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METAPHOR-BASED INTERNET TERMS

IN ENGLISH AND IN FRENCH

by

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Thesis submitted to
the School of Graduate Studies and Research
of the University of Ottawa
in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of M.A. (Translation)



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0-612-22022-2

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to Dr. Ingrid Meyer for her guidance and inspiration throughout this project. Through difficult times in both our lives, she continued to demonstrate her passion for teaching and her desire to help a student. Without her help, I undoubtedly would not have been able to complete my thesis requirements.

I would also like to thank my husband, Gordon, for all of his patience and understanding through this entire adventure. Without his willingness to commute, I would not have been able to attend the University of Ottawa, let alone complete this thesis. His sense of humour and his desire to see me succeed have also enabled me to find the strength to pursue my academic goal.

Special thanks also goes out to Kristen Mackintosh for her valuable comments and to Mr. B. Borice for his encouragement.

ABSTRACT

The objectives of this thesis are to analyze 1) how English metaphor-based terms in the Internet domain are formed, and 2) how such terms are being rendered into French. By *metaphor-based term* (MBT), we mean a term that has derived from a metaphor. MBTs are becoming increasingly frequent and important in computer-related domains. However, they have been rather neglected in the metaphor literature in general, and in the translation literature specifically. The thesis is an attempt to begin filling this gap.

Our research involved analyzing MBTs found in English and French corpora pertaining to the Internet, an exceptionally rich source of MBTs. We began by reviewing the concept of metaphor and the various ways terms are created. Drawing partly on these observations, we proposed a general classification of English MBTs in the Internet domain. Next, we investigated the available literature on the translation of metaphor, and applied some of the deriving insights to an analysis of the MBTs in our French corpus. This analysis resulted in a categorization of the various strategies used for rendering English MBTs into French. Finally, we attempted to explain why certain English MBTs may be more easily rendered into French than others.

RÉSUMÉ

L'objet de la présente thèse est double : d'une part, analyser les procédés de formation des termes dérivés de métaphores (TDM) dans le vocabulaire anglais de l'Internet et, d'autre part, étudier la façon dont ces termes sont rendus en français. Dans les domaines liés à l'informatique, les TDM gagnent de l'importance et s'utilisent de plus en plus couramment. Cependant, on en parle très peu dans les ouvrages sur la métaphore en général et sur la traduction en particulier. Par la présente thèse, nous tentons de combler ce vide, du moins en partie.

Pour les besoins de notre recherche, nous avons analysé les TDM relevés dans des textes anglais et français sur l'Internet, un champ linguistique particulièrement riche en TDM. D'emblée, nous avons passé en revue le concept de métaphore et les différents procédés de création néologique, après quoi nous avons établi, en nous inspirant notamment de nos observations, une typologie sommaire des TDM dans le vocabulaire anglais de l'Internet. Par la suite, nous avons parcouru les travaux à notre disposition sur la traduction de la métaphore, d'où nous avons puisé certains principes qui ont guidé notre analyse des TDM relevés dans le corpus français. Les résultats de cette analyse nous ont permis de catégoriser les diverses stratégies utilisées pour rendre en français les TDM anglais. Finalement, nous avons tenté d'expliquer pourquoi certains TDM anglais se prêtent mieux que d'autres à une traduction française.

NOTATION CONVENTIONS

The following notation conventions will be used throughout this thesis:

1. Lexical items of interest will be presented in italicized 12 point Roman-WP (Type 1) font.

e.g. The term *cyberspace*, for instance, has multiple equivalents in French.

2. Phrases, expressions and other elements that we have chosen to highlight in order to explain notions will be presented in italicized 12 point Swiss 721 Roman font.

e.g. For example, *a heart of stone* and *green with envy* are clichés.

The abridged form of *electronic* (i.e. *e*) has been added to *cash* to further reinforce that one is referring to a special kind of cash.

3. Names of categories will be presented in small caps.

e.g. Newmark's method resembles our EXPLANATORY EQUIVALENT (METAPHOR DROPPED) category.

4. Explanation of meaning will be enclosed within single quotation marks.

e.g. *Highway* in the Internet sense should not be taken to represent the form's non-metaphorical meaning, that is 'a multi-lane road upon which vehicles travel'.

INTRODUCTION

0.1 OBJECTIVES AND MOTIVATION

This thesis has two objectives: 1) to analyze how English metaphor-based terms (MBTs) in the Internet domain are formed and 2) to investigate how such terms are being rendered into French. Regarding the second objective, the thesis also explores the specific aspects that simplify and complicate the rendering of English metaphor-based Internet terms into French.

These days it seems that everyone is talking about the new phenomenon known as the Internet. Although the Internet's infrastructure was established in the late 1960's, it was not until the early 1990's, when articles about the Internet began to proliferate, that public awareness of and interest in the network dramatically increased. The demand for more literature about the Net (short for *Internet*) and for better search tools skyrocketed. The network was rapidly being reshaped and, with the changes, so came new concepts. New terminology therefore needed to be created at an alarming pace. Because English was the primary language used on the Internet, the new terms were, and continue to be, formed firstly in English. The Internet is also now becoming quite popular with Francophones and, as a result, more French language literature about the subject is starting to emerge. French Internet terminology is starting to develop at an ever quickening pace.

Many of the newly created English Internet terms share a common feature; they are metaphorical in nature. Since to our knowledge English metaphor-based Internet terms had not previously been analyzed as to their form and transferability into French, we concluded that the topic was important. We felt that research in this area may well lead to a better understanding of MBTs.

0.2 WHAT IS A METAPHOR-BASED TERM?

MBTs, as described in this thesis, are terms that have been formed by extending the meaning of an existing lexical item in order to designate a new concept. Such terms provide a vivid image in one's mind by allowing a comparison between a known concept and a new one. Computer language is renowned for its use of MBTs as they help to provide, through the use of familiar images, an understanding of the often intimidating world of computer technology. For example, the lexical item *mouse*, meaning 'a small rodent with a long tail', is now used to designate a computer reality that previously had no name. Since people did not know what to call the small tool used to activate instructions to the computer, they were inspired by the shape of the tool and began to refer to the pointer as a *mouse*. Through analogy, the MBT *mouse* was created and eventually accepted into computer terminology.

It is important to note that terms that have been created through the use of analogy are not referred to as *metaphor-based terms* (a term that we coined) in the literature that precedes this thesis, but rather have been designated simply as *metaphors*. After an extensive study on

metaphors, we concluded that certain differences existed. One obvious difference is that many theorists include entire phrases in their definition of metaphor, whereas we define MBTs as lexical items only. We have also noted two other important distinctions that should be made between what is commonly referred to as a *metaphor* and what we propose to classify separately as a *metaphor-based term*.

The first distinction we make between a metaphor and an MBT is that an MBT may be only PARTLY based on a metaphor. This distinction became apparent when we found terms in our corpus that were formed by using a single metaphor (i.e. a mere extension of an existing lexical item) as in the case of the term *mailbox*, or by using some type of metaphorical component (i.e. either a metaphorical base or a metaphorical modifier) as in the case of the term *information highway*. Clearly, the term *information highway* is particular in structure as only the base (*highway*) is metaphorical, while the modifier *information* is not metaphorical and is merely added to further reinforce the metaphorical nature of the base. Believing that it would be confusing to call a term a metaphor when only a part of it has derived from a metaphor, we preferred to call such terms *metaphor-based terms* (MBTs). The difference found for MBTs as compared to what is commonly called metaphor also lead us to divide the terms in our corpus into two distinct categories: *simple MBTs* (e.g. *mailbox*) and *complex MBTs* (e.g. *information highway*).

The second distinction lies in the possible existence or non-existence of universal acceptance and understanding. The meaning of a metaphor COULD¹ vary depending on the

¹ In most cases a metaphor's meaning tends to vary. As we would consider a cliché to be a metaphor, for example, we acknowledge that in certain cases it may be possible

speaker's/writer's discourse situation or even according to his or her personal views, as metaphors often are the result of spontaneous creations. An MBT, in contrast, because it belongs to a particular field's terminology, refers to a specific concept and has a well established definition that DOES NOT vary.

The term *virus*, for instance, which in computer language and through the use of analogy now refers to 'a maleficent intrusion into a computer program', is what we would call an MBT because its definition DOES NOT vary. The word *jackass*, as in the expression *Peter is a jackass*, however, is not like an MBT because it COULD take on different meanings in English according to where it is said, or who is saying it. In North America, because the implicit comparison that is present in the above example evokes the characteristics of the long-eared horse-like animal, we may presume from the use of the metaphor *jackass* that Peter is a stupid, foolish and even a stubborn person. In Australia, the non-metaphorical term *jackass* is not used in the same sense as in North America. The animal that North Americans call jackass is for Australians known as a donkey. In Australia, the term *jackass*, however, is used when referring to a particular bird native to Australia that the citizens call *laughing jackass* (also referred to as *kookaburra*). This bird is noted for its cry, which resembles very loud laughter. Consequently, an Australian could be saying, when metaphorically comparing Peter to a jackass, that Peter is a loud laughter. Therefore, the word *jackass* in *Peter is a jackass* may take on a different meaning according to the discourse

situation in which the metaphor is present. In this example, we would therefore consider *Peter is a jackass* to be a metaphor.

Furthermore, the personal views of the speaker/writer may also contribute to a metaphor reflecting several different and even opposing meanings. If the metaphor *This child is a monkey* were uttered, depending on how the speaker may view monkeys, the non-metaphorical word *monkey* may have been metaphorically extended so as to mean ugly, or cute, or disruptive, or playful, or some other characteristic the animal may evoke in the originator's mind. The personal views of the speaker/writer are not considered to be a variable with respect to MBTs, however, because the author's views are assumed to be identical to that of the universal understanding commanded by the MBT.

0.3 METHODOLOGY

We began our study with a search of the currently available literature on the subject of metaphor. As we were not able to find much information pertaining to metaphor in technical language, the material we reviewed focussed primarily on metaphor in general language. We felt that a review of the prevailing literature would help us in two important ways. First, we felt that an understanding of the structure and impact of metaphor-based Internet terms would be enhanced by an understanding of the form and function of metaphor in general language. Secondly, we thought that a thorough examination of the literature would improve our ability to quickly distinguish between MBTs and non-metaphorical terms, a skill that indeed was

central to our work. We also analyzed the various ways terms are formed, focussing more precisely on the role of metaphor in term creation. Armed with a better understanding of metaphor in general language, we were prepared to investigate English Internet terminology.

We developed an English corpus consisting primarily of magazine articles and books devoted entirely to the Internet (see section 0.4 for more details). Supplementary material consisted of on-line and hard copy Internet dictionaries and glossaries. We also surfed the Internet itself to gather data. Once our English corpus was developed to our satisfaction, it contained material from seventy-eight different sources.

From our English corpus we compiled a list of eighty English MBTs. This was accomplished simply by reviewing the material manually and isolating the terms that contained some type of metaphorical element. After noticing that the MBTs we found seemed to present distinct patterns in terms of the way they were formed, we attempted to classify them in order to more clearly understand their composition and structure. Our attempts to classify the wide variety of MBTs ultimately lead to our developing a new classification system based upon the form of the Internet terms.

Our next step was to examine how our English MBTs were rendered into French. Before determining the various transfer strategies that were being employed by the French authors in our corpus, we set out to increase our understanding of how metaphors are generally translated. As no such information was available for MBTs specifically, we

explored how theorists view the translation of metaphor in general language. After studying Peter Newmark's framework for the translation of metaphor in general language, we set out to observe how English metaphor-based Internet terms were being rendered into French.

We assembled a French corpus of sixty-five different sources and probed the corpus manually in order to establish the French equivalent or equivalents to the MBTs that we had found in our English corpus. After discovering that most of the terms did indeed have French equivalents, we proceeded to analyze and classify the various transfer strategies used by the French authors in our corpus. Here again, we developed our own framework to clarify the various approaches we observed. The thesis includes a comparison of our framework and P. Newmark's methodology.

At the time this thesis was begun, the Internet was only in its early stages of development in the French language. Hence, we felt that we were well positioned to observe how certain English MBTs were being easily transferred into French while others were not. We attempted to identify the specific conditions that either simplified or complicated the transferability of English metaphor-based Internet terms into French. We observed eight such aspects, which we discuss in the final chapter of this thesis.

0.4 CORPUS

As our research involved gathering English metaphor-based Internet terms as well as their respective French equivalents, both an English and a French corpus were required. The

corpora consisted mainly of magazine articles and books pertaining to the Internet, which were published in their original language before May 1, 1996. We restricted our analysis to non-translated documents in order to be consistent with the widely accepted practice among terminologists of excluding translated texts from corpora. In one instance, however, where no French equivalent was found for an English MBT in our corpus, we had the opportunity to consult a translated version of an original document to observe how the translator rendered the MBT in question. We discuss the result of this search in the thesis. Since the Internet contains a wealth of information about itself, we also surfed the Net to gather data that may help in our study. We were careful, however, not to include all of what we found, as the quality of some documents present on the Net may not always be trustworthy. To ensure a higher degree of text quality, therefore, the major part of our corpus consisted of documents from well known publishers. To help us better define and understand certain Internet concepts, we also consulted online and hard copy Internet dictionaries and glossaries. Very few such documents were available at the time this thesis was written, however. While the dictionaries and glossaries were beneficial in lending validity to the terms we found in texts, we did not centre our study around these documents. We preferred to focus our attention instead upon MBTs found in a surrounding context (i.e. in real texts). In total, we selected for our English language corpus thirty-one books, four entire magazines devoted to the Internet, thirty-four articles and nine online sources. For our French language corpus we ultimately selected twenty-five books, ten entire magazines, twenty-two articles and eight online sources.

0.5 CONSTRAINTS

Certain constraints became apparent during the preparation of this thesis, as summarized below:

Constraints Relating to the Corpus

Our first idea was to consult computerized data (CD-ROMs) containing computer-related texts in English. We soon found that, although our field of study was computer related, the Internet domain was not extensively represented in the computerized corpora that we had at our disposal. Later, we also attempted to find French computerized data pertaining to our field of study, but were unsuccessful in our attempts. We also thought of scanning our data, but decided against the idea because scanners today demand much time consuming revision for the quality of the output to be truly dependable. We therefore decided to forfeit modern technology for more rudimentary methods and manually went through the hard copy data that we gathered. The extensive time involved with a manual search, and the time constraints related to the preparation of this thesis, have made the attainment of an accurate statistical analysis impractical. Consequently, no statistical data is provided in this thesis and only general observations on MBTs are offered. The need to manually go through our data also prompted us to limit both our French and our English corpus to documents published before May 1, 1996.

Another corpus-related difficulty was that we had problems trying to establish a suitable corpus in French. When we began gathering data in April of 1995, French Internet literature was only beginning to emerge. Because our English corpus was comprised almost exclusively of literature from the United States and Canada, our first thought was to select French literature written by Quebec authors, so as to represent North American usage. The volume of literature published in Quebec was not, however, sufficient for our corpus requirements, as the data we had gathered in English far outnumbered the data found in Quebec French. We opted, therefore, to include texts from both Quebec and France. Although slight variances as to terminology preferences did emerge, we believed that the benefit of combining both corpora far outweighed the awkwardness of working with two different French cultures. In this thesis, we will briefly note instances where Quebec terminology differs from terminology from France. It is not our objective, however, to enter into the study of the differences between French from Quebec and French from France.

Constraints Related to the Selection of French Equivalents

A final difficulty we encountered when writing this thesis was deciding what would qualify as an equivalent to an English MBT. Since the Internet is only at its early stages of development in French, its French terminology is often less firmly established than English terminology. Consequently, we found that many Internet users are attempting to create a more established vocabulary in French by offering lists of possible suggestions for French equivalents to Internet terms. Many of the lists, most of which are available on the Internet,

present suggestions for equivalents that tend to vary from one list to another. Furthermore, they tend not to be supported by an actual analysis of usage. Believing that usage is the best indicator of the true acceptance of an equivalent, we decided to focus on equivalents that have been used by French authors in published texts. We did, however, mention equivalents that were not found in a surrounding context, but that came from a reputable source, when such an addition would provide an opportunity for interesting comment. As this thesis is intended to be purely observational in nature, it is by no means our intention to prescribe one usage over another. However, in some cases where an equivalent seems to have been appropriately selected, we do make mention of this.

0.6 OUTLINE OF THESIS

This thesis is divided into four chapters, as follows:

Chapter 1

In chapter 1, we provide an overview of metaphor in general language. After focussing on the components and functions of metaphor, we present the different types of metaphor according to degree of originality and scope. We also discuss briefly how terms are created in order to understand how metaphor, through analogy, is used in term formation. We then examine the importance of analogy for MBT creation, especially where computer terminology is concerned.

Chapter 2

In chapter 2, we propose a general classification of English metaphor-based Internet terms. This classification is based on our attempts to organize, according to form, the terms found in our corpus. As some Internet concepts may not be familiar to all readers, we present each English MBT with a brief definition.

Chapter 3

In chapter 3, we focus on the translation of metaphor. We begin by outlining the strategies for translating metaphors in general language, as proposed by Newmark. We then analyze, and attempt to classify, the different strategies for rendering English MBTs into French that the authors in our corpus have exemplified. Finally, we compare the strategies that we have identified with those for translating metaphors in general language.

Chapter 4

In chapter 4, we present an analysis of the findings in chapter 3. We examine why certain English metaphor-based Internet terms have been easily transferred into French, while others are approached much more cautiously by French authors. We then suggest various explanations of why certain English MBTs are not so easily rendered.

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CHAPTER ONE

OVERVIEW OF METAPHOR

1.1 WHAT IS METAPHOR?

Throughout the years, metaphor (which comes from the Greek term *metaphora*, meaning 'to carry over') has been studied in many disciplines, including philosophy, psychology, linguistics and, more recently, translation. It is through rhetoric, however, that metaphor initially became identified as a specific powerful element of language. The Greek philosopher Aristotle (384-322 BC) was the first to study metaphor in great detail as it existed in the rhetoric of the time. According to Aristotle, "Metaphor consists in giving the thing a name that belongs to something else."² He viewed metaphor primarily as a language operation that involves substituting one word for another in order to create an analogy. For example:

He is cunning (literal language) -----> **He is a fox** (metaphorical language)

The word *cunning* is replaced by the word *fox*, which reflects the meaning expressed by *cunning*. The comparison between the two lexical items is implicit.

