



Pedagogická
fakulta
Faculty
of Education

Jihočeská univerzita
v Českých Budějovicích
University of South Bohemia
in České Budějovice

Jihočeská univerzita v Českých Budějovicích
Pedagogická fakulta
Katedra anglistiky

Diplomová práce

Occurrence of synonyms in academic prose and fiction

Výskyt synonymie v odborných textech a v textech
prózy

Vypracovala: Kristýna Karasová
Vedoucí práce: Mgr. Leona Rohrauer

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ABSTRACT

This diploma thesis analyses the occurrence of synonymy in the texts of academic prose and fiction. The topic of synonymy has been in the centre of attention for a long time and it still deserves much attention. The aim of this thesis is to approach to the topic from a different perspective. Theoretical part describes the theoretical background of synonymy from the upper layers of the system of language. These theories are used as analytical tool in analysing the collected samples with the focus on similarities and differences in connotation of pairs of synonyms. The diploma thesis should particularly contribute to study of partial synonymy and the components of associative meaning that vary in dependence on functional style. This thesis should also marginally refer to the topic of absolute synonymy. The frequency of the components of associative meaning and findings are described in the conclusion of the thesis.

ANOTACE

Tato diplomová práce se zabývá výskytem synonymie v odborných textech a textech prózy. Problematika synonymie byla v centru po dlouhou dobu a stále si zasluhuje mnoho pozornosti. Cílem této práce je nahlédnout na synonymii z odlišné perspektivy. Teoretická část popisuje teoretické pozadí synonymie od horních vrstev systému jazyka. Tyto teorie jsou dále srovnávány a studovány na praktických příkladech, které jsou zaměřeny na podobnosti a rozdíly v konotaci synonym. Diplomová práce má přispět zejména k výzkumu částečné synonymie a dále se zaměřuje na složky asociativního významu lišícího se na základě odlišného funkčního stylu. Práce má také okrajově přispět k tématu absolutní synonymie. Četnost výskytu složek asociativního významu a vyplývající poznatky jsou shrnuty v závěru práce.

Table of contents:

INTRODUCTION:	- 1 -
1. THEORETICAL PART	- 3 -
1.1. DEFINITION AND PLACEMENT OF LEXICOLOGY WITHIN THE LARGER FRAME OF LINGUISTIC STUDIES	- 3 -
1.1.1. LEXICOLOGY	- 5 -
1.1.2. LEXICAL SEMANTICS	- 6 -
1.1.2.1. VOCABULARY	- 8 -
1.1.2.2. SEMANTIC CONSTITUENTS	- 9 -
1.1.2.3. CLASSIFICATIONS OF WORDS	- 11 -
1.1.2.4. SENSE RELATIONS	- 12 -
1.1.2.4.1. SENSE AND REFERENCE	- 14 -
1.1.2.5. MEANING	- 16 -
1.1.2.5.1. APPROACHES TO MEANING	- 17 -
1.1.2.5.2. TYPES OF MEANING	- 19 -
1.2. SYNONYMY	- 25 -
1.2.1. DEFINITION AND INTRODUCTION	- 25 -
1.2.2. TYPES OF SYNONYMS	- 27 -
1.2.3. SOURCES OF SYNONYMS	- 31 -
1.2.4. CAUSES OF SYNONYMY	- 34 -
1.2.5. OTHER PARADIGMATIC SENSE RELATIONS	- 37 -
1.2.5.1. ANTONYMY	- 38 -
1.2.5.2. HYPONYMY, HYPERONYMY	- 39 -
1.2.5.3. MERONYMY	- 39 -
2. PRACTICAL PART	- 41 -

2.1. METHODOLOGY	- 41 -
2.2. OCCURRENCE OF SYNONYMY IN ACADEMIC PROSE AND FICTION -	
43 -	
2.2.1. STYLISTIC DIFFERENCES AND THEIR IMPACT ON SYNONYMY.-	
43 -	
2.2.2. DIFFERENCES IN USE AND THE OCCURRENCE OF SYNONYMY	
IN ACADEMIC PROSE AND FICTION.....	- 44 -
2.2.2.1. DIFFERENCES IN THE OCCURENCE OF PARTS OF SPEECH-	44 -
2.2.2.2. DIFFERENCES IN MEANING BETWEEN SYNONYMS.....	- 46 -
2.2.2.2.1. DIFFERENCES IN REFLECTED MEANING	- 48 -
2.2.2.2.2. DIFFERENCES IN CONNOTATIVE MEANING	- 48 -
2.2.2.2.3. DIFFERENCES IN SOCIAL MEANING.....	- 51 -
2.2.2.2.4. DIFFERENCES IN AFFECTIVE MEANING	- 54 -
2.2.2.2.5. DIFFERENCES IN COLLOCATIVE MEANING.....	- 56 -
2.2.2.2.6. DIFFERENCES IN THEMATIC MEANING	- 56 -
2.2.2.2.7. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS	- 57 -
2.2.2.3. OCCURRENCE OF ABSOLUTE SYNONYMY	- 58 -
CONCLUSION	- 60 -
RESUMÉ	- 64 -
REFERENCE.....	- 67 -
SOURCES.....	- 70 -
APPENDIX	

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS:

CED	Collins English Dictionary
CIDOE	Cambridge International Dictionary of English
Gk	Greek
ISV	International Scientific Vocabulary
JRRT	John Ronald Reuel Tolkien
LL	Late Latin
VW	Virginia Woolf
MD	Middle Dutch
MF	Middle French
MLG	Middle Low German
NL	New Latin
OE	Old English
OED	Online Etymological Dictionary
OHD	Old High German
OF	Old French
ODOC	Oxford Dictionary of Chemistry
ON	Old Norse
Sk	Sanskrit
WTNID	Webster's Third New International Dictionary of The English Language

List of tables

Table 1. Occurrence of synonyms within parts of speech	- 45 -
Table 2. Occurrence of synonyms within number of sentences	- 47 -
Table 3. Overall occurrence of differences between synonyms according to functional style.....	- 58 -

List of figures

Figure 1. Occurrence of synonyms within types of speech	- 46 -
Figure 2. Occurrence of synonyms within number of sentences	- 47 -
Figure 3. Occurrence of connotative meaning within functional style.....	- 50 -
Figure 4. Occurrence of connotative meaning as secondary difference along with the primary difference in province or formality in academic prose	- 51 -
Figure 5. Distribution of differences in social meaning	- 54 -
Figure 6. Occurrence of differences in the component of formality	- 54 -
Figure 7. Occurrence of components of affective meaning.....	- 56 -

INTRODUCTION:

Synonymy is an interesting topic of research because language is variable and the study of synonymy is still developing and changing. The phenomenon of synonymy is incredibly rich and variable and it gives us infinite possibilities to express various innuendos of meaning.

Many linguists have contributed to the topic of synonymy because paradigmatic relations were the focus of a lot of academic attention. Nowadays, the focus has shifted towards syntagmatic relations. Cruse (1997) presents synonymy as an intuitive relationship with synonyms as words differing in 'peripheral' semantic traits while the 'central' are identical. He also finds three dimensions in which synonyms differ, i.e. field, mode and style. Palmer (1981) is also interested in the ways synonyms differ. He stated five ways, i.e. dialect, style, emotive meaning, collocational restrictions and overlapping synonyms. Lipka (1990) is in opposition to Lyons (1968) claiming that synonymy is a relationship between lexical units, not lexical items. Other linguists who have studied synonymy include Soll (1966), and Ullmann (1983). I would like to approach the phenomenon of synonymy. Synonymy has been studied from many viewpoints and I wanted to approach from a different perspective: a comparison of two functional styles, i.e. academic prose and fiction.

This thesis is focused on differences in the use of synonyms depending on functional style. My thesis should contribute to study of partial synonymy and the components of connotational (associative) meaning by which they differ and whether these components vary according to functional style. This research is based on the idea that academic prose typically need to have more precise language, but fiction uses synonyms describing a phenomenon in a variety of ways.

This thesis should also marginally refer to the topic of absolute synonymy. There is no consensus whether absolute synonymy exists. Linguists still argue about it and I would like to add my opinion. My expectation is that the occurrence of absolute synonyms, if found at all, will be in academic prose while a larger variety of synonyms will occur in fiction, especially in long descriptions. An important goal is that the research should give a clearer answer to teachers. We were taught that synonyms are words with the same meaning but now it is disputed whether absolute synonymy exists. I would like to find the answer.

The thesis is divided into two parts. The first part, which considers the complexity of language and evaluates theories of synonymy, provides the reader with a theoretical background. Every part of language I describe is connected with synonymy. I wanted to proceed systematically from the upper layers of the system of the language to the centre of the topic. Each part embraces something important related to synonymy and I think it is important to introduce fundamental notions such as meaning, lexemes, and sense because all of these concepts help to understand the phenomenon of synonymy.

The second part is practical. It comprises the comparison of synonymous pairs found in the chosen texts of academic prose or fiction. This is realized by way of analysing pairs of synonyms. The specific type of meaning according to Leech's classification which a word contains in a specific context is stated. Subsequently, the similarities and differences in connotation of a pair of synonyms according to the type of the text and its usage in the text are described. The findings of this research are described in the conclusion of the thesis. The conclusion contains the types of found connotative differences and their frequency according to the type of the text. All the data are described and presented in the attached tables. There is also my opinion on the most important question as to whether absolute synonymy exists.

1. THEORETICAL PART

1.1. DEFINITION AND PLACEMENT OF LEXICOLOGY WITHIN THE LARGER FRAME OF LINGUISTIC STUDIES

The phenomenon of synonymy cannot be fully understood without explaining the field of linguistics and some important subclasses of its wide spectrum. The reason for looking at synonymy from the larger frame within lexicology is that some basic or detailed concepts are used throughout this sequential practical part. The basic distinctions of linguistics are essential for orientation in the system and all the subclasses and terms which are to be explained have a direct connection to synonymy.

Linguistics is frequently defined as the science of language. It is a wide complex system formed by many subfields requiring clear linguistic clarification of the research area. It constitutes a well-formed hierarchy but the fields are extremely diffuse. Linguistics can be studied from many points of view. Lyons (1981) distinguishes four main dichotomies of linguistics study:

a) **General and descriptive linguistics**

General linguistics deals with the study of language in general, not one particular language. Theories of general linguistics are studied empirically within the descriptive linguistics of a language.

Descriptive linguistics analyses particular languages and theories within one language. Descriptive linguistics proceeds from the theories and concepts of general linguistics. I would like to illustrate my point with an example on the category of parts of speech. General linguistics deals with the theory of parts of speech, e.g. the explanation of the phenomenon. The principles of the theory are researched by descriptive linguists finding possible evidence in support or refutation of a hypothesis. In descriptive linguistics, parts of speech would be studied in specific examples. Synonymy in this thesis is studied practically, so I work with descriptive linguistics.

b) Diachronic and synchronic approaches

These two approaches are concerned with the historical development of a particular language, in this case, the English language. Changes during the development of a language are the subject matter of the diachronic approach.

The synchronic approach, on the other hand, is concerned with the particular form of a language at a specific point in time. The synchronic approach is significant for synonymy study. We are concerned with synonyms appearing in contemporary English language.

c) Theoretical and applied linguistics

Theoretical linguistics, as the name suggests, deals with models of linguistic theories on language structures and functions. Theoretical linguistics is concerned only with theoretical models that can be attested to practical applications. I describe the main theory related to synonymy in the theoretical part.

Applied linguistics works practically following the theory and processing the theoretical foundations in a practical way. It can be illustrated using an example of pronouns use. Theoretical linguists formulate a theory of pronoun usage. Applied linguists support the theory or prove otherwise with regard to practical implications. This dichotomy fully matches the way I study synonymy.

d) Microlinguistics and macrolinguistics

Macrolinguistics is a broad term covering all fields of language exploration, of a language as a whole. In contrast to macrolinguistics, microlinguistics is concerned with the narrow view. It examines a structure or one specific subfield of a language, which in this case is synonymy.

Synonymy belongs to descriptive linguistics, the synchronic approach, microlinguistics and theoretical or practical linguistics. It depends on the perspective we use to look at synonymy. Descriptive linguists assess synonymy on the basis of practical evidence, which is a key part of this thesis. The synchronic approach is used in choosing modern English as the source. Microlinguistics studies only a narrow view of the use of synonyms in special types of texts. Theoretical and applied linguistics are suitable

approaches for studying synonymy. The theory of synonymy is as important as the practical part.

1.1.1. LEXICOLOGY

Lexicology is, in general, the study of words and vocabulary but it covers a very wide spectrum of research. “Traditionally it includes the study of naming extralingual reality (onomasiology); study of proper names (onomastics); study of meaning (lexical semantics, semasiology); history of words (etymology); word formation (lexical morphology), and as its specific part the study of multi-word expressions (lexical phrases), collocations, phrasemes/idioms – phraseology/idiomatics).”¹

More specifically, lexicology is engaged in the usage and origin of words and all their properties. It also includes the system of functions of vocabulary and the relationships within vocabulary. All parts are linked together on many levels. The description of one part cannot omit an explanation of the other parts.

Arnold (1986: 8-9) states a classification of 5 basic types of lexicology that is clearly arranged:

- general lexicology
- special lexicology
- contrastive lexicology
- historical lexicology
- descriptive lexicology

At first, general lexicology studies vocabulary in general while special lexicology studies characteristic features of a language, as well as special features. Contrastive lexicology is concerned with the comparison of vocabularies of various languages. Historical lexicology deals with the origin and evolution of vocabulary and investigates the changes and modifications of language over the course of time. Arnold (1986) states that the problem with this type of lexicology is that linguists mostly study each word separately which is called the ‘atomistic approach’. However, there is no reason why they should not study vocabulary as a system over time.

¹ Kvetko (2009: 13).

The most relevant to the present study is lexical semantics, the study of meaning which has been stated above. The study of meaning is comprehensive and can be considered from many points of view in an extensive work about lexicology. The aim of the present paper is to address the topic of the use of synonyms in the chosen texts according to style and types of associative meaning.

1.1.2. LEXICAL SEMANTICS

Semantics is a branch of linguistics, i.e. the study of meaning, including the sub-branch lexical semantics. Leech (1981: 9) follows Bloomfield in saying that semantics is “the description of all that may be the object of human knowledge or belief”. Semantics studies the relation between a linguistic sign (word, phrase, etc.) and its denotation. The linguistic item must be understood in a sentence, i.e. utterance in order to have all the properties.

Semanticists find the problem of semantics mainly in defining the analytic categories and categorizing words into them. Occasionally it is very hard to set some lexemes into categories, since some of them seem to belong to more than one category and some seem to belong somewhere between two categories.

Lexical semantics, the subfield of semantics, studies how words denote things or abstract phenomena. Lexical semantics is concerned with theories and classification of meaning as well as relations between components such as their similarities.

Lexical semantics is not a theoretical study as much as descriptive. It is not possible to just follow the theory because all lexical items need to be regarded from the point of view of practical contextual semantics. All aspects are important. We cannot study synonymy only theoretically; it has to be supported by practical research. Without practical study the topic cannot be fully understood. Cruse (1997: 8) classes it as empirical study. “Semantics done this way has more of the character of an ‘observational science’, like geology, than that of an ‘experimental science’, such as physics or chemistry.”² It is obvious that an experimental science such as chemistry will have more research results and more pieces of information in a shorter time than an observational science such as semantics.

² Cruse (1997: 8)

The first source of meaning of a linguistic component is the first intuition of the hearer. Meaning can be formed differently in the mind of a speaker or a hearer. S/he must pay attention to all parts of the communication and relationships between the members of the communication and between single constituents.

The first impression of synonymy is intuitive; however, intuition is not sufficient evidence. The proof of the relationship must be given. The intuition of synonymous words must be proved by objective analysis supported by work with dictionaries. An empirical study of synonymy is necessary, since the semantic properties of items “are fully reflected in appropriate aspects of the relations it contracts with actual and potential contexts”³. An empirical study of synonymy can be carried out by comparing the synonyms in relevant contexts where extra-linguistic aspects of meaning can be found. Comparing different contexts helps us to control linguistic contexts. This is called the ‘contextual approach’ by Cruse (1997: 1). The relation between the lexical item and its extra-linguistic context is shown and the semantic properties can be reflected. The nature of the changes can be studied in contextual approach.

The primary data of semantics can be studied in various ways using a contextual approach. The first principle is intuitive semantic judgment as mentioned above. The intuitive judgment must be based on at least a simple sentence. The second principle is elicitation which has an experimental character. It is a controlled study of situational contexts where informants are asked to name semantic models. The informants must be asked accurate questions. When we study synonymy, the informants must assess the natural occurrence and meaningfulness of the sentences. Another test is called ‘entailment’ by Cruse (1997: 14). When studying synonymy, the propositions are viewed and studied in more contexts. The relations and affinities of propositions undergo semantic analysis. Entailment is good for discovering whether the propositions are hyponyms or synonyms where the boundary of confusion is small. A lexical item may be subjected to research in all possible contexts. This type of testing is demanding but ideal for testing absolute synonymy. Two absolute synonyms must be replaceable in all possible contexts without changes to meaning. When the test shows the propositions are changeable only in some contexts, it points to partial synonymy. Synonymy discovers more than one expression for one meaning and the reason for that can be found in the diversity of texts and its descriptive function.

³ Cruse (1997: 1).

1.1.2.1. VOCABULARY

Vocabulary is an extensive and adaptive system of all lexical items (i.e. words, word expressions) used in a particular language. It is a systematic phenomenon consisting of many levels and sub-levels on which it functions and every part of the system fits into the other.

Words are typically listed in a dictionary which is the simplest grouping of words, but it is necessary to emphasize that this approach to vocabulary is not that simple. “There are different relationships and connections between words, and different types of groupings of vocabulary used for different purposes, depending which quality of words is taken into consideration: semantic, formal, synchronic, diachronic, etc.”⁴ It is important especially for teachers to explain correctly what vocabulary is and emphasize that it is not as simple as it seems at first sight. It is not just a list of words, but it is a system where many interactions between words take place that need to be taken into account.

Vocabulary is an open and resourceful system. It means that unlike closed systems vocabulary is constantly changing and evolving. Lexical systems adjust according to the needs of communication. Changes are subject to the requirements of communication, science, culture or age. As the world is changing, so is vocabulary. Vocabulary loses words, gains new ones, borrows some from other languages, and some words are updated. This all influences synonyms, especially the change of meaning, and gaining of an additional meaning. Synonyms still accrue, wane or alter their meaning.

Synonymy is included in the semantic grouping (or field) or lexico-semantic group by Arnold (1986: 227). Words related semantically are characterized by their meaning. Synonyms are related on the basis of similarities and differences in meaning, while sharing the general meaning. Synonyms are one of the many sub-levels of vocabulary. They complete the system and interrelate with other parts of the system, e.g. relations, meaning, grouping. New synonyms contribute to vocabulary by entering and enriching the system. Synonyms exist for better description and expressing of ideas and their better understanding on the other side. New synonyms cause changes in the

⁴ Kvetko (2009: 59).

vocabulary, e.g. meaning changes, increasing or decreasing the number of words in the vocabulary.

1.1.2.2. SEMANTIC CONSTITUENTS

This chapter serves as a demarcation of boundaries between lexical units, i.e. words, word forms, lexemes and lexical units. The meaning of a sentence is formed by the meanings of individual lexical units. These units that carry the meaning and build the sentence meaning are called semantic constituents by Cruse (1997: 25).

The crucial element of a language is a word. The term is ambiguous. It is widely understood as a grammatical unit by many linguists; however, a common definition of a word does not exist in the vast literature dealing with the category of linguistics.

A word is considered as a minimal element of a language which can move in a sentence or modify it under proper conditions. A word is a unity of a form and a meaning which serves as a name for an object or a concept of reality. 'Word' as a term is not good enough because it is an intuitional label lacking precision in semantic matters, e.g. should *air force* be considered one word or two words? Another example is the word *make* whose variants are - *make, makes, made, making* but should they be considered the same word, or variants of the same word because they semantically refer to one unit. For studying semantics, linguists prefer the terms *lexeme* and *lexical unit* which are precisely defined below.

The problems with defining a word were solved by distinguishing a word from other terms, word forms and lexemes. The fundamental unit, a lexeme, comes from linguist B. L. Wharf, who coined the term. Lexemes are formed from one or more word forms, which are characterized by different affixes. To be specific, I would like to show the difference between a lexeme and a word form with an example. Word forms are, for example, *swim, swims, swimming, swam, swum* but all these word forms have one common lexeme *swim*. Thus we can see that a lexeme is, in this case, the root of these words. We just simply add affixes (derivational or inflectional) to the lexical roots.

One lexeme can also hide several semantic words, i.e. elements of meaning, several senses. The word *crown* is one lexeme but it has more than one meaning: a symbol of power or a coin. Lexemes have great value for synonymy, because the meaning is the same for all word forms. Lexemes can be simple or complex, depending on whether they contain one or more words. If a lexeme hides more than one sense, the

context is necessary. One more very important term is 'lexical unit'. The difference between a lexeme and a lexical unit is that a lexeme is simply an entry in a dictionary, the most abstract item connecting meaning and form. A lexical unit, on the other hand, is one single meaning of a lexeme, a separated meaning. A lexeme in a dictionary has a subheading with multiple possible meanings. For example, the lexeme *key* has two possible meanings, i.e. a thing we use to open doors or a button on a computer. For synonymy lexical units are the most important units.

Kvetko (2009) deals mainly with the terms 'morphological' and 'lexical words'. These terms are given in contrast to the term 'semantic word' which was described above. One lexical item can create several morphological words. One of many examples is the lexical item *make* where the grammatical words are *makes*, *made*. The lexical item is equal to the word lexeme. Kvetko states that lexemes are dictionary terms. He considers the relation *word – lexeme* as one of the most important distinctions.

Arnold (1986: 18) differentiates lexical units. She understands lexical units as components which can be further analysed. The basic unit is the word. Words can be analysed into morphemes that cannot be further analysed into smaller parts. The next unit is a set expression which is a word group used in speech as a complete unit. They have a special meaning which is a more abstract sum of the meaning of the elements. The last unit is an orthographic word which is a sequence of letters divided by spaces, e.g. phrasal verbs or complex prepositions.

Cruse (1997) illustrates two types of units for lexical semantics – lexical units and lexemes. He presents lexemes as items in the lexicon listed alphabetically with one sense that can be associated with many other senses. He understands lexemes as “a family of lexical units”⁵. Lexical units express identity through relations and they form meaning complexes. Lexical units are composites of lexical forms and senses in a very similar way to word forms and lexemes mentioned above. Lexical units can be made from a lexeme only by adding derivational affixes (e.g. *dis-*, *un-*, *-ship*), not by adding inflectional affixes (e.g. *-s*, *-ed*). Lexical forms are formed with inflectional affixes. In this characteristic lexical units are significant for synonymy in this perspective. Lexical units are significant in relations, especially in synonymy and antonymy. Synonymy is a relation between lexical units. An example is *dishonest:honest*, where two lexical units

⁵ Cruse (1997: 76).

express the relation of the words. Two lexical units are made from one lexeme. What we are interested in is the relation between them, either how similar or how different they are.

A more sophisticated explanation is provided by Lipka (1990). He distinguishes lexemes, lexical items, and word forms on the one hand, and lexical entries and lexical units on the other hand. The lexeme is an abstract unit which Lipka sometimes substitutes with the term 'lexical item'. The lexeme is also a sign with a specific linguistic function which can be simple or complex. Constituents forming lexemes are either morphemes (*make*), phrasal lexemes (*hold on*) or idioms (*make up*). The lexeme *buy* differs from the word-forms *buys*, *bought*. The term lexical entry in Lipka's model proceeds from the properties of a word. Properties can have six variants: phonological, graphemic, morphological, inflectional, syntactic and semantic. We have to analyse the word to its syntactic properties to see the lexeme and affixes, which helps us to distinguish the type of specification.

1.1.2.3. CLASSIFICATIONS OF WORDS

Classifications of words are heterogeneous, but always organized according to the features they share. The common feature is typically on the basis of meaning. Kvetko (2009) points out the most typical classification of words – into word classes (parts of speech). There are traditionally ten word classes – nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, numerals, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, determiners and interjections. Synonyms are usually found within adjectives, nouns, verbs or adverbs. Synonymy is considered within one word class, not across them.

Lipka (1990: 72) distinguishes three types of words:

- phonological unit
- grammatical unit
- abstract unit

The first one is a phonological unit, a word as a sequence of sounds. The second type is understood as a grammatical unit representing a sequence of letters and the last one as an abstract unit. This structural classification is irrelevant for the study of

synonymy as it is a meaning relation. Thus the common meaning shared by two different forms needs to be considered, we need to look at the word as if from ‘inside’.

Kvetko (1990) and also Palmer (1981) divide words into 2 very important categories:

- lexical words
- grammatical words

Synonymous words we are interested in are lexical words with full meaning. Lexical (or content, notional) words have the quality that they can stand by themselves while a grammatical word has to be combined with a lexical word. Lexical words are nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, and more than grammatical words they have the ability to form words and are able to form utterances. Lexical words are related into higher units, sentences, by using grammatical words. Grammatical (or functional) words are articles, auxiliary verbs, object pronouns, prepositions, and conjunctions, which express grammatical relationships between words within a sentence. The same two types are stated by F. R. Palmer (1981) with the difference that he calls lexical words “full” words and grammatical words “form” words.

Linguists dealing with synonymy and other meaning relations are mostly interested in lexical words. Their content reflects reality. The same content is the sense or notion we find in related words which we call synonyms. Synonyms differ at least in one reflection of reality but correspond in more important aspects of the meaning.

1.1.2.4. SENSE RELATIONS

Lexical elements stand in relations which are relevant to this thesis. The following distinction is crucial for the practical part and the main purpose of this chapter is to elaborate basic concepts which will help to identify relations between synonyms, especially the degree of synonymy.

In the Saussurean tradition, language is viewed as a system of signs and the relations between them. There are different relations between words, frequently based on congruence. A pair of words may be included in more than one relation

simultaneously. Numerous relations between words are established in different criteria. Each relation is systematic and has some significance.

“We can speak about *paradigmatic* and *syntagmatic lexical relations* among words/lexemes. We can hear linguists speaking about the *core* (centre) of vocabulary (basic word stock, stable, frequent words) and its *periphery* (neologisms, slang, technical words, etc.). Words can be related to other words *morphologically* (*morphemically*), *semantically*, and *stylistically*; they may be grouped according to their *emotional colouring*, *regional (geographical) variations of origin* and *temporal differences* (time axis), or *active* and *passive usage*, etc.”⁶ This will be shown in the practical part of the thesis. The groupings will be specified in the context of synonymy. Synonymous words are linked on the basis of certain similarities as they share meaning, wholly or partially. The link will be found for each pair of studied synonyms.

