RELIABLE METAPHOR ANALYSIS IN ORGANIZATIONAL RESEARCH

Towards a dual, dynamic approach

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Abstract:

This paper is on metaphor in organizational research. First, we present a framework, proposed by Cornelissen et al. (2008), for organizing literature on metaphor and organization research. We argue that metaphors play a crucial role in conceptualizing and abstract concepts like 'knowledge' and 'organization'. Second, we focus on metaphor from a linguistic point of view. We discuss the opportunities that arise from using the latest linguistic insights in identifying metaphor in discourse. Then, we come up with a research approach, based on the framework and the insights on metaphor from the field of linguistics. We propose that research on metaphor in organizational management should be based on a dual, dynamic approach, both projecting (deductive) and elicitating (inductive) metaphor.

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0. Introduction[2]

Within the field of linguistics, probably no phenomenon has been as well researched as metaphor (Steen 2007). Research shows that for language users, it is inevitable to use metaphor when dealing with abstract concepts. Metaphors therefore play a key role in the construction of reality (Lakoff & Johnson 1999). This makes language a way to examine experiences of people within organizations, because it influences the way individuals constitute reality. Metaphor is therefore more than just a figure of style; it is central to human discourse and understanding. The use of metaphor is part of the out-of-wareness schemata that influence organizational behaviour. It's essential in understanding behaviour of individual knowledge workers and organizational learning.

However, there is much debate about the way metaphor exactly works. Is metaphor simply a matter of comparison, does it highlight the analogies in the source and target domain of the metaphor, or do metaphors produce new meaning that goes beyond similarity and projection? This is a difficult area of research because much is unknown about the way language patterns, like metaphor, are related to the cognition of reality (Steen 2007). What does metaphor say about experiences of individuals? Turning it round: what impact does metaphor and other patterns of language have on the way these individuals experience reality? On which metaphorical models are conceptualizations of abstract concepts like 'knowledge' and 'organization' based?

In order to understand abstract concepts, it is of fundamental importance to know how metaphor works. Different scholars within the field of organizational research have acknowledged this (e.g. Morgan 1980; Weick 1989; Cornelissen 2005; Putman & Boys 2006). On the other hand, research on metaphor and organizational studies can be valuable for scholars in the field of linguistics. As Steen (in press a: 1) puts it: "The study of metaphor in knowledge management constitutes a fascinating opportunity for general students of metaphor to put their theories and research to the practical test".

Therefore this paper is on metaphor in organizational research. The aim of our paper is twofold. First, we present a framework, proposed by Cornelissen et al. (2008), for organizing literature on metaphor and organization research. Second, we address the latest developments in the field of linguistics on metaphor. Our goal is to come up with an outline of a research approach in the third section of this paper, based on the framework and the insights on metaphor from the field of linguistics. This approach is based on a dual, dynamic approach to metaphor.

### 1. Metaphor in organizational studies

In recent years, the importance of language within organizational research has grown. The centrality of language has been emphasized in theoretical and empirical work (e.g. Basten 2001; Cornelissen 2005, 2006a, Morgan 2006, Putnam and Boys 2006). Cornelissen et al. (2008) present an overview of previous work that explores the use of metaphors in organizational research. Their goal is to uncover differences

in focus and methodological approaches in prior work on metaphor in organizational research. Our research approach will be based on the framework Cornelissen et al. (2008) present for metaphor in organizational research. This framework will be summarized in the following section.

Cornelissen et al. (2008) organize literature on metaphor in organizational research along two key dimensions. The first one is analytic form ('de-contextual' versus 'contextual' approaches), the second one analytic focus ('projecting' metaphors versus 'elicitating' metaphors-in-use). This results in the following coordinate system (figure 1), consisting of four quadrants:

Projection

I   II

**De-contextual** —————————————— **Contextual**

III   IV

Elicitation
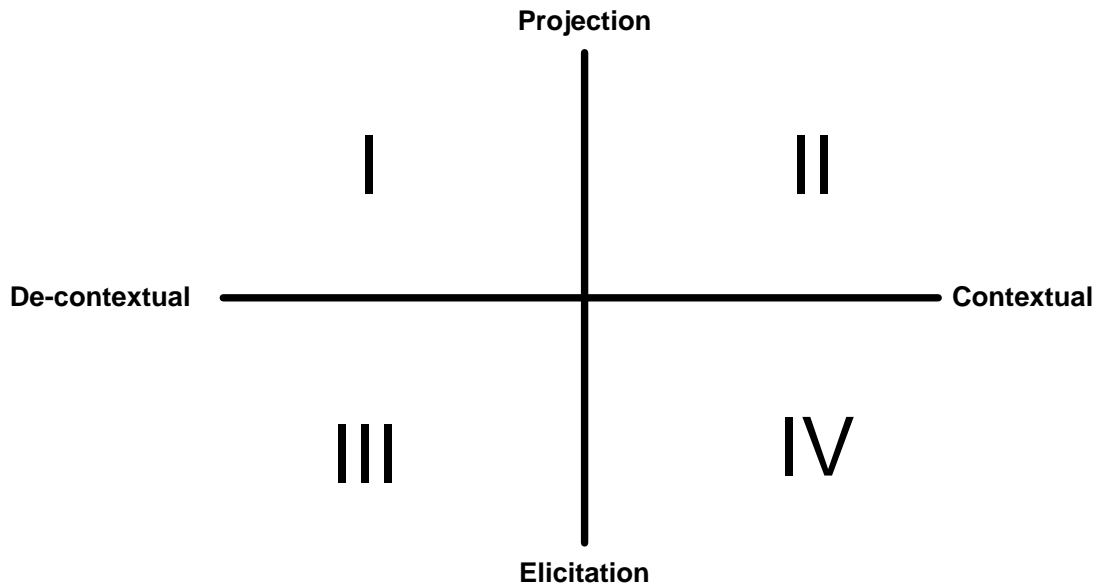
Figure 1: The focus and form of metaphor-based organization Research (based on Cornelissen et al. 2008).

The first dimension (the X-axis) refers to the form or methodological approach to the study of metaphor. The basic distinction here is between cognitive or cognitive linguistic approaches to metaphor on the one hand and discursive or discourse analysis approaches on the other. Cognitive linguistic approaches (e.g. Lakoff and Johnson 1980, 1999) tend to 'de-contextualize' metaphors in that the focus is on identifying metaphors that are used across language users and contexts of language use. This 'de-contextual' approach stresses that metaphors function as organizing principles of thought and experience. On the other hand, discursive approaches tend to 'contextualize' metaphors. Its emphasis is on identifying locally-specific uses and meanings of metaphors and their interaction with other elements of discourse. Within discourse theory and discourse analysis, metaphors are seen as devices or units of language that are deployed within particular conversations and contexts. Discourse analysts (e.g. Cameron 2003, 2007a, 2007b) argue that metaphors are actively employed to manage specific social interaction between language users. Uses or meanings of a single metaphor may differ across speakers and contexts of language use and arise on the occasion.

The second dimension (the Y-axis) refers to the focus or basic orientation in metaphor-based research. The basic distinction here is whether metaphors are 'imposed' or 'projected' onto an organization reality

or whether such metaphors naturally 'surface' and can be 'elicited' by organizational researchers. Projecting metaphors is a deductive approach to metaphor in organizational research and elicitating an inductive approach. The 'deductive' use of metaphor or their 'projection' onto organizational reality is central to work on organizational theory (OT). The purpose in much work on OT is to identify abstract constructs, which describe and explain lived experiences within organizations. The inductive approach to metaphor corresponds mainly with the area of organizational behaviour (OB) in which processes of meaning making are identified around metaphors at the level of people's language use. The 'elicitation' approach involves identifying metaphors in the context of people's language use and examining their uses, meanings and impacts.

Cornelissen et al. (2008) acknowledge that given the size and diversity of the literature on metaphors in organizational research, a comprehensive review is beyond the scope of their article. They project a total of 10 different authors on their coordinate system (figure 2). Nine of those originate from the field of organizational research. They mention only one (cognitive) linguist, namely Lakoff (1993).
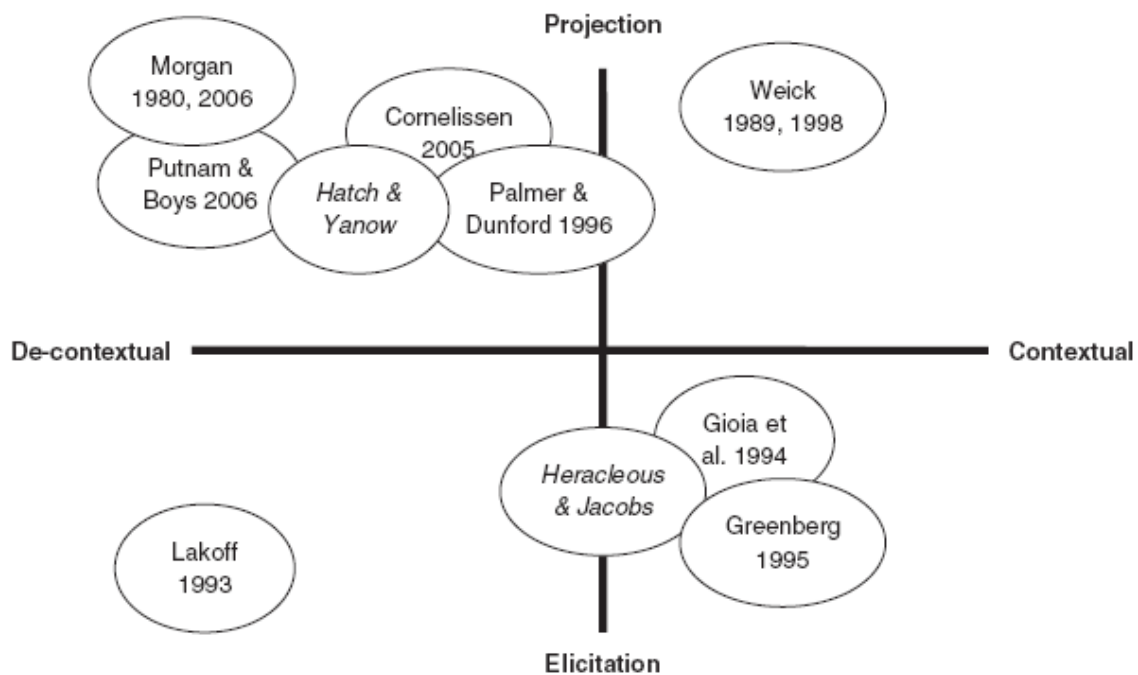
Figure 2: Literatures on metaphor in organizational research (Cornelissen et al. 2008:11).