Aristotle's definition became the framework upon which theorists studied and presented metaphors for centuries. In the early 1820s, P. Fontanier further refined Aristotle's theory of

² "Metaphor Across Language and Culture." *Babel*, p. 84.

metaphor and distinguished three ways of dividing figures of speech that rest on one word (which he calls *tropes*): by association (metonymy), by connection (synecdoche) and by similarity (metaphor).³ Fontanier, in *Figures du discours*, is clear about the differences between these figures of speech. He defines metonymy as a figure that consists of naming one object by using the name of another that, like the first object, forms a whole that is completely separate. An example of metonymy is *sceptre*, which is used to designate *sovereignty*. Synecdoche consists of designating one object by using the name of another with which it forms a whole, as in the case of *sails* in the phrase *I see two sails ahead* (i.e. two ships). Metaphor, according to Fontanier, consists of presenting one idea by using another idea that is more striking and to which it bears a partial resemblance, as in the example *a copper sky*. Today, Fontanier's framework is still widely respected.

Theorists of modern rhetoric were not always satisfied with Aristotle's broad theory. For example, the Group μ , a collection of scholars from The Centre for Poetic Studies at the University of Liège, preferred to use a semiotic approach to defining metaphors. According to the Group μ scholars,⁴ a metaphor does not simply consist of a mere substitution of one word for another (i.e. one meaning for another). Rather, it involves a modification of the semantic content of a word (ie. addition and suppression of *semes*). For example:

³ *Les figures du discours*, p. 14-15.

⁴ *A General Rhetoric*, p. 106-107.

The nuggets in the sky are beautiful tonight.

The word *nuggets* does not signify *stars*, but *nuggets*. In fact, *nuggets* retains all of its original meaning, but because it is implicitly compared to the word *star* – which is present in our mind – it becomes charged with additional meaning. In other words, the semantic content of *nuggets* is extended in order to create an image.

The definition of a metaphor is not easily rendered. In fact, even today there is still much variation among theorists on what exactly should be designated by the term *metaphor*. Some theorists accept simile (e.g. *he is like a fox*) as a form of metaphor. J. P. Vinay and J. Darbelnet for instance, in *Stylistique comparée du français et de l'anglais*, while discussing metaphor, present examples that would be classified as similes by many scholars. Other theorists strictly exclude simile from metaphor and present a more restrictive definition. *The New Encyclopaedia Britannica*, for example, defines metaphor as follows: "Figure of speech that implies comparison between two unlike entities, as distinguished from simile, an explicit comparison signalled by the words 'like' or 'as'."⁵ P. Fontanier, in *Les figures du discours*, categorizes simile as a non-trope and therefore excludes it from metaphor (trope). Another disagreement among theorists involves metonymy and its relation to metaphor. Some theorists argue that metaphor should be viewed as a kind of metonymy. Others suggest that metonymy, rather, is a kind of metaphor, and still others say that these two phenomena are very different.⁶ According to G. Lakoff and M. Johnson, for example, metaphor is very

⁵ *The New Encyclopaedia Britannica*, vol. 8, p. 61.

⁶ "Met*: A Method for Discriminating Metonymy and Metaphor by Computer." *Computational Linguistics*, p. 57.

different from metonymy, as a metaphor is "a way of conceiving one thing in terms of another, and its primary function is understanding,"⁷ whereas metonymy (e.g. *the White House gave the order to attack* (= the president gave the order to attack)) "has primarily a referential function, that is it allows us to use one entity to *stand for* another."⁸ Even broader definitions are sometimes applied. P. Newmark, for instance, defines a metaphor as "any figurative expression."⁹

For the purpose of this thesis, we shall view metaphor in a more narrow sense. We shall include neither metonymy nor simile in our definition of metaphor since, according to our findings, these figurative expressions are not used to create MBTs in the Internet domain. As figurative expressions other than metaphor are beyond the scope of this thesis, we shall limit our discussion to metaphor only.

While the debate over definitional criteria continues, there is one thing upon which most theorists today seem to agree: metaphors must be viewed not only as mere operations of language, but as cognitive instruments. Metaphors are conceptual in nature and are, therefore, a powerful tool in creating a meaningful image.

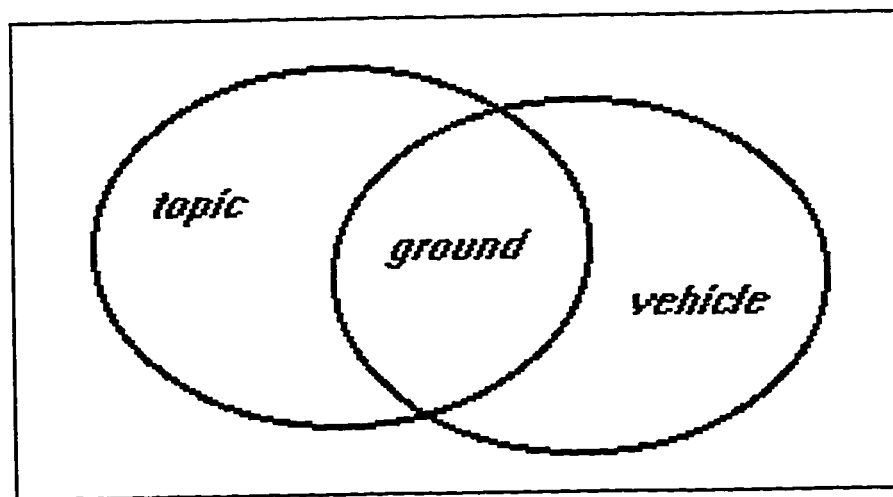
⁷ *Metaphors We Live By*, p. 36.

⁸ *Metaphors We Live By*, p. 36.

⁹ *A Textbook of Translation*, p. 104.

1.2 COMPONENTS OF METAPHOR

In order to facilitate analysis, a metaphor can be divided into three components. These components are most often referred to by theorists, such as I. A. Richards and M. Black, as *topic*, *vehicle* and *ground*.¹⁰ Newmark has created his own terminology by calling these elements respectively, *object*, *image* and *sense*.¹¹ The basic model, however, is the same and is illustrated in the following figure. The topic (object) refers to the item that is described by the metaphor. The vehicle (image) is the item in terms of which the topic is described. Finally, the ground (sense) is the point of similarity between the topic and the vehicle.



Components of a metaphor¹²

¹⁰ *The Linguistics Encyclopedia*, p. 310.

¹¹ *A Textbook of Translation*, p. 105.

¹² This figure was inspired in part by the diagram that P. Newmark presents on page 105 of *A Textbook of Translation*.

In the case of the metaphor *these cookies are rocks*, for example, the topic is *these cookies*, the vehicle is *rocks*, and the ground is what the two entities have in common, namely *hardness*.

<u>Topic</u>	<u>Vehicle</u>	<u>Ground</u>
these cookies	-----> rocks	-----> hardness

Armed with a clear understanding and itemization of the structure of a metaphor, the translator should be able to effectively dissect the metaphor, and thereby better understand its underlying meaning.

The components of a metaphor can also be related to the components of an MBT.

The only difference in analyzing an MBT is that the topic is always implicit (i.e. not lexicalized). For example, the MBT *trash can*, which is used in Macintosh applications to name the area on the computer screen where files can be discarded, can be analyzed in the following way:

<u>Topic</u>	<u>Vehicle</u>	<u>Ground</u>
(trash can) = Implicit	-----> trash can	-----> place where one discards an object

In this example, the metaphorical *trash can* is compared implicitly to the literal meaning of *trash can* in order to relate the function the two objects share.

1.3 FUNCTION OF METAPHOR

A metaphor basically has two functions, one aesthetic and one cognitive, which Newmark refers to respectively as *pragmatic purpose* and *referential purpose*.¹³ These functions are briefly described below.

1.3.1) *Aesthetic Function*

Few theorists today would deny that metaphors have an aesthetic function. Even in early rhetoric, where metaphors were not truly viewed as having to do with thought, they were very much considered to have a aesthetic function. Aristotle was the first to acknowledge and actively promote this notion: "He [Aristotle] describes it [metaphor] not as an instrument of thought but as an ornamentation [...]."¹⁴ The form of metaphorical structures appeals to our senses. By creating vivid images and comparisons, metaphors spark our interest as well as delight and surprise us. They simultaneously decorate a text and create eloquence. It is not surprising, therefore, that metaphors are found predominantly in literary

¹³ *A Textbook of Translation*, p. 104.

¹⁴ *The New Encyclopaedia Britannica*, vol. 15, p. 800.

texts, where form is considered to be particularly important. While the aesthetic function of metaphors is undeniable, this is not the primary reason for their extensive use in MBT creation. The cognitive function, not the aesthetic function, is the true determinant of the communicative quality of an MBT.

1.3.2) *Cognitive Function*

As well as being aesthetically interesting forms, metaphors can also be seen as cognitive instruments by which images are created. Metaphors create an implicit comparison between two or more unlike entities that share a common characteristic. In doing so, they force us to compare and note similarities between the topic and the vehicle in order to discern the underlying meaning. They should therefore be seen as a vehicle for conveying ideas and creating insight. Through images, metaphors present the reality reflected in literal language in a vivid way, by drawing upon the experience of the receiver's senses. According to Newmark, metaphors are used "to describe a mental process or state, a concept, a person, an object, a quality or an action more comprehensively and concisely than is possible in literal or physical language."¹⁵ For example:

Her figure is an hourglass.

In the above example, the metaphor forces the reader to take a moment to apply commonplace attributes of the hourglass (vehicle) to the woman's figure (topic).

¹⁵ *A Textbook of Translation*, p. 104.

Thanks to a single image, it is vivid in the reader's mind that the woman's figure includes a small waist, and attractive proportion in terms of the modern western ideal for the female figure.

Metaphors help us to understand the world by making us perceive one domain of experience in terms of another. MBTs are therefore widely found in computer language, as they help us to understand the complex world of computer technology through our understanding of more familiar concepts. Metaphors should therefore not be seen as mere ornamental forms, but as powerful tools for conveying information and ideas.

Furthermore, metaphors can intensify the conveyance of meaning at a level that is not always possible with literal language. For example:

Un formidable ordre du jour, aligné en ordre de bataille, attendait le conseil de pied ferme en cette soirée du 3 mars 1975. Après un long combat, les vaillants guerriers estéquois [membres de la Société des traducteurs du Québec], servis par un arsenal de patience et de discipline inépuisable, ont triomphé de haute lutte. L'ordre du jour s'est effondré, vaincu, déchiqueté, réduit à néant. Peu avant minuit, le boulevard Saint-Joseph retentissait des échos du péan.

Le bureau avait tenu conseil de guerre les 3 et 27 février pour arrêter la stratégie de bataille. Le rapport qu'en fit le président sonna l'appel au combat. Un premier échange fut aisément gagné : on fixa au 14 juin la date de l'assemblée générale annuelle. Puis un rapide coup d'oeil à l'état de la trésorerie raffermi l'assurance des troupes. À la nouvelle de l'engagement d'un conseiller juridique pour porter la bannière de la reconnaissance professionnelle, ce fut comme une poussée de confiance qui rallia tous les courages. Gravement atteint, l'ordre du jour commençait déjà de chanceler. Mais il ne rendit pas si tôt les armes. [...]

C'était la fin. Victorieuses mais épuisées, les troupes estéquoises défilèrent en bon ordre, abandonnant sur le terrain un ennemi anéanti : l'ordre du jour, dont la secrétaire, avec tout l'art d'un chirurgien-major, recueillit les restes et constata le décès.¹⁶

In this passage, because the war metaphor is extended (see METAPHOR FILÉE, section 1.4.2.1) throughout the paragraphs, the underlying meaning of the image (i.e. that there is a confrontation) is strongly reinforced. For example, implicitly comparing the translators to *vaillants guerriers estéquois*, the proceedings to *bataille* and the agenda to *ennemi anéanti*, the reader understands that there is a strong confrontation at issue. However, because the image of war is omnipresent in all the metaphors in the passage, the reader becomes further convinced after each metaphor occurrence that the agenda is in fact the enemy. Without realizing it, the reader is being subtly encouraged to take a position against the agenda. He or she tends to become convinced that the translators are the righteous soldiers, and therefore are justified in their fight. The reader comes to this conclusion, not because it was explicitly stated by the author to despise the agenda, but because the reader was implicitly persuaded to do so. The reader is therefore no longer neutral, as he or she is now sympathetic to the translators' plight. If the author had explicitly urged the reader to rebel against the agenda, the result might not have been as effective. Clearly, metaphors can powerfully and persuasively convey additional meaning.

¹⁶ *L'Antenne*, p. 2-3.

1.4 TYPES OF METAPHORS

One commonly agreed upon characteristic of all metaphorical language is that it is in a constant state of change. Therefore, a particularly logical and useful way of organizing metaphors is thought to be according to their degree of originality. Theorists also often categorize metaphors according to scope. The following is a summary of various typologies of metaphors according to degree of originality and scope:

1.4.1) *Metaphor Types According to Degree of Originality*

The frameworks used by theorists and practitioners for classifying metaphors vary widely. Many theorists employ a rather broad set of criteria. In their opinion, metaphors are simply categorized as dead or alive, as stated by Vinay and Darbelnet: "[...] nous proposons également de simplifier le classement de Bally et de distinguer seulement entre métaphore vivante et métaphore usée."¹⁷ Another framework is that developed by Newmark. He noted that one common reality for all metaphorical language is that it is in a continual state of change. Building on this observation, he divided general language metaphors into five types according to their degree of originality. According to him, metaphors are either dead, cliché, stock, recent or original,¹⁸ as described below:

¹⁷ *Stylistique comparée du français et de l'anglais*, p. 199.

¹⁸ *Approaches to Translation*, p. 85.

1.4.1.1) *Dead Metaphors*

A dead metaphor is a metaphor that has been used so often that it has become obligatory: people have ceased to be aware that the word or word grouping began as a metaphor. Another way to describe such metaphors is to refer to them as having become fossilized. For example, the word *hood* was once used metaphorically to designate the covering of a vehicle. Today, the expression *hood of the car* has ceased to be metaphorical. In fact, many words have taken on new meaning in order to designate a reality that previously had no name. Words such as the *head* of a tape recorder and the *leg* of a chair, for instance, were once original metaphors, but today would be considered dead. For the purpose of this thesis, we shall not consider a lexical item that was once metaphorical in nature, but that is now metaphorically dead, to be an MBT. We do acknowledge, however, that dead metaphors may serve as non-metaphorical components of MBTs.

Dead metaphors do not usually present a translation problem because their figurative aspect has been lost in the source language. The translator can simply resort to the mechanics of language to choose the predetermined equivalent, as in the example of *leg of a chair* becoming *pied d'une chaise*. When a dead metaphor is revived by an associated image, however, there can be a translation problem. For example:

They travelled to the mouth of the river, only to find that its lips had been closed tightly by the season's drought.

In this passage, the dead metaphor *mouth of the river* is now very much revived because of the addition of the reference to *lips*. The translator, when faced with a dead metaphor that has been brought to life, must often show great imagination and creativity in order to provide an appropriate image in the target text.

1.4.1.2) *Cliché Metaphors*

Due to excessive use, cliché metaphors are no longer original nor particularly effective. They have become automatic and stereotyped, and therefore no longer evoke expressive meaning. For example, *a heart of stone* and *green with envy* are clichés. These metaphors are fossilized to the extent that they lie between dead and stock metaphors. According to Newmark, a translator can do away with a cliché metaphor if it is in an informative text. However, if the cliché metaphor is found in an expressive text, the translator should, where possible, keep it in the translated passage.

1.4.1.3) *Stock Metaphors*

Stock metaphors, like clichés, are very common. The difference between the two types is that stock metaphors have not yet become fossilized. In other words, they do still have a slight impact on the reader. For example, according to Newmark, "*a ray of hope*"¹⁹ is a stock metaphor. This type of metaphor does not usually pose a translation problem. The

¹⁹ *Approaches to Translation*, p. 88.

translator can most often simply resort to a predetermined equivalent in the target language, such as *a ray of hope* becoming *une lueur d'espoir*.

1.4.1.4) Recent Metaphors

Recent metaphors, as the name indicates, are metaphors that have only recently become part of speech. They are metaphorical neologisms that have been coined by an individual only to spread rapidly in the source language. The expression *Whitewatergate*, for example, has been used recently to refer to the investigation into President Clinton's involvement in the Whitewater project. This type of metaphor may cause some difficulty when translating. Often there is no pre-existing appropriate equivalent in the target language. The translator would, therefore, have to be resourceful in order to invent an image that would have similar effectiveness in the target language.

1.4.1.5) Original Metaphors

Original metaphors are newly created, context specific metaphors developed for a specific occasion. They are very effective because they catch the attention of the reader who would otherwise never have thought of comparing the topic and the vehicle in a particular way before. For example, *The car stopped at one slice in a long white cake of apartment buildings* creates a comparison that the reader is not soon to forget. As one could imagine, this type of metaphor can often represent significant obstacles to the translator,

since the new metaphor in the source language will not have a predetermined equivalent in the target language. To translate original metaphors, the translator must possess two key elements of competence. First, he or she must be sensitive to the metaphor in order to understand its perceived underlying meaning. Second, the translator must be proficient in the use of his or her imagination to develop a suitable equivalent that readers of the target text will understand and appreciate.

