

Doctoral (PhD) dissertation

Metaphorical Language Production in L2 Writing: A Case Study of Georgian EFL Essays

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Metaphorical Language Production in L2 Writing: A Case Study of Georgian EFL Essays

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Declaration

“The undersigned **Tamari Bende**, in full awareness of my liability, I declare that the dissertation submitted is my original academic work, which was prepared with attention to the international norms of copyright, and the references included in it are clear and complete. I further declare that I am not currently subject to a procedure aimed at the revocation of a doctoral degree, and that a doctoral degree already awarded has not been revoked from me in the past 5 years. I have not submitted the present dissertation at another institute before, and it has not been rejected.”

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Tamari Bende

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Metaphors have a significant impact on how we think, speak, and communicate, which makes them a subject of growing interest in both first and second language research. This dissertation seeks to investigate the production of metaphorical language in a second language. More specifically, its main focus is the analysis of argumentative essays written by Georgian EFL learners to examine the relationship between their proficiency levels and the production patterns of metaphorical expressions. In pursuit of this aim, this dissertation reports on three consecutive empirical studies designed to address distinct research questions and contribute to a thorough understanding of the topic. The research started with the determination of the most effective methodology for identifying metaphors in L2 texts. In this process, the advantages and disadvantages of various metaphor identification methods were evaluated, and the one that best aligned with the objectives of the study was selected. It then focused on analyzing EFL essays to address three main objectives: to measure metaphor density across three proficiency levels, to examine the prevalence of various metaphorical error categories, and to investigate the crosslinguistic influences on these errors. Lastly, the research also explored the effects of teaching metaphorical expressions in the L2 classroom by applying Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT). This four-week intervention with advanced-level learners, which provided information on the pedagogical considerations of teaching metaphors in the L2 classroom, included a teaching session, metaphor tests, and a follow-up questionnaire.

This dissertation builds on a long history of metaphor research in linguistics, which considers metaphors as fundamental elements of language. Over time, the field has thrived with Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) development of Conceptual Metaphor Theory, which has opened new directions for investigating metaphors in applied linguistics. Despite these advancements, many aspects of metaphorical language use in L2 contexts remain largely unexplored, including L2 metaphor acquisition, metaphor awareness, metaphoric competence, crosslinguistic influences on L2 metaphor comprehension and production, the role of metaphor in language proficiency, effective pedagogical approaches for teaching metaphors, etc. Moreover, research on Georgian EFL learners is absent from the existing literature. No attention has been given to how they acquire and produce metaphorical expressions, the challenges they face due to linguistic and cultural differences between Georgian and English, and the pedagogical approaches best suited to their background. In response to these gaps, this dissertation contributes to the field by providing an empirical analysis

of metaphorical language and exploring how a cognitive linguistic approach can raise the metaphoric competence of EFL learners.

My interest in this topic was sparked by several factors. First, there is a notable scarcity of studies on metaphor production by L2 learners in natural texts, particularly on metaphorical errors and the crosslinguistic influences that shape them. Second, no prior research has focused on the metaphor production of Georgian EFL learners, and no Georgian EFL essay corpus existed, which led me to compile such a corpus specifically for this study. Lastly, I was motivated to contribute to L2 metaphor pedagogy by addressing some of the gaps and limitations identified in previous studies that implemented Conceptual Metaphor Theory in EFL classroom instruction.

The dissertation is organized into seven chapters. Following this introduction (Chapter 1), **Chapter 2** outlines the theoretical background of conceptual and linguistic metaphors, along with key components of the overall research. It begins with early philosophical theories of metaphor and progresses to Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Lakoff & Johnson 1980). The major principles of CMT and its subsequent developments by Gibbs (1994, 1996, 2011, 2014), Grady (1997), Kövecses (2006, 2020), Lakoff (1993, 2008, 2012), and Steen (1994, 2007, 2011) are also noted. The second part of the chapter explores applied linguistic research on metaphors and covers topics such as metaphoric competence (Littlemore & Low 2006; Low 2006), crosslinguistic influence (Jarvis 2010; Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008; Pavlenko 2008), metaphor comprehension (Littlemore 2004; Nacey 2016; Türker 2016), metaphor production (Charteris-Black 2002; Deignan et al. 1997; Littlemore & Low 2006), and their link to language proficiency (Boers 2004; Trosborg 1985). Finally, the chapter reviews relevant studies on metaphor production, with special emphasis on studies that incorporate L2 essay corpora (for example, Iaroslavtseva & Skorczynska 2017; Littlemore et al. 2014; Nacey 2010, 2013; Paris 2018; Turner 2014). To provide a clear overview of the content and studies presented in each subsequent chapter, Table 1.1 is presented below.

Chapter	Description	
Chapter 2	Literature Review	
Chapter 3	Metaphor Identification Procedures	Study 1: Application of metaphor identification methods (MIV, MIPVU) to 16 B2-level essays
Chapter 4	Data and Methodology	Study 2: Analysis of 60 essays in the Georgian EFL essay corpus (B1, B2, and C1 levels)
Chapter 5	Results And Discussion	
Chapter 6	Teaching Metaphors in the EFL Classroom	Study 3: Metaphor tests and a questionnaire with 24 C1-level learners
Chapter 7	Conclusions and Further Research	

Table 1.1 The structure of the dissertation

The purpose of **Chapter 3** is twofold. First, it provides an overview of several linguistic metaphor identification procedures, including the Metaphor Identification through Vehicle terms (MIV; Cameron 2003), the Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP; Pragglejaz Group 2007), and the Metaphor Identification Procedure Vrije University (MIPVU; Steen et al. 2010), and offers a comparative analysis of their frameworks and prior applications. Second, it presents a case study in which MIV and MIPVU were applied to a corpus of Georgian EFL essays. This case study aims to reveal the nuanced nature and challenges of identifying metaphors in learner English and to answer the research question of which methodology is the most comprehensive and precisely defined. Ultimately, the most suitable framework for analyzing the main data in this dissertation is selected. The findings revealed that MIV is a time-efficient approach that effectively identifies conventional and easily noticeable metaphors. In contrast, MIPVU proved to be a more meticulous method, capable of identifying a broader range of metaphorical language, such as subtle and implicit instances of metaphorical word use. Based on these results, MIPVU was selected as the method for metaphor identification in this study, as it also ensures consistency and comparability with other research that employs MIPVU to analyze learner English data.

In **Chapter 4**, I provide a detailed account of the research data and methodology for the central study of this dissertation, which draws on the Georgian EFL argumentative essay corpus.

This includes background information on the participants who completed the essay-writing task that generated the data. It presents the most extensive and time-consuming phase of the research, which involved creating the Georgian EFL essay corpus from scratch. The corpus comprises argumentative essays written by 60 Georgian learners at B1, B2, and C1 proficiency levels. In total, more than ten thousand lexical units were manually examined, and more than a thousand were identified as metaphorical units. Next, the chapter outlines how errors in the corpus were identified and categorized into six major categories. Finally, it details the implementation of the metaphor identification procedure and addresses its inherent challenges. The reliability and validity of the evidence for crosslinguistic L1 influence on metaphorical errors are also discussed.

In **Chapter 5**, I present the quantitative and qualitative results of the main study, along with their interpretation, analysis, and discussion. A separate section is devoted to each of the research questions, organized into the following specific areas of interest:

Metaphor Production

1. How does metaphor density vary across proficiency levels?
2. How are MRWs (Metaphor-Related Words) distributed across different word classes?
3. How significant are MRW reuse patterns?

Metaphorical Errors

4. How are errors distributed between metaphorical and non-metaphorical categories?
5. How are metaphorical errors distributed across proficiency levels?
6. What specific categories of metaphorical errors are prevalent at each proficiency level?

L1 Transfer

7. How are L1-influenced errors distributed across proficiency levels?
8. How does L1 transfer impact learners' metaphorical errors across different proficiency levels?

The results of the quantitative analysis reveal a consistent pattern of metaphor density, where metaphor production increases alongside advancing proficiency levels. This trend aligns with previous research, such as Littlemore et al. (2014), Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska (2017), and Paris (2018). The classification of metaphors according to word class revealed that most of them belonged to prepositions, followed by verbs and nouns, a pattern also observed in Nacey (2013). Likewise, the analysis of metaphor reuse rates across word classes indicated that prepositions were the most frequently reused metaphors. Such an abundance of metaphorical prepositions can be

explained by the highly polysemous nature of this word class, due to which they can convey various meanings (Nacey 2013). It was also shown that metaphorical errors pose a significant challenge to language learners, as L1 clearly affects how they process metaphorical language. The B2 level exhibited the highest proportion of metaphorical errors and the strongest L1 influence, which reflects a tendency for metaphorical experimentation at this stage of language proficiency. These findings are in agreement with those of Littlemore et al. (2014) and Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska (2017).

Furthermore, adopting Nacey's (2010, 2013) and James's (1998) taxonomy, metaphorical errors were classified into seven distinct types, and their distribution across proficiency levels was analyzed to provide a level of detail that has been previously unexplored. The analysis revealed that intermediate learners mostly struggled with the semantics and grammar of metaphors, while advanced learners produced more phrasal errors, which reflected attempts to use complex metaphorical expressions. The persistence of L1 influence, even at advanced levels, underlined the enduring impact of the native language of the learners on their use of metaphorical language.

Chapter 6 introduces a follow-up study that explores metaphorical language production from an L2 pedagogy perspective, with a particular emphasis on teaching metaphors through conceptual metaphor awareness. This study addresses the secondary research question of whether using Conceptual Metaphor Theory to teach metaphorical expressions enhances the metaphor awareness of L2 learners. The chapter outlines a four-week investigation with advanced-level Georgian EFL learners, who participated in a classroom session, a series of tests, and a survey. The results of all components of the experiment revealed significant improvements in the metaphor production of Georgian EFL learners following explicit instruction on conceptual metaphors. Specifically, the metaphor group scored nearly twice as high as the control group in the immediate post-tests and more than double the average of the control group in the two-week delayed tests. Previous studies, such as Saaty (2016) and Condon (2006), demonstrated the efficacy of the implementation of CMT in immediate post-tests; however, they observed a decline in its impact during delayed tests. In contrast, the findings of this study suggest that advanced English learners benefited from CMT-based teaching in both the short and long term and achieved better results than the intermediate-level learners in the previously mentioned studies. Therefore, the incorporation of CMT into English classrooms is highly recommended for advanced C1 learners to enhance their metaphor awareness and overall language proficiency. In line with this recommendation, the detailed lesson

plan and tests developed for this case study offer a practical example of how teachers can implement CMT in conjunction with the task-based language teaching (TBLT) methodology in the classroom. Importantly, the case study of Georgian EFL learners addressed gaps in previous research by focussing on advanced learners, implementing a comprehensive TBLT framework for CMT-based classroom instruction, and evaluating the cued production of metaphorical expressions through an open-ended cloze task.

This dissertation concludes with **Chapter 7**, which synthesizes the main findings and insights. It revisits the research questions addressed in each study, explains how the results contribute to our understanding of metaphorical language production, and explores their practical implications. Furthermore, the limitations of the study are discussed, and potential areas for future research are suggested.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW¹

2.0 Introduction

This chapter sets the stage and provides the theoretical background for the studies presented later by discussing key components of the research. It begins with an overview of early philosophical theories of metaphor, spanning from Aristotle to Gricean perspectives, which is crucial for situating metaphor within its broader scholarly and historical context. This is followed by a detailed outline of Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) Conceptual Metaphor Theory to explain key concepts such as *conceptual* and *linguistic* metaphors and elaborate on their principles and typology to establish a theoretical framework for understanding metaphorical language.

After commenting on the most general perspectives on metaphor, the chapter provides a review of more specific topics such as metaphoric competence, crosslinguistic influence on metaphors, metaphor comprehension and production, and their connection to language proficiency, all of which are integral to the primary aims of this dissertation. Particular emphasis is placed on Georgian learners of English, along with a brief exploration of crosslinguistic differences between Georgian and English. Special attention is devoted to previous research on metaphor production in L2 essay corpora to summarize the most relevant studies in the field. Subsequently, the chapter outlines the theoretical framework for error analysis in L2 writing, including error identification and categorization, which establish the foundation for the empirical investigations presented in Chapters Four and Five. Finally, the main points of this chapter and their relation to the study as a whole are recapped.

2.1 Early Views on Metaphor

This section provides an overview of early metaphor theories to trace their development from classical perspectives and to establish a foundation for readers to understand how the notion of metaphor has evolved. This context is crucial to grasp contemporary approaches discussed in later sections. Metaphor, a ubiquitous element of language and thought, is a rich and complex area of study, with roots that can be traced back thousands of years. In particular, the ancient philosopher Aristotle provided a foundation for the study and analysis of metaphor. In his view, metaphor

¹ Some parts of this chapter are slightly modified versions of my publications (Narimanishvili 2023, 2024a), which were written concurrently with my dissertation.

involves the transfer of a name from one object to another based on their similarity (Aristotle 1965: 61). Consequently, this conception of metaphor is referred to as the resemblance or substitutionalist view, which underscores the role of inherent resemblances between things (Aristotle 1895: 79–81). The philosopher emphasizes that a successful rhetorical metaphor seamlessly incorporates elements of precision, eloquence, and a touch of novelty, portraying it as a detachable poetic embellishment and a decorative feature of language (Aristotle 1965: 61–63). As later scholars engaged with Aristotle's theories, new perspectives on metaphor emerged, and its scope broadened from mere ornamentation to encompass cognitive and conceptual dimensions.

To proceed chronologically, one of the earliest perspectives on metaphor comes from the prominent educator I.A. Richards, who, in 1936, observed that metaphor is not limited to verbal phenomena but is inherently linked to thought. Richards (1936: 93–94) emphasizes that understanding a metaphor requires recognizing that metaphorical thought precedes its expression in language. He was also the first scholar to suggest and name the two elements of a metaphor: the *tenor*, which represents the subject being described, and the *vehicle*, which conveys the means of understanding or describing the subject (Richards 1936: 95–96). In his framework, the *tenor* is interpreted metaphorically through the *vehicle*.

Inspired by Richards' (1936) view of metaphor, the philosopher M. Black developed the Interaction Theory of Metaphor in 1962 and proposed that metaphor operates at the sentence level rather than merely at the level of individual words. Black (1962: 25–28) replaced Richards' terms *tenor* and *vehicle* with the new terms *frame* and *focus* and stated that metaphorical meaning arises from the interaction between the nonliteral expression, i.e., the *focus* and its surrounding literal context, i.e., the *frame*. The philosopher explains this concept using the sentence *The chairman plowed through the discussion*, where *plowed* represents the *focus* and the rest of the sentence functions as the *frame* (Black 1962: 27–28). Moreover, Black (1962: 39–40) identifies two distinct subjects within a metaphorical sentence: the *principal subject*, which holds greater significance, and the *subsidiary subject*, which is less prominent. To illustrate this, he uses the sentence *Man is a wolf*, where *man* serves as the principal subject and *wolf* as the subsidiary one (Black 1962: 39–40). He maintains that to understand the metaphorical meaning of the principal subject, *man*, it is necessary to consider the *system of associated commonplaces* connected to the subsidiary subject, *wolf*, which includes the collection of characteristics and assumptions typically associated with wolves (Black 1962: 39–40). Therefore, Black's approach to metaphor can be understood as an early step toward paving the way for a cognitive understanding of metaphor.

Another significant philosopher in this field, H. P. Grice (1967: 43–44), introduced the implicature view of metaphor and suggested that when a speaker makes a statement that is clearly untrue if taken literally, the listener must infer the implied meaning by considering the speaker's attitude toward the statement. For instance, he provides the example of the metaphor *You are the cream in my coffee*, where the listener recognizes that the statement is not literal and infers that the speaker is attributing qualities associated with *cream*, such as enhancement or enrichment, to the listener (Grice 1967: 53).

Grice's perspective was revisited by the philosopher J. Searle in 1979, who explored metaphors within the framework of Speech Act Theory. Searle (1979: 77) states that every statement reflects a systematic relationship between two types of meaning: *sentence meaning* and *speaker's utterance meaning*. Sentence meaning refers to the literal, nonfigurative interpretation of words or sentences, whereas the speaker's utterance meaning conveys the intended message to the listener, which may deviate from the literal interpretation and include metaphor (Searle 1979: 77). The philosopher considers that in literal statements, the speaker's intended meaning aligns with the sentence meaning, whereas in metaphorical statements, it diverges (Searle 1979: 78–79). He further explains that understanding the speaker's intended meaning in metaphors involves a two-stage process. First, the listener considers the literal sentence meaning and, upon recognizing its inappropriateness, shifts to seeking an alternative interpretation—the speaker's intended metaphorical meaning (Searle 1979: 80–82). For example, when the listener hears the statement *Sally is a block of ice*, he or she initially considers the literal meaning, recognizes its inadequacy, and then interprets the metaphorical meaning—that *being a block of ice* signifies being unemotional (Searle 1979: 95–96). This perspective, which prioritizes literal meaning and treats the interpretation of metaphorical meaning as a secondary or optional process that requires deliberate effort, is challenged by the more contemporary and influential metaphor theory explored in the next section.

2.2 Conceptual Metaphor Theory

In 1980, American linguists and philosophers George Lakoff and Mark Johnson published a groundbreaking book, *Metaphors We Live By*, which marked the beginning of what would become the most influential theory in metaphor studies, the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT). The book introduced an alternative viewpoint on metaphor and suggested that it pervades various aspects of our daily existence, extends beyond language, and constitutes our thought processes and actions

(Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 3–4). According to CMT, a conceptual metaphor involves the association between two semantic concepts within our cognition, wherein a familiar and concrete SOURCE domain is mapped onto a more complex and abstract TARGET domain (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 4–5). For example, TIME IS MONEY stands out as one of the most prevalent conceptual metaphors and illustrates the value of *time* by drawing on the more tangible concept of *money* (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 7–8).

Kövecses (2006: 115) further elaborates on two major aspects, or components, that serve as the foundation for conceptual metaphors. First, he explains that the correspondence between a particular source domain and a specific target domain arises either from the similarity between the domains, as traditionally understood, or from embodied bodily experiences shared by humans (Kövecses 2006: 117–118). Regarding the case of similarity, a well-known example is *Achilles was a lion*, where Achilles and a lion share the obvious trait of courage, although sometimes the shared element can be more ambiguous and based on mutual generic-level structure (Kövecses 2006: 119). For instance, the domains HUMAN LIFETIME and the LIFE CYCLE OF PLANTS are considered similar because both involve distinct periods of peak activity during their existence, although this connection may not be immediately apparent (Kövecses 2006: 119).

In more recent literature, metaphors that arise from similarity between domains are referred to as resemblance-based metaphors (Kövecses 2020: 108). Resemblance-based metaphors are created when the source and target domains share at least one notable characteristic, as in *Her eyes are an ocean*, where the source domain *ocean* shares its color quality with the target domain *eyes* (Ruiz de Mendoza 2020: 25). Metaphors grounded in recurring bodily experiences are referred to as correlation-based metaphors (Kövecses 2020: 108). They can arise from our experience of deriving knowledge from what we see, as exemplified by the UNDERSTANDING IS SEEING metaphor (Ruiz de Mendoza 2020: 18). Other examples of the embodied bodily experiences include conceptual metaphors such as AFFECTION IS WARMTH, where the feeling of affection is associated with bodily warmth, and INTENSITY IS HEAT, where the intensity of an activity correlates with the production of body heat (Kövecses 2006: 117–118). Gibbs (2014: 174–181) further elaborates that embodied metaphors are essential to human nature as well as to many aspects of human life, such as the development of language skills, mental imagery, social psychology, and creative movement, such as dance, among others.

The second underlying component that contributes to the prevalence of conceptual metaphors lies in connections within the brain, i.e., there are neural structures in the brain that correspond to source and target domains and are activated together (Kövecses 2006: 120). For example, in the case of AFFECTION IS WARMTH, thinking about affection activates brain areas corresponding to affection and warmth (Kövecses 2006: 120). The simultaneous activation of specific neural networks forms the basis of primary conceptual metaphors, a concept introduced by Grady (1997) and referred to as the Theory of Primary Metaphor. Grady (2007: 192–193) asserts that primary metaphors have simple patterns that arise directly from our daily experiences, including sensorimotor movements such as UP, DOWN, HEAVY, BRIGHT, FORWARD, and BACKWARD. Grady (1997), as cited by Kövecses (2006: 125), explains that complex metaphors, such as A THEORY IS A BUILDING, are created by combining primary metaphors like LOGICAL STRUCTURE IS PHYSICAL STRUCTURE and PERSISTING IS REMAINING ERECT. Lastly, the most recent development that expands on the topic of metaphor research and its relation to the brain is the Neural Theory of Thought and Language (NTTL), developed by Feldman (2006) and Lakoff (2008, 2012). According to Lakoff (2012: 773), the central idea of NTTL is that our thoughts and language become meaningful based on neural structures in our brain that are connected to our body and our embodied experiences. NTTL aims to empirically explain what conceptual metaphors are materially, why they exist, and why some of them are universally shared while others are not (Lakoff 2008: 36). Tay (2014: 57) comments that NTTL strengthens the reliability of CMT's initial principles and underlying components by finding evidence in neuroscience, though this is just the beginning of NTTL, and it has a long way to go. The following subchapters will cover additional aspects that underlie conceptual metaphors, including their cognitive, linguistic, and cultural dimensions.

2.2.1 Linguistic Metaphor

It is important to establish early on that the primary focus of this dissertation is on linguistic metaphors, particularly in the studies presented in Chapters Three, Four, and Five, while the case study in Chapter Six incorporates both conceptual and linguistic metaphors. Therefore, it is essential to clarify both terms, as they are closely intertwined and cannot be fully understood in isolation from one another. In light of this, CMT distinguishes between two dimensions of metaphor: conceptual and linguistic. Conceptual metaphors are conveyed in language through linguistic metaphors; for instance, the conceptual metaphor TIME IS MONEY finds expression in phrases like *You're wasting my time* or *How do you spend your time these days?* (Lakoff & Johnson

1980: 7–8). To avoid confusion between these two dimensions, Cameron and Low (1999: 79) recommend that researchers present conceptual metaphors in small capitals and linguistic metaphors in italics, a convention that is also followed throughout this dissertation from now on.

Beyond the straightforward description of conceptual metaphors as cognitive structures deeply rooted in our mental level and linguistic metaphors as their surface-level expressions in language—such as words, phrases, or sentences—Littlemore (2009: 95–98) illustrates two additional differences:

- 1) Domain vs. word-level integration: Conceptual metaphors involve the integration of incongruous domains, e.g. ARGUMENT IS WARFARE. Linguistic metaphors involve the integration of incongruous words, e.g. *Mr. Marshall had the knives out for Mr. Manning* (Littlemore 2009: 98).
- 2) Conceptual metaphors aid in interpreting linguistic metaphors. However, in order to fully understand linguistic metaphors, additional contextual and functional analysis is often required, as conceptual metaphors alone are not always necessary or sufficient. For example, understanding the metaphor *slavery was well on the road to extinction* may be aided if we interpret it through PROGRESS THROUGH TIME IS FORWARD MOTION (Littlemore 2009: 98).

To lay a solid foundation for the studies in this dissertation, the following sections will first define the fundamental principles for understanding conceptual and linguistic metaphors and then explore their structure and classifications.

2.2.2 Key Principles of CMT

One of the central principles of CMT is that conceptual metaphors are based on systematic correspondences or mappings between a source domain and a target domain rather than on the inherent similarities between things. To explain the mechanisms underlying these mappings, Lakoff (1987: 417) states that they are realized through the transfer of Idealized Cognitive Models (ICMs) from one domain to another. ICMs are complex structures of thought, i.e., gestalt structures, through which we organize our knowledge of the world around us (Lakoff 1987: 68). He explains that the words *week* and *weekend* serve as clear examples of ICMs, which are conceptualizations of general human experiences that do not fully align with objective reality (Lakoff 1987: 68–69). Our ICM for a *week* conceptualizes it as time divided into a seven-day cycle, a cultural construct

with no inherent basis in nature. Similarly, the *weekend* refers to a two-day rest period following a five-day work period that once again reflects social norms rather than any natural phenomenon.

Another central idea of CMT is that some conceptual metaphors have image schematic roots. Johnson (1987: 29) discusses that a sense of pattern and order in our actions, observations, and beliefs is essential for us to have meaningful and interconnected experiences that we can process and analyze. To explain this, he introduces the concept of an *image schema*, a recurring pattern or regularity that becomes meaningful through our bodily movements in space, our interactions with objects, and our sensory experiences (Johnson 1987: 29). Lakoff (1987: 267–268, 336) expands on this explanation by describing image schemas as basic, recurring mental patterns derived from everyday experiences, including *bodily concepts* such as FORCES and BALANCE, *spatial orientations* like UP-DOWN and CENTER-PERIPHERY, and *containment* notions like IN-OUT. Image schemas are closely connected to conceptual metaphors, as conceptual metaphors draw on image schemas to map more concrete, experiential domains onto more abstract ones (Lakoff 1987: 268). For example, *emotion* or *feeling* is an intangible, abstract phenomenon, and to conceptualize it, we use various image schemas, such as SPATIAL ORIENTATION with expressions like *to feel down* or a CONTAINER image schema with phrases like *to bottle up your feelings*.

Given the essential role of image schemas in conceptual metaphors, Lakoff (1993) proposed the Invariance Principle in his later adaptation of CMT, known as the Contemporary Theory of Metaphor. The Invariance Principle asserts that mappings from the source domain to the target domain align with the cognitive image-schema structure and ensure that only the relevant aspects of the source domain are mapped onto the target domain in a way that aids our understanding of the target sense (Lakoff 1993: 215–216). In the conceptual metaphor TIME IS MONEY, for instance, the elements of *time* as something that can be managed, conserved, and allocated are emphasized, while other aspects, such as its infinite continuity or its connection to natural cycles, remain inactivated. Kövecses (2006: 124) further clarifies that only certain aspects of either the source or the target domain are part of conceptual metaphors. For example, the conceptual metaphor A THEORY IS A BUILDING focuses only on three aspects of buildings (process, structure, and strength) and theories (construction, structure, and strength).

Since different elements of the source domain are emphasized in different metaphors, this makes it possible to establish numerous correspondences and allows a single source domain to relate to several target domains—a phenomenon Kövecses (2000: 80) refers to as the scope of

metaphor. For example, the source domain BUILDING has a broad scope and can be mapped onto various target domains, such as RELATIONSHIPS ARE BUILDINGS, as in *to build a solid relationship*, A CAREER IS A BUILDING, as in *to ruin somebody's career*, or A LIFE IS A BUILDING, as in *somebody's life is in ruins* (Kövecses 2000: 80–81). Similarly to some source domains that have a broad scope, certain target domains also have a wide range, meaning they can relate to multiple sources. For example, one of the target domains with the broadest range of sources is LOVE, which can draw from sources such as JOURNEY, WAR, FIRE, GAME, and many others (Kövecses 2006: 121).

A more recent development in CMT, the Extended Conceptual Metaphor Theory by Kövecses (2020), summarizes another key principle of conceptual metaphors and explains that they are not isolated phenomena but are organized within a hierarchical structure. Kövecses (2020: 12–17) identifies five distinct hierarchical systems for organizing metaphors. Firstly, there is a straightforward hierarchy of metaphors where source and target domains are particular instances of broader, generic-level concepts. For example, metaphors such as ANGER IS A HOT FLUID IN A CONTAINER, as in *he was boiling with anger*, and LOVE IS THE WIND, as in *it was a whirlwind romance*, both fit under the overarching metaphor EMOTIONS ARE FORCES (Kövecses 2020: 12–13).

Secondly, some hierarchies involve a structure in which various aspects of a given generic-level domain are conceptualized differently through the use of conceptual metaphors. For example, the high-level metaphor EVENTS ARE MOVEMENTS allows EVENTS to be understood as taking on various forms and characteristics. These different aspects of EVENTS are then represented through distinct conceptual metaphors, such as OCCURRENCES ARE MOVEMENTS, as in *what's going on here?*; CHANGE IS MOTION, as in *I almost went crazy*; and CAUSES ARE FORCES, as in *you're driving me nuts* (Kövecses 2020: 13–14).

Thirdly, a hierarchical structure can consist of multiple conceptual metaphors that are organized together because they share a source domain, which may relate to several target domains. For example, the source domain of FIRE is used to comprehend target domains such as ANGER, as in *he was smoldering with anger*; LOVE, as in *the fire was gone from their relationship*; and IMAGINATION, as in *the scene set fire to his imagination* (Kövecses 2020: 14). Additionally, conceptual metaphors form a hierarchy when their target domains align with an independently existing concept. For example, conceptual metaphors for friendship originate from various metaphor systems. These include FRIENDSHIP IS A POSSESSED OBJECT, which belongs to the *State metaphor system*, and INTERACTIONS IN FRIENDSHIP ARE ECONOMIC EXCHANGES, which is part of

the *Interaction metaphor system*. The hybrid concept of friendship shares specific metaphors with these systems as elements of friendship are integrated within them (Kövecses 2020: 14–16).

Finally, conceptual metaphors form a system when a specific target concept represents a unique instance of multiple higher-level concepts, each characterized by its own metaphors. An apt example of such a hierarchy includes entities like God, Complex systems, Humans, Animals, Plants, Physical objects, and Inanimate objects. In this hierarchical metaphor system, lower-level concepts can serve as source domains for higher-level ones (e.g. PEOPLE ARE ANIMALS), and higher-level concepts can also function as source domains for lower-level ones (e.g. ANIMALS ARE PEOPLE) (Kövecses 2020: 16–17).

Notably, the case study described in Chapter Six of this dissertation applies the third type of hierarchical structure of conceptual metaphors outlined above, as it incorporates the overarching metaphor MOODS ARE WEATHER. Linguistic metaphorical expressions for the case study were selected based on their alignment with this generic-level metaphor and its specific-level counterparts. Particularly, this broad metaphor connects to a number of specific conceptual metaphors, such as CHEERFUL IS SUNNY, as in *a sunny smile/person*; AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR IS STORM, as in *to storm into a room*; CONFUSION IS CLOUD/FOG, as in *not to have the foggiest idea*; and LACK OF AFFECTION IS COLD/ICE, as in *a frosty look/reception*, etc.

Finally, another important principle of CMT to address is the phenomenon of universality and variation in conceptual metaphors, as it partially connects to the study results presented in Chapter Five of this dissertation. As Kövecses (2020: 11) points out in his extended CMT, since the human body and brain are universal, metaphorical structures based on them are also largely universal, which accounts for the abundance of similar conceptual metaphors found across the world's languages. This universality explains why specific sources correspond to particular targets in metaphors across cultures. As discussed above, these universal correspondences can be attributed to bodily experiences that all humans share, such as INTENSITY IS HEAT, or to the similarity between two notions, as illustrated by LIFE IS A GAMBLING GAME (Kövecses 2020: 8–9). While these universal bodily experiences form a common foundation, they leave room for each language to develop its own unique metaphorical system, which results in variations in the expression and understanding of metaphors cross-culturally. Examples of this are discussed in Chapter Five, Sections 5.2.2 and 5.3.2, where Georgian learners of English produced various types of metaphorical errors, likely due to their L1, which permits metaphorical conceptualizations that

differ from those in the target language. These errors often stemmed from direct translations or creative adaptations of Georgian metaphorical expressions in their English essays, which led to intended meanings that were difficult, or even impossible, for readers to decipher without knowledge of the learners' L1.

Beyond these examples, several prior studies show that metaphorical mappings vary across languages, mainly due to culture-specific metaphorical conceptualizations. For example, as discussed by Núñez and Sweetser (2006), while in English and the majority of languages, FUTURE IS IN FRONT and PAST IS BEHIND, in the South American language Aymara, it is vice versa. The logic behind this is that the past is known and, therefore, is located in front of the speaker, where it can be seen, whereas the future cannot be seen and is thus placed behind (Núñez & Sweetser 2006: 415). Another example is that, in English, ANGER is often conceptualized as HOT FLUID. However, according to Yu (1998: 54), in Chinese, ANGER is conceptualized as GAS, and its corresponding conceptual metaphor is ANGER IS THE HOT GAS IN THE CONTAINER. Interestingly, while English locates *anger* in the *heart*, in Chinese, it is primarily located in the *liver* or *belly* (Yu 1998: 54). To compare this with Georgian, both the heart and the belly are combined in a commonly used metaphorical expression to indicate that somebody got angry, as shown in (1). Moreover, a direct translation or partial adaptation of this Georgian expression into English is likely to cause confusion because *stirring in the belly* in English is associated with nervousness or anticipation rather than anger. It would be an interesting avenue of research to identify and analyze an array of conceptual metaphors found in Georgian that have no equivalent in English or are generally unique to Georgian. However, this is a rather comprehensive task that goes beyond the scope of this dissertation and can be considered as a future direction.

- (1) *gul-mutseli* *aemghvra*
 heart-belly.NOM stirred.3SG
 ‘*he/she got angry*’

Lastly, there are also temporal and historical variations in conceptual metaphors that can be caused by historical changes and how certain phenomena were perceived by society at a particular time. For example, according to Taylor (2021), conceptual metaphors with the target domain MIGRANTS have changed over time in the UK. Namely, in the *Times* newspaper, published in the UK, metaphorical expressions based on MIGRANTS ARE WELCOME/INVITED GUESTS were commonly

used in the 1980s and 1990s (Taylor 2021: 474–475). However, in recent years, especially since the 2000s, this metaphor has been abandoned from conventionalized use. Instead, there has been a rise in the use of MIGRANTS ARE UNWELCOME GUESTS, along with the emergence of MIGRANTS ARE WEIGHT/BURDEN (Taylor 2021: 469, 475). This reflects how the change in the attitude of the UK society toward migration phenomena, from positive to negative over time, changed the conceptual metaphors related to this domain.

To sum up, the principles of CMT show how conceptual metaphors are systematically structured, shaped by ICMs, guided by image schemas, and influenced by both universality and variation. This understanding provides the necessary base for metaphorical cognition. In light of this theoretical groundwork, the next section examines metaphor typology and explores how metaphors are categorized according to their properties and functions.

2.2.3 Metaphor Typology

Achieving a unified classification of metaphors proves challenging in the existing literature, as scholars assign them to different categories and approach their classification from varied perspectives. According to Nacey (2013: 21–25), metaphors are typically classified, on the one hand, as *conventional*, often referred to as *dead* or *historical*, and on the other hand, as *novel*, frequently described as *alive* or *creative*, or variations of these categories. What is meant by these types differs from one researcher to another, but simply put, conventional metaphors, such as *falling in love*, are so pervasive and familiar that they are no longer perceived as metaphorical, whereas novel metaphors represent the opposite, being creative, poetic, and innovative expressions of meaning that often require greater interpretive effort to comprehend (Nacey 2013: 21–25). Kövecses (2006: 127) further clarifies that every metaphor has a degree of conventionality that reflects how deeply a metaphor has become embedded through repeated use. For instance, linguistic metaphors like *play a role in* or *be in the spotlight* are conventional expressions of the conceptual metaphor LIFE IS A PLAY, whereas more unconventional metaphorical expressions include *face the final curtain* or *be curtains for someone* (Kövecses 2006: 127). Similarly, while the LIFE IS A PLAY conceptual metaphor itself is highly conventional, LIFE IS A BOX OF CHOCOLATES is not (Kövecses 2006: 127).

Lakoff and Johnson (1980: 139–145) identify two ways to create unconventional or novel metaphors: by elaborating or extending an already conventionalized metaphor and by establishing

a completely new conceptual link between a source and a target domain that were not associated in any previously existing metaphor. However, the boundary between conventional and unconventional metaphors is often unclear and results in differing judgments about which metaphors should be considered novel and which should be regarded as conventional.

To further explore the various ways metaphors can be grouped, it is useful to examine how Kövecses (2006: 127–130) categorizes them according to three additional key properties beyond conventionality and novelty:

1. Cognitive function of metaphors:

- a) Structural metaphors, where the structure of one frame or domain is mapped onto another (Kövecses 2006: 128). For example, in the expression *the relationship isn't getting anywhere* (LOVE IS A JOURNEY), the source domain JOURNEY is mapped onto the target domain LOVE. Consequently, obstacles along the *journey* correspond to difficulties encountered in the *relationship* (Kövecses 2006: 123).
- b) Ontological metaphors, which express speakers' experiences in terms of objects, substances, or containers, and establish the existential status of a target domain. For example, ANGER IS A HOT FLUID IN A CONTAINER, where anger is expressed in terms of heat or a pressurized fluid (Kövecses 2006: 123, 128).
- c) Orientational metaphors, which organize a wide range of concepts using fundamental human spatial orientations. For instance, *morality* and *consciousness* are good notions; therefore, they are oriented upward in the conceptual metaphors MORAL IS UP and CONSCIOUS IS UP (Kövecses 2006: 128).

2. Nature of metaphors, which can be shaped by

- a) propositional knowledge, i.e., knowledge shaped by the descriptive statements we formulate about particular phenomena. For example, *computers have hardware and software* (THE MIND IS A COMPUTER) (Kövecses 2006: 128).
- b) image-schematic knowledge that develops from our recurring and common experiences, e.g. the experience of going in and out of containers (STATES ARE CONTAINERS) (Kövecses 2006: 128–129).

3. Level of generality of metaphors. Metaphors can be viewed on

- a) a specific level when they have a low degree of conceptual generality and both the source and the target domains are specific instances of things, actions, people, etc., e.g. BIRTH IS ARRIVAL (Kövecses 2006: 129).

- b) a generic level where they have a high degree of conceptual generality, and both the source and target domains are general. For example, when human qualities are assigned to nonhuman things, as in cases of personification – THINGS ARE PEOPLE (Kövecses 2006: 129).

While it may be valuable to explore which types of metaphors L2 learners produce most frequently and which are most prone to errors, the fuzzy boundaries between metaphor types and the differing categorizations proposed by scholars make such classifications impractical. As an alternative, the types of metaphors identified in the current study are aligned with the employed framework for metaphor identification and are discussed in Chapter 4, Section 4.4.1.