The previously mentioned paradigmatic and syntagmatic lexical relations are based on the vertical/horizontal approach. The paradigmatic (substitutional) relation occurs when two words are substitutable in a particular environment on the vertical level but cannot appear next to each other, e.g. *student/pupil*. A paradigmatic relation moves in a particular system of forms, in a syntactic category and its members. On the other side there are syntagmatic relations appearing in the same sentence dealing with elements in the sentence and their relationship.

Syntagmatic relations are based on co-occurrence and cohesion of two elements. A syntagmatic lexical relation enables a combination of two words on the horizontal level and the formation of collocations, e.g. *heavy rain*.

Synonymy is a paradigmatic relation because two synonyms can substitute each other but cannot appear together. Other paradigmatic relations are antonymy, hyponymy. Synonymy is a semantic relation (based on meaning); however, not all lexical items interacting paradigmatically correspondingly express semantic identity. For example, homonymy is based on identical form, not meaning, and this type of relation is called lexical relation.

Cruse (1997), furthermore, follows up with the term ‘contextual relations’ dealing with the meaning of a word which is related to the context in which it appears. Words are synonymous in that case if they are interchangeable in context. The meaning

⁶ Kvetko (2009: 60).

is reflected through the relationship between a word and all the other words in contexts. Syntagmatic affinity is included as well as paradigmatic relations.

Sense paradigmatic relations are at the centre of my interest since synonymy is one of its word relations and is based on the similarity of the content of words. I look deeper into synonymy as a sense relation in the following chapters and I explain its link to other sense paradigmatic relations.

1.1.2.4.1. SENSE AND REFERENCE

The distinction we shall be discussing has to be illustrated. In order to understand the system, the relations among its units need to be described and understood. The term ‘reference’ stands for the relationship between a vocabulary item and object or abstract concept in the external world. The term ‘sense’ is an internal meaning of a word. Internal meaning is a meaning without extra-linguistic reality; essential meaning of a word.

It is important to show the distinction between sense and reference. If a person learns new words, it is easier to start with the sense of the word. The first notion of a word in vocabulary learning is more direct than a clear dictionary definition. As a next step, the word should be used in an utterance. Another possibility is to start by learning the reference of a word. For example, *a box* can be shown to a person as a real thing. The problem is that there can be incorrect understanding because the person would not know what other objects in a real world can be *boxes*.

For our topic, i.e. synonymy the terms ‘sense’ and ‘sense relations’ are relevant. The typical definition of a sense relation is that it stands between units of meaning. The sense of the word is “the way people relate words to each other within the framework of their language”⁷. What does it really mean? There are always various relations between words and some are related more, some less. Relations between words are substantial in the composition of vocabulary and communication.

Sense related words are connected by an internal association of meaning. As I mentioned above, internal meaning is the essential meaning without referring to any object in the external world. Concerning synonymy, we have to study the internal meaning of synonyms since synonyms are words related by something they share in

⁷ Crystal (2010: 106).

meaning. On the other hand, reference is based on external associations of referents, i.e. a word is associated with the thing it refers to.

Lyons (1995) understands sense as a relation between a specific expression and other related words. If we apply this definition to synonymy, it fits perfectly. A synonym is a specific expression related internally to another synonym. For example, *thin* is related to the second synonym *slim* on the basis of similarity. It might be added that the definition above is too simple and predictable.

Crystal (2010: 160) connects sense relations with a feeling which we have that two words are somehow related by meaning. If we see two words we can feel they are connected by some logical relation. Intuition about a relation is certainly the first notion but it cannot validate the relation. However, I do not think that “feeling” is enough so I do not like this theory and I prefer Cruse’s that follows. First, Crystal illustrates three categories of sense relations:

- parts/wholes,
- hierarchies (sequences of hierarchy)
- series (items as members of a series)

I follow the distribution of Cruse (2004) of sense relations which is more representative of the whole category:

- paradigmatic sense relations
- syntagmatic sense relations
- derivational sense relations

The first two kinds were explained in the chapter above. The last mentioned type is derivational sense relations which “participate in one type of structuring of the vocabulary of a language, since they manifest themselves between items in what are called word families (i.e. words derived from a single root)”⁸ The words forming the relation are derived from the one morpheme, e.g. the morpheme *buy*. The semantic relation is taken between *buy* and *buyer*, or between *buy* and *buyout*.

⁸ Cruse (2004: 147).

Synonymy is a kind of paradigmatic sense relation and it means that the synonymous words appear at the same position in the structure of the sentence belonging to the same part of speech. Paradigmatic relations are based on two principles, the principle of identity and the principle of opposition. The first category includes hyponymy, meronymy, and synonymy. The second category contains antonymy. Paradigmatic relations will be described in more depth in due course.

1.1.2.5. MEANING

Meaning is the core of communication and the fundamental centre of understanding and linguistic encoding of information. There are many explanations of meaning, although there is no consensus regarding which one is correct. Without understanding the right meaning, a conversation would be misleading.

The meaning of a word is an image or concept which comes into our minds while listening to a word. Occasionally the image or association can be part of a meaning or can be attached wrongly. Hence, intuition is not sufficient evidence about the relation between words. The criteria for identifying synonymy and recognition of synonymy from other sense relations were listed in the chapter about lexical semantics.

Meaning is a crucial topic for the purposes of this work since synonymy is a kind of meaning relation between a set of lexemes. Synonymy and other relations are based on contrast or similarity between words. Many words do not have straight links to potential referents.

Each word has its own meaning but their combination in the sentence is complex. A meaning can be carried by small identifiable parts of a sentence or a whole sentence which carries the complex meaning. Cruse (1997) calls these small parts carrying meaning 'semantic constituents' and the smallest indivisible parts 'minimal semantic constituents'.

A projection of meaning is given by context. However, we have to take into account also meaning per se without context, the essential meaning. Nevertheless, a synonym without a context does not have much value since the context gives us the notion of right sense.

Kvetko (2009) contributes to the topic by dividing linguistic context and context of speech situation:

1) Linguistic context

- a. Lexical context (collocative) is based on collocations, i.e. words generally used with other words or a group of words. Only a sentence is needed, not the whole situation. The collocative meaning is sometimes enough although it is not a requirement. The lexical context is essential for synonymy since the meaning is carried by a lexical word, not grammatical, or it does not depend on the whole situation. This is clarified in the practical part.
- b. Grammatical context (syntactical) is applied when grammatical structure, not lexical elements, is a determination for the meaning.

- 2) **The context of speech situation** depends on the whole situation. The sense is not recognized from a single sentence but just the one sentence without the physical context still offers more than one meaning.

1.1.2.5.1. APPROACHES TO MEANING

We also have to take into account that each linguist understands the meaning differently. There are various approaches to meaning. According to the vast theory of semantics, the study options are diverse.

Peprník (1998) offers a brief explanation of lexicology. He outlines the semasiological approach which is crucial for the study of synonymy. The semasiological approach studies the meaning from the form and then asks for the meaning of the form. The second approach, onomasiology, starts with the meaning and then is concerned with the form, which is a subject of synonymy (the meaning is important, not the form). On the other hand, semasiology is a study of polysemy or homonymy where the form is substantial, e.g. phonological form.

Semasiology is defined also by Arnold (1986) from a slightly different perspective. Semasiology is conceived there as a whole branch of linguistics studying the meaning of words. In addition, it is further divided into the diachronic and the synchronic approaches. Diachronic semasiology studies changes in meaning of individual words. Contrary to this, the whole semantic system belongs under the synchronic survey.

Kvetko (2009) states two principal approaches to meaning:

- the referential approach
- the functional approach

The referential approach analyses the projection which the hearer imagines under a word within the utterance. It is actually a reference of the ‘semiotic triangle’ introduced by Ogden and Richards. This theory works with a model of linguistic signs related indirectly to an extralinguistic object. The ‘symbol’ is in the relation with the ‘referent’ through a mediator represented by ‘thought’.

The functional approach is more complex because we focus on the relations of the word to other units in the text. A referential approach is more important for synonymy because it gives an idea to the hearer about the proper meaning of the word in the sentence.

Cruse (2004: 46) points out another 2 approaches:

- the extensional approach
- the intensional approach

The extensional approach deals with everything that a word could potentially refer to. It is not focused on particular referents. In contrast to the extensional approach stands the intensional approach in which a particular representation of expression, the sense of a word, is studied. The key approach for synonymy is intensional which deals with particular concepts of synonyms and the sense of referents. We can use the word *car* as an example. When we say *the car is broken*, we are referring to a particular car, which is an extensional approach studying a particular thing in the world, a reference. When we have the simple word *car*, the intensional approach helps us to study the meaning and relations of the word *car* and other words, for example the sense of *car* can be viewed in relation with the words *vehicle*, *bus*, *motorbike*, *motorist* or *driver*.

1.1.2.5.2. TYPES OF MEANING

I would like to adduce more types of classification according to their association with synonymy. Each linguist specifies different types of meaning according to different criteria.

Cruse (2004) states three basic 'levels' of meaning:

- sentence meaning
- statement meaning
- utterance meaning

Sentence meaning is the most important for our purposes. It is not conceivable to study synonyms without considering sentence meaning since the connotative meaning could be overlooked. A meaning of a word in a sentence is determined by the linguistic structure of a sentence. Grammatical structure is important as well as the words used. Grammatical structure forms the propositional content, in other words it encodes the message.

Cruse (2000) differentiates two dichotomies of meaning:

- word meaning and sentence meaning
- lexical and grammatical meaning

For purposes of synonymy, the word meaning and the sentence meaning are essential. First, the word or the sentence meanings are seen from the perspective of lexical semantics. A sentence has undoubtedly major significance for factual comprehension of a text because an unrelated word has no significant explanatory value. The complexity of a sentence has a greater semantic value than the basic level of a word. Common communication is based on sentences. Concerning synonymy, we cannot look just at the word, but at the whole sentence. A simple word does not say anything. A whole sentence is necessary for meaningful expression of the idea because "the semantic import of a single word form can vary greatly from one context to another"⁹.

⁹ Cruse (2000: 96)

The lexical and grammatical meanings represent the second dichotomy. The type of meaning is given by the element carrying the meaning. Cruse (2000) divides grammatical units into closed-set and open-set items. Closed-set items are small sets, while open-set items are large. Both items carry meaning, but closed-set items contribute to the grammatical structure of the sentence whereas open-set items carry the meaning of the sentence. The important semantic content is usually contained in open-set items. An open-set item is typically a content word (carrying a lexical meaning) which can produce a larger number of closed-set items formed by affixes and carrying the grammatical meaning. Our focus of lexical semantics is focused on lexical meaning and content words. Synonyms are generally content words but both meanings interact with each other.

Kvetko (2009) is concerned with two kinds of meaning:

- grammatical meaning
- lexical meaning

Grammatical meaning is the less important meaning because the meaning lies in the grammatical components of a sentence or a word although in some cases this meaning is absolutely essential. The most common components are inflectional endings (e.g. plural form –s: *animals, students*; form expressing tenses or number: *liked, had, been*; form expressing 3rd person sg.: *has, means, is*). Some words appearing in just one form are recognised according to their distribution in a sentence and only then are we able to recognize what word class it belongs to. Concerning synonymy, lexical meaning is essential, as most synonyms are lexical words where grammatical meaning has no value.

Lexical meaning does not depend on the form of a word because the form of a word can differ, but the lexical meaning stays the same. It depends only on the base of a word, which is the same in all forms regardless of the inflectional form. For example, we have the word *be*, where the inflectional forms are *be, been, is, was, were*. There is one lexical meaning while the grammatical meanings differ for each word. Lexical and grammatical meanings together constitute the whole proper meaning.

A distribution of lexical meaning into denotative and connotative meanings is very important for this thesis. As Kvetko (2009) points out, denotative meaning has

many other names: denotational, nominative, conceptual, cognitive, significative, and descriptive. Denotative meaning is basic, sometimes called “naked” or “bare”, not dependent on the context. It is a meaning we can find in a dictionary without any literal components or colouring. It is the core of the meaning.

The other component of lexical meaning of a word is referred to as connotative meaning, or connotational, associative, supplementary meaning. This meaning has something added; it is enriched. The ‘bare’ meaning is enriched with emotions, expressiveness, stylistic charge, or some connotation. All of these complements are dependent on context. Connotative meaning is supplemented by emotive charge or stylistic reference. Emotive charge expresses neutral, negative or positive emotions. Some expressions or phrases are more suitable for expressing emotions, especially diminutives or vulgarisms, while others depend on context. Stylistic reference is especially ‘colouring’, i.e. formal and informal forms, poetic or prosaic forms. I will find these types in the text in the practical part.

Kvetko (2009) mentions one more type of meaning – collocational (collocative), dependent on the combination of words. This type reflects the fact that some words are bound with specific words but usually the same words are not bound with a synonym of the collocated word used before. For example, *heavy rain* is a typical collocation but it is not possible to use *dense rain*. This type can also be found in the practical part because some synonyms can appear in collocations.

Leech (1981) also differentiates other two kinds of meaning:

- intended meaning
- interpreted meaning

As the term suggests, the intended meaning is the idea of the speaker, what s/he intends to say. The interpreted meaning is the meaning the hearer understands from what the speaker says. It is a stream of communication from the speaker to the hearer and the change that happens there. Intentions of the speaker can be transformed during the information exchange and the meaning which goes to the hearer is public, not just for the individual intention of the speaker.

Another classification of meaning is provided by Leech (1981), who differentiates seven types of meaning – conceptual, connotative, social, affective,

reflected, collocative and thematic which I divide into two categories, denotative and associative meaning. This is the most important classification for this thesis because these are the aspects of difference between synonyms that I differentiate in the practical part. These types are all components of the connotative meaning mentioned above. It is called 'associative meaning' by Leech.

Leech's distribution is central to the description of synonymy because it is complex and covers all the differences between synonyms. The following distribution is used as an analytical tool in the analysis of synonymy in the practical part. It should be concluded by pointing out that it is one of the most important themes in the thesis; hence it will be a building block for the analysis.

1) CONCEPTUAL MEANING (or denotative, cognitive)

In simple terms, conceptual meaning of a word is a basic dictionary meaning that directly refers to the concept of a word. It is a 'logical meaning' how Leech (1981: 9) also calls the conceptual meaning. He considers this meaning a crucial factor of communication.

Conceptual meaning is a type of meaning which is included in every word. We can call it the 'core' of the word. It is the essential part of the word. A word is 'a semantic representation' of an image appearing in the mind of a hearer according to Leech (1981: 9). For conceptual meaning it is important to imagine a word without any context because the image changes according to contexts it appears in.

Conceptual meaning is at the centre of communication and language functioning due to complex organization. Connotative meaning is essential for language functioning in a way that a word has basic attributes which define a word. On the basis of these attributes is expressed semantic representation which is a foundation stone for building larger units of a language. In those larger units, e.g. sentences, conceptual meaning helps us to distinguish one meaning from another. If we would not be able to distinguish meanings, we would not be able to communicate.

This type of meaning is very important for synonymy because a pair of synonyms must share a conceptual meaning. It is the aspect of the word which is the same or similar and which makes it synonymous.

2) ASSOCIATIVE MEANING

Associative meaning is everything which is ‘wrapped’ around the ‘core’ of the word. The difference between two synonyms is found in the associative meaning. It is important to look at the word in a given context which gives the word the ‘wrap’ around the denotative meaning.

My goal is to find and decode the types of associative meaning between synonyms in the practical part. It is the aspect which makes the difference between two synonyms.

2a. Connotative meaning

“Connotative meaning is the communicative value an expression has by virtue of what it refers to, over and above its purely conceptual context.”¹⁰ It means that a hearer imagines a notion of a word under a specific image, as mentioned above in the context of conceptual meaning. However, as the definition says, connotative meaning is something over or above conceptual meaning. It may be shown very clearly within the topic of synonymy.

There can be very slight differences between two synonyms in that notion. The key aspect of the words is similar for both of them, however two synonyms differ in what they refer to; the image of the hearer is slightly different even when the first notion of the word may appear the same. There are additional properties in which the words differ. The properties may be physical, psychological and social.

These connotations change according to age, society and culture; thus, it is based on experience. On account of these features, the connotative meaning is variable and it can change very quickly for the reason that human experience is changeable and unstable.

2b. Social meaning

Social meaning is easy to find in everyday communication because it depends on the individual speaker and the type of interpersonal communication. Social meaning is dependent on a specific utterance. The style of each person is individual and each

¹⁰ Leech (1981: 12).

person has his own style of speaking according to many factors, e.g. age, social status, or occupation.

The recognition of differences in style is natural for the native speaker, however in language learners the intuition fails. It means that we are not able to recognize the origin. However, it is not always easy to recognize the social status or specialization of a person if we are unfamiliar with the kind of language.

Leech (1981) states six socio-stylistic variations – dialect, time, province status, modality, singularity. The language of a region can be recognized from dialect. In different times in history people used to speak a specific language. A group of people specializing in something, e.g. science, is called province variation. People with different social status speak also different languages, variation according to modality depends on what we intend to say (e.g. jokes), and finally, variation according to singularity is characteristic for an individual person. This type is essential for recognizing synonyms. Synonymous expressions are very often different in the dimension of style.

Social meaning is the type I expect to find most frequently in the differences between the pairs of synonyms in the text of academic prose, especially social meaning according to formality.

2c. Affective meaning

This type reflects the speaker's or writer's feeling about something or somebody or his/her personal attitude. Its occurrence in interpersonal communication is not rare since it is frequently influenced by emotions or attitude. Affective meaning comes from a natural representation of emotions. Intonation and voice tone serve for expression of those feelings or attitude that can be beneficial in distinguishing it, e.g. sarcasm, emotions, anger, impoliteness, etc.

The occurrence of this type is certainly expected in fiction where the speech is frequently affected by emotions or feeling, especially in direct speech. Affective meaning will probably not be found in academic prose where the content should not be affected.

2d. Reflected meaning

A word with reflected meaning replaces an expression we would like to avoid. This type has the task of avoiding inappropriate expression. The expression we use is formed on the basis of the former expression. It is mostly used to replace a taboo word or a word with uncomfortable associations.

According to the sources I chose the samples from, I expect to find reflected meaning very rarely or not at all. This type of meaning is definitely not to be found in the academic prose because semantic accuracy of used expressions is the most important aspect in this type of text.

2e. Collocative meaning

The collocative meaning is based on associations and co-occurrence of words that usually appear together. Two synonyms can differ in this aspect if each word of the synonymous pair typically appears together with different words even if the crucial meaning stays the same.

Collocative meaning is more likely to be found in the fiction. However, it is not expected to be a frequently found difference between two synonyms.

2f. Thematic meaning

Thematic meaning is established by the organizing of the sentence or communication by the speaker. The thematic meaning is adapted to the context which emphasizes information in the sentence. It correspondingly depends on the grammatical structure of the sentence. Information is highlighted by changing the word order of the sentence, or emphasis. This type is expected to be found in fiction more where the phenomenon is carefully paid attention to.

1.2. SYNONYMY

1.2.1. DEFINITION AND INTRODUCTION

Defining synonymy is quite a difficult task. The primary problem with synonymy is that characterising it is not as easy as it seems. All the definitions agree in the point that synonymy is based on similar meaning or that synonyms are identical or

similar in meaning. Cruse offers us a more sophisticated definition. He says that synonyms “are words whose semantic similarities are more salient than their differences”¹¹. Thus the starting point in studying a synonymous relation is the feature in which a pair of synonyms is similar or identical. Synonymy is both about the similarity in meaning of two or more words but correspondingly about the contrast between them. The most relevant purpose of the paper is to examine the differences between two synonyms and their occurrence dependent on two different functional styles.

Synonyms share a principal semantic core (or centre) and the difference is in the periphery of the meaning. Therefore the two lexical items share common semantic properties. The periphery is everything ‘wrapped’ around the core, around the denotative meaning. The result is that some synonyms are more synonymous than others.

It is obvious that synonyms belong to the same word category that applies to lexical meaning but it does not have to be just two words. The relation may be bound between a word and a phrase.

The English language is particularly rich in synonymy since many words are loan words. Loan words are a significant source of synonyms. The English language has borrowed many words from Latin, French and Greek over the course of time. The topic of sources of synonyms is extended in the following chapter.

The notion of synonymy is given by the senses and the intuition of language users because they have to decide which words are connected. Each speaker has a different notion of synonymy and each speaker would assign different synonyms together. However, this is not sufficient evidence of synonymy, thus dictionaries should help us to prove these notions. It is sometimes very problematic to say if two words are synonyms or not. There can be slight differences, like emotional colouring or style where the general sense stays the same.

Synonyms are words with the same meaning, but as Crystal (2010: 164) points out why should one language have several words with the exact same meaning? It is the first question to be considered. It would be pointless to have more words with the same meaning. It would be against logical functioning of the language. If absolute synonyms

¹¹ Cruse (2004: 154).

really exist, what is their function? Besides that there is the question of what teachers should teach in schools? The general definition of synonymy is that synonyms are words with the same or similar meaning. So, is it the same or similar meaning? As teachers speculate what to teach, students speculate what to learn. One of the aims of this thesis is to explain and identify the conclusion in a systematic way.

Do absolute synonyms really exist? The category of absolute synonymy has been discussed for a long time but the existence of the category is denied by some (e.g. Cruse 1997) and supported by others (e.g., Lyons (1995) admits the existence of absolute synonymy, but points out that it is extremely rare). Nevertheless, the question is still not resolved. My hypothesis which should be verified in the practical part of my work is that absolute synonyms exist, especially in texts of academic prose.

Along similar lines, Kvetko (2009: 69) admits the occurrence of absolute synonymy can be found in texts deploying specific terminology, i.e. usually academic papers, but at the same time he contradicts himself saying that identical synonyms which are interchangeable in any given context do not exist, and there are only synonyms similar in meaning which are interchangeable only in some contexts. This is in accordance with our intuition about the purpose of synonymy, viz. to fulfil the need to express oneself in all variety and to grasp all possible shades of meaning.

My assumption is that absolute synonyms appear only in very specific contexts, and definitely not in fiction, since it is not possible to supersede one synonym for another in all contexts. The analysis of the samples in the practical part of this study shall either verify or disprove the hypothesis.

1.2.2. TYPES OF SYNONYMS

Cruse (2000) divides the degrees of synonymy into three categories:

- absolute synonymy
- propositional synonymy
- near-synonymy

a) Absolute synonymy

As mentioned above, absolute synonyms are identical in meaning and interchangeable in all contexts. Two synonyms fit perfectly in any given context or it is

not possible to use any of them. They are not distinguishable from each other at all. However some linguists (e.g. Lyons 1995) have the opinion that absolute synonymy is very rare, that it does not form a large group. In order to be absolute synonyms, the words have to operate the same in every context. Some linguists doubt their existence but my opinion is that they do exist, but rarely. I try to prove my hypothesis in the practical part. There are linguistic tests for identifying absolute synonymy which were stated above.

b) Propositional synonymy

The term ‘proposition’ is a term for the logical/truthful content of the sentence. Propositional synonymy occurs when two synonyms are interchangeable without any change of truth-conditional properties, i.e. by usage of a synonym the logical/truthful condition of the content does not change. It is a question of style, not a question of the logical structure of sentences. The truth-conditional properties have the main function for the hearer to encode the message in a direct way. However, they vary in one or more aspect of the meaning.

Propositional synonyms have shared aspect, which is a semantic mode, and a different aspect, typically the expressive mode, but it is not a requirement. “Differences in the meanings of propositional synonyms, by definition, necessarily involve one or more aspects of non-propositional meaning, the most important being (i) differences in expressive meaning, (ii) differences of stylistic level (on the colloquial-formal dimension), and (iii) differences of presupposed field of discourse.”¹² It means that two propositional synonyms must vary in at least one of these aspects, frequently in more than one. Expressed meaning is given by the speaker’s attitude or emotions. Non-propositional meaning as mentioned above occurs when a proposition “does not exhaust the content of a message”¹³. He also differentiates two types of non-propositional synonymy, i.e. propositional attitude and expressive meaning.

The difference can frequently be made on account of the distinct context of the sentence or interference by euphemism. Cruse states the example of *violin:fiddle* in the sentences: *John bought a violin* and *John bought a fiddle* where the difference is made by the characteristics of the speaker. Propositional synonymy is a frequent type and I

¹² Cruse (2000: 158).

¹³ Cruse (2004: 6).

expect to find it especially in fiction and also in academic prose, although not so frequently.

c) Near-synonymy

This type is very close to propositional synonymy, but also to non-synonymy. The line is very fuzzy. It is generally very hard to classify to which category some words belong. Differences between near-synonyms are minor or they hide in the background.

Determining the category is difficult with regard to the minor differences or differences hiding in the background. Minor differences can consist of differences in the intensity scale (*good:awesome, small:tiny, run:speed*), adverbial specialization of verbs (*gaze:stare*), aspectual distinctions (*rude:coarse*) or difference of prototype centre (*mature:advanced*). Background differences consist of some kind of contrastive matter, for example gender, distinction as in *beautiful:handsome*.

d) Clusters

One other special type is called clusters of synonyms by Cruse (2004). The clusters express the complexity of the group. They are divided into centred and non-centred clusters. The first mentioned type expresses the same object by many words on different levels of style and they are circled around one stylistically unmarked item. Cruse illustrates it by the example of *die* which can be expressed also as *pass away, kick the bucket*, etc. The second type has no core item because all the expressions may overlap each other and between members of the group there are slight differences, e.g. *look, stare, gaze, observe, watch, see, regard* or another cluster of *strange, unknown, unfamiliar*.

Crystal (2010) states list of kinds of synonyms according to their points of difference. It is simple and clear although it should be included as an addition to propositional synonymy. Standing by itself the distribution could be misleading, and, for this reason, it is not sufficient distribution. Cruse's distribution is simpler and without these differences, but more complete. It is more appropriate to deal with Cruse's distribution and take into account Leech's distribution of seven kinds of meaning.

- a) Synonyms which **differ in dialect** are the first type. Dialect difference is typical for words used for a small area, frequently one word with different grammar or pronunciation. For example, the word *mother* is pronounced differently in London and in the southwest of Britain.

- b) There is also **stylistic difference** usually for formal and informal synonyms or common and technical expression, e.g. *thanks* and *thank you*.

