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Francesco Nacchia*

Department of Literary, Linguistic and Comparative Studies
University of Naples L'Orientale, Italy
fnacchia@unior.it

A METAPHOR IDENTIFICATION PROCEDURE FOR SPECIALIZED CORPORA (MIPSpeC): THE CASE OF PROMOTIONAL WINE-TASTING DISCOURSE

Abstract

The purpose of this work is to present a procedure for identifying metaphors in specialized texts, termed MIPSpeC. Building on established authoritative procedures (MIP and MIPVU), a nine-step procedure is proposed, enhanced by the inclusion of concept maps in Step 2 (conceptual exploration) and Step 9 (conceptual redefinition), and the introduction of specialized glossaries in Step 8 as a final validation filter, thereby ensuring both methodological rigor and replicability. The procedure was developed as part of a critical investigation of the metaphor WINE IS A HUMAN BEING in promotional wine tasting notes from UK-based wine sellers. Following the introduction of the notion of metaphor identification and upon outlining the two primary approaches – inductive and deductive – the MIP and MIPVU procedures are reviewed, alongside the main implementations of metaphor identification through *Wmatrix*. The proposed procedure is then presented step by step, followed by a demonstration of its application to the investigation of metaphor in specialized genres, with a focus on wine-tasting notes. Having an integrated procedure for specialized languages allows for more accurate identification of metaphorical expressions, with results that can be applied both in the field of Specialised Terminology as well as Critical Discourse Studies, or their intersection. The development of MIPSpeC forms part of a broader effort to advance the establishment of Corpus-Assisted Critical Specialised Discourse Studies (CACSDS).

Key words

specialized discourse, winespeak, terminological metaphor, WINE IS A HUMAN BEING, MIPSpeC.

* Corresponding address: Francesco Nacchia, University of Naples L'Orientale, Dipartimento di Studi Letterari, Linguistici e Comparati, Palazzo Santa Maria Porta Coeli, Via Duomo, 219, Stanza 123 - I Piano, 80138 – Napoli, Italia.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Over the years, metaphor[1] has been defined in different ways and has been studied using a variety of procedures. Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) definition of metaphor within Conceptual Metaphor Theory (henceforth CMT), which has influenced many, states that it means "understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 5) through the mapping of a source term's attributes onto a target term. The main innovation in *Metaphors we live by* (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980) resides in its consideration of metaphor as a true means by which the human mind conceptualizes reality rather than as a device "of the poetic imagination and the rhetorical flourish" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 3). However, one of the key arguments against the CMT is that since metaphors are viewed as "highly conventional static conceptual structures (the correspondences, or mappings, between a source and a target domain)" (Kövecses, 2010, pp. 719–720), it follows that any new linguistic expressions will also be very conventional. More importantly, it did not establish a clear procedure for the extraction of conceptual metaphors from linguistic data and instead primarily relied on intuitively constructed instances to support Lakoff and Johnson's assertions (Semino, 2008).

The difficulty in identifying metaphors and metaphorical expressions has led to the development of numerous approaches over the years. New prospects for analysis have emerged with the introduction of Corpus Linguistics tools, particularly through the manual exploration of concordances after manual or automatic semantic tagging (see next section). Nevertheless, the identification of metaphors within specialized texts has not received much scholarly attention despite the importance of metaphorical expressions within these specialized discourses, as they can take on the function of actual terminological expressions with standardized and shared meanings within the discourse community. Drawing from the author's expertise in the study of wine-tasting discourse (see Nacchia, 2019, 2023, 2024a, 2024b), it is suggested that supplementary steps, not typically considered in the identification of metaphorical expressions within non-specialised texts, could be incorporated into existing identification procedures due to the presence of metaphors that might have undergone *terminologisation*, "the process of metaphorical extension of a general-language notion to a more precise concept within a special-language domain" (Wright & Budin, 2001, p. 752).

With this objective in mind, the next section introduces the notion of metaphor identification and outlines its two primary approaches – inductive and deductive; then, MIP and MIPVU procedures are discussed, and the main implementations of

[1] In this article, 'metaphor' is defined as the conceptual link between a source domain and a target domain; 'metaphorical expression' as the linguistic realization of that metaphor; 'creative metaphorical expression' as an atypical linguistic realization of a metaphor; a 'conventional metaphorical expression' as a typical linguistic realization of a metaphor; and 'terminological metaphorical expression' as a linguistic realization of a metaphor that has been standardized in the specialized language.

metaphor identification through *Wmatrix* are examined. At this point, a 9-step procedure (MIPSpeC) designed for implementation in English for Specific Purposes (henceforth ESP) is broken down into its component steps, followed by a demonstration of how it might be used to investigate metaphor in the specialized genre of wine-tasting note (henceforth TN), which is briefly described in the preceding section. The primary goal is to provide a replicable procedure for other studies of metaphors in specialized languages that can be incorporated into broader methodologies and adjusted to diverse research questions, thus contributing to the development of Corpus-Assisted Critical Specialised Discourse Studies (CACSDS). This study is also consistent with the growing interest in the study of metaphor within specialised discourses, where research relies on domain-specific corpora to explore how metaphorical patterns function across genres and communicative settings (among others, see Navarro i Ferrando, 2021; Martin et al., 2024).

