CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter presented some theories related to this research, previous studies and an overview about World Cup 2014.

2.1 Theoretical Framework

This section discussed some theories related to this research, they were cognitive linguistics, conceptual metaphors, conceptual metaphors as a set of mapping and kinds of metaphor.

2.1.1 Cognitive Linguistics

Cognitive linguistics is concerned with investigating the relationship between human language, the mind and socio-physical experience (Evans, Bergen, and Zinken, 2007:2).

Cognitive linguistics practice can be divided into two main areas of research: cognitive semantics and cognitive (approaches to) grammar. The area of cognitive semantics is concerned with investigating the relationship between experience, the conceptual system, and the semantic structure encoded by language. A cognitive approach to grammar is concerned with modeling the language system (the mental ‘grammar’), rather than the nature of mind.

Conceptual metaphor theory was one of the earliest and most important theories to take a cognitive semantic approach.
Lakoff and Johnson’s (1980) said that metaphor is not simply a stylistic feature of language, but that thought itself is fundamentally metaphorical. According to this view, conceptual structure is organized by cross domain mappings or coherences which exist in long term memory. For example, we can think and talk about *quality* in terms of *vertical elevation*, as in this example:

She got a really *high* mark in the test.

Where *high* related not literally to physical height but to a good mark. According to Conceptual Metaphor Theory, this is because the conceptual domain *quality* is structured and understood in terms of the conceptual domain *vertical elevation*. The claims made by conceptual metaphor theorists like Lakoff and Johnson directly relate to two of the central assumptions associated with cognitive semantics. The first is the embodied cognition thesis, and the second is the thesis that semantic structure reflects conceptual structure.

Embodied cognition thesis is related to experience. Human experience is embodied, it means structured by the nature of the bodies we have and by our neurological organization (cognition). People can only talk about what they can perceive and conceive, and the things that they can perceive and conceive derive from experiences which saved in their mind in the long term memory. The function of the embodiment experience helps us to create the concepts from the nature of the “reality” that we think and talk about.

The second guiding principle is semantic structure reflects conceptual structure. Semantic structure can be equated with conceptual structure but it
does not mean that the two are identical. Instead, cognitive semanticists claim that the meanings associated with linguistic units such as words, for example, form only a subset of possible concepts. After all, we have many more thoughts, ideas and feelings then we can conventionally encode in language. In other word, the more experiences we have can help us to form more set of concepts in the minds of speaker-hearers.

Cognitive linguistics can also be understood by another researcher’s view like Ibarretxe-Antuñano (2004). He states that cognitive linguistics is a new approach to the study of language which views linguistic knowledge as part of general cognition and thinking (mental processes of reasoning, memory, attention or learning).

For cognitive linguists, language is not structured arbitrarily. It is motivated and grounded more or less directly in experience, in our bodily, physical, social, and cultural experiences.

Human experience is the motivation for what is meaningful in the human mind; thought is not a manipulation of symbols but the application of cognitive processes to conceptual structures. Meaning structures come not only from the direct relationship with the external world but also from the nature of bodily and social experience (how humans interact with the world) and from human capacity to project from some aspects based on this experience to some abstract conceptual structures.

The important point of this section, both researchers explained that cognitive linguistics is the study of the relationship between language, human
mind and experience. People can only talk using a language that they can perceive and conceive, and all of it derives from physical, social and cultural experience which is saved in their mind.

2.1.2 Conceptual Metaphors

Metaphor is for most people a device of the poetic imagination and the rhetorical flourish. Metaphor is typically viewed as characteristic of language alone, a matter of words rather than thought or action.

According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), metaphor is a way of conceiving of one thing with the other thing and its primary function is to understanding. Metaphor is not only viewed as characteristics of language, it is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action. Human ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature. The concepts govern human mind and everyday functioning. It means the concepts structure what people perceive, how they get around in the world, and how they relate to other people. The conceptual system thus plays a central role in defining everyday realities. In other word, conceptual metaphor is a neural mapping that influences how people think, reason, and act in everyday life.

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) have found a way to begin to identify in detail just what the metaphors are structure how people perceive, how people think, and what people do. They start with the concept ARGUMENT and the
conceptual metaphor ARGUMENT IS WAR. This metaphor is reflected in our everyday language by a wide variety of expressions:

**ARGUMENT IS WAR**
- Your claims are **indefensible**.
- He **attacked every weak point** in my argument.
- His criticisms were **right on target**.
- I **demolished** his argument.
- I've never **won** an argument with him.
- You disagree? Okay, **shoot**!
- If you use that **strategy**, he'll **wipe you out**.
- He **shot down** all of my arguments.

