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**QUALIFICATION PAPER**

**THE ANALYSIS OF WORDS CONVEYING THE SAME NOTION IN THE  
CONTEXT**

**5220100-Philology and teaching languages (The English Language) for  
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## INTRODUCTION

Integration of Uzbekistan in the world and international community, speed of development of international economical, political and cultural relations suppose global transition in study and teaching foreign languages. Deep knowledge of foreign languages means not only practically mastering a language, but also study of its theoretical basis. In this plan the science is considered to be one of the main factors on successful mastering a language, development of education and qualification of personnel depend.

The President of the Republic of Uzbekistan I.A. Karimov stresses “The task of a science is establishment of our future, directions of future, natural law which will be in reality. The science must become the means strength driving development of society forward<sup>1</sup>”.

**The theme** of way qualification sounds as following: “The analysis of words conveying the same notion in the context”

**The actuality** of this work caused by several important points. We seem to say that the problem of synonyms is one of the main difficult ones for the English language learners. It can be most clearly seen in the colloquial layer of languages, which, in its turn at high degree is supported by development of modern informational technologies and simplification of lively speech. As a result, a great number of new meanings of one and the same word appear in our vocabulary.

**The aim** of the research is the definition of the specific character of synonym words and to investigate near synonyms with intensifying prefixes.

According to this general aim there put forward the following particular **tasks** of the investigation:

- 1) to compare different approaches to the concept of "synonyms";
- 2) to consider the concept of semas as a unit value;

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<sup>1</sup> Каримов И.А. Тарихий хотирасиз келажак йўқ. Тошкент “Ўзбекистон” 1999 й. 149-150 б.

- 3) to learn different approaches to the classifications of synonyms
- 4) to investigate near synonyms with the corpus-based case study
- 5) to search intensifying prefixes *super-*, *hyper-*, *mega-*, and *ultra* from various corpus-based dictionaries of English
- 6) to study the teaching ways of synonyms in the context

**The degree of study of the research.** The problem of synonyms has been studied by a lot of scientists as Arnold I.V. learned synonyms as a semasiological aspect in his “The English Word” in 1986, S. Potter studied types of synonyms in his “Modern Linguistics” in 1954, Lyons J. explored the role of synonyms in theoretical linguistics in 1969, Ginzburg R. S. investigated the classifications of synonyms in his “A course in Modern English Lexicology” in 1979, Lyons, J. learned types of meanings in the context in 1981 in his book „*Language, Meaning and Context*”, Cruse, D. A. studied paradigmatic relations of synonymy and Identity in the book „*Lexicology: An International Handbook on the Nature and Structure of Words and Vocabularies*” in 2002, Muminov.O. explored the classification of synonyms in his “Lexocology of the English Language” in 2008. After getting acquainted the above mentioned scholars work we found out that the analysis of words conveying the same notion in the context and analysis of Near Synonymy with the help of prefixes *super-*, *hyper-*, *mega-*, and *ultra* haven’t learned completely and there is still some issues to research.

The **material** includes: our qualification work was based upon the investigations made by a number of well known English, Russian and Uzbek lexicologists as A.I.Smirnitsky, B.A. Ilyish, N.Buranov, V.V. Vinogradov, O.Jespersen and some others and we used different types of dictionaries, the scientific literatures on Lexicology, Etymology, Historical Linguistics, Typology, Stylistics.

**The object of this research** are the near synonym prefixes *super-*, *hyper-*, *mega-*, and *ultra-* in English language.

**The subject matter** of this qualification paper is studying near synonyms and their role in enriching English.

**The novelty** of the qualification paper is to define by the concrete results of investigation. Special emphasize is laid on the diachronically and synchronically approaches of English synonyms. It is concerned with the corpus-based case study of Near Synonymy with intensifying prefixes *super-*, *hyper-*, *mega-*, and *ultra-* in six, corpus-based dictionaries of English.

The aim and the tasks of research define **the methods** of investigation, which represent the complex approach to the study of homonym words, including structural, morphological, semantic, lexical and typological ways of analysis.

The practical and theoretical value of the research are the material and results of the given investigation can serve the material for the theoretical and practical courses of Lexicology, seminars on Typology, the history of English language and stylistics.