In the second section of this paper, we deal with several additional researchers from the field of linguistics. Now, we briefly discuss the work of one author of importance, which is missing in the framework: Daan Andriessen. His work is on metaphor and knowledge management. In his 2006 article, Andriessen shows that in knowledge management literature at least 22 different metaphors for knowledge are used. He argues that the choice of metaphors for knowledge has great influence about the way we think about knowledge management, determine what we diagnose as problems in organizations, and develop as solutions. In his work, he shows that metaphors structure and give

meaning to abstract concepts like 'intellectual capital' and 'social capital' (Andriessen and Gubbins 2009). Metaphors hide and highlight certain characteristics of the concept of knowledge (Andriessen and Van der Boom 2008). The strategy Andriessen (2006) follows, involves eliciting metaphor from several texts on knowledge management. In figure 2, we placed Andriessen (2006) in the fourth quadrant of the framework, because he chooses a contextual approach on metaphor, based on eliciting metaphor from a context.

Cornelissen et al. (2008) continue their article by making three recommendations regarding the identification and analysis of metaphors. First, they stress the importance of clear criteria for metaphor identification. Second, sensitivity to the context of language use or to the context of the medium in which a metaphor is located. Third, the importance of using reliability analysis for grouping of metaphors and for attributing significance and meanings to a metaphor. However, methodological issues remain with analysing metaphor in organizational reality. Identifying metaphor is the topic of the next section.

2. Metaphor identification

How to identify metaphor? This section deals with this question. First, we focus on the identification of metaphor on word level. We present a metaphor identification process (MIP) designed by the Pragglejaz group (2007) and elaborated by Steen et al. (2010). Second, we discuss the construction of more general patterns in language: conceptual metaphors. How do those patterns arise? And how can we determine which conceptual metaphors are underlying a specific discourse? Third, we focus on cognitive models. Those are groups of interrelated conceptual metaphors that characterize aspects of a given target domain. When discussing metaphor identification from a linguistic point of view, we use the framework presented in the previous section to position the work of the different authors in the field of metaphor identification along the two key dimensions (contextual vs. de-contextual and projection vs. elicitation) proposed by Cornelissen et al. (2008).

2.1 Identifying metaphorical used words

Determining whether a linguist unit should be considered a metaphor is a matter of considerable debate (for a general overview, see Steen 2007, in press b). Different researchers have different findings on metaphor frequency. Consider the next four examples:

Author(s)	Frequency in metaphor
Steen et al. (2010)	13,6% of all lexical units in corpus can be classified as related to metaphor
Gibbs (1994)	5,7 metaphors per minute of speech
Whalen et al. (2009)	3,69 nonliteral statements in past-oriented e-mails (average of 284,90 words) and 2.11 in future-oriented e-mails (average of 221,02 words);
Andriessen (2006)	At least 95 percent of all statements about either knowledge or intellectual capital are based on metaphors

Table 1: findings on frequency in metaphor by different authors.

What can we conclude based on these figures? First of all, the numbers show that metaphor is not mere ornament; it is common, frequent and pervasive. In dealing with abstract concepts like 'knowledge' and

'intellectual capital', metaphor almost seems inevitable (Andriessen 2006). Metaphor is therefore more than just a figure of style; it is central to human discourse and understanding. However, researchers don't agree with each other about when words are metaphorically used. This is mainly due to the fact that they use their own methods for elicitating metaphor. This is a major challenge in the field of linguistics. Often, metaphors are intuited by experts. Although intuition can be a valuable tool, it is not a method, nor can it be taught or learned (Cienki 2008). This individual interpretation of metaphor is inherently subjective because it is based on one's own experience and expectations; scholars differ in their intuitions about what counts as a metaphorical expression. "Variability in intuitions, and lack of precision about what counts as a metaphor, makes it quite difficult to compare different empirical analyses" (Pragglejaz 2007:2). Scholars often don't provide the criteria they used for their investigations on metaphor. The lack of agreed criteria complicates any evaluation on theoretical claims, for instance within the field of organizational studies.