After reviewing the different types of metaphors, it is useful to relate this information to our specific goal of classifying metaphor-based Internet terms. We were hopeful that we would discover the basis of a classification system for MBTs that could be effectively applied to the Internet domain. In our opinion, it is most probable that any MBT, through its use and acceptance, may eventually pass through the different degrees of originality described by Newmark when discussing metaphors in general language. If one were to select the type of metaphor that would most closely resemble the type of MBT that we are concerned with in this thesis, the category RECENT METAPHOR would apply. The MBTs presented in this thesis have only recently become part of the Internet language and are so new that their French equivalents have often not yet been firmly established. The problems of translating recent metaphors in general language also closely resemble the problems of rendering English metaphor-based Internet terms into French. Since our MBTs seemed to relate primarily to but one of the types, we concluded that this framework would not be helpful in classifying the MBTs found in our corpus. We found it necessary, therefore, to continue our search for a suitable framework.

1.4.2) *Metaphor Types According to Scope*

Many theorists classify metaphors according to their scope, i.e. the degree to which the metaphorical structure is pervasive throughout the text. According to C. Klein-Lataud, for instance, metaphors can be divided into two categories: metaphor filée and allegory.²⁰

1.4.2.1) *Metaphor Filée*

A metaphor filée extends over several lexical items or even over several sentences or paragraphs. This metaphorical structure consists of at least two parallel reference domains (vehicle and topic), which Klein-Lataud refers to in French as *comparant* and *comparé*. The author uses keywords and imagery to promote the notion of similarity between the vehicle and the topic. Because the same vehicle reference domain is expressed over and over, the image promoted by the metaphorical structure becomes more powerful. In the following passage, for instance, the author discusses the role of government in democracies (topic/comparé), and compares it to the dynamics aboard a sailing ship (vehicle/comparant):

Governments in democracies are elected by the **passengers to steer the ship** of the nation. They are expected to **hold it on course**, to arrange for a **prosperous voyage**, and to be prepared to **be thrown overboard** if they fail either duty.²¹

The words in bold are metaphorical and create the analogy between the democratic governments and the leadership of a sailing ship:

²⁰ *Précis des figures de style*, p. 81-83.

²¹ *La traduction raisonnée*, p. 406.

<u>Metaphorical language</u>	<u>Literal language</u>
the passengers	= the electorate
to steer the ship	= to manage the affairs
hold it on course	= maintain policies in the national interest
prosperous voyage	= economic wealth
to be thrown overboard	= to be displaced by the democratic process

1.4.2.2) *Allegory*

An allegory is an extended metaphor that reflects, in the form of a continuously reoccurring set of images, an underlying moral message through literal language. An allegory can run through a passage or even an entire novel, as in the case of Albert Camus' *The Plague*. In Camus' novel, the reader can, under the surface meaning, discern a rather deliberate reference to the human condition in general. Allegories are also found in the parables of the New Testament and in fables, where they illustrate the underlying lessons or morals of the stories in which they reside.

Here again, it is useful to relate the above scope-based framework to our specific field of MBTs. Unfortunately, we did not find this type of classification to be very pertinent to our goal of classifying English metaphor-based Internet terms. Clearly, allegory could not be associated with MBTs, since the terms in our corpus are not intended to subtly reveal an underlying moral meaning. The concept of metaphor *filée*, while it could be argued that it

resembles the extendedness associated with certain MBTs,²² is not a major factor in the creation of metaphor-based Internet terms. Hence, we found it necessary to explore another approach. After noticing that the terms found in our corpus seemed to present distinct patterns as to the way in which they had been formed, we focussed our attention on the procedures for term formation to see what role metaphors would play.

1.5 USE OF METAPHOR IN NEOLOGY

1.5.1) *What is Neology?*

Neology is the process whereby the lexis of a language increases through the creation of new lexical items. As we discover and reinvent our world at an ever accelerating pace, the need to name the new creations or discoveries emerges with increasing frequency.

With the development of the Internet at breathtaking speed, the need for linguistic representation of many new concepts has become an urgent problem. People are always seeking to be understood. Therefore, naming and expressing new realities stems from our collective need for communication. In order to effectively communicate, however, consensus as to what to name a new concept must be achieved. Certain lexical items will be adopted

²² For instance, the term *mouse* has been extended to create the term *mouse trails* (i.e. a line that can be programmed to be left on the screen to show the action of the mouse pointer). In this example, one could clearly empower the original image (mouse) by extending it in a text as in the case of a metaphor filée.

quickly into their respective languages, while others will slowly disappear. Once consensus has been reached, however, the neologism (i.e. new lexical item) will become an important part of language.

While neologisms are sometimes the result of spontaneous creation, there is often a deliberate action to create a lexical item that will effectively express a concept. Several procedures, which we shall explore in the following section, are used in term formation.

1.5.2) *Procedures for Creating New Terms*

In many fields of study, worldwide consensus on representational frameworks is often difficult to achieve. The field of neology is no exception. In fact, the procedures for term formation tend to be classified differently from one scholar to the next. Although other authors' works were reviewed, such as that of H. Picht and J. Draskau, we have chosen to focus on J. Sager's term formation procedures in this thesis. Sager's classification system was chosen for its simplicity and practical applicability to our particular domain.

In *A Practical Course in Terminology*,²³ Sager distinguishes three basic approaches to term formation, which can in turn be further classified:

- a) modification of existing resources
- b) creation of new linguistic entities
- c) use of existing resources

²³ *A Practical Course in Terminology*, p. 71-80.

1.5.2.1) *Modification of Existing Resources*

Modifying existing resources is the most common procedure used for expanding the lexis. This procedure may entail several different techniques.

- **Derivation** (also called *affixation*)

This process consists of adding a suffix or a prefix to an existing word. For example, the lexical item *dehire* was created by adding the prefix *de*, meaning 'the opposite of', to the verb *hire*.

- **Compounding** (also referred to as *composition*)

Compounding involves combining existing words to create a new term. This can be achieved by simply placing existing words together as in the case of *guided missile*, or by using a hyphen (*machine-readable*). In order to facilitate the pronunciation of a new word, an additional letter is sometimes used, as in the term *speedometer*.

- **Compression** (also called *shortening*)

Compression consists of shortening a lexical item or expression. Compression is achieved by such methods as clipping (e.g. *laboratory* becomes *lab*), the use of acronym (e.g. *self-contained underwater breathing apparatus* becomes *scuba*) and abbreviation (*Mister* is reduced to *Mr.*).

- **Conversion**

This process involves retaining the form of an existing lexical item and modifying only its grammatical category. For example, the noun *gun* was transformed into the verb *to gun*.

1.5.2.2) *Creation of New Linguistic Entities*

New linguistic entities are sometimes created in order to designate new concepts. This can be achieved by several methods.

- **Borrowing**

A useful way of creating new terms is to borrow new forms from other languages. For example, the English term *entrée*, used to refer to the main dish at dinner, was borrowed from the French language.

- **Arbitrary Coinage**

Another procedure, though rarely utilized, is arbitrary coinage. This involves naming a concept with a newly created lexical item that has no meaning or apparent reason to exist except for preference. For example, the term *googol* was coined to represent the number 10^{100} .

- **Onomatopoeia**

Onomatopoeia consists of naming a concept by imitating the associated sound. *Bang*, *buzz* and *rat-a-tat-tat* are examples of onomatopoeic creations.

1.5.2.3) *Use of Existing Resources*

Another way of expanding the lexis is to extend the meaning of an existing resource so as to represent that of a new concept. The lexical item *head*, for example, has always designated 'the top part of the human body where the brain is situated'. Through time and through the use of analogy, however, this lexical item has come to designate the top part of a pin, a nail, a page, etc. Existing resources can also be used as comparisons in order to form a new designation. In fact, the use of simile allows such terms as *plate-like frames* and *track-type bulldozer*²⁴ to be created.

Because the MBTs located in our corpus were created through analogy, our initial motivation for reviewing the various procedures for term formation was to determine more precisely how analogy is used in neology. We were hopeful that we could discover procedures used for creating metaphorical terms that could be applied to metaphor-based Internet terms. Our review of neology, and more specifically of Sager's framework, proved to be much more beneficial than we had first anticipated, but not in the manner we sought.

²⁴ *A Practical Course in Terminology*, p. 71.

While our research into the field of neology provided a rather limited degree of additional insight regarding the use of analogy in term formation, this research lead us unexpectedly to discover the other procedures for the creation of new terms. After reviewing the various procedures exposed, we were confident that parts of Sager's framework could be applied to the problem of classifying the MBTs found in our corpus. The additional information we acquired lead us to develop a basis for our own framework. We established that, while analogy is clearly essential in MBT formation, *other procedures* may also be involved in the creation of metaphor-based Internet terms. In chapter 2, we explain how Sager's procedures for creating terms relate to our classification system for metaphor-based Internet terms.

1.5.3) *Importance of Analogy in Metaphor-based Term Formation*

As we have seen in section 1.5.2.3, terms can be formed through analogy to designate new concepts. Extending the meaning of a non-metaphorical term so as to include a metaphorical sense is quite common in term formation, and serves as the basis for the creation of MBTs.

In the practice of term formation, the emphasis regarding the use of metaphors is placed not on style but on the process of naming and, more importantly, on the process of conceptualizing. Our need to conceptualize emerges in many different fields. As a result, MBTs are widely used in technical language and, more importantly for our discussion, in language pertaining to the field of computers. There are several reasons for the extensive use

of MBTs in computer language. MBTs, as opposed to literal language, hold great communicative qualities, as they are succinct and unintimidating. Thus, they enable us to easily and efficiently convey and conceptualize complex concepts. Furthermore, it can be argued that our ability to remember the meaning of complex concepts is enhanced when MBTs are used, as these terms provide vivid and familiar images for our mind to grasp.

The need for quick and efficient communication is today more desirable than ever. Since most people do not have the time to read material in which many concepts are conveyed with more cumbersome and non-transparent literal language, there is a new premium on succinct communication. We are all familiar with the expression *a picture is worth a thousand words!* The prevalent use of MBTs in computer language demonstrates that this old expression is still very relevant today. A well-chosen metaphorical term has the capability to quickly evoke a powerful and vivid image that is pertinent to the respective concept. For example, the term *wallpaper* has long been defined as 'paper that is glued to a wall for the purpose of decorating'. With the advent of computers, *wallpaper* has come to signify, through the use of analogy, 'the decorative image that appears as a background in a Windows application'. To a computer user, the term *wallpaper* conveys in three syllables a concept that, had it been designated by a non-metaphorical term, would not be as readily understood, and might even require a definition containing many more syllables. Other metaphor-based computer terms, such as *bug*, *mouse*, *bus*, *housekeeping*, *motherboard*, *orphan*, *slave*, *virus*, *to abort*, *to boot*, *to crash*, *to kill*, also enable us to quickly and effectively understand the world of computers through our understanding of known concepts.

MBTs are also often far more effective than non-metaphorical language in helping to maintain the intellectual accessibility to the otherwise often intimidating world of computing. Software designers seem to have understood that MBTs can be used effectively in teaching new computer concepts and in the practical application of new tools. It is not surprising, therefore, to see so many MBTs presented in software interfaces. In Microsoft Windows, for example, such MBTs as *desktop*, *file*, *folder*, *clipboard*, *menu*, *window*, *toolbox*, *wizard*, *to tile*, *to cut*, *to paste*, are extremely prevalent in expressing new concepts. No one can deny that, by allowing people to relate back to more familiar concepts, MBTs serve to flatten the learning curve associated with discovering and becoming familiar with new computer products. For example, the verb *to paste*, which now refers to the action of inserting data from one part of a document into another, is easily understood because it stems from a known lexical item. Everyone can relate to the action expressed by the verb *to paste*. After all, who is not familiar with the concept of cutting out images and pasting them into a scrapbook? Associating a new concept to certain traits of an old one maximizes the likelihood for greater understanding. According to E. Mac Cormac, "Explanations without metaphor would be difficult if not impossible, for in order to describe the unknown, we must resort to concepts that we know and understand, and that is the essence of a metaphor—an unusual juxtaposition of the familiar and the unfamiliar."²⁵ MBTs, because they draw upon a known reality, enable a user who might otherwise feel intimidated by computers to feel more at ease with a new concept and thereby be more able and willing to learn.

²⁵ *A Cognitive Theory of Metaphor*, p. 9.

Furthermore, the use of MBTs, as opposed to literal language, may increase the probability that a new computer user will remember the meaning behind a given MBT. For instance, when learning how to organize documents for the first time within Windows 95, a new user is informed that documents are held in various directories called *folders*. Associating the MBT *folder* with the non-metaphorical item *folder* creates a powerful image in the mind of the new user. The image conveyed by the term *folder* should be easier for a novice to remember than if an unknown term defined as 'a directory on the hard disk' were presented. Most would certainly agree that it is usually much easier to remember what is familiar than what is unfamiliar. The MBT therefore allows the inexperienced user to store, in his or her mind, not only the meaning conveyed by the term, but the familiar image that the term evokes (a folder in a filing cabinet). In Windows 95, the image portrayed by the MBT *folder* is further accentuated by the shape of the directory icon that is present on the computer screen. The directory icon is represented as a folder and, to extend this image, the enclosed documents are portrayed as files. The user can therefore more easily relate to the complex idea of documents (i.e. files) being kept in directories (i.e. folders) on the hard disk (often compared, though not officially, to a filing cabinet) of the computer. The next time the inexperienced user sees the folder icon, it is most probable that he or she will remember how the non-metaphorical version of a folder resembles that of the metaphorical version. Clearly, the use of an MBT that evokes the image of a well known concept (i.e. folders used in a filing cabinet), not only enables the new user to understand the new concept, but also increases the chance that the user will retain the new meaning.

Some theorists, however, warn against the possible problems that can occur when terms are formed through the use of metaphors. P. Thoiron, for example, while he agrees that the use of metaphors constitutes an important procedure for creating technical terms, states that terms created through analogy can sometimes lose their effectiveness.²⁶ He explains that because language is in constant evolution, the image projected by a term at the time it was created may not be relevant to the comprehension of the term in the future. He illustrates his theory by providing the example of *loupe* in French, as contrasted with its English equivalent *magnifying glass*. *Magnifying glass* is transparent in English, as it explains the material (glass) and the function (magnifying) of the object. On the other hand, the lexical item *loupe*, which originally stems from a metaphor, is not transparent to the average Francophone today, as the underlying image is no longer readily apparent. Thoiron states:

Dans ce cas [cas du terme loupe] on a eu affaire à une métaphore qu'on ne sait plus déchiffrer en français contemporain. Le terme vient du francique **luppa* qui désignait une masse informe de liquide caillé. Au XIV^e siècle et par métaphore on utilise *loupe* pour désigner une pierre précieuse d'une transparence imparfaite. Les propriétés optiques de ce type de pierre expliquent vraisemblablement le sens actuel. Mais il faut reconnaître que, si l'on ignore cette filiation étymologique, le signifiant de *loupe* est totalement opaque.²⁷

One can clearly see from this example how MBTs, while useful at first to the extent that they provide clarity as to the meaning of the term, may with time actually obstruct the desired

²⁶ "La terminologie multilingue : une aide à la maîtrise des concepts." *Meta*, p. 765-773.

²⁷ "La terminologie multilingue : une aide à la maîtrise des concepts." *Meta*, p. 766.

understanding. A possible rebuttal to the statement that MBTs may lose their strength is to say that perhaps, once a term has been widely accepted and understood, the importance of having the term be transparent may be somewhat diminished.

Like Thoiron, T. Rohrer also warns that terms formed through analogy can at times be ineffective. While Rohrer does not discuss the factor of language evolution, he brings forth the notion that terms created through analogy can sometimes cause misunderstanding because of the need to project certain aspects of the literal sense onto the metaphorical sense. In an article available on the Internet,²⁸ Rohrer provides the example of the term *trash can*, which is the name of an icon present on the screen of a Macintosh computer. He explains that when the user wants to delete a file, he or she should simply drag it to the trash can icon and the file is deleted automatically. Associating the function of the non-metaphorical term *trash can* with the function expressed by the metaphorical term (i.e. a place used to dispose items) clearly helps the user to better understand the new concept. The problem occurs, however, when the user learns that to eject a diskette, he or she must first drag the disk icon onto the trash can icon and drop it there. Many users have experienced deep anxiety when dropping their disks onto the trash can, for fear that they would be deleting the information on their disks. Rohrer states: "Users do occasionally make mistakes that delete their documents, and therefore any action which links an object associated with deleting information (the trash can) to an action which does not involve deleting information (ejecting a diskette) *naturally* causes

²⁸ *Metaphors We Compute By: Bringing Magic into Interface Design*, p. 1-10.

trepidation."²⁹ In fact, Rohrer points out that many experienced users still prefer to shut the computer down to retrieve their diskette, even though they have been repeatedly educated as to the correct use of the trash can. It is quite reasonable to question the necessity of repeatedly educating the Macintosh user as to the true meaning of an MBT *trash can*, when such a meaning contradicts the very essence of what a trash can fundamentally represents. Does this not somehow defeat the purpose of selecting an MBT to express a new concept? As we can see from this example, selecting an MBT that is not true enough to the literal meaning of the term to which the MBT is compared may be counterproductive. In term formation, the power of a newly created MBT should therefore carefully be considered and not underestimated.

No matter what position one takes on the effectiveness of analogy in term formation, the reality is that MBTs are extremely prevalent in computer language. The tendency to resort to the creation of MBTs to name new concepts is certainly reflected in the English Internet terminology, as we found many such terms. The following chapter presents examples of English metaphor-based Internet terms, which we shall classify according to how the terms were formed.

²⁹ *Metaphors We Compute By: Bringing Magic into Interface Design*, p. 2.

