.*

*It seems that you're stuck out in .....*

a. base    b. left field    c. right field

*2. We need a better advertisement for our new product.*

*Let's brainstorm.*

*How about using the we used last year.*

*Forget last year. We want something different this time.*

*Exactly. It'll be a whole new..... game.*

a. *hardball*      b. *Ball*    c. *softball*

3. *Why have we got a lot of that novel in stock?*

*Well, the reviews predicted it would be a turnpaker.*

*So you published all these.*

*We thought we'd sell lots.*

*But then it turned the opposite.*

*It caught us.....*

a. *touch base*    b. *off base*    c. *in base*

4. *So if it's sunny we'll swim.*

*Yep. And if it's raining we'll watch a film.*

*Yep, and if it's snowing we'll go skiing.*

*Yeah. Great. I think we've covered all the.....*

a. *bats*    b. *ballsc.*    c. *bases*

5. *hey! What are you watching?*

*Oh, I love this action film that Jason made.*

*Me too. He rocks in it.*

*Yeah, he's in a .....of his own.*

a. *league*    b. *field*    c. *pitch*

6. *I've been reviewing everyone's project. John, yours is excellent.*

*Thank you. You've been our top man with good results. You're ..... a thousand.*

a. *turning*    b. *batting*    c. *throwing*



## **An Achievement Test Key**

### **A)**

1. ballpark figure
2. big leagues
3. curveball
4. hardball
5. hit it out of the park
6. home run
7. touch base
8. stepped up to the plate
9. out of left
10. right off the bat

### **B)**

1. **a.**    2. **a.**    3. **b.**    4. **a.**    5. **c.**    6. **a.**

### **C)**

1. **c.**    2. **b.**    3. **b.**    4. **c.**    5. **a.**    6. **b.**

## **Appendix 2.**

### **First week: Lesson Plan for the Control Group**

#### **A. Match the idioms with their correct meanings**

- |                          |   |
|--------------------------|---|
| 1. A ballpark figure     | a. to persuade.   |
| 2. A curveball           | b. a situation that is completely different from what one is used to. |
| 3. A strong pitch        | c. a guess that's close but not exact.                                |
| 4. A whole new ball game | d. something unexpected.  |

#### **B. Fill in the gaps with the correct forms of the idioms you learnt.**

1. Give me a .....of how much the project will cost.
2. This might be a ....., but I don't want to marry you after all.
3. Living away from home is a ..... for most young adults.
4. A. That was a very persuasive presentation.  
B. Yes, it was a..... .

#### **C. Write a paragraph or a dialogue by using the idioms you have learnt so far.**

## **Second week: Lesson Plan for the Control Group**

### **A. Match the idioms with their correct meanings**

- |                         |  |
|-------------------------|--|
| 1. Touch base           | a. something unexpected and bad happens.             |
| 2. Batting a thousand   | b. highest level of competition.                     |
| 3. Big leagues          | c. to keep in touch with others.                     |
| 4. Cover all the bases  | d. to agree to help someone or take responsibility.  |
| 5. Caught off base      | e. to be very successful; to do something perfectly. |
| 6. Step up to the plate | f. to be well-prepared for every possible outcome.   |

### **B. Fill in the gaps with the correct forms of the idioms you learnt.**

1. We're ....., here, since we passed all the exams.
2. I am depending on you to .....
3. Let me know how you are doing. Let's keep in touch. Let us ..... next week.
4. I know I don't have the best grades, so I ..... by applying to 15 colleges.
5. Congratulations on the promotion. You are now playing in the .....
6. The heavy snowfall caught us .....

### **C. Write a paragraph or a dialogue by using the idioms you have learnt so far.**

### **Third week: Lesson Plan for the Control Group**

#### **A. Match the idioms with their correct meanings**

- |                            |  |
|----------------------------|--|
| 1. Drop the ball           | a. a highly successful operation.                      |
| 2. Hit a home run          | b. to be completely unexpected and unusual.            |
| 3. Hit it out of the park  | c. completely superior to others of one's or its kind. |
| 4. In a league of your own | d. incorrect; mistaken or misinformed.                 |
| 5. Off base                | e. to do or perform something extraordinarily well.    |
| 6. Out of left field       | f. to make a mistake.                                  |

#### **B. Fill in the gaps with the correct forms of the idioms you learnt.**

1. Her comments came .....
2. His estimate for painting the kitchen seems .....
3. As a lawyer, Janice is truly in a .....
4. A. How did the new business venture go?  
B. It went well. We .....
5. I'm pretty sure I hit that test .....
6. I think she really ..... when she decided to quit that promising internship.

#### **C. Write a paragraph or a dialogue by using the idioms you have learnt so far.**

#### **Fourth week: Lesson Plan for the Control Group**

##### **A. Match the idioms with their correct meanings**

- |                                 |   |
|---------------------------------|---|
| 1. Pitch an idea                | a. one has no more chances left.                        |
| 2. Play hardball                | b. to be excused from participating in an event.        |
| 3. Right off the bat            | c. to present an idea.                                  |
| 4. Stuck out in right field     | d. to play brutally and without consideration or mercy. |
| 5. Take a rain check            | e. with no delay.                                       |
| 6. Three strikes and you're out | f. nothing much happens.                                |

##### **B. Fill in the gaps with the correct forms of the idioms you learnt.**

1. She has always had the same job. She is ..... for fifteen years.
2. This is it! Three strikes and .....
3. A: Come over and join us.  
B: Thank you but I will take .....
4. I walked in the room and ..... I knew something was wrong.
5. I'm busy at the moment. .... it to me later.
6. The new boss is playing ..... with us.