2. METAPHOR IDENTIFICATION AND WMATRIX

This section briefly introduces metaphor identification and describes metaphor identification procedures relying on *Wmatrix* as used in previous research.

Following Steen (2007) and Steen et al. (2010) there are two main methods for identifying metaphors: deductive (top-down) and inductive (bottom-up). Put simply, deductive reasoning involves going from the general to the specific, while inductive reasoning involves going from the specific to the general. The analyst uses the set of conceptual metaphors – "such as ARGUMENT IS WAR, LOVE IS A JOURNEY, HAPPY IS UP, and so on" (Steen, 2011, p. 45) – that are assumed to exist in the deductive technique to find relevant metaphorical expressions (see Koller, 2004). The inductive approach, instead, entails advancing from the set of metaphorical expressions that are assigned to a set of conceptual metaphors whose existence has not been presupposed (see Cameron, 2003). The identification of metaphors primarily relies on two procedures: the Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP) (Pragglejaz Group, 2007) and the Metaphor Identification Procedure Vrije Universiteit (MIPVU) (Steen et al., 2019), a development of the former. Both MIP and MIPVU are widely used in metaphor studies in a variety of languages (see Nacey et al., 2019) and have contributed to a better understanding of the role of metaphor in language and communication. Plainly put, in both procedures, the identification process involves comparing basic and contextual meaning. The main difference between MIP and MIPVU is the distinction between MRW (indirect metaphor-related word), MRW direct, MRW implicit, and MFlag thanks to which other cases that might serve as a source of metaphorical expressions, in addition to cross-domain mappings expressed indirectly via referential incongruity, are considered. Another novelty is the application of labels like WIDLII (When in doubt, leave it in) (Steen et al., 2019) – a tag that researchers can apply to MRWs to indicate dubious or unclear cases – and DFMA (Discarded for Metaphor Analysis) (Steen et al., 2019)

– to mark lexical units in an unfinished utterance that have the potential to be metaphors. Also, the use of a dictionary is encouraged. MIPVU makes extensive use of the Macmillan Dictionary [2] due to its corpus-based nature, while additional references can be made to dictionaries such as the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* and the *Oxford English Dictionary*.

Although not specifically designed for metaphor research, *Wmatrix* has been successfully used for metaphor identification (see Semino, 2017). *Wmatrix* is a software tool for corpus analysis offering a web interface to the Constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-tagging System (CLAWS) and the English UCREL [3] Semantic Analysis System (USAS). CLAWS is a Part-of-speech (POS) tagger and "the first form of annotation to be developed by UCREL at Lancaster".[4] The latest release of the software named CLAWS4 was used "to POS tag c.100 million words of the British National Corpus (BNC)".[5] The latest tagset – the C7 tagset – has over 160 tags and is claimed to have achieved a 96-97% accuracy. USAS is a semantic tagger scheme that "groups together word senses that are related by virtue of their being connected at some level of generality with the same mental concept" (Archer et al., 2002, p. 1) by assigning a semantic tag to specific words and multiword expressions (MWEs). By drawing on Tom McArthur's Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English (McArthur, 1981), it was originally developed by Rayson (2003, 2008) based on a lexicon of 56,316 items and a MWE list of 18,917. The USAS tagset hierarchy is a multi-tier structure that incorporates 21 main semantic fields subdivided in further 433 subcategories, totaling 453 tags. These two tools when implemented through *Wmatrix* allow for the disambiguation of word's meanings and the assignation of semantic tags with a 92% accuracy through: POS tags; general likelihood ranking for single-word and MWE tags; overlapping MWE resolution; domain of discourse; text-based disambiguation; and template rules. [6] The software also allows for a *broadsweep search* for a USAS tag which retrieves every expression that is connected with that tag, no matter where a tag appears in the sequence.[7]

Previous studies that relied on *Wmatrix* for metaphor identification (Demmen et al., 2015; Potts & Semino, 2017; Semino et al., 2016, 2017) lay the foundations for the next section. They all begin with a manual examination of a sample to identify metaphorical expressions and assign tags per semantic domain – alternatively called 'vehicle grouping' (Cameron & Maslen, 2010), 'semantic field' (Rayson, 2008), and 'semantic grouping' (Potts & Semino, 2017). In the case of Demmen et al. (2015), it is stated that *Emargin*,[8] software that enables manual annotation of text, is used to assist in this stage. Then, *Wmatrix*'s automatic tagging is performed. In the same

[2] The online dictionary is no longer available as from June 30th 2023.
[3] University Centre for Computer Corpus Research on Language of the University of Lancaster.
[4] https://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/claws/
[5] https://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/claws/
[6] https://www.lancaster.ac.uk/staff/rayson/publications/tokyo2002/tsld005.htm
[7] To learn how to activate the Broadsweep Toggle, please see "Tutorial G: Metaphor analysis" at https://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/wmatrix/tutorial/
[8] https://emargin.bcu.ac.uk/emargin/auth/index

study, concordances from "promising sources" (Demmen et al., 2015, p. 211) are extracted with the aid of a database that was especially made for the study and implements both USAS automatic tags and manual tags as allocated in *Emargin*. In Potts and Semino (2017) the automatic tagging is followed by the examination of "each relevant USAS tag", whereas in Semino et al. (2016) the results of the automatic tagging help explore "all instances of words that [were] identified as potentially relevant metaphors in the sample analysis […]; and […] all instances of words that the in-built lexicon categorized under particular semantic fields" (p. 632) for the detection of more metaphorical uses of the relevant expressions. In summary, the procedure used by these scholars can be schematized as follows: i) reading of a sample for the identification of potential metaphorical expressions; ii) manual allocation of each expression to a 'semantic field'; iii) semantic tagging through *Wmatrix*; iv) exploration of concordances of the words identified in Step 1 and relevant semantic tags; v) confirmation/dismissal of metaphoricity.

