Conceptual Metaphors of Learning in Vietnamese Film Conversations

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Abstract: - Introduction

Conversation – or verbal communication between people – is essential in our everyday lives. People need to talk in social relationships or in common communication to exchange information, establish and maintain social relationships, and discuss together to find solutions to professional issues and even other problems in their daily lives. According to Liddicoat (2007), one of the ways people can socialize, develop, and sustain their relationships is through conversation. As a result, delivering information smoothly is critical to achieving its goal. Understanding and attraction are inseparable in conversational analytic thinking-understanding is a continuous, dynamic process that is constructed and modified in and through interaction.

Conversations in films are also talks about issues in people's daily lives. Although the scriptwriters choose and write the conversational settings, their purposes are the same as those in everyday conversations, as Dose (2013) states, "Speakers use language for a wide range of communicative purposes: in tradition to conveying information, speakers express opinions, feelings, and attitudes." As a result, conversational situations in films contain obstacles that make conversations less smooth than conversations in real life.

Kövecses (2005), for example, discusses the role of cultural variation in metaphor usage. Charteris-Black (2004) investigates political and religious discourse as well as press reports, whereas Semino (2008) contributes metaphor analyses of literature, politics, science and education, conversations, and the media's representation of illness.

Carter (2004) refers to metaphor use in conversation as 'demotic creativity.' Cameron (e.g., 1999, 2003, 2007a, 2007b, 2008a, 2008b) continues to contribute to the study of metaphor in speech.

They provide metaphor analyses from a multimodal perspective, including the interaction of language and gesture as well as language and pictures. The focus on authentic manifestations of metaphor and their functions in actual discourse, rather than theorizing on the basis of invented examples, is a critical tenet in each of these studies.

In Vietnam, basing on Lakoff and Johnson's theory, a number of scholars give a variety of reviews, overviews, research related to conceptual metaphor, for example, Suy nghĩ về ẩn dụ khái niện trong thế giới thi ca từ góc nhìn của ngôn ngữ học tri nhận (Thinking of conceptual metaphor in poetry in terms of cognitive linguistics) (Nguyễn Lai, 2009), Khảo luận ẩn dụ tri nhận (Treatise of cognitive metaphor) (Trần Văn Cơ, 2009), Ẩn dụ ý niệm (Conceptual metaphor) (Phan Thế Hưng, 2007), Ẩn dụ dưới góc độ tri nhận (Metaphor from the perspective of cognition) (Phan Thế Hưng, 2009); Ẩn dụ trong tình yêu (Metaphor in love) (Phan Văn Hòa, 2011) and so on.

However, as a concept denoting conversation, university students 'conversation has received little attention thus far. There is no research on the conceptual metaphor of university students' conversations anywhere in the world. Similarly, no previous studies of conceptual metaphors in university students' conversations have been conducted in Vietnam. As a result, the author would like to conduct this research to investigate the

conceptual metaphors used in the Vietnamese film conversations. This study aims at understanding the usage of metaphors in Vietnamese students' conversations in educational films in term of cognitive linguistics.

2. Literature Review:

2.1. Conversations- Conversation Analysis (Contextual Analysis)

Many linguists define the term "conversation" as follows: According to Arthur (1987, p.5), a "conversation" is a time when two or more people have the right to talk or listen without being constrained by a fixed schedule, such as an agenda. Everyone has something to say in a conversation, and anyone can speak at any time." According to Maybin (1996, p.5), "conversation is without a doubt the foundation stone of the social world - human beings learn to talk in it, find a mate in it, rise in social hierarchy as a result of it, and, it is suggested, may even develop mental illness as a result of it." According to cutting (2002), "conversation is discourse that is mutually constructed and negotiated in time between speakers; it is usually informal and unplanned." The characteristics of a conversation as a social activity are highlighted in the preceding definitions. However, Finegan et al. [1994, p.316] provide a definition of conversation that is related to the thesis: "Conversation can be used as a series of speech acts - greeting, enquiries, comments, requests... To complete the work of speech acts, some organization is required: we take turns speaking, answering questions, marking the beginning and end of the conversation, and making corrections as needed."

Conversations in films are also talks about issues in people's daily lives. Although the scriptwriters choose and write the conversational settings, their purposes are the same as those in everyday conversations, as Dose (2013) states, "Speakers use language for a wide range of communicative purposes: in tradition to conveying information, speakers express opinions, feelings, and attitudes." As a result, conversational situations in films contain obstacles that make conversations less smooth than conversations in real life.