All variety of expression above shows that many of the things that people *do* in arguing are partially structured by the concept of war. We can actually win or lose arguments. We see the person we are arguing with as an opponent. We attack his positions and we defend our own. We plan and use strategies. Though there is no physical battle, there is a verbal battle, and the structure of all variety of expression above reflects this. The conceptual metaphor ARGUMENT IS WAR is one of metaphor that we live by in our culture and its structures what we do, how we understand, and what we are doing when we perform in arguing.

Try to imagine a culture where arguments are not viewed in terms of war, where no one wins or loses, where there is no sense of attacking or defending. Imagine a culture where an argument is viewed as a dance, the participants are seen as performers, and the goal is to perform in a balanced and aesthetically pleasing way. In such a culture, people would view arguments differently, experience them differently, and talk about them differently. But it would probably not view them as arguing at all. It would
seem strange even to call what they were doing "arguing." In perhaps the most neutral way of describing this difference is every culture has its discourse form to structures their conceptual metaphor.

In the cognitive linguistic view, Kövecses (2010) says metaphor is defined as understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain. A conceptual metaphor consists of two conceptual domains, source domain and target domain. The conceptual domain from which we draw metaphorical expressions to understand another conceptual domain is called **source domain**, while the **target domain** is the domain that we try to understand through the use of the source. Examples of this include when we talk and think about *arguments* in terms of *war*. The target domain is *arguments* and the source domain is *war*.

An important generalization that emerges from these conceptual metaphors is that conceptual metaphors typically employ a more abstract concept as target and a more concrete concept as their source. This generalization makes intuitive sense. If we want to fully understand an abstract concept, we are better off using another concept that is more concrete, physical, or tangible than the abstract target concept for this purpose. In other word, the metaphorical process typically goes from the more concrete to the more abstract but not the other way around. Human experiences with the physical world serve as a natural and logical foundation for the comprehension of more abstract domains.
In this explanation so far, the researcher can conclude that metaphor is not just a matter of language or words. There are metaphors in a person’s conceptual system, it influences how people think, reason and act in everyday life. The concepts derive from human experiences (include physical, social and cultural experiences). When people know a conceptual metaphor, they use the linguistic expressions that reflect it in such a way, in other word, they use metaphorical linguistic expressions that cluster together to form systems called conceptual metaphors. In the present example by Lakoff and Johnson, people use variety of expressions such as indefensible, attacked every weak point, won, shot down, etc to form a conceptual metaphor, ARGUMENT IS WAR. ARGUMENT is structured, understood, performed, and talked about in terms of WAR. The concept is metaphorically structured, the activity is metaphorically structured, and the language is metaphorically structured.

2.1.3 Conceptual Metaphor as a Set of Mapping

According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), the metaphorical concept is systematic, the language we use to talk about that aspect of the concept is systematic. In the ARGUMENT IS WAR metaphor, all expressions from the vocabulary of war, e.g., attack a position, indefensible, strategy, new line of attack, win, gain ground, etc., form a systematic way of talking about the battling aspects of arguing.

There is a set of systematic correspondences between the source and the target, the constituent conceptual elements of B correspond to constituent
elements of A. Technically, this conceptual correspondences are often referred to as mappings (Kövecses, 2010:7). We can see an example of the systematic set of mapping in the following conceptual metaphor.

**LOVE IS A JOURNEY**

I don’t think this relationship is *going anywhere*.
We’re just *spinning our wheels*.
It’s been a *long, bumpy road*.
We’ll just have to go *our separate ways*.
This relationship is *foundering*.
We’re *at a crossroads*.
We’ve *gotten off the track*.
We can’t *turn back* now.
This relationship is *a dead-end street*.

The uses of the sentence “I don’t think this relationship is *going anywhere*”, the expression *go somewhere* indicates travelling to a destination, in this particular sentence, a journey that has no clear destination. The word “*I*” obviously refers to the travellers. This sentence then gives us three constituent elements of journeys: the travellers, the travel or the journey, and the destination. However, when we hear this sentence in the appropriate context, we will interpret it to be about love, and we will know that the speaker of the sentence has in mind not real travellers but lovers, not a physical journey but the events in a love relationship, and not a physical destination at the end of the journey but the goal(s) of the love relationship. The sentence “We’re just *spinning our wheels*” suggests that somehow relationships are conceptually equated with the vehicles used in journeys. The sentence “It’s been *a bumpy road*” is not about the physical obstacles on the way but about the difficulties that the lovers experience in their relationship. And the sentence “We’re at *a crossroads*” will mean that choices have to be
made in the relationship, and not that a traveller has to decide which way to go at a fork in the road.