The scientific hypothesis of this qualification paper is that this investigation may be used in theoretical and practical lessons on Grammar, Lexicology, Stylistics and soon in future.

The Qualification Paper **consists** of an introduction, three chapters and a conclusion, which followed by the list of literature used in the course of research.

**Introduction** determines the actuality, scientific novelty, the aim and tasks of the work, methods of research, its practical value, shows the material that served the basis for executed work.

**The first chapter** we consider the basic theoretical principles that underpin the analysis in the practice of synonyms and examine synonyms as general seme.

**The second chapter** shows the common analysis of synonyms in Modern English. The first and other items summarize the ideas concerning the modern methods and practical approaches in investigating the linguistic phenomenon of synonyms and

polysemantic words , we studied diachronic and synchronic research to the problem and made analysis of of Near Synonymy with the help of prefixes *super-*, *hyper*, *mega-*, and *ultra* .

**The third chapter** of the work shows teaching ways of synonyms in the context.

**The results of the research , that have been announced.** On the basis of the theme of the qualification paper an article in the English language have been published: the article under the title of “Distribution Features Of The English Synonyms”.

**Conclusion** gives the results of the investigation held.

**Bibliography** represents the list of the used literature, including scientific books , dictionaries and internet resources.

## **CHAPTER ONE. GENERAL SURVEY OF DEFINING SEME AS A UNIFYING ELEMENT OF SYNONYMY IN MODERN ENGLISH**

### **1.1. Componential analysis of semasiological studies.**

The study of meaning is a permanent interest of scholars. The disciplines and techniques of linguistics are directed at investigating meaning .

The branch of linguistics concerned with the meaning of words is called

semasiology (Greek *sēmasia* ‘signification’, *sēma* sign’, *sēmantikos* ‘significant’).

The main objects of semasiological study are semantic development of words, relevant distinctive features and types of lexical meaning, polysemy and semantic structure of words, semantic grouping and connections in the vocabulary system, i.e., synonyms, antonyms, terminological systems, etc.<sup>2</sup>

The two terms, semasiology and semantics, are sometimes used as synonyms referring to the science of meaning. According to Prof. J.R. Firth, the English word for the historical study of change of meaning was *semasiology*, until the new term *semantics* was introduced into linguistic studies.

As far back as the 1820s, German classicist C.Chr. Reisig set up *semasiology* as an independent division of linguistics, and suggested that it should investigate the conditions governing the development of meaning. French philologist Michel Bréal argued that, alongside of phonetics and morphology, there ought also to be a science of meaning, which he proposed to call *la sémantique*, from the Greek *sēma* ‘sign’. In 1897 he published his *Essai de sémantique* which was translated into English under the title *Semantics: Studies in the Science of Meaning*. This translation played a decisive role in the diffusion of the new science and its name.

The term *semantics* has become highly ambiguous. It is used to cover several different meanings. It is used to refer to the study of meaning in linguistics. It is also used to denote the meaning of a word, sign, sentence, etc. *Semantics*, also called *significs*, is a branch of semiotics dealing with the relations between signs and what they denote. *General semantics* is a philosophical approach to language exploring the relationship between the form of language and its use and attempting to improve the capacity to express ideas.

For some linguists the term *semasiology* is preferable for the science of word meaning because it is less ambiguous. As semasiology deals with lexical meaning only, it may be regarded as a branch of linguistic semantics which deals with all

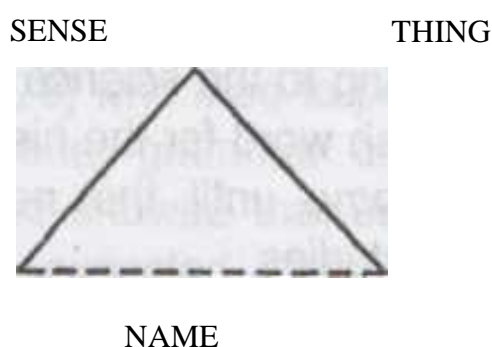
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<sup>2</sup> Arnold I.V. The English Word. - M: High School, 1986. - p. 112



kinds of linguistic meaning (i.e., meaning of all kinds of units - words, morphemes, grammatical forms, word combinations, sentences).