- c) **Collocational difference** is characterized by each of the synonyms being typically associated with specific words. For example, *severe* and *heavy* are synonymous, but we always say *severe weather* and *heavy rain*, not vice versa.

- d) **Difference in emotional feelings or connotation** depends if the speaker wants to express pleasant or unpleasant emotions to the hearer and according to that the speaker chooses the apt synonym.

Kvetko (2009: 69) talks about perfect (i.e. absolute, complete) and partial synonymy, and his opinion is clearly explained, but he completes his classification with other types of synonyms. Nevertheless, as in the previous case, the other types should be sub-levels of partial synonymy. Still it is worth mentioning because it may provide insight into the source of synonyms.

- a) **Stylistic synonyms** are synonyms which have stylistic or emotional colouring while having the same denotation (the same general sense). The connotation is based on colouring, attitude and emotions. An example is the words *child* and *baby*. The expression *baby* has a more subtle connotation.

- b) **Ideographic synonyms** (or near, relative synonyms) are the group of synonyms which other linguists call “partial” synonyms, as mentioned by Kvetko. The group consists of synonyms which differ in intensity and degree

of what they express. For example, *large* and *enormous* both express size but *enormous* is 'bigger' than *large*.

- c) **Synonymic pairs and series** include several subgroups and in each group one word is more general, more neutral than the other words and they appear in different grammatical classes.

1.2.3. SOURCES OF SYNONYMS

The topic of sources of synonyms was briefly mentioned in the previous chapter. It is extended in this chapter. Sources of synonyms and their usage in contexts are closely related areas and this is bound to the meanings of words.

Concerning synonymy, I have mostly identified with Cruse's (1997) distribution of sources of variation among propositional synonyms. He puts on one side varieties associated with different typical features of language users, such as age, social status or region. On the other side are three dimensions of variations connected to register, i.e. field, mode and style.

The first category contains dialect, regionalism, slang, jargon, and professionalism. Dialect variants are geographical, temporal, and social. The English language is used in many countries in the world (The United Kingdom, The United States, Australia, Canada, etc.) and as a consequence of that the variants of the language are divergent. The English language is an important language in many other countries of Africa, America and Europe so the regional variations increase. There are variations of spelling, pronunciation and grammar. The most extended varieties of English are British English and American English. These are varieties important for Czech students because British English is typically taught in Czech schools and American English is everywhere around us, e.g. on commercials or TV and the phrases are adopted into the language of Czech people. The biggest differences between British and American English are in the pronunciation and the vocabulary, but spelling and grammar differ as well. The differences in academic prose are negligible, while fiction is a rich source of dissimilarities. I do not expect to find dialect differences in my practical part because I deal with British authors.

Another source of synonymy dependent on the age of language users is slang. Slang words are expressive, substandard words typical for speakers belonging to a

group of people with the same interests or the same profession. Slang words are usually ironical, cynical, impolite or vulgar with the aim to lighten or ridicule the topic. Slang words are generally used for a period of time and are subsequently replaced with new ones. Well known slang words are for money (e.g. *dough, loot, brass*) or for alcohol (e.g. *booze*). Many slang words become a part of everyday vocabulary. If they become part of standard English, it is an enrichment of the language and its vocabulary.

Arnold (1986: 250) divides slang into subdivisions of general and special slang. The subdivision is according to usage of words. General slang words are not specific for a particular social or professional group. On the other hand, special slang words are typical for any social group (e.g. according to age, common interest or social status) or a professional group (e.g. military slang, university slang, medical slang). Social groups may be, for example, teenagers, retired people, musicians, actors, working class or upper class. Professional vocabulary is called jargon. Argot is typically regarded as a single category which is used by the lowest social groups, e.g. criminals, drug users. The aim of using argot is to hide the meaning of utterances.

The second category presented by Cruse (1997) includes field, mode and style. Field comprises many fields of discourse, including the language of science, which I expect to find in texts of academic prose. Fields of discourse have lexical and grammatical characteristics for groups with special vocabulary, e.g. medical, ecclesiastical, and political or business discourse. Scientific discourse uses borrowed words, especially from Latin and Greek, and it is the same for the worldwide academic community which is important for our purposes of synonymy.

The mode of language reflects the different usage of language depending on the medium of expression, i.e. written or spoken mode of communication. Some expressions are characteristic only for spoken language, not appropriate for written texts, for example for business correspondence or academic writing. As fiction often comprises language simulating the spoken mode of expression, it is possible to find pairs of synonyms where one member will be typical of written text and the other of spoken texts. Such synonymic pairs are not expected in academic prose.

Another restriction on the usage of words is style of speech because every person moves in social groups that require different styles of speech or formality. The situations people appear in sometimes require a specific style and choice of words with stylistic colouring or to fit into the context. Kvetko (2009) divides them as stylistically

marked (coloured) words and stylistically neutral (unmarked) words. Stylistically marked words can be seen in synonymy or antonymy when one synonym (antonym) fits better into a situation where the other is not suitable. Stylistically unmarked words can be used in any context.

The style also corresponds with formality/informality. Formal vocabulary is used in an official situation or official documents requiring a higher level of expression, typically to be understood by the general public. Formal statements are mostly written; nevertheless, could also refer to academic lectures. Many formal words have their origin in French, Latin or Greek. They occur especially in scientific vocabulary, business (economic) vocabulary or state affairs. Formal archaic expressions are to be found in literature, especially poetry. Informal vocabulary is used in everyday communication in personal or everyday affairs. Many formal words have synonyms which are either neutral or informal words. Individual informal vocabulary depends on the social situation and location people come from. Original native language is usually full of informal words, such as phrasal verbs, idioms and slang words. Typical everyday vocabulary includes substandard words, for example slang words or something referred to as 'grammatical vulgarism' like the expression *wanna*, i.e. want to. Slang words are used very frequently within groups connected by social status or age. Very close to slang is jargon that is used in professional terminology. One more well-known group of informal words is argot, vocabulary created for secrecy, used especially by criminals. It is not exceptional that some words from these groups become neutral words used by the general public when replacing old expressions.

Emotional colouring is not unusual. Conversely, this type is encountered on a daily basis by speakers. The speaker uses an emotionally coloured word to show their attitude or opinion on a subject and their relation to the listener. There are factors which reflect in the tone and also in the meaning of used words. We differentiate emotionally marked (coloured) and emotionally neutral words. The first mentioned type expressing anger, fury, joy, happiness, surprise, excitement, fear, etc. result from the expressive mode of the speaker. Kvetko (2009) states 4-four types of emotional colouring – positive, negative, permanent and occasional. Positive and negative colouring of language expresses attitude and humour. Permanent and occasional colouring depends on the frequency of the speaker's attitudes and context. Emotional colouring occurs often so it would be no surprise to find these words in prose.

1.2.4. CAUSES OF SYNONYMY

Words in the vocabulary have to adapt to the needs of communication and other needs of the world, i.e. social, scientific or technological progress of society. First, words have to adapt to time, thus vocabulary changes and renews. It is a never ending process because time is constantly passing and during this process the world, including vocabulary, adapts.

New words arise from other languages or can be derived from older expressions. It takes some time before the general public absorbs a new word as it spreads constantly until it is accepted. During this process the word is called neologism. For example, *laptop* used to be a neologism but is now in the active vocabulary of the majority of the population. A big wave of neologisms came with the technological innovations in the 1990s.

On the other hand, archaisms are old words, words which are not used any more in everyday vocabulary, but are sometimes used in official documents or literature. They have been replaced by new expressions. Time changes are an important cause of synonymy because new synonyms constantly enrich the vocabulary and also old words perish. Kvetko differentiates lexical archaisms (archaic words), grammatical archaisms (archaic grammatical forms) and semantic archaisms (archaic meanings of a word). Other types of old words are historisms (designations of a thing which were used in the past but not used nowadays), obsolete words (out-of-date words) and obsolescent words (becoming obsolete words).

New synonyms are also created due to word-formation and semantic change. Concerning word-formation, things gain supplementary names on account of compounds, shortening, derivations (suffixation, affixations), or conversion. This happens based on the current needs of society.

Semantic change is an effect of the development of the language through time and the course of history. As the world is changing, so are language and the meaning of words. Changes in meaning are an economical way of dealing with the changes happening in the world.

Semantic change is a transfer of meaning when new meanings are added or existing meaning is altered. The transfer is determined by semantic motivation, which can be similarity of meanings or some kind of association.

Semantic changes occur for a few reasons. Kvetko (2009) and Arnold (1986) states linguistic and extra-linguistic causes. Firstly, linguistic causes are based on similarity of meaning because the words must adapt to current conditions and differentiation between words changes, even in a small way. Interactions of words and lexical units happen constantly. A word can be easily influenced or one of the words can be omitted in a phrase or very close synonyms can deflect from each other. Synonyms change continually and small changes between synonyms and their usage evolve. Two words which were not connected before can become synonyms and vice versa.

The second type, extra-linguistic causes, happens because of the development of language and the world. It is obvious that these spheres of life are changing quickly, as is the related vocabulary. “Languages are powerfully affected by social, political, economic, cultural and technical change. The influence of those factors upon linguistic phenomena is studied by sociolinguistics.”¹⁴ Changes occurred frequently during the industrial revolution, etc. The enrichment of vocabulary and of communication is an effect.

Berndt (1984) states that the changes happen as a consequence of “new demands on the lexical resources of a language which arise in the course of social, scientific and technological progress or in connection with other changes in the socio-historical conditions of the life of the language community”¹⁵. He differentiates a number of reasons for semantic change based on this definition, i.e. new communicative demands.

The first cause of semantic change according to Berndt (1984) is technological progress. Technological progress brings new technological products and components developed from older products. The new naming often develops from the name of the preceding objects. This process has the consequence of new meaning replacing the other or the acquisition of new meaning existing simultaneously with the old meaning. We can talk about changes in the ‘referential meaning’ or in the ‘connotative meaning’.

¹⁴ Arnold (1986: 73).

¹⁵ Berndt (1984: 76).

People's knowledge about certain phenomena has changed and the consequence is the meaning alteration or adding of new meaning. It is influenced by the development of mankind and its knowledge in the field of science, communication, social life and other intellectual or human activity. Typical examples are objects of science since new facts about objects were discovered. Berndt (1984: 77) states *atom* as an example. We originally thought that atoms could not be split, which we now know is not the truth, thus the meaning of the word shifted.

The second class of causes is called 'psychological motivation' by Berndt (1984). It means any exaggeration, expressiveness or devaluation. The intention to exaggerate is a factor for meaning change. Using strong words in unsuitable contexts has the opposite consequence so that the word loses intensity and is replaced by another word with a stronger meaning. Expressiveness is caused by the intention to be original and using figurative words. Devaluation or 'euphemistic alternatives' are caused by avoiding words with direct meaning which are unpleasant or embarrassing. However, the using of an alternative word has the effect of losing euphemistic meaning.

The last category introduced by Berndt is influenced by intra-linguistic factors. It is caused because words constantly interact and the effect is semantic change. Interaction and relations between words are complicated and the semantic field of related words can shift. The changes in the semantic field are called 'intra-systematic changes'. This can cause semantic shift, semantic overlap, or filling empty semantic space.

Contrary to intra-linguistic factors for semantic change stand extra-linguistic factors. These factors are items brought into English from other languages. This adds new synonyms to the vocabulary because it can cause very productive differentiation of meaning.

The differentiation of semantic changes is quite complicated. Semantic changes based on similarity of meanings are metaphor, metonymy, eponymy or synecdoche. Metaphor is a transfer based on resemblance of referents, on superficial similarities. A typical example is *a foot of a mountain*. There is no semantic connection, but an outer connection. Metonymy is based on close logical connection between two referents. For example *glass* is a material, but also an object made of glass. The connecting element that unites them became a name for both of them. Eponymy is a change when a proper name becomes a common name for common properties, e.g. Casanova. Another change

based on similarities of meanings is synecdoche, a transfer when a part serves as a name for a whole, e.g. *under my roof* serves as a name for the whole, i.e. *house*.

Further semantic changes can be based on intensity, evaluation or expressivity of words, i.e. semantic modifications. Litotes, hyperbole, euphemism, irony, amelioration and pejoration belong to this category. Litotes is understatement, using the negative form to express the opposite. When we say *it wasn't bad at all* we mean it was pretty good. Hyperbole is an exaggeration of meaning to emphasize the information (e.g. *I haven't seen him for ages.*). Euphemism or dysphemism is using a mild expression, or respectively a harsh expression to change the intensity of expression. Irony is using the opposite of what we want to say, generally for ridicule. Amelioration and pejoration are changes in connotation, in evaluation. Amelioration is a change to acquire a positive sense, an improvement. An example is *nice* which originally had the meaning *silly*. Pejoration is the opposite of amelioration, e.g. *smirk* was originally *smile*.

The final category is changes in denotative meaning, i.e. specialization and generalization of meaning. Specialization is narrowing of meaning. It means that a word with a broad meaning became more specific, definite, e.g. *flash*, formerly used for *food*. The opposite is a generalization (widening) of meaning. The original word had a narrower meaning, e.g. *camp* was originally only for military camps.

1.2.5. OTHER PARADIGMATIC SENSE RELATIONS

Paradigmatic sense relations can be divided into two categories according to Cruse (2000: 150). The first category includes relations expressing identity and inclusion. The second class includes relations expressing opposition and exclusion between meanings. Hyponymy, meronymy and synonymy are contained in the first category. Antonymy is based on opposition so it is in the second category.

Meaning relations can be studied from two points of view, extensional and intensional. Extensional approach to meaning is connecting the expression with things they refer to in the real world. The particular thing is not considered but the whole class which is in fact the denotation of the word. On the other hand, there is an intensional view. For the intensional view, the sense of the word is studied, the particular meaning of the word in the utterance.

1.2.5.1. ANTONYMY

Antonymy is a very important paradigmatic relation, especially because it expresses exactly the opposite relation between words than synonymy. While synonymy expresses similar meaning, antonymy studies the opposite meaning between two words. Although it is the opposite of synonymy, the relations of synonymy and antonymy are close in specific areas. We could call it a paradox as oppositeness and similarity have generally close boundaries. Synonyms and antonyms differ in one aspect – meaning. On the other hand, they share other aspects. Like synonyms, some antonyms are pure opposites, some partly opposites. We could ask the same questions: ‘Do absolute opposites really exist?’

Though antonyms are significantly different, we can talk about closeness of opposites. This aspect is observable with synonyms as well. The closeness and the difference between antonyms can correspondingly be studied. The distribution of antonyms is usually identical. Like synonymy, the speaker can feel the opposites in a different way than the hearer. For example, the hearer would choose a different antonym than the speaker in the same context. Consequently it depends on the sense of each person.

Crystal (2010) states a classification of antonyms which I find simple and clear.

- a) The first type are antonyms which may be subjected to **comparison**, it means that can be graded. For example, *short* and *tall* are gradable antonyms, nevertheless every person can be short or tall in his/her own way.
- b) **Complementary** antonyms exclude one another and they cannot be graded. For example, when somebody is *dead* it excludes that s/he is also *alive*. This status changes over time. This type could be compared to absolute synonymy because absolute synonyms have exactly the same meaning whereas complementary antonyms are absolutely different.
- c) **Converse** terms are the last stated kind. It means that the one lexeme cannot exist without the other one. We cannot *return* something without *borrowing* it.

1.2.5.2. HYPONYMY, HYPERONYMY

This relation is very important in a system of a language. If we compare it with synonymy, both the relations are based on the fact of something common, shared. Both the relations are based on identity and inclusion. Synonyms are words sharing meaning although the differences between the words in a pair are minor. In hyponymy, the two hyponymous words share the meaning of the narrower sense together, but the hyperonym includes much more. It is no longer about minor differences. While synonyms are interchangeable in certain contexts, switching hyponyms changes the sentence meaning.

Hyponymy is a relation about superordination and subordination of terms, which means that one meaning is broader (contains the narrower, more specific meaning). It is a hierarchy. As an example, in the pair of words *tree* and *maple*, the meaning of *tree* is broader so it is the hyperonym and *maple* with its more specific meaning is the hyponym. The word *tree* includes *maple* and more so *maple* is a kind of *tree*. Sometimes we can find more hyperonyms on a different level of breadth of meaning.

Peprník (1998) and others remind us that the word hyponymy was formed from the Greek word “hypo” meaning “under” so a hyponymous word is subordinated to the hyperonymous (superior) word. One hyperonym can include more than one hyponym (subcategory), for example *tree* can include *maple*, *birch*, *willow*, *oak*, *beech*, etc.

1.2.5.3. MERONYMY

At this point, we shall draw the last distinction between meronymy and synonymy. Meronymy, like synonymy and hyponymy, is a relation based on identity. Meronymy is a sense relation which is very close to synonymy as in this part-whole relation participants refer to one common thing, one expression for a part and one for a whole. Synonymy and meronymy are founded on proximity of meanings. Some parts are closer than others and some synonyms are closer than others. But this whole area of relations is very diffuse. It would be very difficult to isolate one area from another. Both the expressions share the characteristic of the part but the whole includes all the other parts. Synonymy similarly shares part of the meaning although in a much more varied way than meronymy does. The parts have a relationship with their wholes, and synonyms have a very similar but wider relationship with each other. In some specific

contexts the parts and wholes could stand as synonyms. This mostly concerns concrete entities.

Cruse (2004) defines meronymy as “the lexical reflex of the part-whole relation”. It means that when we have two words X and Y, X is a part of Y and Y is a whole consisting of several parts, including X. For example *leg* and *body*, when a leg is a part of a body. Plainly it is about intensional and extensional views. Kvetko (2009) calls the parts ‘comeronyms’ and wholes are called ‘holonyms’.

It is not possible in all contexts to supplant the intensional word for the extensional word and vice versa because it would not make sense in all sentences. There can also be a problem with the meaning or existence of some parts. For example not all parts have to be necessary for the whole (some wholes have them, some do not), some parts are integral and some removable, some parts are more important than other parts.

2. PRACTICAL PART

In the preceding part, the topic of synonymy was not only described on its own, but it was also defined and placed within the larger frame of lexicology. Lexicology is a very complex system of larger or smaller interconnected areas where one influences the other. I intended to outline the basic characteristics of the areas which are in close connection to the topic of synonymy. Every single part of my theoretical section is continuously bound to the following one and all of it leads to synonymy.

The following part is practical where I intend to compare my findings from the research and evaluate it with my predictions and expectations. I would like to assess the findings from various perspectives. Furthermore, I would like to comment on the topic of absolute synonymy.

2.1.METHODOLOGY

I collected a corpus of 200 synonyms (see Appendix) which I found in four texts by British authors. It was chosen 50 samples in each text. Two of the four publications are novels written in the 20th century. The first one is *The Lord of the Rings: The Fellowship of the Ring* by J. R. R. Tolkien first published in 1954. This book was selected intentionally on the basis of my interest in the fantasy literature. The second text is *Mrs Dalloway* by Virginia Woolf, first published in 1925. My intention was to select one piece of classic literature.

Next two publications are written academic prose. The first one is *Chemistry for Biosciences: The essential concepts* by Jonathan Crowe & Tony Bradshaw first published in 2006. Finally it is *Plant biology* by Andrew Lack & David Evans first published in 2001.

The samples were far more effortlessly collected in the fiction texts. The reasons are described in the following part. Nevertheless, the fiction publications were selected in advance. There was no doubt that there are enough samples to be isolated in fiction and my predictions proved true. However, it was much more complicated to isolate 50 samples in one piece of academic prose. I had continuously gone through many academic prose publications but it had been necessary to exclude many of them. It had

not been possible to isolate 50 samples in one piece of academic prose. Finally, I selected two publications where my search was successful.

As stated above, I isolated 200 samples of synonyms, i.e. 100 pair of synonyms (see Appendix). First, I described and compared synonyms found in fiction. Afterwards I continued with synonyms found in academic prose. Each pair is described according to the dictionary definition. The primary dictionary used in the analysis was *Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language* (1993). If needed, the word origin was found in OED¹⁶. Subsequently, I compared the pairs of synonyms according to the differences in meaning.

As described above, I used Leech's (1981) classification of meaning in the analysis of synonyms. He states two main categories of meaning, conceptual and associative. Conceptual (denotative) meaning is the overlap meaning between two synonyms, the part of meaning which is the same for both expressions. An overlap of meaning is described on the basis of the definition that coincides in a particular point.

The main types of associative meaning are connotative, social, affective, reflected, collocative, and thematic. The associative meaning is the distinguishing component of meaning which needed to be identified and compared and the findings are described in the analysis of the difference between two synonyms.

Certain problems have arisen during the research. I was fully aware of the fact that problems which might complicate the work can arise.

Interestingly, authors of academic prose often used highly specific terms and thus felt the urge to explain them by a periphrastic phrase which they often placed into the brackets following the term. That way they actually used a phrase that may be considered as synonymous with the term. I hesitated whether to use some of these periphrastic phrases in the corpus. I came to the conclusion that it is a very interesting phenomenon that deserves some attention. Based on this decision, I counted the periphrastic phrases together with the rest of synonyms. I described four periphrastic phrases of 200 samples which are 8% of the total. Periphrastic phrases comprised in the corpus are generally recognized. These four phrases are parts of synonymous pairs found in academic prose. It is 4 pairs out of 100 pairs in academic prose, i.e. 4% of the total number of pairs in academic prose.

¹⁶ Online Etymological Dictionary <http://www.etymonline.com/>

Lastly, a large portion of synonyms differs in several parts of meaning. As I continued describing the differences, new facts emerged. I was very uncertain whether I should deal with only one or more various components of meaning. After discussing certain expressions in the field of biology with a specialist in biology and chemistry I came to the decision to describe more components of meaning where more components of meaning were significant differences.

2.2. OCCURRENCE OF SYNONYMY IN ACADEMIC PROSE AND FICTION

2.2.1. STYLISTIC DIFFERENCES AND THEIR IMPACT ON SYNONYMY

So far, I have outlined the theoretical background that is the foundation for practical implications. In a more detailed analysis I would like to describe practical comparison of two functional styles and furthermore, the meaning differences between synonyms according to functional style.

The first step in research was to find pairs of synonyms in different styles of texts. I have already stated the fact that it was easier to find synonyms in fiction. First of all, I would like to state several reasons why this may be so.

The two functional styles, academic prose and fiction are dissimilar in many ways. I would like to mention the stylistic aspects that affect the use and occurrence of synonyms.

On the one hand, the narrative character of fiction requires the need of richness and wide range of expressions for communicative effect which is frequently created by the author's unique style of writing. Authors of fiction use many different terms to express the same matter. The texts of fiction are rich in various expressions which ought to accurately capture an idea of an author with the purpose to create a perfect picture in reader's mind.

Secondly, the most important thing in fiction is creativity and imagination. Imagination is the matter which is dependent on correct application of all elements that an author can use for the most precise expressing of ideas. There needs to be lots of descriptions and direct speech in fiction which are substantial sources of synonyms in

the text. All used expressions have its reason which can be setting the scene, getting reader's attention, creating images, emotional reaction, description of character or appearance, etc.

On the contrary, academic prose texts serve as presentation of knowledge. This type of literature emphasises accuracy of expression and on account of that it is not so rich in synonymy because imagination is not an important matter. Science is dependent on the exact reality where richness of expression is not appropriate. A reader of academic prose needs mostly one, maximally two, correct terms for the right understanding of the text. Many synonyms would be unnecessarily confusing for a reader which would be contradictory to the purpose of this type of literature. This is the second principal reason why synonyms occur in fiction more frequently.

Last but not least, more substantial semantic differences are between synonyms in fiction which is likely one of the main reasons why synonyms are easier to find in fiction. It means that the two words are semantically more distant than synonyms in academic prose. This semantic distance between synonymous expressions gives the language a greater scale of possible synonyms. On the other hand, semantic accuracy is essential in academic prose which significantly reduces the number of possible synonyms.

2.2.2. DIFFERENCES IN USE AND THE OCCURRENCE OF SYNONYMY IN ACADEMIC PROSE AND FICTION

2.2.2.1. DIFFERENCES IN THE OCCURENCE OF PARTS OF SPEECH

As written in the theoretical part, synonyms typically occur within nouns, adjective, verbs, and adverbs. The research undeniably proves this statement. Almost half of isolated pairs were within nouns.

Two texts of fiction comprise 50 pairs of synonyms which makes 100 individual words. In fiction, it was isolated 24 pairs of nouns (48%), 11 pairs of verbs (22%), 14 pairs of adjectives (28%) and 1 pair of adverbs (2%) out of total number 50 pairs.

On the other hand, two texts of academic prose comprise 24 pairs of nouns (48%), 3 pairs of verbs (6%), 17 pairs of adjectives (34%), 2 pairs of adverbs (4%) and

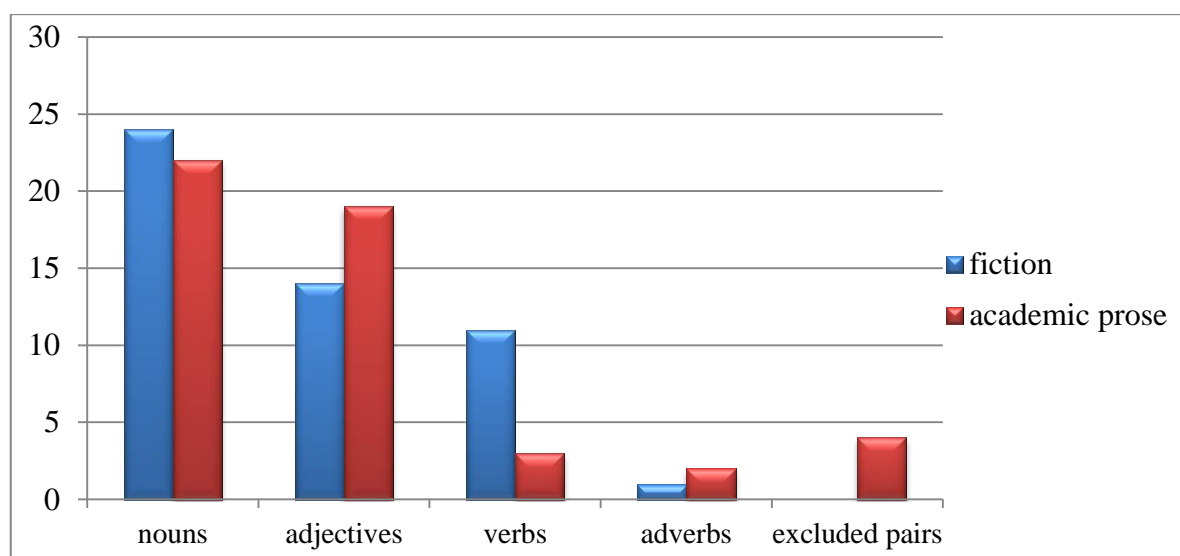
4 excluded pairs containing periphrastic phrase (8%). The findings are summarized in **Table 1** and **Figure 1**.