From these interpretations, we can lay out a set of mappings between constituent elements of the source and target. In giving the mappings, Kövecses reverse the target-source order of the conceptual metaphors. He adopts this convention to emphasize the point that understanding typically goes from the more concrete to the more abstract concept.

Source: JOURNEY \hspace{1cm} Target: LOVE

the travelers \hspace{1cm} ⇒ \hspace{1cm} the lovers
the vehicle \hspace{1cm} ⇒ \hspace{1cm} the love relationship itself
the journey \hspace{1cm} ⇒ \hspace{1cm} events in the relationship
the distance covered \hspace{1cm} ⇒ \hspace{1cm} the progress made
the obstacles encountered \hspace{1cm} ⇒ \hspace{1cm} the difficulties experienced
decisions about which way to go \hspace{1cm} ⇒ \hspace{1cm} choices about what to do
the destination of the journey \hspace{1cm} ⇒ \hspace{1cm} the goal(s) of the relationship

This is the systematic set of mappings, that characterize the love is a journey conceptual metaphor. It was the application of the journey domain to the love domain that provided the concept of love with this particular structure or set of elements.

A conclusion from this part describes that when the speakers know a conceptual metaphor, they use linguistic expressions that reflect it in such a way (systematic way) that they do not violate the mappings that are conventionally fixed for the linguistic community. However, there is an important point that should be remembered, Kövecses (2010:10) states that not any element of B can be mapped onto any element of A.
2.1.4 Kinds of Conceptual Metaphor

According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980) and Kovecses (2010), there are mainly three kinds of metaphorical concepts, namely, orientational metaphor, structural metaphor and ontological metaphor.

First, structural metaphors are cases where one concept is metaphorically structured in the terms of another (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980:14). In this kind of metaphor, the source domain provides a relatively rich knowledge structure for the target concept. Source domains provide frameworks for target domains. In other words, the cognitive function of these metaphors is to enable speakers to understand target A by means of the structure of source B. ARGUMENT IS WAR is an example of a structural metaphor. The concept argument is structured in the term of war.

There are a lot of other structural metaphor examples in our everyday life. One of them is the metaphorical concept “TIME IS MONEY”, which is reflected in contemporary English.

TIME IS MONEY
You're wasting my time.
I don't have the time to give you.
How do you spend your time these days?
I've invested a lot of time in her.
I don't have enough time to spare for that.
You're running out of time.
You need to budget your time.
Do you have much time left?
You don't use your time, profitably.
I lost a lot of time when I got sick.
Thank you for your time.

Time in Western culture is a valuable commodity. In modern Western culture, work is typically associated with the time it takes and time is precisely
quantified, it has become customary to pay people by the hour, week, month or year. **TIME IS MONEY** reflected in many ways: telephone message units, hourly wages, hotel room rates, interest on loans, and paying your debt to society by "serving time." This concept has arisen in modern industrialized societies and structures the basic everyday activities in a very profound way. Corresponding to the fact, people act as time is a valuable commodity, a limited resource, even money. People conceive of time that way. Thus People understand and experience time as the kind of thing that can be spent, wasted, budgeted, invested wisely or poorly, saved, or squandered.

**TIME IS MONEY, TIME IS A LIMITED RESOURCE and TIME IS A VALUABLE COMMODITY** are all metaphorical concepts. They are metaphorical since we are using our everyday experiences with money, limited resources, and valuable commodities to conceptualize time. This isn't a necessary way for human beings to conceptualize time; it is tied to our culture. There are cultures where time is none of these things (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980:8-9). It means that culture also influences the way people use conceptual metaphor, different culture will form different conceptual metaphors.

Second, the next kind of metaphor is **orientational metaphor**. This metaphor organizes a whole system of concepts with respect to one another. It means orientational metaphor organizes concepts by giving them a spatial orientation: up-down, in-out, front-back, on-off, deep-shallow, and central-peripheral. These spatial orientations derive from the structure of our bodies
and how we physically interact in our culture or environment. These metaphors give a concept a spatial orientation; for example, HAPPY IS UP. The fact that the concept HAPPY is oriented up leads to English expressions like "I'm feeling up today."