Therefore a clear procedure for identifying metaphors is needed. In recent years, different methods have been proposed (e.g. Charteris-black 2004). In this paper, we focus on the method designed by the Pragglejaz group (2007). Pragglejaz is a group of metaphor scholars, from a variety of academic disciplines, who came together to create a method for identifying metaphorically used words in spoken and written language. This resulted in the Metaphor Identification Process (MIP). The procedure aims to establish, for each lexical unit in a stretch of discourse, whether its use in the particular context can be described as metaphorical. The metaphor identification process looks like this (Pragglejaz Group 2007: 3):

> 1. Read the entire text/discourse to establish a general understanding of the meaning.
>
> 2. Determine the lexical units in the text/discourse
>
> 3a. For each lexical unit in the text, establish its meaning in context, i.e. how it applies to an entity, relation or attribute in the situation evoked by the text (contextual meaning). Take into account what comes before and after the lexical unit.
>
> 3b. For each lexical unit, determine if it has a more basic contemporary meaning in other contexts than the one in the given context. For our purposes, basic meanings tend to be:
>
> - more concrete; what they evoke is easier to imagine, see, hear, feel, smell, and taste;
>
> - related to bodily action;
>
> - more precise (as opposed to vague);
>
> - historically older.
>
> Basic meanings are not necessarily the most frequent meanings of the lexical unit.
>
> 3c. If the lexical unit has a more basic current/contemporary meaning in other contexts than the given context, decide whether the contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning but can be understood in comparison with it.
>
> 4. If yes, mark the lexical unit as metaphorical.

The rationale behind this procedure is as follows. Metaphorical meaning arises out of a contrast between the contextual meaning of a lexical unit and its more basic meaning. The latter is absent from the actual context but observable in others. If one can contrast the contextual meaning with the basic meaning and a mapping can be made between the two, a lexical unit can be identified as metaphorical. The use of dictionaries is therefore crucial in determining the basic meaning of a lexical unit. The MIP has been slightly adjusted and elaborated by a group of scholars of the VU University Amsterdam (Steen et al. 2010). MIPVU contains minor adjustments, but in essence the procedure remains the same. One difference is that they don't consider the history of a lexical unit when deciding whether it is used metaphorically. MIP and MIPVU have been successfully put to the test in different studies (e.g. Steen et al. 2010)

To conclude, MIP provides an explicit, reliable and reproducible (although time-consuming) method for identifying metaphor in language. Its position in the framework presented in section 1 is quadrant 4, because MIP is a method for elicitating metaphor from specific contexts. In the following section, we focus on the next step in elicitating metaphorical patterns in language, namely conceptual metaphor.

2.2 Conceptual metaphor

Conceptual metaphor refers to the understanding of one idea, or conceptual domain, in terms of another. An abstract notion like 'organization' for instance is understood in terms of a different domain, one that is more closely related to our physical, embodied experiences, like for instance machines (Morgan 1980). Conceptual metaphors are often used to create and understand theories and models. One of the major claims in Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) is that metaphor is a fundamentally cognitive phenomenon, as opposed to a purely linguist one (Lakoff & Johnson 1980, 1999). Many expressions in everyday language are believed to reflect deep-seated conceptual patterns within our conceptual system.

A major issue is how to identify conceptual metaphors. Very often, scholars intuit them, without using a formal procedure. Again, although the intuition of experts is a valuable tool, it is in itself not a method. This is a point of fundamental criticism on Conceptual Metaphor Theory. Vervaeke & Kennedy (1996) argue that the delimitation of conceptual metaphors is not sufficiently constrained to allow for the precise identification of specific linguistic items as related to them. Ritchie (2003) argues that the criteria for deciding which conceptual domain is used are unclear. Other scholars (e.g. Glucksberg 2001) have questioned the need for postulating conceptual metaphors in the first place.

Many CMT studies have identified conceptual metaphors in different domains of our experience. However, CMT has not been overly concerned with methodology and many, if not most of the examples in CMT literature, were constructed. Cienki (2008) explains the historic reasons for this. CMT originated in an age which was dominated by generative grammar. "Since a major goal in that school is to describe the knowledge of linguistic structure that is below the level of conscious awareness, research in it relies on native speakers' intuitive judgements about whether constructed examples are grammatical or not in their language. Such examples are therefore untainted by the vagaries of actual language use, such as

memory restrictions, coughs, and interruptions. This practice was tacitly carried over into Conceptual Metaphor Theory" (Cienki 2008: 242). Therefore cognitive linguists like Lakoff (1993) are placed in quadrant 3 of the framework, because they tend to 'de-contextualize' metaphor.