2.2.4 From CMT to Applied Linguistics Research on Metaphors

Overall, it can be concluded that CMT, along with its refinements by scholars such as Gibbs (1994, 1996, 2011, 2014), Grady (1997), Kövecses (2006, 2020), Lakoff (1993, 2008, 2012), and Steen (1994, 2007, 2011), has proved to be the most successful and influential theory in metaphor research. Nevertheless, it is important to note that while CMT remains the most influential metaphor theory up until now, it has attracted substantial criticism over the years. The five major criticisms of CMT can be summarized as follows: its focus on concepts rather than words, its reliance on a top-down approach rather than a bottom-up one, its examination of metaphor at a superordinate level rather than a basic level, its emphasis on universal and mechanical aspects of embodiment over non-universal and contextual nuances, and its prioritization of universal bodily experiences over the interaction between the body and cultural context (Kövecses 2008: 168). The latter point of criticism, which refers to CMT's strong emphasis on universal aspects despite numerous cases of variation, was exemplified in Section 2.2.2 above. Another widespread criticism of CMT comes from Murphy (1996), who distinguishes between a weak and a strong version of CMT. According to the strong version, some concepts cannot be understood as standalone but only through their metaphoric representations, e.g. EMOTION IS TEMPERATURE (Murphy 1996: 176–178). In the weak version, people do not think of *temperature* in order to understand *emotions* but instead simply have an independent conceptual representation of emotions (Murphy 1996: 176–179). Murphy (1996: 199–200) suggests that CMT should prioritize making metaphoric representations more precise and finding evidence for conceptual metaphors beyond linguistic phenomena. In response to these criticisms, Gibbs (1996: 313) points out that we should not view metaphoric representations as stable and permanent structures but rather as “temporary representations” that

vary depending on the context. As for the criticism that further evidence beyond linguistic data is needed, Gibbs (2011: 540–541) lists recent areas of research from different fields that provide evidence for the existence of conceptual metaphors, including studies in psychology, gestures, mathematics, music, dance, and more.

It is beyond the scope of this chapter to elaborate on these varying arguments and objections, as the focus of the current research shifts away from cognitively oriented CMT studies and instead emphasizes applied linguistic metaphor research, which aims to explore how metaphors function in real language use. CMT has inspired a variety of trends in applied linguistics research, with growing interest in areas such as corpus studies on metaphor (Krennmayr 2011), metaphor in second language acquisition (Littlemore et al. 2014), language teaching (Saaty 2016), discourse analysis (Charteris-Black 2004), and translation studies (Deignan et al. 1997), among others. Consequently, the remaining subchapters of the literature review focus on directions in metaphor research that are most relevant to this dissertation.

2.3 Metaphor in L2

This section explores the challenges that L2 learners face due to linguistic and cultural differences and highlights the significance of metaphorical language in effective communication. Metaphorical language plays a crucial role in enriching linguistic communication and enables individuals to convey complex ideas, emotions, and nuances. This underlines the importance for L2 learners to comprehend and produce metaphors, which can be particularly challenging to master. While native speakers often convey their intended meanings effortlessly, non-native speakers frequently find the metaphorical aspects of the language confusing. Littlemore and Low (2006: 3) point out that even though many L2 speakers attain high proficiency levels in the target language, their use of figurative language is often inferior to that of native speakers due to a lack of native speaker competence. Native speaker competence includes understanding when and how to use metaphors appropriately, knowledge of the cultural implications of metaphors, and familiarity with commonly used multi-word metaphorical expressions (Littlemore & Low 2006: 6).

Differences in metaphorical structures between languages can also create challenges for learners, as each language has its own unique metaphorical and figurative system. Littlemore (2009: 13) explains that different languages focus on distinct aspects of things while talking about them and refers to this phenomenon as *construal*. Importantly, those differences in construal

manifest not only in general language use, but they also have important effects on the comprehension and production of metaphors. To explore this, consider the four sources of variation in construal outlined by Littlemore (2009: 13–31).

The first source of variation in construal is *attention* or *salience*, which relates to the most outstanding and interesting aspect of the thing. For instance, Korean speakers use different “putting” verbs to describe tightly fit and loosely fit objects, while English speakers do not make such a distinction, e.g. the verb *kkita* is used when they put a CD in a CD player, whereas the verb *nehta* is used when they put fruit in a fruit bowl (Littlemore 2009: 15–16). Slobin (2000), as cited by Littlemore (2009: 17–19), proposes a thinking-for-speaking hypothesis about how different languages encode information and influence speakers to focus on different aspects in their speech. The hypothesis is inspired by the experiment where Spanish speakers and English speakers orally interpreted a translated work of fiction. English speakers mainly focused on manner-encoded verbs, whereas Spanish speakers did not focus on such verbs because the Spanish language is verb-framed; hence, it does not incorporate manner-of-movement imagery within verbs (Littlemore 2009: 17–19).

A second source of variation in construal involves *perspective*, or the position from which a concept is viewed. For example, using the phrases *up to London* and *down to London* depends on whether London is up or down on the map from the speakers’ location (Littlemore 2009: 22). Another example is the prevalence of the egocentric perspective in the Japanese language, particularly evident in verb choice, e.g. the verbs *ageru* and *kureru* both mean ‘to give’; however, *ageru* is used when the speaker is the giver, and *kureru* is used when the speaker is the receiver (Littlemore 2009: 22–23).

The third area of variation relates to *constitution*, which addresses how closely we view the thing. For instance, *leaves* and *foliage* are synonyms; however, *foliage* is used to talk about the leaves of a plant that are seen from a distance (Littlemore 2009: 25). Lucy (1992), as cited by Littlemore (2009: 25), claims that speakers of English, or other languages that have marked grammatical number, are more focused on distinctions in the number of countable objects than on the amount of noncountable ones. In contrast, speakers of languages without marked grammatical number, such as Yucatec, do not make such distinctions, e.g. Yucatec nouns represent stuff or essence instead of bounded objects; thus, a word *banana* can stand for *the banana tree*, *leaf*, or *fruit*.

Finally, *categorization* serves as another key difference in construal, which focuses on the way languages divide things into different semantic categories. As an example, English speakers categorize objects as countable and uncountable, whereas Japanese speakers categorize them as long, thin objects (marked by *hon* or *pon*) and round, flat objects (marked by *mai* or *pai*) (Littlemore 2009: 28). Littlemore (2009: 31) believes that L2 is strongly influenced by L1 categories; nevertheless, it should be noted that bilinguals are more flexible in categorization because their two linguistic systems blend into each other and create new categorization patterns. For instance, in one study, Dutch/French bilingual participants categorized objects such as plates and dishes, and they used naming patterns that drew from both languages without fully matching either language (Littlemore 2009: 31).

Overall, the four sources of variation in construal illustrate how languages shape our perception of the world and create challenges for second language learners who might misinterpret metaphors due to native language influences. Mastery of cultural-cognitive patterns in the target language can be developed through explicit instruction, authentic language exposure, and interaction with native speakers.

2.3.1 Metaphoric Competence

This section outlines the theoretical basis of how various factors influence metaphoric competence in L2 and supports the broader goal of enhancing metaphor instruction for EFL learners. Considering the overall importance of metaphors in language learning, it is essential to find ways of assessing learners' abilities in metaphorical comprehension and production. In this regard, Littlemore and Low (2006) provide a thorough explanation of the notion of metaphoric competence, identify the factors that influence this capability, and detail the associated challenges. Metaphoric competence, in its broad interpretation, refers to learners' cognitive ability to comprehend and produce metaphors as well as their sociolinguistic abilities, such as an awareness of common metaphors, socially sensitive metaphors, multilayered metaphors and so on (Littlemore & Low 2006: 79). The authors point out that L2 learners vary significantly in their metaphoric competence in the target language, including their ability to provide multiple interpretations for a metaphor, find meaning in metaphors, process metaphors quickly, create new metaphors, and deduce a word's metaphorical sense from its core meaning within context (Littlemore & Low 2006: 79–80).

Furthermore, Littlemore and Low (2006: 71) list eight linguistic factors that affect metaphor comprehension and production in L2. The first factor is limited knowledge of the basic senses of words, which occurs when learners cannot comprehend a metaphor because of an unknown word or cannot find a contextually appropriate figurative meaning (Littlemore & Low 2006: 71). For instance, it can be challenging for learners to interpret the unknown word *hurdle*, in the idiomatic phrase *fall at the first hurdle* (Littlemore & Low 2006: 71). The second factor is limited cultural knowledge, which happens when learners activate incorrect source or target domains of cultural metaphors (Littlemore & Low 2006: 72). For example, it is probably difficult to interpret *he's a bit of an anorak* for non-native English speakers because they do not have a culture-specific belief that *anorak* is an unfashionable outfit, often worn by old-fashioned people with peculiar hobbies; hence, it is a metonymic reference to a geek/nerd (Littlemore & Low 2006: 73).

A further factor involves the centrality of expressions to a conceptual metaphor, where learners find it difficult to connect linguistic metaphors to their source domain. For instance, it is difficult to find the link between *step on it* and its meaning 'hurry up' because the basic source domain (FORWARD MOTION) is elaborated into the motion of a vehicle (Littlemore & Low 2006: 74). Another factor is word class, where learners comprehend noun metaphors more easily than verb metaphors because it is hard to notice boundaries between metaphoric and non-metaphoric verbs, such as *take a break* or *give recognition* (Littlemore & Low 2006: 74–75).

The time needed for comprehension is another key element, as learners often prefer to quickly find the word in a dictionary or ask the teacher rather than start with the basic sense and independently figure out the figurative meaning of a word (Littlemore & Low 2006: 76). Technical language presents additional challenges, as adult non-experts or young learners often find it difficult to comprehend technical terms (Littlemore & Low 2006: 76–77).

The limited predictability of the derived senses is one of the final challenges, occurring when learners produce a figurative expression that is motivated and possible but not authentic in L2 (Littlemore & Low 2006: 77). The last factor is related to conventionalization and phraseology, which refers to the difficulty learners face in producing metaphors within conventionalized or fixed phraseological patterns. For example, learners should be aware that the collocation *heavy price* is mostly figurative, while the postmodified *at a price*, as in *at a price that does not even include costs*, is literal (Littlemore & Low 2006: 77–78).

In summary, developing metaphoric competence in L2 learners requires addressing cognitive styles, cultural knowledge, and linguistic factors to improve their ability to comprehend and produce metaphors, thereby enhancing their overall communicative proficiency. For further details about metaphoric competence, particularly in an EFL context, see also Danesi (1995), Azuma (2005), MacArthur (2010), and Kathpalia and Carmel (2011).

2.3.2 Crosslinguistic Influence on L2 Metaphors

Crosslinguistic influence, also known as language transfer, is defined by Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008: 1) as the influence of prior language knowledge on acquiring a new language. This phenomenon plays a significant role in the production of metaphorical language in second language acquisition. In addressing metaphoric competence, Danesi (1994: 454) suggests that language learners often express themselves using the linguistic structures of the target language while their underlying thought patterns remain rooted in their native conceptual frameworks. This can lead to a discrepancy where learners use L2 to convey concepts from their native language, which results in a mismatch between linguistic expression and intended meaning.

Establishing reliable methods for identifying and differentiating language transfer from other factors influencing metaphor production in second language acquisition is crucial. As Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008: 27) note, crosslinguistic influence has often been treated subjectively without clearly defined parameters, and it is obvious that we need a more unbiased approach to identify and measure it. Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008: 30–31) identify two approaches for investigating crosslinguistic influence (CLI) as a psycholinguistic phenomenon, differentiated by the degree of focus on individual learners: the *intrasubjective* approach (which focuses on the patterns of CLI found in the language production or comprehension of individuals) and the *intersubjective* one (which focuses on patterns of language use observed in relatively large, well-defined groups of language users). Furthermore, Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008: 33–34) identify five key types of data used in crosslinguistic influence research: naturally occurring language samples, clinically elicited language samples, experimentally elicited language data, metalinguistic judgments, and self-reported reflections on language use.

The authors suggest that after data collection, we should determine what counts as evidence of transfer and list three types of evidence (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008: 35; Jarvis 2010: 173). The first type, *intragroup homogeneity*, refers to the consistent behavior patterns exhibited by language

users who share similar linguistic backgrounds and proficiency in both their source and target languages (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008: 41). As an instance, Hebrew speakers tend to put place adverbials before the names of school subjects in Hebrew, as well as in English — *I will study in the university biology* (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008: 43).

The second type, *intergroup heterogeneity*, highlights differences in language use patterns between groups of individuals who have different language backgrounds and demonstrates that such behaviors are not universal across all language users (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008: 43). For example, a comparison of language use between the Hebrew speakers and monolingual English speakers showed that they have different preferences in the placement of adverbials (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008: 44).

Finally, *crosslinguistic performance congruity* describes the similarities in language performance patterns between a user's source and target languages and demonstrates that behaviors in one language are influenced by their knowledge and use of the other language (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008: 46). Jarvis (2010: 181) examined how Finnish learners use the prepositions *near* (lähellä), *under* (alla), and *in* (the locative suffix -ssa/-ssä). The findings indicated that the incorrect usage of English prepositions by Finnish speakers was influenced by L1 Finnish structural correspondence to English equivalents (Jarvis 2010: 181). In particular, *near* closely corresponds with its counterpart in Finnish, so it was always used correctly, was never omitted, and was never used postpositionally. The preposition *under* was sometimes used postpositionally, and the preposition *in* was sometimes omitted (Jarvis 2010: 181).

Jarvis (2010: 175) introduces another form of evidence known as *intralingual contrasts* to highlight how learners' proficiency in specific target language elements can differ according to the degree of similarity between those elements and corresponding features in their native language. For instance, Farsi learners of English more easily understand English words that have equivalents in Farsi compared to ones that are not lexicalized in their native language (Jarvis 2010: 176).

Each piece of evidence has a particular purpose: intragroup homogeneity aims to determine the performance pattern of L1 speakers concerning a specific language feature and examine if learners show a similar level of consistency in the use of a corresponding feature of the L2 (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008: 47). The purpose of intergroup heterogeneity is to examine individuals who speak different first languages in order to find differences in the performance of the same L2 (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008: 47). Crosslinguistic performance congruity aims to compare learners'

performance in L1 and L2 in order to find out if their performance in L2 is directly influenced by the language patterns in the L1 (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008: 47). Lastly, the purpose of intralingual contrasts is to examine if learners' use of L2 corresponds to differences within L1, i.e., to internal differences (Jarvis 2010: 175).

Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008: 36) believe that, ideally, all CLI studies should evaluate these three types of evidence; however, it is possible to make compelling arguments for transfer even without rigorous statistical analyses if we apply the necessary types of supporting evidence that are either already known to the study's audience, or have been recognized in earlier research, or can be extracted from an L2 corpus. Chapters Four and Five will explore the potential of L2 corpus analysis for investigating CLI in greater detail.

Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008: 51) acknowledge that all three types of evidence are not required to prove crosslinguistic transfer, as one or more types of evidence may be inadequate for various reasons. The limited intergroup heterogeneity can be attributed to similarities between different source languages (e.g. the absence of articles or similar use of prepositions). Crosslinguistic performance congruity can diminish when L2 users have considerably less proficiency in L1, when learners use L2 more cautiously and less expressively, or when L1 does not have an equivalent for a concept present in the L2 (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008: 51). Therefore, it is possible to prove crosslinguistic transfer if the study clarifies why that type of evidence is weak and how CLI evidence can be detected in the data (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008: 51). For further exploration of CLI research in language acquisition, see also Odlin (1989, 2005) and Xia (2019).

In the current research, collecting evidence of crosslinguistic L1 influence on metaphorical expressions produced by Georgian learners of English was one of the important objectives. Consequently, the process is described in Chapter 4, Section 4.5, and examples of L1-influenced errors are discussed in Chapter 5, Section 5.2.2 and 5.3.2.

2.3.3 The Context of EFL Learning in Georgia

Since the participants of the current research are Georgian learners of English, it is essential to provide an overview of the key characteristics of the Georgian and English languages, the context of EFL learning in Georgia, and the potential crosslinguistic influences arising from these characteristics. It is important to identify several factors that are particularly relevant to Georgian

EFL learners, both in general language learning and specifically in their comprehension and production of metaphors.

To begin with language typology, Georgian is classified as a Kartvelian language within the Iberian-Caucasian language family, while English belongs to the Germanic language group within the Indo-European language family. Consequently, the two languages differ significantly in phonetic, morphological, and lexical dimensions, which may lead to metaphorical errors among Georgian EFL learners and highlight the crosslinguistic influences underlying these errors. When Georgian EFL learners embark on their language-learning journey, they encounter numerous linguistic challenges that can be both complex and unfamiliar. One of the most prominent initial obstacles is adapting to the phonetic system of English, which contrasts significantly with the phonetic structure of their L1. The Georgian language is written in its unique alphabet, known for its so-called ideal phonemic orthography, where each letter corresponds precisely to a single phoneme. A detailed exploration of the Georgian alphabet and its phonetic structure is presented in *Georgian: A Comprehensive Grammar* by Bolkvadze and Kiziria (2023: 7–19). Thanks to this system, the spelling of a word in Georgian unambiguously and transparently reflects its pronunciation, and conversely, a speaker who knows the pronunciation of a word can infer its spelling without any doubt. This contrast underlines why many Georgian EFL learners may find English spelling and pronunciation particularly challenging, not only in the early stages of language learning but also at intermediate levels.

The second major obstacle stems from the significant morphological differences between the two languages, with English being largely analytic and Georgian highly agglutinative, relying heavily on verb conjugations and noun case system. Another key morphological difference is the absence of articles in the Georgian language, which makes understanding the concept of articles, as well as distinguishing between zero, definite, and indefinite articles in English, particularly challenging for Georgian EFL learners. Additionally, the Georgian and English vocabularies share little common ground, as Georgian, influenced over the centuries by Arabic, Turkish, and Greek, differs significantly from the roots of English. This makes it challenging for Georgian EFL learners to form associations between words and to acquire and retain new vocabulary in English.

Having commented on the differences between the two languages, it is now important to briefly examine the broader educational and sociocultural context of English language learning in Georgia, as it plays a significant part in building the overall experience and learning outcomes of

students. The linguistic landscape in Georgia is predominantly monolingual, with Georgian serving as the sole official language. This positions Georgian learners as English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners rather than English as a Second Language (ESL) learners. Gilquin and Granger (2011: 1–2) define ESL learning as occurring after the first language has been acquired within an environment where the target language is actively spoken. In such contexts, second language acquisition often resembles first language acquisition, as learners are constantly immersed in the L2 and primarily motivated by the need to communicate effectively in school, at work, and within the broader community (Carter & Nunan 2001: 2). On the other hand, EFL refers to the learning of a non-native language within the environment of one's native language, outside the target language community, where exposure to the target language is much more limited compared to ESL contexts (Gilquin & Granger 2011: 1–2). In such cases, the primary motivation for learning English often derives from its inclusion in school curricula or other formal educational settings, as well as its global role as a lingua franca for facilitating international communication (Carter & Nunan 2001: 2). Based on these characteristics, Georgian learners of English fall into the latter category.

To provide historical context, English as an academic subject does not have particularly long traditions in Georgia. English was first introduced in Georgian schools in 1926 during the early Soviet era as an optional class, with the same year marking the establishment of the first university-level programme for training English language teachers (Shaverdashvili & Chkhikvadze 2022: 290–291). The next milestone came in 1991, when Georgia gained independence from the Soviet Union, prompting the development of revised English curricula and textbooks, with English taking over from Russian as the country's lingua franca for international communication (Shaverdashvili & Chkhikvadze 2022: 303–304). A more recent milestone was achieved in 2005 with the establishment of a Unified National Examination system for school graduates applying to universities, which included a foreign language exam, and the introduction of a National Curriculum mandating that all Georgian citizens learn at least two foreign languages by the time they complete school (Shaverdashvili & Chkhikvadze 2022: 304). Finally, while English was previously introduced in the third or fourth grade, since 2011, it has been a compulsory subject starting in the first grade, with the National Curriculum setting a goal for students to reach at least a B1 intermediate level on the CEFR scale by the time they complete school (Shaverdashvili & Chkhikvadze 2022: 304). Despite the progress made in the learning of English as a foreign language in Georgia over the years, significant challenges persist in English education at schools. These challenges can be grouped into three main areas: students' overall performance falling below

international benchmarks, insufficient teacher competence and methodological training, and the mediocre quality of teaching materials, largely attributed to EFL curriculum developers and textbook authors (Shaverdashvili & Chkhikvadze 2022: 304–310). Among these challenges, the development of metaphor awareness remains particularly limited, as it requires more meaningful contextual exposure and explicit instructional focus than what the current educational initiatives and materials typically provide.

Building on the discussion of the general context of EFL learning in Georgia, it is important to note that metaphoric competence, a specific yet crucial skill for language proficiency and communication, is absent in research related to Georgian learners. As outlined in Section 2.3.1, metaphoric competence plays a crucial role in various aspects of language competence, including grammatical, textual, and sociolinguistic domains, and is generally essential for effective communication, cultural understanding, and cognitive development. This gap in research, therefore, highlights a limited understanding of metaphoric competence among Georgian EFL learners and reflects shortcomings in teaching methodologies that currently fail to support the metaphor awareness of these learners effectively.

Additionally, a scarcity of crosslinguistic research between Georgian and English limits our perspective on how differences between these two languages are reflected in conceptual or linguistic metaphors. As mentioned earlier in Section 2.2.2, one of the key principles of CMT is the phenomenon of variation, which explains why each language could develop its own unique metaphorical system, leading to variations in the expression and understanding of metaphors across cultures. These variations can arise due to differences in human experiences and cognitive processing styles, both of which influence how abstract concepts are conceptualized across languages. Consequently, EFL learners may rely on metaphorical patterns from their first language that do not align with those of the target language, often leading to errors in comprehension and production. For example, a study by Rusieshvili et al. (2023: 5–6) examines cross-cultural variations in the metaphoric conceptualization of PRIDE between Georgian and other languages. The study found that in Georgian, several physiological effects of PRIDE, which are commonly found in other languages, are absent—specifically, PRIDE is not linked to REDNESS IN THE FACE or INCREASED HEART RATE. On the other hand, the study also identified metaphorical conceptualizations of PRIDE that were unique to the Georgian language, often incorporating elements of national pride or cultural icons (Rusieshvili et al. 2023: 5–6). Due to the limited availability of studies on this topic, further references from existing literature are not readily

available. However, Chapter 5, Section 5.3.2, presents examples of L1-influenced metaphorical errors identified in the Georgian EFL corpus and offers a detailed explanation of their underlying causes.

Beyond these examples, the differences between Georgian and English metaphorical expressions can be further illustrated by examining several weather-related metaphorical expressions that lack direct equivalents in English, potentially leading to L1-influenced errors if learners attempt to transfer them into English. These examples were sourced from *The Database of Georgian Idioms and Proverbs* and the *Online Dictionary of Idioms*, both of which are Georgian sources. (As an additional point of reference, the case study presented in Chapter Six focuses on teaching weather-related metaphorical expressions in English using a CMT-based approach.) The following examples, numbered (2) to (6), illustrate Georgian expressions along with their word-for-word translations and corresponding meanings in English.

(2) *tskhel dghe daadgeba*
hot.NOM day.NOM come-it-will
'hardships are approaching/difficult times lie ahead'

(3) *amindi daudgeba*
weather.NOM stand-it-will
'to have a stroke of luck/to have fortune on one's side'

(4) *karis amogheba*
wind.GEN removal.NOM
'to have a break/to rest'

(5) *mze gaukreba/gaushavdeba/daubneldeba*
sun.NOM disappear/turn black/darken-it-will
'to die'

(6) *tsiv niavs ar ak'arebs*
cold breeze.DAT NEG touch-3SG

‘to fuss over/to be overly protective’

For example, using expression (2) may lead to confusion, as it could be misinterpreted as a weather forecast rather than a metaphor for impending hardships. In contrast, expressions (3) and (4) would make no sense in English and would result in complete misunderstanding. Meanwhile, expressions (5) and (6) might be somewhat understandable and could partially make sense if directly translated, potentially being perceived as creative metaphorical expressions. However, their use in academic writing, such as argumentative essays, would be considered inappropriate and erroneous.

Overall, cross-cultural differences in linguistic metaphorical expressions or conceptual metaphors can pose significant challenges for EFL learners who want to comprehend and employ metaphors effectively. One way to address this challenge is to incorporate CMT into metaphor instruction, which emphasizes crosslinguistic and conceptual differences, provides explicit instruction, fosters cross-cultural awareness, and encourages comparative analysis of L1 and L2 metaphors. In this regard, Chapter Six explores the applicability of CMT-based teaching, along with its methodological implications.

In summary, this section outlined the profile of Georgian EFL learners, the linguistic differences between English and Georgian, the context of English language learning, and the lack of crosslinguistic research on metaphors in this setting. Chapters Four and Five seek to address the aforementioned research gaps by exploring metaphor production in EFL essays and examining the types of metaphorical errors that occur due to crosslinguistic differences and cultural variations. Subsequently, the findings presented in Chapter Six will offer practical recommendations to improve metaphor instruction in EFL settings and to help teachers design more targeted lesson plans that will enhance metaphor awareness and the overall linguistic competence of students. These findings may also provide valuable implications for EFL learners beyond the study sample and contribute to broader discussions on L2 metaphor pedagogy.

2.3.4 Metaphor Comprehension in L2

This section provides a brief overview of key theoretical perspectives and research findings on L2 metaphor comprehension and emphasizes the factors that influence it. Comprehension, for Nacey (2016: 505), is the rapid, ongoing process of constructing meaning from speech by integrating linguistic elements with contextual information, essentially understanding the speaker’s intended message—a process that psycholinguistic research suggests can occur within milliseconds to

seconds. Littlemore (2004: 59) explains that metaphor comprehension involves mapping aspects of the source domain onto the target domain to recognize the differences between them, identify correlations, and resolve the metaphoric tension, ultimately utilizing both similarities and differences of the domains to derive meaning.

More generally, there have been two main theoretical views concerning the process of comprehending metaphors. One view claims that comprehending a metaphor involves an analysis of its complete literal meaning and then rejecting it. The other holds that it is not necessary to understand a metaphor's complete literal meaning if the contextual cues are strong enough to drive comprehension (Littlemore 2004: 60). Both of these theoretical views posit that comprehending metaphor involves identifying a connection between the source and target domains, often through secondary attributes or implications, and relies on the listener's ability to establish common ground with the speaker, including an understanding of obscure associations, to interpret the metaphor in context (Littlemore 2004: 61–62). While native speakers often effortlessly grasp the intended meaning of metaphors, language learners may face challenges due to differing or mismatched connotations between their native and target languages (Littlemore 2004: 62). This necessitates a broader understanding of potential source domain associations and careful consideration of context to accurately interpret metaphorical expressions.

Research on metaphor comprehension has explored various factors that influence understanding, including the similarity between the learner's first and second languages, language proficiency levels, contextual cues, interpretation strategies, the decomposability of metaphorical expressions, and the familiarity, frequency, and length of metaphors. Common methodologies employed in metaphor comprehension research include definition matching tasks, multiple-choice translation tasks, comprehensibility rating tasks, and eye-tracking experiments.

Since metaphor comprehension is not the focus of this dissertation, this section does not explore additional cases. For further studies on the comprehension of metaphors in L2, see Ifantidou (2019), Ifantidou and Hatzidaki (2019), Ikuta and Miwa (2021), and Płużyczka et al. (2024).

2.3.5 Metaphor Production in L2

Metaphor production, as per Littlemore and Low (2006: 25), is the process of not only understanding the metaphorical concept but also recalling the expression, ensuring its

appropriateness in context, and checking it for grammatical and collocational accuracy. To achieve independent and effective production of metaphors, however, the learners should be in a well-informed position on how to identify suitable contexts for its use, be sensitive to possibly problematic issues concerning their phrasing and appropriateness and indicate novel use of the metaphors (Littlemore & Low 2006: 69). The learners' ability to produce figurative language faces two critical obstacles: the unpredictability of metaphorical meaning extensions, which are highly culture and context-dependent, and the tendency for language learners to produce metaphors that are not readily understood by native speakers, leading them to rely on signals such as *sort of* or *kind of* to ensure acceptance (Littlemore & Low 2006: 77). Therefore, learners' independence in producing metaphors might be initially limited by the necessity of receiving instruction from a teacher about the conventional phrasal and grammatical patterns of the target language they are working towards (Littlemore & Low 2006: 78).

Boers (2004: 217) observed that studies on metaphors have focused on learners' comprehension, retention, and retrieval of metaphorical language, while they put less weight on the ability of the learners to produce metaphors on their own. Littlemore and Low (2006: 46) attribute this to the perception that, in practice, second language learners more frequently need to comprehend metaphors rather than produce them. Littlemore (2010: 292) highlights further that given the predominance of metaphors in everyday life, learners' swift comprehension of metaphors is crucial to avoid communication difficulties and frustration. While the ability to produce metaphors may be less immediately critical, it remains an important aspect of language acquisition (Littlemore 2010: 292).

Despite researchers' tendency to avoid focusing on metaphor production due to its association with complex cognitive processes, investigating this area remains crucial to advance second language acquisition and develop effective pedagogical approaches. To this end, previous research on metaphor production in L2 has explored this ability through various methods, including translation or fill-in translation tasks, paraphrasing tests, and a variety of writing exercises.

A relatively early study on metaphor production by Deignan et al. (1997) used a translation task to examine the difficulties advanced Polish learners of English face when dealing with metaphors. The participants were divided into small working groups and asked to translate English sentences containing metaphors into Polish, with the metaphors being classified into four types (Deignan et al. 1997: 353–354):

- Identical (same conceptual metaphor and linguistic form in both languages)
- Similar (same conceptual metaphor but different form)
- Different conceptual metaphors
- Literally similar but metaphorically different expressions

The latter type is particularly interesting because it involves literally similar English and Polish expressions that convey different figurative senses, and therefore, their use as translation equivalents could be completely meaningless (Deignan et al. 1997: 354–355). According to the results, the Polish metaphors that did not have either identical or similar equivalents in English were the hardest to translate (Deignan et al. 1997: 355). Regarding translation strategies, the participants figured out their answers either from the literal meaning or from context, except when metaphors were too long and fixed to decode (Deignan et al. 1997: 355). Finally, Deignan et al. (1997: 358) observed that teaching metaphors with the help of crosslinguistic transfer is successful only when learners have upper-intermediate or advanced L2 knowledge, as these students are better equipped with the necessary interlanguage, ultimately facilitating deeper production skills. The concept of interlanguage will be discussed further in Chapter Four, Section 4.5.

Another study illustrating the investigation of L2 metaphor production was conducted by Charteris-Black (2002), who used a cued completion task. First, he identified six types of metaphorical units based on English and Malay metaphorical expressions, as shown in Table 2.1 (Charteris-Black 2002: 114, 129–132). These types were categorized on a scale that considered both the linguistic similarity of the metaphorical expressions in the two languages and the conceptual similarity of the underlying metaphors. For example, *broken heart* and *patah hati* ‘broken liver’ are equivalent in both linguistic form and conceptual systems because, in Malay ideology, feelings and emotions are associated with the liver (Charteris-Black 2002: 113). Additionally, the same source domain is used: THE MATERIAL STATE OF A VITAL ORGAN; therefore, it falls into the first type (Charteris-Black 2002: 114).

Type	Linguistic form	Concept	Examples in English and Malay (with literal translations)
1	Equivalent	Equivalent	A broken heart – <i>patah hati</i> (broken liver)
2	Similar	Equivalent	Big mouthed – <i>mulut tempayan</i> (mouth big jar)
3	Equivalent	Different	To get the wind up – <i>naik angin</i> (Rise wind)
4	Different	Equivalent	A windbag – <i>tong kosong</i> (empty bowels)
5	Different	Different but transparent	Turn your back on – <i>cakap besar</i> (Speak big)
6	Different	Different and opaque together	Wring your hands – <i>kecil hati</i> (small liver)

Table 2.1 Six types of metaphorical expressions

Second, the advanced Malay learners of English were given a completion task with brief hints to encourage the use of specific metaphorical expressions and discourage alternative choices (Charteris-Black 2002: 120). The study revealed that students found the first type of English figurative units, with direct linguistic and conceptual Malay equivalents, the easiest to produce, while Type 3 metaphors, despite their equivalent linguistic forms in both languages, were most challenging to produce due to their vastly different conceptual meanings (Charteris-Black 2002: 127–128). In summary, research on L2 metaphor production indicates that it is a complex task influenced by cultural factors and unpredictable meaning extensions, necessitating advanced proficiency and cultural awareness in learners.

2.3.6 Metaphor Production and L2 Proficiency

Studies on metaphor production in L2 underline a correlation between L2 proficiency and the ability to produce metaphors in the target language. Trosborg (1985) was one of the early scholars who investigated the link between L2 proficiency and metaphor production, employing a short story completion task conducted on students ranging from secondary school to university levels. Trosborg (1985: 548–549) identified a substantial correlation between L2 proficiency and metaphor production and showed that as proficiency improves, advanced learners use more conventional and novel metaphors, even though the latter constitute a minor part of the total number of expressions.

Considering learners with elementary proficiency, Boers (2004: 221) highlights their struggle with metaphorical expressions in their second language due to limited lexical knowledge and points

to the essential role of teacher guidance in navigating these difficulties. Meanwhile, advanced learners, armed with extensive lexical knowledge, show the ability to independently comprehend metaphorical expressions; however, their performance in producing such expressions is not as proficient (Boers 2004: 222). Citing Kellerman (1978), Boers (2004: 222) notes that advanced learners often tend to be reluctant to produce metaphorical language and frequently avoid expressions when uncertain about their correctness in the target language. In contrast, intermediate learners emerge as the most actively engaged group in metaphor production (Boers 2004: 222). Drawing from these findings, Boers (2004: 211) emphasizes that a critical component of L2 acquisition is to increase metaphor awareness among language learners, regardless of their proficiency level. This would enable them to recognize metaphor as a pervasive element in everyday language, identify conceptual metaphors behind various figurative expressions, and consider cross-cultural differences in metaphors (Boers 2004: 211).

Much of the research on metaphorical language production in L2, including its relationship to proficiency, relies on the analysis of metaphors found in learner corpora, a methodological approach that will be explored in more detail in the following sections.

2.5 Metaphor in Learner Corpora

A corpus is a vast and meticulously organized collection of machine-readable texts, derived from natural language use and assembled for the purpose of linguistic analysis (Charteris-Black 2004: 31–32). Advancements in computing have enabled the storage and analysis of vast, naturally occurring text collections sourced from diverse real-world contexts such as newspapers, books, letters, and radio broadcasts, which facilitates comprehensive language studies using tailored software tools (Deignan 2005: 76–78). Based on the view of Sinclair (1991: 4), corpus-based language research provides a more reliable and fuller picture of language use than native speakers' intuitions can, showing the patterns and frequent usages that are normally neglected by the intuition. Deignan (2005: 83–85) also highlights that corpus research makes it possible to have excellent insights into the frequency of language, one of the most salient features that are usually underrated by intuition yet form the foundation for a number of linguistic studies.

It is important to distinguish between two types of corpora: general corpora and specialized corpora, as each serves different research needs depending on the specific area of study. A general, i.e., non-specialized corpus is a large body of written texts that is purposefully sampled from

diverse sources and styles, with a view to carefully reflect the general use of a language and enable broad generalizations about its features (Deignan 2005: 76). On the other hand, a specialized corpus focuses on a specific type of text, such as the English of non-native speakers, and is used to identify and analyze the unique linguistic features of that particular domain (Deignan 2005: 76).

A learner corpus is a specialized collection of language data produced by foreign or second language learners, aimed to expand our knowledge of learner language, support research in second language acquisition, and improve foreign language teaching practices (Granger 2002: 4). As emphasized by Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 15), the data collection methodology for analyzing learner language involves careful considerations such as the conditions under which written samples are produced, genre selection, and the nature of examination prompts. Nowadays, the largest corpus of learners' essay writing is The International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE), which includes argumentative essays contributed by learners from 25 diverse mother tongue backgrounds and encompasses Asian and European languages (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 29). Notably, it does not include data from learners with a Georgian language background. As exemplified by the ICLE, a clear source of "authentic" written samples arises from essays generated during examinations (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 30). There may be doubts regarding the "naturalness" of written language samples produced within an examination setting. However, Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 50) contend that such samples can be considered natural because examinations provide a genuine context for learners to employ their L2, and the resulting data have not been deliberately prepared for research purposes. In alignment with the ICLE corpus, the present study also focuses on argumentative essays; however, all the essays were produced under timed examination conditions without linguistic prompts and access to reference tools. The significance of these factors will be discussed further below.

Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 29–30) state that the choice of genre is a crucial decision, as it can significantly influence both the macro and micro linguistic characteristics of the samples under analysis. They also point out that key factors include whether the samples are timed or untimed and whether learners have access to reference tools, such as dictionaries and grammar guides, during the writing process. Differences in these conditions may impact the nature of language production, as demonstrated by the Swedish sub-corpora of the ICLE, which includes both untimed and timed essays (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 29–30). Notably, timed essays were produced under examination conditions and introduced additional factors, such as time pressure, which could influence the written products. However, the presence of reference tools in the untimed condition and their

absence in the timed condition makes it difficult to attribute differences between the two sample types solely to time pressure (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 30).

Finally, according to Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 30), the nature of the examination prompts used in the data collection process constitutes another critical consideration, as they can have a significant impact on the essays produced. As the authors observe, clinically elicited focused samples tend to direct learners primarily toward conveying a message, emphasizing fluency, while experimentally elicited samples involving prompts prioritize form, emphasizing accuracy (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 31). Importantly, naturally occurring data offer the advantage of providing insights into the participants' authentic language use, whereas experimentally elicited data illustrate their careful linguistic style (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 48). Nonetheless, both data collection methods can be validated to align with specific research goals (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005: 47).

2.5.1 Previous Research on Metaphor Production in L2 Essay Corpora

Metaphor research, in both native and non-native English contexts, is deeply connected to and often relies on corpus-based methodologies. Gibbs (2010: 5–7) points out that it is important to conduct real-world metaphor research that examines metaphors in their raw form, as real speakers use them, rather than studying refined metaphors that an idealized speaker would use. For this reason, analyzing metaphors from real-world corpora provides the most reliable results. Corpus-based metaphor research, as noted by Deignan (2009: 9), has largely focused on two major areas: analysis of the linguistic patterns that co-occur with metaphors and analysis of metaphors based on their use in specific genres.