##### **C. Write a paragraph or a dialogue by using the idioms you have learnt so far.**

## **A checklist**

**A ballpark figure** This refers to a guess that's close but not exact

*Give me a ballpark figure of how much the project will cost.*

**A curveball** It is used to express something that is unexpected and causes someone to adapt to a situation.

*This might be a curveball, but I don't want to marry you after all.*

**A strong pitch** It means to persuade.

*That was a very persuasive presentation.*

*Yes, it was a strong pitch.*

**A whole new ball game** It means a situation that is completely different from what one is used to.

*Living away from home is a whole new ball game for most young adults.*

**Batting a thousand** It means to be very successful; to do something perfectly.

*We're batting a thousand, here, since we got both boys to school with time to spare.*

**Big leagues** This is an expression for the highest level of competition.

*Congratulations on the promotion. You are now playing in the big league.*

**Caught off base** That's when something unexpected and bad happens.

*The heavy snowfall caught us off base.*

**Cover all the bases** To be well-prepared for every possible outcome.

*I know I don't have the best grades, so I covered all bases by applying to 15 colleges.*

**Drop the ball** 1. To make a mistake.

*I think she really dropped the ball when she decided to quit that promising internship.*

2. To forget about or neglect someone or something.

*I know I dropped the ball today. I completely forgot about picking the kids up from school.*

**Hit a home run** This refers to a highly successful operation.

*How did the new business venture go? – We hit a home run.*

**Hit it out of the park** To do or perform something extraordinarily well.

*I'm pretty sure I hit that test out of the ballpark.*

**In a league of your own** Completely superior to others of one's or its kind.

*As a lawyer, Janice is truly in a league of her own.*

**Off base** Incorrect; mistaken or misinformed; not aligned with reality. *His estimate for painting the kitchen seems way off base.*

**Out of left field** It means to be completely unexpected and often unusual.

*Her comments came out of left field.*

**Pitch an idea** This means to present an idea.

*I'm busy at the moment. Pitch it to me later.*

**Play hardball** This means to play brutally and without consideration or mercy.

*The new boss is playing hardball with us.*

**Right off the bat** This means with no delay.

*I walked in the room and right off the bat I knew something was wrong.*

**Step up to the plate** This means to agree to help someone or take responsibility.

*I am depending on you to step up to the plate.*

**Stuck out in right field** If you are stuck in right field, nothing much happens.

*She has always had the same job. She is stuck in right field for fifteen years.*

**Take a rain check** This means to be excused from participating in an event.

*Come over and join us. – Thank you but I will take a rain check.*

**Three strikes and you're out** This means that one has no more chances left.

*This is it! Three strikes and you are out.*

**Touch base** This means to keep in touch with others.

*Let me know how you are doing. Let's keep in touch. Let us touch base next week.*

### Appendix 3.

#### The Game of Baseball

“The history of baseball in the United States can be traced back to the eighteenth century. Historians argue that it was a truly American invention and the first team to play this game was the New York Knickerbockers. It was a nine-man team that played for nine innings with the bases (home plate, first, second, and third) placed 90 feet apart. The batter at home plate would hit the ball thrown to him by the pitcher of the opposing team. Next, he would run the bases. If he completed the run of the bases, he made a home run. He was put out of the game by being tagged by opposing team (Hample, 2007).”