Figure 1 proves that greater difference in occurrence of synonyms is only within verbs. Use of synonyms within verbs in academic prose is not frequent. The main reason may be that academic prose does not require rich use of verbs whereas this style is not based on active or dynamic verbs as seen in fiction. The aim of the use of verbs in academic prose is to present ideas accurately as described above.

Table 1. Occurrence of synonyms within parts of speech

Part of speech	Fiction	Academic prose	Occurrence in total
Nouns	24 (48%)	24 (48%)	48 (48%)
Adjective	14 (28%)	17 (34%)	31 (31%)
Verbs	11 (22%)	3 (6%)	14 (14%)
Adverbs	1 (2%)	2 (4%)	3 (3%)
Excluded pairs	0 (0%)	4 (8%)	4 (4%)
Total number of pairs	50 (50%)	50 (50%)	100 (100%)

Figure 1. Occurrence of synonyms within types of speech



Note: the total of 100 pairs of synonyms

2.2.2.2. DIFFERENCES IN MEANING BETWEEN SYNONYMS

The following chapters are the most crucial part of this thesis. As stated above, my primary interest is the components of meaning that Leech (1981) calls associative meaning.

In following chapters I am going to go through a few categories of research results related to meaning components. I follow Leech's classification of associative meaning into the connotative, social, affective, reflected, collocative and thematic meaning.

Before I start to describe meaning differences based on the research, I am going to state a few interesting phenomena that emerged from the research.

First of all, there is one noteworthy phenomenon which needs to be pointed out. Synonyms in academic prose frequently occur within only one sentence. Compared to fiction texts, where this phenomenon does not occur, it may be considered a style marker. Nevertheless, it is not a rule. There are sentences in which it is not possible to apply this statement.

An analysis of samples brought the following findings, see **Table 2** and **Figure 2**. There are 7 pairs of synonyms in academic prose occurring within 2 individual sentences out of 100 pairs in total, i.e. 7% as against 47 pairs of synonyms in fiction out of 100 pairs, i.e. 47%. It means that there are 43 pairs in academic prose, i.e. 43% that

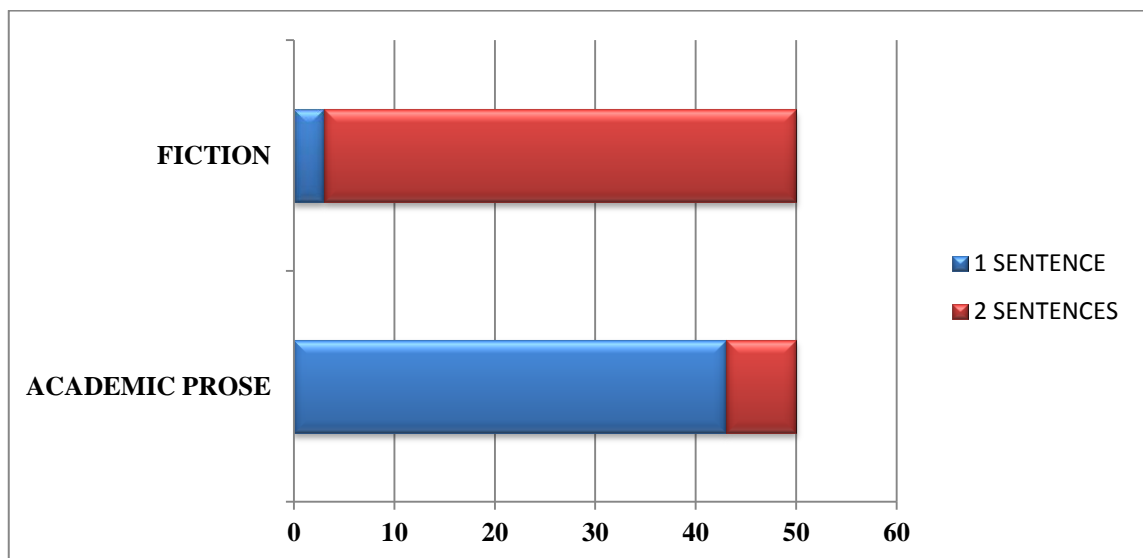
occur within 1 sentence as against 3 sentences in fiction, i.e. 3% that occur within 1 sentence. All the findings are stated within 100 pairs of synonyms (100%).

I find this fact interesting, since it is rather contradictory to the statement that it is easier to find synonyms in fiction. Although it should be theoretically easier to find synonyms within one sentence without searching in the rest of the text, it is not. Nevertheless, in the texts of academic prose is occurrence of synonymy rather sporadic.

Table 2. Occurrence of synonyms within number of sentences

	Pairs within 1 sentence	Pairs within 2 sentences	Number of pairs
Fiction	3 (3%)	47 (47%)	50 (50%)
Academic prose	43 (43%)	7 (7%)	50 (50%)
Total	50 (50%)	50 (50%)	100 (100%)

Figure 2. Occurrence of synonyms within number of sentences



Note: the total of 100 pairs of synonyms

It is necessary to emphasize another issue. I did not expect before the research that so many synonymous pairs would differ in more than one component of meaning. I have decided to mention the difference in more components of meaning providing all of

them are significant. The more essential component of meaning for given context is introduced in the first place.

Besides, during the research one more aspect of meaning arose. It concerns the difference in social component of meaning, province. Province is a difference in specialization in a certain field, e.g. language of law, science, medicine, etc. Regarding this thesis, the difference in province refers to scientific terminology. When the difference in province was detected, there was always detected the component of formality. A scientific term is typically more formal than a general term. This is an aspect that has to be stated since it is not adduced in the appendix. However, it is usually added in the analysis of differences between a pair of synonyms.

This clarification of my approach is necessary for understanding of the following part concerning individual meaning differences between the isolated synonyms.

2.2.2.2.1. DIFFERENCES IN REFLECTED MEANING

Firstly, I would like to briefly mention the meaning component which was not found even once in the corpus of 100 pairs of synonyms. This component is **reflected meaning**. Reflected meaning was not expected to be found frequently. Thus, it was not unpredicted that this type of meaning would not be detected at all. Reflected meaning, as Leech (1981: 16) states, “arises in cases of multiple conceptual meaning, when one sense of a word forms part of our response to another sense”. It is sure that this situation occurs very rarely, a fortiori when doing research on the minimum number of samples.

2.2.2.2.2. DIFFERENCES IN CONNOTATIVE MEANING

The differences in connotative component of associative meaning were found in synonymous pairs occurring in both functional styles. However, there are certain differences in dependence on functional styles.

To recap the definition of connotative meaning, it is the component of meaning reflecting associations that spring to mind when the word is used, e.g. *woman* is usually associated with notions like *tender*, *pretty*, *skirt*, *children*, etc.

Fiction comprises a total of 18 pairs of synonyms that differ in connotative meaning out of 50 pairs of synonymous pairs, i.e. 36%.

We can describe it on an example. The pair number 2 (see Appendix) containing two nouns – *the wealth* and *the riches*. Both the words share the meaning of ‘valuable property’, however, *the wealth* does not refer only to material possessions like *the riches*. The term *the wealth* is usually associated with notions like *affluence, profusion, plentiful, prosperity*. The term *the riches* is usually associated with notions like *material abundance, possessions, fortune, money*.

Academic prose comprises a total of 16 pairs of synonyms that differ in connotative meaning out of 50 pairs, i.e. 32%. This figure contains only pairs that differ mainly in connotative meaning,

As an example, a pair of nouns number 97 (see Appendix) – *characteristic* and *trait*. The difference between synonyms is in the same component as the previous example. Both words are identical as ‘common feature’; however ‘trait’ can be behavioural characteristic while ‘characteristic’ does not include behaviour features. The term *characteristic* is usually associated with notions like *quality, attribute, and feature*. The term *trait* is usually associated with notions like *nature, quality, attribute*.

Besides, there are pairs in academic prose that differ in this component of meaning but the primary difference in given context is different. It is a phenomenon that does not occur in fiction where connotative meaning is always of primary difference. Academic prose comprises 18 pairs (36%) that secondarily differ in connotative meaning, i.e. 34 pairs that differ in connotative meaning (both primarily and secondarily) out of 50 pairs in academic fiction (68%).

Secondary difference in connotative meaning occurs along with difference in province or formality, both subclasses of social component of meaning. The difference in connotative meaning occurs between 9 pairs that primarily differ in province, respectively 9 pairs that primarily differ in formality, see **Figure 4**.

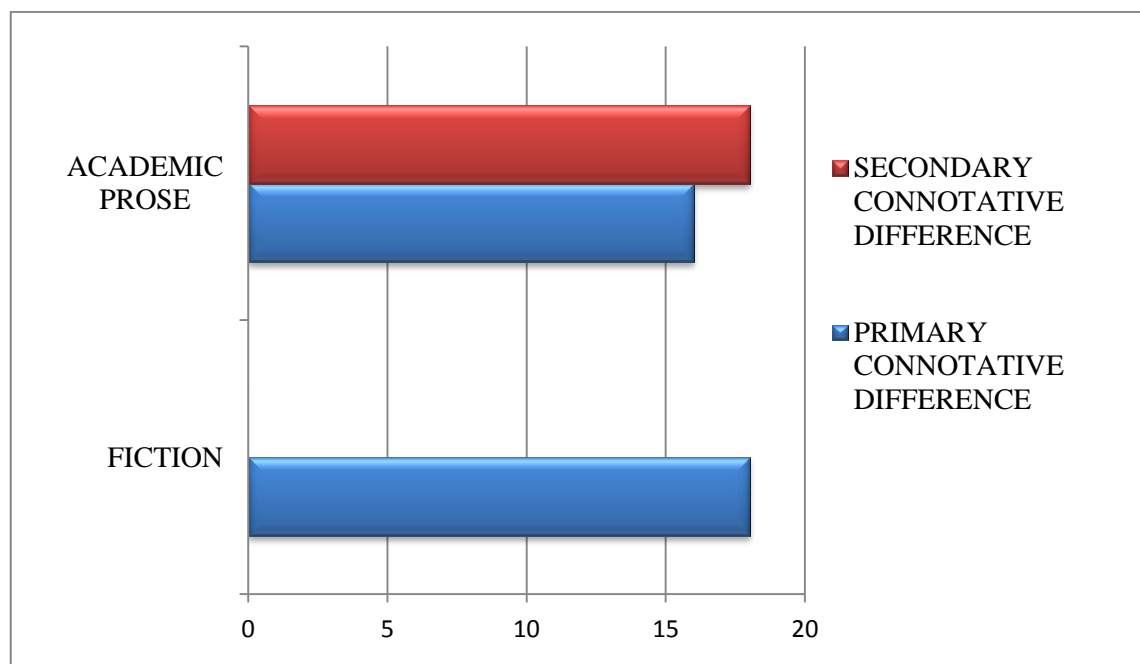
We can compare pair number 51 and 68 (see Appendix). The first pair, *magnitude* and *size*, differs mainly in formality caused by origin of words. The essential difference between the synonyms is that the term *magnitude* is formal expression due to the origin in Latin. On the other hand, the term *size* is neutral due to the origin in Old French. Besides, *size* has a wider extent of meaning which reflects in the connotative difference.

Another pair is *sugar* and *saccharide*. This pair differs primarily in social component, more specifically in province. The term *saccharide* is written in ISV

(International Scientific Vocabulary) which makes it a scientific term. However, there is secondary difference in connotative meaning while *sugar* has a wider extent of meaning.

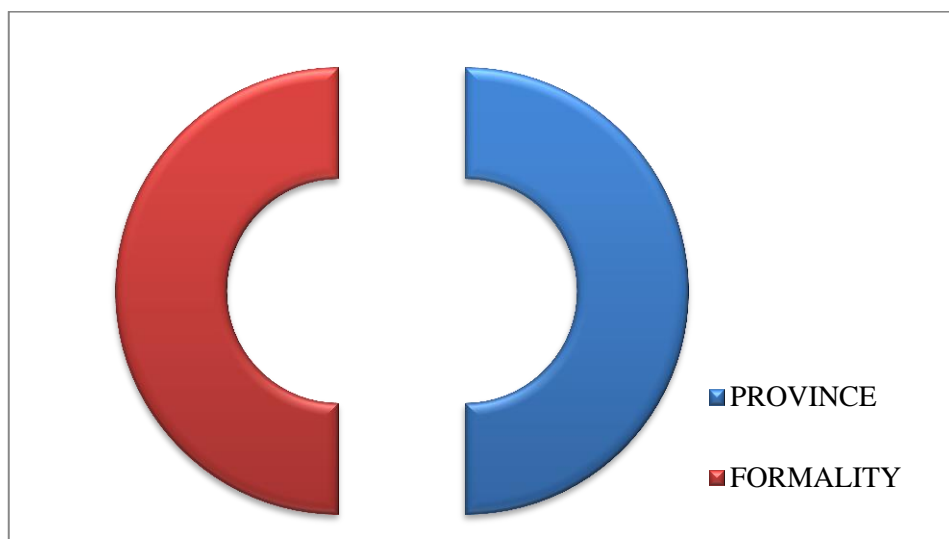
The previous analysis brought the following findings. Difference in connotative meaning occurs between 52 out of 100 pairs in total (52%), both in fiction and academic prose. Consequently, it is more than half of the total number of pairs. For comparison, see **Figure 3**

Figure 3. Occurrence of connotative meaning within functional style



Note: the total of 52 pairs differing in connotative meaning out of 100 pairs of synonyms

Figure 4. Occurrence of connotative meaning as secondary difference along with the primary difference in province or formality in academic prose



Note: the total of 18 out of 50 pairs of synonyms in academic prose

2.2.2.2.3. DIFFERENCES IN SOCIAL MEANING

Fiction and academic prose are rich in synonyms that differ in the **social component of associative meaning**. The category breaks into several subtypes of social meaning. As stated in the theoretical part, Leech (1981: 9) divides social meaning into dialect, time, province, status, modality, and singularity. **Figure 5** shows the distribution of differences in social meaning within the corpora.

Primarily, I am going to focus on components of social meaning that occur in both functional styles. The component of formality can be found both in fiction and academic prose. We may classify formality as belonging to the category related to the status of the participants in communication. However, different aspects of formality are noticed in dependence on functional style.

Occurrence of difference in formality within the synonymous pairs is rather numerous in academic prose. It is more numerous than in fiction (see **Figure 6**). However, the formality is dependent on different factors according to style.

In academic prose, formality is affected by origin of words. Generally, if the word originates in Latin or Greek, it is typically a sign of more formal style. This is common in academic prose. In my corpus there is the total of 17 out of 50 synonymous pairs (36%) that differ in formality due to the origin of one member of the pair in Latin

or Greek. These 17 pairs include 9 pairs that differ primarily in formality based on origin and also in connotative component of meaning.

I would like to demonstrate it on examples. The pair of words number 65 (see Appendix) *petrol* and *gasoline*. The term *petrol* originates in Middle French while the term *gasoline* originates in Latin. It means that *gasoline* is more formal and thus more scientific and suitable for academic prose. Nevertheless, the term *petrol* is generally used by common public in general conversation, the expression. It means its use is more frequent.

Another example may be adduced by a pair number 84 (see Appendix) – *bubble* and *embolism*. This pair differs primarily in formality. It is obvious that the term *embolism* is more formal (origin in Middle Latin) while the term *bubble* originates from Middle Dutch. At the same time, the term *bubble* has a wider extent of meaning. This word expresses not only an obstruction in blood but also body of air or gas within any liquid.

On the other hand, formality in fiction is not dependent on origin of words. The corpus comprises only 4 pairs (8%) out of 50 synonymous pairs found in fiction.

We can illustrate it with several examples. The first example is a pair number 4 (see Appendix). Synonymous verbs *to return* and *to come back* differ in the social component, more specifically in the degree of formality. The verb *to return* is neutral word while the verb *to come back* is informal. The second mentioned verb is informal due to the fact that it is a phrasal verb. It is an indicator of informality. On the other hand, an example number 13 contains adjectives *flabbergasted* and *shocked*. The adjective *flabbergasted* is informal because it is a colloquial expression.

There is another subtype of social component that occurs only in fiction – time. I found 2 out of 50 pairs (4%) in fiction that differ in the component of time which makes 2% out of the entire corpora. One member of the synonymous pair is an archaic word while the other is a contemporary expression. Number 18 (see Appendix) may serve as a good example – *correspondence* and *letters*. The term *correspondence* is not used nowadays which is clear from the dictionary definition. It has been replaced by the more common term *letters*. This difference in time is not possible to find in academic prose because this functional style is dependent on both the semantic accuracy and contemporary terms.

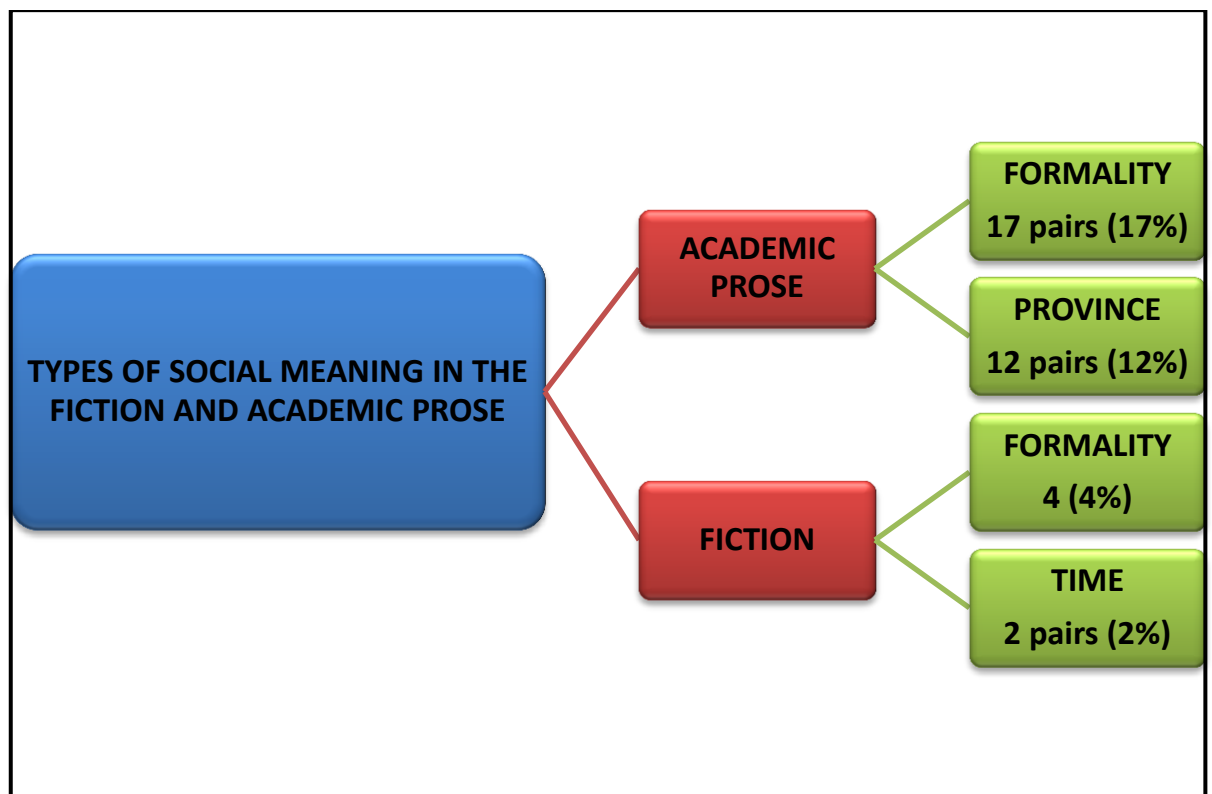
Social meaning contains another subtype that occurs only in academic prose, province. This type called province by Leech (1981) could also be called difference in specialization. According to the corpora I gathered, the province difference means that one term is more scientific than the other. It is 12 pairs that differ in province (24%) in academic prose, out of which 3 pairs differ only in province, and 9 pairs differ primarily in province and secondarily in connotative meaning.

Province can also be the only difference between synonyms, or the primary difference together with secondary connotative difference, as mentioned above.

An example of synonymous pair that differ only in province is a pair number 66 (see Appendix) – nouns *propanane* and *acetone*. The term *propanane* is highly scientific. However, the term *acetone* is generally known, mostly as an ingredient in nail polish. Another example of pair that differs in province and at the same time in connotative meaning is the pair number 82 – *hydrostatics* and *turgor*. The term *hydrostatics* is not as scientific as the term *turgor* and is used in a wider extent of contexts.

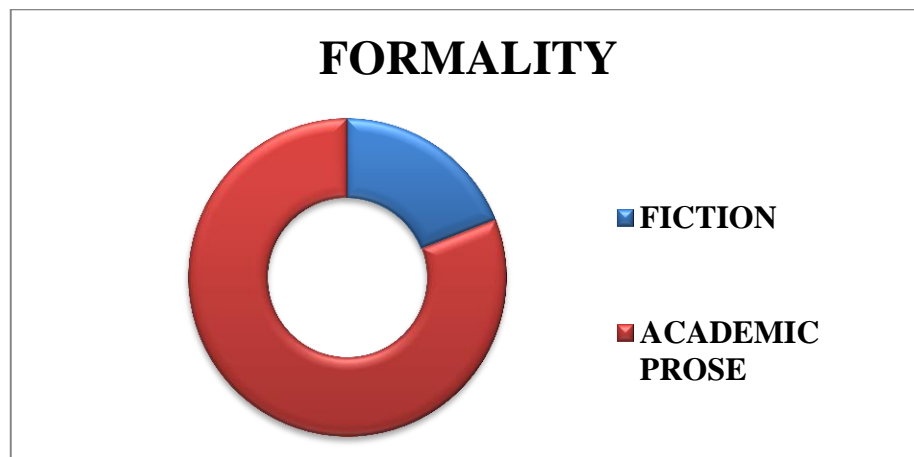
Consequently, 29 out of 50 pairs (60%) in academic prose differ in social meaning and only 6 out of 50 pairs in fiction differ in social meaning. The quantitative outcome makes it obvious that the difference in social meaning is far more numerous in academic prose. However, it needs to be noted that the corpora of 200 samples in total is only a minimum number of possible samples.

Figure 5. Distribution of differences in social meaning



Note: the total of 35 out of 100 pairs differing in the components of social meaning

Figure 6. Occurrence of differences in the component of formality



Note: the total of 23 pairs differing in formality out of 100 pairs of synonyms

2.2.2.2.4. DIFFERENCES IN AFFECTIVE MEANING

The differences in affective component of associative meaning were found in synonymous pairs occurring in both functional styles. Fiction is a typical functional

style where synonyms differing in the **affective** component of meaning are expected to occur numerously. However, it is possible to find synonyms that differ in the affective component also in academic prose but the occurrence is very rare.

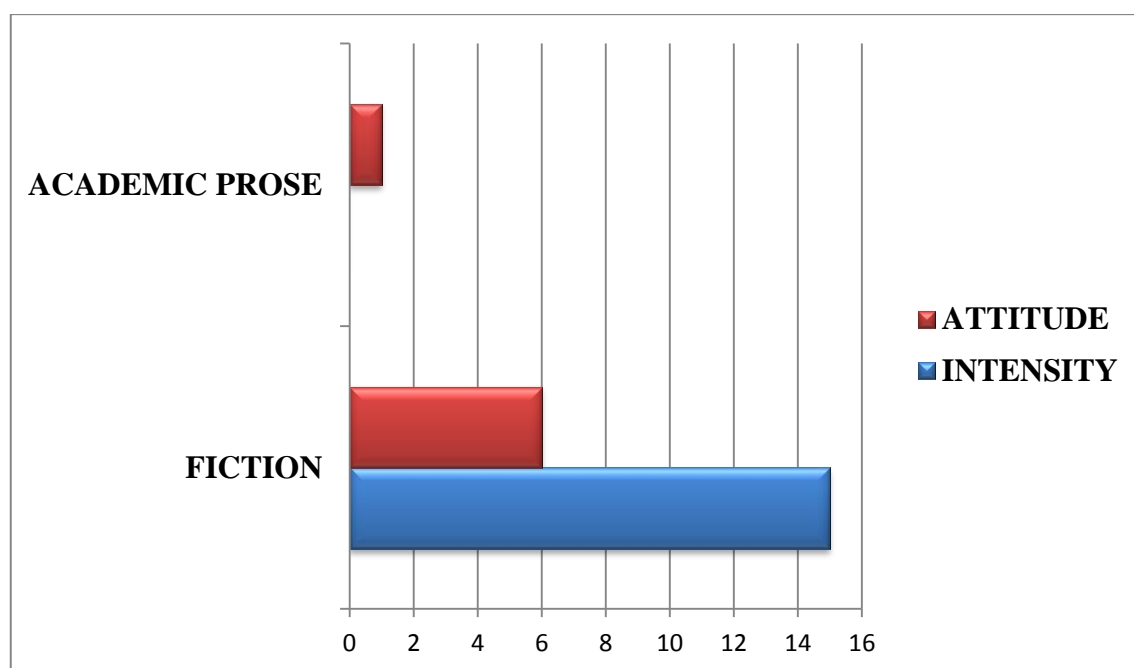
The affective component of meaning can further differ in more aspects. The most typical aspects are intensity of expressions and positive, negative or neutral attitude.

Differences in intensity were found between 15 pairs of synonyms out of 50 pairs, i.e. in 30% of all cases. This number includes also 1 pair where difference in affective meaning is primary but it is also accompanied by the difference in formality, i.e. in social component of the associative meaning. It includes also 2 pairs that differ in intensity and attitude (neutral vs. negative) at the same time. However, academic prose comprises zero synonymous pairs (0%) out of 50 pairs of synonyms.

We shall see examples. The pair number 24 (see Appendix) – *blaze* and *fire* differs only in intensity. The term *blaze* is more intensive which is rather clear from the definition. Another pair number 10 (see Appendix) – *marvellous* and *excellent* differ in intensity and also in formality (*marvellous* is more intensity and more formal). The last example is a pair number 46 (see Appendix) – *intensive* and *callous*. The term *callous* is a bit more intensive and also has slightly more negative connotation.