3. A PROCEDURE FOR SPECIALIZED CORPORA: MIPSpeC

The idea of a procedure for metaphor identification in ESP arises from the author's extensive experience in the examination of wine-tasting language (Nacchia, 2019, 2023, 2024a, 2024b), a field characterized by such an abundance of metaphors that "without metaphor, wine would be practicably undiscussable" (Caballero & Suárez-Toste, 2008, p. 379). Due to the presence of both creative and standardized expressions to be treated accordingly depending on the study aims, the categorization of metaphorical expressions may give rise to specific difficulties; in this context, one might fall into the trap of considering a metaphorical expression that has acquired specialized meaning as a creative metaphor. The question arose when the author conducted a Critical Metaphor Analysis (CMA) study aimed at examining power dynamics between experts and nonexperts through the identification of linguistic realizations of the metaphor WINE IS A HUMAN BEING (Nacchia, 2024a), one of the most productive metaphors in the wine-tasting discourse, with personification being "deeply buried in winespeak" (Suárez-Toste, 2007, p. 59). While employing MIPVU, the author encountered metaphorical terminology which they were able to spot thanks to their established expertise in the field; however, it became apparent that some metaphorical expressions could easily get unnoticed and undermine the purpose of the study. These considerations have led to the realization that procedural adjustments in metaphor identification are imperative to ensure the timely identification of metaphorical expressions while preventing the inadvertent conflation of such expressions with specialized terms.

Therefore, the objective of this section is to outline the MIPSpeC, with a specific focus on highlighting the novel aspects in contrast to the procedures elucidated in the preceding section, specifically Steps 2, 8, and 9. The proposed procedure in its full version comprises nine steps (see Figure 1), described in the following subsections.

3.1. Step 1

The investigation's scope can be constrained by the selection of the (macro-) source domain. The researcher's familiarity with the domain or earlier studies must be taken into consideration while choosing a conceptual metaphor within a specialized domain. This is particularly important in ensuring both the relevance and interpretability of the metaphorical mappings, especially when dealing with highly technical or culturally specific discourses. Moreover, the selection of the source domain inevitably shapes the analytical focus and can limit or expand the kinds of insights that emerge from the study; rather, they will serve for 'conceptual orientation' but must not limit the researcher's activity.

3.2. Step 2

This entails starting with the source domain (e.g., HUMAN BEING) and making an effort to gather all relevant subdomains (e.g., BODY). At this stage, concept maps in which the source domain serves as the main focus can be created, allowing for a more systematic organization of semantic fields and associations. Alternatively, existing frameworks and taxonomies can be taken as references, especially when working within well-established domains. Identifying conceptual frameworks in advance allows researchers to focus their search on particular elements of the mapping. Secondly, detecting a metaphorical expression in context might reveal important information about the metaphors that a particular language user uses. The context may provide fresh and unforeseen metaphors that the scholar may not have anticipated and might contribute to deepening understanding of the mutual influence between concepts and linguistic realizations. In either case, such maps or frameworks should be regarded as flexible tools – heuristic devices that guide the analysis – rather than fixed structures, and should not impose any limitations on the scope or direction of the investigation. This openness is crucial for allowing unexpected patterns and novel metaphorical associations to emerge from the data.

3.3. Step 3

At this stage, a sample of the corpus is scanned to locate the expressions of interest according to MIPVU. This step allows the researcher to familiarize themselves with the data and identify potentially relevant metaphorical patterns. Scanning a sample of the larger corpus to detect expressions that are frequently used metaphorically followed by a search through the entire corpus for those instantiations is a deep-seated technique. It combines exploratory and confirmatory analysis, helping to balance depth and coverage. Another approach to entering a large corpus is to start with a small corpus, manually search it, and then proceed to the large corpus

(Cameron & Deignan, 2003). This method is particularly useful when resources are limited or when working in unfamiliar domains.

3.4. Step 4

A general approximation of what the rest of the analysis can offer can be obtained by manually assigning tags to the expressions chosen after reading the sample (Step 3). This step serves as a preliminary categorization phase, helping to structure the subsequent analysis. The findings of the identification of related concepts, frameworks, or subconcepts (Step 2) will be used to guide the manual tagging process. This ensures coherence between the conceptual groundwork and the actual linguistic data. In case of reliance on pre-existing frameworks, these can already be modified, refined, or enhanced at this stage. Such adaptations allow for greater alignment with the specificities of the dataset under investigation.

3.5. Step 5

This entails locating the *Wmatrix*'s tags that are pertinent to the macro source domain and/or its subconcepts. This step helps bridge the conceptual framework with the computational tool, ensuring consistency in annotation. To minimize one's subjectivity in the selection process, it must consider the source domain (Step 1), its sub- or related concepts (Step 2) and the tags assigned manually to the lexical items identified (Step 4). This triangulation strengthens the reliability of the semantic categorization and facilitates comparability across datasets.