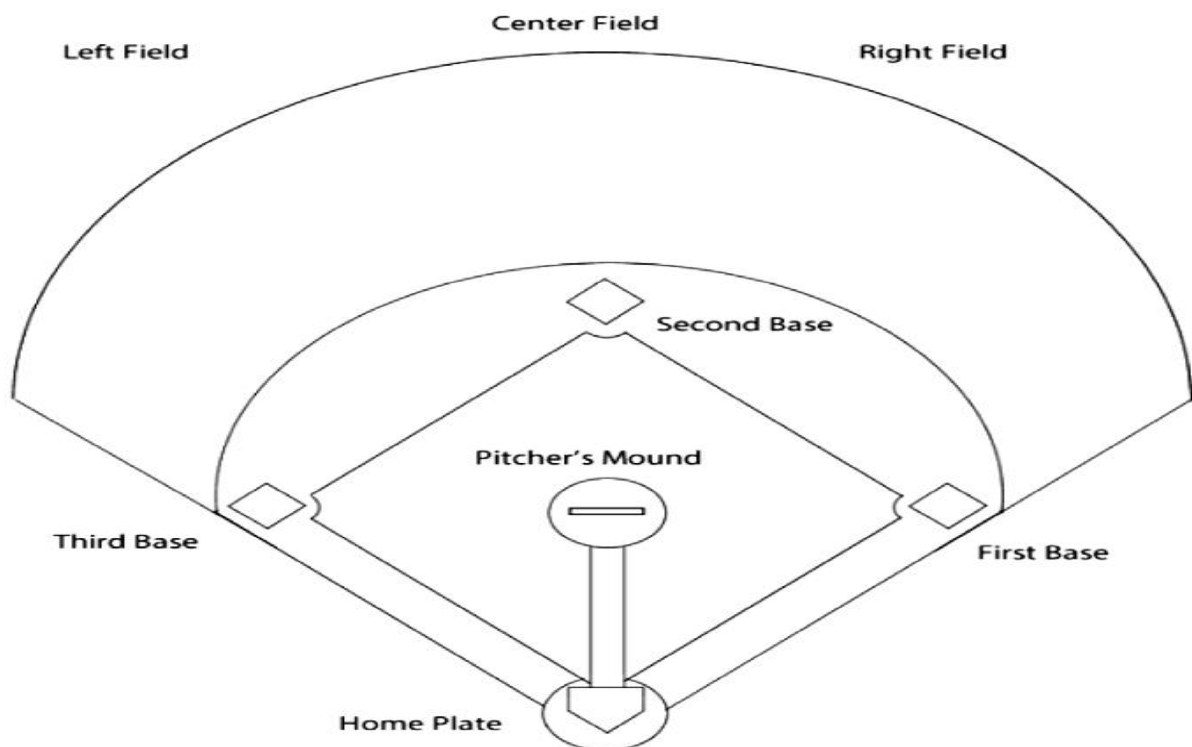


Figure 1. Baseball Field

“Baseball is a team sport that is played on a special field over a period of nine innings. Each inning is divided into two parts. One team occupies the top half of the inning on the field and the second team occupies the second half of the inning. One of these teams is on the offensive and the other is defensive. The defensive team is on the field and there is only one offensive



player on the field at any time. He is the batter. His goal is to hit the ball thrown to him by the pitcher. If he hits the ball out of the park, it is called a home run and he must run all three bases and return to home plate. Usually, however, a batter is either struck out by the pitcher or he hits the ball and advances on base. There may be as many as four offensive players on the field at any time (the hitter, the player on first base, second base, and third base). This situation is referred to as “the bases are loaded.”

#### The Pitcher, the Catcher and the Umpire

The pitcher and the catcher work together. The catcher stands behind home plate and he catches the ball thrown by the pitcher. He signals to the pitcher and tells him what kind of pitch to throw. There are several kinds of pitches: the fast ball (this can be as fast as 90 mph or more), the drop ball, the curveball, and sliders. The umpire stands behind the catcher and decides if a ball is within the strike zone. If it is, he calls it a “strike”. If it is not, he calls it a “ball”. When the batter has missed three “strike” balls, he is struck out and leaves home plate. If he receives four “balls”, he is allowed to advance to first plate (Strecker, 2014). If the batter hits a ball within the strike zone, and the ball is not caught in the air by the defensive team, he runs to the first plate (first base).” <https://www.wikihow.com/Play-Baseball>

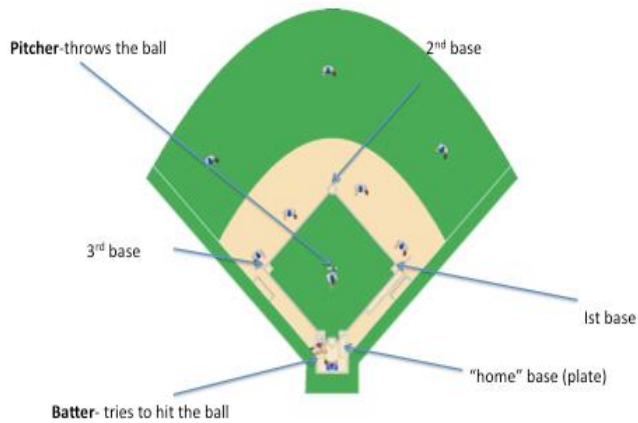
### Baseball Metaphors

Many baseball metaphors pervade throughout the English language. Some of the more prevalent ones are listed below:

Baseball Metaphor	Sports Meaning of the Expression	Common Meaning of the Expression
Getting to first base	The batter needs to score a run by getting onto first base.	When one has success in dating, he is said to get to first base. <i>How did it go last night? Did you get to first base?</i>
Heavy hitter	Someone who is capable of hitting a ball out of the ballpark.	This refers to the top people in a company. <i>John is our heavy hitter</i>
Hitting a home run	This happens when the batter has opportunity to cover all of the bases and return to home plate. This is often done by hitting the ball out of the park.	This refers to a highly successful operation. <i>How did the new business venture go? – We hit a home run.</i>
In-there pitching	The pitcher is the one who most actively tries his best to defeat the opponents on the other team.	This means to try one’s best. <i>We all got out and helped. Everybody was in there pitching.</i>