Each and every communicative context is unique, and as a result, metaphorical conceptualization varies. We may differentiate two broad categories of characteristics that appear to influence metaphor variation: those related to unequal experience and those related to differential "cognitive styles." The contextual aspects discussed below are all related to differentiated experience. They are composed of some form of conceptual knowledge (i.e., knowledge with conceptual substance) that reflects (direct or indirect) sensory experiences of the environment. These are the kinds of experiences that can prompt the usage of specific metaphors. To create and grasp metaphors, conceptualizers must have access (directly or indirectly) to the experiences referenced in the5. 2 Contextual Factors and Their Types 95metaphors. These shared experiences enable conceptualizers to construct and interpret contextually induced or generated metaphors in conversation. By contrast, the variables classified as cognitive styles reflect the specific ways in which experiences of the world must be portrayed in light of a linguistic community's dominant cognitive conventions and preferences. Such issues as the level of generality at which a metaphorical idea should be presented (schematicity), how it should be framed (framing), the degree to which it should be conventionalized (conventionalization), and which aspect of the body it should involve (experiential focus), are presentational in nature (see, for example, Kövecses 2015a). In general, the former collection of characteristics (i.e., differential experience) addresses the subject of "what" can motivate or fuel the usage of particular metaphors, whereas the latter set addresses the issue of "how" metaphorical conceptualizing should be given in a language community. The latter variables indicated under divergent cognitive style work as limitations on the speaker-conceptualizer alone, who must adhere to the language community's linguistic and cognitive traditions. This is not the case for the hearer (conceptualizer 2/comprehended). Now, let us consider the numerous contexts and the more particular contextual aspects that contribute to their formation. (See Kövecses 2015a for a full explanation and a number of examples.) Contextual Context The situational context is made up of

numerous contextual variables. Typically, this type of context is regarded to include the physical environment, the social environment, and the cultural environment. The physical environment can influence how metaphorical meaning is constructed. It encompasses the flora, fauna, geography, temperature, weather, and perceptual qualities of the setting, among other things. For instance, it is widely accepted that American English metaphors for the physical environment are distinctively different from those of other English-speaking countries (see, for example, Kövecses 2000c). The small-scale, local environment, such as the visible events occurring in or the perceptual qualities of a scenario, can also exert an influence on the metaphoric formation process. The social situation encompasses all parts of life that are social in nature and often revolve on concepts such as gender, class, politeness, job, education, social organizations, and social structure. Each of these factors can contribute to metaphorical conceptualization. Kolodny (1975, 1984) demonstrates, for example, that American men and women developed significantly different metaphorical images for what they conceived of as the frontier in America prior to the twentieth century. While women frequently viewed the American frontier as a96 Conceptual or Contextual? Garden to be cultivated, men viewed it as "virgin land to be claimed." (See Kövecses 2005 for several further examples of gender metaphors.) Gender can, of course, be considered a component of culture, not just a social issue. In general, the differences made in this section are purely heuristic. The cultural situation encompasses both the global context (represented by the conceptual system's shared knowledge) and the local context (the specific knowledge in a given communicative situation). A case in point of how the global context can influence metaphorical conceptualization is the way that different concepts can generate disparate metaphors in different cultures and languages, such as the metaphors for anger: anger is heat (of fluid or solid) in a large number of languages, including English and Hungarian, whereas in Chinese, the metaphor can also include gas as its source domain –as a result of the influence of Yin and Yang theory (see Yu 1998). A comparable role can be played by the more

immediate local setting in the formation of metaphors (see Kövecses 2010b). Context of the Discourse The discourse context encompasses the surrounding discourse, knowledge about the major components of speech, prior discourses on the same subject, and the prevalent modes of discourse on a given subject. The linguistic context − frequently referred to as "cotext" − is simply the surrounding discourse. When viewed through the lens of the producer of the discourse (the speaker), elements of the preceding discourse (either by the speaker/conceptualizer 1 or by the hearer/conceptualizer 2) can influence the (unconscious)choice of metaphors, as demonstrated by Kövecses (2010b) using an example from The Times: "which helped to tip the balance − and Mr Hain − over the edge." The contextually induced metaphor in this case is derived from the elliptical use of the verb tilt in the phrase tilt Mr. Hain over the edge. The inclusion of the word tilt in the immediate context prompts the second use of the metaphor. Conceptualizers frequently rely on their familiarity with the three primary components of a discourse: the speaker, the hearer, and the topic.