The fundamental term of semantics, meaning, is ambiguous and difficult to define. C.K. Ogden and I.A. Richards devoted to this problem their famous book on semantics, *The Meaning of Meaning*, first published in 1923. Here they listed no less than 16 different definitions of the term - or 23 if each subdivision is counted separately



The definition of lexical meaning has been attempted more than once in accordance with the main principles of different linguistic schools. The disciples of Ferdinand de Saussure consider meaning to be the relation between the object or notion named, and the name itself<sup>3</sup>. This is known as analytical or referential denotational concept of meaning which is schematically represented above<sup>4</sup>.

In this diagram, the *name* denotes the phonetic and graphic form of the word; the *sense* is the information conveyed by the name (concept); the *thing* is the non-linguistic phenomenon to which the word refers (**denotatum** or **referent**). The dotted line suggests that there is no immediate relation between the word and the referent: it is established only *through the concept*. Since the 'thing' is non-linguistic, it has no place in a purely linguistic analysis. Linguists can confine their attention to one side of the triangle: the line connecting the name with the sense. Between the two terms, there exists a reciprocal and reversible relationship:

<sup>3</sup> Arnold I.V. The English Word. - M: High School, 1986. p-113

<sup>4</sup> Ulmann. S "The Principles of Semantics" Glas. 1973.p-6

the name calls up the sense and vice versa, the sense makes us think of the name. It is this reciprocal relationship between name and sense - or between *signifiant* ('the signifier') and *signifié* ('the SIGNIFIED'), in Saussure's terminology - that linguists call the meaning of the word .

Descriptive linguistics of the Bloomfieldian trend defines the meaning as the situation in which the word is uttered and the response which it calls forth in the hearer <sup>5</sup>.

Both ways of approach afford no possibility of a further investigation of semantic problems in strictly linguistic terms, and therefore, if taken as a basis for general linguistic theory, give no insight into the mechanism of meaning .

According to Stephen Ullmann , the heel of *Achilles* of the analysis of meaning is what has been called the 'sense' in the diagram. The trouble is that the sense is an abstract, intangible mental entity, accessible only through introspection and linguistics cannot be content to rely on a procedure of people looking into their minds, each into his own.

Some of L. Bloomfield's successors went so far as to exclude semasiology from linguistics on the ground that meaning could not be studied objectively, and was not part of language but an aspect of the use to which language is put. This point of view was never generally accepted. The more general opinion is well revealed in R. Jakobson's pun *Linguistics without meaning is meaningless*.

The majority of linguists agree in one basic principle: they all point out that lexical meaning is the realization of the notion by means of a definite language system<sup>6</sup> .

The notional or conceptual content of a word is expressed by its denotative meaning (also called referential) which may be of two types, according to whether the word's function is *significative* and evokes a general notion or *demonstrative*, i.e., identifying and denotes an actually existing individual thing.

The emotional content of the word is its capacity to evoke or directly express speaker's feelings and attitude. It is rendered by the emotional or expressive

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<sup>5</sup> Ullmann, S "The Principles of Semantics" Glas. 1973.pp-7-8

<sup>6</sup> Arnold I.V. The English Word. - M: High School, 1986. pp-114-115

counterpart of meaning, also called emotive charge, affective meaning, connotative meaning. The expressive counterpart of meaning is optional.

Within the affective connotations of a word researchers distinguish its capacity to evoke or directly express: a) emotion, e.g., *daddy* as compared to *father*; b) evaluation, e.g., *clique* as compared to group; c) intensity, e.g., *adore* as compared to love; d) stylistic colouring; e.g., *slay* as compared to *kill*.

The complexity of word meaning is manifold. Apart from the lexical meaning including denotative and connotative meaning, it *is always combined with the grammatical meaning defined as an expression in speech of relationship between words based on contrastive features of arrangements in which they occur*. Lexical meaning of every word is strongly dependent upon the grammatical meaning. To illustrate this, I.V. Arnold considers the word *adored* in the following epigram by Oscar Wilde: *Men can be analyzed, women - merely adored*. Here *adored* has a lexical meaning and a grammatical meaning. The grammatical meaning is that of a participle II of a transitive verb. The denotational counterpart of the lexical meaning realizes the corresponding notion, and consists of several components, namely- feeling, attachment and respect.