Major league	Baseball has two leagues: the major and the minor. The major league is where the best players compete.	This is an expression for the highest level of competition. <i>Congratulations on the promotion. You are now playing the major league.</i>
Not in his league	Not playing in the major league.	This means to be without competition. <i>You are the best. There is no one else in your league.</i>
Play ball	This is what the umpire says when the game begins.	This means to get started. <i>Let us do it. It is time to play ball.</i>
Playing hardball	Real baseball is played with a hard ball; women's baseball is played with a softball.	This means to play brutally and without consideration or mercy. <i>The new boss is playing hardball with us.</i>
Rain check	When a game was cancelled due rain and spectators are given a ticket (a rain check) that allows them free entrance to the rescheduled game.	This means to be excused from participating in an event. <i>Come over and join us. – Thank you but I will take a rain check.</i>
Step up to the plate	The batter must be able to do his best when he steps up to home plate.	This means to take responsibility. <i>I am depending on you to step up to the plate</i>
Touch base	A runner must briefly touch the base as he goes on a run.	This now means to keep in touch with others. <i>Let me know how you are doing. Let's keep in touch. Let us touch base next week.</i>
Three strikes and you are out	A batter is out if he has three strikes against him.	This means that one has no more chances left. <i>This is it! Three strikes and you are out.</i>
Two strikes against you	A batter with two strikes is in a dangerous position. One more strike and he is out of the game.	This means to be dangerously close to failing. <i>Be careful! You already have two strikes against you.</i>

Baseball is played on a “field”.



There are two teams



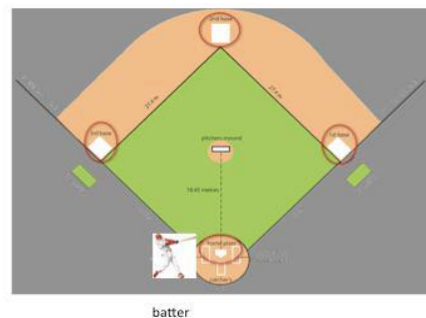
One team is in the field. They try to catch the ball.



The other team “bats” (hits the ball).



A “run” is scored when a batter (hitter) runs around all of the bases.



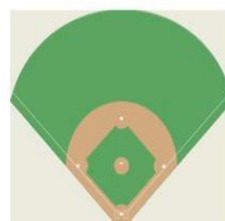
The team with the most “runs”(points) at the end of the game wins.



The “home” team has 12 runs. They win.

**Idiom: Touch base**

The batter (hitter) must touch all the bases to score a run (point).



## Conceptual metaphor

Defined as understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain.

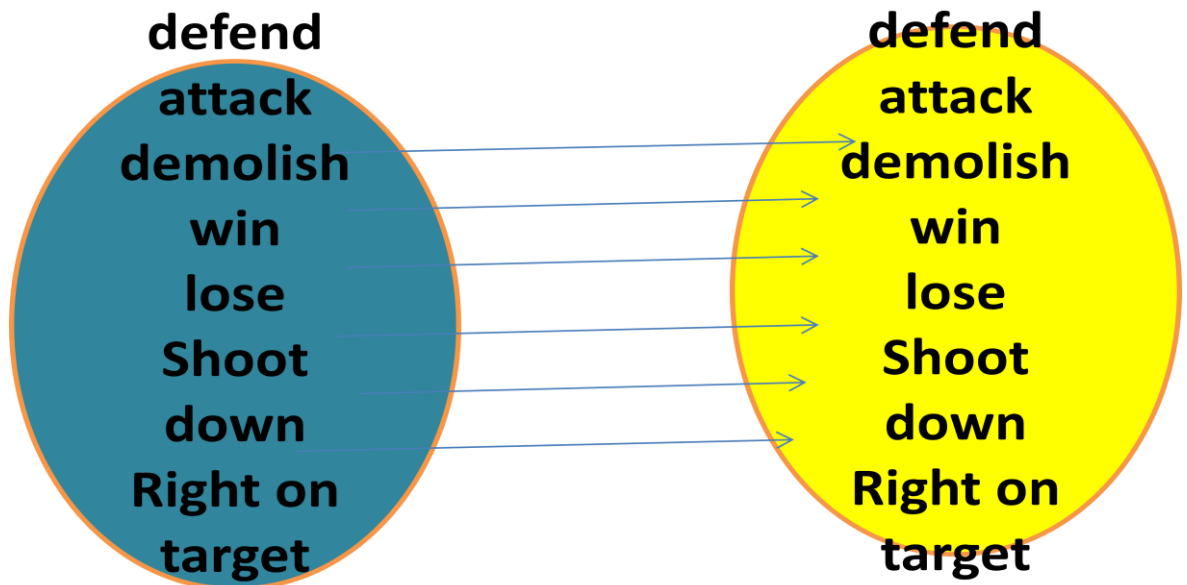
Source domain: the conceptual domain from which we draw metaphorical expressions.

Target domain: the conceptual domain that we try to understand.

### ARGUMENT IS WAR

Source domain: War

Target domain: Argument



### **Types of conceptual metaphor**

A structural metaphor is a metaphor in which one concept is understood and expressed in terms of another structured concept.