Another difference in affective meaning is in attitude. Some words express neutral, positive or negative attitude. I expected to find this difference mainly in fiction and my research confirmed the expectation. However, I found 1 pair of synonyms out of 50 pairs, i.e. 2% that differ in this component of meaning in academic prose. In fiction 6 pairs out of 50 were found that differ in attitude, i.e. 12%. For comparison, see **Figure 7**.

Figure 7. Occurrence of components of affective meaning



Note: the total of 22 pairs differing in the affective meaning out of 100 pairs of synonyms

2.2.2.2.5. DIFFERENCES IN COLLOCATIVE MEANING

Collocative and thematic meanings are the only two types of meaning that were found as the difference between synonyms only in one functional style. However, I have to admit that I worked only with minimum number of synonyms so I cannot claim that this difference does not occur in academic prose at all. Nevertheless, the occurrence would be very rare.

Difference in collocative meaning was found only between 4 pairs of 50 pairs in fiction, i.e. 8%. It means it was only 4 pairs out of whole corpus of 100 pairs in total, i.e. 4%.

The pair number 37 (see Appendix) – *to curve* and *to turn* differs in the collocative meaning. The word *to curve* typically occurs in different collocation, for example *the rives curves*. However, we use a phrase *to turn left*, not *to curve left*.

2.2.2.2.6. DIFFERENCES IN THEMATIC MEANING

As mentioned above, the difference in thematic meaning was found only once in the whole corpus, more concretely in fiction. It makes only 1% in total.

The only example I can show is the pair of verbs number 30 – *to destroy* and *to ruin* (see Appendix). Both the words are used in one sentence. Usage of both the words is intended to emphasize information. The word *ruin* is used in embedded sentence to highlight the meaning of the word *destroy*. The organization of the whole sentence helps the reader to understand the importance of the information.

2.2.2.2.7. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Differences between synonyms are summarized in **Table 3** that shows the occurrence of single differences. It has to be stated that there are counted only primary differences, the secondary differences were stated and described above. Consequently, there were not as many differences as I expected in dependence on the character of both types of texts. My assumptions were that difference between synonyms would be far more reaching than the research has shown. Nevertheless, the differences were shown very clearly, especially differences in the components of social and affective meaning. The similarities in connotative meaning are interesting; however it does not belittle the results that differ from expectations.

First of all, I would like to summarize the theories my research proved. I did not expect frequent occurrence of reflected and thematic meaning. Actually, reflected meaning was not found even once which is interesting fact in dependence that this type of meaning should appear in fiction. It is similar with thematic meaning. It definitely was not expected in academic prose which proved to be right hypothesis.

I expected to find connotative meaning in fiction. However, I did not anticipate that so many synonymous pairs would differ in this meaning in academic prose. It is not important whether the difference is primary or secondary. This fact has been rather unpredicted although the study of corpus proved this difference is not uncommon. My opinion why this type of meaning is also common in academic prose is that synonyms that are really close in meaning are certainly rare, even in academic prose. Consequently, synonyms in academic prose are similar to synonyms in fiction in the frequency of occurrence of the connotative meaning.

Unlike connotative meaning, affective meaning showed to occur in the large majority in fiction. Although it was localized once in academic prose, it is only a negligible percentage that shows the possibility of occurrence in academic prose.

Difference in affective meaning in fiction is either in intensity or in attitude, both the differences occur rather frequently.

The opposite situation occurs regarding social meaning. The difference in the social component of the associative meaning represents the major type of differences in the texts of academic prose. Although social meaning is found in fiction, it is dependent on different factors. Differences in formality in academic prose are caused by origin of words. It is an expected difference between synonyms in academic prose since origin of words is a marker of scientific expression, especially expressions originating in Latin and Greek. On the other hand, formality in fiction is not typically caused by origin but other aspects of the functional style.

Collocative meaning is rather rare in fiction and also in academic prose, just as thematic meaning. It is possibly caused by certain situations that it might appear in.

Table 3. Overall occurrence of differences between synonyms according to functional style

Component of meaning	Fiction	Academic prose	Number of differences in given meaning
Reflected	-	-	-
Connotative	18 (36%)	16 (32%)	34 (34%)
Affective	21 (42%)	1 (2%)	22 (22%)
Social	6 (12%)	29 (58%)	35 (35%)
Collocative	4 (8%)	-	4 (4%)
Thematic	1 (2%)	-	1 (1%)
Excluded pairs	-	4 (8%)	4 (4%)
Total	50 (50%)	50 (50%)	100 (100%)

2.2.2.3. OCCURRENCE OF ABSOLUTE SYNONYMY

At this point, we shall pay attention to the last topic. Although it was not the focus of my interest, I do not consider it less interesting. As a potential outcome of this

thesis the occurrence of absolute synonymy was to be observed and quantified. The research of synonymy has brought results that are presented in this chapter.

My hypothesis was that absolute synonymy exists but is extremely rare. I supposed that two absolute synonyms might be found in academic prose but very rarely. However, the research proved my hypothesis wrong. There was always found a certain difference between two synonyms in the corpus of 200 samples.

It has to be stated that synonyms in academic prose are definitely semantically closer than synonyms in fiction. Similarity between synonyms is more distant in most cases in fiction. It depends on the component of meaning in which the synonyms differ. This issue has been described above.

In my interpretation, should absolute synonymy exist, it would not make much sense. Language is supposed to be economic and absolute synonymy would break this rule. The language is constantly changing and so does meaning of words. It would be unreasonable to contain more words with the exactly same meaning for one object. Absolute synonyms should be interchangeable in all possible contexts but what would be the reason? There is no reasonable answer. Some synonyms may seem to be absolute synonyms but there is always some minor difference. Synonyms enrich the language and allow the speaker to choose the most suitable word depending on contextual and stylistic colouring.

In agreement with this interpretation, no two absolute synonyms have been found in the texts. Consequently, the definition of synonyms as words with the same meaning does not seem precise. It should be always stated that synonymy is a relation based on similarity of meanings.

CONCLUSION

The preceding pages have described the findings and results based on the research. It was shown that diversity of styles is clearly demonstrated in the differences of synonyms, respectively in the components of their meaning. The phenomenon of synonymy is very rich and complex, although at first look it seems to be a simple phenomenon which nevertheless deserves to be studied from many different points of view.

Both the theoretical part and research demonstrate the dynamics and richness of language. The findings of the research are only a negligible fraction of language, and even of synonymy. It is even more difficult to make general statement because of the language development which is based on human knowledge, experience and development of mankind, i.e. cultural, social, political, economic or technical development. Nevertheless, the results showed, even though it is not possible to deduce a rule out of it, that there are certainly tendencies to which authors resort when they use synonymy in different functional styles. The authors of fiction shall ensure the richness of language and expressions they use. The authors of academic prose are bound to accuracy and rightness of used expression that clearly explain certain phenomena and are understandable for readers for whom is this type of literature intended.

The complexity of synonymy was clearly outlined in the theoretical part. It was not possible to describe synonymy as a separate phenomenon since the system of language is complicatedly linked. The system consists of many layers and their subclasses that are linked through many common phenomena.

In this thesis, I have tried to provide comprehensive view on synonymy based on theoretical background. One of the most important parts of the theoretical part is defining of meaning in general and definitely the approaches of meaning by linguists, especially by Leech (1981). The study of meaning is a crucial topic of the diploma thesis.

The comparative analysis was based on the total of 200 synonyms that makes 100 pairs of synonyms. A half of the samples were isolated in fiction and the other half in academic prose. It means that 50 samples of synonyms were isolated in each of the four aforementioned publications.

Only four pairs had to be excluded from the analysis of synonyms. The expressions were excluded because periphrastic phrases are not synonymous in the true sense of the word although it seems to be phenomenon that might deserve greater attention for further study.

The remaining synonymous pairs serve as a basis for the study of occurrence of synonyms in dependence on different functional styles. First of all, it was significant to compare the functional styles from a general perspective and summarize its potential impact on the occurrence of synonymy.

A comparative analysis of individual pairs has revealed a few interesting tendencies and it confirmed that the most of assumptions that were presented in the theoretical part proved to be right.

A surprising phenomenon is that academic prose frequently comprises synonyms within one sentence. I was not expected that such a big number of pairs occur within only one sentence. The reason seems to be manifest. Academic prose aims at presenting precise facts. The presentation of knowledge has to be accurate. Presenting scientific expressions together with more neutral expressions within one sentence helps the reader understand the text.

Another issue is that many synonymous pairs differ in more than one component of meaning. It was occasionally very difficult to decide which component of meaning has a greater value. It was typically helpful to compare contexts.

The first point that has been definitely proved is that most synonyms occur within nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs. Almost half of the isolated pairs were within nouns (48 out of 100 pairs in the corpora, i.e. 48%) and the other half within the other mentioned types of parts of speech.

Turning to individual types of meaning, difference in reflected meaning was not found in the corpus even once. This fact was not a surprise because it would be necessary to study more kinds of functional styles and definitely more sources of texts. Reflected meaning might an interesting phenomenon for further study.

It appeared that connotative meaning is most readily identifiable and it was the most frequent type of difference in synonymous pairs in the corpus. It was sufficient to compare definitions of words. Concerning academic prose, in a few cases it was required to consult the problem with a specialist in the field of biology or chemistry. Regarding the frequency of occurrence of differences in connotative meaning, the both

functional styles are rich sources of differences in connotative meaning. It cannot be said that one of the styles is more resourceful. The only difference is that synonyms in academic prose primarily differ in a different type of meaning and difference in connotative meaning is not so important in given contexts.

Regarding the quantitative outcome of the research, difference in connotative meaning occurs in 52 pairs out of 100 pairs in total, i.e. 52%. It means that connotative meaning was identified in more than half samples. It is definitely the most typical difference between two synonyms.

The findings of the research were in some respects quite remarkable. As for social meaning, difference was more frequently identified between synonyms in academic prose. It was expected that social meaning would occur within both the styles. However, it was noteworthy to compare the synonyms differing in social meaning in fiction and academic prose. I actually expected to find more synonyms differing in origin in academic prose. In my corpus of collected samples from texts of academic prose there is the total of 17 out of 50 synonymous pairs (36%) that differ in formality due to origin.

Another unexpected result is the difference in time. Whereas I found 2 pairs out of 50 pairs in fiction (4%) that differ in the component of time it seems to be uncommon nowadays to use archaic expressions. The use of an archaic expression need to be motivated, for example as in fantasy literature where such expressions help to create a right image suitable for the style.

Difference in province, according to the corpora I gathered, were identified 12 pairs (24%) in academic prose. However, it is not so simple to identify this type of difference. On the basis of my expectations, it should be a significant difference in most cases but the research proved it is not, mainly because both the synonyms were scientific and the difference was hidden in another aspect.

Regarding differences in affective meaning, we talk mostly about intensity and attitude. Surprisingly, I found 1 pair of synonyms out of 50 pairs, i.e. 2% that differ in attitude in academic prose; the rarity reflects the fact that affection is not appropriate for this kind of text.

My research was specific due to the focus on certain functional styles which means there might be many other possibilities for the study of synonymy. Synonymy might be studied from many other perspectives. It might be fascinating to study

individual types of meaning separately, especially those which are rare, or it would be possible to study conditions under which they are used, e.g. regarding the collocative and thematic components of meaning.

The topic of synonymy is very wide and interesting. It would be appropriate to study synonymy in a more detailed study, possibly in a narrower view. Description of the use and occurrence of synonymy might be studied within a larger amount of samples. This thesis is only a negligible part of the topic but it could be a starting point for more comprehensive research.

RESUMÉ

Zjištění a výsledky výzkumu byly detailně popsány v předchozích kapitolách. Byly prokázány jasné výsledky rozdílů mezi synonymy v odlišných stylech textů. Tento jev je velmi bohatý a komplexní, ačkoliv se na první pohled může zdát jednoduchý. Synonymie je tak obsáhlá, že nabízí mnoho možností k dalšímu výzkumu.

Jak teoretická, tak praktická část výzkumu ukazují dynamiku a bohatost jazyka jako celku. Závěry mého výzkumu jsou pouze zanedbatelnou částí jazyka, proto je velmi složité, spíše téměř nemožné, vyvodit obecné závěry. Důvodem je také to, že jazyk se stále vyvíjí a význam synonym se stále mění a posunuje. Důvodem jsou změny kulturní, sociální, technické, nebo ekonomické. Nicméně výsledky ukázaly, i když z nich není možné vyvozovat pravidlo, určité tendence, k nimž se autoři při použití synonymie v jednotlivých funkčních stylech uchylují. Autoři krásné literatury dbají na bohatost jazyka a výrazů, které používají. Autoři akademické prózy jsou vázáni na přesnost a správnost použitých výrazů, které jasně vystihují dané jevy a jsou pochopitelné pro čtenáře, jimž je tento typ literatury určený.

Provázanost synonymie s ostatními vrstvami lingvistiky bylo popsáno v teoretické části. Není možné popsat synonymii jako samostatný jev, protože systém jazyka je provázaný na mnoha úrovních.

V této diplomové práci jsem se snažila poskytnout ucelený pohled na synonymii na základě teoretického popisu. Jedním z nejdůležitějších bodů je popis ,významu‘ jako obecně, tak z hlediska pohledů významných lingvistů. Studium ,významu‘ je klíčové téma této práce. Co se jednotlivých typů týče, použila jsem terminologii Geoffreyho Leech (1981), která nejpřesněji popisuje jednotlivé rozdíly ve ,významu‘.

Srovnávací analýza je založena na celkovém počtu 200 příkladů synonym, které dohromady činí 100 párů synonym. Polovina vzorků byla excerpována z publikací krásné literatury a polovina z odborné literatury. To znamená, že vždy 25 párů synonym bylo izolováno v každém ze čtyř použitých zdrojů.

Z celkového počtu 100 párů byly vyloučeny 4 páry synonym. Důvodem bylo, že tyto páry neobsahují synonymní páry, ale vždy jednu perifrastickou (tj. opisnou) frázi. Tyto fráze nebyly nahrazeny synonymními páry, protože se tento jev ukázal jako velmi

zajímavá tendence opisného vysvětlení vědeckého termínu pro nevědeckou veřejnost. Z mého hlediska tento jev nabízí další možné lingvistické bádání.

Dalších 96 párů slouží jako základ pro výzkum výskytu synonymie na základě určitého funkčního stylu. Nejdříve ze všeho bylo důležité srovnání krásné a odborné literatury z obecného hlediska a shrnout přímé vlivy funkčních stylů na výskyt synonymie.

Srovnávací analýza jednotlivých synonymních párů prokázala několik zajímavých tendencí, ačkoliv většina předpokladů, které byly prezentovány v teoretické části, se prokázala.

Jedním z překvapivých jevů, které se během výzkumu dvojic synonym objevil, je fakt, že odborná literatura velmi často obsahuje synonyma pouze v rámci jediné věty. Neočekávala jsem tak velké množství párů vyskytujících se v jediné větě. Za tímto jevem stojí jednoduchý důvod. Cílem odborné literatury je prezentovat přesná fakta vyjádřená co nejpřesněji. Uvedení synonyma s obecnějším významem v rámci jedné věty pomáhá nevědecké veřejnosti k pochopení daného textu.

Dalším častým jevem je vícečetný rozdíl mezi dvěma synonymy. V některých případech bylo složité rozhodnout, která z daných komponent významu je důležitější. K rozhodnutí zpravidla postačovalo srovnat daný kontext.

Rozbor výsledků s jistotou prokázal, že většina synonym se vyskytuje mezi podstatnými jmény, přídavnými jmény, slovesy a příslovci. Téměř polovina celkového počtu synonymních párů byla podstatná jména, tj. 24 párů (48%) a další polovina mezi zmíněnými typy slovních druhů.

Co se týče jednotlivých rozdílů mezi synonymy, pouze reflektovaný význam (*reflected meaning*) nebyl ani v jediném případě, což nebylo velkým překvapením. Pro studium tohoto významu by bylo nutné prostudovat větší množství funkčních stylů a nepochybně větší množství zdrojů textu.

Zcela opačně se prokázal výskyt rozdílů v konotativním významu (*connotative meaning*), jež byl nejčastěji nalezeným rozdílem. Pro prokázání tohoto typu významu bylo nutné srovnat jednotlivé definice daných slov. Pouze v případě několika odborných výrazů bylo nutné problém konzultovat s odborníkem v oboru biologie a chemie. Oba funkční styly jsou bohatými zdroji synonym odlišujících se v tomto významu. Jediným rozdílem bylo, že synonyma v odborné literatuře se odlišují primárně v jiném významu a rozdíl v konotativním významu je až sekundární.

Pro srovnání, rozdíl v konotativním významu byl objeven mezi 52 páry z celkového počtu 100 párů, tj. 52%. To znamená, že byl objeven ve více než polovině ze všech zkoumaných párů.

Výsledky výzkumu ale byly v některých ohledech pozoruhodné. Rozdíly v sociálním významu (*social meaning*) byly nalezeny zejména v odborné literatuře. Předpokládala jsem výskyt synonym odlišujících se v tomto významu, ale zajímavé bylo srovnání jednotlivých synonym na základě funkčních stylů. Domnívala jsem se, že v odborné literatuře bude nalezeno více dvojic lišících se v původu slov (*origin*), tj. ve formálním aspektu sociálního významu. Nalezeno bylo celkem 17 párů z 50 synonymních dvojic (36%) lišících se ve formalitě v rámci odborné literatury.

Dalším neočekávaným výsledkem je rozdíl v komponentě času (*time*). Jelikož jsem identifikovala pouze 2 z 50 párů v krásné literatuře (tj. 4%) lišících se v komponentě času, je neobvyklé v současné době používat archaické výrazy. Použití těchto výrazů má jistý význam, jakožto ve fantastické literatuře například navodit nejvhodnější obraz v mysli čtenáře.

Rozdíl ve specializaci (*province*) byl identifikován mezi 12 páry, tj. 12% v odborné literatuře. Nicméně není jednoduché identifikovat tento významový rozdíl. Výzkum neprokázal očekávání velmi častého výskytu v rámci odborné literatury. Pravděpodobný důvod je takový, že často obě synonymy páru byla vědecké výrazy a nejvýznačnější rozdíl se skrýval v jiném aspektu.

Co se týče rozdílu v citovém významu (*affective meaning*), jedná se nejčastěji o rozdíl v intenzitě nebo postoji. Překvapivě byl v jednom případě identifikován rozdíl mezi synonymy v odborné literatuře, což je velmi vzácný jev.

Můj výzkum byl specifický kvůli zaměření na určité funkční styly, z čehož vyplývá, že synonymie nabízí mnoho dalších možností pro bádání. Synonymii by bylo možné zkoumat z mnoha dalších perspektiv. Mohlo by být velmi zajímavé zabývat se jednotlivých typy významů odděleně, speciálně těmi, které se vyskytují výjimečně. Dále existuje možnost zkoumat podmínky, díky kterým se tyto významy vyskytují.

Téma synonymie je velmi široké a nabízí velké spektrum pohledů na ni. Bylo by vhodné zkoumat synonymii více do detailů, v užším pohledu. Popis použití a výskytu synonymie by mohlo být zkoumáno na větším množství vzorků synonym. Tato diplomová práce se zabývá pouze zanedbatelnou částí, ale mohla by být základem pro další výzkum.

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APPENDIX

I. J.R.R.TOLKIN - THE LORD OF THE RINGS (THE FELLOWSHIP OF THE RING)

1) FOLK (JRRT) chapter 1 – PEOPLE (JRRT)

(1) *The history and character of Mr. Bilbo Baggins became once again the chief topic of conversation; and the older folk suddenly found their reminiscences in welcome demand.*

Definition in CIDOE: syn. PEOPLE, people, esp. tose of a particular group or type

(2) *People became enthusiastic; and they began to tick off the days on the calendar; and they watched eagerly for the postman, hoping for invitations.*

Definition in CIDOE: men, women and children

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The difference between two words is connotative because the meaning is slightly different though the denotation is the same. They are not interchangeable in all contexts. They share the meaning of ‘people’; however the word ‘folk’ is has typically more narrow extent of meaning. In the first sentence, it includes all the ‘older people’.

2) THE RICHES (JRRT27) – THE WEALTH (JRRT27)

(3) *The riches he had brought back from his travels had now become a local legend, and it was popularly believed, whatever the old folk might say, that the Hill at Bag End was full of tunnels stuffed with treasure.*

Definition in WTNID: pl., RICHNESS, WEALTH

(4) *There were some that shook their heads and thought this was too much of a good thing; it seemed unfair that anyone should possess (apparently) perpetual youth as well as (reputedly) inexhaustible wealth.*

Definition in WTNID: large possessions, AFFLUENCE, RICHES

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech’s classification. The two words have exactly the same meaning in this context; however they refer to different

object without context. The expression 'wealth' gives us more space for visualising of the content of this word. The word 'wealth' gives us more possibilities for imagining not only material possessions, but the word 'riches' sounds clearly as material wealth. The word 'riches' is better fitting in the first sentence, from the point of the position of the word in the sentence and 'riches' is more formal than 'wealth'. But the difference between them is very small, as suggested in the dictionary where both of them were found as synonyms.

3) **TO LOOK FOR** (JRRT29) - **TO FIND** (JRRT42)

(5) *It beats me why any Baggins of Hobbiton should go **looking for** a wife away there in Buckland, where folks are so queer.*

Definition in WTNID: to search for – SEEK

(6) *I might **find** somewhere where I can finish my book.*

Definition in WTNID: to come upon (a material or object) by searching or effort

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – informal vs. neutral

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The meaning is almost the same but phrasal verb is more informal than individual word which is more neutral.

4) **TO RETURN** (JRRT27) – **TO COME BACK** (JRRT30)

(7) *Bilbo was very rich and very peculiar, and had been the wonder of the Shire for sixty years, ever since his remarkable disappearance and unexpected **return**.*

Definition in WTNID: to go back or come back again (as to a place, person, or condition)

(8) *And then he **comes back** and orders them off; and he goes on living and living, and never looking a day older, bless him!*

Definition in WTNID: to return to life or vitality

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – neutral vs. informal

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. It is the same case as the previous pair because phrasal verb is not so formal or neutral. The phrasal verb is due to it farther from the denotative meaning.

5) **TO RETORT** (JRRT31) – **TO REPLY** (JRRT50)

(9) *'And you can say what you like, about what you know no more of than you do of boating, Mr. Sandyman,' **retorted** the Gaffer, disliking the miller even more than usual.*

Definition in WTNID: a quick sharp witty cutting or severe reply

(10) *When Frodo **replied** that only the things specially directed by Bilbo were being given away, they said the whole affair was very fishy.*

Definition in WTNID: to respond on words or writing, syn. ANSWER

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – negative vs. neutral attitude

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. The verb 'retort' has the same meaning as 'reply' but it has added sharp tone with negative connotation while the verb 'reply' is neutral, more general term.

6) **SORT** (JRRT69) – **KIND** (JRRT33)

(11) *He had a friend called Déagol, of similar **sort**, sharper-eyed but not so quick and strong.*

Definition in WTNID: a group or kind established or set up permanently or temporarily on the basis of any characteristic in common

(12) *There might have been some grumbling about 'dealing locally', but that very week orders began to pour out of Bag End for every **kind** of provision, commodity, or luxury that could be obtained in Hobbiton or Bywater or anywhere in the neighbourhood.*

Definition in WTNID: a group united by common traits or interests: CATEGORY, CLASS or a specific variety: TYPE, BRAND

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: collocative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the collocative meaning according to Leech's classification. The meanings of the words overlap each other. The internal meaning is the same but the difference is between contexts they appear in and between the words they typically appear in collocations. It depends on the context which words fit better and is more

suitable. The difference between these two words – ‘sort’ and ‘kind’ – is very small because they can be switched in many contexts but I see the biggest difference in words or phrases they appear in. For example: all ‘sorts of something’ as categorizing, ‘he was kind of disappointed’ or ‘he is one of a kind’.

7) **ENTHUSIASTIC** (JRRT33) - **EXCITED** (JRRT35)

(13) *People became **enthusiastic**; and they began to tick off the days on the calendar; and they watched eagerly for the postman, hoping for invitations.*

Definition in WTNID: filled with, characterized by, or manifesting enthusiasm – ZEALOUS, ARDENT

(14) *The hobbit-children were so **excited** that for a while they almost forgot about eating.*

Definition in WTNID: to rouse to feeling: kindle to passionate emotion

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – different level of intensity

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. The term ‘excite’ is bit more intensive than the term ‘enthusiastic’. Both the words have the same denotative meaning as ‘showing or expressing emotions’ which is apparent from the definitions but they are understood on different levels of enjoyment, intensity of emotions. The word ‘enthusiastic’ is more general while the word ‘excited’ expresses very strong emotions, according to the definition it is passionate.

8) **LARGE** (JRRT34) – **ENORMOUS** (JRRT34)

(15) *There was especially **large** pavilion, so big that the tree that grew in the field was right inside it, and stood proudly near one end, at the head of the chief table.*

Definition in WTNID: exceeding most other things of like kind in bulk, capacity, quantity, superficial dimensions, or number of constituent units, of considerable magnitude

(16) *More promising still (to the hobbits’ mind): an **enormous** open-air kitchen was erected in the north corner of the field.*

Definition in WTNID: marked by extraordinarily great size, amount, number, degree, scope intensity, or significance

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – different level of intensity

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. The term ‘enormous’ is more intensive and it has a wider extent than the term ‘large’. These two words differ in a level of size because ‘large’ is a more general term.

9) **TO VANISH** (JRRT34) – **TO DISAPPEAR** (JRRT52)

*(17) The sun got up, the clouds **vanished**, flags were unfurled and the fun began.*

Definition in WTNID: to disappear entirely, to disappear by departing or to disappear by passing out of existence, syn. DISAPPEAR

*(18) Honestly, I nearly tried on Bilbo’s ring. I longed to **disappear**.*

Definition in WTNID: to cease to appear or to be perceived, become lost, syn. VANISH

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech’s classification. The two words share the internal meaning as ‘to disappear’. The context is very important in this case. The verb ‘to vanish’ is on higher level – to disappear entirely, according to the dictionary. It has a sense of suddenness and finality. When something vanishes, disappearance is irreversible. ‘To disappear’ is a more general term which is not finite.

10) **MARVELLOUS** (JRRT38) – **EXCELLENT** (JRRT39)

*(19) Most of them bore the mark DALE on them; which did not convey much to most of the hobbits, but they all agreed they were **marvellous** crackers.*

Definition in WTNID: of the highest kind or quality, notable superior, EXCELLENT

*(20) First of all, to tell you that I am immensely fond of you all, and that eleventy-one years is too short a time to live among such **excellent** and admirable hobbits.*

Definition in WTNID: of high station, rank, or office – used as a title or in a mode of address and often capacity

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – different level of intensity + formal vs. neutral

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. The term ‘marvellous’ is bit more intensive than the term ‘excellent’ which noticeable from the definitions. It expresses something even better than excellent. At the same time the term ‘marvellous’ is more formal term and typical of elevated texts rather than common situations. It is not as general as ‘excellent’.