Sandra & Rice (1995) criticize this de-contextualizing of metaphor by asking the question whose mind (cognitive) linguists mirror when identifying conceptual metaphor, 'the linguist's or the language user's'. Cienki (2008) suggests an experiment in which groups of native, non-specialist speakers perform a pile sort task with metaphorical expressions. A preliminary analysis shows that several different models arise from non-specialists interpretations of metaphor. This is very important finding for research on metaphor in general. We suggest that both researchers and (non-specialist) language users identify and classify metaphorical used language.

Cameron (2007a, 2007b) acknowledges the existence of metaphorical patterns in language (which she calls systematic metaphors) but disagrees with Conceptual Metaphor Theory on the origins of these patterns. Being a discourse analyst, Cameron postulates that systematic metaphorical patterns are not a fundamentally cognitive phenomenon in the minds of individual discourse participants, but arise from the interaction between language users during the discourse. She does consider the possibility that metaphor may influence thought in some way and at some level. Her work is placed in quadrant 4 of the framework, because her approach is to elicitate metaphor from discourse (e.g. face-to-face conversation). Cameron (2007a: 125-129) uses her own procedure to identify what she calls systematic metaphors.

Steen (1999, 2009) proposes a five-step procedure to identify and delimit conceptual metaphors from a context. The rationale between this procedure is this: "[i]f metaphor in discourse can be explained by means of an underlying cross-domain mapping in conceptual structure, then it should be possible to move from the linguistic forms in the text to the conceptual structures that capture their meaning in some ordered fashion" (Steen 2009: 199). However, identifying conceptual metaphor remains problematic. The approaches by Steen and Cameron are not yet widely accepted and validated, like the Metaphor Identification Process (MIP) we discussed in section 2.1 of this paper. In the next section, we focus on even larger constructions, namely cognitive models.
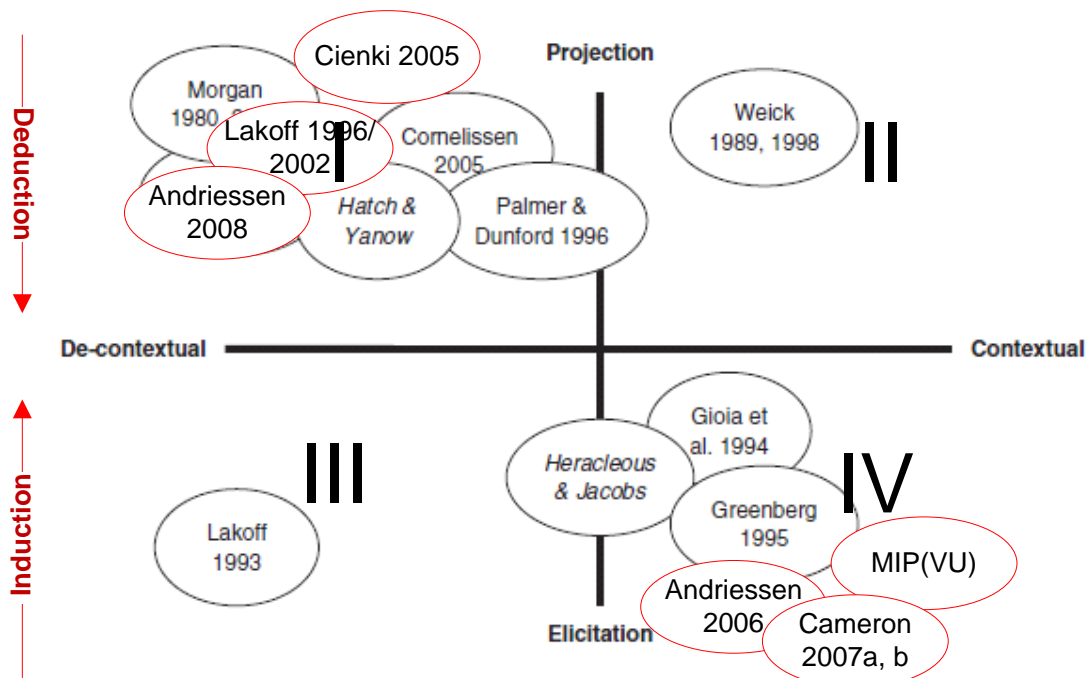
Figure 3: Literatures on metaphor in the field of linguistics and organizational studies

2.3 Cognitive models

Groups of conceptual metaphors can interrelate in order to characterize aspects of a given target domain. Those groups are called metaphorical models or (idealized) cognitive models (Lakoff 1987). Language users use idealized cognitive models to organize their knowledge. Cognitive models normally have a socially shared basis within a group of people. Steen (1994) and Gibbs (1999b) both stress that cognitive models should be viewed to as belonging to the 'supra-individual'. Individual language users may employ subsets of those metaphorical models.