Examples:

*They are at a crossroads in their relationship.*

*This relationship isn't going anywhere.*

*They're in a dead-end relationship.*

*This marriage is on the rocks.*

*This relationship has been spinning its wheels for years.*

*Their marriage has really gone off the track.*

An orientational metaphor is a metaphor in which concepts are spatially related to each other, as in the following ways:

Up or down, In or out, Front or back, On or off, Deep or shallow Central or peripheral

Ex: "HAPPY IS UP"; "SAD IS DOWN"

*I'm feeling up.*

*That boosted my spirits.*

*Thinking about her always gives me a lift.*

*I'm feeling down.*

*I fell into a depression.*

An ontological metaphor is a metaphor in which an abstraction, such as an activity, emotion, or idea, is represented as something concrete, such as an object, substance, container, or person

Ex: THE MIND IS A MACHINE

*He has a screw loose.*

*He slipped a cog.*

*I could see the wheels turning.*

**First week: Lesson plan for the Experimental group with four videos**

from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IbuPTOWMsmM>

**A. After watching the first video try to explain the following idioms in your own words together with an example.**

hit it out of the park

hit a home run

pitch an idea

a strong pitch

right off the bat

take a rain check

**B. Watch the video again and fill in the gaps.**

Let's start with the basics. Americans play baseball in a park. A ..... We play baseball on a field. One person has a bat and another has a ball. The pitcher ..... the ball to the batter. 'Pitch'. Our first idiom. I've got a great idea. Can I tell you about it? Err, I'm busy at the moment. .... me later. So 'to pitch an idea' is to ..... it. A good pitcher makes a strong throw. That was a very persuasive presentation. Yes, it was a ..... pitch. They want to get a ..... run. A .....! There's another one. Yeah, a baseball field has ..... bases. If the batters run around all four bases, they've ..... a home run. That presentation was amazing. Was it OK? Fantastic! What a great job! I think the audience liked it. Liked it? You ..... it out of the ballpark. You hit a home run. So what does 'hit a home run' mean? It means be very ..... And 'hit ..... of the ball park'? That's a ..... success. You can't do ..... than that. And if you hit a home run right off the bat.... Hang on. 'Right off the bat'. That's another one. So what happened? I walked in the room and ..... I knew something was wrong. Right off the bat? Yeah. Right away he said, 'You're fired'. So 'right off the bat' means with ..... Yes. As soon as the ball hits the bat it comes right off it. It happens immediately. I've gotta go. Why? The game is starting in five minutes. But we haven't finished the idioms. We'll have to take a ..... check. Stop! 'A rain check'. What's that? Oh, sometimes the weather's bad and then the game is cancelled. If you have a ticket to a game but it rains, they give you a ticket to another game. It's called a .....

**C. Find some relevant photos from the internet and make a poster for these idioms.**

**D. Write a dialogue by using these baseball idioms and then record it.**

**Second week: Lesson plan for the Experimental group with four videos**

from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IbuPTOWMsmM>

**A. After watching the second video try to explain the following idioms in your own words together with an example.**

touch base

off base

caught off base

cover all the bases

drop the ball

a curve ball

**B. Watch the video again and fill in the gaps.**

Baseball is very easy. Here's what happens. The batter hits the ball and then runs around the four ..... The bases. Yeah. And they briefly touch each one. The batter needs to get to each base before the ball. Hang on. These are the bases. Yeah. If the batter touches base before the ball, they're still in the game. But if they don't, they're out. So they have to make contact with the bases. Exactly. So here's an idiom: touch base. It means maintain contact to make sure everyone has the same information. Can we ..... soon? It's been a while since we spoke. Great. Let's meet on Monday. What happens if a batter doesn't touch a base? That's a problem. If they're ..... base and the other team catches the ball, the batter could be out. You don't want to be caught off base. You don't want to be ..... base. That's when something ..... and bad happens. Our next idiom: caught ..... base. Yeah, you want to be prepared. The other team is going to position someone at each base so they can try to stop you from making a home run. They'll try to ..... all the bases. Cover all the bases. It means ..... with all the ..... Plan ahead so there are no shocks or bad surprises. I'm sorry. I've really ..... the ball on this one. You said 'dropped the ball'. Yeah, I meant I hadn't ..... what I was supposed to do. Dropping the ball is about a ....., making an error. That's right. Now I never drop the ball normally. .... ball. That's another one. Yes. It means do something ....., something that's surprising. But it's a nasty surprise. Yes, a curve ball is usually ..... for the batter. It's devious. You think it's going one way but then it goes another. It's a trick. Yeah.

**C. Find some relevant photos from the internet and make a poster for these idioms.**

**D. Write a dialogue by using these baseball idioms and then record it.**

**Third week: Lesson plan for the Experimental group with four videos**

**from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hDa2cnL9xsk>**

**A. After watching the third video try to explain the following idioms in your own words together with an example.**

a ballpark figure

big leagues

play hard ball

in a league of your own

batting a thousand

**B. Watch the video again and fill in the gaps.**

Baseball's really popular in the United States. Everyone loves a trip to the ..... Ballpark. It's part of our first idiom. How much will you need to fix the roof. I don't know. There's materials, paint, labor. Well, just give me a ballpark ..... Maybe five thousand dollars. Ballpark figure. It's an ..... So many people attend a big game that it's hard to count them accurately. So a ballpark figure is a ..... estimate of a big number. The thing is everyone grows up playing baseball here. There are lots of little leagues. Leagues are groups of teams that play one another. Yeah. Kids play in ..... leagues and professional players play in the ..... leagues. Big leagues! Another idiom. Oh boy, have we got a problem. We'd better hire a lawyer. We'd better hire a ..... lawyer. So what's a big league lawyer? A very important one. They know how to play ..... ball. You can play baseball with a hard or a ..... ball. So if someone plays hard ball? It means they're ....., experienced and willing to take ..... Now here's another idiom with the word 'league'. Everybody say hey! What are you watching? Oh I love this video that Jason made. Me too. He's fantastic in it. Yeah, he's in a league of his own. If you're in a ..... of your ..... you're exceptional. Yeah, you're too good even for the top team. Now statistics are important in baseball, aren't they. If a batter has a perfect record for hitting the ball, they get a batting average of a thousand..... a thousand. And if a batter is in a slump? Their statistics have been very bad. OK. It's time to stop but we hope these idioms will help you .....a thousand.