CHAPTER TWO

CLASSIFICATION OF ENGLISH METAPHOR-BASED INTERNET TERMS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

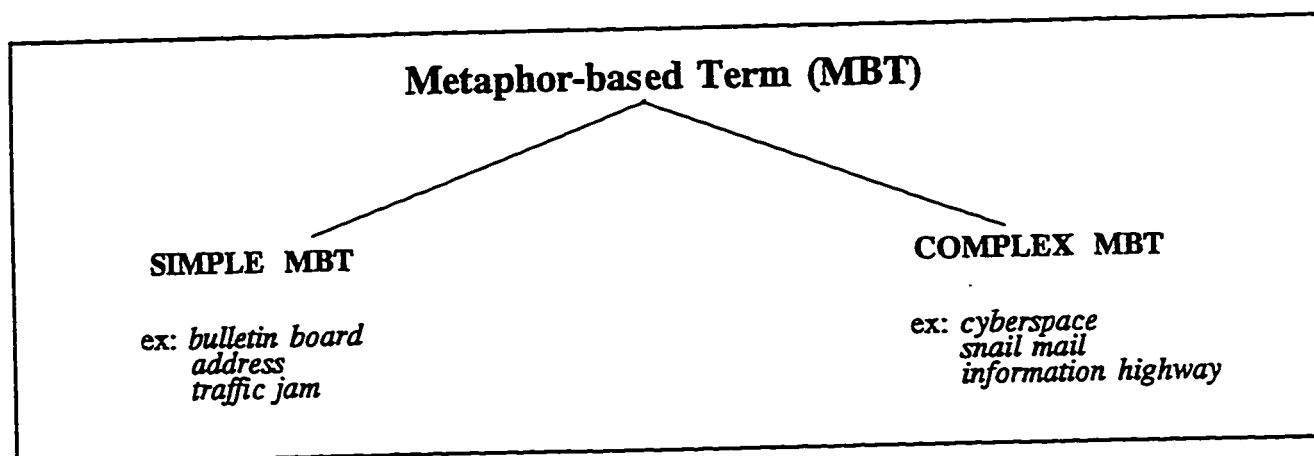
As discussed in section 1.5.2, Sager distinguishes three basic approaches to term formation: 1) modification of existing resources, 2) creation of new linguistic entities, and 3) use of existing resources. As this thesis does not pertain to all types of terms, but rather to the more specific area of MBTs, we felt compelled to create our own framework, which we partially based upon Sager's. We have classified metaphor-based Internet terms into two major categories according to form: simple and complex. Simple MBTs correspond primarily to Sager's third category (i.e. use of existing resources), as the forms of the newly created metaphor-based Internet terms already existed previously in the English language. Complex MBTs correspond primarily to Sager's first category. Complex MBTs also stem from metaphors, but were created by modifying existing resources in order to create new forms. We also created subcategories, some of which are based on Sager's own framework. When one of our subcategories corresponds to Sager's framework, we have indicated the name of his subcategory in parenthesized italics. Furthermore, each term listed is accompanied by a brief definition in order to clarify its new sense. Although our preference was to provide contextual definitions, we attempted to create a definition ourselves when no suitable definition was found for a term. The following classification represents a selection of English

MBTs chosen out of the eighty MBTs found in our Internet corpus (see appendix for other terms).

Before presenting our classification system for English metaphor-based Internet terms, however, it is important to note the two major aspects that provided some difficulty in our analysis. One area of difficulty we encountered was determining whether or not an item is truly metaphorical. It was clear from the beginning that certain terms would be more difficult to analyze than others. This was the case, for instance, with the MBT *home page* (see section 2.3.3.1.1). In this example, some may argue that *home* could be analyzed as metaphorical or non-metaphorical, depending on the point of view taken. In such cases, we preferred to select the meaning that would most likely be selected by the average Internet user.

The second difficulty was establishing what position we would take with lexical items that were once likely metaphorical, but that are now so entrenched into English usage that they no longer provide a powerful image. Based on our research on metaphor, we opted to classify these lexical items as dead metaphors and did not consider them to be metaphorical. This was the case, for instance, with the terms *flame bait* and *flame war* (see section 2.3.2.1.1) where *bait* and *war* were considered to be non-metaphorical. We do acknowledge, however, that in some instances the line between figurative language and metaphorical language may be difficult to discern.

2.2 SIMPLE METAPHOR-BASED INTERNET TERMS



Classification of metaphor-based Internet terms

Simple metaphor-based Internet terms are terms that have been created by simply extending the meaning of an existing lexical item to represent a new concept. The form of the existing item is therefore not altered. The term *address*, for example, is widely used today in the Internet domain when referring to "a unique name (or number) identifying a computer user or computer [...]"³⁰. The function of an Internet address resembles that of a traditional address. By analogy, the term *address* was therefore extended to include a new meaning. It is also important to note that *simple* in simple MBTs does not imply that only one word is involved, as compound terms are also included in this category (e.g. *bulletin board*). The following are other examples of simple MBTs that have today become part of the Internet language:

³⁰ *Crossing the Internet Threshold*, p. 21.

- *anchor*

- In a hypertext system such as the World Wide Web (WWW), a word or phrase that is highlighted on the screen to serve as a starting point or an ending point of a link.³¹

- *bookmark*

- A Gopher feature that enables the user to go back and easily revisit a particular Internet resource.

- *browse (to)*

- To explore the resources available on Internet servers with the use of a search tool, called a browser.

- *bulletin board*

- A service that enables users to enter information for others to read and that can store and retrieve files.³²

- *burrow (to)* (synonym = *to tunnel*)

- To advance deeper into the layers of a Gopher menu in order to find a specific Internet resource.

³¹ *Internet in Plain English*, p. 28.

³² *Navigating the Internet*, p. 396.

- *cruise (to)* (synonym = *to surf*)

- To explore the Internet, usually through a browser.

- *firewall*

- A security system that has been designed to prevent unauthorized users from accessing an organization's internal network through the Internet.

- *flame*³³

- A strong opinion and/or criticism of something, usually a frank inflammatory statement, in an electronic mail message.³⁴

- *Gopher*

- A search tool that presents information in a hierarchical menu system somewhat like a table of contents.³⁵

- *host*

- A computer system on which you can hold an interactive session, or which is the source of network services.³⁶

³³ Some terms we are presenting in this classification have derivational forms that involve merely a change in grammatical category (e.g. *flame (to flame, flaming)*, *spamming (spam, to spam)*, *trolling (to troll)*). We have chosen to include in our list of terms only the most common form of such terms we found.

³⁴ *The Internet Guide for New Users*, p. 540.

³⁵ "Making the Internet Connection." *PC Magazine*, p. 128.

³⁶ *Crossing the Internet Threshold*, p. 22.

- *mailbox*

- The space on host system's hard disk that holds a user's electronic mail messages.

- *postmaster*

- The person responsible for taking care of electronic mail problems, answering queries about users, and other related work at a site.³⁷

- *signature*

- A file, typically four or five lines in length, that is attached to the end of an email message or a Usenet article in order to identify the sender.

- *spamming*³⁸

- A form of computer-based aggression that involves bombarding someone with uninvited, copious information that they must page through before proceeding.³⁹

- *smiley*

- A group of characters that, when viewed sideways, constitutes a face and is used to add 'tone' to e-mail communications.⁴⁰

³⁷ *Internet Users' Glossary*, p. 39.

³⁸ *Spamming* comes from the term *spam*, which is the name of a popular canned meat product. The reference to *spam* (and *spamming*) is believed, as explained on page 70 in *Cyberpunk Handbook*, to come from Monty Python's skit, where the menu was eggs, eggs and spam, eggs and spam and spam, and eggs and spam and spam, and spam, and spam, spam, spam, spam, spam, etc.

³⁹ *Internet in Plain English*, p. 369.

⁴⁰ *Navigating the Internet*, p. 400.

- *surf (to)* (synonym = *to cruise*)

- To explore the Internet, usually through a browser.

- *traffic*

- The volume of searches and messages on the Internet at any one time.

- *traffic jam*

- The situation that occurs when the number of users on a portion of the Internet exceeds the capacity for which the system was designed.

- *trolling*

- In Usenet, a prank that consists of posting a message so idiotic or facetious that only the gullible, irascible, arrogant or egotistical would respond with follow up postings, which expose their stupidity (often hilariously).⁴¹

- *tunnel (to)* (synonym = *to burrow*)

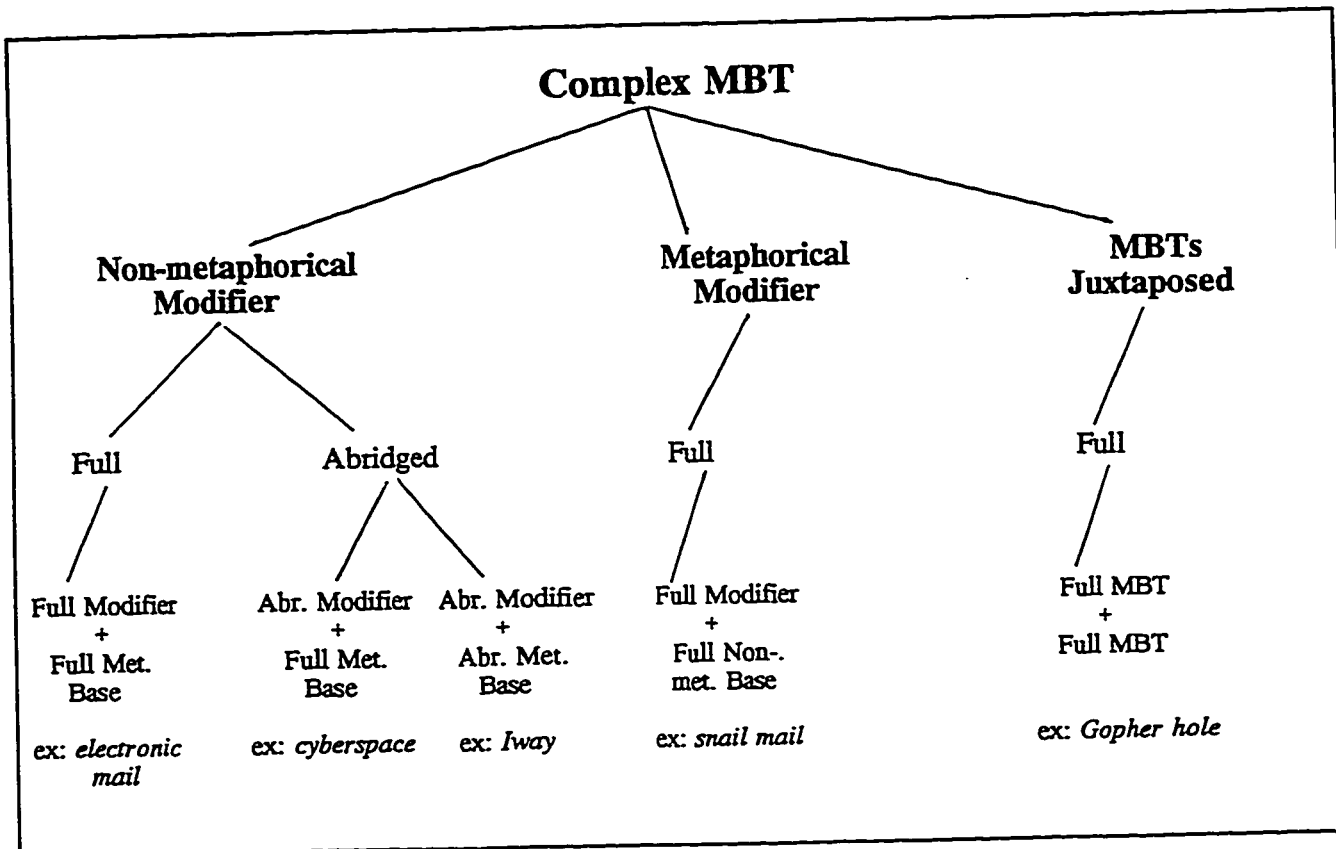
- To advance deeper into the layers of a Gopher menu in order to find a specific Internet resource.

- *white pages*

- Internet databases that contain basic information about users, such as telephone numbers, email addresses and postal addresses.

⁴¹ *Internet in Plain English*, p. 397.

2.3 COMPLEX METAPHOR-BASED INTERNET TERMS



Classification of complex metaphor-based Internet terms

A complex metaphor-based Internet term can be created in three primary ways.

Firstly, it can be formed by adding a non-metaphorical modifier to a metaphorical base.

Secondly, it can be created by adding a metaphorical modifier to a non-metaphorical base.

By adding either type of modifier, the image evoked by the resultant MBT is further reinforced to better explain the new concept. The addition of a modifier is often necessary so that the public can capture the full meaning of the new term. From our study, we have

observed that different types of metaphorical and non-metaphorical modifiers are sometimes added. We have therefore subdivided these modifiers, according to their form, into two distinct categories: full modifier and abridged modifier. We also divided the metaphorical bases in the same manner (i.e. full or abridged form). Finally, the third way in which complex MBTs can be formed is by juxtaposing two metaphor-based terms.

2.3.1) *Non-metaphorical Modifier Added to Metaphorical Base*

In this category, a non-metaphorical modifier is added to a metaphorical base to create a complex metaphor-based Internet term. As we will see in the following subcategories, both the base and the modifier may be presented in either its entire form (i.e. full form) or in an abridged fashion.

2.3.1.1) *Full Non-metaphorical Modifier (Compounding)*

2.3.1.1.1) *Full Non-metaphorical Modifier Added to Full Metaphorical Base*

In this category, a full metaphorical base is subject to the addition of a full separate word in order to further explain its metaphorical aspect. The term *electronic mail*, which means "a system whereby a computer user can exchange messages with other computer users (or groups of users) via a communications network,"⁴² is a good example of this phenomenon.

⁴² *Internet User's Glossary*, p. 16.

Electronic has been added to explain that *mail* is in fact metaphorical and that it does not refer to the traditional hard copy version, but to a new form of mail that is in electronic form. We have observed, however, that after these types of terms become widely used and understood, the full non-metaphorical modifier has less usefulness and often becomes abridged or even discarded with time. This has certainly been the case with the term *electronic mail*, which has been shortened and is now most often referred to simply as *email* (see section 2.3.1.2.1). The following are other examples of MBTs with full non-metaphorical modifiers:

- *information highway*

- The Internet system.

information (full non-metaphorical modifier) +
highway (full metaphorical base)

- *search engine*

- A server (such as Yahoo, WebCrawler and Lycos) that is used to find specific information on the Internet.

search (full non-metaphorical modifier) +
engine (full metaphorical base)

2.3.1.2) Abridged Non-metaphorical Modifier (Derivation / Compression)**2.3.1.2.1) Abridged Non-metaphorical Modifier Added to Full Metaphorical Base**

Sometimes only an abridged non-metaphorical modifier is added to a full metaphorical base in order to create a new Internet term. For example the term *ecash*, which refers to 'electronic currency that can be exchanged as a means of payment for products and services over the Internet', falls into this category. The abridged form of *electronic* (i.e. *e*) has been added to the metaphorical base *cash* to further reinforce that one is referring to a special kind of cash. The following are other examples of MBTs with abridged non-metaphorical modifiers:

- ***cyberspace***

- The world of computers and the society that is linked to them.

cyber (abridged non-metaphorical modifier = short for *cybernetics*) +

space (full metaphorical base)

- ***netiquette***

- An informal set of rules that refer to the proper etiquette required when using the Internet.

net (abridged non-metaphorical modifier = short for *Internet*)⁴³ +

etiquette (full metaphorical base)

Since *et* was present at the end of the first modifier and at the beginning of the second modifier, it was only utilized once to form the term *netiquette*. Dropping a repeated syllable in order to facilitate pronunciation is by no means uncommon in term formation and should not be seen as an exception to the rule.

- *netsurfer* (or *Netsurfer*, *Net-surfer*) (synonym = *internaut*)

— A person who explores the Internet.

net (abridged non-metaphorical modifier = short for *Internet*) +

surfer (full metaphorical base)

As previously mentioned, once an MBT with a full non-metaphorical modifier has been fully accepted in its respective language, there is a tendency for the full non-metaphorical modifier to be abridged, as in the following example.

⁴³ We also found once, on page 137 of the book entitled *Navigating the Internet*, the term *Internetiquette*.

- *email* (or *e-mail*)

- A shortened version of the term *electronic mail*.

e (abridged non-metaphorical modifier = short for *electronic*) +
mail (full metaphorical base)

2.3.1.2.2) *Abridged Non-metaphorical Modifier Added to Abridged Metaphorical Base*

In some cases, an abridged non-metaphorical modifier is added to an abridged metaphorical base to create a complex MBT. For example, the term *Infobahn*, which is often used to refer to the Internet, falls into this category.

Info (abridged non-metaphorical modifier = short for *information*) +
bahn (abridged metaphorical base = short for *Autobahn*)

The Autobahn (auto = motorcar + Bahn = road, in German) is the name of a four-lane German express highway that is notorious for its lack of speed limits. *Bahn* therefore conjures up the image of a high speed highway, and the addition of the abridged modifier *Info* further reinforces that we are in the presence of a metaphor-based Internet term. In addition, the capital letter in the metaphorical term, signifying a proper name, helps to further associate *Infobahn* with the proper name *Autobahn*. While it is true that in this example the term *Autobahn* could have been selected in its entirety, the abbreviated form *bahn* was

preferred. The preference for an abbreviated metaphorical base may perhaps be explained by stating that if the modifier *Info* had been added to *Autobahn* the resulting term (i.e. *InfoAutobahn*) would have been cumbersome. Another possible explanation is that because *Auto*, in *Autobahn*, is perhaps metaphorically weaker in conveying the desired image than *bahn*, it was consequently omitted. The following are several other examples that illustrate this category:

- *Iway* (or *I-way*)

- A shortened version of the term *information highway*.

I (abridged non-metaphorical modifier = short for *information*) +

way (abridged metaphorical base = short for *highway*)

- *cybrarian*

- The person who is in charge of organizing and updating information on a server.

cyb (abridged non-metaphorical modifier = short for *cybernetics*) +

rarian (abridged metaphorical base = short for *librarian*)

- ***internaut*** (or ***Internaut***) (synonym = *netsurfer*)

— A person who explores the Internet.

intern (abridged non-metaphorical modifier = short for *Internet*) +

naut (abridged metaphorical base = short for *astronaut*)

N.B. the n, which is common to both items, is not repeated in order to facilitate pronunciation.