In different fields of research, scholars have proposed cognitive models to account for human thought and behaviour. Johnson (1993) for instance argues that cognitive models play a crucial role in our understanding of morality. Lakoff (1996 [2002]) proposes two cognitive models for morality. One has a Strict Father (SF) family as its reference point; the other has a Nurturant Parent (NP) family as its reference point. The first one is associated with the right-wing, conservative worldview and the second one with the left-wing, liberal worldview. According to Lakoff, the resulting family-based moralities are linked to politics by a common NATIONS AS FAMILY metaphor. In the appendix of Lakoff 1996 [2002], the conceptual metaphors belonging to the different cognitive models are listed.

Within the field of organizational research, different cognitive models for abstract entities like 'organization' and 'knowledge' have been suggested. Andriessen (2008) for instance comes up with two general metaphors language users may use when dealing with the abstract concept of 'knowledge'. Those are a) KNOWLEDGE IS STUFF and b) KNOWLEDGE IS LOVE. Language users may organize their experiences

with the target domain KNOWLEDGE according to these cognitive models. Andriessen (2008) imposes those metaphor onto reality during a workshop with knowledge workers. Therefore, this work is placed in quadrant 1 of the framework, in contrast with Andriessen (2006), which we have discussed in section 1. That article was about elicitating metaphor from organizational contexts and therefore positioned in quadrant 4 of the framework.

Morgan (1980 [2006]) proposes 8 different metaphors or cognitive models for organizations, namely organizations as machines, organisms, brains, cultures, political systems, psychic prisons, flux and transformation, and instruments of domination. He argues that all theories of organization and management are based on these cognitive models. They lead us to see, understand and manage organizations in distinctive yet partial ways. Morgan's work is placed in quadrant 1 of the framework (figure 3) because his analytic focus is to impose and project metaphor on organizational reality. He 'de-contextualizes' those metaphors because his focus is on identifying metaphors that are used across language users and contexts of language use. The question remains how he can come up with cognitive models without elicitating metaphors from some kind of context. We address this question in the third section of this paper.

Identifying cognitive models is even more difficult than identifying conceptual metaphors. To the best of our knowledge, no formal procedures exist. Therefore cognitive models are delimited by researchers, using their own intuition. Lakoff (2002: 158) for instance warns with regard to his two cognitive models for morality that "no experimental paradigms of the complexity needed to test this hypothesis now exist". We can conclude that in general, cognitive models are intuited by scholars, and lack an systematic basis.

Another problem that complicates the elicitation and identification of cognitive models is the existence of so-called entailments. Those are expressions, which are a logical consequence of a conceptual metaphor or cognitive model. Cienki (2005) shows that many entailments are non-metaphoric expressions. He concludes that "[c]ognitive models may motivate reasoning in terms of sets of metaphors, but contrary to expectation, this reasoning may be manifested much more through non-metaphorical language than through verbal metaphoric expressions" (Cienki 2005: 304). This is a major challenge in identifying broader metaphorical systems like cognitive models. How to deal with language that on the one hand is not metaphorical used but that on the other hand is a logical consequence of a cognitive model? We discuss this issue briefly in section 3.2 of this paper.

To conclude, identifying metaphor is often a matter of intuition. The Metaphor Identification Procedure (section 2.1) provides a solid method for identifying metaphorically used words. However, identifying and delimiting conceptual metaphor (section 2.2) and cognitive models (section 2.3) is still mostly a matter of intuition. In the next section, we discuss how these conclusions influence research on metaphor in organizational studies.

3. Research approach

In the third section of our paper, we develop an approach, based on the framework proposed in section 1 and the insights on identifying metaphor in section 2 of this paper. First, we discuss a deductive approach for analyzing metaphor in organizational discourse. Second, we focus on an inductive approach to identifying metaphor. We show that both approaches have advantages and disadvantages. In the third part of this section, we argue that an approach to metaphor in organizational studies should be based on both ways of analyzing metaphor. We present a dual, dynamic approach, both projecting (deductive) and elicitating (inductive) metaphor.

3.1 Deductive approach

The majority of organizational metaphor researchers (e.g. Morgan 1980; Weick 1989; Putman & Boys 2006) choose a deductive or top-down approach to metaphor. Metaphors are being 'imposed' or 'projected' onto organization reality. In the framework proposed by Cornelissen et al. (2008), the deductive approach is represented by quadrant 1 and quadrant 2. Most literature based on deduction is situated in quadrant 1. Apparently, a deductive approach correlates with the 'de-contextualization' of metaphor. This seems intuitively correct, since 'making-up' metaphor is a mental task performed by researchers. However, the question remains how one can make up metaphors without first reviewing some sort of actual organizational context.

The main advantage of a deductive approach is that the cognitive models are determined in advance. Those cognitive models provide a starting point for analyzing (organizational) reality. The scholar can specifically look for certain metaphors within the discourse. Cognitive models can be projected onto the organizational reality and being used to intervene in organization behaviour (e.g. Weick 1989, Andriessen 2008).