3.6. Step 6

In this step, the researcher uploads the corpus to *Wmatrix* which performs the automatic semantic tagging. This automated process provides a broader overview of semantic domains across the dataset and serves as a complement to the manual tagging conducted in earlier steps.

3.7. Step 7

Unlike Step 3 – which entails reading a sample – this phase involves reading concordance lines as provided by *Wmatrix* in order to i) check the metaphoricity of the terms that have already been identified, and ii) look for new metaphorical expressions according to MIPVU. This step marks a transition from surface-level identification to a more context-sensitive interpretation of metaphoricity. Collocates surrounding those metaphorical terms offer a glimpse into whether they qualify as metaphorical expressions and will help determine if they are conventional

or creative. Examining these collocational patterns also enhances the reliability of metaphor identification. All the semantic tags that were determined to be pertinent to our source domain (Step 5) and those tags where the terms detected were gathered (Step 4), are then explored. This cross-referencing allows for a more targeted and efficient search within the semantic space. Of course, the researcher will focus on the terms associated with that semantic tag, but the analysis may be expanded to other tags in cases where examining concordances shows additional MRWs. This flexibility helps ensure that less predictable metaphorical expressions are not overlooked. Given the very nature of metaphor and the limitations of the software, metaphorical expressions should be tested against a general language dictionary. These can be resorted to when necessary, but it is highly recommended they be consulted before moving on to the next step. Verifying definitions at this stage helps prevent false positives and ensures conceptual accuracy.

3.8. Step 8

In order to ascertain that the identified metaphorical expressions are actual ones rather than terminological expressions that could compromise the integrity of the study, the researcher will meticulously draw a comprehensive list of terminological metaphorical expressions. This preliminary filtering step is crucial in metaphor analysis within specialized discourses. This list will then be systematically cross-referenced with a compilation of specialized terms derived from one or more domain-specific glossaries. The utilization of glossaries in this process serves a twofold purpose. Firstly, it provides an essential benchmark for distinguishing between genuine metaphorical expressions and established specialized terminology within the domain of study. This comparative analysis ensures that the metaphorical expressions identified are not standard terms but distinct figurative expressions. This is particularly relevant in fields where metaphor and terminology may overlap. Secondly, by leveraging domain-specific glossaries, the researcher effectively adopts the perspective and authority of experts in the field. This approach not only enhances the credibility and scientific rigor of the study but also reinforces the validity of the identified metaphorical expressions as genuine linguistic phenomena within the specialized language of inquiry. In other words, the inclusion of authoritative glossaries serves as a quality control mechanism, affirming the accuracy and authenticity of the research findings while bolstering the study's scholarly foundation.

3.9. Step 9

After establishing the presence of metaphorical expressions, the final step involves a meticulous redefinition or the development of comprehensive concept maps based on the results obtained. This phase marks a transition from identification to systematization, enabling a higher level of abstraction in the analysis. These concept

maps are indispensable tools that aid in systematically organizing and categorizing the identified metaphorical expressions. By visually representing the relationships between concepts, they help reveal underlying structures and patterns within the data. They serve as the foundational framework for the subsequent analytical phases of the study, allowing for a nuanced exploration of the metaphorical landscape within the specialized language. This scaffolding is essential for drawing meaningful interpretations and theoretical implications. It is worth noting that the journey of confirming or dismissing metaphoricity may involve several iterations and evaluations throughout the research process. This recursive nature reflects the complexity of metaphor analysis and underscores the importance of maintaining analytical flexibility.