2.2. The conceptual metaphor theory (CMT)

In Lakoff and Johnson's (1980, 2003) study, they first recognize that bodily experience is the foundation for metaphorical conceptualization, but later, with the help of many other researchers in the field, they acknowledge that metaphor may arise from the physiology of itself, as in the case of anger. "At first, we only assumed that conceptual metaphors were based on bodily experience." They realize that the system of metaphors for anger arose from the physiology of anger itself, across languages and cultures" (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003). According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), "the essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another, and we act according to how we think about things" (p.5). They demonstrated how metaphors differ from similes by using the following example: "Her cheeks are like red roses" is a simile, but "Her rosy cheeks..." is a metaphor."Metaphor is a shortened or compressed simile, without the like element; we now know that this is not as simple as it may appear, as the only similarities relevant to

metaphor are those experienced by people," they explained (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980).

Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT), which proposes that metaphor is primarily a systematic cognitive model of concepts rather than a type of stylistic use of language, has sparked a major revolution in the study of metaphor. As a result, a large number of cognitive linguists use CMT to analyze metaphors (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a; Lakoff, 1993; Kovecses, 2010; Gibbs, 2011). CMT not only emphasizes the pervasiveness of metaphor in daily life, but it also implies that metaphor influences how people think, speak, and act (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003; Deignan, 2005; Littlemore 2009; Kovecses, 2010). More importantly for linguists, CMT can be viewed as a conceptual explanation for the metaphorical component of language use.

2.3. Conceptual Metaphor in Education

According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980:185-186), metaphors are necessary in making sense of what is going on around us because they are grounded in subjective experience. As a result, metaphors should be regarded as an essential component of scientific thought, capable of providing insight and direction to even the most technical or theoretical constructs. In short, metaphor is a valuable mental tool, a problem-solving tool that can be applied to any field, including language learning and teaching. Nonetheless, for a long time, metaphor was not thought to be necessary for a cognitive understanding of what was taught and learned (Petrie 1993:438). According to Marchant (1992:34), the use of metaphors in education is only just getting started. Leino and Drakenberg (1993:1) also point out how the interdisciplinary nature of modern thought has pushed metaphor to the center of educational concerns. Furthermore, Ellis (1998:67) contends that metaphor analysis has become a common tool in both educational and applied linguistic research. The following will make an attempt to describe how language teachers and language learners alike can benefit from an understanding of the importance of metaphor in education.

According to Barcelona (2000), cognitive linguistics evolved as a result of the growing interest in understanding the nature of the human mind in general. Similarly, Cameron (1999) claims that the shift in metaphor studies back to a more overtly cognitive position is due to the work done by key figures in the field over the last twenty years. Despite some dissenting voices, Stalhammar (1997) believes that Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) Metaphors We Live By has achieved cult status. In contrast to the previous objectivist viewpoint, Lakoff (1987) proposes experiential realism to determine what a person thinks. With the introduction of narrative methods, including the use of metaphors, Leino and Drakenberg (1993) observed a parmetaphorsigm shift from positivist research orientations to more phenomenological ones. According to Cortazzi and Jin (1999), it is now common in teacher education to ask teachers to identify their own metaphors for teaching, learning, and the classroom as part of a reflective process to assist them in professional development.

On the other hand, Leino and Drakenberg (1993) and Guerrero and Villamil (2000) argue that little research has been conducted on the metaphors of foreign language learning and teaching; however, the importance of pursuing metaphorical analysis is recognized. Guerrero and Villamil go on to say that the majority of the research on metaphor identification is based on reviews of the literature, with only a few studies using empirical data.

2.4. Conceptual Metaphor about Learning

There appear to be far fewer studies on metaphorical expressions about language learning, let alone language learners, than on language teachers. Cortazzi and Jin conducted a large study on metaphor use that metaphorsdressed the issues of knowing about learners' learning thinking (1999). The authors gathered metaphors from four sources: three groups of British undergrmetaphorsuate and postgrmetaphorsuate students on educational courses in the United Kingdom, and one cross-cultural group of students on a summer course in the United Kingdom. All participants taught or studied English as a first or second language; there were a total of 868 participants in the corpora. Cortazzi and Jin (1999) wanted to know what kinds of metaphors teachers and students used to refer to learning,

teaching, language, and good teachers, and how these metaphors could be used to build "bridges to learning." They also investigated aspects of different cultural approaches to communication and learning, as well as similarities and differences among the subject groups. Their definition of metaphor was comparable to Lakoff and Johnson's (1980).