Previous research on metaphor production in L2 essays primarily examines metaphor density, i.e., how often students produce metaphors in a text, explores its variations across proficiency levels, and investigates the influence of learners' L1 on metaphor errors. The most comprehensive data on metaphor production is derived from studies conducted by Littlemore et al. (2014) and Turner (2014), where they analyzed essays written for the Cambridge ESOL² examination, which are available in the Cambridge Learner Corpus. Littlemore et al. (2014) investigated metaphor production in essays authored by Greek and German learners of English across the A2 to C2 proficiency range. They employed the MIPVU (Metaphor Identification Procedure Vrije

² English Speakers of Other Languages

Universiteit)³ methodology for metaphor identification in a 200-essay corpus, which included manual metaphor analysis (Littlemore et al. 2014: 120–122). The calculation of metaphor density, representing the frequency of metaphors in the text, involved dividing the count of metaphorically used words by the total word count and then multiplying the result by 100 (Littlemore et al. 2014: 122). Notably, the essays by both Greek and German learners exhibited a consistent increase in metaphor density and reached its peak at the advanced C2 level (Littlemore et al. 2014: 125–127). It is important to highlight that their research revealed a significant L1 influence on metaphor errors, most prominently seen at the upper-intermediate level and gradually declining at the advanced level (Littlemore et al. 2014: 140).

Turner's (2014) study compared Japanese and French native speakers' essays at A2 to C2 levels and revealed divergent metaphor usage paths. Japanese learners consistently increased metaphor density, while French learners exhibited a slight decline between B1 and B2 but experienced a substantial increase between A2 and B1, as well as between C1 and C2 levels (Turner 2014: 84–85). Both the abovementioned studies suggest that learners with different L1 backgrounds exhibit distinct trends in their metaphoric competence development.

In another large-scale study, Nacey (2013) examined metaphor usage in argumentative essays written by Norwegian learners of English at the B2 and C1 levels from the NICLE⁴ corpus and compared them to essays authored by native English speakers from the LOCNESS⁵ corpus. The results showed that Norwegian learners exhibited a higher frequency of linguistic metaphors in their essays compared to native English speakers (Nacey 2013: 242).

In relatively smaller-scale studies like the current one, researchers often compile experimental corpora rather than relying on pre-existing ones. This is necessary when an EFL essay corpus is either unavailable for a particular L1 background or unsuitable for research purposes. One such study conducted by Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska (2017) examined key theoretical assumptions about the impact of L1 on L2 written production. They analyzed a corpus of 100 essays written by Spanish learners of English at the B2 and C1 levels, with each essay averaging 120 to 250 words and covering various social topics (Iaroslavtseva & Skorczynska 2017: 54). Employing the MIPVU method, the researchers manually examined the corpus. Their primary aim

³ MIPVU will be described in Chapter 3, Section 3.1.4

⁴ The International Corpus of Learner English

⁵ The Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays

was to determine the frequency of linguistic metaphors and error categories (Iaroslavtseva & Skorczynska 2017: 53). Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska (2017: 57) observed an increase in metaphor frequency from the B2 to C1 levels, especially with open-class metaphors. Additionally, their findings indicated that B2 learners showed the most significant influence from their native language (Iaroslavtseva & Skorczynska 2017: 57). Notably, Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska (2017) and Littlemore et al. (2014) shared similar methodologies, with the main difference being that the latter utilized a more extensive dataset encompassing all CEFR⁶ proficiency levels. Both studies revealed that metaphor density increases with higher L2 proficiency levels, with the most prominent L1 influence observed at the B2 level.

Lastly, Paris (2018: 162–165) analyzed 52 essays written by B1 and B2 French learners of English to gain insights into their figurative language performance. Some drawbacks of the essay task included the fact that the essays were completed as take-home assignments, and all of them were written on the same topic and lacked the diversity of topics found in the abovementioned studies (Paris 2018: 160). The study revealed that B1-level essays exhibited figurative language in roughly 20% of sentences, encompassing L1 transfers, idiomatic expressions, and overextensions, with only about a third considered acceptable. Conversely, B2-level essays showed a higher occurrence of figurative language at around 34%, primarily in the form of idiomatic expressions. L1 transfers were less frequent, while acceptable figurative units constituted roughly half of the instances (Paris 2018:162–165).

There are a few other studies examining essays for L2 production in terms of metaphorical language (see, for example, Falck 2012; Hoang & Boers 2018; Kathpalia & Carmel 2011; Utkina 2016), but they lack alignment with CEFR levels. Instead, these studies categorize the participants based on their university program year or self-assessed language proficiency, which results in less reliable learner divisions.

To contribute to the existing body of knowledge, Chapter Five of this dissertation employs a Georgian EFL essay corpus to offer a more nuanced analysis of metaphor production in language learners across distinct proficiency levels. It encompasses aspects such as metaphor density, categorization of errors, and a thorough examination of L1-influenced metaphorical errors.

⁶ Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

2.6 Theoretical Framework for Error Analysis in L2 Writing: Metaphorical Errors

One of the primary research objectives of this dissertation is to identify and classify the various types of errors made by Georgian learners of English across different proficiency levels during L2 production. Specifically, this research aims to determine whether metaphorical errors pose a notable challenge and constitute a significant portion of the total errors, as well as their distribution within specific error categories. To achieve these objectives, a robust theoretical framework for error analysis in L2 writing is essential. This framework will then be applied to analyze the errors identified within the Georgian EFL essay corpus in Chapters Four and Five.

Error analysis is a comprehensive procedure that involves identifying and categorizing errors made by second language learners and requires clear methodological guidelines to ensure the analyst's objectivity. James (1998) provides the most comprehensive in-depth classification of L2 errors and highlights the usefulness of contrastive error analysis in pre-identifying potential areas of difficulty for learners who speak a particular first language and want to learn a given target language. Corder (1967), as cited by James (1998: 12), lists various compelling reasons for the importance of identifying and categorizing L2 errors. Firstly, errors provide important perceptions into learners' in-built syllabus and the cognitive processes involved in language acquisition. Secondly, error analysis can help teachers plan effective instruction by identifying patterns of errors and targeting specific areas of difficulty. Thirdly, errors provide researchers with important perspectives on the process of language acquisition and the nature of language itself. For example, researchers can observe how learners develop their linguistic knowledge and skills over time and identify patterns of errors that suggest learners are struggling with a particular aspect of the language.

2.6.1 Methodology of Error Identification

Several researchers have conducted error analysis research on L2 learners' natural texts and employed a variety of methods to support analysts' knowledge or intuition in determining L2 errors. Nacey (2010, 2013) analyzed texts written by Norwegian B2-C1 learners of English to identify the types of errors that lead to non-deliberate metaphor production. In the first step of error analysis, which is error identification, Nacey (2013: 133) used the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS) as a reference corpus, while she (Nacey 2010: 71) listed the following resources as a valuable help in clarifying problematic error cases: The British National Corpus (BNC); WebCorp

and the World Wide Web as a corpus; online language forums, e.g. WordReference. However, the author did not describe the error criteria used for error identification and did not provide more specific details on corpus-based error identification, such as how many concordance entries should be found in the corpus to mark the expression as grammatically correct or native-like.⁷

Littlemore et al. (2014) implemented a different method to examine the rates of various types of metaphoric errors made by German A2-C2 learners of English and the extent of L1 influence on them. They combined their own English native-speaker knowledge and a German native-speaker's knowledge to identify and categorize errors according to two criteria: a strict criterion, where “non-native-like phraseology” is marked as an error, e.g. *all the world* instead of *the whole world*, and a generous criterion, where non-native expressions are not considered to be errors (Littlemore et al. 2014: 124).⁸

Another relevant study was conducted by Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska (2017), who investigated the influence of L1 on metaphorical errors in essays written by Spanish B2-C1 learners of English and, similar to Nacey (2010), used the BNC as a reference corpus. They employed a strict criterion for error identification, marking lexical units that did not have corresponding concordances in the BNC corpus as erroneous non-native-like phraseology (for further details, see Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska 2017: 54).

2.6.2 Methodology of Error Categorization

In the process of error analysis, the second and most comprehensive step is error categorization, where errors are classified into different types. The previous studies on L2 learners' natural texts have proposed general and L1-influenced error typologies. Nacey's (2010, 2013) work encompasses both general and L1-influenced error typologies, while Littlemore et al. (2014), Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska (2017), and Utkina (2016) provide only L1-influenced error typologies. For the purpose of this study, I follow Nacey's (2010: 170–175, 2013: 192–202) error classification, which adapts James's (1998) typology.

⁷ Native-like phraseology refers to linguistic expressions that align with the standard or typical patterns observed among native English speakers.

⁸ The frequency of the collocation *all the world* in the BNC corpus is lower than that of *the whole world*: 249 and 373, respectively, out of 100 million words.

2.6.2.1 Substance Level Errors

James (1998: 129) distinguishes three basic levels of linguistic errors: the substance, text, and discourse levels. The latter level refers to errors with coherence and cohesion of paragraphs or entire texts, and as such, falls beyond the scope of the current research questions and design. The substance level errors, as shown in Table 2.2, are made by misspelling or mispronunciation, and the former are divided into two subgroups: mechanical misspellings and misspellings proper (James 1998: 130–139; Nacey 2010: 170–172, 2013: 196). Mechanical misspellings arise from oversight or carelessness and have the following subtypes: punctuation errors, e.g. errors made when using exclamation marks, commas, colons, apostrophes, and capital letters, and typographic errors that are made by pressing the improper key on the keyboard (James 1998: 131). However, Nacey (2010: 71, 171) prefers to use the term “oversight” to refer to mechanical misspellings that do not involve punctuation, e.g. *binder* for *bidder*, since her study is based on a handwritten corpus. In my Georgian essay corpus, this type is exemplified by *rememmbers* instead of *remembers*.

	James (1998)		Nacey (2010, 2013)	
Type 1	Mechanical misspellings		Mechanical misspellings	
Type 1 subtypes	Punctuation errors	Typographic errors	Punctuation	Oversight
	Dyslexic errors	Confusibles		
Type 2	Misspellings proper		Misspellings proper	
Type 2 subtypes	Mispronunciation errors	Written misencodings	Mispronunciation	Written misencodings (confusibles)

Table 2.2 Substance level errors

James (1998: 133) lists two additional subtypes of mechanical misspellings: dyslexic errors and confusibles. Dyslexic errors are made by people with dyslexia because of a disorder of linguistic systems in the brain, e.g. *parc* instead of *park*, *tow* instead of *two* (James 1998: 133). Confusibles are the result of confusion between morphemes and words that sound similar, e.g. *course/coarse*; *descriminate/discriminate* (James 1998: 133). Nacey (2010) discards dyslexic errors and puts confusibles into the other major misspelling category (misspelling proper) as the synonym of “written misencodings”. Nacey (2010: 172) ignores subtypes of mechanical misspellings that have no consequences for linguistic metaphor identification and makes the error identification procedure more straightforward.

Misspellings proper have two subtypes: mispronunciation and written misencodings, i.e., confusibles. Mispronunciation errors occur when L2 learners' mispronounce English sounds (James 1998: 137; Nacey 2010: 172, 2013: 197). For example, Welsh speakers often mispronounce the phoneme /z/ as /s/ and consequently misspell the word *zoo* as *soo* (James 1998: 137). In my Georgian essay corpus, this type is exemplified by *exident* instead of *accident*.

James (1998: 137–139) lists two major subtypes of written misencodings: *interlingual* and *intralingual*. The first type includes cases in which bilinguals mistakenly apply L1 spelling rules to L2, e.g. in Welsh the phoneme /f/ is written as <si>; therefore, Welsh speakers tend to apply this rule to English and write *sit* instead of *sheet*. Intralingual misencodings occur when incorrect spelling rules are applied to L2, e.g. *pictiour* instead of *picture* (James 1998: 138–139). He lists four subtypes of intralingual written misencodings: overgeneralizations of L2 spelling rules, e.g. the rule [jə] = <iour> applies to *saviour* and *behaviour* but not to *picture*; homophones, e.g. *through* instead of *threw*; mischoices of spelling, e.g. *meens* instead of *means*; and letter naming, e.g. <mt> instead of *empty* (James 1998: 138–139).

There is some overlap and difference between James's (1998) and Nacey's (2010, 2013) categorization of written misencodings. Nacey (2010: 175) simply divides them into two subtypes: phonetic near-misses, e.g. *dear/dare*, and homophone confusions, e.g. *break/brake*. James (1998: 138) also puts homophones in the same category; however, he specifies that it is a subcategory of intralingual written misencodings. Unlike Nacey (2010), James (1998: 133–134) assigns phonetic near-misses to formal mis-selections since they are text-level lexical errors. In my Georgian essay corpus, the following example illustrates confusibles: *they meet visitors with worms and respect* instead of *warmth*. I adopt Nacey's (2010) categorization because James's typology is too detailed for a practical analysis of the written data. Besides, his taxonomy has fuzzy boundaries between the subcategories. For example, there is no clear distinction between synforms and confusibles, which will be explained below.

2.6.2.2 Text Level Errors

Text-level errors, as shown in Table 2.3, are also divided into two subgroups: formal errors of lexis and semantic errors of lexis. The first type of formal errors is formal mis-selections that consist of three subtypes: totally deceptive cognates, partially deceptive cognates, and synforms (James 1998: 145–148; Nacey 2010: 174). According to James (1998: 148), totally deceptive cognates are historically synonymous words in two languages whose modern meanings have completely

changed, e.g. French *fabrique* (‘factory’) and English *fabric* (‘cloth’). However, Nacey (2010: 174) generalizes this definition to the category of false friends and discards the etymological perspective, e.g. *spectre* instead of *range* (influenced by Norwegian *spekter*) (Nacey 2010: 190, 2013: 194).

	James (1998)		Nacey (2010, 2013)	
Type 1	Formal errors of lexis		Formal errors of lexis	
Type 1 subtypes	Formal mis-selection	Misformation	Formal mis-selection	Calques
	Distortions			
Type 2	Semantic errors in lexis		Semantic errors in lexis	
Type 2 subtypes	Confusion of sense relations	Collocational errors	Confusion of sense relations	Collocations

Table 2.3 Text level errors

Partially deceptive cognates are errors where a single L1 word corresponds to two or more L2 words, e.g. the French word *fatal* is more polysemous than the English word *fatal* (James 1998: 148–149); *the message will stand* (in Norwegian *stående=stand*) instead of *the message will endure* (Nacey 2010: 190–191, 2013: 194–195). Nacey (2010: 192, 2013: 195–196) introduces an additional error category – semantic divergence, which is related to partially deceptive cognates because it also involves L1 terms that could be translated by two or more L2 terms; however, the difference is that partially deceptive cognates look or sound similar, while this condition does not apply to the semantic divergence category, e.g. ...*to liberate time, so that we have more time...* (in Norwegian *frigjøre = to liberate, to emancipate, to release*) instead of *free time*.

Synforms are phonetic near-misses that have similar semantic features and are existing words from the contextually appropriate word class (Nacey 2010: 174, 2013: 197). James (1998: 145) illustrates the four basic types of synforms as follows: the suffix type (e.g. *considerable/considerate*), prefixing type (e.g. *compress/suppress*); vowel type (e.g. *seat/set*); and consonant type (e.g. *prize/price*). Nacey (2010: 174) argues that in James’s (1998: 133–134) typology, there is no clear dividing line between confusibles (a substance-level error) and synforms (a lexical, text-level error). She points out that confusibles are phonetic near-misses or homophones whose meanings differ significantly and are not prone to widespread confusion, e.g. *dear/dare*, *break/brake* (Nacey 2010: 174–175). Synforms, on the contrary, tend to be confused by the wide majority of writers because there is always semantic, as well as formal similarity, e.g. *noticeable/notable*, *loose/lose* (Nacey 2010: 174–175, 2013: 197). In my Georgian essay corpus,

this type is exemplified by *will be profitable again for their own forming* instead of *formation*; *not all kids are able to have a happy childhood perhaps for economical problems* instead of *economic problems*.

The second subtype of formal errors of lexis is calques, i.e., a word-for-word translation of an L1 term into English, e.g. *life-pattern* for *lifestyle* (Nacey 2010: 188, 2013: 192–193). A similar subtype in James's (1998: 149–150) typology is called misformation, i.e., words that do not exist in L2. However, misformation is a broader subtype because, together with calques, it also includes borrowings from L1, e.g. writing the German word *kopf* instead of *head*, and coinage, i.e., tailoring an L1 word to the L2 structure, e.g. *smoking can be very nocive to health* (in Portuguese *nocivo* = 'harmful').

James (1998: 150–151) adds a third subtype to formal errors of lexis called distortions and defines them as intralingual errors of form. They are usually produced during omission (*int(e)resting*), overinclusion (*fresh(er)men*), mis-selection (**delitouse/delicious*), misordering (**littel/little*), and blending, e.g. *the *depths of the ocean* where *depth* is blended with *deep*. This subtype overlaps with the substance level misspelling errors because it is hard to determine what caused such an error – insufficient lexical knowledge of L2 or a simple misspelling.

Semantic errors of lexis have two major subtypes: confusion of sense relations and collocation errors. Confusion of sense relations occur when L2 learners use a seemingly inappropriate member from near-synonyms, usually regardless of their L1, e.g. *abandon/desert* (James 1998: 151–152; Nacey 2010: 196, 2013: 197). In my Georgian essay corpus, this type is exemplified by *durable* instead of *strong* or *tough* (*Women should be saved next because they are less durable, and finally men*). Collocation errors include semantically determined word choice (*crooked stick*, **crooked year*), statistically measured preferences (*big losses* is acceptable, *heavy losses* is preferred), and arbitrary combinations (*make an attempt*, *have a try* - **have an attempt*, **make a try*) (James 1998: 152; Nacey 2010: 198). In my Georgian essay corpus, this type is exemplified by *under bars* instead of *behind bars* (*...a prisoner who was put under bars mistakenly*), which represents the subtype of semantically determined word selections.

2.6.2.3 Grammatical Errors

Finally, James (1998: 154–160) introduces grammatical error typology; however, Nacey (2010: 173) decides to focus more on lexical system errors and omits grammatical errors from the analysis.

James (1998: 154–158) defines morphological errors as deviations from the correct form of lexical word types, namely noun, verb, adjective, adverb, and preposition. He further notes that the most frequent morphology errors happen due to the omission or misplacement of third-person singular [-s], plural [-s], past tense [-ed], and progressive [-ing] (James 1998: 155). It should be noted that, unlike syntactic errors, morphological errors can have an impact on the metaphor identification procedure, since MIPVU (Metaphor Identification Procedure Vrije Universiteit) restricts sense comparison to the same word class and the same grammatical subcategory, such as transitivity and countability (Steen et al. 2010: 35–36). The reason behind such restriction is that words that belong to different grammatical subcategories may have different metaphorical mappings, and MIPVU ensures that the metaphorical mappings being compared are as similar as possible: one compares entities with entities, processes with processes, attributes with attributes (Steen et al. 2010: 16–17).

In my research, the morphological errors are classified according to their word class and, if relevant, their corresponding properties, such as noun (number: **persons/people*, case: **students lifestyle/students' lifestyle*), verb (person: **keeping pets have lots of benefits/keeping pets has lots of benefits*, number: **pets feels danger/pets feel danger*, tense: **nowadays it became harder/nowadays it becomes harder*), adjectives (comparative: **more harder/harder*, superlative: **the most easiest/the easiest*), articles (definite: **compared to past/compared to the past*, indefinite: **important person/an important person*), adverbs (**irregardless/regardless*), etc. Identifying word class subtypes is essential to find out which class is the most affected by general errors and metaphorical errors.

As regards syntactical errors, they represent mistakes in phrases, clauses, sentences, and paragraphs (James 1998: 156). James (1998: 156–160) lists four major subtypes of syntactical errors: phrase structure errors, clause errors, sentence errors, and inter-sentence errors of cohesion. In my research, I categorize them as word order errors (**they never are late / they are never late*), reference errors (**...it's better to celebrate a birthday in a café, restaurant or club, there everybody can feel free / where everybody can feel free*), omission (**to stare prison walls / to stare at prison walls*), or addition (**nowadays most of school children lack physical activity / nowadays most school children lack physical activity*) of a word.

To sum up, Section 2.6 discussed the framework used to analyze errors at the substance level, text level, and grammatical level. This established framework paves the way for the application of error analysis to the corpus data in Chapters Four and Five, where the specific types and distribution

of errors produced by Georgian EFL learners will be examined, with a particular focus on metaphorical errors and the crosslinguistic influence of L1 on these errors.

2.7 Summary of Chapter 2

This chapter has explored the essence of metaphor and has shown that it originates in our embodied experiences with the world around us and extends beyond our first language into second language acquisition. First, a brief historical overview of metaphor theories was presented, beginning with Aristotle's foundational ideas and continuing through the influential contributions of Richards, Black, Grice, and Searle. The backbone of the discussion was Conceptual Metaphor Theory and its principles; however, it was also emphasized that this thesis primarily examines *linguistic metaphors*, which will be used interchangeably with the term *metaphorical expression* throughout the study unless otherwise specified. Additionally, the chapter examined metaphoric competence and highlighted the challenges faced by L2 learners. Particular attention was paid to Georgian EFL learners to emphasize the challenges stemming from crosslinguistic influence and cultural variation between English and Georgian. It also provided a critical review of previous research on metaphor comprehension and production. The role of metaphors in L2 acquisition was accented and essential work on metaphor production in L2 essay corpora was summarized. Finally, a comprehensive framework for error analysis in L2 writing was discussed, which will be critical when we turn to Chapters Four and Five. The following chapters will refer back to these topics to provide further depth and additional explanations or illustrations of the concepts covered in this section.

CHAPTER THREE: METAPHOR IDENTIFICATION PROCEDURES⁹

3.0 Introduction

Any comprehensive study of metaphors in discourse necessitates a reliable identification procedure; however, this remains a challenging task. Researchers who aim to identify metaphors in discourse cannot rely on intuition alone and must determine which identification procedure to use, as this decision will form the foundation of the subsequent analysis.

This chapter serves two purposes. The first is to provide a compact overview of several linguistic metaphor identification procedures, including MIV, MIP, and MIPVU. It offers a

⁹ This chapter is based on my publication (Narimanishvili 2024b), which was written concurrently with this dissertation.

comparative analysis of their frameworks and applications in prior studies. The evaluation of these procedures requires an examination of their underlying principles and a discussion of their respective advantages and weaknesses in terms of accuracy, practicality, and applicability for different research questions. Additionally, it explores how different methodologies can be combined to improve the efficacy of metaphor identification. In this way, the current chapter should be able to guide researchers in selecting procedures that closely align with their specific research objectives and ensure optimal metaphor identification in L2 contexts.

Another purpose of this chapter is to meet the secondary research objective of this dissertation by presenting a case study based on a corpus of Georgian EFL essays, which reveals the complicated nature and challenges of identifying metaphors in learner English. This case study illustrates the results obtained through the MIPVU procedure and highlights its effectiveness in identifying metaphors in learner English. The procedure's advantages over other methodologies justify its adoption for metaphor identification and the analysis of the main data in this dissertation (See Chapters Four and Five).

3.1 Methodologies for Metaphor Identification

In recent years, metaphor identification methodologies have become integral to the analysis of figurative language, particularly in EFL studies that focus on production. Within L2 research, they are essential for several reasons. Firstly, they allow for the exploration of unique figurative language patterns used by learners. Secondly, they facilitate crosslinguistic investigations and reveal how metaphor functions across different languages. Importantly, metaphor identification also allows linguists to examine and resolve possible instances in which L1 influence might lead to metaphorical errors in learner English. Overall, these methodologies advance our knowledge of the intricate processes involved in figurative language production in L2 contexts.

3.1.1 MIV

Cameron (2003) is recognized as one of the early scholars who developed a metaphor identification procedure, specifically the Metaphor Identification through Vehicle terms (MIV), which is designed to identify linguistic metaphors by placing emphasis on the presence of a distinct Vehicle term. A Vehicle term can be defined as a distinctive word or phrase within a discourse that deviates noticeably from the surrounding language and displays characteristics of incongruity or anomaly (Cameron 2003: 59). In essence, the Vehicle term serves as the realization of the source domain of

a potential metaphor (Cameron 2007: 132). The MIV procedure involves two essential steps: the first is to identify potential Vehicle terms, and the second is to establish meaningful connections between these Vehicle terms and the topic domain, which constitutes the subject or content under discussion in a given discourse (Cameron 2003: 59–60). In Cameron's (2003: 3) example sentence, *The atmosphere is the blanket of gases that surrounds the earth*, the Vehicle term is *blanket* because it metaphorically conveys the idea of the atmosphere, which provides extensive protection and coverage, making the abstract concept more tangible. An additional essential requirement for the identification of metaphors is that the incongruity that arises from the Vehicle term must be resolved through a transfer of meaning to the discourse's main topic, which involves forms such as conceptual blending, interaction, or comparison (Cameron 2003: 60). Cameron (2003: 62–63) recommends to enhance the initial step of establishing conditions for Vehicle incongruity and meaning transfer by incorporating various sources of evidence and inter-rater procedures, including the analyst's knowledge of language and context, linguistic evidence from extensive English corpora, and consultation of The *Cobuild Dictionary* to assess the relative frequency of various senses of Vehicle terms.

As Cameron (2003: 68) notes, the identification of metaphors could be influenced by the presence of other metaphors. For instance, the word *way* is considered metaphorical when used alongside strongly metaphorical terms related to the domains of *travelling* and *distance*, such as the occurrences of *arrive at* and *stop in* (Cameron 2003: 68). This determination relies on activating a *journey* schema in the linguistic context, where meaning extends across the discourse, transforming a typically non-figurative word like *way* into a metaphor, while isolated uses without such context are excluded from identified metaphors (Cameron 2003: 68–69).

Ultimately, Cameron (2003: 74) categorizes metaphors into five subtypes: strong metaphors that were acknowledged by all analysts, e.g. *Juliet is the sun*; technical metaphors that use everyday language to explain specific concepts in a particular field, e.g. *the heart relaxes*; animating metaphors that attribute human-like qualities or actions to non-animate entities, e.g. *minerals that come out of rocks*; metaphors of different grammatical forms such as preposition metaphors, e.g. *getting through this book*; and comparison metaphors, e.g. *the rock becomes like sticky treacle*.

These subcategories are useful for an exploration of the nature of metaphorical expressions and an examination of how various forms of metaphors are distributed within a discourse. Analyzing their form involves the evaluation of the length and word class of the Vehicle terms. For

example, comparing the frequency of single-noun Vehicle terms with noun phrase vehicle terms. Moreover, identifying the most and least utilized word classes in Vehicle terms provides important details for a comprehensive analysis. In a similar vein, Cameron (2003: 51–53) analyzed spoken classroom discourse data from native English-speaking primary school students. This analysis resulted in a transcription of 27 thousand words. Upon categorizing Vehicle terms by form, she found that metaphors that contain prepositions as Vehicle terms were the most prevalent, followed by metaphors that contain single verbs and phrasal verbs (Cameron 2003: 88).

However, the MIV procedure's emphasis on a Vehicle term identification presents challenges. While effective for identifying conventional metaphors signaled by anomalous words or phrases, this approach can sometimes overlook less obvious metaphorical mappings. Metaphors might be delicately embedded within a sentence or emerge from the interplay of multiple words, rather than residing solely within a Vehicle term. This limitation can prevent the discovery of novel metaphorical patterns or nuanced ways in which metaphors shape meaning and compromise the depth and accuracy of analysis.

3.1.2 MIP

As outlined by the Pragglejaz Group (2007: 2), limitations in existing metaphor identification methodologies led to a need for a user-friendly and adaptable approach to analyze linguistic metaphors in natural texts. They noted that the MIV procedure encountered several identification issues, with a notable challenge that arose from the emphasis on Vehicle terms rather than individual metaphorically used words (Pragglejaz Group 2007: 33). Moreover, the diversity in analysts' intuitions and the lack of clarity in the definition of what constitutes a metaphor posed challenges in comparing diverse research studies that analyzed metaphors (Pragglejaz Group 2007: 2). To tackle these problems, the Pragglejaz Group (2007: 3) developed the Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP), which could offer a reliable research method to determining whether words in certain contexts convey metaphorical meaning by following four procedural steps:

1. Read the entire text to acquire a thorough understanding.
2. Identify each lexical unit within the text. (It can be carried out with the help of an automatic annotation procedure for part-of-speech tagging.)
3. a. Determine contextual meanings for each lexical unit by considering how they apply to the broader context and surrounding text.

- b. Evaluate each lexical unit to determine if it has a more basic meaning, often characterized by being more concrete, related to bodily action, historically older, or more precise. Note that these basic meanings may not align with the most frequent interpretation of the lexical unit.
 - c. Does the lexical unit have a more basic meaning in other contexts? If so, assess whether its contextual meaning contrasts with the basic one but is understandable through comparison.
4. If the answer to 3c is affirmative, categorize the lexical unit as metaphorical (Pragglejaz Group 2007: 3).

The application of MIP identifies only one category of metaphor, namely, indirect metaphor. This prevalent type of metaphor emerges when a word's contextual meaning deviates from its more basic sense (Steen et al. 2010: 6). Nevertheless, MIP is valuable in assisting researchers with various inquiries, such as determining the frequency of metaphorical expressions and identifying patterns within metaphorical clusters in diverse discourse contexts (Pragglejaz Group 2007: 34–35). While it proves effective in formal and contemporary standard written English contexts, careful consideration and validation are essential when applying it to spoken corpora and non-standard varieties of English (Pragglejaz Group 2007: 23). In spoken corpora, if a word is partially spoken and transcribed as a fragment, researchers may deduce the intended complete word from context; however, whether to categorize it as a lexical unit remains unspecified, underlining the importance of researchers clearly detailing their approach in their study (Pragglejaz Group 2007: 23). Moreover, to effectively establish the basic and contextual meaning of a lexical unit, one should take into account various factors, including stylistic nuances, dialectal variations, as well as historical and geographical distinctions (Pragglejaz Group 2007: 23–24).

Beyond discourse type, the size of the database presents a substantial challenge for MIP. While Step 1 suggests reading the entire text for a thorough understanding, it lacks guidance on how to handle longer texts that may be impractical to read completely. In practice, researchers often adapt by focusing on relevant sections or key passages and aim to find a balance between comprehension and the extensive content. The subsequent steps are significantly time-consuming and involve a meticulous word-by-word analysis of the text to identify metaphors. One of the primary solutions here is to increase the number of analysts. The Pragglejaz Group (2007: 36) recognizes the intricacy of metaphor identification, especially with MIP, and recommends a

meticulous approach that cautions analysts against premature conclusions. They also suggest conducting metaphor identifications with at least two separate passes on different days.

3.1.3 Combination of MIV and MIP

To address specific research questions effectively, researchers can combine different metaphor identification procedures, as demonstrated by Chapetón-Castro & Verdaguer-Clavera (2012), who integrated both MIV and MIP in their study. The authors aimed to compare the use of metaphor in three types of texts: essays composed by Spanish learners of English, essays authored by native speakers of English, and editorials written by expert English writers (Chapetón-Castro & Verdaguer-Clavera 2012: 151). Initially, four raters utilized the MIV procedure to identify instances of metaphors by examining Vehicle terms in the texts. The selection of the MIV procedure was influenced by the need for time efficiency, especially since this method does not necessitate analyzing each lexical unit individually. Instead, it involves identifying Vehicle terms, i.e., words that appear unusual in a given context (Chapetón-Castro & Verdaguer-Clavera 2012: 153–154). However, the presence of unresolved cases with disagreements among raters necessitated further investigation and led to the application of the MIP procedure to previously identified questionable Vehicle terms. Specifically utilizing steps 3 and 4 of the MIP procedure, the contextual and basic meanings of Vehicle terms were clarified, and in cases of contrast between these meanings, the Vehicle term was marked as metaphorical. The authors believe that merging the MIV and MIP procedures for metaphor identification proved to be a reliable approach to confirm raters' intuitions and address points of disagreement (Chapetón-Castro & Verdaguer-Clavera 2012: 169). The aforementioned integration of MIV and MIP procedures can improve time efficiency by avoiding the individual analysis of each lexical item, instead focusing on detecting Vehicle terms. Due to MIV's dependence on raters' intuitions, the engagement of multiple inter-raters is essential to ensure the validity of the results. However, in cases where only one or two raters are involved in the research, opting for the MIP procedure proves more reliable, as it enables systematic decision-making based on dictionary sense comparison for every lexical item.

3.1.4 MIPVU

Steen et al. (2010) introduced the Metaphor Identification Procedure Vrije University (MIPVU), which builds upon the core of MIP while incorporating significant improvements and modifications in the determination of various metaphor types. The authors of MIPVU acknowledged that MIP

had a limited capability to identify solely indirect metaphors and overlooked other linguistic forms, specifically direct and implicit metaphors (Steen et al. 2010: 25–26).

A direct metaphor, which includes similes, analogies, and other non-literal comparisons, expresses figurative ideas directly in language without introducing a contrast between the contextual meaning and a more fundamental, non-metaphorical sense (Steen et al. 2010: 57–58). For instance, in the sentence *He's like a favorite old coat*, MIP would not categorize *coat* as a metaphor. However, MIPVU, by defining metaphors at the conceptual level rather than the linguistic level, allows for recognizing *coat* as a direct metaphor (Steen et al. 2010: 93–94). Therefore, introducing the unconventional domain of *coat* to describe a person's traits points to an instance of conceptual metaphor mapping.

A further type of metaphor that MIPVU can identify is an implicit metaphor, which encompasses anaphoric cohesive elements like ellipsis or third-person pronouns that refer to words that are themselves metaphorical (Steen et al. 2010: 39–40). For instance, the pronoun *it* serves as an implicit metaphor in the sentence *Naturally, to embark on such a step is not necessarily to succeed immediately in realizing it*, as it substitutes for the word *step*, which is a metaphorical word itself (Steen et al. 2010: 39).

Hence, MIPVU integrated extra steps to identify these additional forms of metaphors and adopted a broader term, Metaphor-Related Word (MRW), to encompass a broader range of metaphorical expressions. Steen et al. (2019: 23–24) provide a comprehensive account of the systematic procedure employed in MIPVU and illustrate the following six basic steps of the method.

1. Identify MRWs by examining each word in the text individually.
2. If a word is employed indirectly, and its usage can be traced back to a cross-domain mapping from a more basic meaning of the word to its contextual meaning, label the word as an indirect MRW.
3. If a word is employed directly, and its usage can possibly be clarified through cross-domain mapping to a more basic entity or theme in the text, label the word as a direct MRW.
4. Label words as implicit MRWs when they are used for replacement within the lexical or grammatical structure, such as third-person personal pronouns or ellipses, conveying direct or indirect meaning that could be clarified through cross-domain mapping.

5. Designate a word as a metaphor flag when it serves as a signal that there might be a cross-domain mapping involved.
6. When a word constitutes a novel formation without a corresponding dictionary entry, examine its individual components as distinct words in accordance with the aforementioned steps (Steen et al. 2010: 25–26).

MIPVU marks indirect MRWs similarly to MIP, with minor adjustments in determining the basic and contextual meaning of the word. Since basic and contextual senses are extracted from the dictionary entries assigned to the word in question, both MIP and MIPVU suggest employing the *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* as the primary reference, while MIPVU adds the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* as a backup source (Steen et al. 2019: 35). Moreover, in MIPVU, the basic and contextual senses are considered sufficiently distinct if they are found in separately numbered sense descriptions within the same grammatical category in the dictionary (Steen et al. 2019: 35). In the present study, I followed MIPVU's guidelines closely and used established dictionary definitions to ensure consistency and objectivity. However, it should be acknowledged that the use of dictionary-based definitions of the basic sense may present certain limitations in learner corpus research. From the point of view of language learners, the meanings they encounter or acquire first may differ from those listed as basic in dictionaries. This difference may influence whether certain expressions are perceived as metaphorical by learners, particularly in the case of conventional or dead metaphors. One way to address this issue could be to supplement dictionary definitions with frequency data from learner corpora to identify which meanings are most familiar or basic to learners.

Additionally, MIPVU has introduced three new metaphor tags: WIDLII (When In Doubt, Leave It In) for ambiguous words capable of both metaphoric and non-metaphoric interpretations; DFMA (Discarded For Metaphor Analysis) for instances where units are incomplete and lack sufficient contextual knowledge for precise meaning determination; and PP (Possible Personification) to capture personification cases, such as *This essay argues* or *The White House says* (Steen et al. 2010: 33–34, 103). It should also be noted that, in borderline metaphor-metonymy cases where it is difficult to make a distinction between the two, the expressions are tagged as WIDLII. This reflects a methodological limitation in accurately classifying potentially metonymic instances, which may be relevant for research concerned with metonymy production.

Steen et al. (2019: 25–30) illustrate the guidelines of MIPVU using the VU Amsterdam Metaphor Corpus Online¹⁰ (VUAMC), which contains a selection of excerpts from BNC-Baby¹¹ corpus files annotated for metaphor by the creators of MIPVU. Since VUAMC contains approximately 190,000 lexical units annotated for metaphor, researchers can utilize it as a valuable guide when they annotate their own corpora, especially in cases where they have to determine the metaphoricity of certain lexical units, which proves challenging.

While the MIPVU protocol aims to simplify metaphor identification with its step-by-step system, Nacey et al. (2019: 41) argue that the process is more complex than it appears. For new researchers, the core challenges of metaphor identification often lie in breaking down text into lexical units, establishing their basic meanings, and then comparing those meanings with their contextual sense (Nacey et al. 2019: 43). To address these challenges, Nacey et al. (2019: 64–65) have outlined the following key points. First, to identify lexical units properly, avoid exclusive reliance on spelling standards. Utilize resources such as the BNC Multiword list¹², dictionaries, and stress/part-of-speech tagging to precisely identify multi-word units. Second, consider the potential for multiple basic meanings of a word and extend your analysis beyond the most frequent meanings. Finally, the identification of both contextual and basic senses for a word does not guarantee a metaphor. Check if the relationship is metonymic or consider if one meaning is simply a more specific version of the other.