**C. Find some relevant photos from the internet and make a poster for these idioms.**

**D. Write a dialogue by using these baseball idioms and then record it.**



#### **Fourth week: Lesson plan for the Experimental group with four videos**

from [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hRk00JI\\_00s](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hRk00JI_00s)

**A. After watching the fourth video try to explain the following idioms in your own words together with an example.**

a whole new ball game                      step up to the plate                      three strikes and you're out  
out of left field                                      stuck out in right field

**B. Watch the video again and fill in the gaps.**

The wonderful thing about baseball is you never know what will happen. Every game is different. A whole ..... game. Yes, it means a completely ..... situation – totally new. Now we'd better tell everyone about home ..... It's a piece of white ..... and it has five sides. It marks the place where the ..... stands. Yes, home plate is where a lot of the action starts. When a batter ..... to the plate.... Hang on. There's another idiom. We've got a problem. The website went down three times last week. Well, who's responsible then? Somebody's gotta fix it. Don't worry Christina. Jay will fix it. Excellent. Thanks for stepping up to ....., Jay. So to step up to the plate means to take on the ..... for something. Now how many chances does the batter get to hit the ball, Jay. Well, it depends. They can only get..... strikes. Now I'm the batter. The strike zone is from my chest to my knees. If the pitcher throws a ball and it's in the strike zone and I don't swing, that's a ..... If I swing and miss, that's a strike too. Three ..... and you're out. So a strike is a kind of failure. That's right, and you're only allowed to fail three times. After that, you're out. Now tell us about left field and right field. Left field is a long way from ..... base. It's hard to throw the ball to first base from left field. So it's surprising when balls come out of ..... field. So something out of left field is ..... When ideas are crazy or eccentric, we might say they came out of left ..... So is it the same with right field? No, that's a little different. Right field is a quiet place. Nothing much happens there. How long have you been working here, Jay? Twenty seven years. And you've always had the same job? Yep. You've never had a promotion? No. Sounds like you're ..... in right field. Yep. So if you're stuck in ....., nothing much happens.

**C. Find some relevant photos from the internet and make a poster for these idioms.**

**D. Write a dialogue by using these baseball idioms and then record it.**

## Appendix 4.

### A Questionnaire on Learning Idioms through Conceptual Metaphor

#### PART I: LEARNING OF ENGLISH SPORTS-RELATED IDIOMS

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I think we should learn English sports-related idioms for effective communication.					
2. I think English sports-related idioms should be a part of the English language curriculum at university preparatory classes.					
3. Knowledge of English sports-related idioms is important for me to read and understand English texts more effectively.					
4. Knowledge of English sports-related idioms is important for me to listen to and understand English texts more effectively.					
5. Knowledge of English sports-related idioms is important for me to understand the English culture effectively.					
6. Knowledge of English sports-related idioms is important for me to perceive the similarities and differences between the Turkish culture and the English culture.					
7. Learning English sports-related idioms can help me get more familiar with the English figurative expressions.					
8. Learning English sports-related idioms can help me express myself more effectively while using figurative language in English.					
9. The ability to use English sports-related idioms in oral communication is necessary for the development of my speaking skills.					
10. Knowledge of English sports-related idioms is necessary for me to understand the everyday language.					
11. We might need to use English sports-related idioms when we have to communicate in English outside the classroom.					
12. I think it is important to learn English sports-related idioms in English classrooms.					
13. Our course materials have enough English sports-related idioms.					
14. My English teacher uses sports-related idioms in classes.					
15. I would definitely teach English sports-related idioms to advanced learners if I were an English teacher.					

**If you have any other opinion than the above regarding the learning and/or the teaching of English sport-related idioms, please write them below:**

## **PART II: LEARNING ENGLISH IDIOMS BY CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS**

### **A. Please answer the question below.**

Have you ever attended conceptual metaphor-based teaching sessions while learning English as a foreign language?

\_\_\_\_\_ YES

\_\_\_\_\_ NO

### **B. If your answer to the question above is 'yes', please answer the questions below.**

1. How far the conceptual metaphor-based teaching sessions have helped you understand the concept of metaphor?

2. Can you tell whether and how far the metaphor-based teaching sessions have helped you cope with the difficulty of learning sports-related idioms?

3. How much using of conceptual metaphors in learning idioms has helped you to guess the meanings of the sports-related idioms?

4. Is Learning idioms through conceptual metaphors a very entertaining and amusing subject?

5. Has using conceptual metaphor in learning idioms encouraged you to try to understand figurative expressions independently?

## Appendix 5.

### A Questionnaire on Teaching Idioms through Conceptual Metaphor

Dear respondent,

This questionnaire aims at looking into your attitude about teaching idioms in course books, especially sports idioms, and collecting data about your views on *Conceptual Metaphors* and its importance in teaching sports-related idioms. Your completion of the questionnaire will definitely contribute to real data and is greatly appreciated. Thank you very much in advance for your time and kind cooperation.