The metaphors appeared in normal running speech in interviews with 128 primary school teachers in the first group (Cortazzi and Jin 1999). The majority of them used metaphors repeatedly at the high points of their narratives about their primary children's learning experiences. Their metaphors referred to fleeting moments of learning: learning is a click, light, jigsaw puzzle, and movement. Metaphors frequently preceded emotional expressions and important job evaluations, and they appeared to replace technical terms for teaching. The rest of the data, on the other hand, was elicited metaphors obtained by asking subjects in other groups to complete sentences such as 'Teaching is..., because...'; 'Language is...'; and 'A good teacher is...'. Subjects were encouraged to provide metaphors, and those who did not were barred from participating in the study. Elicitations produced a much brometaphorser range of metaphors than spontaneous ones. The classification was based on the metaphor and its implications, the students' explanations, and similarities with other metaphors.

The dominant conceptual teaching metaphors generated by the second group of 140 teacher trainees were (Cortazzi and Jin, l999): teaching is a journey, food or drink, plant growth, skill, occupation (other than teaching), entertainment, treasure hunting, family relationships, war, and construction or part of a building. There were explanations for each metaphor; for example, teaching is an endless journey because everyone (including the teacher) is always learning. These educators demonstrated warmth, achievement, challenge, and awareness of their professional culture as well as a commitment to learning.

Liskin-Gasparro (1998) investigated the thoughts of seven metaphorsvanced Spanish learners chosen from a larger group of volunteers. The data consisted of their oral and written, formal and informal reports and reflections on their six-week immersion program in the Spanish School in the United States. Ellis (1998) conducted a comparison of the metaphors used by SLA researchers to characterize language learners and those used by learners to characterize their learning. The first part of the study (Ellis, 1998) involved selecting current articles by nine lemetaphorsing SLA researchers. The most important metaphorical linguistic expressions were classified. It was difficult to figure out what was metaphorical in a text. According to Lakoff and Turner (1989), a linguistic expression is metaphorical if it is conceptually linked to an obvious source domain. As a result, literalized expressions were ignored. Despite the fact that many metaphors in the corpora metaphors the target domain 'learning' or 'language use,' he chose to refer to them using the frame LEARNER AS X. The nine researchers used the following basic metaphors: learners as a container, machine, negotiator, problem solver, builder, struggler, and investor. Ellis (1998) interprets the metaphors by elaborating on their meaning. Some metaphors were contradictory, i.e., the same researchers could see the learner as both a passive object and an active investigator. Ellis went on to say that the SLA researchers had failed to explain this paradox.

The second part of the study (Ellis, 1998) used the same methods as the first part's metaphorical reading. Six metaphor results began keeping diaries. German as a foreign language students at two London colleges were studied. The students were chosen as diarists because they demonstrated a positive attitude toward learning German. They were asked to keep a journal of their reactions to the course and to think about their attitudes toward teachers and language learning. They kept writing for another seven months. The analysis of the diaries revealed five major metaphors. Learners used the following basic metaphors: learner as sufferer, problem solver, traveller, struggler, and worker.

3. Methodology:

3.1. Research design

Research design refers to the strategy for conducting the research. It aims to shape necessary conditions

for data collection and analysis that are fit for the research purposes and keep the research in the right direction (Saleem, 2014). The research design for this thesis is set up to represent the blueprint for collecting, analyzing and contrasting data.

3.2. Data collection

Sources of data

The data for the research were conversations collected from English and Vietnamese educational films. The years for the films' release are from the 1990s to the 2010s so that the utterances from the conversations are closed to what is spoken in the real life. Vietnamese educational films with the same above topics were collected. The data of English educational films consist of 12 films and the data of Vietnamese educational films consist of 19 films. Among 23 English educational films, there are 14 films whose scriptwriters were born and have worked in the United States. There are 3 films whose scriptwriters were born and have worked in England. All of the scriptwriters have the age range from 35 to below 70. The films were distributed on channels such as The USA, Disney-ABC, New line, CBS, The UK channel 4, NBC, The CW, The USA Universal Pictures, Warner Bros Pictures, Sony Pictures, A24, The USA 20th Century Fox.

The Vietnamese data were selected from 39 educational films. All of the scriptwriters were born, grew up and have worked in Vietnam. These films are distributed on channels such as VTV1, VTV2, VTV3, VTV4, VTV5, VTV9, and HTV9.