Componential analysis is one of the modern methods of semantic research. It attempts to reduce meaning to its smallest components, hence the term *componential analysis*.

Componential approach to meaning has a long history in linguistics. The first researchers who suggested and developed the method of componential analysis were American anthropologists- linguists F.G.Lounsbury and W.H. Goodenough who studied the American Indian languages. Their particular interest lay in studying kinship terms of various Amerindian tribes.

In the 1950s-80s there appeared a sizable linguistic literature of articles and book-length monographs devoted to componential analysis. Many linguists were concerned with componential analysis: J. Fodor, J.Katz, E. Nida, Y.D. Apresyan, I.V. Arnold, R.S. Ginzburg, E.M.Mednikova, O.N. Seliverstova, I.A. Sternin.

Special procedures of componential analysis have been developed to determine the components of each meaning and represent this as a combination of elementary senses.

Such complexity of word meanings, however, is surely no sufficient reason for excluding the semantic side of language from the field of linguistics.

Whereas the phonological and even the grammatical resources of a language are closely organized and limited in number, the vocabulary is a loose assemblage of a vast multitude of elements. The numerical contrast is striking: there are forty-four or *forty-five* phonemes in English while on the other hand the Oxford Dictionary is said to contain *over* 400,000 words: a ratio *of* nearly 1 to 10,000. But there is an equally sharp contrast in cohesion and stability. New words are continuously formed or borrowed from outside sources to fill a genuine gap or to suit the whims of the speaker; new meanings are attached to old words<sup>7</sup>.

It is clear, then, that the vast, unstable and loosely organized congeries of words which we call vocabulary cannot be analyzed with the same scientific precision as the phonological and grammatical system of a language.

A number of attempts have been made to find efficient procedures for the analysis. An important step forward was taken in the 1950s with the development of componential analysis.

## **1.2.The concept of synonyms in linguistics**

Synonyms - words one part of speech which represent the same but different shades of lexical meaning and use in speech. Synonyms in language form a grouping of words and phrases, wearing a systemic nature.

Synonyms of the word referred to the same value , with a similar value words for the same concept or concepts are very close to each other , the words that are

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<sup>7</sup> Ulmann, S "The Principles of Semantics" Glas. 1973.pp-11-12

similar in meaning, but identical or very similar in one or more of its values , with a single word or a very close subject-logical content words, which are identical to the nominative ascribed, but tend to differ stylistically, words that can in the same context or in contexts that are close in meaning, replace each other .

In their study, devoted to the semantic and functional relationships of words and their synonyms in modern English, V.G. Vilyuman examining in detail all the features of synonymy, comes to the conclusion that it is necessary and sufficient for the recognition of words synonyms are common these words semantic and functional features, and the problem is reduced to synonymy identification on Collocations similarities and differences convergences and divergences in their meaning and function. The validity of this approach to the phenomenon of synonymy confirmed in a number of famous scientists.

Understanding the essence of synonymous relations is closely related to understanding of the nature and structure of linguistic meaning of the word. In theory, lexicology various methods are known interpretation of the semantic structure of the word.

V.G. Vilyuman determines the semantic structure of the word as a set of semantic features that are manifested in the establishment of semantic contiguity of words synonyms. As one of the possible ways of determining the semantic contiguity of words proposed to describe the analysis of the values of these words in the dictionaries. Two words considered semantically related to each other if given their verbal interpretation of one through the other. The connection between the words can be direct and indirect. Having studied the semantic links between the verbs, the combined values look, V.G. Vilyuman builds a matrix of semantic structures of verbs, synonyms. Matrix representation of semantic structures is not only a clear picture of the material, but also creates a picture of the private system in the language - synonyms, since the semantic structure of each word in the array is an ordered set of interrelated and juxtaposed values .

Deep penetration into the essence of linguistic phenomena, their nature and the laws of development promotes the comparison of these phenomena in two or more languages.