11) **MERRY** (JRRT38) – **JOLLY** (JRRT64)

(21) *Indeed, in one corner some of the young Took and Brandybucks, supposing Uncle Bilbo to have finished (since he had plainly said all that was necessary), now got up an impromptu orchestra, and began a **merry** dance-tune.*

Definition in WTNID: a full of gaiety or high spirits marked by animation or vivacity

(22) *It would be a grievous blow to the world, if the Dark Power overcame the Shire; if all your kind, **jolly**, stupid Bolgers, Hornblowers, Boffins, Bracegirdles, and the rest, not to mention the ridiculous Bagginses, became enslaved.*

Definition in WTNID: extremely pleasant or agreeable – DELIGHTFUL, SPLENDID, BULLY, syn. MERRY

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – different level of intensity

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. The term ‘jolly’ is bit more intensive than the term ‘merry’ which is rather mild. The word ‘jolly’ is on a different level of enjoyment, experience which is noticeable in the dictionary definition which says it is ‘extremely pleasant’. It is stronger expression of emotions than ‘merry’ which is more general.

12) **REMARKABLE** (JRRT39) – **STRANGE** (JRRT48)

(23) *Your numbers were chosen to fit this **remarkable** total: One Gross, if I may use the expression.*

Definition in WTNID: uncommon, extraordinary

(24) *Rumours of **strange** events had by now spread all over the field, but Frodo would only say no doubt everything will be cleared up in the morning.*

Definition in WTNID: exciting attention, curiosity surprise, wonder, or awe because of novelty, eccentricity, or exceptional greatness, power, or attributes, out of the ordinary, strikingly uncommon or unnatural – UNUSUAL, EXTRAORDINARY

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective - neutral or slightly positive connotation vs. negative connotation

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. There is a difference in affective meaning *since* ‘strange’ has a negative connotation in the context of this sentence as something unusual in a bad way. However, the word ‘remarkable’ has a neutral connotation as something extraordinary.

13) **FLABBERGASTED** (JRRT40) – **SHOCKED** (JRRT55)

(25) *One hundred and forty-four flabbergasted hobbits sat back speechless.*

Definition in WTNID: flabbergast = to overwhelm with shock, surprise, or wonder (as by extraordinary statements or unexpected news)

Definition in CIDOE: flabbergast usually passive, *informal* to shock (someone) usually by telling them something they were not expecting

(26) *Some people were rather shocked; but Frodo kept up the custom of giving Bilbo’s Birthday Party year after year until they got used to it.*

Definition in WTNID: passive from shock, shock = to strike with surprise, terror, horror, or disgust, strongly affect

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – informal vs. neutral

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The two words differ in style. The first word ‘flabbergasted’ is, as the definition says, informal expression. The term ‘shocked’ is a term more spread among common users. It is caused on account of its neutral style.

14) **ABSURD** (JRRT40) – **RIDICULOUS** (JRRT40)

(27) *Even the Tooks (with a few exceptions) thought Bilbo’s behaviour was absurd.*

Definition in WTNID: marked by an obvious lack of reason, common sense, proportion, or accord with accepted ideas, ridiculously unreasonable, unsound, or incongruous

(28) *For the moment most of them took it for granted that his disappearance was nothing more than a ridiculous prank.*

Definition in WTNID: fit or likely to excite ridicule, unworthy of serious consideration – ABSURD, COMICAL, FUNNY, PROPOSTEROUS

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech's classification. It means that the two words refer to slightly different notions. Both the terms overlap in the meaning as 'something unreasonable' or 'without consideration' but the term 'absurd' is extremely unreasonable and incomprehensible while the term 'ridiculous' extremely foolish, funny which makes people laugh.

15) **JOKE** (JRRT40)– **PRANK** (JRRT40)

(29) *It was generally agreed that the **joke** was in very bad taste, and more food and drink were needed to cure the guests of shock and annoyance.*

Definition in WTNIID: something said or done to amuse or provoke laughter, something funny or humorous, syn. JEST, JAPE, CRACK, GAG

(30) *For the moment most of them took it for granted that his disappearance was nothing more than a ridiculous **prank**.*

Definition in WTNIID: a gay or sportive action, a ludicrous or mildly mischievous act – FROLIC, CAPER, PRACTICAL JOKE

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in the connotative component of meaning. It means that the two words refer to slightly different notions. Both the terms mean 'to make somebody laugh or something amusing' but the term 'prank' has a little bit wider extent of meaning. Both the words 'joke' and 'prank' overlap each in the meaning mentioned above but 'prank' can be practical a practical act. On the other hand 'joke' is when something funny is said.

16) **MANUSCRIPT** (JRRT41) – **BOOK** (JRRT41)

(31) *He then went into his study, and from a large strong-box took out a bundle wrapped in old cloths, and a leather-bound **manuscript**; and also a large bulky envelope.*

Definition in WTNIID: Latin manu scriptus = written by hand, a handwritten composition that has not been printed, a written or typewritten document as distinguished from a printed copy

(32) The **book** and bundle he stuffed into the top of a heavy bag that was standing there, already nearly full.

Definition in WTNID: a formal written document

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in the connotative component of meaning. It means that the two words refer to slightly different notions. Both the terms mean ‘a written composition’. Typically, each of the words appears in different contexts which show the difference in meaning. For example ‘manuscript’ appears in texts about history but ‘books’ do not. We can say ‘hand-written manuscript’ but about book we would say ‘printed book’. The difference is that each of the words refers to a slightly different object even the core meaning overlaps.

17) **TO LOOK AFTER** (JRRT45) – **TO TAKE CARE OF** (JRRT46)

(33) Give it to Frodo, and I will **look after** him.

Definition in WTNID: to attend to, to care of, see to the safety of well-being of

(34) **Take care of yourself!**

Definition in WTNID: to attend to the needs, operation, or treatment of

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: collocative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the collocative meaning according to Leech’s classification. The meanings of the words overlap each other. The internal meaning is the same but the difference is between contexts they appear in and between the words they typically appear in collocations. It depends on the context which words fit better and is more suitable.

18) **CORRESPONDENCE** (JRRT48) – **LETTERS** (JRRT49)

(35) For DORA BAGGINS in memory of a LONG **correspondence**, with love from Bilbo; on a large waste-paper basket.

Definition in WTNID: *archaic*: the letters exchanged by correspondents, also any communication by letter

(36) Milo never answered **letters**.

Definition in WTNID: a written or printed message intended for the perusal only of the person or organization to whom it is addressed or such a message enclosed in an addressed envelope and usually sealed

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – archaic vs. contemporary expression

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech's classification. The difference in meaning is in time, i.e. 'correspondence' is an archaic expression which is not used frequently any more whereas 'letter' is commonly used word for a message nowadays.

19) **CAPITAL** (JRRT49) – **CHIEF** (JRRT50)

(37) *Rory quite forgave Bilbo, and voted him a **capital** fellow after the first bottle.*

Definition in WTNID: *archaic* – having authority or pre-eminence, most important – CHIEF

(38) *And, of course, all the **chief** treasures, as well as the books, pictures, and more than enough furniture, were left in his possession.*

Definition in WTNID: marked by greatest importance, significance, influence – SALIENT

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – archaic vs. contemporary expression

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech's classification. The first expression 'capital' of the pair is archaic expression which is not used very frequently any more while 'chief' is current expression used nowadays.

20) **LEGEND** (JRRT51) – **STORY** (JRRT52)

(39) *The **legend** of Bilbo's gold excited both curiosity and hope; for legendary gold (mysteriously obtained, if not positively ill-gotten), is, as everyone knows, anyone's for the finding – unless the search is interrupted.*

Definition in WTNID: a story coming down from the past or a popular myth usually of current or recent origin

(40) *He told me the true **story** soon after I came to live here.*

Definition in WTNID: a connected narrative of important events, esp. of the remote past

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech's classification. Both the expression refers to slightly different meaning even though the core meaning (narrative) is the same. Thus the difference is in the notion of the referents. The difference between meanings of two nouns 'legend' and 'story' is connotative because 'story' is usually connected with telling something true but 'legend' is based on speculations. 'Legend' can be based on true past events but nobody can prove it and the version could change during the time. But 'story' is told usually about recent events which really happened.

21) **WOODS** (JRRT56) – **FOREST** (JRRT155)

*(41) Frodo went tramping over the Shire with them; but more often he wandered by himself, and to the amazement of sensible folk he was sometimes seen far from home walking in the hill and **woods** under the starlight.*

Definition in WTNID: a dense growth of trees usu. greater in extent than a grove and smaller than a forest, archaic: **FOREST**

*(42) There was a sound as of a wind rising and spreading outwards to the branches of all the other trees round about, as though they had dropped a stone into the quiet slumber of the river-valley and set up ripples of anger that ran out over the whole **Forest**.*

Definition in WTNID: a dense growth of trees and underbrush covering a large tract of land

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech's classification. The two words have exactly the same meaning as 'the dense growth of trees; however there are slight differences. Particularly, it is mostly about the extent of the growth of trees. It means that the term 'forest' has a greater extent than the term 'woods'. The words 'forest' should impress on the reader with impression of greatness, something big. The expression 'wood' does not allow anything like that. It is smaller than 'forest'.

22) **OMINOUS** (JRRT56) – **DREADFUL** (JRRT57)

(43) *So it went on, until his forties were running out, and his fiftieth birthday was drawing near: fifty was a number that he felt was somehow significant (or **ominous**); it was at any rate at that age that adventure had suddenly befallen Bilbo.*

Definition in WTNID: indicative of future misfortune or calamity, causing anxiety and fear, potentially disastrous

(44) *Trolls were abroad, no longer dull-witted, but cunning and armed with **dreadful** weapons.*

Definition in WTNID: full of dread and terror, inspiring dread, causing great fear:
FRIGHTENING

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – different level of intensity

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. The second expression of this pair, ‘dreadful’, expresses greater intensity of something causing fear. The word ‘ominous’ is expressing something causing anxiety but ‘dreadful’ is something causing great fear.

23) **TO SNIFF** (JRRT96) – **TO SMELL** (JRRT98)

(45) *From inside the hood came a noise as of someone **sniffing** to catch an elusive scent; the head turned from side to side of the road.*

Definition in CIDOE: to take air in through your nose noisily and in one action, usually to stop the liquid inside the nose from flowing out, or to smell something by taking air in through your nose

(46) *‘Still, there may be no connexion between this rider and the Gaffer’s stranger,’ said Pippin. ‘We left Hobbiton secretly enough, and I don’t see how he could have followed us.’*

*‘What about that **smelling**, sir?’ said Sam. And the Gaffer said he was a black chap.*

Definition in CIDOE: the characteristic of something that can be recognized or noticed using the nose

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in the connotative component of meaning. It means that the two words refer to slightly different notions.

Both the terms mean 'to notice by nose, to take air through the nose' but the term 'to sniff' has a little different meaning in the sense of what the word refers to. 'Sniffing' in this case is noisy, even the meaning of recognizing something by the nose stays the same.

24) **BLAZE** (JRRT) – **FIRE** (JRRT) chapter 10

(47) *Merry was not there, and the **fire** had burned low.*

Definition in CIDOE: the big fire

(48) *It was not until they had puffed up the embers into a **blaze** and thrown on a couple of faggots that they discovered Strider had come with them.*

Definition in CIDOE: syn. FLAMES, (material that is in) the state of burning that produces flames which send out heat and light, and might produce smoke

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – different level of intensity

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. The term 'blaze' is more intensive than the term 'fire' which is clear from the dictionary definition. Both the words include the meaning 'fire' but the word 'blaze' has a greater intensity of fire.

25) **COMPANION** (JRRT) chapter 10 – **FELLOW** (JRRT) – chapter 5

(49) *'Even if I wanted another **companion**, I should not agree to any such thing, until I knew a good deal more about you, and your business.'*

Definition in CIDOE: a person you spend a lot of time with either because you are friends or because you are travelling together

(50) *Sam is an excellent **fellow**, and would jump down a dragon's throat to save you, if he did not trip over his own feet; but you will need more than one companion in your dangerous adventure.'*

Definition in WTNID: a member of a company or group having common characteristics or common interests

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech's classification. The two words have exactly the same meaning in this context; however they refer to different

object without context. It means that the term ‘companion’ has a narrower meaning than the term ‘fellow’. ‘Companion’ refers typically to a person with you travel together while ‘fellows’ can have more common interests.

II. V. WOOLF – MRS. DALLOWAY

26) AWFUL (VW5) – TERRIBLE (VW26)

(51) *How fresh, how calm, stiller than this of course, the air was in the early morning; like the flap of a wave; the kiss of a wave; chill and sharp and yet (for a girl of eighteen as she then was) solemn, feeling as she did, standing there at the open window, that something **awful** was about to happen; looking at the flowers, at the trees with the smoke winding off them and the rooks rising, falling, standing and looking until Peter Walsh said, “Musing among the vegetables?” – was that it? – “I prefer men to cauliflowers” – was that is?*

Definition in WTNID: extremely unpleasant, disagreeable, or objectionable

(52) *She could not sit beside him when he stared so and did not see her and made everything terrible; sky and tree, children playing, dragging carts, blowing whistles, falling down; all were **terrible**.*

Definition in WTNID: tending to appeal – DREADFUL, or of very poor quality – AWFUL

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – different level of intensity

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. The term ‘terrible’ is more intensive than the term ‘awful’. It is easily noticeable from the dictionary definitions.

27) GRUMPINESS (VW5) – BITTERNESS (VW9)

(53) *He would be back from India one of these days, June or July, she forgot which, for his letters were awfully dull; it was his sayings one remembered; his eyes, his pocket-knife, his smile, his **grumpiness** and, when millions of things had utterly vanished – how strange it was! – a few sayings like this about cabbages.*

Definition in WTNID: the quality or state of being grumpy (=moodily cross)

(54) *For they might be parted for hundreds of years, she and Peter; she never wrote a letter and his were dry sticks; but suddenly it would come over her, if he were with me now what would he say? – some days, some sights bringing his back to her calmly, without the old **bitterness**; which perhaps was the reward of having cared for people; they came back in the middle of St. James's Park on a fine morning – indeed they did.*

Definition in WTNID: the quality or state of being bitter (=distasteful to the mind)

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – neutral vs. negative connotation

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. The two words would not be synonyms in different contexts. It is necessary to look at the precise context. The meanings of the words overlap in the notion that it is the state of mind reflected in the behaviour. The obvious difference in meaning of these adjectives is in affective section because 'grumpiness' does not have such a negative connotation as 'bitterness'. Being grumpy does not sound as bad as being bitter. 'Bitterness' is harsh expression.

28) **CHARMING** (VW6) – **ADORABLE** (VW9)

(55) *A **charming** woman, Scrope Purvis thought her (knowing her as one does know people who live next door to one in Westminster); a touch of the bird about her, of the jay, blue-green, light, vivacious, though she was over fifty, and grown very white since her illness.*

Definition in WTNID: marked by compelling attraction or appeal

(56) *When his old mother wanted him to give up shooting or to take her to Bath he did it, without a word; he was really unselfish, and as for saying, as Peter did, that he had no heart, no brain, nothing but the manners and breeding of an English gentleman, that was only her dear Peter at his worst; and he could be intolerable; he could be impossible; but **adorable** to walk with on a morning like this.*

Definition in WTNID: extremely charming or lovable

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – different level of intensity

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. The term 'adorable' is more intensive than the

term 'charming' which is not so intensive. The intensity of 'adorable' is much stronger than the intensity of 'charming' which is obvious right from the dictionary definition which says that adorable is "extremely charming". 'Adorable' expresses really high affection and feelings.

29) **MAD** (VW26) – **FURIOUS** (VW8)

(57) *But he would not go **mad**.*

Definition in WTNID: carried away by intense anger – ENRAGED, FURIOUS

Definition in CIDOE: very angry or annoyed

(58) *She could remember scene after scene at Bourton – Peter **furious**; Hugh not, of course, his match in any way, but still not a positive imbecile as Peter made out; not a mere baber's block.*

Definition in WTNID: exhibiting or goaded by anger or passion or full of noise and excitement

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – different level of intensity

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. The term 'furious' is more intensive than the term 'mad' which is not so intensive. 'Furious' is more effective with stronger impression on the reader. At the same time the term 'mad' has informal character while 'furious' is neutral.

30) **TO DESTROY** (VW10) – **TO RUIN** (VW10)

(59) *And it was intolerable, and when it came to that scene in the little garden by the fountain, she had to break with him or they would have been **destroyed**, both of them **ruined**, she was convinced; though she had borne about her for years like an arrow sticking in her heart the grief, the anguish; and then the horror of the moment when some one told her at a concert that he had married a woman met on the boat going to India!*

Definition in WTNID (to destroy): to deprive of position, prestige, and reputation and of the power to oppose or offer resistance

(60)

Definition in WTNID (to ruin): to subject to entire frustration, failure, or disaster, or to come to moral, financial, or social ruin, be impoverished, degraded, or dishonoured, syn. DESTROY

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: thematic

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the thematic component of it. The reason of putting the extra information ..., *both of them ruined*,... in the sentence is that the author intended to highlight the information thus the structure of the sentence was adjusted to it. So in this sentence it is necessary to look at the context so reader can see that organization of the sentence and the thematic meaning of ‘to ruin’ for highlighting the information.

31) **NINCOMPOOPS** (VW10) – **FOOL** (VW55)

(61) *Cold, heartless, a prude, he called her. Never could she understand how he cared. But those Indian women did presumably – silly, pretty, flimsy **nincompoops**. And she wasted her pity.*

Definition in WTNID: syn. FOOL, SIMPLETON

Definition in CIDOE: *informal* a foolish or stupid person

(62) *She had always, even as a girl, a sort of timidity, which in middle age becomes conventionality, and then it's all up, it's all up, the thought, looking rather drearily into the glassy depths, and wondering whether by calling at that hour he had annoyed her; overcome with shame suddenly at having been a **fool**; wept; been emotional; told her everything, as usual, as usual.*

Definition in WTNID: a person lacking in judgment or prudence, one that acts stupidly or recklessly

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – informal vs. formal

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. ‘A nincompoop’ is an informal expression for ‘a fool’ in this context. It is very colloquial expression. Thus the difference is clear – ‘a nincompoop’ is informal language in a contrary to fool.

32) **SORROW** (VW12) – **SUFFERING** (VW56)

(63) *Tears and sorrows; courage and endurance; a perfectly upright and stoical bearing.*

Definition in WTNID: a display of grief or sadness - LAMENTATION

(64) *Then, as the sound of St. Margaret's languished, he thought, she has been ill, and the sound expressed languor and suffering.*

Definition in WTNID: the state or experience of one who suffers, the endurance of or submission to affliction, pain, loss

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – different level of intensity

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. The term 'suffering' is bit more intensive than the term 'sorrow' which is not so intensive. The word 'suffering' express stronger feeling of grief. 'Sorrow' can express only the state of being sad. However, they would not be synonymous at all if they appear in different contexts. The nouns overlap each other; they are very close. The aspect of overlap is in the context connected with 'grief', i.e. emotional pain. However, the word 'suffering' does not have to be only in this context. It can express also physical pain.

33) ECSTASY (VW14) - EXCITEMENT (VW26)

(65) *Anyhow they were inseparable, and Elizabeth, her own daughter, went to Communion; and how she dressed, how she treated people who came to lunch she did not care a bit, it being her experience that the religious **ecstasy** made people callous (so did causes); dulled their feelings, for Miss Kilman would do anything for the Russians, starved herself for the Austrians, but in private inflicted positive torture, so insensitive was she, dressed in a green mackintosh coat.*

Definition in WTNID: a state of being beyond reason and self-control through intense emotional excitement, pain, or other sensation, obsession by powerful feeling

(66) *Happily Rezia put her hand with a tremendous weight on his knee so that he was weighted down, transfixed, or the **excitement** of the elm trees rising and falling, rising and falling with all their leaves alight and the colour thinning and thickening from blue to the green of a hollow wave, like plumes on horses' heads, feathers on ladies', so proudly they rose and fell, so superbly, would have sent him mad.*

Definition in WTNID: the act of exciting or state of being excited

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – different level of intensity

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. The intensity of synonyms in this case is obvious because as the dictionary definition says about ‘ecstasy’ that it is ‘beyond reason’ where the intensity is here much greater. On the other hand, ‘excitement’ represents a state of mind which we can control; ‘ecstasy’ is too strong state of mind for control. ‘Excitement’ is more general than ‘ecstasy’ and its specific features.

34) **TYRANT** (VW15) – **MONSTER** (VW15)

(67) *For it was not her one hated but the idea of her, which undoubtedly had gathered in to itself a great deal that was not Miss Kilman; had become one of those spectres with which one battles in the night; one of those spectres who stand astride us and suck up half our life-blood, dominators and tyrants; for no doubt with another throw of the dice, had the black been uppermost and not the white, she would have loved Miss Kilman!*

Definition in WTNID: one who by unfair or unreasonable demands or rigorous exploitation imposes burdens and hardships on those under his control

(68) *It rasped her, though, to have stirring about in her this brutal monster!*

Definition in WTNID: a person of unnatural or excessive ugliness, deformity, wickedness, or cruelty

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech’s classification. The two words have the same meaning in the contexts concerning human beings. Both the terms are very intensive and negative. It is another fact both the terms share. However, they refer to different object without context. ‘A monster’ reflects something animalistic, unnatural for people. On the other hand, the word ‘tyrant’ is not so special naming for a human but ‘monster’ expresses really big cruelty.

35) **TO SEE** (VW18) – **TO GAZE** (VW24)

(69) *People must notice; people must see.*

Definition in WTNID: to perceive by the eye

(70) *With his hat held out perfectly still in his hand, Mr. Bowley gazed straight up.*

Definition in WTNID: to fix the eyes in a steady and intent look, look with eagerness (as in admiration, wonder) or with studious attention

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – different level of intensity

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. The term ‘to gaze’ is bit more intensive than the term ‘to see’ which is not so intensive. When somebody is ‘gazing’ he is looking at something very steadily with a fixed look. However, ‘seeing’ does not express the same intensity, it is more general term with not so specific definition.

36) **SOVEREIGN** (VW21) – **MAJESTY** (VW19)

(71) *At once they stood even straighter, and removed their hands, and seemed ready to attend their **Sovereign**, if need be, to the cannon’s mouth, as their ancestors had done before them.*

Definition in WTNID: the supreme repository of power in a political state

(72) *But there could be no doubt that greatness was seated within; greatness was passing, hidden, down Bond Street, removed only by a hand’s-breadth from ordinary people who might now, for the first time and last, be within speaking distance of the **majesty** of England, of the enduring symbol of the state which will be known to curious antiquaries, sifting the ruins of time, when London is a grass-grown pat and all those hurrying along the pavement this Wednesday morning are but bones with a few wedding rings mixed up in their dust and gold stoppings of innumerable decayed teeth.*

Definition in WTNID: the person of a sovereign

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech’s classification. Both the terms in the contexts express the same person but ‘majesty’ refers to a person and his/her symbolic function as a head of a state. On the other hand ‘sovereign’ is not only

a symbolic person, it is a person with specific competence to rule the state. The difference is in the notion which the words associate.

37) **TO CURVE** (VW25) – **TO TURN** (VW61)

(73) *Then suddenly, as a train comes out of a tunnel, the aeroplane rushed out of the clouds again, the sound boring into the ears of all people in the Mall, in the Green Park, in Piccadilly, in Regent Street, in Regent's Park, and the bar of smoke **curved** behind and it dropped down, and it soared up and wrote one letter after another – but what word was it writing?*

Definition in WTNID: to have or take a turn, change, or deviation from a straight line or course or from a level surface typically with a rounded gradual effect and without sharp breaks or angularity

(74) *He **turned**; went up the street, thinking to find somewhere to sit, till it was time for Lincoln's Inn – for Messrs.*

Definition in WTNID: to cause to move in a curved esp. circular path around or as if around an axis or a center, make rotate or revolve

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: collocative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the collocative meaning according to Leech's classification. The meanings of the words are similar but they differ in collocative meaning, i.e. the words they are linked with are different. For example, we say 'to turn left' but not 'to curve left' and again we say 'the river curves' more often than 'the river turns'.

38) **BABY** (VW23) – **CHILD** (VW26)

(75) *So Sarah Bletchley said with her **baby** in her arms, tipping her foot up and down as though she were by her own fender in Pimlico, but keeping her eyes on the Mall, while Emily Coates ranged over the Palace windows and thought of the housemaids, the innumerable housemaids, the bedrooms, the innumerable bedrooms.*

Definition in WTNID: an extremely young child

(76) *A **child** cried.*

Definition in WTNID: an unborn or recently born human being or a young person of either sex esp. between infancy and youth

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech's classification. The two words refer to different object. It means that the term 'baby' is typically used for a newborn child whereas the expression 'child' is used for older kids. However, in a specific context the difference could also be in social meaning but it would be in the case when 'baby' would be used as a diminutive.

39) **JOURNEY** (VW49) – **VOYAGE** (VW58)

(77) *And this has been going on all the time! he thought; and at once everything seemed to radiate from him; **journeys**; rides; quarrels; adventures; bridge parties; love affairs; work; work; work! and the took out his knife quite openly – his old horn-handled knife which Clarissa could swear he had had these thirty years – and clenched his fist upon it.*

Definition in WTNID: travel or passage from one place to another - TRIP

(78) *And just because nobody yet knew he was in London, except Clarissa, and the earth, after the **voyage**, still seemed an island to him, the strangeness of standing alone, alive, unknown, at half-past eleven in Trafalgar Square overcame him.*

Definition in WTNID: an act or instance of travelling, a journey by water, through air or space, from OF *veiage, vayage, voyage*

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech's classification. The two words share the meaning as a 'travel'. However, they differ in few aspects. The word 'journey' is typically a one way travel from one place to another, usually by vehicle. We cannot switch it with the word 'trip' as well which is not usually one way travel. It is more than one journey. The word 'voyage' is less common nowadays than the word 'journey'. 'Voyage' is typically a long trip at sea or space used in specific contexts. The typical phrase is 'Bon voyage' translated from French as 'have a good trip'.