2.3.2) *Metaphorical Modifier Added to Non-metaphorical Base*

This category differs from 2.3.1, in the sense that it is not the base term that is metaphorical but the added modifier. The following complex MBTs all contain modifiers and bases that are full in form, not abridged. Although no terms were found in our corpus to have either an abridged modifier or an abridged base, we believe that there is no reason why such terms could not be eventually formed.

2.3.2.1) *Full Metaphorical Modifier*

2.3.2.1.1) *Full Metaphorical Modifier Added to Full Non-metaphorical Base*

In this category, the full non-metaphorical base is subject to the addition of a full metaphorical modifier. Since the terms belonging to this category may at first glance be more difficult to comprehend, we shall provide added explanation to this section. Consider the MBT *snail mail* for instance.

- *snail mail*

— A pejorative term used to designate the regular postal service and distinguish it from high speed electronic mail.

snail (full metaphorical modifier) +

mail (full non-metaphorical base)

We have seen that, in the case of the terms belonging to the previous categories, it was always the base term that contained the metaphorical component, as in the case of *information highway* for example (see section 2.3.1.1.1). The term *snail mail*, however, must be analyzed differently from the terms we have seen in the previous categories. We shall therefore compare the terms *information highway* and *electronic mail* with the term *snail mail* to further illustrate the need for classifying these terms differently.

Highway, in *information highway*, should not be understood to represent the form's non-metaphorical (i.e. literal) meaning, that is 'a multi-lane road upon which vehicles travel'. *Highway*, through the use of analogy, has today taken on a new sense in order to express an Internet concept (i.e. 'a link through which data travels'). In this example, the added modifier *information* merely reinforces that we are in fact referring to the new metaphorical term *highway*. Therefore, *information highway* can be represented as follows:

information (full non-metaphorical modifier) + **highway** (full metaphorical base)

The above reasoning can also be applied to the term *electronic mail*. In the case of the term *electronic mail*, *mail* has also taken on a new meaning from its original form and *electronic* is simply added to further establish that we are in fact in the presence of an MBT. As it is in the example of *information highway*, in *electronic mail* it is the base that contains the metaphorical component.

electronic (full non-metaphorical modifier) + **mail** (full metaphorical base)

Sometimes, however, the pattern is different from the above examples, as in the case of *snail mail* for instance. Because the term *electronic mail* (or *e-mail*, or today sometimes even *mail*) is becoming such a common element of the English language, it now seems necessary to differentiate it from the term from which it was originally derived. In fact, it is no longer always obvious as to what type of mail one is referring when the sentence *I have mail today!* is expressed. The term *snail mail* is therefore often selected by Internet users to provide clarity. Unlike the term *electronic mail*, however, the base element *mail* in *snail mail*

is not metaphorical, as the base still holds on to its original meaning 'a parcel, a letter, etc. that the postal office delivers'. In *snail mail*, it is the added modifier *snail*, which modifies *mail*, that is metaphorical. *Snail mail* can therefore be analyzed in the following way:

snail (full metaphorical modifier) + **mail** (full non-metaphorical base)

The following are three other complex MBTs that belong to this category:

- *flame bait*

- A posting in Usenet that will most undoubtedly produce an onslaught of flames in the sender's mailbox.

flame (full metaphorical modifier) +
bait (full non-metaphorical base)

- *flame war* (or *flame-war*)

- A vitriolic exchange of opinions, in the form of electronic messages, that is intended to arouse emotions and tempers.

flame (full metaphorical modifier) +

war (full non-metaphorical base)

While it is true that both *flame bait* and *flame war* have been included in this category, it is important to explain how these terms differ slightly from *snail mail* for instance. While we have considered the base terms *bait* and *war* to be non-metaphorical, unlike *mail* in *snail mail*, it is true that *bait* and *war* were at one time likely MBTs in their own right. If we take the term *war*, for example, we know that the non-metaphorical (i.e. literal) definition of the term is 'a conflict carried on by force of arms'. With time, however, perhaps through the use of metaphor, *war* has come to mean 'any active struggle, conflict or strife' as in the example of *the war against disease*. Today, at best one would tend to classify *bait* and *war* as figurative in nature, rather than metaphorical, because they are so entrenched into the English language that the vivid image they once portrayed has truly been diminished. Metaphors, as we have seen in section 1.4.1.1, that have been so widely used that they have lost their metaphorical power are often referred to as dead metaphors. For the purpose of this study, we will not consider a term that is metaphorically dead to be an MBT. We do acknowledge, however, that a term's classification as either figurative or metaphorical can, in some cases, be seriously debated.

- *mirror site*

— A server that recopies, completely or partially, the contents of another server.

mirror (full metaphorical modifier) +

site (full non-metaphorical base)

Mirror site is an example of an MBT that is in the process of modification. Because the term has been so widely used in English, its non-metaphorical base (i.e. *site*) is today most often discarded. *Mirror site* is therefore very often simply referred to as *mirror*: "If you want the mirror to be accessible via ftp, enable anonymous FTP."⁴⁴ This complex MBT is therefore quickly evolving into a simple MBT. It is our belief that many complex MBTs in today's Internet language may eventually become simple MBTs. It is also interesting to note that in the case of *mirror site*, *mirror* was retained, even though it is a modifier, while the base was discarded. Quite expectedly, we have found in our study of complex MBTs that, when an added modifier (e.g. *electronic* as in *electronic mail*) or a base (e.g. *site* as in *mirror site*) is discarded, it is always non-metaphorical in nature. This is certainly understandable since, in order to be metaphorical, a term must retain its metaphorical component.

2.3.3) *Metaphor-based Terms Juxtaposed*

This category is concerned with terms, which in their own right are considered to be MBTs, that are juxtaposed to create new metaphor-based Internet terms. Each juxtaposed term may be used in its entire form or in an abridged fashion. Since no abridged forms were found in our corpus, only examples of full juxtaposed terms are presented.

⁴⁴ *Creating Mirror Sites of EMIS*, p. 1.

2.3.3.1) *Full Metaphor-based Term*

2.3.3.1.1) *Full Metaphor-based Term Juxtaposed with Full Metaphor-based Term*

In this category, two full MBTs are juxtaposed in order to form a new metaphor-based Internet term. For example, the term *Gopher hole*, which is defined as 'a Gopher site where information is presented in a hierarchical menu', belongs to this category. The MBT *Gopher* is paired with the MBT *hole* and both terms are presented in full form. In this example, *Gopher* and *hole* should be viewed as equal partners in the metaphorical relationship to the extent that each provides metaphorical context for the other. The following are two other examples of a full MBT juxtaposed with a full MBT:

- *Gopherspace*

- Computer space, made accessible by Gopher servers, that can be used for searching and browsing.

Gopher (full metaphor-based term) +
space (full metaphor-based term)

- *home page*

- A World Wide Web hypermedia document (containing one or several pages) that represents the information available at a specific user's site.

home (full metaphor-based term) +

page (full metaphor-based term)

As discussed in the introduction of this chapter, deciding whether a term is truly metaphorical was not always an easy task. The term *home page*, for instance, was difficult to analyze, as *home* may be viewed as either metaphorical or non-metaphorical depending on the point of view taken.

According to our research,⁴⁵ *home* in *home page* may be analyzed in two different ways. Avid Unix users would likely assert that *home* should be classified as non-metaphorical since it simply derived from the Unix term *home directory*. When a user begins the Unix operating system, he or she is presented with his or her personal home directory, which is the starting point. Many Unix users would therefore insist that *home*, in *home page*, should also be viewed as meaning 'beginning' since the home page is usually the starting point on a user's Internet site. The general public, however, who tends not to be as well versed in computer terminology, would likely not see the similarities with the term *home directory*. The average user would be well inclined to interpret *home* in its more traditional sense. As the home page provides information about the site and displays the data that is kept there, there is a strong tendency to equate the function of the page to the function of a

⁴⁵ We asked a number of people informally (both experts and members of the general public) about their interpretation of *home*, in *home page*, to verify our hypothesis regarding the images the MBT evokes.

house (i.e. a place where one resides and where one's belongings are kept and displayed).

Home interpreted in this way would therefore have to be classified as metaphorical in nature.

Clearly, *home* may be interpreted differently according to the degree of knowledge on the part of the Internet user. While we cannot profess that one party may be more correct than the other, we can attempt to offer clarification. In all likelihood *home*, in *home page*, may have been coined as an extension of the term *home directory*, as the original designers of the home page concept were Unix users. In any case, one could still argue that *home*, in *home page*, may still be metaphorical as *home*, in *home directory*, was likely chosen for its metaphorical qualities also. From our research, however, it is clear that inadvertently *home* has come to signify a more general-language usage, one which is metaphorical. We have therefore classified *home* as metaphorical in the sense of 'house' since we concluded that, when confronted with a term that may be interpreted two ways, we would select the meaning understood by the average Internet user.

Although no examples of other types of metaphor-based structures were found in our corpus, it is possible in principal to further elaborate upon the above classification of complex metaphor-based Internet terms by adding other categories to the diagram presented on page 50: FULL NON-METAPHORICAL MODIFIER ADDED TO AN ABRIDGED METAPHORICAL BASE, FULL METAPHORICAL MODIFIER ADDED TO AN ABRIDGED NON-METAPHORICAL BASE, ABRIDGED METAPHORICAL MODIFIER ADDED TO AN ABRIDGED NON-METAPHORICAL BASE, FULL METAPHOR-BASED TERM JUXTAPOSED TO AN ABRIDGED METAPHOR-BASED TERM, etc.

CHAPTER THREE

TRANSLATION OF METAPHOR-BASED INTERNET TERMS

3.1 STRATEGIES FOR TRANSLATING METAPHORS IN GENERAL LANGUAGE

Since metaphors are such powerful and complex elements of language, they represent special challenges to the translator. Methodologies for translating metaphors are, predictably, as varied as the frameworks for classifying and analyzing them. The general agreement among translation theorists, however, is that a metaphor proper (i.e. non-fossilized metaphor) should be retained when possible in the target language because it is effective in conveying a powerful image. There are two opposing views on the difficulty of translating metaphors. Some translation theorists, P. Kloepfer for example, assert that there is in fact no special problem in translating metaphors.⁴⁶ These figures of speech are simply a question of language and, therefore, should be translated in the same way as other segments of language. Others, like Newmark, have found it important to create a methodology for translating metaphors considering the complexity of the task.

Before selecting an equivalent to a metaphor, according to Newmark in *Approaches to Translation*, a translator must have a discriminating sense of priority in order to be able to distinguish the meaning conveyed by the metaphor. To truly analyze a metaphor, the

⁴⁶ "Can 'Metaphor' Be Translated?" *Babel*, p. 25.

translator must therefore first consider the following: 1) the object (topic) the metaphor is associated with, 2) the image (vehicle) being used to convey the idea, and 3) the sense (ground) being deployed. With a clear understanding of these critical elements, the translator is better prepared to choose an appropriate equivalent in the target language. Newmark suggests seven procedures for translating metaphors, which he outlines in his order of preference:⁴⁷ 1) REPRODUCING THE SAME IMAGE IN THE TARGET LANGUAGE, 2) REPLACING THE IMAGE IN THE SOURCE LANGUAGE WITH A STANDARD TARGET LANGUAGE IMAGE, 3) TRANSLATING METAPHOR BY SIMILE, 4) TRANSLATING METAPHOR BY SIMILE PLUS SENSE, 5) CONVERTING METAPHOR TO SENSE, 6) DELETING METAPHOR, 7) TRANSFERRING THE SAME METAPHOR INTO THE TARGET LANGUAGE TARGET LANGUAGE COMBINED WITH SENSE.

3.1.1) *Reproducing the Same Image in the Target Language*

This procedure involves reproducing the image in the source language by selecting the same image in the target language. This method should be used when the source image is comparable in terms of frequency and expressiveness of the image in the target language. In English, for instance, *my wife is a rose* can be translated quite easily by the same metaphor in French *mon épouse est une rose*. By retaining the same image in this example there is no significant loss of effect. The underlying meaning of the English term *rose* (i.e. that the woman is beautiful, delicate and sweet) is also expressed in *rose* in French. Transferring the

⁴⁷ *Approaches to Translation*, p. 88-91.

same image into the target language is most common when the source culture and the target culture overlap (as is the case with French and English), because of the high probability of shared views and experiences.

3.1.2) *Replacing the Image in the Source Language with a Standard Target Language Image*

In this procedure, another image than that which was used in the source language is selected. Often the target language has a different way of expressing the meaning of a specific metaphor. For example, in English, people say when referring to getting their fair share of something, that they want their *piece of the pie*. The French method of expressing the same idea uses similar, though not identical imagery. In French, the standard image is *part du gâteau*, not *part de la tarte*. The translator must therefore be sensitive to the target language's idiosyncrasies. According to Newmark, when there is no predetermined equivalent image in the target language, translators must resort to creating an appropriate equivalent. They must therefore be conscious of which image in the receptor language would convey the underlying message that exists in the source language metaphor.

3.1.3) *Translating Metaphor by Simile*

This method enables the translator to retain the image of the source language by adding a comparison to explain the metaphor. For example:

"La brosse du peintre tartine le corps humain sur d'énormes surfaces" becomes,
"The painter's brush spreads the human body over vast surfaces, like butter over
bread."⁴⁸

In French, the verb *tartiner* evokes a more vivid image than the English *spread*, which tends either to be unnoticed or possibly even completely misunderstood. Hence, the translator in this example translated the metaphor by adding the simile *like butter over bread* to further enhance the mental image for the target reader.

3.1.4) Translating Metaphor by Simile Plus Sense

According to Newmark, this procedure should always be seen as a compromise that reduces the impact of the metaphor. It consists of incorporating into the target language not only the image, but the underlying meaning of the metaphor plus a simile. *Je suis racinien* evokes the name of the famous author Jean Racine and his characters. The translator might choose to clarify this metaphor for the English audience by adding a sense component and by using the comparison *like* or *as*. For example, *Je suis racinien* might be rendered into English as *I am as sensitive and as amorous as a Racinian character*. The advantage of this procedure, as compared with the simple transfer option, is that the metaphor might not be lost on the reader.

⁴⁸ *Approaches to Translation*, p. 90.

3.1.5) *Converting Metaphor to Sense*

This procedure involves reducing the metaphor into its underlying meaning to transfer only the meaning into the target text. The metaphor must therefore be analyzed componentially in order to understand the many dimensions of its sense. According to Newmark, all metaphors must be pluridimensional; otherwise the author would have used literal instead of metaphoric language. In the following passage, for instance, the image of the walrus has been translated by its underlying meaning:

James Whitfield is an eloquent phrasemaker who turns upon his visitors **a walrus's friendly gaze**. These days, a lot of people are **swimming to his rock**. He has made a discovery the implications of which range far beyond the confines of his laboratory.

James Whitfield a la parole facile et le **regard attachant**. Les visiteurs **affluent** de plus en plus nombreux pour le voir, car les retombées de sa découverte débordent de beaucoup le périmètre de son laboratoire.⁴⁹

Images usually have both an emotional and a factual meaning. In this example, the facts have been rendered, but the emotive aspects of the walrus have not. The reader of the source text, responding to the image of the walrus, visualizes the man as a large and imposing important figure who is also very down to earth and friendly. Moreover, the image of people swimming to his rock (where James Whitfield, the walrus, is pictured as being elevated physically out of the water) further accentuates the fact that the scientist is held in high esteem. It could be argued that a loss in meaning is suffered when using this method of

⁴⁹ *La traduction raisonnée*, p. 413.

translating. If this is perceived to be the case, it is possible to compensate for the loss of the image by incorporating aspects of the source image elsewhere in the target text.

Compensation, however, is not always possible or always desirable.

3.1.6) *Deleting Metaphor*

If the metaphor is redundant or superfluous, according to Newmark, the translator may resort to this procedure by simply deleting the metaphor in the target text. In this case, the sense component would not be translated either. The decision to delete a metaphor, however, should only be taken once the translator has clearly established that the metaphor's function is either not necessary to the meaning of the text, or that it has been realized somewhere else in the text.

3.1.7) *Transferring the Same Metaphor into the Target Language Combined with Sense*

This procedure involves not only retaining the same metaphor as in the source text, but also adding the meaning. Such a procedure allows a reader who might otherwise not have understood the metaphor to capture its true meaning. For example:

"The tongue is a fire."⁵⁰

The translator may decide that this metaphor would be lost on the reader of the target

⁵⁰ "The Translation of Metaphor." *Babel*, p. 97.

text if it were not explained in some way. Therefore, *The tongue is a fire* would be transferred as "*The tongue is a fire. Fire ruins things; what we say also ruins things*"⁵¹ (La langue est un feu. Un feu détruit; nos paroles peuvent aussi détruire)

3.2 FRENCH LANGUAGE STRATEGIES FOR RENDERING ENGLISH METAPHOR-BASED INTERNET TERMS

As we have seen in chapter 2, the use of MBTs in the Internet domain is extremely prevalent in English. We wondered, however, how English MBTs would be transferred into French. Would the metaphors be kept or discarded? Would the strategies found for translating metaphors in general language apply to MBTs? After investigation, we discovered eight different strategies for the treatment of MBTs in original French documents pertaining to the Internet. The following is an outline of our findings and a comparison of these findings to those of Newmark:

3.2.1) *Literal Equivalent (Metaphor Retained)*

Since French and English cultures are rather closely related, we were not surprised to find many English MBTs where the metaphorical components having similar meaning were retained in French. For example, *mailbox* became *boîte aux lettres*, as in "Cet opérateur vous donnera votre adresse e-mail, c'est-à-dire l'adresse de votre boîte aux lettres dans lequel vous

⁵¹ "The Translation of Metaphor." *Babel*, p. 97.

pourrez recevoir des messages provenant du monde entier [...]."⁵² Many other terms we observed in our corpus also retained their metaphorical component in French, such as:

<i>host</i>	<i>hôte</i>
<i>address</i>	<i>adresse</i>
<i>internaut</i>	<i>internaute</i>
<i>electronic mail</i>	<i>courrier électronique</i>
<i>traffic</i>	<i>trafic</i>
<i>traffic jam</i>	<i>embouteillage</i>
<i>cybrarian</i>	<i>cyberthécaire</i>
<i>anchor</i>	<i>ancre</i>
<i>signature</i>	<i>signature</i>
<i>netiquette</i>	<i>netiquette</i>
<i>white pages</i>	<i>pages blanches</i>
<i>mirror site</i>	<i>site miroir</i>
<i>to surf</i>	<i>surfer</i>

Although we included the term *to surf* in this category, we do consider it to be slightly different from the other examples. The French literal equivalent *surfer* is in fact much like the other terms in this category in that the metaphorical element was retained. The difference, however, is that when the term *surfer* was found in our corpus, it was almost

⁵² *Internet : Le réseau mondial*, p. 12.

always written by Quebec authors with some type of special punctuation. For instance, the sentence "En théorie, donc, entre 10% et 15% des Québécois peuvent «surfer» sur le Net"⁵³ illustrates this tendency. In this example, quotation marks were added to the infinitive form of the verb *surfer*. This addition signals to the reader that the author is not entirely comfortable with the selected term or that the author expects the reader to find difficulty with the term. Although the French verb *surfer* has the same non-metaphorical meaning as the English verb *to surf* (i.e. 'to ride a wave with a surfboard'), there seems to be some reticence in giving it an added metaphorical meaning pertaining to the Internet. It is interesting to note, however, that the authors from France did not seem to have the same reservations as did the Quebec authors.⁵⁴ Most authors from France used the verb *surfer* quite freely in their texts without ever attempting to add special punctuation to signal some type of uneasiness. They even felt entirely at ease with conjugating the verb, as in the following example: "Dis moi avec quoi tu surfes [...]"⁵⁵ This action was not widely attempted by the Quebec authors, who when attempting to use *surfer* preferred to use the infinitive form and special punctuation. The possible reason for this phenomenon is explored in section 4.2.4.