3.1.5 MIPVU-based Hybrid Protocol

Simon et al. (2023) developed the MetaID protocol, a morpheme-based hybrid methodology that expands upon MIPVU’s core principles. MetaID’s key innovation is its ability to analyze individual morphemes, i.e., the smallest meaningful units of a language (Simon et al. 2023: 2). This granular approach is necessary for agglutinative languages like Hungarian, where a single word can contain several metaphor-related morphemes. Other key differences from MIPVU include MetaID’s omission of the WIDLII category, prioritizing the identification of the broadest possible range of metaphors, and its use of six additional tags for more accurate MRW labelling (Simon et al. 2023: 9–13). These features give MetaID several advantages: suitability for agglutinative languages, greater precision in results, and the ability to reveal deeper semantic relationships within

¹⁰ <http://www.vismet.org/metcor/about.html>

¹¹ A subset of the British National Corpus.

¹² <http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/docs/multiwd.htm>

metaphors. Consequently, it can be a valuable tool for future research into metaphor identification in other agglutinative languages beyond Hungarian. One such example is the Georgian language, which currently lacks metaphor identification research due to its complex agglutinative morphology.

3.1.6 MIPVU vs. MIV

In essence, MIPVU and MIV share some similarities because both procedures aim to identify metaphors in written discourse and to distinguish metaphors based on their basic and contextual senses. MIPVU analyzes single words, whereas MIV permits a larger number of multi-word items (Cameron 2003: 76–77; Steen et al 2010: 27). In terms of determining lexical units in the text, MIV shows lower precision; for example, it groups all verb + preposition Vehicle terms together in a phrasal verb category without differentiating between verbs with prepositions and verbs with particles (Cameron 2003: 77). MIV, unlike MIPVU, also puts emphasis on a dynamic process of language use in discourse, which goes beyond individual metaphors and shows the dynamics of metaphor connection and interaction across discourse (Cameron 2003: 8). For examining the senses of words, MIPVU necessitates the systematic use of a dictionary, while MIV predominantly leans on analysts' knowledge of language and context supported by the dictionary and corpus information (Cameron 2003: 62–63; Steen et al. 2010: 16). In terms of the analysis procedure, MIPVU demonstrates greater consistency by initially dividing sentences into lexical units and afterwards establishing their metaphoricity through a clearly formulated step-by-step process. In summary, MIPVU shows a higher level of reliability than the MIV protocol, offers researchers a more precise procedure, and strives to minimize intuitive judgments. Table 3.1 illustrates the major characteristics of the three metaphor identification procedures discussed above: MIP, MIV, and MIPVU, aiding in the comparison of their key features.

	MIV	MIP	MIPVU
Basic unit of analysis	Vehicle terms that can be either single words, multi-words, or phrases	Single words ¹³	Single words ¹⁴
Number of the procedural steps	2	4	8
Types of metaphors identified	Strong, technical, animating, and comparison metaphors; metaphors of different grammatical forms	Indirect metaphors	Indirect, direct, and implicit MRWs
Major validation strategies	Analysts' knowledge and inter-rater reliability	Dictionary information and inter-rater reliability	Dictionary and corpus information; inter-rater reliability

Table 3.1 Key features of the three metaphor identification procedures

3.1.7 Further Methodologies

3.1.7.1 CMA

In addition to the abovementioned well-established manual metaphor identification methodologies, there are other approaches that are less common and have been employed in only a limited number of studies. One such approach is Charteris-Black's (2004) Critical Metaphor Analysis (CMA), which is an analytical framework that directs its focus toward studying metaphors through a critical discourse analysis lens. It involves three levels of analysis: metaphor identification, interpretation, and explanation. The metaphor identification method used by CMA comprises two stages. The initial phase involves a comprehensive examination of a text sample from the corpus to identify potential metaphors (Charteris-Black 2004: 35). The author acknowledges variations in the size of text samples based on corpora but does not provide clarification on the criteria for determining the sample size. For instance, in the analysis of sports reports from a tabloid corpus that contained approximately 26.8 million words, the author selected a sample of 100 sports reports for potential metaphor examination (Charteris-Black 2004: 116–117). Similarly, in the analysis of the Old Testament, which consisted of around 43 thousand words, a sample of 100 verses from Psalms was chosen for potential metaphor examination (Charteris-Black 2004: 178). It becomes evident that

¹³ Exceptions to the basic unit of analysis being a single word include phrasal verbs, compounds, and polywords (Pragglejaz Group 2007: 23–24).

¹⁴ Exceptions to the basic unit of analysis being a single word include phrasal verbs, compounds, and some proper names (Steen et al. 2010: 27–32).

the author opts for 100 instances of texts as a sample in corpus analysis, irrespective of the corpus size, which introduces a level of ambiguity to this part of the procedure.

These potential metaphors are then assessed based on the criteria set for defining metaphorical expressions. A metaphor occurs when a word or phrase is used in a context or domain different from its expected usage, creates semantic tension, and introduces incongruity at linguistic, pragmatic, or cognitive levels (Charteris-Black 2004: 21, 35). Excluding words that do not meet this criterion while categorizing those commonly used in a metaphorical sense as metaphor keywords allows for a quantitative assessment of their presence in the corpus. The subsequent phase involves a qualitative analysis, where corpus contexts are inspected to ascertain whether each instance of a keyword is employed in a metaphorical or literal sense (Charteris-Black 2004: 35).

While CMA offers a compelling approach by combining metaphor identification with critical discourse analysis, its identification procedures lack the precision of methods like MIV, MIP, and MIPVU. CMA focuses on how metaphors are shaped by social and political contexts. This method is best suited for researchers interested in the ideological functions of metaphor rather than those seeking a purely systematic approach to metaphor identification.

3.1.7.2 MPA

Stefanowitsch (2006a: 2–3) outlines the three primary strategies for extracting metaphors from corpora. First, manual metaphor searching involves reading through the corpus and manually extracting metaphorical expressions, which limits corpus size and requires time-consuming manual annotation. Secondly, searching for source domain vocabulary entails selecting a potential source domain, using concordancing techniques to identify relevant lexical items, and examining their occurrence in target domains to reveal metaphorical mappings. Lastly, searching for target domain vocabulary involves selecting and searching for lexical items related to target-domain concepts, identifying cases where these words are embedded in metaphorical expressions, and revealing metaphorical mappings within the target domain. Searching for target domain vocabulary proves advantageous, and addresses the limitations of the other two strategies: manual searching, which imposes constraints on corpus size, and searching for source domain vocabulary, which demands prior knowledge of source domains (Stefanowitsch 2006a: 3).

Consequently, Stefanowitsch (2006b: 65–66) introduces a method known as Metaphor Pattern Analysis (MPA), where the researcher conducts a keyword search to identify lexical items

linked to a specific target domain. Following this, metaphorical uses are manually distinguished from literal uses, which allows for an exploration of metaphorical patterns. A metaphorical pattern refers to a multi-word expression that incorporates a specific lexical item from a designated target domain into a given source domain (Stefanowitsch 2006b: 66). Through MPA, researchers can retrieve an extensive array of metaphorical patterns by searching for the target domain in a corpus and examining the associated metaphors within these patterns.

Therefore, MPA offers a distinct approach to metaphor identification within corpora. It centers on identifying metaphorical patterns associated with specific target domains and reveals how these concepts are systematically structured through metaphorical language. This contrasts with methods like MIV, MIP, and MIPVU, which prioritize the identification of individual metaphorical words or phrases. MPA's approach makes it a valuable tool for researchers who have to explore the realization of specific metaphor domains within a corpus and analyze their variations across different text registers, e.g. scientific discourse vs. news reporting.

3.1.7.3 Combination of MPA and MIPVU

Muelas-Gil (2018), in her study on economic metaphors in Spanish and English digital newspapers, emphasizes the value of combining MPA and MIPVU. The study primarily employed MPA because the focus was on examining common economic targets within news articles rather than conducting an exhaustive analysis of all metaphors within the corpus (Muelas-Gil 2018: 125). MPA is well-suited for this targeted approach and allows for efficient identification of metaphorical patterns associated with specific economic terms. Drawing from previous research on economic discourse, the study focused on the thirteen most common target domains, including terms like *finance*, *company*, *bank*, and *money* (Muelas-Gil 2018: 149–150). To illustrate MPA's working principles, the author highlights an example where the target domain *bank* appears close to the source domain term “to attack” (belonging to the WAR or FIGHT conceptual domain) (Muelas-Gil 2018: 157–158). This close proximity suggests a metaphorical meaning for “attack”, implying a non-literal attack on the bank.

MPA offers time efficiency, but its reliance on researchers' intuition introduces potential bias. To counteract this, the study utilized MIPVU as a complementary method since it uses dictionaries to verify the meanings of potentially metaphorical words and ensures more reliable identification (Muelas-Gil 2018: 163). This kind of verification is particularly valuable when one analyzes a non-native language, as it minimizes the risk of misinterpretations that stem from the

researcher's linguistic assumptions (Muelas-Gil 2018: 163). The study demonstrates that MPA is a reliable method for initial metaphor identification, as most of its identified metaphors were subsequently confirmed by MIPVU (Muelas-Gil 2018: 163). The enhanced accuracy of MIPVU makes it a useful verification step for MPA's findings. Rather than being in competition, the study proposes that these methods work best in combination and offer robust corpus-based analysis of specific metaphorical targets (Muelas-Gil 2018: 264).

3.1.7.4 PIMS

Falck & Okonski (2023: 1–2) acknowledge that identifying metaphor-related prepositions is challenging due to their short length and ambiguous basic meanings. They note that traditional methods, including MIV, MIP, and MIPVU, may lack sensitivity when analyzing prepositional metaphors (Falck & Okonski 2023: 4–6). To address this, they developed the Procedure for Identifying Metaphorical Scenes (PIMS), which focuses on the scenes evoked by prepositional constructions in discourse (Falck & Okonski: 2023: 4). PIMS starts by defining the relevant scene scope based on the study's goals. For instance, Falck & Okonski (2023: 5–6) analyzed metaphorical relationships expressed by the preposition *into* and focused specifically on the motion concept conveyed by *into relations*. PIMS then assesses whether the scene can be directly understood through our bodily experiences (non-metaphorical) or requires comprehension through another type of experience (metaphorical) (Falck & Okonski: 2023: 6). Real-world scenes (e.g. “*ladle soup into bowls*”) are typically directly understood, while abstract scenes (e.g. “*my identity was cracking into pieces*”) often require indirect understanding (Falck & Okonski: 2023: 6–8). Finally, if the scene's meaning relies on a different experience than the literal one it depicts, the analyst identifies it as metaphorical (Falck & Okonski: 2023: 7). Overall, PIMS offers a reliable and potentially more sensitive method for analyzing prepositional metaphors. This makes it particularly useful for researchers whose studies focus on prepositions, whether used as a standalone procedure or in combination with MIP/MIPVU (Falck & Okonski: 2023: 19).

3.2 Linguistic Metaphor Identification in Learner English

The identification of metaphors in learner English is crucial to research metaphorical language production, analyze metaphoric errors in L2, and find the influence of L1 on these errors. As Broughton et al. (2003: 116) point out, learners of English as a foreign language often encounter the following key difficulties in writing: mechanical problems with the script of English, issues

with grammatical and lexical accuracy, challenges in adapting writing style to specific contexts, and struggles in fluently expressing thoughts. Consequently, these errors present greater challenges for identifying metaphors in learner English compared to native English texts.

Ideally, learner English texts should undergo proofreading and correction by a native English speaker analyst before conducting the metaphor identification procedure. When proofreading learner texts, researchers have flexibility in how they handle erroneous lexical units. Options include analyzing the intended word (if inferable), analyzing the incorrect word as written, or excluding them from the analysis (Nacey 2013: 119). Also, researchers can choose between a strict approach, where any non-native-like phraseology is labelled as an error, or a lenient one, where non-native expressions are accepted (Littlemore et al. 2014: 124). This choice should carefully align with the specific research aims. A strict approach risks overlooking subtle metaphors hidden within non-standard phrasing. In contrast, a lenient approach allows researchers to investigate creative language use but potentially comes at the cost of misinterpreting non-native-like phraseology. Importantly, researchers should clearly explain and justify their chosen approach for transparency and to facilitate comparison between studies.

3.2.1 A Case Study Based on the Georgian EFL Essay Corpus

This section introduces a case study where both the MIV and MIPVU methodologies are applied to a corpus of Georgian EFL essays. Through this case study, a comprehensive comparison of the two methodologies was conducted, which allowed for a detailed evaluation of their effectiveness and the results they can yield. MIPVU was compared to MIV, rather than to other methods, because MIV is the earliest developed and foundational metaphor identification procedure and is still frequently used by researchers in related studies. It is noteworthy that this case study is part of broader research that examines the production of metaphorical language in learner English and is described in Chapters Four and Five. The Georgian EFL argumentative essay corpus was compiled specifically for that larger-scale research and includes essays written by Georgian learners with varying proficiency levels in English. For the present case study, a subset of essays at the B2 level was selected, and two inter-raters were involved in analyzing the essays at this level.

In further detail, the Georgian EFL argumentative essay corpus for this case study consists of 16 essays authored by Georgian learners of English, all of whom achieved the B2 level of

English proficiency based on the *Oxford Placement Test* results. Among the participants, there were seven males and nine females, all 18 years of age and in their final year of high school. The essays, which varied in length from 115 to 270 words, collectively amounted to 2787 words and were selected for their variety of argumentative topics. The essays were composed in a classroom setting under teacher supervision, with participants instructed to handwrite their responses. Following the completion of the writing task, the essays underwent meticulous transcription into MS Word format to preserve original errors and prevent the introduction of new ones. This approach guarantees the authenticity of the original essays and facilitates an accurate examination of the linguistic features present in the corpus. Subsequently, an automated part-of-speech tagging procedure, namely the CLAWS (Constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-tagging System), was utilized to tag lexical units within the text, which were then organized into electronic spreadsheets with each unit assigned its corresponding part-of-speech tag.

3.2.2 Application of MIV

The application of the MIV methodology involved two key steps. Initially, each essay in the Georgian EFL corpus was thoroughly examined to identify potential Vehicle terms, i.e., words or phrases within the discourse that deviate noticeably from the surrounding language and indicate metaphorical usage. The second step was to determine whether there is a transfer of meaning from the Vehicle term to the Topic domain. For example, while reading sentence (1), the verb *spend* caught attention due to its deviation from the surrounding context, which led to the identification of *spend some time* as a metaphor. Here, *time* operates as the topic domain, while *spend* is the Vehicle term. The transfer of meaning is demonstrated through the portrayal of time as a valuable resource that can be utilized, similar to the expenditure of money.

(1) I wasn't able to see my classmates and *spend* some time together.

The results obtained by MIV can be utilized to provide a quantitative overview of linguistic metaphors in discourse, including measures such as metaphor density, i.e., frequency, the reuse rate of metaphors, and the distribution of metaphors by different linguistic forms and word classes (Cameron 2003: 86–87). Following Cameron's (2003: 86) instructions, the metaphor density of the Georgian EFL corpus was calculated by dividing the total number of identified Vehicle terms, 151, by the total number of words in the corpus, 2787, and then multiplying the amount by 100, which resulted in a density of 5.4 Vehicle terms per 100 words. Metaphor density is particularly

noteworthy when compared across different types of discourse, such as varying levels of language proficiency, native vs. non-native writing, and spoken vs. written corpora.

To further investigate patterns of metaphor usage in the corpus, the reuse rate of metaphors was calculated. This metric, which indicates how frequently existing Vehicle terms are repeated or re-employed within texts, was determined following Cameron's (2003: 87) approach. Initially, the type-token ratio was calculated by dividing the total number of unique Topic-Vehicle combinations, 139, by the total number of Vehicle term instances, 151, which yielded a ratio of approximately 0.92. This ratio was then inverted to obtain the reuse rate (1 divided by 0.92), resulting in approximately 1.09. This suggests that, on average, each Vehicle term appears once in the Georgian EFL corpus, which indicates a lack of tendency to reuse metaphors. Direct comparisons to metaphor reuse rates in learner corpora are currently unavailable due to the lack of research. Cameron's (2003: 87) analysis of native English-speaking primary school student discourse offers a contrasting perspective, which reveals a metaphor reuse figure of 2 and suggests a tendency to repeat metaphorical expressions. Further research is needed to explore whether the metaphor reuse rate varies across different linguistic contexts.

The subsequent step was to demonstrate a distinct pattern of metaphor production across diverse linguistic forms and word classes. As shown in Table 3.2, metaphors that feature single verbs as Vehicle terms are the most prevalent, followed closely by those that involve prepositional phrases and verb phrases.

Linguistic form of Vehicle term	Number of metaphors using this form	% of total metaphors
single verb	40	26.5
prepositional phrase	29	19.2
verb phrase	24	15.9
single noun	15	9.9
single adjective	15	9.9
preposition	15	9.9
phrasal verb	8	5.3
noun phrase	4	2.6
single adverb	1	0.7
Total	151	

Table 3.2 Metaphor distribution across various linguistic forms

The predominance of verbs and prepositions as metaphors becomes even more apparent when the results are presented by the word class of Vehicle terms, as depicted in Table 3.3. It underlines that verb metaphors make up nearly half of the total identified metaphors and account for 47.7%, with prepositional metaphors following at 29.1%.

Word class of Vehicle term	Number of metaphors	% of total metaphors
verb metaphors	72	47.7
prepositional metaphors	44	29.1
nominal metaphors	19	12.6
adjectival metaphors	15	9.9
adverb metaphors	1	0.7
Total	151	

Table 3.3 Metaphor distribution by word class of Vehicle terms

The categorization of metaphors into other subtypes that are proposed by Cameron (2003: 75), may not always be feasible or optimal, depending on the type of discourse and the research objectives. This highlights the need for researchers to tailor categorization methods to the specific discourse type and acknowledge that certain metaphor types might be less prevalent in learner corpora. In the context of this study, identifying strong metaphors, technical metaphors, animating metaphors, or comparison metaphors was not the most suitable approach. The identification of strong metaphors was not possible, as it requires the involvement of more than two inter-raters in the analysis. Technical metaphors were also absent from the current corpus since the essays were not focused on subject-specific technical matters but rather on general social topics. The remaining subcategories of animating metaphors (e.g. *the opportunity knocks*; *Teams just crashed*) and comparison metaphors (e.g. *a guest should be treated like somebody sent from the God*) were infrequent, with eight and one instances, respectively. In contrast, the majority of the metaphors identified in the current corpus were related to discourse organization (e.g. *In a nutshell*; *In my point of view*), evaluative function (e.g. *precious time*; *pure luck*), and dramatic effect (e.g. *the pandemic will be defeated*; *the kids often fall into hysterics*).

Drawing broad comparisons regarding metaphor types in learner corpora can be challenging due to the inconsistency in how metaphor subtypes are defined and categorized across studies. Nevertheless, the prevalence of discourse organizing and evaluative metaphors in the Georgian B2

learner essays aligns with the findings of Littlemore et al. (2014). Their study examined the functions performed by metaphors in essays written by Greek and German learners of English across proficiency levels from A2 to C2 and found that learners at the B2 level begin to use metaphors with an evaluative function more frequently, often combining them with metaphors that serve discourse organizing or positioning functions (Littlemore et al. 2014: 132–133).

3.2.3 Application of MIPVU

According to the MIPVU methodology, the procedure began with a thorough examination of the entire text to ensure a full understanding of the essays. The next phase required identifying lexical units in the text with the help of CLAWS, an automated procedure for part-of-speech tagging. The most important step was to establish the fundamental and contextual senses of individual lexical units through dictionary definitions. If the contextual meaning differed from the basic one, the lexical unit was identified as an indirect MRW, as illustrated in (2).

(2) *Spend*

Contextual meaning: MD¹⁵ 2 ‘to stay somewhere or do something for a period of time’.

Basic meaning: MD 1 ‘to use money to pay for things’.

Does the contextual sense contrast with the basic sense, and can it be understood by comparison with it? Yes

Decision: Indirect MRW

The analysis utilized both the printed and online editions of the *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*, along with the online *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. Additionally, the VUAMC served as a reference for further validation of the MRWs.

As is common in learner writing, the Georgian EFL essays contained a number of linguistic errors. To guarantee the validity of the error identification, a native English speaker with proofreading expertise carefully reviewed the essays. For error identification, a lenient approach was adopted; therefore, non-native-like expressions were not labelled as errors. In line with MIPVU guidelines, erroneous lexical units that were incomplete or lacked enough context for a clear interpretation were labelled as DFMA (Discarded For Metaphor Analysis).

¹⁵ *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*.

A thorough examination of 2787 lexical units revealed 304 instances of indirect MRWs, only two instances of direct MRWs, and no occurrences of implicit MRWs. This finding suggests that Georgian learners of English predominantly employ indirect metaphors. While MIPVU offers the advantage of identifying additional metaphor types, a comparative analysis of all three types might require a significantly larger corpus. This is due to the potential scarcity of direct and implicit MRWs in learner texts.

The metaphor density was calculated by dividing the number of indirect MRWs, 304, by the total number of lexical units in the corpus, 2787, and then multiplying the result by 100. This yielded a density of 10.9 metaphors per 100 lexical units. The metaphor density of 10.9% in the Georgian B2 learner essays is consistent with Littlemore et al.'s (2014) findings, who also used a MIPVU-based analysis. Their study revealed metaphor densities of 9.9% in essays written by Greek B2 learners of English and a slightly higher density of 11.6% for German learners of English at the same proficiency level (Littlemore et al. 2014: 125–127).

Notably, the density of metaphors identified through MIPVU is nearly twice as high as that observed using MIV. This difference suggests that MIPVU uncovers a wider range of metaphorical language and potentially includes more subtle or less conventional metaphors. For example, MIV often overlooked metaphorical uses of prepositions (e.g. *in*; *on*; *about*; *from*), delexicalized verbs (e.g. *have*; *take*; *give*; *make*), and demonstratives (e.g. *this*; *that*; *these*; *those*), while MIPVU successfully detected them.

To calculate the metaphor reuse rate, the type-token ratio was first determined by dividing the number of unique MRWs, 132, by the total number of indirect MRWs, 304. This yielded a ratio of approximately 0.43. Inverting this ratio (1 divided by 0.43) resulted in an approximate reuse rate of 2.3. This suggests that, on average, each metaphorical expression appears more than twice and demonstrates a tendency towards metaphor reuse within the corpus. Among the reused MRWs, prepositions and delexicalized verbs dominate. The most frequently reused include the preposition *in* (e.g. *in the morning*; *in the future*), followed by the preposition *on* (e.g. *go on vacation*; *based on his or her personality*), and the delexicalized verb *have* (e.g. *have a chance*; *have fun*).

Again, a notable contrast arises when comparing metaphor reuse rates calculated using MIPVU-based and MIV-based methods for the Georgian EFL corpus. The MIPVU approach reveals an inclination toward repetition, whereas the MIV-based calculation implies a scarcity of

metaphor reuse. This discrepancy can be explained by the core differences between MIV and MIPVU. MIV's focus on Vehicle terms, which can span multiple words, likely results in a smaller set of metaphorical units. Conversely, MIPVU's focus on single-word MRWs leads to the identification of more potentially smaller metaphorical units. This difference in the size and scope of identified metaphors directly impacts the calculated density and reuse rates. This difference between the two methods did not pose a practical problem during the analysis, as the purpose of each method was clearly defined and applied separately. The observed discrepancy in reuse rates derived from both methods suggests that future research could employ MIV when the focus is on conceptual metaphor reuse, and MIPVU when the aim is to capture a broader range of metaphorical expressions at the lexical level.

To gain even deeper insights, it is worthwhile to closely examine the specific types of metaphors being reused. This analysis was only feasible for indirect MRWs identified by MIPVU, as MIV-identified Vehicle terms did not reveal distinctive patterns in metaphor reuse. Table 3.4 illustrates the distribution of reused MRWs across word classes, where prepositions emerged as the clear majority (46.5%) of reused MRWs. This indicates a strong reliance on preposition-based metaphorical expressions among Georgian learners of English, while other word classes play a lesser role in the reuse rate.

Word class	Number of reused MRWs	% of reused MRWs
Prepositions	80	46.5
Verbs	51	29.7
Nouns	13	7.6
Determiners	12	6.9
Adjectives	11	6.4
Adverbs	5	2.9
Total	172	

Table 3.4 Reused MRWs across word classes

Furthermore, analyzing the word class distribution of metaphors across a corpus can offer additional insights into patterns of metaphorical language use. This analysis is compatible with Steen et al.'s (2010: 201–202) approach to metaphor categorization into word classes. They organize metaphors into seven major word classes, along with an additional Remainder category for lexical units that do not fit standard classifications, such as articles, numbers, and existential

there. Table 3.5 illustrates the word class classification of indirect MRWs identified in the Georgian EFL corpus.

Word class	Number of MRWs	% of MRWs
Preposition	111	36.5
Verb	75	24.7
Noun	69	22.7
Adjective	22	7.2
Adverb	14	4.6
Determiner	13	4.3
Conjunction	0	0
Remainder	0	0
Total	304	

Table 3.5 MRWs across word classes

Prepositions exhibit the highest frequency and constitute 36.5% of MRWs, followed by verbs at 24.7% and nouns at 22.7%. This finding aligns with Nacey’s (2013: 146–147) MIPVU-based analysis of the Norwegian component of the International Corpus of Learner English, where prepositions also emerged as the most metaphorically prevalent word class, followed by verbs and nouns. The essays in this corpus were written by Norwegian B2-C1 learners of English. Other studies analyzing learner English essays, such as Littlemore et al. (2014) and Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska (2017), focus on the broader categorization of metaphors into open-class (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs) and closed-class (prepositions, adverbials, determiners) rather than detailed word class analysis. Notably, both studies found a higher proportion of closed-class metaphors, which consist primarily of prepositions, at the B2 level compared to the more advanced C1 and C2 levels (Littlemore et al. 2014:127–128; Iaroslavtseva & Skorczynska 2017: 55). Therefore, it can be implied that prepositions play a particularly prominent role in metaphorical language production among English language learners, especially at the upper-intermediate level. This prominence suggests that prepositions may be a fruitful area for further research using methods like PIMS to identify specific patterns in learners’ metaphorical use of prepositions.

When comparing the word class categories of metaphors identified by MIV (Table 3.3) and MIPVU (Table 3.5), they show differing distributions. Nevertheless, prepositions, verbs, and nouns consistently emerge as the top three categories in both methods. While verb metaphors predominate in MIV-identified Vehicle terms (nearly half of the total), a more even distribution emerges with

MIPVU. This difference likely stems from the methods' differing approaches. MIV's focus on Vehicle terms might lead to the identification of primarily conventional, easily noticeable metaphors, many of which are verb-based. Conversely, MIPVU's broader criteria and reliance on dictionary definitions might result in capturing a wider range of metaphors, including more implicit prepositional forms. This highlights the impact of methodology on the types of metaphors identified and their subsequent classification.

3.2.4 Evaluating MIV and MIPVU Outcomes

Through a case study of the Georgian EFL essay corpus, it was possible to illustrate the distinct results obtained by utilizing both the MIV and MIPVU methodologies for a thorough analysis of metaphor production in learner English. MIV proved to be a time-efficient approach that properly identified conventional and easily noticeable metaphors. MIPVU, on the other hand, emerged as a more meticulous approach and successfully identified a wider range of metaphorical language, including more subtle and implicit instances of metaphorical word use. If we compare the metaphor density and reuse rates between MIV and MIPVU results, it becomes evident that MIPVU yields higher density and reuse rates. This difference can be attributed to the differing approaches of MIV and MIPVU in identifying metaphorical units. MIPVU's focus on single lexical unit MRWs captures more metaphorical instances and results in higher density and reuse rates. Based on the MIV outcomes, nearly half of the total identified metaphors were verb-based, followed by prepositional metaphors. Conversely, MIPVU results revealed that prepositional metaphors were used the most frequently, followed by verbs and nouns. Despite the differences in methods, prepositions, verbs, and nouns were consistently the most frequent metaphorical word classes across both methods. It is important to acknowledge that the relatively small size of the Georgian EFL essay corpus limits the generalizability of findings, particularly with regard to the identification of direct and implicit metaphors. Moreover, focusing solely on B2 proficiency provides information on language use at that level but does not reflect the progression of metaphor production. To address these limitations, future research could benefit from larger and more varied corpora and an increased number of analysts.

3.3 Summary of Chapter 3

Chapter Three started by comparing the theoretical foundations and practical applications of major linguistic metaphor identification procedures. It further explored the potential to combine or adapt these frameworks to suit specific research designs and objectives within metaphor research. The chapter addressed the challenges of identifying metaphors, the role of the researcher, and the limitations of existing methodologies, all of which correspond to the secondary research objective of this dissertation.

A case study of the Georgian EFL essay corpus demonstrated that the MIPVU is the most comprehensive and precisely defined procedure, which makes it an appropriate methodology for investigating metaphors in learner English. Accordingly, MIPVU was adopted in this study as the means of metaphor identification. The next step in this work involved identifying metaphors in the main corpus of the present dissertation using the MIPVU methodology. Importantly, this choice ensures comparability with other studies that use MIPVU for learner English data (see, for example, Nacey 2013; Littlemore et al. 2014; Turner 2014; Iaroslavtseva & Skorczynska 2017). The detailed results of this identification process, along with their implications, will be presented and discussed in Chapters Four and Five.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA AND METHODOLOGY¹⁶

4.0 Introduction

Chapters Two and Three have provided a concise yet substantial overview of the theoretical foundation for this study. This foundation encompasses both the theoretical underpinnings of linguistic metaphor, particularly within the L2 context, and practical considerations such as metaphor identification procedures. The present chapter provides a detailed account of the data and methodology used in this dissertation. To ensure clarity, each section of this chapter addresses a distinct step within the data collection procedure and research methodology, presented chronologically.

The first section details the participant selection process and the essay writing task that generated the data for this study. This is followed by an explanation of how the Georgian EFL essay corpus was compiled. Next, the procedure used to identify and categorize errors within the corpus is outlined. The chapter then briefly discusses the metaphor identification procedure adopted in this study, as it was already covered extensively in the previous chapter. Throughout these steps, emphasis is placed on the measures taken to ensure the validity and reliability of both the corpus compilation and the subsequent analytical methodology. The chapter concludes by exploring the types of metaphors identified within the corpus and the methods used to collect evidence of potential crosslinguistic L1 influence.

4.1 Data Collection Procedure

The aim of data collection procedure was to compile the Georgian EFL essay corpus, consisting of argumentative essays written by 60 Georgian learners of English, evenly distributed with 20 essays from each of the B1, B2, and C1 proficiency levels. Since there were no other existing Georgian EFL essay corpora available, this corpus was specifically compiled for this study to ensure both the reliability and authenticity of the written samples. In line with the methodological considerations for authentic written sample collection outlined in Chapter 2, Section 2.5, the collected argumentative essays comprise a corpus of 10250 lexical units. The essay corpus was compiled in two phases. The first phase, conducted in 2022, involved collecting B1 and B2 level

¹⁶ Some parts of this chapter are slightly modified versions of my publications (Narimanishvili 2023, 2024a), which were written concurrently with my dissertation.

essays from high school students. In the second phase, conducted in 2023, C1 level essays were collected from university students.

4.1.1 Participants

The B1 and B2 level essays used in this study were written by 40 Georgian learners of English who achieved B1 and B2 proficiency levels based on the *Oxford Placement Test* results. These participants, consisting of 17 males and 23 females, were all 17 or 18 years old and in their final year of Georgian public high school. The C1 level essays were written by 20 Georgian learners of English who attained C1 proficiency levels according to the *Oxford Placement Test* results. This group was between 19 and 20 years old, with 2 males and 18 females, who were first-year BA students at a Georgian public university. While the high school participants exhibited a relatively even gender distribution, the BA student group consisted mostly of females. This discrepancy is attributed to the circumstance that the BA students were enrolled in the English Language and Literature program, a field that typically has fewer male students. All participants were native Georgian speakers and had studied English as a foreign language for a minimum of six years, which ensured that they had relatively similar experiences with the English language. The participants' background data are summarized in Table 4.1 below.

Participants	Number	Male	Female	Mean age	Mean years of learning English	Proficiency level
High school students	40	17	23	18	6	B1 or B2
University students	20	2	18	19	7	C1

Table 4.1 Participants' background data

4.1.2 Proficiency Test

Proficiency levels were assessed using the *Oxford Placement Test*, a reliable computer-adaptive English language assessment test for non-native speakers, which evaluates proficiency across CEFR levels from Pre-A1 to C2. The test was administered under the supervision of a teacher in the high school setting and an instructor in the university setting. This paid test comprises two sections: Use of English, which assesses grammar and vocabulary, and Listening, which evaluates listening skills. The testing option included a mix of 50% British and 50% American English. The

computer-adaptive technology provides more precise results than traditional placement tests and is automatically marked with instant results upon completion, which typically takes between 45 minutes and an hour. The *Oxford Placement Test* was administered to 72 students across both high school and university phases. However, to ensure a sufficient sample size for meaningful comparisons between proficiency levels, only test scores within the B1, B2, and C1 range were included in the final analysis. Scores that fell outside this range (A2) were excluded due to the limited number of participants in that category.

4.1.3 Essay Writing Task

The essay writing task was carried out in a school/university setting under the supervision of a teacher/instructor, with a one-hour time limit. I provided the teacher/instructor with a list of essay topics and a writing task, which required participants to handwrite their essays to prevent the use of spelling and grammar correction features found in word processing software. Students were instructed to express their viewpoints on a variety of social and moral issues and to support their arguments with reasons and examples in essays with a word count of 150-200 words. The essay titles included thought-provoking questions like “Should animals be kept in zoos?” and “Can money buy happiness?”. To avoid any bias or influence of the title on the frequency of figurative language use, previous studies on L2 learners’ natural texts have also included essays that cover various social topics rather than a single topic. For instance, Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska’s (2017) study analyzed essays written on “college”, “parents’ role”, “public transport”, etc.

4.1.4 Ethical Considerations

This study adheres to ethical principles for corpus creation and discourse analysis. While informed consent is typically obtained prior to data collection, in this case, participants were initially unaware that their writing would be used for research purposes. The justification is to minimize participant burden and avoid bias in the writing task by not revealing the research purposes beforehand. This is especially important for metaphorical language use, which could be influenced if participants know about the research focus.

Referring back to Chapter 2, Section 2.5, in relation to learner corpora, the concept of ‘authenticity’ is linked to data originating from genuine classroom tasks (Granger 2002: 4). I explained to the teacher/instructor that the writing task should be a classroom-based activity, the

most common form of writing assessment practice in Georgia. During the first phase of data collection, high school students wrote essays as part of their classroom activity, preparing for university entrance exams that included writing argumentative essays. In the second phase, university students wrote essays during their Academic Writing class, which included argumentative essay composition and aligned with their regular coursework. Similarly, the students took the proficiency test not as part of the research but to check their proficiency levels in order to avoid any additional stress.

After completing the essay task, all participants received detailed information about the research and provided consent for their essays to be used in compiling the Georgian EFL essay corpus. During the entire data preparation and analysis process, the personal information of participants was not disclosed to anyone not involved in the study, and students were not judged according to their individual writing abilities.

4.2 Constructing the Georgian EFL Essay Corpus: Preparation for Error & Metaphor Analysis

The essays were handwritten to prevent the participants from using the spelling and grammar correction functions of a word processing software program. Subsequently, the essays were carefully transcribed into MS Word format to preserve the original mistakes and to prevent the introduction of any additional errors.

In preparing the essay corpus for error and metaphor analysis, a systematic strategy was used to ensure that data representation is accurate. Therefore, the essays were stored in electronic spreadsheets including information about each lexical unit, such as part-of-speech tags, error types, and metaphoricity. Lexical units in the essays were labeled using an automated annotation procedure for part-of-speech tagging. Specifically, the CLAWS (Constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-tagging System) tagger for English was used.¹⁷

This compilation resulted in a learner academic corpus where each essay represents the individual work of a different student. The corpus was intentionally maintained in its original, raw form, without any lemmatization or alterations to its grammatical and structural linguistic elements.

¹⁷ <https://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/claws/>

A sample essay is presented in its authentic handwritten form in Appendix A. Appendix B shows the same essay transcribed into MS Word format with corrections from the native speaker analyst, while Appendix C illustrates how it is stored in electronic spreadsheets.

4.3 Error Identification and Categorization Procedure

This section expands on the theoretical framework for L2 error analysis established in Chapter 2, Section 2.6. It explores how this framework is applied practically in the current study. It elaborates on the role of the native speaker analyst, the criteria for error identification, the specific error categories identified, and the distribution of these error categories within the corpus. Additionally, a breakdown of how these error categories are distributed in the corpus will be provided.

4.3.1 Error Identification by English Native Speaker Analyst

The error identification and correction procedure was carried out by an English native speaker analyst, which ensures authentic proofreading practice, as native proficiency enhances error correction reliability. The analyst is from London, UK, and has extensive experience in professional proofreading and editing. I provided her with the essays in MS Word format for ease of proofreading, commenting, and reviewing.

As a follow-up step, I discussed the corrected essays with her and provided her with constructive written feedback on the lexical items that were problematic or needed further clarification. The feedback mainly focused on avoiding any substantial rewriting where possible, and it did not influence the native speaker's decision-making on the whole.

4.3.2 Error Identification Criteria

From the various error correction practices described in Chapter 2, Section 2.6.1, the most advantageous correction procedure was adopted. This procedure is based on a generous criterion where non-native-like expressions are not considered errors. The strict criterion would generate numerous erroneous items that may be non-native or not natural but are otherwise grammatically and semantically correct.

On the other hand, corpus-based correction was not adopted because it would complicate the process. It is challenging to determine how many corpus concordances are necessary to decide whether a certain collocation belongs to native-like or non-native-like phraseology, and subsequently, whether it is an error or not. The reason why a corpus does not contain any instance of a word or phrase could be either that it is an error or the fact that, generally, all corpora are limited to a certain number of words, and they are not all-encompassing.

The generous criterion used in this study also considers the role of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). According to Seidlhofer (2009), as cited by Nacey (2013: 166), ELF speakers prefer to use easily comprehensible expressions to ensure effective communication; as a result, their wording differs from authentic and conventional native English. Therefore, to ensure successful communication between different L1 speakers in the international environment, it is more appropriate to use ELF rather than native British or American English, which involves numerous confusing culture-specific idioms and collocations. Consequently, non-native-like expressions in the Georgian essay corpus are marked as errors only if they are grammatically or semantically incorrect, while other minor deviations from standard English norms are not marked as erroneous.