3.3. Collecting Procedures

It was simple to find and download metaphors Vietnamese films, but it took a long time to find English films. Before download metaphorsing English films, it was necessary to determine whether or not the films metaphors English subtitles. Each English educational film contains between one and thousands of English subtitles. As a result, we metaphors to match the subtitles to the content of the download metaphorsed films. Subscene.com was used to look for English subtitles for movies. When we opened this website and typed in the title of the film, a list of subtitles in various languages appeared. We chose the English subtitles from a list. From this list, we started looking for the file of subtitles whose name and year of publication were the same as the file of film.

The subtitle file metaphors to be saved with the same name as the film file.

To watch the movies, we used VLC media player. After download adding English and Vietnamese films, they were watched to obtain the conversations containing verbal repair. The conversations were typed and the times for conversations from the films were marked so that they could be easily found and cut from the films.

All conversations involving self-repair and other-repair were recorded. The data was counted and analyzed using the Excel 2010 software.

The process of analyzing data consists of three steps:

Step 1: The contents of verbal metaphor-heavy conversations were typed. The pragmatic characteristics of utterances containing verbal metaphors are listed in the following columns. A new file was created to generate signals for different types of verbal metaphors as well as pragmatic features of verbal metaphors.

Step 2: The Countif function (= countif (range criteria)) was used to filter and count the types of verbal metaphors and pragmatic functions of verbal metaphors in excerpts from English and Vietnamese film conversations.

Step 3: After the linguistic features of verbal metaphors were filtered and counted, they were saved into separate files so that they could be compared and contrasted to determine the similarities and differences between verbal metaphors in two languages.

3.4. Data Analysis

Descriptive Analysis

The descriptive analysis was the dominant method used to investigate and comprehend the features of metaphors in English and Vietnamese film conversations. The study analyzed the contexts of the situations to determine the functions of metaphors

for descriptive analysis of pragmatic features of metaphors.

MIPVU: recognizing metaphorical words

The following set of guidelines can be used to achieve the goal of finding metaphor in discourse in a systematic and exhaustive manner.

1. Look for metaphor-related words (MRWs) in the text on a word-by-word basis.
2. Mark a word as metaphorically used when it is used indirectly and could be explained by some form of cross-domain mapping from a more basic meaning of that word (MRW).
3. Mark a word as direct metaphor when it is used directly and its use could potentially be explained by some form of cross-domain mapping to a more basic referent or topic in the text (MRW, direct).
4. Insert a code for implicit metaphor when words are used for lexico-grammatical substitution, such as third person personal pronouns, or when ellipsis occurs where words may be seen as missing, as in some forms of co-ordination, and when a direct or indirect meaning is conveyed by those substitutions or ellipses that may potentially be explained by some form of cross-domain mapping from a more basic meaning, referent, or topic (MRW, implicit).
5. When a word serves as a signal that a cross-domain mapping is possible, mark it as a metaphor flag (MFlag).
6. If a word is a new-formation coined by the author, examine the distinct words that are its independent parts using steps 2–5.

4. Results and Discussions:

4.1. Learning as Working

The students do not particularly enjoy hard work, neither do they suffer from it; instead, they consider success in English almost their duty or a compulsion.

However, they are eager to learn and able to study persistently. A learner as a worker wants to be good at English, while the perfectionists in the first category felt that they had to be best. Ambition and self-esteem drive the writer forward. An imaginative reader pictures a colorless worm that lives inside a book, eats only dry books, whose whole world a book is. Similarly in (58), the figurative expression a swot reveals how the learner studies so hard that she gets sweaty. The 'Learning as a working" metaphor entails the concept of competing with other students, which also implies hard work and training. In order to remain on top of the class in learning, as ambitious students do, the writer in (59) even has to start working a bit because of the extremely competitive atmosphere in the class. Similarly, student feels the competition and pressure of always getting A-grades; however, she is not going to give up. In the third grade of primary school a learner accepts the challenge from her teacher and comes off victorious; the importance of this event for the writer is shown by the big letters in the expression. A student in senior high school in describes the challenge in learning as iron time. Iron has to be forced to a shape; it is strong and useful.

Working is the closest concept to each human being. Physiologically, each human being is made up of the same parts but enhanced by the functions of thinking, behavior, emotion, education, culture..., each person becomes unique. Therefore, WORKING becomes a familiar yet strange concept, simple but complex, similar but different. Because of these characteristics, WORKING is often used as a SL to help understand more complex problems in conceptual metaphor. Although this metaphor can also be classified into ontological group (working sub-category), the analysis found that the mapping between LEARNING and WORKING domains is stronger than metaphor itself, we chose to classify metaphor learning as working.