The challenge is how one can determine the comprehensiveness of a cognitive model. Lakoff (1996 [2002]) for instance warns that the cognitive models he proposes for morality are not yet confirmed. "One would like to have confirmation of the proposed models from, for example, psycholinguistic tests and survey data. […] Survey research has not yet developed an adequate methodology to test for the presence of complex metaphorical cognitive models" (Lakoff 2002: 158). He observes that "[m]any models do not have the degree of confirmation that one would expect of more mature theories ". This also applies for many cognitive models suggested in organizational literature (e.g. Morgan 1980). Although well thought-out, they lack the reliability and validity of inductive, bottom-up approaches to metaphor. Cienki (2005) for instance acknowledges the difficulty in finding accurate cognitive models for morality. However, he emphasizes the explanatory power provided by the models suggested by Lakoff, and their comprehensiveness. So the deductive approach is valuable but needs to be supplemented by a bottom-up, inductive approach. In the next section, we take a closer look at inductive approaches to metaphor.

3.2 Inductive approach

An inductive or bottom-up approach to metaphor (e.g. Andriessen 2006, 2008) in organizational literature is less common than a deductive approach. In the framework proposed by Cornelissen et al. (2008), the inductive approach is represented by quadrant 3 and quadrant 4. Most literature based on induction is situated in quadrant 4. Apparently, an inductive approach correlates with the 'contextualization' of metaphor. This seems intuitively correct, since elicitating metaphor is often a process of determining which metaphors 'surface' from a specific context.

The main advantage of elicitating metaphor is the accuracy gained by exactly determining which words and phrases are metaphorical used. The Metaphor Identification Process (MIP) discussed in section 2, provides an explicit, reliable and reproducible method for identifying metaphor in language. This method has been successfully put through the test by different scholars (e.g. Steen et al. 2010). It provides a solid starting point for research on metaphor in general and will also be very valuable for research on metaphor in organizational research.

The main disadvantage of the MIP is that it is a time-consuming, labour-intensive procedure. Another problem arises with non-metaphorical entailments, a subject we have discussed in section 2.3 of this paper. Those expressions are excluded by the Metaphor Identification Process for being non-metaphorical, but they do support the existence of broader conceptual patterns like cognitive models. How to deal with language that does not surface from the context as being metaphorical? In order to do that, we have to know beforehand what larger linguistic patterns, like cognitive models and conceptual metaphors, we are looking for. We need a deductive approach to develop these cognitive models.

To conclude, an inductive approach to metaphor has a major advantage (accuracy), but cannot exist on its own. Organization researchers need to have some prior knowledge of what they are looking for in a context. Otherwise it will be difficult to identify the appropriate conceptual metaphors and cognitive models, despite the procedures that have been proposed for identifying these metaphors (e.g. Steen 1999, 2009).

3.3 Dual approach, both deductive and inductive

In the previous sections, we argued that both deductive and inductive approaches to metaphor in organizational research have advantages and disadvantages. Deductive approaches are often situated in quadrant 1 (projected, de-contextualized) of the framework and inductive approaches in quadrant 4 (elicitated, contextualized). The solution is to use both approaches in combination.

On the one hand, organizational researchers need to elicitate metaphor form a context in order to identify broader conceptual structures like cognitive models. To do so, organizational researchers need to have some kind of cognitive model from which to operate. Otherwise one cannot deal with non-metaphorical language like non-metaphorical entailments of cognitive models. However, in order to come up with cognitive models, researchers need to have some kind of starting point. 'Contextualized' procedures like the Metaphor Identification Process (MIP) provide such a starting point. Therefore we propose a dual, dynamic approach to metaphor, based on both projecting (deductive) and elicitating

(inductive) metaphor. The main advantage of a dual approach to metaphor is that we get the best of both worlds. On the one hand, we use the valuable intuition of scholars in the field of organizational research. Identifying cognitive models beforehand gives scholars the opportunity to specifically look for certain aspects within organizational reality. On the other hand, elicitating metaphor from a context provides useful insights in the metaphors used by specific language users. New and unexpected metaphors might 'surface' from the context, metaphors which are not intuited by the scholar.