4.3.3 Error Categories in the Georgian EFL Essay Corpus

As outlined in Chapter 2, Section 2.6.2, error categorization is a necessary step in error analysis and involves the classification of errors into different types. To ensure a thorough analysis of errors, this study employs Nacey's (2010) error classification system, drawing upon James's (1998) typology. The errors were categorized into six major groups, suitable for both general and L1-influenced error classification. The categories, along with their definitions and examples, are presented in Table 4.2. Type 6 errors will be addressed in the following section, where some problematic cases are discussed.

Type	Name	Definition	Example
1	Synforms	Phonetic near-misses which share semantic features.	<i>*economical/economic</i>
2	Confusion of sense relations	The selection of an inappropriate member from a set of near-synonyms.	<i>*detect/notice</i>
3	Collocation errors	Semantically determined word selections, statistically weighted preferences, and arbitrary combinations.	<i>*to <u>do</u> capital punishment/to <u>carry out</u> capital punishment</i>
4	Grammatical errors	Errors in syntax, use of tense, pluralization, articles, and suffixation.	<i>*persons/people</i>
5	Substance level errors	Misspelling errors resulting from punctuation, oversight, mispronunciation, or confusibles.	<i>*<u>joint</u> forces/<u>joined</u> forces</i>
6	Phrasal errors	The whole phrase/word sequence is incorrect and requires multiple corrections or total replacement.	<i>*are not less in crime percentages/do not have lower crime rates</i>

Table 4.2 Error categories in the Georgian EFL essay corpus

4.3.4 Some Problematic Cases of Error Categorization

The Georgian EFL essay corpus contains several errors that are not easy to classify since they do not fit easily into Nacey's (2010, 2013) or James's (1998) error taxonomy. Some errors involve the substitution of a phrase by a native speaker with another phrase and result in a change in the original wording. For example, *from the recent cases* in (1) was replaced by the native speaker analyst with another phrase *just in recent times alone*. The difficulty arises when one must decide between word-for-word correspondences in the correction process. There can be two solutions: to match a word with a word within the phrase or to introduce an additional error category. If we apply the word-to-word approach, we will have the following matching pairs: "from" - "in", "the" - article addition, "recent" - "recent", "cases" - "times". The pairs end up being misleading because in the original phrase "from" or "the" collocate with "cases", but they become errors when "cases" is replaced with "times". The second solution, which I use in my study, is to introduce a new type of error, called phrasal error or word sequence error, which shows that the whole phrase is incorrect.

- (1) *From the recent cases, I **can remember** Coronavirus and war situation.*¹⁸

In sentence (1), *can remember* was replaced by *have seen*, which is also hard to fit into any error category since the words are not closely related. We cannot put it in the category of synforms because they are not semantically similar phonetic near-misses. It does not fit in the category of confusion of sense relations, either, because they are not near-synonyms. It would be more appropriate to refer to it as a sequence/phrasal error, as one verb phrase was replaced by another. The following are further instances of correcting whole phrases or word sequences: in (2), *had home office* was corrected as *worked from home*. In (3), *to continue with* was replaced by *moving on to*. In (4), *are not less in* was replaced with *do not have lower*. Each of these is classified as Type 6 errors.

- (2) Another hard moment was that, everybody ***had home office*** or had salary without working, so-called beneficiary help.
- (3) ***To continue with*** cons, in online classes there was not any physical interaction with classmates and group-works were not possible.
- (4) ...countries which still have capital punishment ***are not less in*** crime percentages compared to other countries.

With the introduction of the phrasal error, another difficulty arises in the metaphor identification process, according to the MIPVU protocol. Nacey (2013: 119) takes the view that the principal approach of MIPVU focuses on word-to-word matches and sense comparison of the intended word with the produced single lexical unit. However, the problematic cases illustrated above clearly require the introduction of type 6 phrasal errors since word-to-word matching cannot be applied. Several approaches could be proposed to deal with the metaphoricity of phrasal errors, each with its positive and negative features. The most straightforward but certainly unproductive solution is to simply exclude phrasal errors from metaphorical categorization. On the other hand, we could exclude such phrases from metaphorical categorization that contain both metaphorically used and non-metaphorically used words. A further option that is worth considering is to mark a phrase as metaphorical if most of the words in it are metaphorical. The most reliable and productive

¹⁸ All the example sentences provided in this chapter are presented in their authentic form, preserving their original spelling and punctuation.

approach, in my view, is to mark the whole phrase as metaphorical if at least one content word (i.e., noun, verb, adjective, or adverb) in the phrase is considered metaphorical according to the MIPVU protocol. In (2) above, *had home office* is labelled as a metaphorical phrasal error because the verb *had* is an indirect metaphor.

4.4 Metaphor Identification in the Georgian EFL Essay Corpus

Motivated by the comprehensive explanation of the MIPVU methodology in Chapter 3, Section 3.1.4, and the practical illustration provided by the case study in Section 3.2.1, this study applies the MIPVU procedure for metaphor identification within the Georgian EFL essay corpus.

To maximize the reliability of metaphor identification, this study utilized a two-phase approach for inter-rater reliability. In the first phase, with a focus on essays at the B1 and B2 proficiency levels, two independent raters, including the study author, participated in the metaphor identification process. The second rater was Dr. Attila Cserép, a linguist specializing in metaphor research with experience in the MIPVU identification procedure. Initially, the raters analyzed the same texts individually and then compared their results. Discrepancies were addressed in several discussions that took place regularly after completing each segment of the data analysis. During these discussions, agreement was reached on particular lexical units that either of the raters found challenging or classified differently. In cases where agreement could not be reached, the lexical unit was placed in the WIDLII (When In Doubt, Leave It In) category. Table 4.3 illustrates the inter-rater reliability procedure and the outcomes from both phases.

Phase	No. of lexical units	Methodology	No. of Reclassified Units	No. of WIDLII Cases	Inter-Rater Agreement (%)
Phase 1: B1-B2 Essays	6601	Two raters	35	2	99.4%
Phase 2: C1 Essays	3649	One rater	N/A	0	N/A

Table 4.3 Results of inter-rater reliability procedure

Specifically, following the discussions, 37 out of 6601 lexical units were reclassified, representing 0.6% of the total material. Of these 37 units, 19 were initially classified as non-MRW and were reclassified into the MRW category, 16 were changed from MRW to non-MRW, and in 2 cases where agreement could not be reached, the units were placed in the WIDLII category.

For example, there were four instances where one rater initially classified the verb *reduce* as non-MRW. However, after discussion, it was reclassified as indirect MRW because its basic meaning in the *Macmillan Dictionary*, ‘to make a sauce thicker and increase its flavor by boiling it’, contrasts with its contextual meaning, ‘to make something smaller or less in size, amount, or importance’.

On the other hand, there were two cases where one of the raters classified the verb *guarantee* as indirect MRW. However, after discussion, it was reclassified as non-MRW since its basic meaning in the *Macmillan Dictionary*, ‘to make it certain that something will happen or exist’, does not contrast with its contextual meaning, ‘used for saying that something will definitely happen’.

Regarding the two cases where agreement could not be reached, they involved the lexical units *world* in example (5) and *today* in example (6):

(5) We should all do our part to make sure the world is safe for our children.

(6) In today’s situation, online classes are very actual topic.

In (5), one rater coded *world* as indirect MRW, interpreting it as metaphorically representing *society*. The other rater acknowledged its metaphorical aspect but also saw it as a combination of both metaphor and metonymy. In this interpretation, *world* could be understood as a metonymy, where the *planet* stands for its *inhabitants*. However, the overlap between metaphor and metonymy made it difficult to classify the word definitively. Consequently, it was placed in the WIDLII category.

In (6), one rater interpreted *today* as indirect MRW, where it represents the current era or moment. The other rater, however, recognized that *today* could also function as a metonymy, standing for the broader concept of the *present period*. Due to this ambiguity and the overlap between metaphor and metonymy, it was also placed in the WIDLII category.

In the second phase, during which essays at the C1 level were analyzed, the metaphor identification was carried out by a single rater (the study author). This decision was based on the high level of correspondence observed between the raters in the first phase (99.4%), indicating a consistent application of the methodology. Furthermore, the author’s experience with metaphor identification gained during the first phase contributed to reliable metaphor identification in the second phase. Notably, in both phases, the VUAMC was used as a reference to further validate the problematic MRWs, as explained in Chapter 3, Section 3.1.4.

This approach resembles the practices commonly employed by other researchers in metaphor identification studies, where the attainment of inter-rater reliability is important. However, reliability assurance is not always straightforward, as it often depends on the specific nuances of the research, time constraints, and the unavailability of raters. Therefore, researchers use various approaches to maximize reliability: some employ two or more independent raters, others discuss challenging cases with another analyst, and some conduct multiple rounds of analysis. For instance, Hoang (2015: 52) conducted metaphor identification on 100 essays and had a second rater independently analyze 20 of them. She achieved a 95% agreement rate by discussing differing interpretations with the second rater and then opted to exclude unresolved cases to ensure clarity in the final analysis (Hoang 2015: 52). In a related approach, Littlemore et al. (2014: 122) employed two independent raters to analyze their essay corpus and held meetings to address any discrepancies. When consensus could not be reached, a third team member was introduced, and detailed discussions were conducted until all disagreements were resolved (Littlemore et al. 2014: 122). On the other hand, Turner (2014: 78) conducted two rounds of metaphor identification procedure on her dataset and then discussed the problematic cases with an experienced analyst. Although a specific agreement rate was not reported, the author provided examples of challenging cases, explained the reasons for the difficulties, and documented the final decisions (Turner 2014: 78). In contrast, Nacey (2010, 2013) struggled to find inter-raters willing to analyze her extensive essay corpus. Instead of employing an inter-rater, she chose to reanalyze a subset of four essays two months after her initial coding to check for consistency. Specifically, in her 2010 study, she reclassified only 1.1% of items, and in 2013, she reclassified 1.9%, which indicates a high degree of reliability in her metaphor identification (Nacey 2010: 127, 2013: 117). Based on the practices of the studies discussed above, the high agreement rate (99.4%) obtained in the first phase and the low level of reclassifications made after group discussions (0.6%) are indicative of the reliability of the metaphor identification process. The MIPVU method was applied systematically, and the VUAMC was used as a validation tool for difficult cases in the first phase, thus confirming the decision to use a single-rater approach in the second phase. Along with the compatibility with the previous research practices on metaphor, this approach proves the consistency and accuracy of the method used in this study.

Having discussed the inter-rater reliability, the procedure itself can now be outlined. The procedure began with a thorough examination of the entire text to establish an overall impression of the essay. The subsequent step involved the identification of lexical units within the text,

facilitated by an automated part-of-speech tagging procedure. The following essential phase involved determining the basic and contextual meanings of individual lexical units using dictionaries. Ultimately, when the contextual sense deviated from the basic sense, the lexical unit was identified as metaphorical.

Following Steen et al.'s (2010: 16) recommendation, the analysis employs both the print and online¹⁹ versions of the *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*, supplemented by the online *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. Notably, in the metaphor identification procedure, the default linguistic unit typically comprises a single headword in the dictionary (Pragglejaz Group 2007: 15). However, exceptions apply to phrasal verbs, polywords, and compounds, which are treated as single units due to their nondecomposable meanings. Idioms, on the other hand, are viewed as decomposable, necessitating the analysis of their distinct components as separate lexical items (Pragglejaz Group 2007: 26–27, Steen et al. 2010: 27–31). However, Cserép and Narimanishvili's (2022) analysis suggests that the meaning of certain phrasal verbs is often motivated, which allows for their decomposition into separate lexical units. Additionally, some idioms were identified as either nondecomposable or only partially decomposable. Building on this prior research, the present study approaches idioms and phrasal verbs with consideration of their decomposability.

4.4.1 Types of Metaphors

To align with the metaphor identification methodology, the study aimed to identify three types of metaphors: indirect, direct, and implicit. Below, I will provide examples of metaphor types and additional metaphor tags using samples from the Georgian essay corpus.

An indirect metaphor, considered the most common case of metaphorically used words, involves a linguistic and conceptual level of metaphorical usage, characterized by a contrast between the word's basic and contextual meanings, with the basic sense only indirectly present in its metaphorical use (Steen et al. 2010: 5–6). As much as 99.5% of the metaphors identified in this study belong to the category of indirect metaphors. An instance of an indirect metaphor is shown in (7), where the word *nest* is used to describe a cozy and comfortable home. One of the definitions of *nest* in the *Macmillan Dictionary* describes it as 'a place that is warm, safe, and comfortable',

¹⁹ The online *Macmillan Dictionary* website was discontinued in June 2023.

whereas its clearly contrasting basic sense is defined as ‘a structure that birds make to keep their eggs and babies in’.

(7) We are all individuals and we need time to be on our own, away from our nests.

A direct metaphor refers to metaphorical expressions that are directly expressed through language without a contrast between the contextual meaning and a more basic, non-metaphorical meaning. This form of metaphor includes similes, analogies, and other non-literal comparisons, where words or lexical units are used directly and can be explained through cross-domain mapping to a more basic referent or topic in the text (Steen et al. 2010: 5–6). Notably, direct metaphors constituted only 0.5% of the metaphors identified in this study. For the facilitation of recognizing direct metaphors, Steen et al. (2010: 175) introduce the concept of Metaphor flags (Mflags), which act as lexical cues within a text to aid in identifying direct metaphors. The most frequently encountered Mflags consist of terms such as *like*, *as*, *as if*, and *so-called*. In (8), the noun *prisons* is a direct metaphor, indicated by the Mflag *like*.

(8) Zoos feel like prisons and animals are prisoners without committing crime.

The predominance of indirect metaphors in the corpus may reflect the fact that metaphor is a fundamental and pervasive feature of everyday language. Both native speakers and language learners routinely use conventionalized metaphorical expressions unconsciously, as part of natural language production. In contrast, direct metaphors tend to be less frequent in general usage, and their deliberate, marked nature may make them less accessible or less likely to be employed by learners.

Implicit metaphor entails metaphors marked by anaphoric elements, manifesting through substitution and ellipsis and employing lexical units to convey meaning via cross-domain mapping (Steen et al. 2010: 39–40). However, no instances of implicit metaphors were found in the Georgian essay corpus. The limited occurrences of direct metaphors and the absence of implicit metaphors did not allow for a comprehensive exploration of their usage in this study. Consequently, the research predominantly focused on the abundant indirect metaphors.

To enhance the reliability of metaphor analysis, this study integrates three additional metaphor tags introduced by Steen et al. (2010). The WIDLII tag, which stands for ‘When In Doubt, Leave It In’, is applied to identify ambiguous words that may have both metaphorical and

non-metaphorical meanings (Steen et al. 2010: 33). In this study, only 0.22 % of all lexical units were assigned the WIDLII tag. For example, consider sentence (9), where the noun *world* is defined in Macmillan Dictionary as ‘the planet that we live on’ in its basic meaning, while in the contextual sense, it refers to ‘society in general, in all countries’. The differentiation between the basic and contextual senses of *world* allows it to be perceived as a metaphor; however, it can also function as a metonymy, where *world* stands for ‘all the inhabitants of the world’. Therefore, it received a WIDLII tag.

- (9) Lastly, people who have an interesting job are more likely to make a positive impact on the world.

The DFMA tag, which stands for ‘Discarded For Metaphor Analysis’, is used when lexical units lack context or remain unfinished, making it difficult to determine their precise intended meaning (Steen et al. 2010: 34). Only 0.17% of all lexical units in the study received the DFMA tag. In the following example (10), the intended word behind *instruction* cannot be unequivocally determined, as the author’s usage of *instruction* could potentially refer to *work*, *activities*, *tasks*, *assignments*, *duties*, and so on.

- (10) Banning smoking in office buildings can increase worker productivity. Smokers won’t interrupt their instruction all the time to smoke.

The low frequency of DFMA tags likely reflects the clarity and completeness of the essays, which were written by B1–C2 level learners in a structured, academic context. Given the structured nature of academic writing tasks, there were relatively few instances in which lexical units were incomplete or lacked sufficient context for interpretation. This contrasts with more spontaneous, informal discourse, such as spoken conversation, in which unfinished or fragmented utterances are more common. Such occurrences were rare in the present corpus, most likely owing to the formal written genre and the learners’ language proficiency.

Lastly, the PP tag, which stands for ‘Possible Personification’, is employed to detect potential cases of personification (Steen et al. 2010: 34). It was applied to 0.28% of all lexical units in the study. In sentence (11), the interpretation of the verb *using* is classified under possible personification.

- (11) Many laboratories are using animals.

If we interpret the noun *laboratories* metonymically, considering it to represent the individuals who constitute the laboratories, then the verb *using* is not employed figuratively. However, if we choose to view the *laboratory* as an object capable of applying human abilities, then the verb *using* takes on a metaphorical usage, as its fundamental sense pertains to human-related actions.

4.5 Collecting Evidence of Crosslinguistic L1 Influence

Following the theoretical foundations of crosslinguistic L1 influence established in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.2, the next step involved collecting evidence of such influence within the Georgian EFL essay corpus. The researchers who have conducted production studies examining natural texts have employed a variety of methods to prove that crosslinguistic transfer exists. Nacey (2013: 192, 221–228) used the evidence from a number of bilingual English-Norwegian dictionaries, a corpus of Norwegian L1 writing, and, in addition, the method of reversed translation by two Norwegian linguists. Littlemore et al. (2014: 124), on the other hand, used their own native-speaker knowledge, whereas Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska (2017) do not give data about this matter.

The present study gathers evidence of L1 influence from a range of sources, including bilingual English-Georgian dictionaries and Georgian monolingual and bilingual corpora. Furthermore, Georgian idiomatic expressions are referenced from two primary sources: the *Online Dictionary of Georgian Idioms* and *The Database of Georgian Idioms and Proverbs*. Additionally, the study employs the method of reversed translation and native-speaker intuition.

In addition to the utilization of the abovementioned sources and methods, Gilquin (2008) recommends that researchers take additional measures to identify instances of L1 transfer. While it may initially appear that a learner's linguistic behaviour resembles that of their native language, further investigation could reveal similarities with learners from different linguistic backgrounds (Gilquin 2008: 14). In such cases, the primary explanation is not necessarily L1 influence but rather intralingual factors stemming from the inherent challenges of acquiring a second language. Therefore, examining the interlanguage of the learner in comparison to that of learners from different native language backgrounds should be considered a useful addition (Gilquin 2008: 14).

For instance, a direct comparison between the learners' native language and their interlanguage might initially suggest that the incorrect usage of plural noun *advices* instead of its singular form or *pieces of advice* by Georgian-speaking learners, as seen in example (12), is primarily due to L1 influence. This inference stems from the fact that, unlike English, the Georgian

language permits the pluralization of the noun *advice*. However, upon conducting a more extensive analysis of data produced by learners from various linguistic backgrounds, we discover that the misuse of the noun *advices* is a prevalent characteristic in learner English. Among the 25 L1 backgrounds represented in ICLE, 15 exhibit this same error. While it is not possible to entirely rule out the influence of L1 for Georgian-speaking learners, it appears that intralingual factors predominantly contribute to this issue.

- (12) ...teachers are also needed because they can give us wider knowledge and personalized advices.

4.6 Summary of Chapter 4

This chapter has outlined the methodological design for the present study. It began by detailing the participant selection process and the procedures used to gather the data. The construction of the Georgian EFL essay corpus was then explained, noting that the essays included in the corpus are from different proficiency levels. The next step was to identify and categorize errors within the corpus and to address the inherent challenges in this process. This analysis led to the proposal of a novel error category: the phrasal error. Finally, the chapter addressed considerations for differentiating L1-influenced errors from general learner errors. Having established the methodological foundation in this chapter, the next chapter will present the qualitative and quantitative data analysis, study results, and their discussion.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION²⁰

5.0 Introduction

Chapter Five presents the results of the study and a discussion of the main findings. For clarity, the results are organized by the different stages of the analysis, starting with the quantitative results and followed by the qualitative ones. The chapter is divided into three major sections. Section 5.1 explores measures such as metaphor density, the reuse rate of metaphors, and the distribution of metaphors across different word classes. Section 5.2 focuses on error analysis and scrutinizes metaphorical, non-metaphorical, and L1-influenced errors. Finally, Section 5.3 reports the results of the contrastive analysis of metaphorical errors and L1-influenced errors across three proficiency levels (B1, B2, C1). The chapter concludes by summarizing and connecting the results. Building upon the broader research questions established in Chapter One, this chapter deals with the following specific questions that directly address metaphor production and error analysis in the Georgian EFL corpus:

Metaphor Production:

1. How does metaphor density vary across proficiency levels?
2. How are MRWs (Metaphor-Related Words) distributed across different word classes?
3. How significant are MRW reuse patterns?

Metaphorical Errors:

4. How are errors distributed between metaphorical and non-metaphorical categories?
5. How are metaphorical errors distributed across proficiency levels?
6. What specific categories of metaphorical errors are prevalent at each proficiency level?

L1 Transfer:

7. How are L1-influenced errors distributed across proficiency levels?
8. How does L1 transfer impact learners' metaphorical errors across different proficiency levels?

²⁰ Some parts of this chapter are slightly modified versions of my publications (Narimanishvili 2023, 2024a; Cserép & Narimanishvili 2022), which were written concurrently with my dissertation.

5.1 Metaphor Production Analysis

The initial stage of the metaphor analysis established a quantitative profile of linguistic metaphors within the corpus. This included measures like metaphor density, i.e., frequency, the reuse rate of metaphors, and the distribution of metaphors across different word classes. I examined a total of 10250 lexical units and identified 1132 units as indirect MRWs. Given the limited presence of direct metaphors and the absence of implicit metaphors, the analysis concentrates solely on indirect MRWs, as the other metaphor types could not be fully investigated in this study. For an explanation of the types of metaphors, see Chapter 4, Section 4.4.1. In this chapter, the terms *Metaphor-Related Words (MRWs)*, *metaphors* and *metaphorical words/expressions* will be used interchangeably, unless otherwise specified.

5.1.1 Metaphor Density

As discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.5.1, metaphor density offers essential estimates into how actively L2 learners employ figurative language. Previous research (Littlemore et al. 2014; Nacey 2013; Turner 2014) suggests that a higher metaphor density may reflect both conceptual fluency and linguistic creativity, and, therefore, may be a valuable indicator of advanced second-language proficiency. To determine metaphor density, the number of MRWs is divided by the total number of words in the text, with the result then multiplied by 100 (Littlemore et al. 2014: 122). Following this method, the metaphor density of the Georgian EFL corpus was calculated by dividing the total number of identified MRWs, 1132, by the total number of words in the corpus, 10250, and then multiplying the amount by 100, which resulted in a density of 11%. Overall, the finding that a substantial portion of the text is metaphorical supports earlier research that states that metaphorical language production is not merely ornamental but a prominent aspect of language use. For example, Nacey (2013: 136) found that the Norwegian component of the International Corpus of Learner English had a metaphor density of 18.0%, which was even higher than the 16.7% density observed in the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays. This suggests that EFL learners may use more metaphors than native speakers. Moreover, metaphor density is particularly insightful when examined across proficiency levels, as it reveals potential differences in how learners utilize metaphors at each stage. As indicated in Table 5.1, the highest metaphor density was found at the C1 level (13.3%) and gradually declined at the B2 and B1 levels.

Proficiency level	Number of lexical units	Number of Metaphor-Related Words	Metaphor density
B1	3111	292	9.4%
B2	3490	355	10.2%
C1	3649	485	13.3%
Total	10250	1132	11%

Table 5.1 Metaphoric density across proficiency levels

This trend is consistent with findings from prior research conducted by Littlemore et al. (2014), Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska (2017), and Paris (2018), all of whom observed an increased metaphor density linked to higher proficiency levels. These studies analyzed essays written by German, Spanish, and French speakers of English, respectively.

There is not one definitive answer for why metaphor density increases with proficiency, as it may result from learners knowing more metaphorical expressions, being more creative, or a combination of several factors. Nevertheless, we can pinpoint several interrelated reasons that contribute to increased metaphor density. First, higher-proficiency learners possess a wider vocabulary that includes a broad range of metaphorical expressions, which allows them to produce more metaphors overall. As noted in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.1, Littlemore and Low (2006: 71) emphasize that limited knowledge of the basic senses of words hinders L2 metaphor processing. This obstacle is less significant for advanced learners than for those at intermediate levels. Secondly, advanced learners often have deeper cultural and cognitive knowledge of the target language, which Littlemore and Low (2006: 72–74) identify as one of the key factors in effective metaphor use. Because advanced learners have greater exposure to a wide range of language resources aside from textbooks, such as literature, movies, and songs, they develop a richer repertoire of metaphorical expressions, which in turn increases the density of metaphors in their writing. Lastly, regarding the creative use of language that often results in novel metaphorical expressions, it can be assumed that the more confident learners become in their language skills, the more creative expressions they will attempt to produce, which in turn can increase metaphor density. However, this can sometimes come at the cost of making metaphorical errors. More details about this matter are discussed in Section 5.3.

With this in mind, it is also worth noting that, beyond the general pattern of metaphor density increasing with proficiency, Turner’s (2014) study of Japanese and French learners (A2-C2) revealed distinct developmental pathways of density. While Japanese learners exhibited a steady upward trend in metaphor density, French learners experienced a decline between B1 and B2, followed by a marked rise at higher levels (Turner 2014: 84–85). These findings suggest that, while an overall increase in metaphor density is frequently observed, as also demonstrated by the Georgian EFL essays, the pattern can still vary across learners from different linguistic backgrounds. For a more detailed quantitative analysis, the following two sections will examine metaphor usage with regard to word class and reuse rate.

5.1.2 Metaphors Across Word Classes

While metaphor density provides an overall sense of metaphorical language use, examining the word class distribution of metaphors within the corpus offers deeper insights into these patterns and identifies the lexical categories most prone to metaphorical mappings in learner texts. This analysis is compatible with Steen et al.’s (2010: 201–202) approach, which categorizes metaphors into seven major word classes. Table 5.2 illustrates the word class classification of indirect MRWs identified in the Georgian EFL corpus.

Word class	Number of MRWs	% of MRWs
Preposition	406	35.9
Verb	277	24.5
Noun	253	22.3
Adjective	91	8
Adverb	54	4.8
Determiner	48	4.2
Conjunction	3	0.3
Total	1132	

Table 5.2 MRWs across word classes

Prepositions exhibit the highest frequency, constituting 35.9% of MRWs, followed by verbs at 24.5%, and nouns at 22.3%. This finding aligns with Nacey’s (2013: 146–147) MIPVU-based

analysis of the Norwegian component of the International Corpus of Learner English, where prepositions also emerged as the most metaphorically prevalent word class, followed by verbs and nouns. The essays in Nacey's corpus were written by Norwegian B2-C1 learners of English. The author explains this profusion of metaphorical prepositions by attributing it to the highly polysemous nature of this word class, due to which they can convey various semantic meanings (Nacey 2013: 205–207). Other studies that analyze learner English essays, such as Littlemore et al. (2014) and Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska (2017), focus on broader categorization of metaphors into open-class (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs) and closed-class items (prepositions, adverbials, determiners) rather than detailed word class analysis. Notably, both studies found a higher proportion of closed-class metaphors, consisting primarily of prepositions, at the B2 level compared to the more advanced C1 and C2 levels (Littlemore et al. 2014: 127–128; Iaroslavtseva & Skorczynska 2017: 55). Therefore, it can be implied that prepositions play a particularly prominent role in metaphorical language production among English language learners, especially at the upper-intermediate level. This prominence suggests that prepositions may be a fruitful area for further research using methods like PIMS (Falck & Okonski 2023) to identify specific patterns in learners' metaphorical use of prepositions.

The fact that prepositions exhibit the highest frequency in the Georgian EFL corpus—as well as in several of the above-mentioned studies (Iaroslavtseva & Skorczynska 2017; Littlemore et al. 2014; Nacey 2013)—is also noteworthy from a Conceptual Metaphor Theory perspective. As discussed in Chapter 2, Sections 2.2.2 and 2.2.3, one of the central tenets of CMT is the correlation between conceptual metaphors and image schemas. These schemas are fundamental, recurring mental patterns, often derived from everyday experiences including *spatial orientations* like UP-DOWN, which are typically expressed by prepositions (Lakoff 1987). Besides, Kövecses (2006) identifies a category of *orientational metaphors*, that organize a wide range of concepts based on fundamental human spatial orientations. For example, morality is a good notion; therefore, it is oriented upward in the conceptual metaphor MORAL IS UP (Kövecses 2006: 128). One linguistic realization of this conceptual metaphor in English is the idiomatic expression *on the up and up*, which refers to someone who is honest and trustworthy. However, orientational metaphors and their linguistic counterparts are not always predictable and potentially lead to errors, especially when a learner's L1 conceptualization lacks a direct equivalent in the target language. A more detailed discussion of L1-influenced errors, which also covers those that involve prepositions, can be found in Section 5.3.2. Given the prevalence of metaphor-related prepositions in EFL learners' writing,

both learners and educators should devote special attention to these forms in the classroom to achieve a high level of proficiency.

5.1.3 Reuse Rate of Metaphors

Another noteworthy merit is the reuse rate of metaphors, which was calculated to display quantitative patterns of metaphor usage in the corpus. This metric, which indicates how frequently MRWs are repeated or re-employed within texts, was determined following Cameron's (2003: 87) approach. Initially, the total number of unique MRWs (419) was divided by the total number of indirect MRWs (1132) to determine the type-token ratio. This resulted in a ratio of approximately 0.37. After that, this ratio was reversed to obtain the reuse rate (1 divided by 0.37), which was found to be roughly 2.7. This indicates that there is a tendency for metaphor reuse in the corpus, as each MRW appears nearly three times on average. A closer look at the reused MRWs showed that prepositions and delexicalized verbs dominate. The most commonly used ones include the preposition *in* (e.g. *in the morning*; *in the future*), followed by the preposition *on* (e.g. *go on vacation*; *based on his or her personality*), and the delexicalized verb *have* (e.g. *have a chance*; *have fun*). It should be noted that these results include conventionalized metaphorical expressions, which are commonly used in everyday language. On the one hand, their inclusion demonstrates that metaphor is a fundamental and pervasive feature of language, a characteristic that extends to the language of L2 learners as well. On the other hand, it may be more informative to focus on the reuse rate of novel or creative metaphors. However, there is no systematic method to distinguish highly conventionalized metaphors from novel or creative ones, which could have made such distinctions subjective.

There is currently insufficient research to make direct comparisons to the metaphor reuse rates of other learner corpora. Cameron's (2003: 87) analysis of native English-speaking primary school student discourse offers a similar perspective, as it reveals a metaphor reuse figure of 2 and suggests a tendency to repeat metaphorical expressions. Cameron (2003), however, uses the MIV methodology, which identifies Vehicle Terms rather than MRWs. To find out if the metaphor reuse rate differs in various linguistic contexts, more research is required.

The next step is to closely examine the specific types of metaphors that are reused. The distribution of reused MRWs by word class is illustrated in Table 5.3, where prepositions make up the clear majority of reused MRWs (45.9%).

Word class	Number of reused MRWs	% of reused MRWs
Prepositions	327	45.9
Verbs	210	29.5
Nouns	57	8
Determiners	48	6.7
Adjectives	46	6.5
Adverbs	22	3.1
Conjunction	3	0.4
Total	713	

Table 5.3 Reused MRWs across word classes

This suggests that Georgian learners of English heavily rely on preposition-based metaphorical expressions, while other word classes contribute less to the repetition rate. This pronounced reliance also highlights how important prepositions are in EFL classrooms and how crucial mastering them is for correct metaphorical language use. Since the previous related studies by Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska (2017), Littlemore et al. (2014), Nacey (2010, 2013), Paris (2018), or Turner (2014) have not included reuse rates in their analysis, further research is needed to determine whether metaphor repetition rates or word class patterns systematically vary across different learner groups and linguistic contexts.

5.2 Error Analysis

Metaphoric competence has been acknowledged as one of the key components of L2 proficiency, as outlined in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.1, based on the works of Littlemore and Low (2006) and Low (2006), among others. However, EFL learners often lack this competence due to insufficient linguistic, cognitive, or cultural knowledge, which can result in a variety of mistakes in their target

language. Building on this viewpoint, the second stage of the analysis concentrates on metaphorical errors and compares them to non-metaphorical errors while also considering L1 influence. Additionally, it explores how the categories of metaphorical errors are distributed across different proficiency levels.

5.2.1 Metaphorical and Non-Metaphorical Errors

To explore differences between general writing errors and metaphorical errors, I analyzed a total of 10250 lexical units, of which 907 (8.8%) were erroneous. Table 5.4 and Figure 1 show the error category distribution between metaphorical and non-metaphorical errors. For a detailed framework for error categorization and analysis in L2 writing, refer to Chapter 2, section 2.6 and Chapter 4, section 4.3.3.

Type	Error category	Metaphorical errors (%)	Non-metaphorical errors (%)	Total number of errors
4	Grammatical Errors	53 (34.6%)	410 (54.4%)	463
2	Confusion of Sense Relations	43 (28.1%)	94 (12.5%)	137
6	Phrasal Errors	34 (22.2%)	21 (2.8%)	55
5	Substance Level Errors	16 (10.5%)	212 (28.1%)	228
3	Collocation Errors	5 (3.3%)	9 (1.2%)	14
1	Synforms	2 (1.3%)	8 (1.1%)	10
Total		153	754	907

Table 5.4 Error category distribution

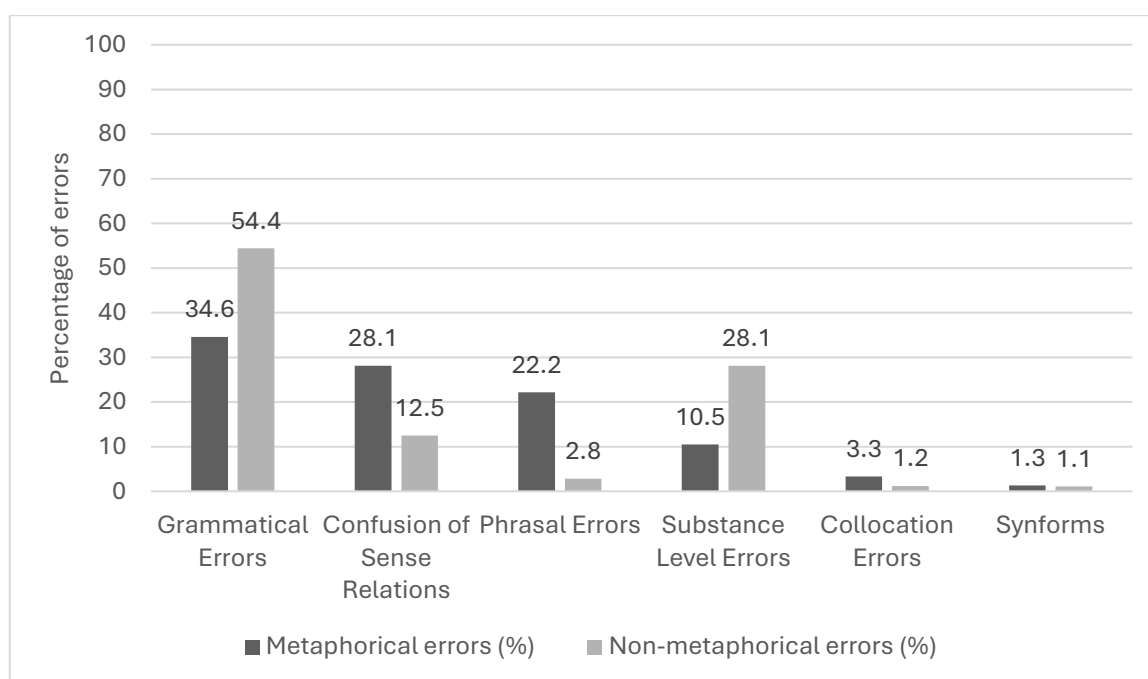


Figure 1 Differences between metaphorical and non-metaphorical errors across categories

Out of 907 erroneous items, 153 (16.9%) were metaphorical errors. These were divided into six subcategories, where grammatical errors occurred most frequently, followed by confusion of sense relations, phrasal errors, substance level errors, collocation errors, and synforms. The remaining 754 (83.1%) erroneous items were non-metaphorical errors, and they were also divided into subcategories according to their type and frequency.

Upon closer examination of the specific types of errors, it becomes evident that metaphorical errors are a significant issue, even though they are less frequent than non-metaphorical errors. The proportions of confusion of sense relations (28.1%), phrasal errors (22.2%), and collocation errors (3.3%) are much higher for metaphorical errors than for non-metaphorical errors (12.5%, 2.8%, and 1.2%, respectively). Non-metaphorical errors, which primarily consist of grammatical errors or substance level errors caused by misspellings, can be more easily identified and corrected through straightforward rules of grammar and vocabulary. Metaphorical errors, in contrast, are more likely to involve issues with semantic and lexical processing of L2 words and multi-word expressions. Consequently, metaphorical errors present a greater challenge to written language production, since they can impede effective communication and the delivery of the intended message. Therefore, the identification and correction of metaphorical errors in second language acquisition are crucial for improving language proficiency and ensuring effective communication.