⁵³ *Le guide Internet Québec Science*, p. 24.

⁵⁴ Although it is by no means the purpose of this thesis to study the differences between French from France and French from Quebec, there were instances where we felt that certain differences were worthy of mention, as they may help to improve our understanding of the way French Internet terminology is evolving.

⁵⁵ "@ en net." @ *Internet reporter*, September 1995, p. 10.

3.2.2) *Explanatory Equivalent (Metaphor Dropped)*

As mentioned previously, the metaphorical component of an MBT is often retained when a literal equivalent, with a similar metaphorical meaning, already exists in the target language. However, an example was found where a literal equivalent was rarely selected even though it is present in the target language and would have been, had it been chosen, perceived in a similar metaphorical sense. Although the English noun *flame* was found to have been retained in some French texts, it was also often rendered as *discussion envenimée*, a term that is not metaphorical but rather is explanatory in nature, instead of the French literal equivalent *flamme*, which is metaphorically based:

Au début de 1994, il [Usenet] comptait plus de 5000 groupes pour un volume de centaines de Méga-octets par jour, soit plusieurs dizaines de milliers de pages de nouveaux articles techniques, d'opinions, de *bla-bla* ou de discussions envenimées («flames») chaque jour, l'équivalent de plusieurs volumes de l'Encyclopaedia Britannica.⁵⁶

While it can be argued that the explanatory equivalent *discussion envenimée* relates to the general meaning of *flame* (i.e. 'an exchange where anger is involved'), the metaphorical component that conveys a vivid image has certainly been lost on the reader. It is interesting to note that, while the author in this example did not use the metaphorical equivalent, he still felt compelled to add the English term in parenthesis to show the user the concept to which he was referring. It is surprising, however, that in our corpus there were only two authors

⁵⁶ *Internet* (Condat), p. 85.

(D. Sophier and C. Huitema) who referred to the concept expressed by the term *flame* in English as *flamme* in French. Sophier wrote, for instance: "Ces messages sont amusants et je me refuse d'écrire des jurons dans cet ouvrage, mais les flammes sont souvent beaucoup plus chaudes encore."⁵⁷ It is quite clear by this example that, by retaining *flamme*, Sophier was able not only to create the vivid image that is similarly present in the English term, but also to further reinforce the image present in French by playing on the word *chaudes*. Huitema, however, while perhaps not as creative in his use of the French literal equivalent, employed the term *flamme* only once in his writings: "Pour être vraiment réussi, un échange de flammes doit faire intervenir plus de deux participants."⁵⁸ The term *flame war*, an extension of the term *flame*, was also found to have been transferred without selecting a literal equivalent that is metaphorical in nature. For instance, the phrase "L'utilisateur qui transgresse les règles peut déclencher des guerres épistolaires (*flame wars*)"⁵⁹ was present in our corpus. One can understand, from this example, how the powerful image brought forth by the term *flame* in English is lost when *flamme* in French is not selected.

It is difficult to establish a fully satisfactory explanation as to why French literal equivalents, with similar metaphorical senses, are sometimes rejected in favour of non-metaphorical language. However, we might speculate and offer one possible reason for such an avoidance. In the case of *flame*, for example, the reason that the literal equivalent *flamme*

⁵⁷ *Internet : le guide d'exploration de l'internaute*, p. 48.

⁵⁸ *Et Dieu créa l'Internet...*, p. 29.

⁵⁹ *Internet* (Dufour), p. 69.

was avoided is not because it lacks a similar metaphorical sense as *flame* in English. Both terms in fact share the connotation of anger, and in French *lancer feu et flammes* is often used to express anger and irritability. M. Bergeron and C. Kempa, who are terminologists at l'Office de la langue française, explain in *Vocabulaire d'Internet* that they reject *flamme* as an acceptable equivalent to *flame* because the French term brings forth a connotation of sentiment. They state: "En français, le terme *flamme* véhicule entre autres des connotations sentimentales."⁶⁰ They have expressed the opinion that *flamme*, in French, could be perceived as connoting *love*, *ardour*, etc. The French user may therefore be somewhat confused as to the proper meaning of *flamme*. As a replacement to *flamme*, Bergeron and Kempa recommend the explanatory equivalent *réponse furieuse*, which like *discussion envenimée*, looses the vividness of the image that is expressed by the English term (see section 3.2.3 for their other suggestion).⁶¹ One could, however, effectively challenge their argument for rejecting *flamme* by stating that, while the connotation associated with the French term *flamme* is also present in *flame*, English users do not seem to be confused by the meaning, and are consequently not willing to reject the term for such a reason. In English, the term *flame* is today in fact widely used and well established in the Internet terminology, as no

⁶⁰ *Vocabulaire d'Internet*, entry no. 114, p. 25.

⁶¹ Although we have chosen to discuss equivalents from *Vocabulaire d'Internet* in our study, we must point out that M. Bergeron and C. Kempa do acknowledge that, because certain equivalents were not found in their corpus, some entries were invented and are offered as mere suggestions: "[...] les créations viennent combler des vides ou exceptionnellement remplacer des termes jugés imprécis ou inexacts. Dans tous les cas, ces créations doivent être vues comme de simples propositions" (*Vocabulaire d'Internet*, p. 10).

other term is challenging it. Perhaps, the reason for rejecting the metaphorical term in French (i.e. *flamme*) could be explained by simply stating that the French language may, in some cases, be more sensitive to connotations than the English language.

3.2.3) Original Metaphor Replaced by Different Metaphor

Bergeron and Kempa, in *Vocabulaire d'Internet*, also suggest the term *coup de feu* as a suitable equivalent to the noun *flame*. Although we did not find in our corpus even one instance where an author selected *coup de feu* as an equivalent to *flame*, we did find Bergeron and Kempa's suggestion worthy of comment. By selecting *coup de feu* as an equivalent to *flame*, they are able to express an Internet reality using metaphorical language. Although the image is different, it is nonetheless effective in relating the meaning expressed in the English MBT. When the English user hears the term *flame*, the image of something negative and unpleasant is suggested. The image expressed by *coup de feu* in French also signals this negative aspect, but without the possible confusion associated with the term *flamme*. *Coup de feu*, therefore, seems at first glance to represent an appropriate equivalent to *flame*.

When a term starts to become productive,⁶² however, as in the case of the English noun *flame*, selecting an appropriate equivalent in the target language is further complicated.

⁶² A term is said to be productive when it is used as a basis for other lexical creations within a language. In MBT creation, the image reflected in, for example, a newly created noun would be extended in order to create a verb, a compound word, etc. as in the case of *Gopher* being the catalyst for the creation of *to tunnel* and *Gopher hole*.

Flame has now been extended in many ways to include the following: *to flame* (i.e. 'the action of sending flames'), *flame war* (i.e. 'a vitriolic exchange of flames'), *flame bait* (i.e. 'a posting that will produce flames'). The complications associated with the productivity of certain MBTs, such as *flame* for example, will be explored in section 4.2.6.

3.2.4) *Generic Source Language Image Replaced by More Specific Image in Target Language*

Sometimes, when confronted with a concept that is expressed by a generic term in the source language, the only way to transfer the term effectively is to employ a more specific image in the target language. For instance, the expression *to cruise the Internet* is often used to refer to browsing the different sites that are available on the network. The problem lies in the fact that the Internet has been described using two distinct metaphors: a highway system or an ocean. The MBT *to cruise* is general enough to be effectively used with both images. On the other hand, French uses two different MBTs, depending on the metaphor that is selected. For instance, the term *naviguer* is chosen when the Internet is referred to as an ocean: "La première caractéristique du Gopher est de permettre à l'utilisateur de naviguer sur les grands courants d'Internet sans trop de difficultés."⁶³ On the other hand, *rouler* is preferred when the image of the highway is discussed: "À l'heure où les politiques examinent les principes des autoroutes de l'information, les industriels se demandent comment rouler sur

⁶³ *Internet* (Sophier), p. 93.

l'Internet."⁶⁴ Clearly, in order to select an appropriate equivalent to *to cruise*, careful consideration of the image evoked by the English MBT and of the idiosyncrasies of the target language must be taken.

To browse is another example of an Internet term whose metaphorical element was replaced by a more specific image in the target language. In English, the action of browsing suggests that the user is merely exploring the Internet with no true premeditated purpose. French authors have adopted as an equivalent to *to browse* the verb *fureter*: "Les gens qui veulent fureter en français dans Internet peuvent se procurer le *Sextant* pour 50\$."⁶⁵ The term *fureter*, however, suggests a somewhat different and more specific image than that expressed by the English term. *Fureter* tends to imply that the user is searching with the sole intent of finding something that is hidden or secret. *Fureter* is therefore often selected as an equivalent for the verbs *to pry* or *to rummage through*. However, one could state that, although *fureter* may present a slightly different image than that of *to browse*, a more exact equivalent may not truly be found as the French language does not seem to have a preexistent term that would completely coincide with the more general image expressed in the English term.

⁶⁴ "Internet pionnier sur l'autoroute." *Informatiques Magazine*, p. 47.

⁶⁵ "Alis Technologies enseigne à Internet à accepter le français." *Les Affaires*, p. 42.

3.2.5) *English Term Retained*

The impact of the Internet on the English language has been far more profound than the impact to date on French, where a wide body of Internet terminology has yet to be established. Currently, French authors who are confronted with a concept that has yet to have a standardized term in French often choose to simply retain the English term. In our French corpus, for example, the authors often rendered *postmaster* by retaining the English term:

"Souvent, le "*postmaster*" sur votre site (ou celui qui est habitué à répondre aux questions sur le courrier électronique) a acquis un savoir qui l'aidera à vous guider dans votre recherche."⁶⁶

The English term *spamming* was also kept in the French articles when the concept was discussed: "Un cas célèbre de *spamming* s'est produit en avril 1994."⁶⁷ Note the use of quotation marks and italics in these examples. We have found that these are in fact commonly, but not always, used by authors to show that the term is still considered to be foreign.

We also observed that when an author uses an English term, he or she sometimes feels compelled to explain to the French audience, who might have a limited understanding of English, the concept designated by the term. For example, the sentence "Cependant, à la différence du Web, Gopherspace (c'est le nom que l'on donne à l'ensemble des serveurs Gopher) est basé uniquement sur de menus de textes, alors que le Web mélange les textes et

⁶⁶ *Internet* (Condat), p. 45.

⁶⁷ *Le guide Internet Québec Science*, p. 65.

les graphiques"⁶⁸ was found in our corpus. By adding some type of explanation to the foreign term, the author is ensuring that the French reader will understand the true meaning of the English MBT. Sometimes, in an attempt to clarify the meaning of the foreign term, authors provide a possible equivalent to the English MBT that does not have a widely accepted equivalent. *Snail mail*, for instance, was rendered in a French publication as follows: "C'est [courrier électronique] aussi l'utilisation la plus efficace si on la compare au courrier papier qu'on appelle sur l'Internet le *snail mail* (le courrier «à la vitesse de l'escargot»)." ⁶⁹ The presence of quotation marks in this example again stresses the authors' uneasiness with their equivalent to *snail mail*.

3.2.6) Multiple Equivalents

Multiple equivalents are another byproduct of unestablished terminologies. In fact, we have discovered that many English Internet terms have several equivalents in the French language. The term *cyberspace* is a good example. Sometimes the English term is retained: "Mais le financement du réseau n'est qu'une partie du coût global de la structure sociale qu'est le «cyberspace»."⁷⁰ Other times there is an attempt to create a term in French. For instance, both *cyber-espace* and *cyberespace* were found: "Internet: perdu dans le cyber-espace"⁷¹ and "Aujourd'hui, même les particuliers peuvent se souscrire un abonnement qui leur donne les

⁶⁸ *Le World Wide Web avec Netscape*, p. 158.

⁶⁹ *Internet au bout des doigts*, p. 15.

⁷⁰ *L'Internet professionnel*, p. 318.

⁷¹ "Voyage sur l'autoroute électronique." *Québec Science*, p. 11.

moyens de se lancer sur les routes électroniques du cyberspace."⁷² Even the term *espace cyber* was found in our corpus: "Un espace cyber réalisé en partenariat avec le serveur et fournisseur d'accès Internet ImagiNet permettra aux visiteurs de se connecter gratuitement à l'Internet."⁷³ The most frequent rendering, however, was *espace cybernétique*, by authors from both France and Quebec: "Un peu comme les astronautes explorent l'espace, l'internaute explore un espace cybernétique (*cyberspace*) appelé Internet."⁷⁴

Other Internet terms are also afflicted with this lack of consensus. The following is a list of MBTs that were found to have multiple equivalents:

<i>information highway</i>	e.g. <i>autoroute de l'information, autoroute électronique, autoroute électronique de l'information</i>
<i>smiley</i>	e.g. <i>sourire, souriant, smile, binette, smiley</i>
<i>search engine</i>	e.g. <i>moteur de recherche, outil de recherche, engin de recherche</i>
<i>bookmark</i>	e.g. <i>marque-pages, signet, bookmark</i>
<i>ecash</i>	e.g. <i>monnaie virtuelle, monnaie électronique, e-cash</i>
<i>home page</i>	e.g. <i>page d'accueil, page de bienvenue, "home page"</i>
<i>Gopherspace</i>	e.g. <i>espace Gopher, Gopherspace, Gopherspace</i>
<i>firewall</i>	e.g. <i>coupe-feu, mur anti-feu, "firewall"</i>

⁷² *Clés de contact pour Internet*, p. 35.

⁷³ "@ en net." @ *Internet reporter*, September, 1995, p. 6.

⁷⁴ *Internet: Guide de survie de l'internaute*, p. 15.

As the domain of the Internet becomes more established in French, its terminology will no doubt become more standardized and the use of multiple equivalents less frequent.

3.2.7) *Non-metaphorical Modifier Added to Metaphor*

Sometimes the metaphor expressed in the simple MBT in English seems not to be sufficient when converting the term into French. Consequently, French authors often feel obliged to add a non-metaphorical modifier to show that the simple MBT is in fact metaphorically based and refers to an Internet concept. After reviewing our Internet corpus, we have noted that the addition of non-metaphorical modifiers seems to be more prevalent with French Internet terms compared to their English counterparts. The non-metaphorical modifier *électronique*, for example, is widely used in French to further accentuate simple MBTs. For instance, in English texts the term *address* is today only occasionally referred to as *electronic address*, whereas the term is very often represented this way in French documents: "Pourtant, il est plus facile d'obtenir l'adresse électronique de quelqu'un en la lui demandant; en outre, même si vous arrivez à trouver une adresse électronique de cette manière, rien ne vous garantit que la personne utilise régulièrement celle-là, ni même qu'elle est exacte."⁷⁵ With the addition of *électronique*, the user knows instantly that the author is not talking about a house address but a new form of address that is electronic. *Électronique* is also very often added to many other French Internet terms in order to create such terms as

⁷⁵ *Internet* (Condat), p. 32.

signature électronique, boîte aux lettres électronique, message électronique, babillard électronique, etc.

The widespread trend in French to add non-metaphorical modifiers to the French equivalents of terms that no longer require non-metaphorical modifiers in English is no doubt symptomatic of the newness of the Internet language in French. As the average French user becomes more knowledgeable about and comfortable with the Internet, such modifiers as *électronique* will perhaps also prove to be as unnecessary as they are in English. Furthermore the tendency, prevalent in English today, to shorten the names of Internet concepts (e.g. *email* = *electronic mail*) may also become popular with French Internet terms as more French users surf the Internet waves. We have already seen evidence of this in the French term *inforoute* (= short for *autoroute de l'information*), which is the equivalent for *I-way* (= short for *information highway*) in English: "À compter du mois de mai, les internautes francophones pourront également avoir accès à une boîte à outils qui présentera les principaux logiciels permettant de circuler en français sur l'inforoute."⁷⁶ The term *courrier électronique* was also, although very rarely, found to be shortened as in the following example: " [...] - un bulletin hebdomadaire diffusé par courrier électronique (le «courrier-é», que les Américains nomment e-mail, allez savoir pourquoi...)." ⁷⁷

⁷⁶ *Nouveau serveur pour la francophonie internationale*, p. 2.

⁷⁷ "Le Québec résiste encore et toujours..." *Planète Internet*, November-December 1995, p. 22.