Such metaphorical orientations are not arbitrary. They have a basis in human physical and cultural experience. Though the polar oppositions are physical in nature, the orientational metaphors based on them vary from culture to culture. For example, in some cultures the future is in front of us, whereas in others it is in back. The use of orientational metaphor is depending on kind of physical and cultural experience of each society.

Lakoff and Johnson (1980:15) give a brief illustration about how such metaphorical concept might have arisen from our physical and cultural experience. These accounts are mean to be suggestive and plausible, not definitive.

**HAPPY IS UP; SAD IS DOWN**
I'm feeling up. That boosted my spirits. you're in high spirits.
I'm feeling down. I'm depressed. I fell into a depression.

**physical basis:** Drooping Posture typically goes along with sadness and depression, erect posture with a positive emotional state.

**CONSCIOUS IS UP; UNCONSCIOUS IS DOWN**
Get up. Wake up. I'm up already. He rises early in the morning.
He fell asleep. He's under hypnosis. He sank into a coma.

**Physical basis:** Humans and most other mammals sleep lying down and stand up when they awaken.

**HEALTH AND LIFE ARE UP**
**SICKNESS AND DEATH ARE DOWN**
He's at the peak of health. Lazarus rose from the dead. As to his health, he's way up there.
He fell ill. He came down with the flu. He dropped dead.

**Physical basis:** Serious illness forces us to lie down physically. When you're dead, you are physically down.

The concept *up* is same in all these metaphors, but the experiences on which these *up* metaphors are very different. HAPPY IS UP has a different kind of experiential basis than CONSCIOUS IS UP or LIFE AND HEALTH ARE UP. Our experience in many different ways gives rise to many different metaphors.

Third, the last kind of conceptual metaphor is **ontological metaphor**. According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980: 25), Ontological metaphors provide ways of viewing events, activities, emotions, ideas, etc., as entities and substances.

Lakoff and Johnson take the experience of rising price which can be metaphorically viewed as an entity via the noun *inflation*.

**INFLATION IS AN ENTITY**

*Inflation is lowering* our standard of living.
If there's much *more inflation*, we'll never survive.
We need to *combat inflation*.
Buying land is the best way of *dealing with inflation*.
*Inflation makes me sick*.

Inflation here is viewed as an entity, it is possible to refer to it, to quantify it, to act with respect to it and to see it as a cause for something.

Ontological metaphors serve various purposes, and the various kinds of metaphors there are reflect the kinds of purposes served. The following list gives some idea of the kinds of purposes:
**Referring**
My fear of insects is driving my wife crazy.
The middle class is a powerful silent force in American politics.

**Quantifying**
It will take a lot of patience to finish this book.
DuPont has a lot of political power in Delaware.

**Identifying Aspect**
The ugly side of his personality comes out under pressure.
We never got to feel thrill of victory in Vietnam.

**Identifying Causes**
The pressure of his responsibilities caused his breakdown.
Our influence in the world has declined because of our lack of moral fiber

**Setting Goals and Motivating Actions**
He went to New York to seek fame and fortune.
She saw getting married as the solution to her problems.

Most of these expressions are not noticed as being metaphorical. The reason for this is that ontological metaphors serve a very limited range of purposes (referring, quantifying, etc.), it is merely viewing a nonphysical thing as an entity or substance does not allow us to comprehend very much about it.

Ontological Metaphor is used to comprehend events, actions, activities, and states. Events and actions are conceptualized metaphorically as objects, activities as substances, states as containers. (ibid., 30)

Personification is the extension of ontological metaphor. It comprehends a wide variety of experiences with nonhuman entities in the terms of human motivations, characteristics, and activities. In other word, it is seeing something nonhuman as human. Here are some examples:

Inflation has attacked the foundation of our economy.
Our biggest enemy right now is inflation
The dollar has been destroyed by inflation
Inflation has robbed me of my savings.

Here inflation is personified, but the metaphor is not merely INFLATION IS A PERSON. It is much more specific, namely, INFLATION IS ADVERSARY. Its specific metaphor about inflation is used to give a way of acting toward it. People think of inflation as an adversary that can attack them, hurt them, steal from them, even destroy them.

The point here is that personification is a general category that also provides a very wide range of metaphors.