40) **FIGURE** (VW35) – **PERSON** (VW43)

(79) *She began to go slowly upstairs, with her hand on the banisters, as if she had left a party, where now this friend now that had flashed back her face, her voice; had shut the door and gone out and stood alone, a single **figure** against the appalling night, or rather, to be accurate, against the stare of this matter-of-fact June morning; soft with the glow of rose petals for some, she knew, and felt it, as she paused by the open staircase window which let in blinds flapping, dogs barking, let in, she thought, feeling herself suddenly shrivelled, aged, breastless, the grinding, blowing, flowering of the day, out of doors, out of the window, out of her body and brain which now failed, since Lady Burton, whose lunch parties were said to be extraordinarily amusing, had not asked her.*

Definition in WTNID: a person, thing, or action conceived of as analogous to another person, thing, or action of which it is a type of representative or a body apparent chiefly in outline, an object significant or noticeable only in its form

(80) *Strange, she thought, pausing on the landing, and assembling that diamond shape, that single **person**, strange how mistress knows the very moment, the very temper of her house.*

Definition in WTNID: an individual human being

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech's classification. The two words share the meaning for a human being. The core of the meaning stays the same but it differs in minor things that wrap the core. However, the two words differ in the fact that the word 'figure' is more general term which does not have to be a person but only a form. When we use a term 'figure' we usually want to highlight some specific information.

41) **COMPANY** (VW66) – **PARTY** (VW66)

(81) *Then somebody said – Sally Seton it was - did it make any real difference to one's feelings to know that before they'd married she had had a baby? (In those days, in mixed **company**, it was a bold thing to say.)*

Definition in CIDOE: a person or a group of people with you

(82) *Whereupon the whole **party** sitting round the tea-table seemed to wobble.*

Definition in CIDOE: a group of people who are involved in an activity together, esp. a visit

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech's classification. The two words have the common definition as 'a group of people', but they differ in the fact that a 'party' which share an activity together while a 'company' which do not need to share any common interests.

42) **QUARREL** (VW37) – **DISCUSSION** (VW38)

(83) *There had been some awful **quarrel** at home.*

Definition in WTNID: a conflict between antagonists a moral or physical contest

(84) *But Aunt Helena never liked **discussion** of anything (when Sally gave her William Morris, it had to be wrapped in brown paper).*

Definition in WTNID: a consideration of a question in open usu. informal debate, argument for the sake of arriving at truth or clearing up difficulties

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – negative vs. neutral connotation

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. The term 'quarrel' has slightly more negative connotation than the other. The term 'discussion' is usually an informal debate while the term 'quarrel' is a conflict. Everything is clear from the dictionary definitions.

43) **TO REFORM** (VW38) – **TO CHANGE** (VW60)

(85) *There they sat, hour after hour, talking in her bedroom at the top of the house, talking about life, how they were to **reform** the world.*

Definition in WTNID: a removal or correction of an abuse, a wrong, or errors

(86) *He pursued; she **changed**.*

Definition in WTNID: the action of making something different in form, quality, or state, the fact of becoming different, introduction of novelty, or a switch to contrasting character or trend

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – positive vs. neutral connotation

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. The verb ‘to reform’, as the dictionary definition shows, has a positive connotation because it means a change for the better, an improvement. On the other hand, ‘to change’ has neutral connotation because a change can mean either improvement or deterioration.

44) **TEMPER** (VW77) – **PASSION** (VW94)

(87) *Up in the sky swallows swooping, swearing, flinging themselves in and out, round and round, yet always with perfect control as if elastics held them; and the flies rising and falling; and the sun spotting now this leaf, now that, in mockery, dazzling it with soft gold in pure good **temper**; and now and again some chime (it might be a motor horn) tinkling divinely on the grass stalks – all of this, calm and reasonable as it was, made out of ordinary things as it was, was the truth now; beauty, that was the truth now.*

Definition in WTNID: heat of mind or emotion, proneness to anger, syn. **PASSION**

(88) *It has flowered; flowered from vanity, ambition, idealism, **passion**, loneliness, courage, laziness, the usual seeds, which all muddled up (in a room off the Euston Road), made him shy, and stammering, made him anxious to improve himself, made him fall in love with Miss Isabel Pole, lecturing in the Waterloo Road upon Shakespeare.*

Definition in WTNID: violent, intense, or overmastering emotion, depth or vehemence of feeling, a state of or capacity for emotional excitement

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – different level on intensity

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. Both the words express state of mind or emotions but the word ‘passion’ is very strong emotion in a contrary to ‘temper’. The affective components of connotative meaning are stronger in the word ‘passion’.

45) **CHARM** (VW36) – **IMPRESSION** (VW166)

(89) *She resented it, had a scruple picked up Heaven knows where, or, as she felt, sent by Nature (who is invariably wise); yet she could not resist sometimes yielding to the **charm** of a woman, not a girl, of a woman confessing, as to her they often did, some scrape, some folly.*

Definition in WTNID: an alluring physical attribute, compelling attractiveness and appeal dispelling any possible reserved or antagonistic feeling

(90) *Ah, but thinking became morbid, sentimental, directly one began conjuring up doctors, dead bodies; a little glow of pleasure, a sort of lust, too, over the visual **impression** warned one not to go on with that sort of thing any more – fatal to art, fatal to friendship.*

Definition in WTNID: the effect or product of an impression, as an indentation, stamp, embossment, form, or figure resulting from physical contact usu. with pressure

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – positive vs. neutral connotation

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. Affective component of connotative meaning is reflected especially in the first word ‘charm’, which has positive connotation. When we talk about a ‘charming’ person, it is always in a good way. However, the word ‘impression’ is not always good, for example in this context it is rather negative.

46) **INSENSITIVE** (VW14) – **CALLOUS** (VW14)

(91) *Anyhow they were inseparable, and Elizabeth, her own daughter, went to Communion; and how she dressed, how she treated people who came to lunch she did not care a bit, it being her experience that the religious ecstasy made people **callous** (so did causes); dulled their feelings, for Miss Kilman would do anything for the Russians, starved herself for the Austrians, but in private inflicted positive torture, so **insensitive** was she, dressed in a green mackintosh coat.*

Definition in WTNID: not morally or mentally sensitive – UNIMPRESSIONABLE

Definition in CIDOE: not aware of or feeling sympathy for other people’s feelings, or refusing to give importance (to something)

(92)

Definition in WTNID: hardened in sensibility, feeling no emotion

Definition in CIDOE: unkind or cruel; without sympathy or feeling for other people

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – different level of intensity + neutral vs. negative connotation

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. The term ‘callous’ is bit more intensive than the term ‘insensitive’ which is not so intensive. At the same time the term ‘callous’ has slightly more negative connotation than the other.

47) **HUMOROUS** (VW128) – **AMUSING** (VW130)

(93) *But what could be done for female vagrants like that poor creature, stretched on her elbow (as if she had flung herself on the earth, rid of all ties, to observe curiously, to speculate boldly, to consider the whys and the wherefores, impudent, loose-lipped, **humorous**), he did not know.*

Definition in WTNID: possessing, indicating, or expressive of a sense of humor, given to the display of or appreciative of humor

(94) *She had failed him, once at Constantinople; and Lady Bruton, whose lunch parties were said to be extraordinarily **amusing**, had not asked her.*

Definition in WTNID: giving amusement, pleasantly entertaining

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in the connotative component of meaning. It means that the two words refer to slightly different notions. Both the terms mean ‘to cause laughter’ but the term ‘amusing’ has little bit wider extent of meaning because it sometimes refer to ‘entertain’ rather than ‘to make somebody laugh’.

48) **ROGUERY** (VW123) – **MISCHIEF** (VW123)

(95) *And there were the dogs; there were the rats; there were her father and mother on the lawn under the trees, with the tea-things out, and the beds of dahlias, the hollyhocks, the pampas grass and they, little wretches, always up to some **mischief!** stealing back through the shrubbery, so as not to be seen, all bedraggled from some **roguery**.*

Definition in WTNID (roguery): the practices or conduct of a rogue, or act characteristic of a rogue (= a wandering, disorderly, or dissolute person formerly accountable under various vagrancy acts)

(96)

Definition in WTNID (mischief): harm, evil, or damage that results from a particular agency or cause, or action or conduct that annoys or irritates without causing or meaning to cause serious harm

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – different level of intensity + negative vs. neutral connotation + collocative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in affective component of it. The term ‘roguery’ is bit more intensive than the term ‘mischief’ which is not so intensive. At the same time the term ‘roguery’ has slightly more negative connotation than the other. There is one more difference between the two synonyms which is collocative difference in meaning. There is a collocation ‘to be up to some mischief’ while ‘roguery’ is not typically in collocation like this.

49) **TO MARCH** (VW124) – **TO WALK** (VW124)

(97) *Murmuring London flowed up to her, and her hand, lying on the sofa, curled upon some imaginary baton such as her grandfathers might have held, holding which she seemed, drowsy and heavy, to be commanding battalions **marching** to Canada, and those good fellows walking across London, that territory of theirs, that little bit of carpet, Mayfair.*

Definition in CIDOE: syn. WALK, to walk with regular steps keeping the body stiff, esp. in a formal group of people who are all walking in the same way

(98) *And they went further and further from her, being attached to her by a thin thread (since they had lunched with her) which would stretch and stretch, get thinner and thinner as they **walked** across London; as if one’s friends were attached to one’s body, after lunching with them, by a thin thread, which (as she dozed there) became hazy with the sound of bells, striking the hour or ringing to service, as a single spider’s thread is blotted with rain-drops, and, burdened, sags down.*

Definition in CIDOE: to move along by putting one foot in front of the other, allowing each foot to touch the ground before lifting the next

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in the connotative component of meaning. It means that the two words refer to slightly different notions.

Both the terms mean ‘to walk’ but the term ‘to march’ means a specific type of walking typical for some special features. It is typically used in specific contexts, especially connected with army. The verb ‘to walk’ is more general and common.

50) **LIKELY** (VW208) – **PROBABLY** (VW200)

(99) *Very **likely**, for after all it must be galling for him (though he was an oddity, a sort of sprite, not at all an ordinary man), it must be lonely at his age to have no home, nowhere to go.*

Definition in CIDOE: expected to happen, probably

(100) *He was talking to Richard about that Bill **probably**, which they wanted to get through the Commons.*

Definition in CIDOE: likely to be true or likely to happen

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: collocative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The meanings of these two words are almost the same. The difference is in the usage of these two words. They typically appear in different places in the word and they are typically used in different collocations. The adverb ‘likely’ is usually used with the verb ‘to be’ and infinitive. For example, ‘I am very likely to be there’. However, the adverb ‘probably’ is not used with the verb ‘to be’ so we would say ‘I will probably be there’.

III. J. CROWE, T. BRADSHAW - CHEMISTRY FOR THE BIOSCIENCES: THE ESSENTIAL CONCEPTS

51) **MAGNITUDE** (JC - TB8) – **SIZE** (JC – TB1)

(101) *The number tells us the **magnitude** (**size**) of the thing that we’re measuring; the unit tells us what it is that we are actually measuring.*

Definition in WTNID (magnitude): from Latin *magnitudo*, fr. *magnus* great; syn. **SIZE**, greatness of size or extent

(102)

Definition in WTNID (size): from OF *assise*; syn. **DIMENSIONS**, **AREA**, **EXTENT**, **MAGNITUDE**, **VOLUME**, physical magnitude, extent, or bulk, the actual, characteristic, normal, or relative proportion of a thing, relative or proportionate dimensions; or equal magnitude

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – formal vs. neutral (affected by origin)
+ connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The two words originate in different languages and at the same time the term ‘magnitude’ is more scientific term which qualifies it as a marker of formal style. The term ‘size’ is a term more spread among common users. The meanings differ also in the usage, so in the connotative meaning. They are not interchangeable in all contexts. The term ‘size’ has wider extent of meaning.

52) **ATOMIC** (JC – TB14) – **PROTON** (JC – TB14)

(103) *The **atomic number** (sometimes called the **proton number**) tells us the number of protons within the atom.*

Definition in WTNID (atomic): atom from Greek *atomos*, a number characteristic of an element and taken to represent the positive charge on the nucleus of an atom of the element, being equal to the number of protons in the nucleus and in a neutral atom to the number of electrons outside the nucleus an atomic number as determined experimentally by X-ray spectra being assigned to each element and determining its place in the periodic table and its properties except those depending on atomic weight – symbol Z

(104)

Definition in WTNID (proton): from Greek *proton*

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech’s classification. The two words have exactly the same meaning in this context (are interchangeable); however they refer to different object without context. They refer to different objects thus they appear in different collocations and contexts.

53) **PURE** (JC – TB19) – **ELEMENTAL** (JC – TB19)

(105) *This means that if we take a sample of **pure** (**‘elemental’**) magnesium, 78.99% of the atoms in the sample have a mass number of 24, 10.00% atoms,*

this is equivalent to saying that 7899 are ²⁴Mg, 1000 are ²⁵Mg, and 1101 are ²⁶Mg.

Definition in WTNID (pure): from Latin *purus* clean; of a physical matter: unmixed with any other thing, free from admixture, containing no added, substitute, or foreign substance

(106)

Definition in WTNID (elemental): from Latin *elementum*; consisting of a single chemical element UNCOMBINED; or of, relating to, or being the ultimate or basic constituent of anything

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech's classification. The two words have exactly the same meaning in this context (are interchangeable); however they refer to different object without context. It means that the term 'pure' has a wider extent of meaning than the term 'elemental' which has more narrow meaning. 'Pure' is typically used by generally public while 'elemental' is not. They refer to different objects thus they appear in different collocations and contexts.

54) **AUFBAU** (JC – TB25) – **BUILDING UP** (JC – TB25)

(107) *We call the principle of electrons sequentially entering orbitals of progressively higher energy the **Aufbau**, or 'building-up', principle.*

Definition in CED (Aufbau): construction, building

(108)

Definition in WTNID (building up): from build-up, build – ENLARGE, INCREASE, to improve the status of – ENHANCE, EXALT – usu. used with up

Definition in OED (build): from OE *byldan*, from Proto-German

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – formal vs. neutral (affected by origin)
+ connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The two words originate in different languages and at the same time the term 'Aufbau' is more scientific term which

qualifies it as a marker of formal style. The term ‘building up’ is a term more spread among common users. However, the term ‘building up’ has another meaning in different contexts thus it is also the difference in connotative meaning.

55) **NORMAL** (JC – TB30) – **GROUND** (JC – TB30)

(109) *By absorbing more energy, and moving to a higher-energy orbital, an electron is less stable than when it is in its **normal** or **ground state**.*

Definition in WTNID (normal): normal - from LL *normalis*; according to rule, GROUND STATE

(110)

Definition in WTNID (ground): ground – from OE *grund*; the energy level of an atomic electron system, atomic nucleus, or other systems of interacting elementary particles having the least energy of all its possible states – called also *ground level*

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – formal vs. neutral (affected by origin) + connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The two words originate in different languages and at the same time the term ‘normal state’ is more scientific term which qualifies it as a marker of formal style. The term ‘ground state’ is a term more spread among common users. An important aspect of this relation is that in any other context the term ‘normal’ and ‘ground’ could not be synonyms at all. It is possible only in chemical vocabulary. The terms have generally different meanings this it is also the difference in connotative meaning.

56) **OUTER** (JC – TB35) – **VALENCE** (JC – TB35)

(111) *Notice how all three elements have one electron in their **outer** (**valence**) shells.*

Definition in WTNID (outer): situated farther out away from a center, syn. OUTWARD, OUTSIDE, EXTERNAL, EXTERIOR

Definition in OED (outer): from comparative *out*, from OE *uttera*

(112)

Definition in WTNID (valence): valence from Latin *valens* (pres. part. of *valēre* to be strong); the outermost shell of an atom containing valence electrons

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – neutral vs. formal (affected by origin)
+ connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The two words originate in different languages and at the same time the term ‘valence’ is more scientific term which qualifies it as a marker of formal style. The term ‘outer’ is a term more spread among common users. An important aspect of this relation is that in any other context they could not be synonyms at all. It is possible only in chemical vocabulary. The terms have generally different meanings thus there is also the difference in connotative meaning.

57) **EXTERIOR** (JC – TB34) – **OUTSIDE** (JC – TB34)

(113) *We can visualize the valence shell of an atom as representing the exterior boundary (the ‘outside’) of the atom.*

Definition in WTNID (exterior): from Latin, comp. of *exter*, *exterus* outward; on the outside, foreign, strange, fr. *ex* out of, situated at and forming the outer surface or limit

(114)

Definition in WTNID (outside): from OE *ūt*; of, relating to, or being on the outer side or surface

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social - formal vs. neutral (affected by origin)

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The two words originate in different languages and at the same time the term ‘exterior’ is more scientific term which qualifies it as a marker of formal style. The term ‘outside’ is a term more spread among common users with a wider extent of meaning than the other term.

58) **EQUIVALENT** (JC – TB37) – **DEGENERATE** (JC – TB37)

(115) *Hand’s rule states that equivalent (degenerate) orbitals must each be occupied by one electron before any of the degenerate set is occupied by a second electron.*

Definition in WTNID (equivalent): from LL *aequivalent-*, *aequivalens*, pres. part. of *aequivalēre* to have equal power; chem. having the same combining capacity

(116)

Definition in WTNID (degenerate): from Latin *degeneratus*, past part. of *degenerare* to degenerate

Definition in ODOC (degenerate): having quantum states with the same energy

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two words are synonymous only in this context. Generally they are not synonymous at all. If we would use it in a different type of conversation, they would not be synonyms. They typically refer to different things.

59) **NON-AROMATIC** (JC – TB68) – **ALIPHATIC** (JC – TB68)

(117) (By contrast, *non-aromatic* compounds are what we call *aliphatic*.)

Definition in WTNID: not aromatic, aromatic from Greek *aromáticos*, of, relating to, or characterized by the presence of at least one benzene ring

(118)

Definition in WTNID: ISV *aliphatic-* (fr. Greek *aleiphar* oil, fat) + *-ic*, of, relating to, or derived from fat

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – province

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonymous words differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The words differ in the province, in the scientific component. The word ‘aliphatic’ is more scientific and thus more formal. It is adduced in the International Scientific Vocabulary.

60) **LONE** (JC- TB79) – **NON-BONDING** (JC – TB79)

(119) A *lone pair* is more usefully called a ‘*non-bonding pair*’ when we consider valence electrons in molecules.

Definition in WTNID (lone): situated by itself – ISOLATED

Definition in OED (lone): shortening from *alone* (from OE *all ana*)

(120)

Definition in WTNID (bonding): bonding – from bond, electrical interconnection between parts to minimize differences of voltage

Definition in OED (bonding): from ON *band*, from Proto-Germanic *bindan*

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social - neutral vs. formal (affected by origin) + connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The two words originate in different languages and at the same time the term ‘non-bonding’ is more scientific term which qualifies it as a marker of formal style. The term ‘lone’ is a term more spread among common users and correspondingly has wider extent of meaning.

61) **PLANAR** (JC - TB92) – **FLAT** (JC – TB92)

(121) *Figure 4.9(a) shows how **planar (flat)** molecules are able to associate more closely than molecules with a more irregular shape.*

Definition in WTNID (planar): from Latin *planum* flat surface

(122)

Definition in WTNID (flat): fr. ON *flatr*, akin to OHG *flaz* flat, Gk *platys* flat, broad, having or marked by a continuous surface that is horizontal or nearly so without significant curvature or inclination and without noteworthy elevations or depression

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social - formal vs. neutral (affected by origin) + connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The two words originate in different languages and at the same time the term ‘planar’ is more scientific term which qualifies it as a marker of formal style. The term ‘flat’ is a term more spread among common users. There is also one difference, however not in this context. The term ‘flat’ has wider meaning which can be used in more collocations and contexts than the term ‘planar’.

62) **AQUEOUS** (JC – TB96) – **WATER-BASED** (JC – TB96)

(123) *Rather, they occur in **aqueous** solution – a complicated **water-based** mix of biochemical compounds.*

Definition in ODOC (aqueous): describing a solution in water, base – aqua (= from Latin)

(124)

Definition in WTNID (water-based): water from OE *wæter*

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social - formal vs. neutral (affected by origin)

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The two words originate in different languages and at the same time the term 'aqueous' is more scientific term which qualifies it as a marker of formal style. The term 'water-based' is a term more used by non-scientific public.

63) **HYDROPHOBIC** (JC – TB106) – **WATER-HATING** (JC –TB106)

(125) *In contrast, 'hydrophobic' (or 'water-hating') species, which are non-polar, do not interact readily with water, and are therefore water-insoluble.*

Definition in WTNID (hydrophobic): from Gk *hydrophobikos*, of, relating to, or suffering from hydrophobia

(126)

Definition in WTNID (water-hating): water from OE *wæter*

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social - formal vs. neutral (affected by origin)

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The two words originate in different languages and at the same time the term 'hydrophobic' is more scientific term which qualifies it as a marker of formal style. The term 'water-hating' is a term more used by non-scientific public.

64) **CYCLIC** (JC – TB130) – **RING-SHAPED** (JC – TB130)

(127) *The carbon atoms of an alkane may join together in different ways to generate backbones with three distinctive shapes: straight chain, branched chain, cyclic (ring-shaped).*

Definition in WTNID (cyclic): from Gk *kyklos* cycle, of, relating to, or characterized by a ring of atoms

(128)

Definition in WTNID (ring): from OE *hring*, an arrangement of atoms represented in formulas or models in a cyclic manner or as a closed chain and commonly consisting of five or six atoms although smaller and also much larger rings are known, called also cycle

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social - formal vs. neutral (affected by origin) + connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The two words originate in different languages and at the same time the term 'cyclic' is more scientific term which qualifies it as a marker of formal style. The term 'ring' is a term more spread among common users unlike the term 'cyclic' which is more scientific. Also both the terms are possible to use in other types of communication than scientific where the meanings are slightly different which is also difference in connotative meaning.

65) **PETROL** (JC –TB134) – **GASOLINE** (JC – TB134)

(129) *Petrol (or gasoline) is a complicated mixture of hydrocarbons whose carbon backbones comprise between five and twelve carbon atoms.*

Definition in WTNID (petrol): from MF *petrole*, GASOLINE

(130)

Definition in WTNID (gasoline): from Latin *chaos* air, a volatile flammable liquid hydrocarbon mixture suitable for use as a fuel esp. for internal-combustion engines and now consisting usu. of a blend of several products from natural gas and petroleum (as natural gasoline, straight-run gasoline, cracked gasoline, alkylates) or of products from other sources (as from the hydrogenation of coal gas or water gas) together with antiknock agents, antioxidants, or other additives – called also *petrol*

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social - formal vs. neutral (affected by origin)

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The two words originate in different languages and at the same time the term 'gasoline' is more scientific term which qualifies it as a marker of formal style. The term 'petrol' is a term more spread among common users.

66) **PROPANONE** (JC – TB159) – **ACETONE** (JC – TB159)

(131) *The simplest ketone is **propanone**, C₃H₆O, though we are probably more familiar with its common name, **acetone**.*

Definition in WTNID (propanone): acetone

(132)

Definition in WTNID (acetone): a volatile fragrant flammable liquid ketone C₃H₆O used chiefly as a solvent and in organic synthesis and found in abnormal quantities in diabetic urine—called also *propanone*

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – province

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonymous words differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it, in province. The term ‘propanone’ is more scientific term used typically by the specialists in the field of chemistry while the term ‘acetone’ is more common term which is clear from the referential sentence.

67) **METHANAL** (JC – TB159) – **FORMALDEHYDE** (JC – TB159)

(133) *Methanal is often referred to by its common name, formaldehyde.*

Definition in WTNID (methanal): ISV *methane* + *-al* – **FORMALDEHYDE**

(134)

Definition in WTNID (formaldehyde): ISV *form-* + *aldehyde*, orig. formed as *G formaldehyde* – a very reactive aldehyde HCHO that has a tendency to polymerize, that is a colorless pungent irritating combustible gas when pure but is conveniently handled in the form of aqueous solutions or solid polymers (as paraformaldehyde), that is usually made by oxidation of methanol or of gaseous hydrocarbons, and that is used chiefly as a disinfectant and preservative, as a hardening and insolubilizing agent esp. for proteins, and in the synthesis of other compounds (as pentaerythritol) and of phenolic and other synthetic resins – called also *formic aldehyde, methanol*

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – province

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonymous words differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it, in province. The two words are both in the International Scientific Vocabulary; however the term ‘methanal’ is more scientific term used typically by the specialists in the field of chemistry while the term ‘formaldehyde’ is more common term which is clear from the referential sentence.

68) **SUGAR** (JC – TB191) – **SACCHARIDE** (JC – TB191)

(135) *These forms of sugar are characterized by the number of **sugar** (*sacharide*) units from which they are formed.*

Definition in WTNID (sugar): from Skt *śarkarā*, any of a class of water soluble compounds (as glucose, fructose, xylose, sucrose, maltose, or raffinose) that vary widely in sweetness, comprise the simpler carbohydrates, include not only the monosaccharides but also the oligosaccharides, may be reducing or nonreducing, and typically are optically active

(136)

Definition in WTNID (saccharide): ISV *sacchar-* + *-ide*, a simple sugar, combination of sugars, or polymerized sugar – CARBOHYDRATE

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – province + connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonymous words differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The words differ in the province, in the scientific component. The word ‘saccharide’ is adduced in the International Scientific Vocabulary which qualifies it as a marker of highly scientific vocabulary and thus it is more formal. An important aspect of the word ‘sugar’ is its origin in Sanskrit. At the same time, the terms are not equal. The term ‘sugar’ has wider extent of meaning than the term ‘saccharide’.

69) **TRANSMEMBRANE** (JC – TB203) – **MEMBRANE-SPANNING** (JC – TB203)

(137) *The lipid bilayer of cell membranes also features a range of proteins with various roles, including **transmembrane (membrane-spanning)** proteins.*

Definition in WTNID (transmembrane): trans = across, beyond, from Latin *trans*, membrane = from L *membrane* skin, membrane, parchment, → a limiting protoplasmic surface or interface

(138)

Definition in WTNID (spanning): spanning- pres. part. of span (= from OE *spannan*), to cross or reach over in space, to bridge over

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social - formal vs. neutral (affected by origin)

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The two words originate in different languages and at the same time the term ‘transmembrane’ is more scientific term which qualifies it as a marker of formal style.