Notably, comparisons to other studies that provide a complete analysis of error-category distribution between metaphorical and non-metaphorical errors in EFL texts remain a challenge due to the limited research available in this area. The only study that offers a point of comparison is Nacey (2010), who analyzed metaphor usage in argumentative essays written by Norwegian learners of English at the B2 and C1 levels using the NICLE corpus and compared these to essays authored by native English speakers in the LOCNESS corpus. In her analysis of metaphorical errors, Nacey (2010: 183–200) distinguishes between two levels of errors: substance-level and text-level. According to her data, substance-level errors accounted for only a small number of metaphorical errors in both corpora, with 8 instances in each. Similarly, in the Georgian EFL essay corpus, substance-level errors also represented a relatively small proportion of metaphorical errors. For text-level errors—which Nacey (2010: 187) defines as including confusion of sense relations, collocation errors, calques, and formal misselections—she reports that these constituted the largest category of metaphorical errors in both the NICLE and LOCNESS corpora. However, she provides only numbers (59 errors in NICLE and 18 errors in LOCNESS) rather than percentages, which makes direct comparisons difficult (Nacey 2010: 187). Nevertheless, this finding partially aligns with the Georgian EFL corpus results, where confusion of sense relations emerged as the second most frequent metaphorical error category. Finally, Nacey (2010: 200) does not specifically analyze metaphors that involve grammatical errors but notes that some metaphorical errors may potentially stem from grammatical issues. Consequently, no comparisons can be drawn between the two studies for this category. Overall, the present study refined Nacey’s (2010) analysis of error categories by further defining them, developing an error taxonomy applicable to both metaphorical and non-metaphorical errors, and introducing a new category called phrasal errors, as explained in Chapter 4, Section 4.3. Further research is needed to conduct comprehensive analyses of metaphorical and non-metaphorical errors in EFL texts, particularly across learners from diverse L1 backgrounds and linguistic contexts, to permit crosslinguistic comparisons. It could also be acknowledged that some metaphorical errors may not simply represent mistakes but rather reflect learners’ creative strategies to bridge lexical gaps in their target language. While the present analysis primarily focuses on identifying and classifying errors from a formal perspective, there is strong potential to explore this alternative view in future research.

5.2.2 L1-Influenced Errors

As discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.2, L1 influence significantly impacts the production of metaphorical language in second language acquisition. Language learners often rely on the linguistic structures of the target language, yet their underlying thought patterns remain rooted in their native conceptual frameworks. This can create a discrepancy, where learners use L2 expressions to convey concepts shaped by their L1, which results in mismatches between linguistic form and intended meaning (Danesi 1994; Jarvis and Pavlenko 2008). The current study follows the caution raised by Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008: 27) that crosslinguistic influence has often been treated subjectively without clearly defined parameters, and it is evident that a more unbiased approach is needed to identify and measure it. Consequently, as suggested by Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008: 35–43) and Jarvis (2010: 173–175), to obtain reliable results, *intragroup homogeneity* and *intralingual contrasts* were employed as evidence types. This was also combined with Gilquin's (2008: 14) approach to examine the interlanguage of the learners in question, in comparison to that of learners from different native language backgrounds, to prove that it is indeed an L1 transfer rather than a typical learner error. The details of these methods are described in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.2, and in Chapter 4, Section 4.5. Furthermore, the particular interest in investigating L1 influence arises from the vastly differing characteristics of the Georgian and English languages, given that they do not have common ground in any linguistic component, as explained in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.3. These differences, which Georgian EFL learners have to overcome to improve their English competence, encompass a wide range of obstacles, particularly phonological, morphological, and semantic differences, accompanied by challenges related to English language pedagogy in Georgia.

With this in mind, an analysis of L1 influence on metaphorical and non-metaphorical errors was conducted, which revealed interesting patterns in the types of errors made by L2 writers. The process of gathering evidence for crosslinguistic L1 influence is outlined in Chapter 4, Section 4.5. The results in Table 5.5 show that L1 influence is more prevalent in metaphorical errors than non-metaphorical errors.

Type	Error category	L1-influenced metaphorical errors (%)	L1-influenced non-metaphorical errors (%)
2	Confusion of Sense Relations	21 (65.6%)	6 (46.2%)
6	Phrasal Errors	10 (31.3%)	5 (38.5%)
3	Collocation Errors	1 (3.1%)	2 (15.4%)
Total		32	13

Table 5.5 L1-influenced error distribution

Specifically, out of a total of 82 metaphorical errors found in the categories of confusion of sense relations, phrasal, and collocation errors, 32 (39%) were influenced by L1. In contrast, only 13 (10.5%) out of 124 non-metaphorical errors in these same categories were influenced by L1. Confusion of sense relations was a predominant category in both metaphorical and non-metaphorical errors, followed by phrasal and collocation errors.

Importantly, the evidence for L1 influence was traceable only in the categories of confusion of sense relations, phrasal errors and collocation errors. This is because the category of synforms includes phonetically similar words with shared meanings in the L2, which makes them unaffected by the learners' L1. Similarly, substance level errors, which are caused by misspellings or mispronunciations of L2 words, are not attributable to L1 influence. Identifying L1 influence on grammatical mistakes was outside the scope of this study. This is because the L1 and L2 addressed in this study belong to different linguistic typologies, which makes it difficult to draw parallels between their syntax, use of tense, pluralization, articles, and suffixation, and therefore, establish objective evidence of L1 influence. Moreover, exploring potential syntactic transfer would require a more extensive and specialized analysis, which falls outside the scope of this study. Taken together, the fact that synforms, grammatical, and substance level errors did not show any prominent evidence of L1 influence suggests that these types of errors may be influenced by other factors, such as language proficiency level or attention problems, but confirming this would require further investigation.

These results suggest that L1-influence is more likely to affect the processing of metaphorical language, as it involves more complex and abstract meanings that may not have direct translations in the L2. On the other hand, non-metaphorical language may involve more concrete and tangible

concepts that are easier to translate directly from L1 to L2. Overall, the findings have important implications for language teaching and learning, and they suggest that explicit instruction of metaphorical language may be a useful strategy to improve L2 proficiency and reduce errors. This idea is put into practice in Chapter Six, which is about teaching metaphors in the EFL classroom.

5.3 Metaphorical Errors Across Proficiency Levels

During the third stage of the analysis, a contrastive account of metaphorical errors across proficiency levels was presented, with a total of 153 errors across all levels. These metaphorical errors showed a distinct distribution pattern across proficiency levels, as indicated in Table 5.6 and Figure 2.

Proficiency level	Total metaphors	Metaphorical errors	Metaphorical errors %
B1	292	43	14.7%
B2	355	66	18.6%
C1	485	44	9.1%

Table 5.6 Distribution of metaphorical errors by proficiency level

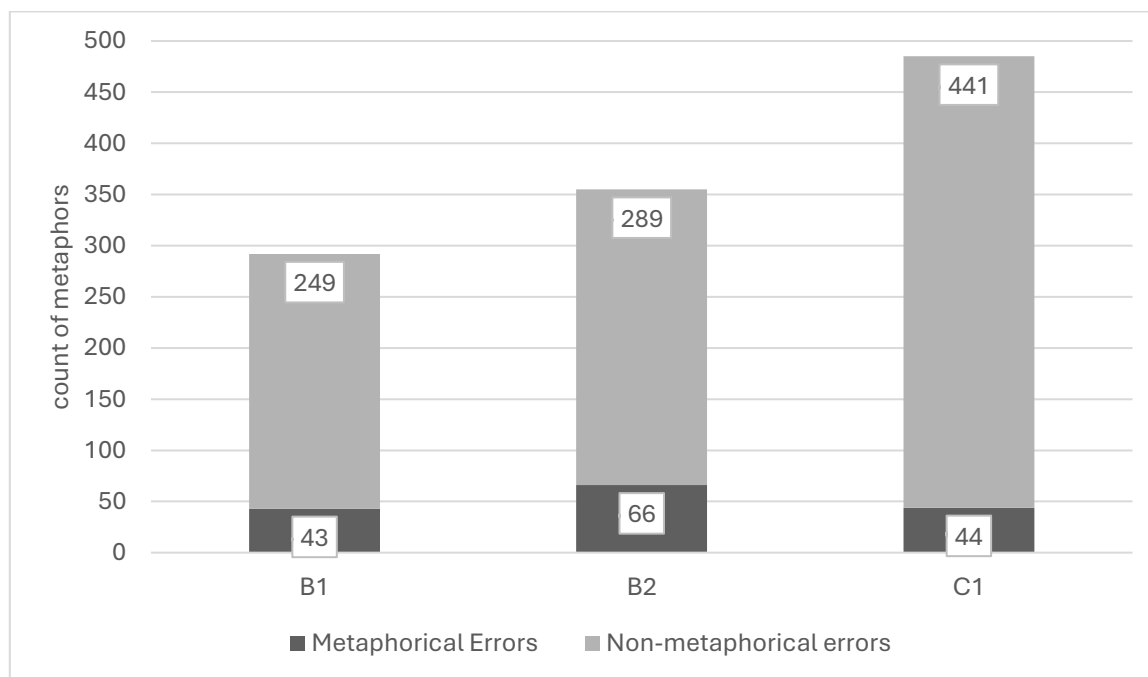


Figure 2 Differences between metaphorical and non-metaphorical errors across proficiency levels

The highest proportion of metaphors that contained an error, which amounted to 18.6%, was observed among learners at the B2 proficiency level. This finding can be viewed as a descriptive tendency suggesting that B2-level learners find metaphorical language particularly challenging, which is reflected in a high proportion of metaphorical errors. B1-level learners also made a notable number of metaphorical errors, which accounted for 14.7% of all metaphors and signified active engagement with figurative language. In contrast, C1-level learners made fewer metaphorical errors, accounting for only 9.1% of all metaphors, which reflects a more precise and refined use of metaphorical language among advanced learners. This aligns with the observations of Littlemore et al. (2014) and Iaroslavtseva and Skorzynska (2017) and indicates that the frequency of metaphorical errors peaks at the B2 level and then diminishes as proficiency levels advance. Littlemore et al. (2014: 139) thus describe the B2 level as an experimental stage where learners employ metaphors more creatively, which results in a higher incidence of errors. However, since these studies do not specify the identified error categories or provide additional details, the present study refines their approach by analyzing metaphorical errors from the perspectives of error categories and a detailed account of L1 influence, as presented in Tables 5.7 and 5.8.

5.3.1 Metaphorical Error Categories Across Proficiency Levels

For a more detailed understanding, metaphorical errors were categorized into seven distinct error categories, and their rates across different proficiency levels were examined, as depicted in Table 5.7.

Error category	B1 errors	B2 errors	C1 errors
Grammatical Errors	17 (39.5%)	24 (36.4%)	12 (27.3%)
Confusion of Sense Relations	12 (27.9%)	19 (28.8%)	12 (27.3%)
Phrasal Errors	8 (18.6%)	13 (19.7%)	13 (29.5%)
Substance Level Errors	3 (7%)	8 (12.1%)	5 (11.4%)
Collocation Errors	2 (4.7%)	2 (3%)	1 (2.3%)
Synforms	1 (2.3%)	0	1 (2.3%)
Total	43	66	44

Table 5.7 Metaphorical error category distribution at each proficiency level

Grammatical errors were more prevalent at the B1 and B2 levels compared to the C1 level. This observation can be attributed to the ongoing development of foundational language skills at intermediate levels, which leads to struggles with the grammatical complexities of metaphorical language. Conversely, advanced students likely have greater grammatical proficiency, which reduces grammatical errors in metaphorical language. The persistence of confusion concerning sense relations at all three levels suggests that it was consistently challenging for learners to understand and effectively apply sense relations within metaphors, irrespective of their proficiency level. Notably, phrasal errors were more frequent at the C1 level and less common at the B1 and B2 levels. This indicates that higher-proficiency learners confidently use complex phrasal expressions and integrate sophisticated structures into their writing, while intermediate learners opt for simpler ones. The remaining categories, substance level errors, collocation errors, and synforms, exhibited infrequent occurrences with minor variations across proficiency levels, which indicates that these error types are not a primary concern in this context.

5.3.2 L1-Influenced Errors by Proficiency

Finally, Table 5.8 provides a comprehensive outline of error distribution, which encompasses total errors, metaphorical errors, and L1-influenced metaphorical errors. The expected decline in total errors as proficiency levels advance signifies a steady improvement in language proficiency at higher levels. The more intricate aspect of the analysis was to identify the influence of learners' L1 on metaphorical errors, which revealed a total of 32 such errors across all proficiency levels. To further validate that these identified errors are indeed influenced by the Georgian learners' native language rather than being common mistakes made by learners from diverse linguistic backgrounds, a search was conducted in the ICLE corpus. The search showed that these errors were completely absent in the data from other L1 backgrounds.

Proficiency level	Total errors	Metaphorical errors	L1-influenced metaphorical errors (%)
B1	456	43	4 (9.3%)
B2	329	66	18 (27.3%)
C1	122	44	10 (22.7%)

Table 5.8 Distribution of errors by proficiency level

Interestingly, learners at the B1 level exhibit a relatively small proportion of L1-influenced metaphorical errors, which suggests that, at this stage, L1 influence is not a primary concern in terms of metaphorical errors. At the B2 level, the influence of learners' L1 on metaphorical errors becomes most pronounced, with 27.3% of errors in this category. This suggests that B2-level learners experiment with metaphorical language but still rely on native language patterns. Even at the advanced C1 level, L1 influence on metaphorical errors remains substantial at 22.7%, which demonstrates that the learners' native language still affects their language use despite their advanced proficiency.

The identified patterns resonate with Littlemore et al.'s (2014: 139–140) research, which illustrated a significant increase ($\approx 25\%$) in L1-influenced metaphorical errors from B1 to B2 levels, followed by a slight decrease ($\approx 5\%$) from B2 to C2 levels. Consequently, Littlemore et al. (2014: 140) suggest that the B2 level is pivotal for metaphor production due to both the highest occurrence of metaphorical errors and the greatest L1 influence. Furthermore, Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska's (2017: 56) study, which encompassed only B2 and C1 levels, also revealed a higher prevalence of L1-influenced metaphorical errors at the B2 level (53%) compared to the C1 level (42%).

To extend these previous studies, it is most insightful to closely examine the typical categories of L1-influenced metaphorical errors and clearly highlight the traces of L1 influence in them. To achieve this, Georgian figurative expressions were sourced from two major references: *The Database of Georgian Idioms and Proverbs*, where equivalents are provided in English, and the *Online Dictionary of Idioms*, which only provides definitions in the Georgian language. Among L1-influenced metaphorical errors confusion of sense relations is the predominant error category. Specifically, there were 13 instances of L1-influenced metaphorical errors that involved the confusion of sense relations at the B2 level, 5 at the C1 level, and 3 at the B1 level. In (1), *heart* serves as an example of an L1-influenced metaphorical error that arises from the confusion of sense

relations. Here, the author opted for a direct translation of a Georgian idiomatic expression, *heart thoughts*, instead of using its English counterpart, *innermost thoughts*. The relevant entry for *heart thoughts* is available in the *Online Dictionary of Georgian Idioms* and is illustrated in (2).

- (1) Friends are crucial part of humans' life and everybody is trying to make true friends with who they can share their *heart thoughts*. (B1)

- (2) *gulis* *ts'adili*
heart.GEN thought.NOM
'*thought of a heart (a heart's thought)*'

Another example of this error category is shown in (3), where the student used the adjective *broken* instead of more appropriate English equivalents like *tainted* or *tarnished*. This error stems from a direct translation of the Georgian idiomatic expression *broken name*, which can be found in *the Database of Georgian Idioms and Proverbs*. The expression is defined as 'one's reputation being damaged' or 'falling into disrepute', as demonstrated in (4).

- (3) Even though their [prisoners'] *names* are already *broken* in society, community work helps them regain some respect. (B2)

- (4) *gat'ekhili* *sakheli*
broken name.NOM
'*a broken name*'

A further instance of an L1-influenced metaphorical error that stems from the confusion of sense relations is presented in (5), where the author used the word *etalon* instead of *role model*. In Georgian, the term *etalon* is employed to convey meanings such as 'role model', 'idol', or 'exemplar'. However, according to *Collins English Dictionary*, it is a physics term that denotes 'a device used in spectroscopy to measure wavelengths...'.²¹ Nacey (2010: 174) refers to such errors as false friends, as they are pairs of words in two languages that look or sound alike, which leads learners to mistakenly consider them equivalent despite lacking shared meanings.

- (5) They [parents] are the first and most significant *etalons* for young people. (C1)

²¹ <https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/etalon> (Accessed 10 November 2023).

Phrasal errors are the second most frequent L1-influenced metaphorical errors, with 5 errors each at the B2 and C1 levels. In (6), the author directly translated the Georgian idiomatic phrase as *on a hot heart* instead of using its English equivalents, *with a hot head* or *without thinking*. The entry relevant to *on a hot heart* is also accessible in the *Online Dictionary of Georgian Idioms*, as demonstrated in (7).

(6) Nevertheless, there are many cases when a person happens to use a gun ***on a hot heart*** and takes somebody's life... (C1)

(7) *tskhel* *gulze*
hot.NOM heart.on
' *on a hot heart* '

Example (8) highlights another case of an L1-influenced phrasal error, as the author directly translated the Georgian idiomatic phrase as *eaten up their time* instead of employing its English equivalent, *have had their day*, which signifies that the subject has outlived its usefulness. The corresponding entry for *eaten up their time* is available in the *Online Dictionary of Georgian Idioms*, as illustrated in (9).

(8) They claim that old buildings have already ***eaten up their time*** and they are unsuitable for modern use. (B2)

(9) *tavisi* *dro* *moch'ama*
its time.NOM up.eat.3SG
' *It ate up its own time.* '

A further example of this error category is given in (10), where the student directly translated the Georgian idiomatic phrase *taken away with the wind*, which denotes the unpredictability of fate and the notion that fortune easily changes. There are two entries relevant to *taken away with the wind* in *The Database of Georgian Idioms and Proverbs*. The first entry is given in (11), and the second entry in (12). The English equivalents of the first entry are *Easy come, easy go*, *Lightly won, lightly gone*, and *A thing easy to get is easy to lose*. The equivalents of the second entry are similar: *Light come, light go*, *Lightly won, lightly gone*, *A thing easy to get is easy to lose*.

(10) Success that comes from pure luck and no hard work can be ***taken away with wind***. (B2)

- (11) *k'ar-is* *motanil-s,* *k'ari* *caiḡeb-s.*
wind.GEN brought, wind.NOM take-it-will
'The wind will take away what is brought by the wind.'
- (12) *k'ar-is* *arc'* *motanili* *mind-a,* *arc'* *gatanili.*
wind.GEN neither brought want-i neither taken out
'I do not want anything brought by the wind, nor something taken out by the wind.'

There is one relevant entry (showing alternative verbs) in the *Online Dictionary of Idioms*, as shown in (13). The meaning of the expression is defined as 'easily obtained' and 'easily achieved'. The action of *taking away* corresponds to the event of causing something to disappear, whereby *take* and *away* are considered to form a single unit. *With wind* denotes the ease with which your luck can disappear.

- (13) *k'ar-it'* *moberili* (*k'ar-is* *motanili*)
wind.INSTR blown (wind.GEN brought)
'wind-blown (wind-brought)'

Last but not least, there was only one L1-influenced metaphorical collocation error identified at the B1 level given in (14). Since in Georgian *online meetings* collocates with the verb *make*, as shown in (15), the author used it instead of *have online meetings* or *conduct online meetings*.

- (14) What's more, they even had to ***make online meetings*** with patients who could not leave their houses. (B1)
- (15) *ekimi* *shekhvedras* *ak'eteb's* *p'atsient-tan*
doctor.NOM meeting.DAT make.3SG patient-with
'a doctor makes a meeting with a patient'

L1-influenced metaphorical errors were absent in the remaining categories of grammatical errors, substance level errors, and synforms, as outlined in section 5.2.2. It can be inferred that language proficiency and attention-related factors exert a more substantial influence on errors within these categories than L1 transfer.

To summarize the findings of L1-influenced metaphorical errors, it can be seen that crosslinguistic influence, particularly negative (i.e., erroneous) transfer, is evident in the written

products of Georgian EFL learners. These errors mainly arise from directly or partially translating Georgian idiomatic expressions, metaphorical collocations, and phrases, or from using false friends. This pattern aligns with Xia's (2019: 33–36) observations that false friends and semantic overextensions, which often involve direct or partial translations of L1 notions into L2, are among the most frequent realizations of negative transfer. What makes transferring L1 metaphorical language into L2 even more problematic is that these expressions are usually multiple-word units, such as phrasal verbs and idioms, whose meanings are not semantically transparent or decomposable and are typically language-specific (Xia 2019: 39–40). Georgian EFL learners, as expected, also relied on their L1 metaphorical language, which led to such errors that were difficult, or even impossible, for readers to decipher without knowledge of the learners' L1.

Apart from types of errors, another noteworthy trend was that L1-influenced metaphorical errors were lowest at the B1 level, peaked at the B2, and slightly decreased at the C1. This pattern aligns with Jarvis and Pavlenko's (2008: 202–203) observation that having higher proficiency in the target language does not necessarily lead to a decline in L1 transfer. This is because other factors may play a more significant role than proficiency in the degree of L1 transfer, such as the crosslinguistic similarity between L1 and L2, the learning environment in which the target language is acquired (formal or realistic), and the level of cognitive maturity, which affects a learner's choice of words based on how well they understand the concept in question (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008: 191, 202–206). Consequently, for Georgian EFL learners, the highest proportion of L1-influenced metaphorical errors at the B2 level, combined with enduring L1 influence at the C1 level, indicates that proficiency did not determine the extent of L1 influence on metaphorical errors. Instead, as Littlemore et al. (2014) and Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska (2017) also note, the B2 level is an experimental stage where learners employ metaphors more creatively and boldly while they still rely on their L1, which leads to a higher incidence of errors. The enduring L1 influence at C1, however, suggests that even advanced proficiency does not effectively reduce crosslinguistic transfer. Overall, these findings underline that raising metaphor awareness is important not only for intermediate learners but also for those at advanced levels. Therefore, Chapter Six will revisit this issue and focus on the explicit teaching of metaphors in the advanced EFL classroom.

5.4 Summary of Chapter 5

Chapter Five reports the results of the main study of this research and answers its major research questions. The results are displayed in tables, with examples and discussion to offer interpretations of the findings. Specifically, this chapter analyzed the complex relationship between L2 proficiency, L1 influence, and metaphorical language production among Georgian learners of English. Among other significant aspects, the analysis encompassed three primary components: measurement of metaphor density across proficiency levels, evaluation of metaphorical error categories, and examination of the role of learners' L1 backgrounds in shaping their metaphor production. The analysis of metaphor density revealed a consistent pattern in which metaphor production increased with advancing proficiency levels, aligning with prior research (Iaroslavtseva & Skorczynska 2017; Littlemore et al. 2014; Paris 2018). To extend these previous studies, the analysis also incorporated MRW categories and reuse rates. The classification of MRWs by word class revealed that prepositions had the highest frequency, followed by verbs and nouns. Similarly, the analysis of the reuse rates of metaphors across word classes showed that prepositions were the most frequently reused MRWs.

The findings indicate that metaphorical errors present a significant challenge to language learners, since they often involve issues with semantic and lexical processing of L2 words and multi-word expressions. Furthermore, the study revealed that L1 influence more often affects metaphorical language production due to its complex and abstract meanings, which lack direct translations in the L2. The B2 level stood out with both the highest proportion of metaphorical errors and the most notable L1 influence on such errors, which indicates a tendency for metaphorical experimentation at this stage of language proficiency. These results are consistent with previous studies carried out by Littlemore et al. (2014) and Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska (2017), who have also found higher rates of metaphorical errors and L1 influence in writing at the B2 level. To further refine the error analysis in these studies and make it more detailed and informative, metaphorical errors were classified into seven distinct error types, and their prevalence across proficiency levels was analyzed. Learners in the intermediate stages mostly struggle with the semantics and grammatical structures of metaphors, while at the advanced level, phrasal errors prevail, which suggests an inclination toward using complex metaphorical expressions. The persistence of L1 influence on metaphorical errors, even at advanced proficiency levels, shows the lasting impact of learners' native language on their L2 use. Chapter Seven will revisit these results

to respond to the original research questions and discuss their implications for the classroom. Additionally, the chapter will discuss the limitations and future directions of this study.

CHAPTER SIX: TEACHING METAPHORS IN THE EFL CLASSROOM

6.0 Introduction

This chapter serves two main purposes. First, it provides a compact overview of the significance of metaphor in second language learning and explores the current state of research in L2 metaphor pedagogy, particularly integrating conceptual metaphor awareness into EFL instruction. Second, it addresses the secondary research objective of this dissertation by presenting a case study of Georgian EFL learners. This study investigates the effects of teaching metaphorical expressions on the production of the taught expressions by the learners, with particular emphasis on the CMT-based approach and the incorporation of TBLT methodology. The efficiency of this approach was assessed with the help of a pre-test, post-test, two-week delayed test, and follow-up survey, which demonstrated significant improvement in the metaphor production of Georgian EFL learners compared to the control group. The current investigation builds on Saaty's (2016) experimental study and extends its approach to evaluate teaching efficiency through CMT for advanced proficiency EFL learners.

The chapter is structured as follows: Section 6.1 reviews the theoretical foundations of integrating metaphor instruction into L2 teaching. Sections 6.1.1 and 6.1.2 examine key previous studies on teaching through CMT. Section 6.2 outlines the research design of the current case study, such as the participant profile and the methodological framework. Section 6.3 presents the findings of the study and compares the performance of the metaphor group and the control group. Finally, Section 6.4 summarizes the consequences of these findings within the larger context of L2 metaphor pedagogy.

6.1 Metaphors in L2 Teaching

In Chapter Two, it was highlighted that, for a long time, metaphors were traditionally regarded as linguistic ornamentations rather than as essential elements of language. It is unsurprising that their inclusion in L2 teaching and learning is still a relatively new concept and faces many obstacles even today. The idea of L2 metaphor pedagogy and the history of acknowledging metaphor as a ubiquitous element of language and thought are largely intertwined. To briefly recapitulate key notions from Chapter Two, the history of metaphor recognition in language started with Lakoff and

Johnson's (1980) viewpoint, which suggests that metaphor greatly impacts our lives and shapes our ideas and behaviors even outside of language. According to their Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT), a conceptual metaphor is an association between two semantic concepts in the mind, where a familiar and concrete SOURCE domain is mapped onto a more complex and abstract TARGET domain (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 4–5).

Eight years after the emergence of CMT, Low (1988) was a pioneer in suggesting the integration of metaphor instruction into language teaching. According to Low (1988: 129), in order for language learners to be considered proficient users, they should acquire certain metaphor-related skills that native speakers normally possess. These abilities include the capacity for logical interpretation of metaphorical expressions, knowledge of both traditional and novel metaphors, comprehension of suitable source and target domain pairings, and awareness of potentially socially sensitive metaphors (Low 1988: 129–134). Later on, Low (2008: 221–222) refined his inventory of critical metaphor-related abilities that students require but are hardly ever taught in the classroom. He highlighted skills such as identifying multiple levels of metaphorical meaning in communication, interpreting others' metaphors through cultural understanding, and discerning why speakers extend their communication beyond conventional expressions.

When it comes to teaching metaphors in the L2 classroom, Low (1998: 137–139) proposes that it is neither ideal nor sufficient to teach metaphorical expressions only when they occasionally appear in texts. Instead, he suggests that engaging in activities that involve multiple texts and tasks is often more advantageous than concentrating on a single text, as this approach provides teachers with greater creative freedom in lesson design and offers students a more effective learning environment (Low 1998: 139). A further point made by Low (2008: 220) is that simply teaching students the meanings of metaphors does not guarantee they will retain this knowledge over time or improve their use of metaphorical language; nevertheless, most instructional designs on teaching metaphors still focus solely on explaining their etymologies and definitions.

Revisiting Low's perspective on metaphor and education in 2020 reveals that the practical application of integrating metaphors into language teaching has not progressed significantly over time. Low (2020: 49) observes that despite the proposal to incorporate metaphors into L2 learning over thirty years ago, there has been minimal effort to include metaphoric competence in EFL teaching syllabi, textbooks, or exams, aside from a few rare resources and activity sets. Consequently, this limited approach to metaphor education hinders learners from acquiring the

aforementioned skills that are essential to attain high proficiency in their target language. The current study helps fill this gap by showing how the CMT-based classroom instruction can improve metaphoric competence through well-planned lessons and provides practical ideas for adding metaphors to EFL teaching.

Another significant contribution to promote figurative language use in foreign language classrooms and enhance metaphoric competence among EFL learners is the work of Littlemore and Low (2006). Since the concept of metaphoric competence has already been discussed in Chapter Two, section 2.3.1, we can now focus on its integration into the EFL classroom. To facilitate students' figurative language competence, Littlemore and Low (2006: 200–201) advocate for involving learners in realistic, well-structured tasks with specific functional objectives, as these activities enable learners to perform the functions associated with figurative language more effectively. This methodology aligns with a three-stage task-based language learning framework (TBLT) proposed by Willis and Willis (2007), which will be further discussed in section 6.1.3. In their exploration of figurative language teaching methods, the authors distinguish two approaches: treating figurative language as a separate category and using the conceptual metaphor approach (Littlemore and Low 2006: 205–207). The first approach treats figurative language as an isolated category and gives metaphors and idioms an exclusive position, which can unintentionally reinforce the misconception that such elements are separate from everyday language and not integral to daily communication. The authors consider the second approach more effective, as it directly integrates conceptual metaphors into teaching materials and emphasizes that metaphors are foundational to everyday language use (Littlemore and Low 2006: 207).

Building on this perspective, MacArthur's studies (2010, 2016) significantly contribute to understanding metaphor use in teaching English and developing metaphoric competence in EFL learners. Drawing on Littlemore and Low's (2006) extensive research on metaphors in foreign language learning, MacArthur (2010: 156) argues that it is insufficient to aid comprehension and retention of figurative language and emphasizes how important it is to support learners in actively producing metaphors in their second language. One suggested activity to foster metaphor production in the classroom is assigning students a writing task on an abstract yet familiar topic—such as future professions, goals, or love—after which teachers provide targeted feedback to enhance students' metaphoric competence (MacArthur 2010: 169). The author points out that teaching metaphors in EFL classes can be particularly beneficial for intermediate-level students whose skills have stagnated, as it introduces a refreshing alternative to traditional grammar and

vocabulary instruction and provides a flexible method to support their progression toward advanced proficiency (MacArthur 2010: 158). The unfortunate tendency, as MacArthur (2016: 413) highlights, is that metaphors are frequently neglected in most language courses for L2 learners and receive little consideration within CEFR criteria. Given the essential role of metaphors in language learning, this oversight underlines the need for better integration in EFL classes, as explicit metaphor teaching and encouraging students to engage deeply with meanings can significantly enhance overall language proficiency (MacArthur 2016: 422). To sum up, the theoretical papers reviewed underline the importance of systematic incorporation of metaphor instruction in L2 teaching and note that this approach can substantially enhance learners' figurative language competence and overall language proficiency.

6.1.1 Previous Research on Teaching through CMT

After exploring the theoretical aspects of L2 metaphor pedagogy, it is now essential to examine key experimental studies that have applied the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) approach in teaching English to L2 learners. These studies can be grouped into the following categories: teaching phrasal and polysemous verbs (Kövecses and Szabó 1996; Boers 2000; Csábi 2004; Condon 2008), teaching idioms (Li 2002; Boers et al. 2004; Beréni et al. 2008; Pan 2019), and teaching metaphorical expressions (Saaty 2016; Niemeier 2017). The primary focus of this chapter is the last category, which will be examined in detail in section 6.1.3. However, it is first important to summarize the studies on teaching phrasal and polysemous verbs and idioms.

The first-ever experimental study to employ the CMT-based approach in teaching L2 learners was conducted by Kövecses and Szabó (1996). Their focus was on teaching phrasal verbs that involved spatial conceptual metaphors, such as UP-DOWN metaphors (e.g. HAPPY IS UP, SAD IS DOWN). The CMT-based teaching approach was tested on an experimental group of 15 intermediate-level Hungarian learners of English, and their results were compared with a control group of the same size who received only a list of phrasal verbs with Hungarian equivalents (Kövecses and Szabó 1996: 346–347). Both groups completed a fill-in-the-blank task with missing phrasal verbs, where the experimental group outperformed the control group (Kövecses and Szabó 1996: 349–350). These positive results sparked further interest in CMT-inspired teaching approaches.

Boers (2000) and Condon (2008) expanded this research on spatial conceptual metaphors to a larger scale, involving 74 and 111 intermediate-level French learners of English, respectively, with participants divided roughly equally between experimental and control groups. Boers (2000: 562) reported that the experimental group's gap-filling test scores were significantly higher than those of the control group. Condon (2008: 141) enhanced the research design by incorporating both a pre-test and a delayed post-test administered six weeks after the immediate gap-filling task. Although the experimental group outperformed the control group on the immediate test, their performance showed no difference in the delayed post-test (Condon 2008: 148–149). This finding suggests that while teaching phrasal verbs via CMT may be beneficial for short-term retention, its long-term benefits are less certain. Another potential explanation for this outcome could be that the participants had limited practice with the target items, as they received only a relatively simple teaching session without comprehensive guidance.

The benefits of the CMT-based instruction were further supported by Csábi's (2004) study, which focused on teaching the polysemous verbs *hold* and *keep*. This study involved 52 Hungarian secondary school learners of English. The experimental group received explanations for expressions that involved these polysemous words accompanied by their underlying conceptual metaphors, such as POSSESSING SOMETHING IS HOLDING or CONTROL IS HOLDING SOMETHING IN HAND. In contrast, the control group was taught various senses of verbs *hold* and *keep* alongside their Hungarian equivalents (Csábi 2004: 238–241). Results from both the immediate gap-filling test and the two-day delayed test showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group, which led the author to suggest that explicit instruction of the conceptual metaphors behind the polysemous verbs can improve both comprehension and retention among L2 learners (Csábi 2004: 246–249). However, it is important to acknowledge that a two-day delayed test seems to be too soon to assess long-term vocabulary retention.

Turning to idioms, Li (2002) conducted the first experimental study with 52 intermediate-level Chinese learners of English that focused on idioms with the CONTAINER source domain, such as *he's up to his neck in debt* from the DIFFICULTIES ARE CONTAINERS conceptual metaphor. The experimental group was introduced to the target conceptual metaphors and discussed how the CONTAINER source domain relates to the human body, while the control group received traditional explanations of idiom meanings (Li 2002: 157). In both the immediate gap-filling post-test and the one-week delayed test, the experimental group scored significantly higher than the control group (Li 2002: 184–185). Additionally, a follow-up questionnaire revealed that students favored the

conceptual metaphor awareness approach and perceived it as a new method that made idioms easier to remember (Li 2002: 185–186).

Following this, Beréndi et al. (2008: 76) conducted a long-term experiment on teaching idioms through CMT with 43 intermediate-level Hungarian college students. They administered an immediate gap-filling test, with a retest two days later to assess medium-term retention and a further test after five months to evaluate long-term retention. The students were divided into a control group, who simply translated and memorized the idioms during the lesson, and an experimental group, who were introduced to CMT and received idioms grouped under their respective conceptual metaphors, such as *she breathes fire* and *to add fuel to the fire* listed under ANGER IS FIRE (Beréndi et al. 2008: 75–76). The results of both the immediate and two-day delayed gap-filling tests showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group, which supports the hypothesis that the CMT-based teaching can improve short- and medium-term retention (Beréndi et al. 2008: 77). Although the experimental group performed better in the five-month delayed test as well, the study had limitations: only 15 participants could be traced for follow-up, and many had forgotten the CMT concepts or how the idioms were grouped, which raises questions about the approach's effectiveness in promoting long-term retention (Beréndi et al. 2008: 78–79).

Similarly, Pan (2019) examined the effectiveness of the CMT teaching approach with idioms grouped under the ANGER IS FIRE conceptual metaphor. The experiment targeted a different participant profile: 43 elementary-level primary school Chinese learners of English, unlike previous studies that focused on intermediate learners. The control group received the target idioms with translations and associated images, while the experimental group received idioms organized by conceptual metaphor, along with corresponding images (Pan 2019: 66). In both the immediate and the one-week delayed gap-filling tests, the experimental group scored higher on average than the control group, which suggests that the CMT-based lesson may also benefit young English learners (Pan 2019: 70–72). Additionally, a follow-up questionnaire revealed positive attitudes from all participants, where a majority of the experimental group found idioms moderately easy or easy, in contrast to the control group, where most rated idioms as difficult (Pan 2019: 74).

Finally, while these results demonstrate the effectiveness of CMT-based teaching in a classroom format, it is also significant to examine a study that explores a computer-based, self-study format. Boers et al. (2004) conducted the first experimental study to teach idioms to Dutch

intermediate-level college students with the help of a self-study, computer-based program designed to aid L2 idiom comprehension. The students were divided into two groups: a control group that completed a simple comprehension task about given idioms during the self-study program and an experimental group that completed a task in which they identified the source domain of each idiom (Boers et al. 2004: 62, 70–71). Post-test results revealed that the experimental group outperformed the control group on the gap-filling task, which suggests that students who were familiar with the idiom's source domain were more likely to select the correct meaning (Boers et al. 2004: 65–66, 72). These findings show that CMT-based teaching could be beneficial in self-guided learning and offer students additional flexibility.

To sum up, the studies discussed above on teaching phrasal verbs, polysemous verbs, and idioms share several noteworthy similarities. All focus on adult intermediate-level English learners, with exceptions in Csábi (2004), which involves intermediate-level secondary school participants, and Pan (2019), which focuses on elementary-level primary school participants. While early studies (Kövecses & Szabó 1996; Boers 2000) only administered immediate tests to compare control and experimental groups, more recent studies also included delayed tests to assess vocabulary retention. The test format in these studies predominantly involved closed cloze tasks, where participants selected words from a provided box to complete the sentences; thus, they assessed retention and comprehension rather than independent production. These similarities in study design highlight a gap in the literature and suggest the need for future research to expand beyond intermediate-level competencies. Future studies could incorporate tests that measure immediate, medium-term, and long-term retention, along with pre-tests for more accurate comparisons. Additionally, open-ended cloze tasks, where students complete gaps without a provided list, could assess both comprehension and independent production of learned expressions.

It is also worth noting that the teaching component in all of these studies was relatively simple and straightforward with minimal focus on detailed lesson planning. Typically, the experimental groups were provided with conceptual metaphors alongside the target expressions grouped under them, while the control groups received lists of expressions with translations and definitions. This indicates that the instructional approach in these studies was not grounded in specific teaching frameworks, such as TBLT or other structured methodologies. Therefore, more attention to detailed lesson plans could offer insights into how teachers might practically adapt CMT in classroom instruction.

6.1.2 Previous Research on Teaching Metaphors through CMT

The case study in this chapter builds on Saaty's (2016) research, which explores the use of CMT in teaching metaphorical expressions. What sets Saaty's study apart from the others discussed is its incorporation of a detailed lesson plan based on task-based language teaching (TBLT) methodology. By combining CMT with a structured TBLT approach, Saaty's study not only evaluates CMT's effectiveness but also offers practical tips for teaching metaphors in the EFL classroom. As noted in section 6.1, Littlemore and Low (2006: 200–201) recommend using realistic, structured tasks with clear objectives to raise metaphor awareness that aligns with the TBLT framework.