2.2 Previous Study

Some previous researchers have done their research about conceptual metaphor in different aspects of life, they were as follow:

The researcher found another researcher who has been analyzed metaphor in medical discourse. Wen-Yu Chiang and Ren-Feng Duann (2007) were done with her research about Conceptual metaphors for SARS: 'war' between whom? They analyzed naming strategies and conceptual metaphors for SARS in three major broadsheet newspapers, The Liberty Times and The United Daily News in Taiwan, and The People’s Daily in China, their research demonstrated how the political agendas and underlying ideologies of newspapers permeated their use of metaphors. They took critical metaphor analysis (Charteris-Black, 2004) as the theoretical framework. They argued that all the linguistic devices under consideration represent SARS as an issue in the domain of political rather than medical discourse.
Ekaning Krisnawati (2014) has conducted the research about Metaphor in Indonesian Soccer News. It discussed a cognitive view on metaphors found in Indonesian soccer news published in two Indonesian newspapers. This research used conceptual metaphor theory by Lakoff and Johnson (1980). The writer used MIPVU (Metaphor Identification Procedure Vrije Universiteit) method developed by Steen et al. (2010) to identify metaphorical linguistic expressions in the data sources. The results revealed that metaphorically, the game of soccer perceives goals as gold and crops, and the games themselves are hunting.

Faisal Risdianto (2014) has done with the research about The Use of Metaphor in Barack Obama’s Inauguration Speech. This research was a (qualitative) bibliographical study. This study aimed to elaborate the uniqueness of Barack Obama’s inaugural speech after he was sworn in as the 44th US president at 20 January 2009. The writer used the perspective of Lakoff and Johnson’s conceptual metaphor to analyze the data. The result of analysis showed 23 sentences which contain metaphor in Barrack Obama’s inaugural speech text. the researcher drew a conclusion that Obama effectively and creatively used metaphorical expressions in convincing his people about his future plans. His remarkable speech discussed how to solve the great scale of the economic mess that now confronts the US and the common feeling of the loss of national self-confidence.

Murdani, Yusrita Yanti, & Nova Rina (2014) were done with a research about the use of metaphor in the Jakarta Post. Their theoretical
frameworks proposed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980). Their finding showed two conclusions. First, metaphorical expression is also used in political issues. Second, there are three types of metaphor used in the Jakarta post, namely structural metaphor, orientational metaphor and ontological metaphor. Among the three types of metaphors, orientational and ontological metaphors were the most frequent used in the Jakarta Post and structural metaphor was rare one.

The researcher took a lot of lessons from all previous studies, it also helped the researcher the way to start until finish this research about conceptual metaphor. Perhaps, this research had same topic about sport news with one of the previous studies above. However, in this research, the data was taken from English language newspaper which did not need to be translated as the previous study did. The researcher also wanted to not only focus on a target domain from the data.

2.3 World Cup 2014

World Cup was an international football competition in every four years. The 2014 FIFA World Cup was the 20th FIFA World Cup, It took place in Brazil from 12 June to 13 July 2014. The qualification matches played between June 2011 and November 2013.

There were 32 teams played a total of 64 matches in 12 venues located in many host cities across Brazil. The Twelve cities that hosted matches are Belo Horizonte, Brasilia, Cuiaba, Curitiba, Fortaleza, Manaus, Natal, Porto Alegre, Recife, Salvador, Sao Paulo and Rio de Janeiro. The country received
visitors from 202 countries, FIFA in each host city gathered a total of 5 million people.

The final match was played at Estádio do Maracanã in Rio de Janeiro and won by Germany. Germany became the first European team to win a World Cup staged in the Americas. As the winners, Germany qualified for the 2017 FIFA Confederations Cup in Russia. The runner-up of this game was Argentina, the Netherlands came to the third-place, and the fourth-place was Brazil.

World cup match was the most awaited football competition by almost the entire people in this world. It was not surprised when this match became the world topic through various media such as newspapers, televisions, YouTube, and many others online media.

One of media which reported World Cup 2014 match was The Jakarta post. It was an English-language newspaper in Indonesia. It has printed version and online version. Jakarta Post reported the world cup matches from the qualification until the final match.

All in all, because the main topic of this research was about conceptual metaphor, the writer intended to analyze metaphors and kinds of conceptual metaphors used by The Jakarta Post in World cup 2014 news which retrieved from http://www.thejakartapost.com.