3.2.8) *Avoidance of Term*

After searching in the original French Internet documents in our corpus, there were still several French equivalents to popular English metaphor-based Internet terms that we did not encounter. Equivalents to such terms as *Gopher hole*, *Infobahn*, *trolling*, *flame bait*, *to burrow* and *to tunnel* (terms which were repeated in a great many English documents) were non-existent in our French articles. It seems that French authors simply chose to avoid referring to these concepts when discussing the Internet. We shall explore the possible reasons for such avoidance in section 4.2.

As we have mentioned, we were not able to find equivalents for the above English MBTs in any of our original French documents. Although the goal of our research was not to focus on translated texts, we did find an equivalent for a derivative of *to tunnel* in a translated document that is worthy of comment. Confronted with the title "Tunneling Through the Internet: Gopher,"⁷⁸ the translator chose for *tunneling* the equivalent "galerie": "Dans les galeries d'Internet : Gopher."⁷⁹ This equivalent, at first glance, seems to represent a commendable translation when referring to the Internet concept expressed by *tunneling* (which we defined in section 2.2). In French, the non-metaphorical term *galerie* is defined as "Petit chemin souterrain creusé par divers animaux (rongeurs, insectivores)."⁸⁰ Therefore, using

⁷⁸ *The Whole Internet Catalog & User's Guide*, p. 189.

⁷⁹ *Le monde Internet : guide & ressources*, p. 243.

⁸⁰ *Le nouveau petit Robert : dictionnaire alphabétique et analogique de la langue française*, p. 993.

galerie metaphorically is true to the image that is expressed by the MBT *tunneling*. Perhaps with time this equivalent will be adopted by French authors to express this Internet concept in their writing. The problem, however, is that the image expressed in the French equivalent (i.e. *galerie*) will fail to have a powerful impact upon the French reader who does not understand the analogy expressed by the foreign term *Gopher* (i.e. an animal and its tunnels). This complication will be further explored in section 4.2.6.

3.2.9) *Comparison Between Our Framework and that of Peter Newmark*

While our framework was created specifically with MBTs in mind, it has much in common with the procedures for translating metaphors that Newmark outlines in *Approaches to Translation*.⁸¹ Although Newmark's methodology was created for translating metaphors in general, for the most part it still seems to apply to the transfer of English metaphor-based Internet terms. As we have seen in section 3.1, Newmark suggests seven procedures for translating metaphors:

- 1) Reproducing the same image in the target language
- 2) Replacing the image in the source language with a standard target language image
- 3) Translating metaphor by simile
- 4) Translating metaphor by simile plus sense
- 5) Converting metaphor to sense

⁸¹ *Approaches to Translation*, p. 84-96.

6) Deleting metaphor

7) Transferring the same metaphor into the target language combined with sense

Only two of Newmark's procedures (TRANSLATING METAPHOR BY SIMILE and TRANSLATING METAPHOR BY SIMILE PLUS SENSE) do not resemble the strategies we illustrated in our framework. With regard to the other procedures, we were able to match them quite closely to the strategies we discovered for transferring English metaphor-based Internet terms. Following is an illustration, using specific examples, of the similarities between our framework and Newmark's methodology.

- **Reproducing the Same Image in the Target Language**

This procedure consists of reproducing the image in the source language by selecting the same image in the target language. For instance, *he is playing cat and mouse* would become in French *il joue au chat et à la souris*. Our LITERAL EQUIVALENT (METAPHOR RETAINED) category also involves retaining the same image with a similar sense, as in the example of *host* becoming *hôte* in French.

- **Replacing the Image in the Source Language with a Standard Target Language Image**

This method involves choosing an image other than that which was used in the source language. For instance, the standard image that is employed when referring to someone who adores reading (i.e. *book worm*) would become *rat de bibliothèque* in French. Our category GENERIC SL IMAGE REPLACED BY MORE SPECIFIC IMAGE IN TL was associated with this

method because it also involves selecting an image that would be standard in the target language, as in the case of the verb *to cruise* becoming, according to the context, either *naviguer* or *rouler* in French. We would also equate our category ORIGINAL METAPHOR REPLACED BY DIFFERENT METAPHOR with Newmark's REPLACING THE IMAGE IN THE SL WITH A STANDARD TL IMAGE, because the end result consists in selecting a different image. Our category is somewhat different, however, as the image selected may not necessarily be a standard target language image, as in the case of *coup de feu* having been chosen as an equivalent to the noun *flame*.

- **Converting Metaphor to Sense**

Under this procedure, the underlying meaning expressed in the source text is extracted in order to transfer only the meaning into the target text. For instance, *she has an hourglass figure* would be translated as *elle a une jolie silhouette*. Newmark's method resembles our EXPLANATORY EQUIVALENT (METAPHOR DROPPED) category. In our research, for example, we found that the English term *flame* was transferred into French as *discussion envenimée*, a term which, while it conveys the underlying meaning, does not retain the metaphorical element.

- **Deleting Metaphor**

According to Newmark, this procedure simply consists of abandoning the metaphor in the target text. In our category AVOIDANCE OF TERM, French authors not knowing what to call certain Internet concepts (e.g. *trolling*) simply chose to avoid them. The result is the

same for both procedures: absence of a metaphorical image that is used in the source language.

- **Transferring the Same Metaphor into the Target Language Combined with Sense**

While with this method the source text metaphor is retained in the target text, the metaphor is further clarified by the addition of its sense. For example, *She is my candle* would be transferred as *She is my candle. She lights up my soul and provides me with direction*. This procedure resembles our category NON-METAPHORICAL MODIFIER ADDED TO METAPHOR, since both methods involve retaining the metaphor and adding an element of explanation. This is the case when *électronique* is added to French terms in order to reinforce that the term in question (e.g. *babillard*) must be taken in its new metaphorical sense as opposed to its literal meaning.

While many of our categories, as we have seen, resemble Newmark's outlined methodology, two procedures we developed in our framework (ENGLISH TERM RETAINED and MULTIPLE EQUIVALENTS) do not correspond to any of Newmark's categories. The similarities between the two outlined frameworks, however, are notable considering the difference in the type of metaphorical expressions to be transferred (i.e. general metaphorical language versus MBTs).

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

4.1 ASPECTS THAT SIMPLIFY THE TRANSLATION OF METAPHOR-BASED INTERNET TERMS

In our research, certain English MBTs seemed not to present serious difficulties of transferability into French. The French equivalents to such terms as *anchor*, *traffic* and *host* were in fact created quite easily, without forfeiting the metaphorical component. Authors were quick to adopt the proposed equivalents (i.e. *ancree*, *trafic* and *hôte*) as full-fledged French terms and to use them freely in their texts. Following are the two major reasons for such rapid and widespread acceptance of certain MBTs.

4.1.1) *Literal Equivalent Exists in Target Language*

The transfer of a metaphor-based Internet term is simplified when a literal equivalent already exists in the target language for the non-metaphorical counterpart. In English, for instance, the non-metaphorical term *host*, meaning 'a person who receives another as a guest', has a non-metaphorical literal equivalent that is already established in the French language (i.e. *hôte*). Through the use of analogy, the term *host* is today also an MBT that means 'a computer system that receives other computers as guests'. Since the metaphorical meaning pertaining to the Internet has been added to the English term *host*, it often becomes logical

and simpler, as in the case of the French equivalent *hôte*, to do the same in the target language. The use of this method, as we will discuss in section 4.1.2, requires that the chosen literal equivalent reflects the same underlying image for the target culture as the original MBT reflects for the source culture. The same logic can also be applied to complex MBTs. The only difference is the added factor of transferring the non-metaphorical modifier, a process that is often made simple when the non-metaphorical modifier also exists in the target language, as in the case of *electronic mail* becoming *courrier électronique*.

Furthermore, the fact that a term can be productive, which was touched upon in section 3.2.3, does not usually present a problem when a literal equivalent in the target language already exists. For example, the term *traffic* is widely used in English to designate the total number of users conducting searches on the Internet at any one time. By extending this MBT, another metaphorical term was created: *traffic jam*. Since the French language equivalent to *traffic* is *trafic*, it seems only natural and logical that as an extension to this image the literal equivalent to *traffic jam* (i.e. *embouteillage*) would also be retained.

4.1.2) *Same Reality Widely Accepted and Similarly Perceived in Target Culture*

In order to be effective, a metaphorical element that exists in an English MBT, when transferred into the target language, must represent a reality that is also widely accepted and similarly perceived by the target audience. When the source culture and the target culture overlap, as in the case of English and French, there is a greater possibility of shared views

and experiences. This explains why many English MBTs are easily transferred into the French language. The French literal equivalent to *mailbox*, for example, is *boîte aux lettres*. The analogy between a real mailbox and a metaphorically conceptualized mailbox is based on the function (i.e. both hold mail). Because the reality of mailboxes is as familiar to Anglophones as to Francophones, the shared function of the two concepts expressed by the term *mailbox* would be similarly perceived by both audiences. Therefore, using *boîte aux lettres* as an equivalent would convey in French the same general intended underlying meaning that exists in the metaphorical term in English.

The importance of taking into consideration the aspect of shared realities must therefore always be considered. What if the term *Dragon key*, for instance, existed in English to designate a function key that a user must not use? Because the image of a dragon is associated in the West with something maleficent, both an Anglophone and a Francophone would likely understand, through analogy, that the designated key should be avoided because it signifies 'danger'. If the English MBT were transferred directly into Chinese, however, the image of the dragon would be misunderstood because this creature is not similarly perceived in the East. The Chinese associate the dragon with positiveness and beneficence. Another image would therefore have to be chosen.

4.2 ASPECTS THAT COMPLICATE THE TRANSLATION OF METAPHOR- BASED INTERNET TERMS

While many of the English MBTs that we have studied did not seem to pose significant translation problems, others were not so easily rendered into French. Some terms, as we have seen, were even simply avoided. There are many explanations as to why certain MBTs are difficult to render into French, as summarized below.

4.2.1) *Connotation*

The connotation associated with a lexical item can often pose a problem when transferring an MBT into another language. What is suggested by a lexical item in addition to its basic meaning (i.e. connotation) often depends on the culture and the language to which the term belongs. For example, the word *elephant* in English connotes 'great memory capabilities'. This is not the case, however, for the Russian language, which does not associate such qualities with the elephant.⁸² The connotation of a term must therefore be carefully considered. This is especially true when MBTs are involved, because their power is particularly dependent upon their analogy component.

Snail mail is a good example of a metaphor-based Internet term that involves a connotative element. Certain characteristics are associated with *snail* in English: sliminess,

⁸² *Approaches to Translation*, p. 89.

unpleasantness, dirtiness, etc. The fact that these mollusks are very slow moving, however, probably is their most defining trait for an Anglophone. After all, the expression *to move at a snail's pace* is well established in the English language. Choosing the modifier *snail* to create a term designating the conventional postal service is therefore very effective. Because the conventional postal service cannot compete with electronic mail in terms of speed, the service is now more notorious than ever for its relative slowness. In fact, even before the advent of email, complaints about the inefficiency of the regular mail service were quite common. By adding *snail* to *mail*, a powerful and vivid image is created as a result of the connotation associated with the small animal.

While the term *snail mail* was very prevalent in our English texts, we did not encounter many instances in our corpus where a French equivalent to *snail mail* was proposed. In fact, when the concept was discussed, the equivalent *courrier postal* was most often selected, thereby discarding the powerful image conveyed by the English term. When other equivalents were selected, the authors did not seem to be entirely at ease with their decision. The presence of quotation marks in this next example, for instance, reflects the author's possible uneasiness with the proposed equivalent: "Elle [messagerie électronique] apporte cependant une rapidité, une flexibilité bien supérieure au 'snail mail', le "courrier escargot."⁸³ We did note that Bergeron and Kempa, in *Vocabulaire d'Internet*, offered the terms *courrier escargot* and *escargotique*, among others, as possible suggestions for

⁸³ *Internet et ses outils*, p. 1.

equivalents to *snail mail*. Perhaps the reason for the reluctance on the part of authors in our corpus to truly accept these suggestions is that the strong negative connotation associated with *snail* in English is not exactly the same in French. While it is true that *escargot* is often associated with slowness (although the expression *à pas de tortue* is most often preferred), it also holds another connotation that is just as powerful in French. When a French speaker hears the term *escargot*, the image of a wonderful and expensive dish usually comes to mind. It could be argued therefore that the term *courrier escargot* could in fact confuse certain French speakers, who might associate the term with the positive characteristics that the delicacy evokes (i.e. sophistication, richness, etc.). The intended negativity that is expressed in *snail* in English could therefore be transformed into a positive connotation when *escargot* is used in French. One could imagine the possibility of selecting another term in French that also connotes slowness (e.g. *tortue*), to create the MBT *courrier tortue* for instance. The added problem in this example, however, is that the connotative aspect in *snail* is not the only reason why *snail* was chosen. This leads us to the next aspect that often complicates the translation of MBTs: phonology.

4.2.2) Phonology

Sound often plays an important role in term formation. In fact, the mere phonetic form of a term can be crucial to its acceptance. *Snail* in *snail mail*, for instance, emerged in English not only because of the connotation the term evokes, but also because of its form. Both *snail* and *mail* end in the same three letters. This creates a rhyme that is pleasant to the

ear and therefore catchy and fun to pronounce. Authors could have referred to *snail mail* simply by the term *regular mail* or *paper mail*. Yet not only the powerful metaphorical element would be missing, but the rhyme also. Furthermore, both *snail* and *mail* contain one syllable, which creates a good balance of sound. If authors had selected a polysyllabic term, for example, that also ends in *ail*, the desired effect may not have been as successfully achieved as with the choice of *snail*. Clearly, the passage of this term into French would represent a twofold problem. How does one retain connotation as well as rhyme in such an example? The answer is not one that is easily discovered. This probably explains why a truly appropriate equivalent has not yet been established in the French language.

4.2.3) *Uncomfortableness with Concept in Target Culture*

Language does not stand alone; it is influenced by the culture it represents. Since every culture has its own habits and views of the world, this diversity is expressed in the respective languages. The language spoken by Argentinean gauchos, for example, has at least two hundred different words⁸⁴ to qualify the nuances of a horse's coat, a precision that is vital to the gaucho's economy. In English, because distinguishing between certain aspects of a horse's coat is not vital to everyday living for Anglophones, there has been no need to categorize the concept as exhaustively. By logical extension, there has been no need to develop as many names for the different aspects of a horse's coat. While it is true that

⁸⁴ *Les problèmes théoriques de la traduction*, p. 74.

English and French reflect many similar cultural realities, they still retain their own individual idiosyncrasies.

When the metaphorical element of an MBT in the source language does not reflect a reality that is part of the widely entrenched history of the target culture, a problem may arise. For instance, the MBT *spamming* may be representative of such an occurrence. *Spamming*, a term which is used frequently in English Internet language, may be defined as 'the act of sending much uninvited computerized data via email in order to aggressively overwhelm the recipient'. *Spamming* is believed to have originated from the term *Spam*. *Spam* refers to a brand of inexpensive canned meat, made popular with Americans during World War II,⁸⁵ that is consumed today either due to economic necessity or through the development of an acquired taste. The linkage between the MBT *spamming* and the literal *Spam* has to do with the undesirable nature of either, particularly in large quantities.

Many Anglophones have had reenforced the notion that Spam in large quantities is unwelcome through the term's exposure in a popular form of British humour known as Monty Python (see footnote # 38). It is believed that this exposure contributed greatly to the selection and eventual adoption in the Internet language of the term *spamming*. As a consequence, Anglophones seem able to easily accept the linkage between the Internet

⁸⁵ During World War II, the US military included Spam in their rations, as it did not require refrigeration. When beef was rationed for the general public, Americans discovered Spam and included it in their diets as a substitute.

concept *spamming* and the literal term *Spam*. In fact, other derivative forms, such as *spam* used as a verb and *a* as a noun, are widely used by authors in English to refer to Internet concepts. Francophones, by contrast, who may not be as familiar with the Spam product and who would not have been exposed to Monty Python humour, may not be as readily able to understand the linkage between the two concepts (i.e. *spamming* and *Spam*) and consequently may feel uncomfortable expressing the Internet concept in French. This lack of exposure may in fact explain why French authors in our corpus, not knowing how to refer to the concept of *spamming* in French, have exhibited a clear preference for avoiding the concept in their texts.

4.2.4) *Uncomfortableness with Literal Equivalent in Target Language*

The transfer of an MBT is often complicated when the literal equivalent in the target language causes uncomfortableness on the part of the target audience. For example, the literal equivalent to *to surf* (i.e. the French term *surfer*) was frequently avoided by the Quebec authors in our corpus. The verb *to surf* in English is widely used to describe exploring the Internet. The equivalents *promener*, *voyager*, *parcourir*, etc. were found to be most often selected instead. The loss of the true metaphorical image and analogy in these equivalents is evident. As previously mentioned, however, certain Quebec authors in our research have used the equivalent *surfer* in order to retain the metaphorical element of the English term. Although the term *surfer* exists in French, these Quebec authors chose to add quotation marks to the French term to reflect their uncomfortableness (or at least the anticipated uncomfortableness on the part of the reader) with their designation of the concept.

In contrast, it is interesting to note that the authors from France in our corpus did not seem to have the same reservations as their Quebec counterparts. The former were, in fact, entirely at ease with using the term *surfer*, and this without ever resorting to using any special punctuation: "Le dernier jour verra des personnalités de l'Internet surfer sur le Net dans les sites de prédilection, le tout retransmis au public sur grand écran."⁸⁶

A possible reason for the avoidance of *surfer* by Quebec authors in our corpus may be that the French term *surfer* resembles its English equivalent too closely. Although *surfer* was adopted as a French word in 1964,⁸⁷ there still seems to be some reticence as to its use in Internet language in Quebec. Such a reticence on the part of Quebec authors may not be surprising as standard Quebec French typically exhibits a distinct aversion to words borrowed from English. In Quebec, for instance, the French term *week-end* is often replaced by the regionalism *fin de semaine* so as to avoid a term that appears English, even though such a replacement is often frowned upon.⁸⁸ French from France, on the other hand, is often thought to be quite comfortable with adopting English terms into its terminology (although the Académie Française has tried to ban the use of certain English terms in French). For example, *week-end* is widely used in all regions of France, whereas *fin de semaine* is not.