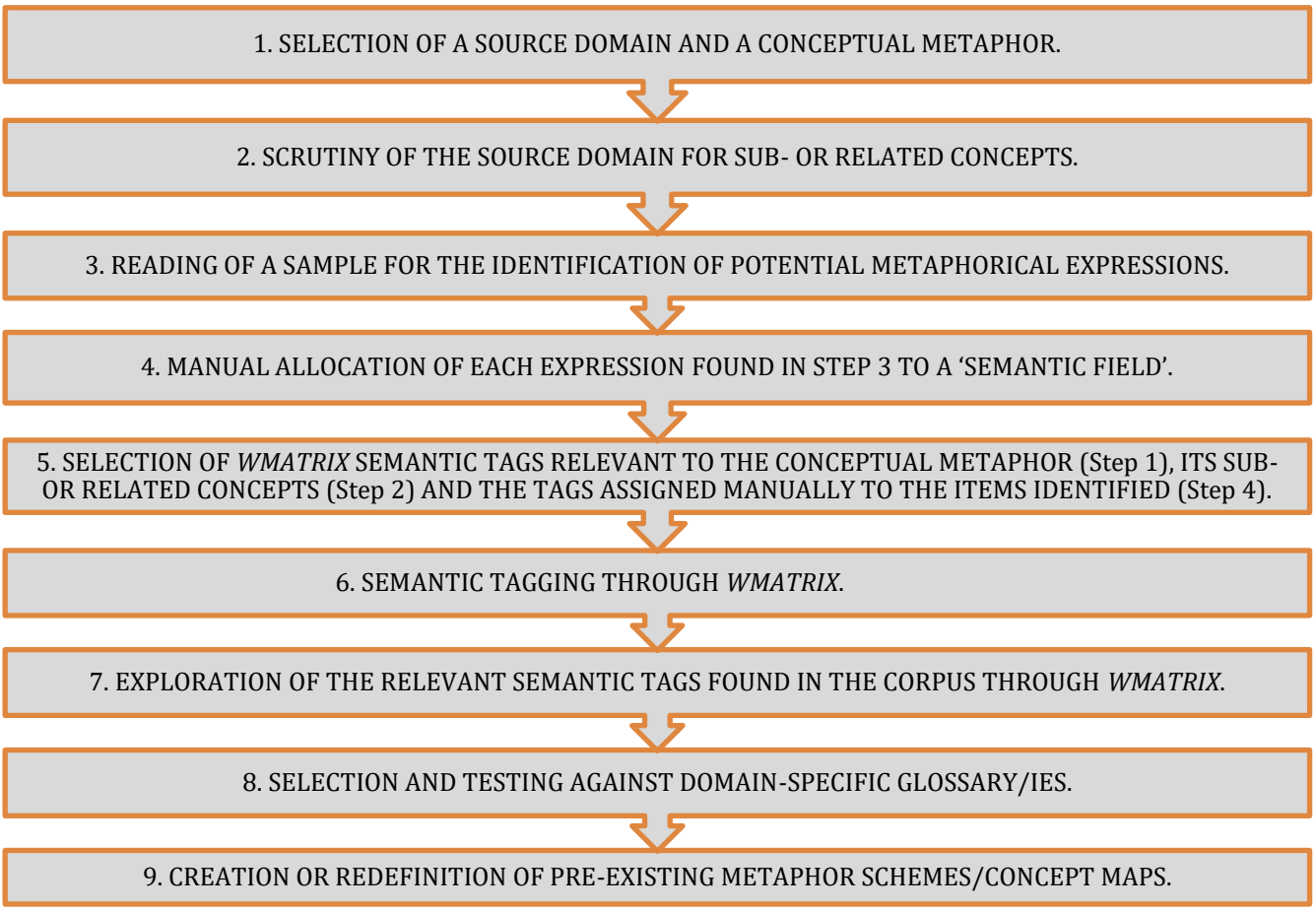

Figure 1. MIPSpeC (see Nacchia, 2024a, pp. 200–201)

4. THE LANGUAGE OF WINE TASTING

At this point, it is deemed necessary to provide an overview of the genre wine-tasting note and the language used in wine tasting, with an emphasis on the role of metaphors, before moving on to a practical application of the procedure.

A TN is "one of the most representative genres of wine discourse" (Caballero & Suárez-Toste, 2010, p. 268) characterized by established conventions (see Caballero, 2007; Caballero & Suarez-Toste, 2010; Silverstein, 2004). While TNs do exist for coffee and beer, it is noteworthy that wine-tasting as a practice, has a longer history (see Lehrer, 2009; Shapin, 2012, 2016). Basically, TNs constitute a concise textual genre designed to describe the organoleptic attributes of a given wine "destined for the general public and should have a sense of professional meaning of the wine vocabulary which should help individuals appreciate the quality and the sensory values of a given wine" (Brochet & Dubordieu, 2001, p. 187). This genre has transcended its origins in specialized contexts being "submitted to a globalizing transformation" (Breit, 2014, p. 102) and is now tailored to a consumer audience; consequently, in addition to being featured on wine bottle labels, wine descriptions can be readily encountered in publications of varying degrees of specialization, as well as on the websites of wine retailers and wineries. Over the last forty years, this genre has experienced a remarkable evolution (see Lehrer, 2009), with writers employing innovative techniques to render both the genre itself and the product it portrays more appealing. In fact, while there have been efforts to objectify the language of wine – and thus the textual genre itself – with the aim of making the relationship between perceived taste and language as stable as possible (see Amerine, 1959; Amerine & Roessler, 1976; Noble et al., 1984, 1987), there have also been more subjectivizing tendencies fueled by the birth of wine magazines in the 1970s – *Decanter* (1975), the *Wine Spectator* (1976) and *The Wine Advocate* (1978), among others. These have contributed to making the language of TNs highly ambiguous and often inaccessible to the general public, earning it a number of derogatory labels like "vinobabble" (Lehrer, 2010, p. 49) or "idiot-speak" (Gluck, 2003, p. 107). In addition, there has been a shift toward more evaluative language (see Hommerberg, 2011), partly driven by the introduction of the scorecard system by Robert Parker Jr., the most influential wine writer of the 20th century. This transformation has prompted writers to incorporate words and expressions from diverse domains, thereby engendering a prevailing trend of metaphorical language adoption (see Lehrer, 2009). The domains from which these expressions are drawn are varied and virtually unlimited; for example, Shesgreen (2003) identified four main domains that enriched the language of wine tasting, namely, the language of social class, the language of gender, the pastoral language of fruit and vegetables, and the culinary language. Nowadays, however, "wine writers are drawing heavily on domains – such as sports, architecture, business, and sex – that are familiar to emerging groups of wine consumers" (Nacchia, 2019, p. 33), and some adjectives may even appear only once in the work of a single writer never to be used again