Amir Farjami

PhD Student

Gazi University

<b>Name (optional):</b>			
<b>Nationality:</b>			
<b>Gender:</b>	Female <input type="checkbox"/>	Male <input type="checkbox"/>	Teaching Experience (Years):
<b>Degree:</b>	BA in ELT <input type="checkbox"/>	MA in ELT <input type="checkbox"/>	PhD in ELT <input type="checkbox"/>
	Degree in other fields of study (please specify):		

#### PART I: Please answer the following questions about idioms.

1. How do you recognize whether the expressions you encounter are idioms or not? What features of idioms indicate that they are idioms?

2. How do you teach idioms?

3. In English classrooms, in the teaching of which language skills and components do you encounter idioms? Put a check next to the item that applies.

.... vocabulary .... grammar .... speaking

.... listening.... writing.... reading

4. Do you find the parts related to idioms in the course books sufficient? If you find them insufficient, do you try to make these parts more effective by using some useful and productive methods?

5. Do you teach all the idioms provided by the course book? Do you use extra materials other than the course book to teach idioms?

6. In what situations/for what purposes do you/would you use English idioms in teaching English in the classroom?

7. What kind of advantages and disadvantages might teaching English idioms bring to learners?

8. Have you ever been taught about conceptual metaphor theory in your studies for your BA degree (MA if you hold the degree / PhD if you hold the degree) ? If your answer is 'YES', please state the degree level where you were taught about conceptual metaphor theory.

**PART II: Please answer the following questions about sports-related idioms.**

1. To what extent do you give place to the teaching of sport-related idioms?

2. Do you think course books you teach give enough place to the teaching of sport-related idioms? Explain.

3. How do the course books you teach present English sport-related idioms?

4. How do you think English sport-related idioms can be taught more effectively?

5. What would you say when you compare your knowledge of Turkish sport-related idioms with your knowledge of English ones? Can you give one or two examples of English and Turkish sport idioms?

### PART III:

#### A. Please read the following information about the conceptual metaphors and linguistic metaphors.

**Conceptual metaphor:** Mental mapping (aktarım) from a concrete source domain onto an abstract target domain.

For instance, in the conceptual metaphor of *Life Is A Gambling Game*, knowledge about the concrete source domain of *Gambling Game* is mapped onto the abstract target domain of *Life*.

**Linguistic metaphor (idiomatic expressions):** Words, phrases etc. that come from the concrete source domain to express the situation, idea, feeling etc. about the abstract target domain. For example, to talk about the abstract concept of *Life*, people can use the following italicised, underlined, boldfaced expressions coming from *A Gambling Game*.

If you ***play your cards right***, you can do it.

He's ***bluffing***.

He ***won big***.

**B. Please read the following statements about the teaching English sport-related metaphors through conceptual metaphors to learners of English as a foreign language, and choose the option that applies to you.**

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
01. English sport-related idioms are very common in everyday speech.					
02. I deem it necessary to teach English sport-related idioms.					
03. I find out that my students are eager to learn English sport- related idioms.					
04. It is difficult to teach idioms of a foreign language if the cultures are totally different.					
05. I know exactly what conceptual metaphor is.					
06. I know different types of conceptual metaphor.					
07. I was taught at a BA TEFL program as a trainee teacher how to teachEnglish idioms.					
08. I was taught at an MA TEFL program as a trainee teacher how to teach English idioms.					
09. I was taught at a PhD TEFL program as a trainee teacher how to teach English idioms.					
10. I know how to teach English sport-related idioms by conceptual metaphors.					
11. I have never taught English sport-related idioms by conceptual metaphors.					
12. I was taught at a BA TEFL program as a trainee teacher how to teach English idioms through conceptual metaphors.					
13. I was taught at an MA TEFL program how to teach English idioms through conceptual metaphors.					
14. I was taught at a PhD TEFL program how to teach English idioms through conceptual metaphors.					
15. I learned about conceptual metaphors when I attended academic events like conferences, workshops etc.					
16. I learned about conceptual metaphors when I read academic texts like journal articles, books etc.					
17. I learned about conceptual metaphors from my colleagues.					

## Appendix 6.

### Results of two groups for 22 questions

Control group Pre-test	Control group Post-test	Control group Delayed Pre-test After two weeks	Experimental group Pre-test	Experimental group Post-test	Experimental group Delayed Post-test After two weeks
2	13	10	2	20	20
0	18	18	3	21	22
1	19	12	4	22	22
0	15	10	2	22	22
2	12	8	0	20	18
3	16	9	0	22	22
4	14	7	5	21	20
2	12	5	3	20	19
0	17	12	2	22	21
1	18	13	1	22	22
3	19	16	0	22	22
1	12	10	0	22	18
0	14	12	2	22	19
3	15	14	1	22	16
4	20	20	3	21	22
2	21	18	4	20	19
1	15	17	2	21	18
1	16	11	1	21	22
1	18	16	3	22	22
0	12	6	4	19	20
2	16	8	2	18	18
1	17	7	1	20	20
1	18	6	1	22	22
3	19	11	1	22	20
4	16	9	0	22	22