⁸⁶ "Le carnaval des grands voiliers sur Internet." *Planète Internet*, September-October 1995, p. 10.

⁸⁷ *Le nouveau petit Robert : dictionnaire alphabétique et analogique de la langue française*, p. 2179.

⁸⁸ "Une semaine civile commence le dimanche, non le lundi, et dire *fin de semaine* au lieu de *week-end*, c'est fausser le sens du mot *semaine*." "Le français ne permet pas d'inclure le mot *fin* une idée de début, de commencement. Il faut dire *partir en week-end*, non *partir en* [FIN DE SEMAINE]." *Dictionnaire des difficultés de la langue française au Canada*, p. 523.

The tendency to avoid certain English-looking terms in Quebec French is substantiated in G. Mareschal's doctoral thesis, published in 1989, entitled *Étude typologique et comparative de l'anglicisation et des anglicismes dans quatre aires de la francophonie*. After analyzing a corpus comprised of literature from Quebec and Europe (including France, Belgium and Switzerland) the author concludes that, where anglicisms are concerned, Quebec Francophones seem to have a certain aversion to English-looking terms, whereas French-speaking Europe does not present such an aversion. Mareschal states:

Le classement des anglicismes recueillis dans les différentes aires linguistiques selon la typologie proposée ci-dessus révèle d'emblée une différence très nette entre le Québec et l'Europe francophone quant à la forme des mots empruntés. Alors que le bloc européen privilégie les signifiants anglais, et donc à l'importation de formes anglaises, le Québec, lui, préfère les signifiants français et favorise donc la substitution de formes.⁸⁹

If one were to apply Mareschal's findings to metaphor-based Internet terms, one could therefore speculate that, because *surfer* resembles the English term *to surf* so closely, Quebec authors preferred to avoid it in their writing.

Another example of an English term that the Quebec authors in our corpus seemed to be uncomfortable with was *netsurfer*, which stems from the *surf* image used in English. Quebec authors simply chose to avoid the concept of a *netsurfer*. In contrast, the concept was found in a large number of texts written by authors from France: "Enfin beaucoup de netsurfeuses auraient eu un jour ou l'autre à affronter les remarques salaces des

⁸⁹ *Étude typologique et comparative de l'anglicisation et des anglicismes dans quatre aires de la francophonie*, p. 234.

technodragueurs du Net."⁹⁰ In this example, one can clearly see that the author is so at ease with the term *netsurfeur* that even the feminine form was used (i.e. *netsurfeuse*). Although, as this example illustrates, the spelling of the French term is not entirely the same as that of the English term (*netsurfer* vs *netsurfeur*), Quebec authors still seemed to find difficulty with *netsurfeur* as we found no occurrences of such usage in our corpus. It is interesting to note that Bergeron and Kempa, in *Vocabulaire d'Internet*, a Quebec publication, condemn the use of *netsurfeur* because they consider it to be a calque of the corresponding English expression: "*Netsurfeur* est un calque de l'anglais."⁹¹ The closest example relating to the English term *netsurfer* that was found in a Quebec work was the use of the term *net-surfing*. It is highly probable, however, that the author was in fact using the English term, as he or she felt compelled to italicize *net-surfing* as well as explain it: "Un bel endroit pour faire du *net-surfing*, c'est-à-dire zapper d'un groupe de discussion à un autre, passer allégrement de sci.research à alt.food, de rec.arts.music à alt.conspiracy.jfk."⁹²

4.2.5) Awkwardness of Literal Translation

The awkwardness of a literal translation can sometimes create difficulty when selecting an appropriate equivalent for an English MBT. One example of such a problem in

⁹⁰ "Cyber-nanas: une espèce en voie d'extension." @ *Internet Reporter*, July-August 1995, p. 16.

⁹¹ *Vocabulaire d'Internet*, entry no. 268, p. 38.

⁹² "Internet." *L'Actualité*, p. 53.

the Internet language occurred with the term *home page*, which designates 'a World Wide Web hypermedia document that represents the information available at a specific user's site'. The problem becomes apparent when the full MBT *home* is to be transferred into French. The literal equivalents for *home* in French are usually *maison*, *fait à la maison*, *à domicile*, etc. For reasons explained below, none seem to appropriately express the metaphorical meaning found in *home*. Some literal equivalents may even cause a change of viewpoint.

A home is a place where a person or a family resides and where personal belongings are kept and displayed. By looking at someone's home, an outsider can therefore gain basic information about the residents. In the term *home page*, one can quite easily understand how the image conveyed by *home* also helps to provide understanding about the function of the page, which is to display the files and directories that are available at a user's site and to provide information about the site in question. The image evoked by the English MBT is not truly developed, however, when literal equivalents are used in French. The equivalent *page maison*, for instance, would give the impression that the page is homemade, as in the case of *pain maison*, and nothing more. Selecting a literal equivalent to *home* would, therefore, not only be ineffective in explaining the concept, but may even confuse a French audience as to the true meaning of the metaphorical term *page*. Authors in the texts we studied preferred to refer to the concept of *home page* as *page d'accueil* or *page de bienvenue*, thus emphasizing another function of the page (i.e. to welcome users): "Chaque fois qu'on navigue sur Internet, c'est-à-dire qu'on se connecte d'un site *Web* à un autre, on accède à la page d'accueil («home

page») de chacun”⁹³ and “La page de bienvenue de Netscape vous offre des liens avec des sites étonnants et variés.”⁹⁴ The full non-metaphorical modifiers used in French (i.e. *d'accueil* and *de bienvenue*), while they put forth another meaning than that conveyed by *home* in English, do seem to increase the understanding of the French audience as to the function of *page*. The selection of *d'accueil* and *de bienvenue*, while not retaining the metaphorical aspect present in *home*, does however ensure that the French speaker can also benefit from additional information.

4.2.6) Extendedness

A particular translation complication occurs when new MBTs are created as an extension to an existing MBT. The English *flame*, for example, has been extended to create such terms as *flame war* and *flame bait*. One author we studied, A. Dufour, chose to refer to the term *flame war* as *guerre épistolaire* in French: “L'utilisateur qui transgresse les règles peut déclencher des guerres épistolaires (*flames wars*).”⁹⁵ The non-metaphorical term *war* is therefore retained while the metaphorical modifier *flame* is lost in favour of a term that explains the type of war that is in question. Some authors, many of which would probably accept the French term *flamme* as an equivalent to *flame*, simply chose to refer to *flame war* as *guerre des flammes*, thus retaining the image expressed in the English term: “Certains

⁹³ *Internet : Introduction au Réseau* p. 26.

⁹⁴ *Le guide Internet Québec Science*, p. 69.

⁹⁵ *Internet* (Dufour), p. 69.

utilisateurs ont mis des semaines avant de pouvoir se libérer d'une *flame war* - une guerre des flammes."⁹⁶ Bergeron and Kempa, however, because they suggest using a different image for *flame* (i.e. *coup de feu*), recommend the term *fusillade* as an equivalent to *flame war*. This term seems to be an acceptable equivalent as it may be viewed as a logical extension of the suggestion Bergeron and Kempa offer for the term *coup de feu*. As for the more complicated term *flame bait*, which stems from *flame* and the concept of *trolling* (fishing terminology), Bergeron and Kempa offered no suggestion for a possible equivalent. In fact, no equivalent to *flame bait* in French was ever found in our corpus.

The terms *to tunnel* and *to burrow*, which are associated with the term *Gopher*, also posed some difficulty to French authors. In the Internet language, *Gopher* is the name of a search tool that finds information on the Internet and presents it in a hierarchical menu. This MBT was created using the analogy with the small squirrel-like animal well known for relentlessly digging holes and underground tunnels to find food. Both *Gopher* the search tool, and *gopher* the animal, are therefore renowned for making extensive searches to find what they are looking for. With time, the action of advancing deeper into the layers of a Gopher menu to find a specific Internet resource was ultimately expressed by the verbs *to burrow* or *to tunnel*. It seems only natural and logical as language progresses in the Internet domain for existing metaphors to extend into other related terms. Another example is the term *Gopher hole*: "The result of a keyword search is a series of Gopher holes that contain that keyword

⁹⁶ *Clés de contact pour Internet*, p. 65.

and to which you can immediately burrow."⁹⁷ The non-metaphorical meaning of *gopher hole* is an entrance to a system of tunnels developed by a gopher (small rodent) for the purpose of traveling to other sites in order to find food. In Internet language, the term *Gopher hole*, which was created through analogy, is defined as 'a site that can be viewed as an entrance to a system of files and directories generated by Gopher (search tool) for the purpose of retrieving information'.

The transfer of *to tunnel*, *to burrow* and *Gopher hole* into the French language presents obvious difficulties. *Gopher* in English is a proper name; therefore it was not changed in French. The fact that the term *Gopher* remains unchanged complicates the transfer of the above MBTs. To a French speaker who does not know English, *Gopher* does not spark the image of the small squirrel-like animal (which Francophones often refer to as *spermophile*) as it does for Anglophones. In short, the term *Gopher* does not convey any image in French because it does not derive from a French non-metaphorical term. Therefore, how does one effectively transfer *to burrow*, *to tunnel* and *Gopher hole*, while still maintaining the extended image created by the term *Gopher*, when the term does not hold such a meaning in the target language? The solution we have observed in our corpus involved simple avoidance of such concepts in the French authors' writing.

⁹⁷ "Network navigation." *DEC Professional*, p. 34.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

5.1 SUMMARY

The objectives of this thesis were 1) to analyze how English metaphor-based terms (MBTs) in the Internet domain are formed and 2) to investigate how such terms are being rendered into French. Regarding the second objective, the thesis also explored the specific aspects that simplify and complicate the rendering of English metaphor-based Internet terms into French.

In chapter 1, we provided an overview of metaphor and of the procedures used in term formation. Metaphors, we learned, clearly play a significant role in language. They enable concepts and messages to be conveyed in an effective way that draws upon the experience of our senses, not merely our vocabularies. For centuries, metaphor has fascinated theorists in many domains of study. However, the solution to the problem of precisely defining this element of language remains somewhat elusive. In fact, there is still disagreement among theorists today regarding what precisely constitutes a metaphor, although there is a broad consensus as to the function of metaphorical structures. Metaphors, few will argue, have both an aesthetic and a cognitive function. These are brought forth through a deliberate combination of form and content. Metaphors are thereby endowed with the capability of providing a unique type of meaning as they are succinct and unintimidating, relating to the

experience base of the reader/listener. For these reasons, we discovered that metaphors are widely used in term formation and are especially prolific in language about the Internet and other computer-related concepts.

While searching for a framework that we could use to classify MBTs, we examined two widely accepted existing frameworks for describing metaphor in general language: one that was based on the degree of originality and one that was concerned with the scope of the metaphor. As these frameworks did not seem to be adequate for the terms we found in our corpus, we decided to explore frameworks for describing term formation processes, in particular that of J. Sager. In chapter 2, drawing on some of the insights gained from our review of the literature, we devised a framework for classifying English MBTs in the Internet domain, a framework that is based on the structure of the terms. Based on our analysis of an English corpus, we classified the Internet terms into two main categories, which we called *simple* and *complex*. We further subdivided our complex MBT category according to whether the base or modifier of the term was metaphorical or non-metaphorical, and whether the base or modifier was presented in an abridged or full form. As we also found complex MBTs that had been created by using two separate metaphors, we added another subcategory to our complex category that we called *MBTs juxtaposed*.

Since metaphors are such powerful and complex elements of language, they represent special challenges to the translator. In chapter 3, we focused on the translation of metaphor. We began by examining existing strategies for translating metaphors in general language, as

no such strategies have been devised for MBTs specifically. Methodologies for translating metaphors in general language are as varied as the frameworks for classifying and analyzing them. One particularly useful and straightforward approach we found was developed by P. Newmark. This approach involves a seven-step checklist for the translator. Newmark's procedures range from retaining the same message to completely eliminating the metaphor in the target language. After reviewing our corpus, and drawing in part on Newmark's proposals, we devised our own framework for categorizing strategies for rendering English metaphor-based Internet terms into French. The principal strategies we found were: literal equivalent (metaphor retained), explanatory equivalent (metaphor dropped), original metaphor replaced by different metaphor, generic source language image replaced by more specific image in target language, English term retained, multiple equivalents, modifier added to metaphor and finally, avoidance of term.

In chapter 4, we presented an analysis of the findings in Chapter 3. We attempted to explain why certain terms are easily transferred from English into French, while others are approached much more cautiously by French authors. Based on our corpus evidence, we discovered two main aspects that seemed to simplify the transfer of metaphor-based Internet terms. Firstly, we discussed the strong tendency on the part of French authors to use a literal equivalent when an appropriate one (i.e. one with the same metaphorical potential) exists in the target language. Secondly, the authors in our corpus had no difficulty in proposing a French equivalent when the same reality is widely accepted and similarly perceived in the target language. However, as the English terms were not all found to have been easily

transferred, we discovered and briefly discussed six aspects that seemed to complicate the translation of certain English MBTs: connotation, phonology, uncomfortableness with the concept in the target culture, uncomfortableness with the literal equivalent in the target language, awkwardness of literal translation and finally, extendedness.

5.2 AREAS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The two main contributions of this thesis, the classification system for English MBTs and the strategies for rendering English metaphor-based Internet terms into French, can be further elaborated upon in order to increase the understanding of metaphor-based Internet terms. Following are several specific related areas that are worthy of further study:

Classification System

- As more English Internet terms are developed in the future, a more extensive search for metaphor-based Internet terms will be necessary in order to further expand upon the classification system illustrated in this thesis. Since we designed the classification system with the potential addition of other types of metaphor-based Internet terms in mind, we believe that a more extensive study, as well as being beneficial to the understanding of MBTs, would prove to be simplified by our previous efforts.

- It would be beneficial to explore the possibility of applying our classification system for English MBTs to French. The similarities and differences in procedures for metaphor-based Internet term formation in English and in French could be thereby uncovered and clarified.
- It would be interesting to explore whether or not our classification system, which was designed specifically for English Internet terms, could be applied to other areas of computing, and to totally different areas of specialized knowledge.

Strategies for Rendering English Metaphor-based Internet Terms into French

- As the French Internet language evolves further, it would be of interest to determine whether our findings regarding the transferability of English metaphor-based Internet terms remain consistent or whether other strategies could be added to our framework.
- Further study to determine whether the strategies that were presented in this thesis would be the same for other domains (both computer-related and non computer-related) may also prove to be beneficial.
- As more French Internet texts become available, it would be interesting to undertake a statistical study, using electronic corpora, to determine the precise frequency with which the various strategies presented in this thesis are used by authors.

- When the body of French Internet terminology is more fully developed, studies to determine why one term is eventually preferred over another and to determine which forms of MBTs are the most popular may lead to a better understanding of metaphor.
- A more in depth study on the differences between Quebec French and French from France, as it pertains to the Internet language, may also be beneficial.

Other

- While this was not the focus of this thesis, it would be interesting to search for instances where an Internet concept that was expressed in English using only literal language has emerged through translation into French as an MBT. As we anticipate that such occurrences may be found in the future, it would be of interest to monitor this phenomenon to determine its possible cause.

As the Internet becomes an increasingly important medium of communication, we can expect to encounter greater intensity regarding the development and use of MBTs. Since the Net will likely be the originating source for a large body of contemporary MBTs, serious students of metaphor in general should endeavour to understand how English metaphor-based Internet terms are formed and how such terms are being rendered into French. Furthermore,

as the interest in and the use of the Internet on the part of Francophones intensifies, it is reasonable to expect that more French Internet terms will surface with unprecedented frequency. Future research in this field, therefore, will unquestionably be beneficial to gaining a true understanding of English and French metaphor-based Internet terms.

APPENDIX

The following is a list of other English metaphor-based Internet terms that were found in our corpus. We have presented the English terms according to the category into which we have placed them. We have also included the French equivalent (or equivalents) for the English MBT when an equivalent was found in our corpus.

ENGLISH METAPHOR-BASED TERM

FRENCH EQUIVALENT

1) Simple Metaphor-based Terms

<i>backbone</i>	<i>épine dorsale / backbone</i>
<i>bounce</i>	
<i>bridge</i>	<i>pont</i>
<i>envelope</i>	<i>enveloppe</i>
<i>footpath</i>	
<i>frame</i>	
<i>gateway</i>	<i>passerelle</i>
<i>Lycos</i>	<i>Lycos</i>
<i>Martian</i>	
<i>on-ramp</i>	
<i>outpost</i>	
<i>packets</i>	<i>paquets / paquets d'information</i>
<i>phone book</i>	
<i>pipeline</i>	
<i>pit stop</i>	
<i>router</i>	<i>routeur</i>
<i>shopping cart</i>	
<i>shouting</i>	
<i>thread</i>	<i>fil de discussion</i>
<i>under construction</i>	<i>en construction</i>
<i>Web (the)</i>	<i>Web (le)</i>

worm
Yellow Pages

Ver
pages jaunes

2) Complex Metaphor-based Terms

2.1) Non-metaphorical Modifier Added to Metaphorical Base

2.1.1) Full Non-metaphorical Modifier Added to Full Metaphorical Base

data highway
electronic magazine
electronic mail room
electronic mall
electronic newsstand
electronic post office
electronic storefront
virtual mall
virtual postcard
virtual store
World Wide Web (the)

magazine électronique

«centre commercial électronique»
kiosque à revues électronique

centre commercial virtuel
carte postale virtuelle

World Wide Web (le)

2.1.2) Abridged Non-metaphorical Modifier Added to Full Metaphorical Base

cybercash
cybersex
cybershowroom

cybersexe

2.1.2) Abridged Non-metaphorical Modifier Added to Abridged Metaphorical Base

cybernaut
WWW (the)

cybernaute
WWW (le)

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