(Lawless, 1984). While some metaphorical expressions have been assimilated into the discourse of wine-tasting and have gradually acquired standardized meanings – thus evolving into terminological metaphorical expressions that merit recognition as bona fide specialized terms – (e.g., 'body') – others have not. Indeed, considering the highly metaphorical nature of wine-tasting language, nonexperts might have trouble discerning specialized terms from subjective metaphorical usages and consider the latter as part of a knowledge shared among experts being unaware of the subjective and creative impulses they stem from. Given the absence of standardized meanings for most terms, consumers may perceive wine writers as possessing an inscrutable set of skills and talents, which can be rather intimidating. Also, the multitude of wine language glossaries developed over the years have spread different definitions for the same term (e.g., 'minerality'), hence fueling ambiguity and elusiveness not only among nonexperts but also within the expert community. The simultaneous presence of terminological and non-terminological metaphorical expressions, therefore, comes as a challenge for metaphor investigations in this area of knowledge, as the proper identification of the latter might be compromised by the presence of the former, particularly for scholars lacking expertise in the field.

5. APPLICATION OF MIPSpeC TO THE CONCEPTUAL METAPHOR WINE IS A HUMAN BEING IN PROMOTIONAL WINE-TASTING NOTES

This section aims to provide a model for future applications by demonstrating how MIPSpeC can be applied to a corpus of TNs. The analysis considers the UKWINE2019[9] corpus, an ad-hoc, domain-specific corpus of 5,305 promotional tasting notes (178,928 tokens) extracted from the wine-lists of ten British online multi-brand wine stores.[10] The corpus captures a representative snapshot of the current state of linguistic usage in the domain. In the following subsections, the corpus is analyzed according to the proposed procedure.

5.1. Step 1

The metaphor WINE IS A HUMAN BEING was selected due to its high degree of conventionality within the wine discourse community and its alleged inaccessibility to laypeople, which in turn raises questions about the scientific rigor of the tasting verbalization. Given that the source domain HUMAN BEING is indeed incredibly broad

[9] Despite the search covering the period 2012–2022, only tasting notes from 2016 to 2022 met all criteria. 2019 represents the midpoint between 2016 and 2022.
[10] Details about the corpus-building procedure are available in Nacchia (2024a).

and that prior research (e.g., Lehrer, 2009) indicates that the language of wine is constantly enriched with metaphorical expressions from this source domain, the search for creative metaphorical expressions can offer new insights into both the size and variety of creative instantiations as well as the underlying motivations that lead wine writers to overuse this metaphor. Thus, the identification procedure starts with a conceptual metaphor in mind as the researcher is aware of the ingrained descriptive approach wine writers embrace. However, the source domain is far from being considered static; since there are many facets to the HUMAN BEING, several categorizations of how this kind of metaphor is manifested have been developed over time and may still be developing as this research is carried out (see Dorst, 2011; Fielden-Burns & Piquer-Píriz, 2022).

5.2. Step 2

The need for close examination to identify subconcepts or related ideas is further justified by the size of the field. In this instance this is made easier by earlier research that has already provided frameworks for categorizing the metaphorical expressions stemming from the domain HUMAN BEING. In one of the first attempts to systematize the study of this metaphor in wine discourse, HUMAN BEING was subsumed under the broader metaphor WINE IS A LIVING ORGANISM which in turn includes animals, plants and, of course, human beings (Caballero & Suarez-Toste, 2010). Then, Ţenescu (2014) further developed the HUMAN BEING framework by designating five *metaphorical designs*: age within human lifecycle; physical traits/anatomy; personality and temperament features; economic status; general appearance (p. 66). This framework builds on Bratož's (2013, pp. 28–30) *5-lower-level framework – age; physical body; personality/behaviour; general appearance; and economic condition* – and Negro's (2012, pp. 5–8) *schematas* – body; physical features; personality features; human lifecycle. A more recent categorization was provided by Caballero et al. (2019, p. 82): physiology; lineage; personality; actions; behavior; gender. Emerging from corpus-based studies, these frameworks were taken into account. However, they did not constrain the scope of the present study.

5.3. Step 3

A sample of 530 TNs in the corpus (10% of the total corpus) was scrutinized manually for the identification of metaphorical expressions of interest. Here, 85 MRWs were detected. One of the first difficulties that emerged was distinguishing between something that is specifically related to human beings and something that is more broadly associated with a living organism, with HUMAN BEING constituting its own subcategory. Considering that some expressions belonging to the domain LIVING ORGANISM can be used literally for wine, at this stage the WIDLII principle was embraced. A second issue also concerned the breadth of the selected domain and

the multiplicity of entailments a metaphorical expression might have. At this stage, the expression 'superstars' was found; while its basic meaning is certainly not attributable to the semantic domain HUMAN BEING, it is commonly used metaphorically to refer to human beings and, in this context, makes a further metaphorical shift towards wine. 'Superstars' was therefore included in the study even though *Wmatrix* would presumably assign it a tag that the analyst might consider irrelevant. This is undoubtedly one of the key benefits of examining a sample closely, which also alerts us to expressions that might otherwise be overlooked.

5.4. Step 4

A Microsoft Excel spreadsheet was created. The MRWs (Step 3) were reported here individually and in context and were assigned semantic tags manually based on the previously identified frameworks (Step 2); four columns were thus used at this stage: Manual Semantic Tag; MRW; Context (5 words left and right); and Notes. In the latter column, all expressions considered as doubtful in the previous step were marked with the acronym WIDLII. At this stage, it could be observed that some expressions hardly fit into the existing categories proposed by Ţenescu (2014) and Caballero et al. (2019) and that their extension would probably have to be considered.