Source Domain: WORKING	With	Target domain: LEARNING
Appearance		Kinds of Learning
Personality		Features of Learning
Emotions		The emotions Learning creates
Capacity and qualities		Features of Learning
Activities		Learning 's activities
Parts of the human body		Parts of Learning

Table 2.2: Mapping of LEARNING AS WORKING

As can be seen from Table 2.2, LEARNING metaphor does not activate all aspects. In the aspect of SL, concepts such as waste, secretion, and voice, inner ... which are a part of human life do not appear in both languages. This demonstrates the concealment and partial mapping of metaphors as discussed in Chapter 1.

Metaphor LEARNING AS WORKING in Vietnamese students' conversations, WORKING appeared in 82 out of 200 Vietnamese students' conversations, equivalent to 41.0%; the number of metaphorical expressions is 101 with a lot of low-order conceptual metaphors as can be observed from the mapping in Table 2.2.

Firstly, KINDS OF LEARNING, this is one of the metaphors with the highest frequency of use in the subcategories of metaphor LEARNING in Vietnamese students' conversations with 17 conversations (equivalent to 8.5%); the number of metaphorical expressions is 18 (Table 2.1). To depict the kinds of learning in the appearance, use 13 examples such as elegant, majestic, youthful,... Not only the general depictions of the appearance, the LEARNING also is identified by as male or female through typical examples for two genders such as attractiveness, three-way curvy neck of women or elegance, arrogance and majesty of men. Specific statistics of examples of this metaphor subtype are presented in Table 2.1. With 17 QCs (8.5%) and 23 BTs, PRODUCT ACTIVITIES IS HUMAN ACTIVITIES is one of the 3 most frequently occurring low-profile ADs in TV corpus (Table 2.1). The concepts used to describe this AD are very diverse, but due to overlap with other ADs (discussed later), in this section, we only list and analyze the typical group of activities. Of human. Regarding leads, TV QCs used 13 leads with 33 appearances (Table 2.3 – Appendix 2). Typical human activities, from physical activities such as waking, touching, lighting a fire, leading the way to thinking activities such as saving, affirming, creating, promoting, have been designed by the designers. Design used in QC

to portray a real SP person. Some typical QCs for this AD include:

[6] Yomost – Arousing excitement and awakening your passion, so that you can both pursue your passion and get your dream job – [V24]

Using human activities to project the product's function helps to connect two conceptual domains in human's thinking, making it easier for customers to imagine the functions that the product brings. Besides, this way of saying is also 'strange'

4.2. Learning is Human Activities

With 17 student conversations (8.5%) and 23 expressions, learning activity is a human activity is one of the 3 most common hypothetical metaphors in Vietnamese corpus (Table 2.1). The concepts used to describe this metaphor are very diverse, but because of the overlap with other metaphors (discussed later), in this section, we only list and analyze the group of humans activities.

Regarding examples, Vietnamese student conversations used 13 examples with 33 occurrences (Table 2.1). Typical human activities, from physical activities such as waking, touching, lighting a fire, leading the way to thinking activities such as saving, affirming, creating, promoting, have been designed by the designers. Designed to be used in student conversations to portray a vivid image of a human being. Some typical student conversations for this metaphor include:

[1] Việc học – khơi dậy hứng khởi và đánh thức đam mê trong bạn, để bạn vừa có thể theo đuổi đam mê, vừa có được công việc mơ ước – [V01]

The use of human activities to project to the function of learning helps to connect two conceptual domains in human thinking, making it easier to imagine the effects that learning brings. In addition, this way of speaking also the special style, contributing to the student's conversational discourse becoming more impressive.

Table 2.1: Statistics of examples of the metaphor LEARNING IS HUMAN ACTIVITIES

No	Source Domain	Vietnamese Conversations	
		Metaphorical Expressions	No
1	HUMAN ACTIVITIES	Đánh thức	6
2		Kiến tạo	2
3		Tiết kiệm	9
4		Nuôi dưỡng	1
5		Chạm	3
6		Khẳng định	2
7		Khơi dậy	3
8		Chứng kiến	1
9		Phát huy	1
10		Khai mở	1
11		Khai phóng	1
12		Thắp lửa	1
13		Dẫn lối	2
14			
15			
16			
	Tổng cộng	13	33

The second is the metaphor of learning's characteristics, which is human personality, appearing in 14 student conversations (7%) with 19 metaphorical expressions (table 2.1). There are 9 examples used 25 times to describe human personality such as active, enthusiastic, proud… in this depiction, learning is not something vague but people with character close and friendly. Typical expressions include:

1. kết quả mang lại niềm kiêu hãnh và là động lực cho chúng ta – [v02]
2. sự năng động, đổi mới luôn là sự thu hút của những người trẻ – [v03]

By using examples that describe people's personalities to map to the characteristics of learning, student conversations help us to better visualize the characteristics of learning, while making Student conversation language becomes stranger, more impressive.