To provide background, it is essential to review the task-based language teaching (TBLT) framework, initially developed by Willis (1996) and later refined by Willis and Willis (2007). TBLT is defined as an approach that employs goal-oriented, interconnected tasks to support language learning within a meaningful context (Willis & Willis 2007: 21–22). The TBLT framework includes three main phases: the pre-task phase, which introduces the topic; the task cycle, which engages students in applying prior knowledge; and the post-task phase, where students study and practice new vocabulary (Willis & Willis 2007: 63–84). Both Saaty (2016) and the present case study employed a TBLT problem-solving teaching session, where learners seek and provide advice on topics that range from broad issues, such as environmental concerns, to specific ones, such as teenage challenges. This type of lesson plan fosters discussion, solution development, and target vocabulary acquisition (Willis & Willis 2007: 93–94). For this type of lesson, the recommended sequence includes a Task and Report phase, where small groups share solutions on the given topic; a Text Task, where students read a short passage on the topic to prompt further discussion; and a Language Focus phase, where the teacher introduces new vocabulary, which students then apply in practice (Willis & Willis 2007: 94–99).

Turning to Saaty's (2016: 127–168) study, it focuses on teaching metaphorical expressions under the conceptual metaphor *TIME IS MONEY* to 67 upper-intermediate Saudi learners of English. This study is more comprehensive than other related studies, as it includes a pre-test, a TBLT-based classroom session, a post-test, a two-week delayed test, and an evaluation survey. The TBLT teaching sessions differed for the experimental and control groups: the experimental group was introduced to conceptual metaphors, which emphasized how the *TIME IS MONEY* metaphor underlies the target expressions, while the control group was taught using a time management theme without

metaphorical emphasis (Saaty 2016: 142–146). Saaty (2016: 154) found that the experimental group, taught with the CMT-based lesson, significantly outperformed the control group on the immediate post-test, which suggests enhanced comprehension and retention of metaphorical expressions. However, both groups showed notable declines in retention on the two-week delayed test, which suggested that the long-term benefits of this approach may be limited (Saaty 2016: 155). The follow-up questionnaire included Likert-scale items, which Saaty (2016) adapted from Li's (2002) study on idioms, along with open-ended questions about teaching methodology. Results indicated that both groups found the TBLT method effective for teaching metaphorical expressions, regardless of CMT exposure (Saaty 2016: 159–163). Section 6.2.2 will present a detailed comparison between Saaty's (2016) results and those of the present case study.

The only other study that has employed a TBLT framework to teach metaphorical expressions through the CMT-based approach is Niemeier's (2017) work, which focused on conceptual metaphors with color-related source domains like SAD IS BLUE, exemplified by *to feel blue*, with 26 intermediate German learners of English. During the lesson, students had the opportunity to trace these expressions back to their underlying conceptual metaphors and clarify previously ambiguous and subjective relationships between the color-based source domain and the expressions' meanings (Niemeier 2017: 273–274, 280). While Saaty's (2016) results demonstrated the effectiveness of the CMT-based lesson primarily for immediate retention, Niemeier's research highlighted its impact on long-term retention as well. A three-week delayed gap-filling test showed generally positive vocabulary retention; however, the author notes a major limitation of the study, namely the absence of a control group, which unfortunately restricts the statistical reliability of the findings (Niemeier 2017: 280).

To summarize, the survey of previous studies demonstrated that the use of CMT, particularly when integrated with structured frameworks like TBLT, can enhance students' comprehension and retention of metaphorical expressions. The TBLT framework likely enhances retention because it engages learners in meaningful, goal-oriented tasks that promote deeper cognitive processing and provides opportunities to practice and apply new vocabulary in practical contexts. However, while promising, these findings also highlight limitations in long-term retention and the need for further research to establish the statistical reliability and broader applicability of this approach in varied instructional settings.

6.2 A Case Study of Georgian EFL Learners: Design and Methodology

This section presents a case study on teaching metaphorical expressions to Georgian advanced EFL learners. It examines the efficacy of conceptual metaphor awareness in their learning outcomes and addresses the following research questions:

1. How does the metaphor production of Georgian EFL learners improve after being taught metaphorical expressions through the CMT-based approach? Specifically, how accurately do they use the 14 taught metaphorical expressions before and after the teaching session, as evaluated through the pre-test, post-test, and two-week delayed test?
2. How does incorporating the CMT within a TBLT framework enhance the production of the 14 metaphorical expressions under scrutiny motivated by the conceptual metaphor MOODS ARE WEATHER?
3. How do participants assess the effectiveness of the TBLT methodology and the conceptual metaphor approach in enhancing their language proficiency?

The study, conducted over four weeks, involved 24 advanced EFL students from Georgia, allocated to the control and metaphor groups. Data was collected through three metaphor production tests and a feedback questionnaire. The design of this experimental study is adapted from Saaty's (2016) dissertation on teaching L2 metaphors through awareness-raising activities, which includes four distinct experimental studies. Specifically, this study adopts the design from Study 2 (Saaty 2016: 127–168), which was chosen as the model for the present research because its methodological framework is most closely aligned with the aims and scope of the current case study.

The research design of the current study was carefully developed to address key limitations identified in previous studies and specifically aimed to fill gaps in the existing literature through several novel elements. First, whereas prior studies primarily examined intermediate or elementary-level participants, this study focused on C1 advanced learners to offer insights into a higher proficiency level. Second, while most previous studies lacked a dedicated teaching session or methodological framework, the current study implemented a comprehensive TBLT framework, which provides practical pedagogical tips for integrating the CMT-based approach into classroom instruction. Additionally, unlike earlier studies that mainly evaluated the retention and comprehension of metaphorical expressions, this study tested the cued production of metaphorical

expressions through an open-ended cloze task, which required participants to fill in the gaps independently without being given a list of possible words.

6.2.1 Participants

The participants in this study were 24 Georgian university students, aged 20 to 21, whose first language was Georgian and who were learning English as a second language. All participants, consisting of 21 females and 3 males, were second-year English majors at a Georgian university. Prior to the experiment, the students took the *Oxford Placement Test* and were classified at the C1 advanced level. Detailed information about the *Oxford Placement Test* is provided in Chapter 4, section 4.1.2.

The participants were then randomly assigned to the metaphor group (16 students) and the control group (8 students). Throughout the four-week study, all participants remained in their assigned groups, with no absences at any experiment stage. After the students were fully informed about the research, they provided verbal consent, understanding that this research study would not affect their university course grades. They were also assured that, although they had to write their names on the test papers, their identities would remain confidential during the analysis.

6.2.2 Selection of Metaphorical Expressions

Notably, previous research on teaching through CMT has focused on the following conceptual metaphors: HAPPY IS UP, SAD IS DOWN, POSSESSING SOMETHING IS HOLDING, ANGER IS FIRE, and TIME IS MONEY. While the metaphorical expressions associated with these conceptual metaphors were suitable for teaching and assessing metaphor awareness among elementary and intermediate EFL learners, they might not provide sufficient challenge for advanced learners. Therefore, this study incorporates a more suitable conceptual metaphor for advanced proficiency: MOODS ARE WEATHER. Consequently, the target metaphorical expressions for this study consist of 14 items that share metaphorical connections to the overarching conceptual metaphor MOODS ARE WEATHER. This broad metaphor includes several specific conceptual metaphors, such as AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR IS STORM and CHEERFUL IS SUNNY. To collect the target expressions, I used books where metaphorical expressions are organized by topic, specifically Wright (2002), which includes a chapter titled “*Moods Are Weather*”, and Lazar (2003), which features two related chapters: “*A Warm Welcome: Weather*” and “*Breezing Through: Weather*”. Additionally, I referred to an article by Gutiérrez

Pérez (2016: 13–14), in which the author lists conceptual metaphors related to the source domain WEATHER CONDITIONS along with their constituent metaphorical expressions.

Table 6.1 categorizes the 14 expressions used in the study, along with their definitions and corresponding conceptual metaphors. These expressions encompass collocations, phrasal verbs, and idioms, and they demonstrate the diverse ways weather-related language conveys aspects of mood and emotion. Initially, the plan was to exclude idioms and focus solely on metaphorical expressions; however, this approach would have resulted in a very limited selection. As a result, the final list includes seven idioms.

	Metaphorical expression	Meaning	Conceptual Metaphor
1	storm in/into	to enter or leave a place in a way that shows that you are angry	AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR IS STORM
2	breeze in/into	to walk into a place quickly and confidently, without worry or embarrassment	CONFIDENT BEHAVIOR IS BREEZE
3	rainy day	a future time of need, esp. financial.	MISFORTUNE IS RAIN
4	cloud over	if a person's face clouds over, they suddenly look unhappy or worried	PRESENT OR FORTHCOMING PROBLEMS IS CLOUD
5	snowed under	having too much to do	LACK OF TIME IS SNOW
6	sunny disposition	someone who has a sunny disposition is usually cheerful and happy	CHEERFUL IS SUNNY
7	warm up	to become friendlier or more receptive	AFFECTION IS WARMTH
8	warm welcome	a hearty, hospitable reception or greeting	
9	frosty reception	unfriendly and not welcoming	LACK OF AFFECTION/UNFRIENDLINESS IS COLD/FROST/ICE
10	icy look/voice	an icy remark, look etc. shows that you feel annoyed with or unfriendly towards someone	
11	shower someone with something	to give someone a lot of presents or praise	TOO MUCH OF SOMETHING IS SHOWER
12	not have the foggiest (idea/memory)	to not know or understand something at all	CONFUSION IS FOG
13	throw caution to the wind	to ignore the risks and deliberately behave in a way that may cause trouble or problems	LACK OF RESTRAINT IS WIND

14	under the weather	if someone is or feels under the weather, they feel ill	HEALTH IS WEATHER
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Table 6.1 Metaphorical expressions used in the study

To assess whether the difficulty level of the chosen expressions was suitable for advanced English learners, a pilot study was conducted with the help of a fill-in-the-gap task. The pilot study aimed to determine whether advanced proficiency students were unfamiliar with the selected metaphorical expressions or already possessed prior knowledge of them. If the expressions had been too easy for advanced learners, teaching and testing their knowledge would have been ineffective. Consequently, pilot tests that involved the 14 target expressions were administered to 22 Hungarian and 10 Georgian second-year English Studies majors. The pilot study results, with an average score of 4.31 out of 14 across all participants, demonstrated that the expressions were challenging enough and appropriate for teaching and assessing metaphor awareness among advanced learners. The threshold value to consider the expressions suitable for the purposes of the study would have been approximately 50% accuracy, or roughly 7 points out of 14.

6.2.3 Experiment Time Frame

The study was structured as a 4-week experiment, during which the pre-test, teaching session, post-test, evaluation survey, and delayed test were conducted across consecutive weeks. A detailed timeline that outlines the activities for both the control and metaphor groups is presented in Table 6.2.

	Control group	Metaphor group
Week I (04.10.2024)	Verbal consent Pre-test	
Week II (11.10.2024) At 10:00 for CG At 14:00 for MG	Teaching session that consists of	
	1. Pre-task: daily mood journal and discussion	
	2. Reading task: advice on mood swings	
	3. Language focus: Teaching the 14 metaphorical expressions through the theme of mood/behavior	3. Language focus: Teaching the 14 metaphorical expressions through conceptual metaphor awareness
	Immediate post-test	
Week III (18.10.2024)	Survey for evaluation	

Week IV (25.10.2024)	Delayed test (two weeks later)
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Table 6.2 Schedule of the study

6.2.4 Lesson Plan

I designed the lesson plan around the overarching conceptual metaphor MOODS ARE WEATHER to teach the 14 target metaphorical expressions, as listed in Table 6.1. The lesson, titled *Mood Swings*, is based on the TBLT framework and addresses challenges learners may encounter with mood swings, including their causes, risk factors, and coping strategies. In creating the lesson plan, I again referred to relevant chapters from Wright (2002) and Lazar (2003). For the reading task, I adapted a blog article on mood swings from the *Cleveland Clinic* website.²²

A major part of the lesson is the same for both groups; however, the main difference between the control and metaphor groups lies in the approach to teaching the metaphorical expressions in parts three, four, and six of the lesson. Part three involves individual reading, and part four consists of individual/pair planning, with differing instructions for the control and metaphor groups. For example, in part three, the control group is instructed to underline words and phrases they believe are related to MOOD or BEHAVIOR, such as *frosty reception*, whereas the metaphor group is asked to underline words and phrases they think are related to either MOOD/BEHAVIOR or WEATHER, such as *frosty reception*, which describes the *reception* as being *frosty*, as if it were weather.

Part six, the language focus section, differs the most between the two groups. The control group learners were introduced to the 14 target metaphorical expressions through a list that included their definitions and example sentences. On the other hand, the metaphor group learners were briefly introduced to what conceptual metaphors are and how they influence our thinking and language. They were then taught the same 14 target expressions with the help of a list with their definitions, organized under their constituent conceptual metaphors. A copy of the complete 1.5-hour lesson plan for both groups is included in Appendix D. It is important to note that due to distance constraints, I conducted the lesson online with the assistance of a university instructor who distributed handouts and administered the tests to the students.

²² <https://my.clevelandclinic.org/health/symptoms/mood-swings> (Accessed 1 October 2024).

6.2.5 Metaphor Production Tests and Questionnaire

Two cloze tests were created to evaluate the students' production of the 14 target metaphorical expressions. The first test served as both a pre-test and a two-week delayed test, while the second test was used as a post-test. The decision to use the same test for both the pre-test and the delayed test is supported by methodological practices observed in Saaty (2016) and other related studies, where identical tests are commonly used to assess retention over time. This approach was adopted to enhance internal validity by ensuring that any differences observed in the delayed test results could not be attributed to extraneous factors. The two-week interval for the delayed test was also chosen in line with Saaty's (2016) study to facilitate comparability and reflects a standard timeframe frequently adopted in similar research. The original pre-test/delayed test can be found in Appendix E, and the original post-test is in Appendix F. In both tests, students were asked to complete the sentences by filling each gap with a single word. The sentences were adapted from authentic examples found in the British National Corpus (BNC) and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA).

It is important to note that, similar to Saaty's (2016) test format, the current study employs an open-ended cloze task that requires learners to supply the missing metaphor without any given options. This format allows for the assessment of cued production of metaphors. In contrast, previous research on teaching through CMT primarily employed multiple-choice tasks, fill-in-the-blank tasks with word banks, or underline the correct word tasks, which assess only metaphor retention and comprehension rather than independent production.

Lastly, to evaluate the teaching methodology from the participants' perspective, an evaluation questionnaire was administered during the third week of the study. The questionnaire design was adapted from Saaty (2016), who based the Likert scale items on Li's (2002) study and included four open-ended questions to gather feedback on the overall lesson experience and suggestions for improvement. The original questionnaire for the current study is provided in Appendix G.

6.3 Results and Discussion

Two phases of data analysis were conducted to examine the effects of teaching the metaphorical expressions through the CMT-based approach. The results of the control group were compared

with those of the metaphor group. First, the number of correct answers on the pre-tests, post-tests, and two-week delayed tests for both groups was counted, and the results from each pair of tests were compared to identify any patterns or differences. Second, to understand more about the participants' viewpoints, the answers to the learning experience questionnaire were analyzed and compared.

6.3.1 Metaphor Test Results

To assess the learning outcomes, learners from both the metaphor and control groups completed a metaphor cloze test that comprised the 14 taught metaphorical expressions based on the MOODS ARE WEATHER conceptual metaphor. Their performance in the pre-tests, post-tests, and two-week delayed tests was evaluated by counting and analyzing the number of correct answers, with a maximum possible score of 14 on each test. An independent samples t-test was administered to compare the mean scores between the metaphor and control groups at each testing phase. Table 6.3 presents the participant count (n), average scores (M), standard deviations (SD), and t-test significance values (t). Additionally, Figure 3 illustrates the differences in average scores across the three tests in the form of a chart.

	Control Group (n=8)	Metaphor Group (n=16)	Test Statistics
Pre-test	M=1.25 SD= 0.89	M=1.31 SD= 0.87	t(22)=-0.164, p=0.871
Post-test	M=7.75 SD=0.71	M=12.94 SD= 0.98	t(22)=-13.083, p<0.001
Delayed test (two weeks later)	M=4.38 SD=1.19	M=10.75 SD=1.13	t(22)=-12.855, p<0.001

Table 6.3 Average scores for pre-tests, post-tests, and two-week delayed tests

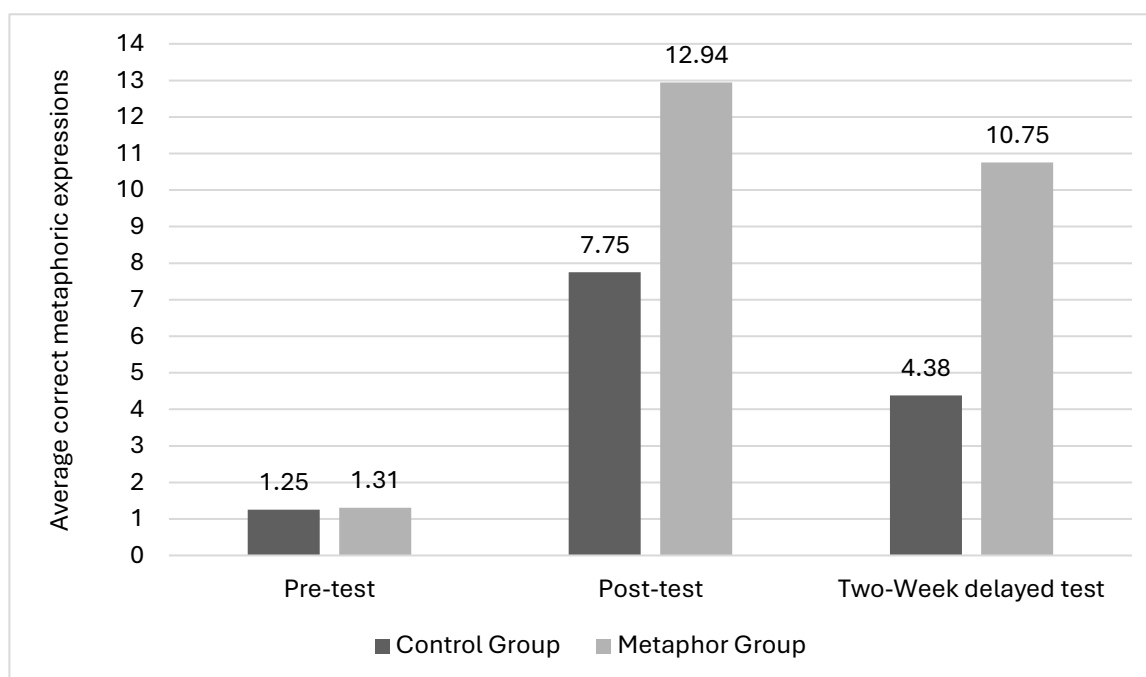


Figure 3 The differences in average scores across the three tests

Table 6.3 and Figure 3 demonstrate that the metaphor group had a mean pre-test score of 1.31, whereas the control group obtained a mean score of 1.25. The results show no apparent distinction between the compared groups ($t(22)=-0.164$, $p=0.871$). This consistency in the results guarantees that any differences in later assessments can be accurately ascribed to the teaching session rather than to pre-existing variations in the learners' knowledge of the target metaphorical expressions.

After completing the pre-test, both groups participated in a TBLT session, where the key difference was that the metaphor group's instruction incorporated conceptual metaphor awareness, whereas the control group's did not. The post-test results, shown in Table 6.3 and Figure 3, reveal a significant difference between the groups: the control group achieved an average score of 7.75, while the metaphor group scored 12.94, which is nearly twice as high. An independent samples t-test also confirmed that this difference is statistically significant, $t(22)=-13.083$, $p<0.001$. These results suggest that incorporating the conceptual metaphor approach helped the metaphor group better understand the 14 target metaphorical expressions compared to the control group.

These findings are in line with the main study that served as the basis for this experiment. According to Saaty's (2016: 152–154) post-test results, the metaphor group averaged 8.68 out of a

potential score of 17, while the control group averaged 4.73. However, it is important to note that while both studies demonstrate nearly double the performance for the metaphor group compared to the control group, the overall performance of the metaphor group is higher in the current study, where learners answered approximately 92.4% of the test correctly, compared to Saaty's (2016: 152–154) study, where learners answered only 51.1% of the test correctly. This distinction in overall performance might be attributed to the difference in proficiency levels, as the advanced English learners in the current study may have benefited more from the teaching through the CMT compared to the intermediate-level learners in Saaty's (2016) study.

When it comes to other studies on teaching through the CMT-based approach (Kövecses and Szabó 1996; Boers 2000; Li 2002; Boers et al. 2004; Csábi 2004; Condon 2008; Beréndi et al. 2008; Pan 2019), the results are also aligned, as all the studies found that metaphor groups outperformed the control groups in immediate post-tests.

To evaluate the long-term effectiveness of the experiment, a delayed test, which was identical to the pre-test, was administered to both groups two weeks after the post-test. As shown in Table 6.3 and Figure 3, the control group achieved a mean score of 4.38, while the metaphor group scored significantly higher, with a mean of 10.75—more than double the control group's average. An independent samples t-test further confirmed that this difference was statistically significant, $t(22)=-12.855$, $p<0.001$. The metaphor group's significant outperformance of the control group, evident in the two-week delayed tests, mirrors the pattern observed in the immediate post-tests and suggests that the CMT-based teaching continued to enhance the cued production of metaphorical expressions over the longer term. On the other hand, as is often the case with delayed tests, scores decreased in both groups between the post-test and the two-week delayed test; however, the control group experienced a larger decline, with a mean decrease of 3.37 compared to the metaphor group's mean decrease of 2.19. The smaller decline in the metaphor group's scores further supports the effectiveness of the CMT-based lesson in the long-term retention of metaphorical expressions.

The outcomes of the two-week delayed tests in this study differ from Saaty's (2016: 155–157) findings, where both the metaphor and control groups demonstrated very low overall scores. In Saaty's study, the control group achieved a mean score of only 2.17, while the metaphor group scored 2.32 out of a maximum of 17 (Saty 2016: 155–157). This suggests that neither the TBLT teaching method nor TBLT combined with the CMT-based approach effectively supported the long-term retention of metaphorical expressions. This difference could once again be attributed to

the difference in proficiency levels, as the advanced English learners in the current study may have gained greater long-term benefits from the CMT-based teaching approach compared to the intermediate-level learners in Saaty's (2016) study.

Other studies on teaching through the CMT-based approach rarely use delayed tests, primarily because it is challenging to recruit all participants after some time has passed since the experiment. However, Li (2002: 184–185) and Pan (2019: 70–72) used one-week delayed tests in their studies, both of which showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group. These studies provide evidence for the medium- or long-term benefits of the CMT-based teaching and align with the findings of the current study. On the other hand, Condon (2006: 148–149), who utilized six-week delayed tests, did not find any significant difference between the performance of the experimental and control groups in the delayed post-test and did not find any evidence of long-term benefits, similar to the findings of Saaty (2016). Differences in delayed test results across these studies may be influenced by the varying time intervals used. Shorter intervals, such as the one-week delayed tests in Li (2002) and Pan (2019), may better capture the retention benefits of the CMT-based teaching, whereas longer intervals, such as the six-week test in Condon (2006) and the two-week test in Saaty (2016), suggest that these retention benefits fade over time. Another explanation could be that Condon's (2006) participants had limited practice with the target items and lacked a comprehensive teaching session. Alternatively, as discussed earlier, the long-term retention benefits of the CMT-based lesson may be more effective for advanced proficiency learners, as seen in the current study, compared to intermediate learners in the studies by Condon (2006) and Saaty (2016).

6.3.2 Questionnaire Results

The participants' evaluation questionnaire assessed their perceptions of the teaching session and methodology. Statistical methods were used for the closed-ended questions, and qualitative methods were used for the open-ended ones (see Appendix G for the original questionnaire). The closed-item questions asked participants to evaluate five aspects of the *Mood Swings* lesson: the informativeness and novelty of the learning material, the novelty of the teaching method, its effectiveness in aiding vocabulary memorization, and its potential to increase vocabulary. Responses were measured on a Likert scale, where 1 indicated "Strongly Disagree" and 5 indicated "Strongly Agree". I analyzed the average scores from the control and metaphor groups and found

no notable differences in how the two groups evaluated their experiences. Figure 4 provides a detailed depiction of the variations in the average scores for each of the five individual closed-item questions.

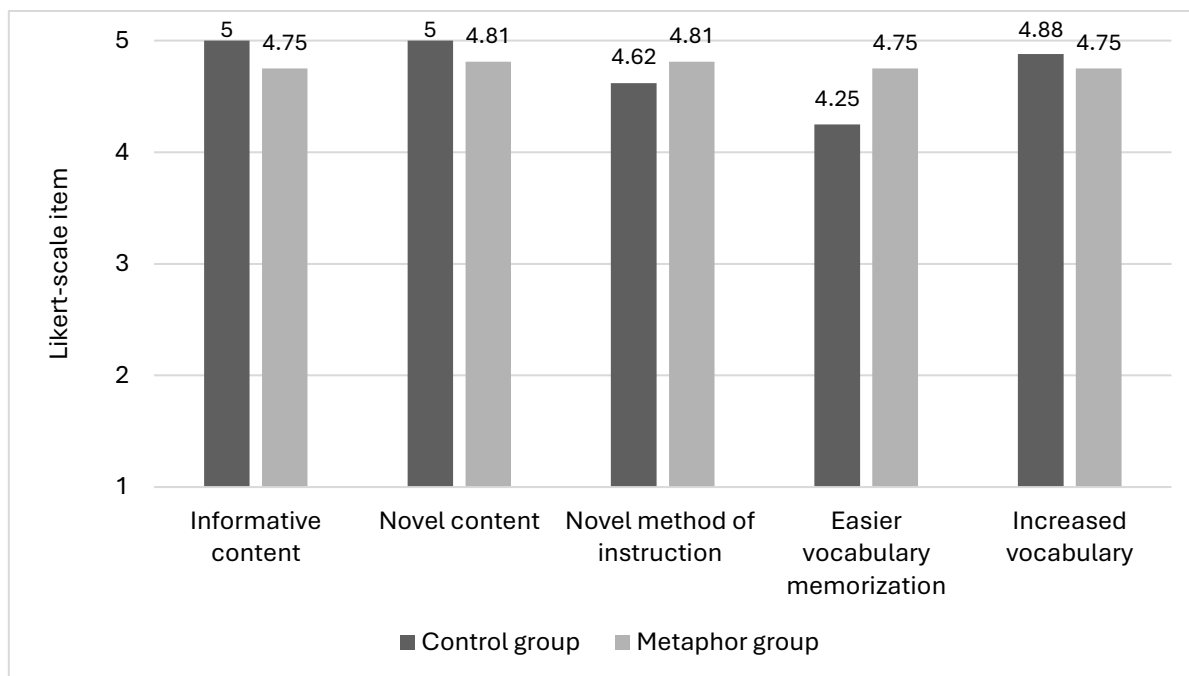


Figure 4 Average scores of closed-ended questions in the evaluation survey

As shown in Figure 4, both the control ($n = 8$, $M = 4.75$) and metaphor groups ($n = 16$, $M = 4.77$) expressed overall agreement and positive feedback on the five individual items in the questionnaire. This suggests that the TBLT approach to teaching metaphorical expressions was well-received and considered effective, regardless of whether the CMT was incorporated. These results are consistent with Saaty's (2016: 159–163) findings, where all participants also rated the TBLT-based teaching of metaphorical expressions as highly satisfactory.

I analyzed participants' responses from the open-ended section of the survey and identified three central themes: strengths, weaknesses, and suggestions for improvement. The analysis was carried out manually, as the small scale of the questionnaire made this approach feasible and did not require specialized software. Responses to the first and second open-ended questions formed the theme of strengths, whereas those to the third and fourth questions were classified under weaknesses and suggestions for improvement, respectively. This section examines these themes based on the feedback from learners in both groups, including excerpts from their evaluations.

All learners in both the control and metaphor groups responded “yes” to the first open-ended question, “*Do you enjoy learning English vocabulary through a task-based approach (i.e., learning vocabulary in the context of other skills and engaging in lifelike tasks)? Why?*” In their explanations for this response, they expressed a generally positive evaluation of the task-based learning method and provided favorable comments such as “*It feels more practical and real*”, “*It kept me engaged and focused*”, “*I learn faster in real situations*”, “*It’s more exciting than typical lessons*”.

In response to the second question, “*What are the things you liked about the Mood Swings lesson?*” all participants provided one or two key points. However, the themes of their responses differed between the control and metaphor groups. The control group primarily highlighted aspects such as the lesson’s topic, its instructiveness, and practicality. For example, they commented, “*the relatable topic*”, “*It was very interactive*”, “*Useful for daily conversations*”. While the metaphor group also acknowledged these aspects, their responses primarily centered on conceptual metaphor awareness. This suggests that the explicit instruction on conceptual metaphors enhanced their ability to identify and understand the figurative meanings of the taught expressions. For example, “*It helped me to see how English language uses weather-related words to talk about emotions and mood*”, “*Identifying the meaning of expressions was like solving a puzzle*”, “*I enjoyed learning the hidden layers of phrases and words*”, “*Linking words to weather made everything clearer*”, “*Seeing emotions as weather helped me connect ideas*”.

For the third question, “*What are the things you did not like about the Mood Swings lesson?*” no significant thematic differences emerged between the two groups. Among the 24 participants, seven left the question unanswered, and eight stated that they liked everything about the lesson. The remaining nine students indicated in their feedback that the lesson felt slightly lengthy. For example: “*The Mood Log was time-consuming*”, “*Lesson was a bit long*”, “*I would shorten the text*”.

The final question, “*Is there anything you would change about the Mood Swings lesson?*” similarly revealed no significant thematic differences between the two groups. Five students left it blank and six said that they would not change anything. The remaining eleven students indicated in their feedback that videos and visuals could enhance engagement, a feedback session at the end of the lesson would be beneficial, and one participant expressed a preference for face-to-face instruction. For example, “*Add some video, maybe*”, “*Add feedback at the end of the lesson*”, “*I prefer face-to-face lessons*”.

In summary, the survey showed that both groups responded favorably to the TBLT method for teaching metaphorical expressions, with comments on the approach being largely positive. Significantly, answers to the second question, “*What are the things you liked about the Mood Swings lesson?*” showed a distinct difference. The metaphor group emphasized how knowing about conceptual metaphors can have a powerful influence, which they found to be both interesting and perceptive for comprehending figurative meanings. Meanwhile, the control group highlighted the lesson’s topic, instructiveness, and practicality. This distinction shows that the conceptual metaphor approach helps advanced learners develop a deeper understanding of figurative language and its underlying meanings.

6.4 Conclusion

This chapter concludes with a summary of the key findings of the present case study, its pedagogical implications, limitations, and suggestions for future research. Generally, the results indicate that employing the CMT-based approach in teaching metaphorical expressions enhances L2 learners’ metaphor awareness. These findings align with those of Saaty (2016), whose study informed the design of the current research, as well as with other studies discussed in the first part of this chapter. Importantly, the case study of Georgian EFL learners addressed gaps in previous research in several ways. It focused on C1 advanced learners, implemented a comprehensive TBLT framework to integrate the CMT-based teaching into classroom instruction, and evaluated the cued production of metaphorical expressions through an open-ended cloze task.

The data analysis from all components of this four-week experiment, including the pre-test, post-test, two-week delayed test, and participant evaluation survey, reveals significant improvement in the metaphor production of Georgian EFL learners following explicit instruction on conceptual metaphors. Specifically, the metaphor group achieved nearly twice the average score of the control group in the immediate post-tests and more than double the control group’s average in the two-week delayed tests. Previous studies, such as Saaty (2016) and Condon (2006), demonstrated the effectiveness of the CMT-based teaching in immediate post-tests but noted a decline in its impact during delayed tests. In contrast, the findings of this study suggest that advanced English learners benefited from the CMT-based lesson in both the short and long term and attained better outcomes compared to the intermediate-level learners in the aforementioned studies. Therefore, incorporating the CMT-based teaching approach into English classrooms is

highly recommended for C1 advanced learners to enhance their metaphor awareness and overall language proficiency. In line with this recommendation, the detailed lesson plan and tests developed for this case study provide a practical example of how teachers can implement the CMT paired with TBLT methodology in the classroom.

Lastly, the participant evaluation questionnaire revealed that both the control and metaphor groups responded highly positively to the TBLT method for teaching metaphorical expressions. They appreciated it for being informative and introducing new material through an unfamiliar teaching method, which they found helpful for easier vocabulary retention and expansion. Notably, responses from the metaphor group about what they liked most about the lesson predominantly focused on the conceptual metaphors, which suggests that the CMT-based lesson had a strong impact on their overall experience in the teaching session.

It should be acknowledged that given the small sample size of EFL students in this experiment, the generalizability of the findings is limited. Several factors contributed to this limitation. For instance, it was difficult to access larger groups of advanced English learners, who were both willing to participate in a four-week experiment and available to take a proficiency test beforehand to confirm their level. In addition, the most suitable candidates were English majors, who had an uneven gender distribution. Future research could expand the scope of the study to include a larger and more diverse participant pool with balanced gender representation. Additionally, longer-term delayed tests beyond two weeks could be incorporated to provide a better assessment of the CMT-based teaching efficacy.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION

This dissertation explored the production of metaphorical language in a second language through the written products of EFL learners, including argumentative essays and open-ended assignments. In particular, it analyzed argumentative essays written by Georgian EFL learners to uncover the relationship between their proficiency levels and the production patterns of metaphorical expressions in their writing. Special attention was paid to metaphorical errors identified in these authentic texts, and the taxonomy of James (1998) and Nacey (2010) was adopted to classify them into distinct categories, with particular emphasis on those influenced by the learners' native language. To further support the validity of the primary research findings, this dissertation also incorporated a comparative analysis of several metaphor identification methodologies. The practical application of two prominent frameworks, MIV (developed by Cameron 2003) and MIPVU (introduced by Steen et al. 2010), to a Georgian EFL corpus provided a critical assessment of their advantages and shortcomings and useful recommendations on their applicability in learner English texts. Finally, this dissertation explored an additional dimension of the topic when it examined metaphorical language production through the lens of L2 metaphor pedagogy. Based on the analysis of EFL learners' written assignments and questionnaire responses, this study argues that it is beneficial to incorporate Conceptual Metaphor Theory into classroom instruction, particularly for the EFL learners at the advanced level.

To begin with, **Chapter Two** introduced the theoretical background of key components of the research, which began with a historical overview of metaphor theories and the development of Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT). The key principles of CMT (Lakoff & Johnson 1980), along with its subsequent developments by Gibbs (1994, 1996, 2011, 2014), Grady (1997), Kövecses (2006, 2020), Lakoff (1993, 2008, 2012), and Steen (1994, 2007, 2011) were outlined, and the distinction between conceptual and linguistic metaphors was clarified. Additionally, the chapter explored specific topics integral to this research, such as metaphoric competence (Littlemore & Low 2006; Low 2006), crosslinguistic influences on metaphors (Jarvis 2010; Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008; Pavlenko 2008), and metaphor comprehension and production (Charteris-Black 2002; Deignan et al. 1997; Littlemore 2004; Littlemore & Low 2006; Nacey 2016; Türker 2016), and examined their connection to language proficiency. A critical review of previous studies on metaphor production, which analyzed essay corpora, was also provided (Nacey 2013; Littlemore et al. 2014; Turner 2014; Iaroslavtseva & Skorczynska 2017; Paris 2018). Particular attention was

paid to Georgian learners of English, along with a brief discussion of the crosslinguistic differences between Georgian and English.

Following this, the case study reported in **Chapter Three** applied and critically evaluated two established metaphor identification procedures, MIPVU (Steen et al. 2010) and MIV (Cameron 2003), to a corpus of 16 essays. This enabled a side-by-side comparison of metaphor usage patterns—including metaphor density, reuse rates, and distribution across word classes—obtained from these procedures. A thorough manual examination of 2787 lexical units identified 304 instances of indirect metaphor-related words (MRWs) through the MIPVU procedure and 151 instances of Vehicle terms through the MIV procedure. Consequently, the results showed that MIPVU yielded nearly twice as much metaphor density compared to MIV. This discrepancy suggests that MIPVU captures a broader range of metaphorical expressions, including subtler or less conventional metaphors. For instance, MIV often failed to detect metaphorical uses of prepositions, delexicalized verbs, and demonstratives, but these were identified properly by MIPVU.

Once again, a notable contrast emerged in the comparison of metaphor reuse rates. The MIPVU results indicated a reuse rate of 2.3, which meant that each metaphorical expression appeared more than twice on average in the Georgian EFL corpus, whereas the MIV results, with a reuse rate of 1.09, indicated that each Vehicle term appeared, on average, only once. This discrepancy can be attributed to the fundamental differences between MIV and MIPVU. MIV focusses on Vehicle terms, which often span multiple words and result in a smaller set of identified metaphorical units. In contrast, MIPVU emphasizes single-word MRWs, which leads to the identification of a greater number of smaller metaphorical units. To acquire a better understanding, the specific types of metaphors that were reused were analyzed. This examination was feasible only for the indirect MRWs identified through MIPVU, as the Vehicle terms identified by MIV did not exhibit distinct patterns of metaphor reuse. An analysis of reused MRWs across word classes showed that prepositions dominated, as they accounted for 55.1%. These findings suggest that Georgian learners of English rely heavily on preposition-based metaphorical expressions, while other word classes play a smaller role.

Finally, an analysis of the distribution of metaphors across word classes yielded intricate details about metaphor use patterns, which aligns with Steen et al.'s (2010) categorization of metaphors by word class. In the results obtained from MIV, nearly half of the identified metaphors

were verb-based, followed by prepositional metaphors. Conversely, MIPVU results revealed a heavier reliance on prepositional metaphors, followed by verbs and nouns, a pattern also observed by Nacey (2013). Despite these methodological differences, prepositions, verbs, and nouns consistently stood out as the most frequent metaphorical word classes across both methods. Overall, MIV proved to be a time-efficient approach, particularly effective in identifying conventional, easily noticeable metaphors. MIPVU, on the other hand, emerged as a more precise method that captured a wider range of metaphorical language, including subtler and more implicit instances of metaphorical word use. These results highlight that MIPVU serves as a more comprehensive analytical tool for future research. Moreover, the majority of relevant studies on metaphor production that involve L2 essay corpora utilize the MIPVU framework, which enhances the comparability of results (for example, Iaroslavtseva & Skorczynska 2017; Littlemore et al. 2014; Nacey 2013; Paris 2018; Turner 2014).