5.5. Step 5

This phase used the frameworks (step 2) and the MRWs tagged manually (step 4) as starting points to identify semantic tags in *Wmatrix* that were relevant to the source domain. In this instance, 352 out of 453 tags were selected (see Appendix 1).

5.6. Step 6

In this step, *Wmatrix* performed the automatic semantic tagging. The expressions in the corpus were classified into 290 tags out of a total of 453 tags (see Appendix 2). By comparing the 352 tags chosen in the previous stage with the 290 tags contained in the corpus, it was found that 224 tags out of 290 were amongst the 352 tags deemed relevant to the domain HUMAN BEING and were therefore selected for exploration (see Appendix 3).

5.7. Step 7

Following the procedures of the studies mentioned above, the concordance lines of the expressions in the relevant domain as provided by *Wmatrix* were explored. To this end, a *broadsweep search* in *Wmatrix* was performed. Once the corpus was tagged, each expression was assigned a range of USAS tags; by default, a USAS tag search only returns expressions with that tag listed as the first result. Following the search, the concordance lines were explored, which yielded 348 MRWs that were reported in the spreadsheet. Here, in addition to the four columns created in step 4, two more columns were added: Tag Code and the Tag Name as assigned by *Wmatrix*. This phase made it possible to establish in how many of the 224 semantic tags the 348 MRWs were found (133 semantic tags) and to identify 13 duplicates. The dictionaries were then examined in the sequence recommended by MIPVU in order to check the metaphoricity of the MRWs, with particular attention given to the 121 marked as WIDLII. At the end of this step, 43 of them were acknowledged as metaphorical, whereas the remaining 78 were discarded; additionally, 21 semantic tags were removed as a result of this process. At this point, 257 MRWs associated with 112 semantic tags were confirmed and taken to the next step of the process.

5.8. Step 8

The list was tested against authoritative specialized glossaries. For the purpose of this analysis the terminological resources selected were: *The wine aroma wheel* (Noble, 1990) containing 151 terms; the *WSET systematic approach to tasting wine* (level 4)[11] containing 236 terms; *Red wine mouthfeel wheel* (Gawel et al., 2000) containing 70 terms; *The white wine mouthfeel wheel* (Pickering, 2006) containing 82 terms – 539 terms in total (see Appendix 4). The choice of the abovementioned tools was motivated by their scientific and educational nature (see Nacchia, 2019).[12]

[11] Version used: https://www.wsetglobal.com/media/3456/wset_l4_diploma_satwines_n_jul-2016.pdf

[12] While it is true that the *WSET* and Noble et al. (1984, 1987) glossaries largely consist of lists of aromas – metonymically materialized as names of substances – it should be noted that, since this study represents a preliminary attempt to test the proposed methodology, it was deemed useful to employ these terminologies in their entirety. An alternative would have required an additional effort to identify and isolate terminologized metaphors within the glossaries, which would, however, have reintroduced a certain degree of subjectivity on the part of the researcher. By using the glossaries as they stand, the terminological tools could be tested in their full scope, without compromising the validity of the results obtained. Secondly, the choice of these terminologies also reflects the author's stance towards the type of language under consideration. The approach taken is supportive of the objectivization of wine language, making it more accessible to laypeople and helping to reduce the gap between experts and nonexperts. Although this terminology requires greater effort in terms of learning and sensory recognition, its use ultimately makes the communication of taste more transparent, in line with what has been advocated by Amerine (1959), Amerine and Roessler (1976), and Noble et al. (1984, 1987). By contrast, relying on the myriad of wine-tasting glossaries available

In *Lancsbox* 6.0,[13] the comparison was conducted with the MRWs loaded as the primary corpus and the glossary terms loaded in the 'Type' filter box of the 'Words' function. By selecting the 'not' option, the specialized terms were removed, allowing for the exploration of the cleaned list. Through this operation, eight terminological metaphorical expressions were detected – 'aggressive', 'baby', 'medium-bodied', 'full-bodied', 'sappy', 'sharp', 'supple', 'young' – bringing the total number of metaphorical expressions down to 249 in 107 tags (see Appendix 5). In other words, these expressions should not be regarded as metaphorical ones in the strict sense; rather, they have undergone a process of *terminologization*, through which originally metaphorical items have become part of specialised terminology. For this reason, they are to be excluded from the list of metaphorical expressions. After a general dictionary check, each expression was either confirmed or completely dismissed as metaphorical.

5.9. Step 9

The discovered expressions served as compelling evidence illustrating the intricate interplay between conceptual creativity and its reciprocal influence on linguistic creativity. Notably, the pervasive presence of the metaphor WINE IS A HUMAN BEING within the realm of wine discourse facilitates the proliferation of various linguistic instantiations by wine writers. This phenomenon underscores how conceptual innovation is both shaped by and, in turn, shapes linguistic innovation. In this respect, Kövecses (2010) stated that context-induced creativity "occurs where the emergence of a particular metaphorical expression is due to the influence of some aspect of discourse", including "the immediate linguistic context itself" (p. 721). At this stage, concept maps based on the newfound insights were refined. Specifically, two subconceptual domains were added to the existing ones that served as the foundational framework at the outset of this study (as outlined in Step 2). These additional domains are 'physical skills' and 'social status', enhancing the comprehensiveness of the metaphor under examination.

6. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this work was to present a 9-step procedure (MIPSpeC) using *Wmatrix* to identify metaphors in specialized texts based on established authoritative procedures. It is believed that making minor modifications to pre-existing steps and using specialized glossaries can support the identification of

online – without scientific validation and/or designed to promote a type of language rooted in the elevation of wine to an elitist product – would mean perpetuating precisely this discourse, with all the implications it carries in terms of globalization and product marketability.

[13] http://corpora.lancs.ac.uk/lancsbox/download.php

metaphors in specialized languages when the linguist has excellent knowledge, but only as an outside observer and not as a member of the discourse community. The use of concept maps (Steps 2 and 9) and the use of specialized glossaries (Step 8) are the two main distinctive traits of this procedure. The preliminary exploration of the domain plays a pivotal role in equipping the researcher with a comprehensive perspective of the subject under investigation. This broader comprehension significantly facilitates the identification of metaphorical expressions within the corpus. Concept maps and frameworks, whether tailored for the study or derived from prior research, serve as invaluable aids in the quest for metaphors. They not only offer insights into the inherent unpredictability of a writer's creativity but also, when adapted in light of the study's findings, furnish a pragmatic framework for future investigations. Furthermore, the integration of glossaries into the identification procedure functions as a safeguard against the inadvertent inclusion of specialized terms that could potentially undermine the validity of the study. By cross-referencing the identified metaphorical expressions with specialized glossaries, the researcher adopts a stance grounded in authority, thereby ensuring the scientific rigor of the study's findings. At various stages, potential metaphorical expressions are subject to scrutiny and assessment; however, the definitive confirmation or dismissal of metaphoricity is ultimately ascertained upon completion of the test conducted against specialized glossaries. It acts as the proverbial 'seal of approval' or 'stamp of authenticity' that corroborates the validity of these figurative expressions within the specialized language. Ultimately, by combining the advantages of concept maps/frameworks and glossaries, this approach might establish a robust foundation for the identification of metaphors and metaphorical expressions in various areas of ESP.

MIPSpeC was devised heuristically while working on a specialized corpus, which has at least three factors impacting – not necessarily negatively – on the results and which call for other studies to test the effectiveness of the procedure: (1) degree of domain specialization; (2) width of the source domain; and (3) existence of conceptual frameworks. First, the genre is highly specialized in terminology despite the previously noted issues of pomposity and inaccessibility. This leads to a large production of authoritative glossaries and the consequent breadth of choice; while this provides the linguist with an opportunity to familiarize themselves with the wine domain before beginning the study, it can create challenges when selecting appropriate glossaries; a metaphorical expression might be considered standard by one glossary but not by another. Secondly, the width and dynamic character of the HUMAN BEING domain emerge as key factors. Depending on an individual's subjectivity, cultural background and personal preferences, the domain may encompass fewer or more subdomains. In fact, it is not only a question of the HUMAN BEING from the perspective of the human body, a domain characterized by a "(near)universality aris[ing] from universal aspects of the human body" (Kövecses, 2002, p. 165), but also of culture-specific concepts that are meaningful only within particular contexts (social status, economic status, standards of nobility, etc.). Also,

because of the fluidity and richness of subdomains, there is more room for error when selecting semantic tags in *Wmatrix*; choosing semantic tags with a clearer and more objective match would be made simpler by selecting a smaller domain. Finally, due to the widespread use of metaphor in wine discourse, conceptual categorizations are present. Their use can undoubtedly be advantageous in terms of orientation, but as it has been shown, the domain's scope changes as a result of new research and the researcher's interpretations, so this asks for careful handling to prevent restricting the research's potential. As a result, future research looking at less expansive and less creative domains may offer more insight into the procedure's viability. Although MIPSpeC is considered generalisable and applicable to other specialised genres, further studies are required, as the language under analysis lies at the intersection of specialised discourse and aesthetic language and, as noted, is characterised by a high density of metaphors, which are continuously incorporated into discourse and may eventually become standard within the field. Finally, the study also provides a useful tool for scholars interested in the exploration of the WINE IS A HUMAN BEING metaphor in wine-tasting. For instance, metaphorical expressions were found in 107 semantic tags in *Wmatrix*; consequently, a future study could benefit from these results and, instead of selecting semantic tags based on a procedure, they might look for metaphorical expressions directly in these tags.

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FRANCESCO NACCHIA, Tenure-track Research Associate of English Language, Translation and Linguistics (ANGL-01/C) at the University of Naples L'Orientale, holds a PhD in (Euro)languages and Specialised Terminology from the University of Naples Parthenope. He is currently working on a project in discourses of identity and ideology on social media in Anglophone contexts, which investigates (multimodal) representations of cultural, minority, and gender identities in digital environments, with the aim of identifying ideological forms and discriminatory practices while promoting more inclusive communication. His main research interests include corpus linguistics, multimodal critical discourse analysis, and critical metaphor analysis. He has published extensively on the discourse of alternative eating habits, as well as on the role of metaphor and specialised terminology in promotional wine-tasting discourse, with a specific focus on personification. ORCID: 0000-0001-6294-0637