70) **CARNIVORE** (JC – TB218) – **MEAT-EATER** (JC –TB218)

(139) *The relationship between structure and function pervades biology: consider, for example, the teeth of either a **carnivore** (a **meat eater**), such as a lion, or a herbivore (a plant eater), such as a cow.*

Definition in WTNID (carnivore): from NL *carnivora*, a flesh eating animal

(140)

Definition in WTNID (meat-eater): meat from OE *mete*, FLESH, eater – from OE *etan* to eat, one that eats or is accustomed to eat

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social - formal vs. neutral (affected by origin)

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The two words originate in different languages and at the same time the term ‘carnivore’ is more scientific term which qualifies it as a marker of formal style. The term ‘meat-eater’ is a term more spread among common users in common conversation.

71) **CRESCENT** (JC – TB219) – **SICKLE** (JC – TB219)

(141) *Individuals suffering from the disease carry red blood cells which have an unusual **crescent** (‘or **sickle**’) shape, as opposed to the characteristic doughnut shape of a healthy red blood cell.*

Definition in WTNID (crescent): Latin *crescens*, having the shape or outline of a crescent

(142)

Definition in WTNID (sickle): from OE *sicel*, having the form of a sickle blade

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social - formal vs. neutral (affected by origin) + connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The two words originate in different languages and at the same time the term ‘crescent’ is more scientific term which qualifies it as a marker of formal style. The term ‘sickle’ is a term more spread among common users. The words are related only because of the shape of the objects they refer to; however they are not synonyms in contexts where they shape is not important.

72) **TO DUPLICATE** (JC – TB331) – **TO REPEAT** (JC – TB331)

(143) *An STR comprises a small number of base pairs (usually around four) that may be **duplicated** (or **repeated**) several times.*

Definition in WTNID (duplicate): from Latin *duplicatus*, to be or make a duplicate, copy, or transcript

(144)

Definition in WTNID (repeat): from Latin *repetere*, to make, do, or perform again

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The difference between two words is connotative because the meaning is slightly different though the denotation is the same. They share the meaning ‘to make something again’. They are not interchangeable in all contexts. On the contrary, they are probably interchangeable in a minimal number of contexts.

73) **GRADIENT** (JC – TB) – **SLOPE** (JC – TB)

(145) *The rate of reaction at a particular time is equal to the **gradient** (**slope**) of the graph at that time.*

Definition in CIDOE: the amount of slope (of a road, path, railway, etc.)

(146)

Definition in CIDOE: a surface which lies at angle to the horizontal so that some points on it are higher than others

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The difference between two words is connotative because the meaning is slightly different though the denotation is the same. They are not interchangeable in all contexts. On the contrary, they are probably interchangeable in a minimal number of contexts. The term ‘slope’ has a wider extent of meaning while the term ‘gradient’ has a narrower extent used in minimum of contexts connected with the slopes of roads, paths, etc. The context of the utterance is very important as the term ‘slope’ does fit only into specific contexts.

74) **DIFFERENTLY** (JC – TB586) – **UNEQUALLY** (JC – TB586)

(147) *Heterolytic cleavage occurs when the valence electrons are distributed differently (unequally) between two atoms once a bond joining the atoms has been broken.*

Definition in CIDOE: not the same

(148)

Definition in CIDOE: not treating everyone the same, unfair

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The difference between two words is connotative because the meaning is slightly different though the denotation is the same. They are not interchangeable in all contexts. On the contrary, they are probably interchangeable in a minimal number of contexts. The term ‘differently’ has a wider extent of meaning which is clear from the definition. They share the meaning that something ‘is not the same’, however it depends on the context which word is suitable or not.

75) **CLEAVAGE** (JC – TB586) – **BREAKING** (JC – TB643)

(149) *We call these two processes heterolytic and homolytic bond **cleavage** (**breaking**).*

Definition in CIDOE: division or disagreement

(150) *The reaction is catalysed by the enzyme aldolase and involves **breaking** the bond between C3 and C4 in fructose, as illustrated in Figure 18,33(a).*

Definition in CIDOE: to destroy or end (something, or to come to an end)

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The difference between two words is connotative because the meaning is slightly different though the denotation is the same. They share the meaning of something ‘divided into parts’. However, they are not interchangeable in all contexts. On the contrary, they are probably interchangeable in a minimal number of contexts. The term ‘cleavage’ is a division into parts which are still valuable. The term ‘breaking’ is destruction of something, division into parts which are not usable any more.

IV. A. LACK, D. EVANS - PLANT BIOLOGY

76) **ANGIOSPERM** (AL – DE1) – **FLOWERING PLANT** (AL –DE1)

(151) *The science of plant biology is primarily the study of **flowering plants** or **angiosperms**.*

Definition in WTNID (angiosperm): NL *Angiospermae*: a plant of the class Angiospermae (=a class of Peteropsida or in some classifications, a subdivision of Spermatophyta comprising seed plants that produce seeds enclosed in an ovary, including the vast majority of seed plants, and being divided into the subclasses Dicotyledoneae and Monocotyledoneae

(152)

Definition in WTNID (flowering plant): flower = from ME *flour*, plant from Latin *planatare* = to tread the ground in planting, a plant that produces flowers, fruit, and seeds

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – province + connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it, in province. The word ‘angiosperm’ is highly scientific term than ‘flowering plant’ which is a marker of formal style. The first mentioned word is used by scientists in the field of biology while the ‘flowering plant’ is frequently used by non-specialists in different contexts in general conversations. At the same time, the term ‘flowering plant’ has wider extent of meaning.

77) **BOTANY** (AL – DE1) – **PLANT BIOLOGY** (AL – DE1)

(153) *Historically the science of **plant biology**, or **botany**, has included all living organisms except animals, but it is clear that there is a major division of life between cells with a simple level of organization, the prokaryotes, and those with much more complex cells, the eukaryotes.*

Definition in WTNID (botany): from Gk *botanikos*, the science of plants, the branch of biology dealing with plant life, from botanical

(154)

Definition in WTNID (plant biology): plant from Latin *plantare*, biology from Gk *biologie*

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – province

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms do not differ in the origin because both Greek and Latin were rich sources of scientific terms and thus the origin is not decisive here. The words differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it, in province. A term ‘plant biology’ is a term more spread among common users unlike the term ‘botany’ which seems to be more scientific nature which is a marker of formal style.

78) **CHLOROPHYTA** (AL – DE4) – **GREEN ALGAE** (AL – DE4)

(155) *Among multicellular alga, most **green algae** (**Chlorophyta**) have the gametophyte as the main plant, the sporophyte being represented by a single resting spore or zygote, although some have two multicellular generations looking alike.*

Definition in WTNID (chlorophyta): NL *chlor-* + *-phyta* – a division or other category of lower plants including the true green algae and the stoneworts, chlorophyte = a green-pigmented flagellate

(156)

Definition in WTNID (green algae): (sg. alga) - algae from Latin seaweed, an alga in which the chlorophyll is not masked or characteristically obscured by other pigments; spec. any alga of the division Chlorophyta

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – province

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it, in the province. The word ‘chlorophyta’ is clearly a scientific term than the term ‘green algae’ which qualifies it as a marker of formal style. The first mentioned word is more used by scientists in the field of biology than the other word. ‘Green algae’ would be more frequently used by non-specialists in in general conversation.

79) **CORN** (AL – DE5) – **MAIZE** (AL – DE5)

(157) ***Corn** (**maize**) and rice have also been studied widely as important crop studies, and *Antirrhinum majus* has become a model for flowering.*

Definition in WTNID (corn): ON *korn*, INDIAN CORN, or the kernels of sweet corn or maize served as a vegetable while stillsoft and milky

(158)

Definition in WTNID (maize): INDIAN CORN, Spanish *maíz*

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech's classification. The two words have exactly the same meaning in this context; however they refer to different object without context. It means that the term 'corn' has a wider meaning than the term 'maize' which has more narrow meaning. 'Maize' refers only to one type of cereal and 'corn' can refer to more types of cereals.

80) **TO COPY** (AL – DE34) – **TO TRANSCRIBE** (AL – DE34)

(159) *Each gene is made up of two regions: a structural region which contains the information for the amino acid sequence of the protein and which is **copied (transcribed)** to mRNA when the gene is active and a promoter region which controls whether the gene is transcribed.*

Definition in WTNID (copy): from ML *copia*, to make a copy of, DUPLICATE, REPRODUCE, TRANSCRIBE

(160)

Definition in WTNID (transcribe): from transcription – from Latin *transcriptus* (=The part of protein synthesis that involves the formation of a complementary copy of the genetic code by messenger RNA synthesis, transcription occurs on the genetic material itself: principally nuclear DNA in eukaryotic organisms

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – province + connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms do not differ in the origin because both have its origin in Latin, thus the origin is not decisive here. The words differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it, it the province. A term 'copy' is a term more spread among common users unlike the term 'transcribe' which seems to be more scientific nature. At the same time, the term 'copy' has wider extent of meaning than the term 'transcribe'.

81) **SPIRAL** (AL – DE52) – **HELICAL** (AL – DE52)

(161) *This process, termed **spiral** (or **helical**) phyllotaxy, is common in many species and results in the formation of a spiral pattern of growth.*

Definition in WTNID (spiral): from Latin *spira* + *-alis*, HELICAL, of, relating to, or resembling a spiral

Difference in OED (spiral): from Medieval Latin *spiralis*, winding around a fixed centre, coiling, *from* Latin *spira*, from Greek *speira*, a winding, a coil, twist, wreath, anything wound or coiled

(162)

Definition in WTNID (helical): from Gk *helix*, of, relating to, or having the form of a helix

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social - province + connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it, in the province. The two words have exactly the same meaning in this context; however they refer to different object without context. The word ‘helical’ is more scientific term than ‘spiral’ which is a marker of formal style for the term ‘helical’. The first mentioned word is more used by scientists in the field of biology than the other word. ‘Spiral’ would be more frequently used by non-specialists in different contexts in general conversation which also makes the difference in connotation because ‘spiral’ has much wider extent of meaning than the term ‘helix’. ‘Spiral’ refers to something resembling to spiral and spiral does not have to be symmetrical. On the other hand, the term ‘helical’ has a fixed centre which means it is a symmetrical spiral.

82) **HYDROSTATICS** (AL – DE60) – **TURGOR** (AL – DE60)

(163) This will generate a **hydrostatic** pressure (**turgor** pressure) in the cell.

Definition in WTNID (hydrostatics): probably from NL *hydrostaticus*, pressure exerted by or existing within a liquid at rest with respect to adjacent bodies

Definition in OED (hydrostatic): from Gk *hydro-* water + *statikos* making to stand

(164)

Definition in WTNID (turgor): from Latin *turgēre*, the actual pressure developed by the fluid in a turgid plant cell as a result of endosmosis as contrasted with the potential maximum pressure that fluid of the same concentration could theoretically develop

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: province + connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms ‘hydrostatics’ and ‘turgor’ differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it, in the province. The word ‘turgor’ is more scientific term than ‘hydrostatics’ which is a marker of formal style for the term ‘turgor’. The first mentioned word is more used by scientists in the field of biology and physics than the other word. ‘Hydrostatics’ would be more frequently used by non-specialists in different contexts in general conversation which also makes the difference in connotation.

83) **PLASMOLYSED** (AL – DE60) – **FLACCID** (AL – DE60)

(165) *At this point, the plasma membrane will pull away from the cell wall and the cell will be **plasmolysed** (**flaccid**).*

Definition in WTNID (plasmolysed): plasmolyze – from NL – *plasmolysis* + *ize*, to subject to plasmolysis, to undergo plasmolysis (=concentration or shrinking of the cytoplasm away from the wall of a living cell (as of a plant) due to loss of water by exosmosis

(166)

Definition in WTNID (flaccid): from Latin *flaccus*, of a plant cell or tissue: deficient in turgor

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – province + connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The difference is in the province. The word ‘plasmolysed’ is more scientific term than ‘flaccid’. The first mentioned word is more used by scientists in the field of biology than the other word. ‘Flaccid’ would be more frequently used by non-specialists in different contexts in general conversation where it would not possible to replace it by the term ‘plasmolysed’, even it is possible in this context. However, the term ‘flaccid’ has a wider extent of meaning than the term ‘plasmolysed’ which can be used only in biology, especially in cytology.

84) **BUBBLE** (AL – DE62) – **EMBOLISM** (AL – DE62)

(167) *Dissolved gas results in **bubbles** (**embolisms**) that block xylem flow.*

Definition in WTNID (bubble): a small body of air or gas within a liquid

Definition in OED (bubble): perhaps from MD *bobbel*, and/or MLG *bubbeln*

(168)

Definition in WTNID (embolism): from ML *embolismus*, the sudden obstruction of a blood vessel by an embolus (= a foreign or abnormal particle circulating in the blood (as a bubble of air or a blood clot)

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social - formal vs. neutral (affected by origin) + connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The two words originate in different languages and at the same time the term ‘embolism’ is more scientific term which qualifies it as a marker of formal style. The term ‘bubble’ is a term more spread among common users unlike the term ‘embolism’ which is more scientific. At the same time, the term ‘bubble’ has wider meaning because we talk about ‘embolism’ as about bubble in blood.

85) **EPHEMERALS** (AL – DE210) – **ANNUALS** (AL –DE210)

(169) *Short-lived ones are known as **ephemerals** or, commonly, **annuals** although most complete their life cycle in much less than a year, and the shortest-lived, such as *Boerhavia* spp. (*Nyctaginaceae*) may complete their life cycle in less than 4 weeks.*

Definition in WTNID (ephemerals): from Grk *ephēmeros* = lasting a day, something ephemeral; spec. a plant that grows, flowers, and dies in a few days (as many desert and arctic annuals)

(170)

Definition in WTNID (annuals): from LL *annualis*, blend of L *annuus* and L *annalis* yearly, something that lasts one year or season; spec. a plant that completes its growth in one growing season

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – province + connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms do not differ in the origin because both Greek and Latin were rich sources of scientific terms and thus the origin is not decisive here. A term ‘annuals’ is a term more spread among common users unlike the term ‘ephemerals’ which seems to be of more expert nature. At the same time, the term ‘annual’ has wider extent of meaning because we can use it in other contexts than in connection with flowers.

86) **ASCLEPIAD** – (AL – DE110) – **MILKWEED** (AL – DE110)

(171) *In orchids and **asclepiads (milkweeds)** they are dispersed as entire pollinia with thousands of grains (Topic G1), although most of these fragments when they reach the stigmas and can fertilize more than one flower.*

Definition in WTNID (asclepiad): from New Latin *asclepias*, a plant of the family Asclepiadaceae

(172)

Definition in WTNID (milkweed): milk from Old English *milc*, weed from OE *wēod* herb, grass, weed, → a plant of the family Asclepiadaceae, spec. one of the genus *Asclepias*

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social - formal vs. neutral (affected by origin)

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The two words originate in different languages and at the same time the term ‘asclepiad’ is clearly scientific term which qualifies it as a marker of formal style.

87) **ILLUMINATION** (AL – DE144) – **NIGHT BREAK** (AL – DE144)

(173) *LDPs and SDPs in fact respond to the length of the night, as introducing a brief period of **illumination (a night break)** overcomes the effect of long nights.*

Definition in WTNID (illumination): from Latin *illuminatus* (past part. of *illuminare* to illuminate), the action of illuminating or condition of being illuminated

(174)

Definition in WTNID (night-break): break (n) – from ME *breke*, fr. *breken*, an interruption in continuity

Definition in OED (break): from Old English *brecan*, from Proto-Germanic *brekan*, from Proto-Indo-European root *bhreg-*

Definition in OED (night): from Old English *niht*, from Proto-Germanic *nakht-*

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social - formal vs. neutral (affected by origin)

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. Two the words originate in different

languages and at the same time the term ‘illumination’ is more scientific term and thus more formal.

88) **PIGMENT** (AL – DE144) – **CHROMOPHORE** (AL – DE144)

(175) *Each monomer (subunit) has a **pigment** (**chromophore**) molecule attached to it through a –S- (thioether) bond to the amino acid cysteine.*

Definition in WTNID (pigment): from Latin *pingere* – to paint, a natural or synthetic inorganic substance that imparts a color including black or white to other materials

(176)

Definition in WTNID (chromophore): ISV *chrom-* + *-some*, orig. formed as G chromosome, a functional group (as nitroso, nitro, azo, or the conjugated unsaturated grouping of quinone) that gives rise to color in a molecule and that with the assistance of an auxochrome (as a hydroxyl or amino group produces a dye

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – province + connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonymous words differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The words differ in the province, in the scientific component. The word ‘chromophore’ is more scientific and thus more formal. It is adduced in the International Scientific Vocabulary. At the same time, the term ‘pigment’ has a wider extent of meaning because it can be used in many other contexts which are not connected with biology.

89) **VARIANT** (AL – DE216) – **MORPH** (AL – DE216)

(177) *Some of these **variants**, or **morphs**, occur at a low frequency of less than 1 in 20 plants, and are maintained only by the occasional recurrent appearance from mutation or rare gene combination.*

Definition in CIDOE (variant): a variant is something which differs a little from other similar things

Definition in OED (variant): from Old French *variant* and directly from Latin *variantem*

(178)

Definition in OED (morph): as a noun in biology 1955, short for *metamorphosis* (change of form or shape, from Latin *metamorphosis*, from Greek *metamorphosis*

Definition in CIDOE (metamorphosis): is a process by which the young form of insects and some animals, such as frogs, develops into the adult form

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social – province + connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it, in the province. The word ‘morph’ is more scientific term than ‘variant’. The first mentioned word is more used by scientists in the field of biology than the other word. ‘Variant’ would be more frequently used by non-specialists in different contexts in general conversation. There is another difference which is in the connotative meaning. The two words are synonyms in this context, but they have different meanings without the context where they would not be synonyms.

90) **SOIL** (AL – DE249) – **GROUND** (AL – DE250)

(179) *Destruction of the ecology of agricultural soils has resulted from monocultures with high input of fertilizer and pesticide and some areas are losing their potential for agricultural production.*

Definition in OED (soil): originally *land, area, place*, from Anglo-French *soil*, from Old French *sol* (bottom, ground, soil)

Definition in CIDOE (soil): the material in the surface of the ground in which plants grow; earth

(180) *Some of the features that characterize ephemeral grasses are those that make them good crop plants: many are self-fertile, guaranteeing seed set; they produce many seeds within a year of planting; they are characteristic of disturbed **ground**; they have no innate seed dormancy but can germinate as soon as conditions are favourable; in comparison with other grasses their seeds are large and rich in starch favouring rapid germination.*

Definition in CIDOE (ground): the surface of the Earth, the floor of a room, or a piece of land esp. used for particular purpose

Definition in OED (ground): from Old English *grund*

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech’s classification. The two words refer to slightly different object without context. The denotative meaning is the same. However, there are slight differences in connotative meaning. It means that the

term 'ground' has a wider meaning than the term 'soil' which has more narrow meaning.

91) **APPROACH** (AL – DE8) – **TECHNIQUE** (AL – DE8)

(181) *Plant function and regulation were first studied using chemical, surgical and genetic **approaches**.*

Definition in CIDOE (approach): a new way of considering

(182) *Recently, research has made dramatic progress as a result of the **techniques** of molecular biology and the study of mutants.*

Definition in OED (technique): a way of doing an activity requiring skill, in the arts, sport, science, etc.

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech's classification. The two words refer to slightly different object without context. The denotative meaning is the same. However, there are slight differences in connotative meaning. It means that the term 'approach' is more a mental approach while the term 'technique' is more a manual approach. However, they can overlap each other.

92) **DEGREE** (AL – DE4) - **STAGE** (AL – DE4)

(183) *Divisions in plant classification are based on whether the sporophyte or gametophyte is the main plant, the **degree** of reduction of the subsidiary **stage** and the structures involved with reproduction.*

Definition in CIDOE (degree): amount or level of something

Definition in OED (degree): from Old French *degre*, from Late Latin *degradare*, from Latin *de-* + *gradus*

(184)

Definition in CIDOE (stage): a part of an activity or a period of development

Definition in OED (stage): sense of 'period of development or time in life', from Middle English, from Old French *estage*, from Vulgar Latin *staticum*

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech's classification. The two

words refer to slightly different object without context. The denotative meaning is the same which is ‘the level of something’. However, there are slight differences in connotative meaning. The term ‘stage’ is typically connected with time while the term ‘degree’ is usually an amount of something.

93) **SEED** (AL – DE4) – **NUCLEUS** (AL – DE4)

(185) *In seed plants the male gametophyte is reduced to the three **nuclei** of the pollen grain and the female gametophyte to an embryo sac, commonly of eight cells, retained on the parent sporophyte (Topic G2).*

Definition in CIDOE (seed): a small esp. round or oval object which forms inside a fruit or the case of a vegetable such as a bean and from which, when it is planted, a new plant can grow

Definition in DOB (seed): the structure that develops from the fertilized ovule in seed plants

Definition in OED (seed): Old English *sed*, from Proto-Germanic *sediz* “seed”

(186)

Definition in CIDOE (nucleus): pl. *nuclei*, the part of a cell that controls its growth

Definition in DOB (nucleus): the part of a eukaryotic cell that contains the genetic material

Definition in OED (nucleus): from Latin *nucleus*

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech’s classification. The two words refer to slightly different object without context. The denotative meaning is the same which is ‘the core’. However, there are slight differences in connotative meaning. These two synonyms are very special because looking at it in detail; they can be possibly considered as meronyms.

94) **BROADLY** (AL – DE5) – **WIDELY** (AL – DE5)

(187) *Model organisms are used because they are comparatively easy to study and sufficiently similar to other related organisms that findings can be **broadly** applied.*

Definition in CIDOE (broadly): including a wide range of things

(188) *A model organism is one studied by many scientists because it has characteristics which make it easy to study and because it is sufficiently similar to other organisms that conclusions from it can be **widely** applied.*

Definition in CIDOE (widely): having a larger distance from one side to the other than is usual or expected, esp. in comparison with its length; not narrow

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech's classification. The two words refer to slightly different object without context. The denotative meaning is the same. However, there are slight differences in connotative meaning. It means that the term 'wildly' is more about length while 'broadly' is more abstract term.

95) **DEVELOPMENT** (AL – DE5) – **PROGRESS** (AL – DE6)

(189) *Antirrhinum majus is an important model of flowering mechanisms and to describe the genes controlling flower **development**.*

Definition in CIDOE (development): cause to grow or change into a more advanced form

(190) *Poling resources and working on one plant makes **progress** much more rapid.*

Definition in CIDOE (progress): advancement to an improved or more developed state, or to a forward position

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech's classification. The two words refer to slightly different object without context. The denotative meaning is the same. However, there are slight differences in connotative meaning. Both the words means 'to get to higher level' but the term 'development' is more concrete term. 'Development' is noticeable by the senses, but the term 'progress' is more abstract improvement.

96) **ELABORATE** (AL – DE5) – **COMPLEX** (AL – DE14)

(191) *The large and **elaborate** flower is easy to dissect and is used in biochemical and proteomic studies of flower shapes, organ identity, color and scent not possible with arabidopsis.*

Definition in CIDOE (elaborate): containing a lot of careful detail or many detailed parts

(192) *Genomics and proteomics yield large volumes of **complex** information that can only be processed and explored using computer software.*

Definition in CIDOE (complex): involving a lot of different but related parts

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech's classification. The two words refer to slightly different object without context. The denotative meaning is the same. However, there are slight differences in connotative meaning. The term 'complex' means something connected meaningfully, something very considered. The term 'elaborate' is also connected but it does not have to be considered. There can be many details apart each other.

97) **CHARACTERISTIC** (AL – DE9) – **TRAIT** (AL – DE9)

(193) *The genetic basis of a **characteristic (trait)** is established experimentally by selectively pollinating plants.*

Definition in CIDOE (characteristic): something which is characteristic is typical of a person or thing; or characteristic is a typical or noticeable quality of someone or something

(194)

Definition in CIDOE (trait): a particular characteristic that can produce a particular type of behaviour

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the connotative meaning according to Leech's classification. The two words refer to slightly different object without context. The denotative meaning is the same. However, there are slight differences in connotative meaning. It means that the

term ‘trait’ means some characteristic in behaviour while ‘characteristic’ does not have to be behavioural specification.

98) **RESULT** (AL – DE18) – **CONSEQUENCE** (AL – DE19)

(195) *Different genes can give apparently conflicting **results**, so the more gene sequences that are used, the more robust the classification will be.*

Definition in CIDOE (result): something that happens or exists because of something else

(196) *These give rise to predictions, sometimes with far-reaching **consequences**, e.g. on pollen and seed flow in relation to genetic modification (Topic G5, H3, K3) or understanding plant population dynamics (Topic L4), vital in conservation.*

Definition in CIDOE (consequence): an often bad or inconvenient result of a particular action or situations

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: affective – neutral vs. negative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the affective component of it. Both the term have the same denotative meaning. However, according to the definition the term ‘consequence’ has more negative affection than the more neutral term ‘result’.

99) **TO INVAGINATE** (AL – DE28) – **TO FOLD** (AL – DE28)

(197) *The inner of these membranes is **invaginated (folded)** to form cristae (singular crista) which project into the inner space, the stroma or matrix.*

Definition in OED (invaginate): from Medieval Latin *invaginatus*, past participle of *invaginare* “to put into a sheath, from Latin *in-* + *vagina* “a sheath”

(198)

Definition in CIDOE (fold): to bend so that one part of it lies on the other part, or to be able to be bent in this way

Definition in (fold): from Old English *bendan*, from Proto-Germanic base *band-*

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social - formal vs. neutral (affected by origin) + connotative

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it. The two words originate in different languages and at the same time the term ‘invaginate’ is more scientific term which qualifies it as a marker of formal style. The term ‘fold’ is a term more spread among common users. At the same time, the two words differ in the connotative component. In any other meaning, the words would not be synonyms.

100) **VESICLE** (AL – DE30) – **SAC** (AL – DE30)

(199) *Much of this flow of membrane through the cell occurs in vesicles, small sacs of membrane.*

Definition in OED (vesicle): small, bladder-like structure, from Middle French *vesicule*, from Latin *vesicula*

(200)

Definition in CIDOE (sac): specialized, a part of a plant or animal which is like a bag and often contains liquid

Definition in OED (sac): biological pocket, from French *sac*, from Latin *saccus*

DIFFERENCE IN CONNOTATION: social - province

ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENCES: The two synonyms do not differ in the origin because both have its origin in Latin, thus the origin is not decisive here. The words differ in connotation, more specifically in the social component of it, it the province. A term ‘vesicle’ is a term more spread among common users unlike the term ‘sac’ which seems to be more scientific nature. At the same time, the term ‘vesicle’ has wider extent of meaning because the term ‘sac’ is meant only in the biological context.