## Appendix 7.

### Distributions of the Frequencies of Students Thoughts about Learning of English Sports-related Idioms

Items	Groups	Strongly Agree F %	Agree F %	Neutral F %	Disagree F %	Strongly Disagree F %
1	Control	0 0,00	0 0,00	0 0,00	23 92,00	2 8,00
	Experiment	3 12,00	22 88,00	0 0,00	0 0,00	0 0,00
2	Control	0 0,00	0 0,00	4 16,00	8 32,00	13 52,00
	Experiment	15 60,00	7 28,00	3 12,00	0 0,00	0 0,00
3	Control	0 0,00	0 0,00	1 4,00	20 80,00	4 16,00
	Experiment	10 40,00	13 50,00	2 8,00	0 0,00	0 0,00
4	Control	0 0,00	0 0,00	4 16,00	13 52,00	8 32,00
	Experiment	13 52,00	9 36,00	3 12,00	0 0,00	0 0,00
5	Control	0 0,00	0 0,00	3 12,00	12 48,00	10 40,00
	Experiment	11 44,00	12 48,00	2 8,00	0 0,00	0 0,00
6	Control	0 0,00	0 0,00	1 4,00	17 68,00	7 28,00
	Experiment	16 64,00	6 24,00	3 12,00	0 0,00	0 0,00
7	Control	0 0,00	0 0,00	1 4,00	8 32,00	16 64,00
	Experiment	14 56,00	9 36,00	2 8,00	0 0,00	0 0,00
8	Control	0 0,00	0 0,00	6 24,00	15 60,00	4 16,00
	Experiment	13 52,00	10 40,00	2 8,00	0 0,00	0 0,00
9	Control	0 0,00	0 0,00	4 16,00	15 60,00	6 24,00
	Experiment	11 44,00	12 48,00	2 8,00	0 0,00	0 0,00
10	Control	0 0,00	0 0,00	7 28,00	14 56,00	4 16,00
	Experiment	7 28,00	13 52,00	5 20,00	0 0,00	0 0,00
11	Control	0 0,00	0 0,00	6 54,00	16 64,00	3 12,00
	Experiment	7 28,00	12 48,00	6 54,00	0 0,00	0 0,00
12	Control	0 0,00	3 12,00	8 32,00	12 48,00	2 8,00
	Experiment	9 36,00	8 32,00	2 8,00	5 20,00	1 4,00
13	Control	9 36,00	16 64,00	0 0,00	0 0,00	0 0,00
	Experiment	0 0,00	0 0,00	4 16,00	12 48,00	9 36,00
14	Control	11 44,00	13 52,00	1 4,00	0 0,00	0 0,00
	Experiment	0 0,00	0 0,00	2 12,00	14 56,00	8 32,00
15	Control	0 0,00	1 4,00	0 0,00	16 64,00	8 32,00
	Experiment	9 36,00	7 28,00	9 36,00	0 0,00	0 0,00

## Appendix 8.

### Teachers' Percentages and Frequencies of Teaching Idioms through Conceptual Metaphor

Items	Strongly Agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1	1	7,1	3	21,4	4	28,6	5	35,7	1	7,1
2	0	0,00	1	7,1	9	64,3	4	28,6	0	0,00
3	0	0,00	1	7,1	6	42,9	7	50,0	0	0,00
4	1	7,1	8	57,1	3	21,4	2	14,3	0	0,00
5	2	14,3	3	21,4	2	14,3	7	50,0	0	0,00
6	0	0,00	3	21,4	4	28,6	5	35,7	2	14,3
7	0	0,00	2	14,3	4	28,6	6	42,9	2	14,3
8	0	0,00	1	7,1	3	21,4	6	42,9	4	28,6
9	0	0,00	3	21,4	2	14,3	4	28,6	5	35,7
10	0	0,00	3	21,4	4	28,6	5	35,7	2	14,3
11	3	21,4	2	14,3	4	28,6	4	28,6	1	7,1
12	0	0,00	0	0,00	4	28,6	7	50,0	3	21,4
13	0	0,00	0	0,00	4	28,6	6	42,9	4	28,6
14	0	0,00	0	0,00	3	21,4	7	50,0	4	28,6
15	0	0,00	2	14,3	2	14,3	5	35,7	3	21,4
16	1	7,1	7	50,0	1	7,1	4	28,6	1	7,1
17	1	7,1	6	42,9	3	21,4	4	28,6	0	0,00

## Appendix 9.

### A Descriptive Statistics Finding of the Correct and Wrong Answers of Two Groups' Pre-, Post- and Delayed Post-test

#### *Descriptive Statistics*

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis		
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Control group Pretest	25	4	0	4	1,68	1,314	1,727	,411	,464	-,890	,902
Control group Posttest	25	9	12	21	16,08	2,660	7,077	-,093	,464	-,918	,902
Control group Delayed Posttest	25	15	5	20	11,40	4,203	17,667	,452	,464	-,728	,902
Experimental group Pretest	25	5	0	5	1,88	1,453	2,110	,403	,464	-,677	,902
Experimental group Posttest	25	4	18	22	21,12	1,130	1,277	-1,195	,464	,875	,902
Experimental group Delayed Posttest	25	6	16	22	20,32	1,796	3,227	-,665	,464	-,530	,902
Valid N (listwise)	25										



*GAZİLİ OLMAK AYRICALIKTIR..*