It is important to notice that the strategy we propose is two-sided: research on metaphor in organizational studies should include both approaches at the same time. It is an iterative process. The added value of a dual approach is in combining the two strategies. This will lead to a better understanding of metaphor in organizational research. Figure 4 is a presentation of proposed dual dynamic approach.
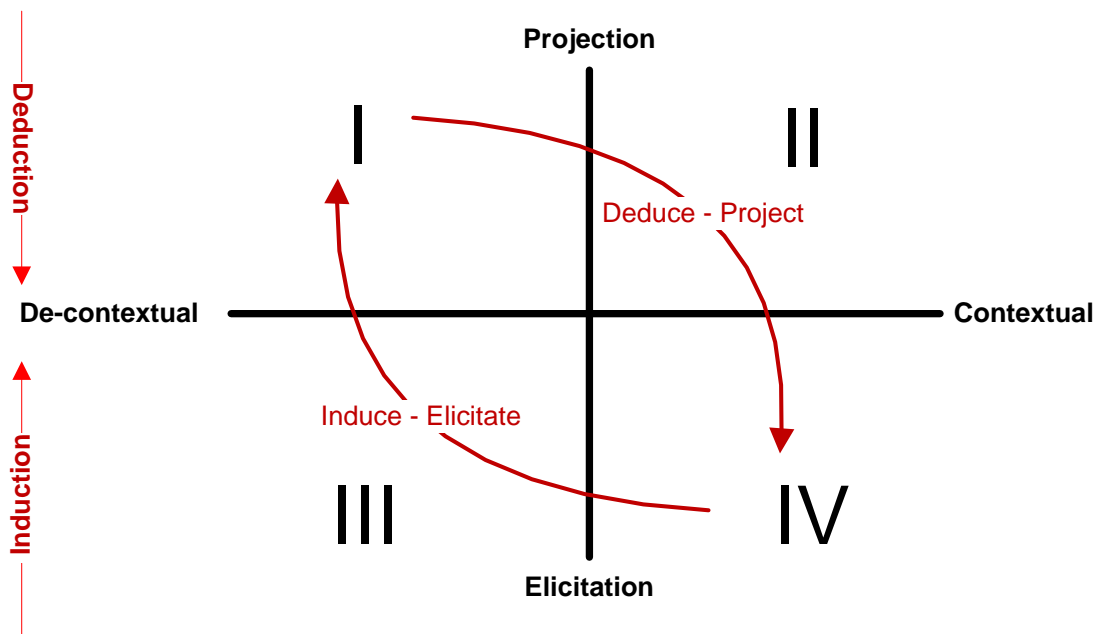
Figure 4: A dual, dynamic approach to metaphor.

One arrow runs from quadrant 4 (elicitation/ contextual) to quadrant 1 (projection/ de-contextual). This is the inductive strategy we described in section 3.2 of this paper. Metaphors are being elicitated from a context in order to construct larger patterns of language like conceptual metaphors (section 2.2) and cognitive models (section 2.3). The other arrow goes the other way around, from quadrant 1 to quadrant 4, and represents a deductive strategy to metaphor (section 3.1). Clusters of elicitated metaphors (cognitive models) are being projected on a specific context. The first arrow corresponds with Organizational Behaviour (OB), the second arrow with Organizational Theory (OT). This results is a dual, dynamic approach, based on both projecting (deductive) and elicitating (inductive) metaphor.

Our research approach is in line with Cienki (2008: 254), who concludes that "[g]iven the different potential offered by each of these approaches, it suggests that the application of multiple methods to

the study of metaphors in a given set of data, rather than using just anyone of them, could yield the richest results". It is also consistent with Cameron and Deignan (2003) who propose that one should first search a representative small corpus of text. Then one can perform a focused search of a larger corpus for the frequency and patterning of occurrence of the particular features found in the smaller corpus. Cornelissen et al (2008: 11) also acknowledge both the distinction and complementary of contextual and de-contextual approaches: "While these two approaches may not be contradictory, and can be combined as complementary approaches (e.g. Cornelissen 2006b; Oswick & Jones 2006), they do characterize a basic distinction in the study of metaphors".

4. Concluding remarks

Metaphor plays a crucial role in conceptualizing abstract concepts like 'knowledge' and 'organization'. We argued that metaphor is more than just a figure of style; it is central to human discourse and understanding (table 1). Our goal in this paper has been to formulate a research approach. First, we summarized the framework created by Cornelissen et al. (2008) for organizing literature on metaphor in organizational studies (figure 1 and 2). Second, we focused on metaphor from a linguistic point of view (figure 3). We discussed the opportunities that arise from using the latest linguistic insights in the field of organizational research. Then, we drew a research approach based on the insights we've obtained (figure 4). These are our recommendations regarding metaphor in organizational studies:

- Research should be based on a dual, dynamic approach, both projecting (deductive) and elicitating (inductive) metaphor (figure 4);
- Both researchers and (non-specialist) language users should identify and classify metaphorical used language;
- Researchers should make explicit their criteria for deciding which words are being used metaphorically;
- Researchers should make explicit their criteria for identifying larger conceptual patterns like conceptual metaphor en cognitive models;
- Researchers should use reliability analysis for grouping of metaphors and for attributing significance and meanings to metaphorically used words;
- And finally: researcher from the field of linguistics and the field of organizational studies should collaborate to yield maximum results.

We conclude that research on metaphor in organizational management should be based on a dual, dynamic approach, both projecting (deductive) and elicitating (inductive) metaphor. Future research on metaphor in organizational management can be based on this dual approach. This seems to be promising way to analyze metaphor in organizational research (Wittink fc.). To quote Steen (in press a: 8): "There is hence a large and exciting research agenda for the near future, in which knowledge management researchers can team up with metaphor researchers to produce useful new insights".

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