Table 2.2: Statistics of examples of metaphor CHARACTERISTICS OF LEARNING IS HUMAN PERSONALITY

No	Source Domain	Vietnamese Conversations	
		Metaphorical Expressions	No
1	HUMAN PERSONALITY	Phóng khoáng	1
2		Kiêu hãnh	2
3		Tinh tế	8
4		Năng động	6
5		Linh hoạt	2
6		Nhiệt tình	1
7		Thân thiện	1

8		Ân cần	2
9		Tận tâm	2
	Tổng cộng	**9**	**25**

4.3. Learning is Human Quality

The third is the metaphor that the feature of learning is a person's ability and qualities with a much smaller occurrence rate than other metaphors. Out of 200 Vietnamese student conversations, we found only 10 metaphors that trigger this concept, equivalent to 5% with 13 metaphorical expressions. To describe the effectiveness of students' learning, the student conversations only used 2 examples, smart and creative, but appeared 20 times. Some typical student conversations in Vietnamese including:

04. thật thông minh và thật sáng tạo [v04]

05. nhiều sáng tạo và chất lượng theo tiêu chuẩn quốc tế [v05]

Intelligence and creativity are natural abilities that everyone wants to possess because it is an important foundation for success in life. Using these two examples to describe the effectiveness of learning helps learners feel more positively about the values that are expected to bring, and at the same time makes the student's conversational language clearer and fresher.

06. Vietnamese has never been so astute – [A31] (Vietnamese has never been so smart).

Sps are smart and active participants in these student conversations. Learning can provide a lot of benefits to learners if they have these competencies. Student dialogue's exaggerated discourse fits well with this method of determining the importance of learning.

Table 2.3: Statistics of examples of metaphor LEARNING IS HUMAN QUALITY

No	Source Domain	Vietnamese Conversations	
		Metaphorical Expressions	No
1	HUMAN QUALITY	Thông minh	14
2		Sáng tạo	6
3			
	Tổng cộng	**2**	**20**

4.4. Learning is a Friend's Activities

The metaphor of learning as friends appears common in both languages because in learning students all want to study well and try hard. By projecting to the friend source domain, we can visualize the characteristics and values of the target domain of learning, so that students feel more familiar and easier to learn. In terms of quantity, we found 94 student conversations with friend metaphors (23.50%) with 122 metaphorical expressions.

In general, the characteristics of the friend source domain can be classified into 2 groups: Group 1

includes positive attributes formed from concepts such as attachment, sharing, helping, closeness, trust... - these are the attributes that English often think of when it comes to friendship; group 2 includes negative attributes made up of concepts such as envy, jealousy, disparagement, division... - When thinking about friendship, in English we often think less of these attributes but they are really exist in friendships. Survey of student conversations belonging to research corpus shows that people only activate the group of positive attributes and obscure the negative attributes of the source domain. This makes perfect sense because the goal of students' conversations is to bring out the best in learning.

Table 2.4: Statistics of examples of metaphors LEARNING IS FRIENDS' ACTIVITIES

No	Source Domain	Vietnamese Conversations	
		Metaphorical Expressions	No
1	FRIENDS' ACTIVITIES	Chăm sóc	6
2		Hỗ trợ	3
3		Giúp	19
4		Che chở	1
5		Chia sẻ / sẻ chia	5
6		Lắng nghe	1
7		Cùng bạn	7
8		Bên nhau	2
9		Thấu hiểu	1
10		Quan tâm	2
11		Bảo vệ	13
12		Song hành	1
13		Hợp tác	2
14		Chung tay	2
15		Đồng hành	7
	Tổng cộng	**15**	**73**

4.5. Learning is A Fight

The metaphor of learning as a warrior appears quite commonly in student conversations because it helps create a strong image for learners. This conceptual thinking leads learners to associate the determination and strong will with which learners strive. The selection of the warrior source domain that is already familiar in the mind of the learner to project onto the learning target domain helps to convey the message that the learning will be more effective, the student's ability to fight and win. Learn. The strong image of the warrior is also well suited to the characteristics of student conversational language – a language that impresses with tools such as exaggeration, puns, etc. warrior metaphors are found in 77 student conversations. Member (19.25%) with 95 metaphorical expressions, being the third most numerous metaphor in the total corpus. It can be seen clearly in the following table:

Table 2.7: Statistics of examples of metaphors LEARNING IS A FIGHT

No	Source Domain	Vietnamese Conversations	
		Metaphorical Expressions	No
1	A FIGHT	Đẩy lùi	1
2		Đánh bật	1
3		Đánh bay	3
4		Thách thức	1
5		Chinh phục	4
6		Tiên phong	4
7		Ngăn ngừa	3
8		Bảo vệ	13
9		Tăng cường	4

10		Kiểm soát	3
11		Xua tan	1
12			
	Tổng cộng	**11**	**38**

Table 2.8: Statistics of examples of metaphor CHARACTERISTICS OF LEARNING IS THE POWER OF WINNERS

No	Source Domain	Vietnamese Conversations	
		Metaphorical Expressions	No
1	THE POWER OF WINNERS	Uy phong	1
2		Uy lực	2
3		Sức mạnh	11
4		Mạnh mẽ	8
5		Hùng mạnh	1
6		Dũng mãnh	1
7			
	Tổng cộng	**6**	**24**

THE CONTEST

No	Source Domain	Vietnamese Conversations	
		Metaphorical Expressions	No
1	WIN IN THE CONTEST	Vượt trội	13
2		Vượt bậc	1
3		Dẫn đầu	2
4		Chiến thắng	2
5			
6			
	Tổng cộng	**4**	**18**

4.6. Learning is the Movement

Movement is the concept that is most familiar to each individual. Each human being is made up of the same parts physiologically, but by enhancing the functions of thinking, behavior, emotion, education, culture, and so on, each person becomes unique. As a result, people become acquainted with strange concepts, simple but complex, similar but distinct. Because of these characteristics, humans are frequently used as source domains in conceptual metaphors to assist in understanding more complex target domains. Although this metaphor can also be classified in the ontological group (the anthropomorphic sub-category), the analysis concludes that the mapping between the two domains learning and the person is stronger than the metaphor itself, so we classify the learning metaphor as a person in the hidden category. With 162 conversations, equivalent to 40.5 percent and 198 metaphorical expressions, Learning is Human is the metaphor with the highest number in the research corpus. This metaphor also has the most diverse mapping mechanism. Table 2.1 lists the attributes of the source domain, as well as the number of student conversations and metaphorical expressions in the two languages that activate these properties.

Table 2.14: Statistics of examples of metaphor LEARNING IS THE MOVEMENT

No	Source Domain	Vietnamese Conversations	
		Metaphorical Expressions	No
1	MOVEMENT	Hướng tới	1
2		Đi	2
3		Đưa (đến)	6
4		Mang (đến/lại)	13
5		Đem (đến/lại)	7
6		Tiến (lên/xa)	3
7		Bắt nhịp	1
8		Bước	9
9		Chuyển động	1
10		Dẫn lối	2
11		Vượt (lên/qua)	2
12		Song hành	1
13		Tăng tốc	1
	Tổng cộng	**13**	**49**

5. Conclusions

In conversations, conceptual metaphors are frequently used. When comparing the frequency, number of conversations containing metaphors, and number of metaphorical expressions, Vietnamese has a slight advantage. Ontological metaphors have the highest frequency in the research corpus, followed by structural metaphors and directional metaphors, which have the lowest number; the popularity ratings of the three subcategories are the same in both languages. This finding is consistent with previous research on conceptual metaphors in conversation conducted in Vietnam, though Huynh Trung Ngu's investigation confirms that ontological metaphor has the most ideas. In English conversations, structural metaphors are more common than structural metaphors in Vietnamese conversations.

In terms of role, the use of metaphor enhances and distinguishes conversational discourses through the "strangeness" of words. Because the time and space of the conversation are often limited, each word must be chosen so that it is short and concise while conveying the most information about the features and value of the conversation. Study. With the advantage of orienting and guiding thinking,

conceptual metaphor is an effective tool for achieving the conversation's communication goal. This assertion is consistent with previous research, particularly studies conducted abroad, on the role of metaphor in this field.

The variability of conceptual metaphors in the research findings suggests that learning about the meaning of words must be placed in the national cultural context, because two different cultures give birth to a metaphorical system with many differences, depending on cultural origin, social context, history, national thinking, and language characteristics. This has implications for language researchers, educators, and translators.

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