Following the adoption of MIPVU as the method of metaphor identification in this study, **Chapters Four and Five** addressed the core objective of exploring metaphorical language production in Georgian EFL essays. The process of compiling the Georgian EFL essay corpus was explained, and the considerations involved in data collection and corpus construction were highlighted. The subsequent step was to identify and categorize errors within the corpus. Several challenges emerged in classifying errors that did not fit within existing taxonomies, such as those proposed by James (1998) and Nacey (2010). Consequently, a new category, referred to as *phrasal errors*, was proposed, and the challenges associated with applying the metaphor identification procedure to these errors were examined.

In **Chapter Five**, the findings were presented in three stages: first, the research questions related to metaphor production were addressed; then, metaphorical errors were examined; and finally, L1 transfer was explored. Specifically, a total of 10250 lexical units from the Georgian EFL essay corpus were manually analyzed, which led to the identification of 1132 indirect MRWs. The following section presents the research questions and the corresponding qualitative findings concerning metaphor production:

1. *How does metaphor density vary across proficiency levels?*

The calculation of metaphor density revealed a consistent pattern in which metaphor production increased with higher proficiency levels. The overall metaphor density in the Georgian

EFL corpus was 11%, with the highest density observed at the C1 level (13.3%), followed by B2 (10.2%) and B1 (9.4%). This trend aligns with the findings of Littlemore et al. (2014), Iaroslavlseva and Skorczynska (2017), and Paris (2018), all of whom reported increasing metaphor densities with higher proficiency levels in essays written by German, Spanish, and French learners of English, respectively.

2. How are MRWs distributed across different word classes?

The classification of MRWs by word class revealed that prepositions had the highest frequency, as they accounted for 35.9% of MRWs, followed by verbs at 24.5% and nouns at 22.3%. This finding aligns with Nacey's (2013) MIPVU-based analysis of essays from the Norwegian component of the International Corpus of Learner English, in which prepositions were also dominant, followed by verbs and nouns. Similarly, other studies that analyze learner English essays—such as those by Littlemore et al. (2014) and Iaroslavlseva and Skorczynska (2017)—reported a higher proportion of closed-class metaphors, primarily prepositions. These results underline the pivotal role of prepositions in L2 metaphor production and suggest that further research could employ methods such as PIMS (Falck & Okonski: 2023) to provide deeper insights into the metaphorical use of prepositions by learners.

3. How significant are MRW reuse patterns?

For further quantitative insights, the metaphor reuse rate was calculated to be approximately 2.7. This suggests that each MRW appears, on average, nearly three times in the corpus, which highlights a notable tendency toward metaphor reuse. Consistent with their status as the most frequent MRWs overall, prepositions were also the most frequently reused, which suggests a strong reliance on preposition-based metaphorical expressions among Georgian learners of English, whereas other word classes played a lesser role. Owing to a lack of research, direct comparisons of overall and word-class-based metaphor reuse rates in learner corpora are currently not feasible. However, Cameron (2003) provides a partial parallel in her analysis of the discourse of native English-speaking primary school students, which reveals a reuse rate of 2 and suggests a tendency to repeat metaphorical expressions. It should be noted that Cameron (2003) employed MIV rather than MIPVU; therefore, further research is needed to determine whether metaphor reuse rates vary across different linguistic contexts or proficiency levels.

Next, the discussion turned to the research questions that address metaphorical errors in L2 writing:

4. How are errors distributed between metaphorical and non-metaphorical categories?

To explore the differences between general writing errors and metaphorical errors, 10250 lexical units were analyzed, of which 907 (8.8%) contained errors. Of the 907 erroneous items, 153 (16.9%) were metaphorical errors, which were divided into six subcategories based on the work of Nacey (2010) and James (1998). Grammatical errors were the most frequent, followed by confusion of sense relations, phrasal errors, substance level errors, collocation errors, and synforms. The remaining 754 (83.1%) erroneous items were classified as non-metaphorical errors and were further divided into subcategories based on type and frequency. A closer examination revealed that metaphorical errors—though less frequent than non-metaphorical errors—posed a significant challenge. Confusion of sense relations, phrasal errors, and collocation errors appeared more frequently with metaphorical expressions, which suggests that these expressions are semantically and lexically more difficult to process. Non-metaphorical errors, on the other hand, typically involved grammatical mistakes or misspellings, which are easier to identify and correct with the help of straightforward rules. Metaphorical errors, by contrast, can be attributed to complex semantic and lexical processing issues with L2 words and multi-word expressions. Consequently, they present a greater challenge to written language production, which may hinder effective communication and message clarity. Therefore, it was found to be essential to identify and address metaphorical errors in L2 writing to improve language proficiency and ensure effective communication.

5. How are metaphorical errors distributed across proficiency levels?

A contrastive analysis of 153 metaphorical errors across proficiency levels revealed distinct distribution patterns among B1, B2, and C1 learners. The highest proportion of metaphorical errors (18.6%) was observed at the B2 level, which suggests that learners at this stage actively experiment with figurative language, which results in a higher error rate. The B1 learners also demonstrated significant engagement with metaphorical language, and their errors accounted for 14.7% of the total proportion. In contrast, the C1 learners exhibited fewer errors (9.1%), which suggests that they are more refined and accurate with metaphorical expressions. These findings align with previous research by Littlemore et al. (2014) and Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska (2017), which

found that metaphorical errors peak at the B2 level and decrease with proficiency development. Based on these observations, it can be concluded that the B2 level represents a critical stage in which learners explore metaphorical language more creatively but with a higher susceptibility to errors.

6. *What specific categories of metaphorical errors are prevalent at each proficiency level?*

The categorization of metaphorical errors into seven distinct types extends previous research and provides a more detailed perspective on the challenges learners face at different proficiency levels. Grammatical errors were more prevalent at the B1 and B2 levels than at the C1 level. This finding suggests that intermediate-level learners struggled with the grammatical complexities of figurative language, likely because they were still at the developmental stage of learner language. Advanced-level students, on the other hand, demonstrated a reduced number of grammatical errors when using metaphorical language, which was a result of their improved grammatical proficiency. The persistence of confusion concerning sense relations at all three levels indicates that it was consistently difficult for learners to understand and effectively apply sense relations to metaphors, regardless of their proficiency. This suggests that even advanced learners find it challenging to process the metaphorical meanings of the target language. Notably, phrasal errors were more frequent at the C1 level but less common at B1 and B2 levels. This pattern suggests that higher-proficiency learners tend to employ more complex phrasal expressions and integrate sophisticated language structures into their writing, which may lead to a higher likelihood of errors. In contrast, the B1 and B2 learners relied on simpler language structures, which resulted in fewer phrasal errors. The remaining categories—substance-level errors, collocation errors, and synforms—were infrequent and exhibited only minor variations across proficiency levels, which indicated that these error types were not a significant concern. On the whole, the findings highlight that although grammatical proficiency improves at higher proficiency levels, challenges related to metaphorical meaning persist and call for targeted and explicit instructional support in this area.

Finally, the study examined the research questions concerning the L1-influenced errors:

7. *How are L1-influenced errors distributed across proficiency levels?*

One of the most challenging aspects of the analysis was identifying the influence of learners' L1 on metaphorical and non-metaphorical errors, which in turn revealed distinct error patterns. The

results indicate that L1 influence is more prevalent in metaphorical than non-metaphorical errors. Of the 82 metaphorical errors in the confusion of sense relations, phrasal, and collocation categories, 32 (39%) were influenced by L1, compared to only 13 (10.5%) of the 124 non-metaphorical errors in the same categories. The most frequent error type in both groups was confusion of sense relations, followed by phrasal and collocation errors. These findings suggest that L1 influence has a greater impact on metaphorical language due to its abstract and complex nature. In contrast, non-metaphorical language, which involves more concrete concepts, is easier to interpret directly.

8. *How does L1 transfer impact learners' metaphorical errors across different proficiency levels?*

To address the final research question of this study, a total of 32 L1-influenced metaphorical errors were analyzed across different proficiency levels. Learners at the B1 level exhibited a relatively low proportion of L1-influenced metaphorical errors, which suggests that L1 influence is not a major factor at this stage. L1 influence was highest at the B2 level and represented 27.3% of errors. This indicated that learners actively experiment with metaphorical language while they still rely on native language patterns. Even at the advanced level C1, L1 influence remained significant at 22.7%, which highlights its persistent impact despite increased L2 skills. These findings align with Littlemore et al. (2014), who reported that L1-influenced metaphorical errors increased significantly ($\approx 25\%$) from B1 to B2 and then decreased slightly ($\approx 5\%$) from B2 to C2. Thus, their study identified B2 as a pivotal level for metaphor production. Similarly, Iaroslavtseva and Skorczynska (2017) reported a higher prevalence of L1-influenced metaphorical errors at the B2 level (53%) compared to the C1 level (42%). These findings highlight the need to focus on metaphorical language processing in L2 instruction in order to improve learners' proficiency and reduce errors.

Lastly, **Chapter Six** shifted focus to the pedagogical implications and addressed the secondary research objective of this dissertation through a case study of 24 Georgian EFL learners. Building on Saaty's (2016) experimental study, this investigation extends her approach and evaluates the effectiveness of the task-based language teaching method (TBLT) that involves explicit instruction of conceptual metaphors. The research design overcomes key limitations of previous studies with the introduction of several novel elements. It focuses on advanced C1 learners and offers a further perspective beyond the intermediate and elementary levels examined in

previous research. Unlike most prior studies that lacked a structured teaching framework, this study combined a comprehensive TBLT approach with CMT-based teaching for more effective classroom instruction. Additionally, the study assessed the cued production of metaphorical expressions with the help of an open-ended cloze task, which required participants to generate responses independently rather than select words from a provided list.

An analysis of data from this four-week experiment—including the pre-test, post-test, two-week delayed test, and participant evaluation survey—revealed that Georgian EFL learners' ability to produce metaphors significantly improved following explicit instruction on conceptual metaphors. Notably, the metaphor group outperformed the control group and achieved nearly twice the score in the immediate post-test and more than double in the delayed test. These results contrast with previous studies, such as those by Saaty (2016) and Condon (2006), which reported a decline in long-term retention. However, the present study demonstrated sustained benefits for advanced learners and indicated that CMT is an effective addition to the teaching in both the short and long term. This sustained improvement proves that CMT-based teaching is a valuable pedagogical method for EFL instruction, particularly at the C1 level, where enhancing metaphor awareness can significantly contribute to overall language proficiency. Furthermore, the lesson plan and assessments developed for this case study provide a practical framework to combine CMT instruction with a TBLT approach and equip teachers with concrete strategies to enhance metaphoric competence in the classroom.

Overall, this dissertation offers valuable theoretical, practical, and pedagogical implications for metaphorical language production in L2. The theoretical implications enhance our understanding of the complex relationship between L2 proficiency, L1 influence, and metaphorical language production among Georgian EFL learners. The study findings indicate that metaphor production tends to increase with proficiency, with prepositions being the most commonly used and frequently reused metaphor-related words. Categorizing metaphorical errors into seven distinct types provides a deeper understanding of the challenges learners face at different proficiency levels, such as semantic and grammatical difficulties at the intermediate level and increased phrasal errors at the advanced level. Additionally, the study highlights how L1 continues to influence metaphorical errors, particularly at the B2 level, where learners tend to experiment with metaphorical language while they still rely on L1 patterns. Regarding practical applications, this dissertation critically evaluates metaphor identification procedures and demonstrates that MIPVU

provides the most comprehensive and systematic approach, which ensures greater accuracy and consistency in learner corpus research.

In terms of pedagogical insights, the findings support the integration of Conceptual Metaphor Theory into EFL instruction and show that targeted metaphor-focused instruction enhances metaphor retention and production at advanced proficiency levels. The study emphasizes the potential of task-based approaches to foster metaphor awareness and long-term retention. It also includes a detailed lesson plan and tests that can be used in the EFL classroom. These implications extend beyond the context of Georgian learners of English and contribute to broader reflections on L2 metaphor production.

As expected, this dissertation faced several limitations throughout the various stages of the research process, from initial data collection to the final empirical investigations. A notable limitation is the relatively small size of the Georgian EFL essay corpus, which consists of 60 essays and affects the generalizability of the findings. However, the corpus underwent a thorough and time-intensive manual analysis of 10250 lexical units and 1132 instances of metaphor-related words, which made time constraints a significant challenge—mainly due to the involvement of two raters. In the first phase, which focused on essays at the B1 and B2 proficiency levels, metaphor identification was conducted by two independent raters, including the study author. In the second phase, which analyzed essays at the C1 level, the study author served as the sole rater. Given these constraints, further expansion of the dataset was not feasible with the available resources. Future research that seeks to analyze larger datasets should consider increasing the number of analysts to ensure a more time-efficient process.

Another limitation of this study is its focus on three proficiency levels—B1, B2, and C1—which provide insights into language use at these stages but do not capture the full progression across all six CEFR levels. Furthermore, the exclusive reliance on written data, specifically argumentative essays, may not fully represent the diversity of metaphorical language use. To bridge these limitations, future research could incorporate a wider range of written genres and spoken data from various contexts, such as academic and informal settings, to offer a more comprehensive perspective on metaphor production.

The final limitation concerns participant demographics, particularly gender distribution, which is often considered in similar studies. The majority of the essays in the corpus were authored

by female participants (41), whereas only 19 were written by male participants. This disparity was even more marked in the metaphor teaching experiment, which had 21 female and only 3 male participants. The selection of English majors as the most suitable candidates led to this imbalance. The uneven distribution of gender in this academic group made it difficult to control for gender in the study. In addition to gender-related limitations, the small sample size of EFL students in the metaphor teaching experiment further restricts the generalizability of the findings. This constraint arose because it was problematic to recruit a larger group of advanced English learners who were both willing to commit to the four-week experiment and available to take a proficiency test beforehand to confirm their level. Future research could include a larger, more diverse participant pool with balanced gender representation to address these limitations.

Overall, although various limitations arose at different stages of the research, they were effectively addressed within the available timeframe to ensure that the validity of the findings remained uncompromised. Furthermore, these obstacles provide a foundation for future research that could examine the topic from diverse perspectives and contribute to a deeper understanding of the subject. That said, several open questions that remain for future related research include how the metaphoric competence of L2 learners evolves over time and across all proficiency levels and how they use metaphors across a broader range of genres and modes of language production, including spoken communication. Further research is also needed to explore the influence of factors such as age and gender on metaphor use, as well as the role of individual cognitive styles or learning styles on the comprehension and production of metaphors by EFL learners.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Essay written by a student at the B1 language proficiency level

Tbilisi Public School № 60
Class 12^a
Date: 28.04.2022

Name: *[Signature]*
Age: 18
Gender: M / F

Read the essay task and write between 150-200 words. Support your opinion with arguments

Some people say that teenagers should work part-time and earn money. Others argue that teenagers shouldn't sacrifice their rest and after-school activities to work. Discuss both views and give your opinion

In many countries teenagers work part-time and study simultaneously. Many people think that ^{other} this can damage the quality of their school activities and teenage activities after school.

It is very important for teenagers to realize how hard it is to learn money. For this reason, they can try having part-time job and feel the harsh reality of adult life. After this they will be more motivated to study hard and later have satisfying and respectfull job.

Also, with a part-time job a teenager can help parents and make some contribution to family expences. This way, they will learn sharing responsibility and also feel like important person.

However, a part-time job should not be too demanding and make it possible for a teenager to manage time well between working, studying and resting.

To sum up, part-time jobs are great opportunities to develop some adult skills and also earn enough money to be satisfied.

Appendix B: Transcribed essay with native speaker corrections

Read the essay task and write between 150-200 words. Support your opinion with arguments Some people say that teenagers should work part-time and earn money. Others argue that teenagers shouldn't sacrifice their rest and after-school activities to work. Discuss both views and give your opinion In many countries, teenagers work part-time and study simultaneously. Many people think that this can damage the quality of their school activities and other teenage activities after school. It is very important for teenagers to realize how hard it is to earn money. For this reason, they can try having a part-time job and experience the harsh reality of adult life. After this they will be more motivated to study hard and later have a satisfying and respected job. Also, with a part-time job a teenager can help their parents and make a contribution to the family expenses. This way, they will learn to share responsibility and also feel like an important person. However, a part-time job should not be too demanding and should make it possible for a teenager to manage their time well between working, studying and resting. To sum up, part-time jobs are great opportunities to develop some adult skills and also earn enough money to be satisfied.		Lucy Hume Deleted: i Lucy Hume Deleted: l Lucy Hume Deleted: feel Lucy Hume Deleted: i Lucy Hume Deleted: respectfull Lucy Hume Deleted: some Lucy Hume Deleted: c Lucy Hume Deleted: ing
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Appendix C: Excerpt of coded essay data in spreadsheets for analysis

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T
ID	token	PoS	lexunit	nrlex	notM	indM	dirM	impM	Mflag	WIDLII	DFMA	part	punct	count check	Contextual meaning	Basic meaning	notes	L2 error	L1 transfer
119	However	AV0	c	1	notM									OK					
120	,	PUN	i	0									punct	OK					
121	a	AT0	w	1	notM									OK					
122	part-time	AJ0	c	1	notM									OK					
123	job	NN1	w	1	notM									OK					
124	shold	VM0	w	1	notM									OK				Type 5 Misspelling, Mechanical misspellings: <i>shold</i> instead of <i>should</i>	
125	not	XX0	w	1	notM									OK					
126	be	VBI	w	1	notM									OK					
127	too	AV0	w	1	notM									OK					
128	demanting	AJ0	w	1	notM									OK				Type 5 Misspelling, Mechanical misspellings: <i>demanting</i> instead of <i>demanding</i>	
129	and	CJC	w	1	notM									OK					
130	make	VVB	w	1		indM								OK	MED 3 to cause someone or something to be in a particular state or change to another state	MED 1 to create or produce something by working		Type 4 Grammatical, Auxiliary verb: Omission of <i>should</i>	
131	it	PNP	w	1	notM									OK					
132	possible	AJ0	w	1	notM									OK					
133	for	PRP	w	1	notM									OK					
134	a	AT0	w	1	notM									OK					
135	teenager	NN1	w	1	notM									OK					
136	to	TO0	w	1	notM									OK					
137	manage	VVI	w	1	notM									OK					
138	time	NN1	w	1	notM									OK				Type 4 Grammatical, Pronoun: Omission of <i>their</i>	
139	well	AV0	w	1	notM									OK					

Appendix D: Plan for the interventional lesson for the control group and metaphor group

Mood Swings

Name: _____

Group: MG ☐ CG ☐

Pre-Task: Daily Mood Journal

Part I: Independent work

- On a regular day, how do your emotions change from morning to night? E.g. *In the morning, I often feel alert and motivated because I've had a good night's sleep and I'm excited to start the day. In the evening, I usually feel relaxed, especially if I've completed my tasks.*
- Fill out this daily mood log by describing your emotional state at different times throughout your typical day and providing reasons for each mood or feeling. Consider both external factors (such as events or interactions) and internal factors (such as thoughts or energy levels) that influence your emotions.

Time of Day	Mood/Emotions	Reason for Mood
Morning	e.g. <i>alert, motivated, stressed, tired...</i>	e.g. <i>lack of sleep, anticipating tasks...</i>
Afternoon		
Evening		
Night		

Part II: Work in pairs/Both students respond

Work together with the person sitting next to you. Each of you should ask and respond to these questions:

- Do you ever feel like you are under the weather? When was the last time you felt this way, and how did it affect your mood or actions? E.g. *I felt under the weather last week when I had a cold, and it made me tired and unproductive.*

- Have you ever felt snowed under with work or responsibilities? How did you deal with it? E.g. *I was snowed under during the exam period when I had multiple deadlines to meet.*

3. Can you remember a time when your mood clouded over suddenly? What caused the change, and how did you react? E.g. *My mood clouded over when I received bad news about a project I was excited about.*

4. Have you ever thrown caution to the wind? What was the situation, and do you think it was worth taking the risk? E.g. *I threw caution to the wind when I decided to travel alone last summer without much planning.*

5. Can you describe a time when you received a frosty reception? How did the person's cold or unfriendly behaviour make you feel, and how did you respond? E.g. *I received a frosty reception when I started my new job; my coworkers were distant and didn't seem interested in talking to me.*

6. Do you know someone with a sunny disposition? How does their positive attitude affect the people around them, including you? E.g. *My best friend has a sunny disposition—she's always smiling and making people laugh, even on tough days.*

Part III: Reading

MG instructions:

Read this medical article on mood swings:

1. What would you suggest to a friend to help them cope with mood swings?
2. Mark the phrases or words that are related to **mood/behaviour** or **weather**, e.g. “**frosty reception**”, which refers to the **reception** as being **frosty**, as if it were **weather**.

CG instructions:

Read this medical article on mood swings:

1. What would you suggest to a friend to help them cope with mood swings?
2. Mark the phrases or words that are related to **mood/behavior**, e.g. “**frosty reception**”.

Reading Task

Mood Swings: Causes, Risk Factors, and Ways to Cope

Mood swings are sudden changes in how you feel. They're caused by changing levels of brain chemicals. They can be a regular part of life, like hunger. Or they can be a sign that something else is going on, like adolescence, the transition to menopause, or a mood disorder. Whether it's work piling up or responsibilities at home, it's easy to feel

buried under the weight of it all. During these moments, it can be hard to keep your emotions in check. But there are also days when everything seems to flow smoothly, and you feel light, breezing through your tasks effortlessly.

Mood swings often come and go with little warning. For example, after receiving bad news or facing a setback, a dark cloud can suddenly form over your thoughts, and it may take time for the sky to clear. However, not all mood changes are negative—sometimes a small gesture, like a smile from a stranger or a compliment from a colleague, can warm your mood instantly.

But when these swings in mood become more frequent or intense, they can affect how you interact with others. Have you ever walked into a situation feeling hopeful, only to be met with a frosty reception? A cold exchange can leave you feeling distant and disconnected, even from those you care about. On the flip side, being greeted with a warm welcome can lift your spirits and completely change the direction of your day.

Of course, there are days when no matter what you do, you just don't feel like yourself. It could be a small health issue or just an off day, but when you're feeling under the weather, it's hard to engage with the world around you as you normally would. During such times, it's important to take a step back and give yourself the time and space to recharge.

When emotions become too intense, people often throw caution to the wind, making impulsive decisions without thinking about the consequences. This can create more stress and, over time, take a toll on both mental and physical health. The key is learning how to manage these emotional waves and finding balance, even when things feel overwhelming.

To a certain extent, ups and downs are part of life. There's not much you can do to stop mood swings completely. But there are things you can do to reduce how often you experience them or how severe they are.

- **Take a deep breath:** When emotions rise, take a moment to breathe deeply and regain control. Practicing mindfulness and meditation can help you calm down and clear the emotional fog.
- **Stay active:** Jobs and other circumstances might make us sit a lot. But adding more movement to your daily routine can affect your mood in positive ways. Research shows exercising releases mood-boosting chemicals.
- **Stay connected:** Sometimes, simply talking to someone you trust can provide clarity and comfort. Don't be afraid to reach out to family or friends for a warm, supportive conversation when you're feeling overwhelmed.
- **Create a routine:** Having a structured daily routine can help regulate your mood. Knowing what to expect throughout the day can prevent you from feeling snowed under by responsibilities or worries.
- **Get enough sleep:** Lack of sleep often worsens mood swings. Aim to get a full night's rest to ensure your mind and body are recharged and ready to face the next day.
- **Pause before acting:** When emotions are high, you might feel the urge to make hasty decisions. Try to pause and think before you act.
- **Focus on positive moments:** Sometimes, it's easy to let small problems cloud your day, but actively focusing on positive interactions—like a sunny conversation with a colleague or a warm welcome from a loved one—can help shift your mood in the right direction.

With so many factors that can contribute to mood swings, they can start to feel like a part of everyday life. And there's some truth to that. But that doesn't mean they have to disrupt your life or make you feel like you're no longer in the driver's seat. There are many ways to manage mood swings, from adjusting your daily routine to seeking medical

treatment. And you don't have to do it alone. If your mood swings become more frequent, more intense, or start causing tension in your relationships, a healthcare provider can help.

Part IV: Planning (Independent/Work in pairs)

MG instructions:

After reading the article:

- Look at the daily mood log filled out by the person next to you during the Pre-Task. What advice can you offer to help them manage their mood swings? Try to incorporate vocabulary from the article and propose specific strategies for effective mood regulation.
- List all the phrases or words that are related to **mood/behaviour** or **weather**, e.g. “**frosty reception**”, which refers to the *reception* as being *frosty*, as if it were *weather*.
- Compare your findings with your partner.

CG instructions:

After reading the article:

- Look at the daily mood log filled out by the person next to you during the Pre-Task. What advice can you offer to help them manage their mood swings? Try to incorporate vocabulary from the article and propose specific strategies for effective mood regulation.
- List all the phrases or words that are related to **mood/behaviour**, e.g. “**frosty reception**”.
- Compare your findings with your partner.

Mood swing problems of my friend:

Problem-solving strategies:

MG instructions:

Words and phrases related to **mood/behaviour** and **weather**

E.g. “**frosty reception**”, which refers to the *reception* as being *frosty*, as if it were *weather*.

Write down similar words or phrases and compare your findings with your partner.

CG instructions:

Words and phrases related to **mood/behaviour**

E.g. “**frosty reception**”.

Write down similar words or phrases and compare your findings with your partner.

Part V: Group Reflection and Discussion

Share your suggestions with your groupmates for better mood management. Jot down three effective strategies to help manage mood swings:

E.g. *My friend tends to feel under the weather in the mornings. One solution could be to start the day with a short walk outside to boost his/her mood.*

Part VI: Focus on Vocabulary (Teacher instruction/Work in pairs)

Table for the MG:

	Metaphoric expression	Meaning	Conceptual Metaphor
1	storm in/into	to enter or leave a place in a way that shows that you are angry	AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR IS STORM
2	breeze in/into	to walk into a place quickly and confidently, without worry or embarrassment	CONFIDENT BEHAVIOR IS BREEZE
3	rainy day	a future time of need, esp. financial.	MISFORTUNE IS RAIN
4	cloud over	if a person's face clouds over, they suddenly look unhappy or worried	PRESENT OR FORTHCOMING PROBLEMS IS CLOUD
5	snowed under	having too much to do	LACK OF TIME IS SNOW
6	sunny disposition	someone who has a sunny disposition is usually cheerful and happy	CHEERFUL IS SUNNY
7	warm up	to become friendlier or more receptive	AFFECTION IS WARMTH
8	warm welcome	a hearty, hospitable reception or greeting	
9	frosty reception	unfriendly and not welcoming	LACK OF AFFECTION/UNFRIENDLINESS IS COLD/FROST/ICE
10	icy look/voice	an icy remark, look etc. shows that you feel annoyed with or unfriendly towards someone	
11	shower someone with something	to give someone a lot of presents or praise	TOO MUCH OF SOMETHING IS SHOWER
12	not have the foggiest (idea/memory)	to not know or understand something at all	CONFUSION IS FOG
13	throw caution to the wind	to ignore the risks and deliberately behave in a way that may cause trouble or problems	LACK OF RESTRAINT IS WIND
14	under the weather	if someone is or feels under the weather, they feel ill	HEALTH IS WEATHER

Table for the CG:

Metaphoric expression	Meaning
<u>storm in/into</u>	to enter or leave a place in a way that shows that you are angry
<u>breeze in/into</u>	to walk into a place quickly and confidently, without worry or embarrassment
<u>rainy day</u>	a future time of need, esp. financial
<u>cloud over</u>	if a person's face clouds over, they suddenly look unhappy or worried
<u>snowed under</u>	having too much to do
<u>sunny disposition</u>	someone who has a sunny disposition is usually cheerful and happy
<u>warm up</u>	to become friendlier or more receptive
<u>warm welcome</u>	a hearty, hospitable reception or greeting
<u>frosty reception</u>	unfriendly and not welcoming
<u>icy look/voice</u>	an icy remark, look etc. shows that you feel annoyed with or unfriendly towards someone
<u>shower someone with something</u>	to give someone a lot of presents or praise
<u>not have the foggiest (idea/memory)</u>	to not know or understand something at all
<u>throw caution to the wind</u>	to ignore the risks and deliberately behave in a way that may cause trouble or problems
<u>under the weather</u>	if someone is or feels under the weather, they feel ill

Pair Work Exercise

With a partner, underline the correct italicized word in the sentences below:

- 1) It was obvious that Charles was angry. He came *storming* / *breezing* into the room, threw the contract on the table and demanded to know why he had not been consulted.
- 2) How was the office party? A bit slow at first, but it soon *cooled* / *warmed* up when the boss left!
- 3) It was obvious from the way Peter *breezed* / *stormed* in this morning that Mary had said yes to his proposal.
- 4) Since we sent out the advertising brochure we have been really *hailed* / *snowed* under with work.
- 5) Meeting Jane's parents for the first time was a bit worrying, but they gave me a very *sunny* / *warm* welcome. Her mother was lovely.
- 6) The car broke down on the way to my husband's parents. We were two hours late for Sunday lunch. You can imagine we got a rather *frosty* / *chilly* reception.
- 7) Do you remember the name of that museum in Florence? I haven't got the *haziest* / *foggiest* idea what it was called, Peter! I found it rather dull, to tell you the truth.
- 8) Well, is it going to be a week sightseeing in Belgium or a fortnight in Bali? Let's throw caution to the *wind* / *sky*. Two weeks in the sun! We can worry about paying for it when we come back!

- 9) I think I drank too much last night at dinner. I'm afraid I'm feeling a bit under the *sky / weather* this morning.
- 10) Although she wanted to buy the expensive shoes, she decided to save the money for a *rainy / dark* day, knowing she might need it later.
- 11) As soon as she heard the bad news, I saw her face *haze / cloud* over, and I knew something was wrong.
- 12) Despite the challenges she faced, her *sunny/ bright* disposition remained unchanged, radiating positivity to those around her.
- 13) When he disagreed with her in front of the entire group, she responded with an *icy / chilly* remark, clearly irritated by his interruption.
- 14) On her birthday, her friends decided to *bath / shower* her with gifts making her feel incredibly special.
- 15) They used to be crazy about each other, but I think the relationship has *cooled / frozen* recently.
- 16) What's the matter? Cheer up! You look a bit foggy / gloomy.
- 17) So, you met my old friend Larry yesterday. What did you think of him? A great guy! Yes, I *warmed / melted* to him straightaway.
- 18) Did you have a good time last night? Not really. Jill had some sad news which *clouded / shadowed* the whole evening.

Appendix E: Metaphor pre-test and two-week delayed test

Name: _____

Group: MG ☐ CG ☐

2-week delayed test

Complete Sentences

Complete the sentences with the missing words. Write only one word in each gap. The sentences are taken from authentic British and American sources.

- 1) Many business owners continue to throw caution to the _____, ignoring advice and gut instincts, which makes them easy targets for financial scams.
- 2) Despite arriving late, she _____ into the meeting as if nothing was wrong, flashing a confident smile at everyone in the room.
- 3) I'm terribly sorry, Miss Walkinshaw, but I seem to be under the _____ this afternoon. I was wondering whether you had an aspirin or something that would help?
- 4) Would you like to ski, but you're _____ under with work? Do you dream of a vacation at the bottom of the ocean, but you can't float the bill? Have you always wanted to climb the mountains of Mars, but now you're over the hill? Then come to Rekall Incorporated, where you can buy the memory of your ideal vacation—cheaper, safer, and better than the real thing.
- 5) On most days, Shelley's _____ disposition shines through, and she makes the most of life, regardless of her disability. "I didn't choose to be born this way, and there's nothing I can do to change it", she says, shrugging.
- 6) At first, the new neighbours were quite reserved, but over time they began to _____ up to us after we invited them over for a few friendly gatherings.
- 7) Caroline was always surrounded by adoring males, _____ with gifts and benefits. But so far she had refused to take any of them seriously.
- 8) Despite President Bush's efforts to maintain good relations, he received a _____ reception from many Canadians during his visit, with large protests and open criticism of his policies.
- 9) I know many adults who are so deep in debt that they would be in financial ruin if their car broke down. They haven't learned this lesson yet. So, where is the lesson? Perhaps it was when they were children and learned from their parents how to save money for a _____ day and not to buy things unless they had the cash in hand.
- 10) Despite his polite attempt to engage in conversation, her response was nothing less than an _____ remark. The air seemed to freeze as her gaze fixed on his, making it clear that further interaction was unwelcome.
- 11) A smiling Prince and Princess of Wales arrived in South Korea yesterday to face a _____ welcome, despite renewed media speculation about their marriage. There were no signs of strain as they carried out their three brief engagements of the day.
- 12) Pickles hasn't the _____ idea about how money works; her family pays for everything, and she never has to lift a finger to cover her expenses.
- 13) You saw the police surrounding the building. Did you witness them _____ into the building, or were they just holding their positions outside?
- 14) As soon as she heard the bad news, her face _____ over, and it was clear something was bothering her.

Score:

Appendix F: Metaphor post-test

Metaphor cloze posttest

Name: _____

Group: MG ☐ CG ☐

Posttest: Complete Sentences

Complete the sentences with the missing words. Write only one word in each gap. The sentences are taken from authentic British and American sources.

- 1) For many, the ability to give and share with others in their time of need is nearly impossible due to their own financial situation. Not being able to help others and keeping things for their own _____ day can make some feel guilty and others feel greedy.
- 2) I'm miserable at work not because I'm _____ under, but because I know I'm not really needed. It is, in many ways, a cushy job; nevertheless, it's killing me. I also know that 80-90% of what passes for work here is totally unnecessary.
- 3) During their brief marriage, Mr. Friend often _____ Elaine with luxuries, including a new car and a horse, trying to keep her happy.
- 4) Opera maestro Luciano Pavarotti met a _____ reception when he returned to his old theatre after a five-year absence last night. Critics at Milan's opera house whistled during his performance of the Infante in Verdi's Don Carlo.
- 5) Most of the money supply is created by banks, not the government. Bankers issue more banknotes than they can redeem, betting that people will not _____ into the bank all at once for redemption. However, when a panic hits, their gamble fails.
- 6) A child who is assessed while feeling slightly under the _____ may perform below their usual cognitive ability, making it harder to interpret any genuine changes in their development.
- 7) It was an exciting day for me. However, I had noticed a friend of mine looking quite down. He tried to hide it, but frequently he would just stare off into space and misery would _____ over his face. Seeing as he's a pretty laid-back, carefree guy, I assumed only one thing: something had happened between him and his girlfriend.
- 8) In memory, past lovers never age, but no one stays the same. Thirteen years ago, Helen, a young Irishwoman, would _____ into my apartment with a laugh and a kiss, like fresh air from the Irish Sea. But I had certainly changed, with the grey in my hair as evidence. She must have changed as well.
- 9) Do you have that one difficult co-worker in your office with whom, no matter what you do, you just can't seem to get along? One way to deal with a difficult co-worker is to try to _____ up to them. This is not always easy, and you may have to work at it gradually. It might not work if you have lunch with them in the office or in the company cafeteria. However, it will probably work better if you head out to a restaurant instead.
- 10) Regulation top speed for night driving was ten miles per hour, but Frank pushed it to the limit, throwing caution to the _____. The vehicle charged across the dust and sand at a dizzying nineteen miles per hour. Some rules were made to be broken, and home was waiting.
- 11) Professor Fredrickson found that focusing on positive stimuli helps people restore their normal cardiovascular function. She also found that people who exhibit good coping skills and a happy demeanour are more resilient and relaxed. But it's not just their _____ disposition that helps optimists; they also work hard to live more healthfully.
- 12) Magellan is to be ranked as the first navigator of ancient times, and his voyage is the greatest single human achievement on the sea. Yet when he set off on 20 September 1519, with a royal mandate to search for a passage through to the Mar del Sur, and thus to determine for certain that the Spice Islands were within the Spanish domains, he had not the _____ idea how far he might have to travel.
- 13) He cautiously offered his suggestion, hoping to contribute to the discussion. But before he could finish, she fixed him with an _____ stare. The room fell silent, and it was clear to everyone present that she had no intention of considering his idea.
- 14) President Bush has extended an invitation to British travellers to discover America this year. I am sure our British friends can appreciate that American presidents have not always extended such a _____ welcome. President James Madison, who occupied the White House when it was burned by British troops in 1814, probably thought the British overdid their visit. Fortunately, the relations between the American and British people have improved a great deal since then.

Appendix G: Participant Evaluation Questionnaire

Participant Evaluation Questionnaire

Teaching Vocabulary through Task-Based Approach

For evaluation purposes, I would greatly appreciate it if you could answer the following questions honestly. All responses will remain strictly confidential, anonymous, and used solely for the purposes of my dissertation.

Age:	Date: / / 2024	Group: MG ☐ CG ☐
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How many years have you been learning English?

1-3 years ☐ 4-7 years ☐ 8-11 years ☐ More, specify: _____

Have you had any English training outside of school and university curriculums (e.g. external courses, living abroad, home use)?

Yes ☐ No ☐ If yes, specify: _____

Do you enjoy learning English vocabulary through task-based approach (i.e. learning vocabulary in context of other skills and getting learners involved in a lifelike task)?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Not sure ☐ Why? _____

What are the things you liked about the *Mood Swings* lesson?

What are the things you did not like about the *Mood Swings* lesson?

Is there anything you would change about the *Mood Swings* lesson?

On a scale of 1 to 5, (5 being Strongly agree), circle the number you think is appropriate to the *Mood Swings* lesson?

Item	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
The learning material is informative	5	4	3	2	1
The learning material is new	5	4	3	2	1
The teaching method is new	5	4	3	2	1
The teaching method makes vocabulary easier to memorize	5	4	3	2	1
The teaching method can be good to increase vocabulary	5	4	3	2	1