Many linguists consider it appropriate to compare between a small system, the members of which are linked semantically. This makes it possible to consistently identify lexical elements of each system, noting the time of coincidence between them, as well as explain why semantic contours of each word or words that have the same objective reference in the compared languages are different.

Comparative studies serve as a basis for typological studies, development of typological universals, as a result of comparisons identical and nonidentical set from a certain point of view elements.

M.M. Makovsky <sup>8</sup> in the article "Typology of lexical-semantic systems" emphasizes that the typological analysis of the vocabulary should not be reduced to a mere statement of the external, the most accessible to observation, but often random coincidences of individual elements of vocabulary and semantics. During the research necessary to find out whether there are common structural lexical-semantic model, inherent, regardless of the specific composition of the vocabulary, a number of languages, and if so, what are their particular laws.

Thus, various concepts are synonyms. However, we stopped at that synonyms - words relating to the same part of speech, fully or partially matched by value, but different in spelling and sound.

### **1.3. Sema as a unit of meaning of the word**

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<sup>8</sup> M.M. Makovsky. "Typology of lexical-semantic systems" Moscow.1973: 13-16.

Lexical meaning of the word is organized by field basis. The study of lexical meaning as a field phenomenon opens up interesting prospects for semasiological study, as it allows a broader view of many traditional semasiological problems, as well as to more adequately describe the structure of the lexical meaning of the unity of all its components - both nuclear and peripheral. An important conclusion arising from the recognition of the value field organization is recognized within the meaning of the words of the periphery as a structural element values. Field organizing principle of language indicates mandatory peripheral linguistic phenomena in each field. None linguistic phenomenon can not consist only of the core, the periphery value is the same as a full-fledged member of the lexical meaning, as the kernel.

The problem of determining the structure of lexical meaning in linguistics is not new, which makes the presence of a large number of opinions. However, until now scientists have not been able to come to an unambiguous interpretation.

Semantic structure of words in the language, by definition I.V. Sentenberga is the sum of its lexical and semantic variants. All the lexical-semantic variants of the word must belong to one part of speech .

I.A. Sternin notes that the lexical-semantic variants of words vary a lot from each other in their lexical content, although the shape of the word mark is not by itself is no difference. Under the lexical-semantic variation of the word scientist understands "inner word differences and language means removing the verbal sign of the asymmetry in the language".

A.I. Smirnitsky<sup>9</sup> believes that the distinction between lexical-semantic variants of a word is not reflected in their sound shell, but in a very large number of cases are expressed either in the difference between the syntactic constructions, or in different compatibility with other words. Not always, according to the scientist,

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<sup>9</sup> Smirnitskiy A. I. "Synonyms and their semantical features". T.;1981. "Lexicology of English Language".p-32

able to clearly establish the relationship and, therefore, consistent distinction between the concepts of "meaning" as a one-sided units, and the "word" of bilateral linguistic sign. Drawing on data from studies of A.I. Smirnitsky, we can conclude that "the lexical meaning of the word, to a greater or lesser extent, reflects the properties of objects and their relationships in the real world is characterized by the absence of clear lines of demarcation between his slovoznacheniyami, as there are no boundaries and in objective reality" .

When considering the structure of lexical meaning should take into account the fact that it not only is a kind of knowledge about the world, but also allows you to understand every word as a component of all the lexical-semantic system of language. Therefore, in this paper, the lexical meaning is understood as "the content of the word is displayed in the minds and secured therein understanding of the subject, property, processes, phenomena and so on."

Research problem of the semantic structure of a single word and all LSS as a whole is engaged semasiology where recently there has been a tendency to consider the lexical meaning by expanding it on the minimum semantic components Seme. In the analysis of the lexical meaning of the word is also the key concept of "token" and "sememe." The relationship between the same seme and sememes are reduced to the inclusion relation: sema is the minimum component values, and a set of seed forms a semantic structure sememes .

A clear boundary between the two held L.A. Novikov, who says that "sememe is a unit of the content plan of a higher rank than sema: it includes the latest. Sememe implemented on a communicative level (in the text, speech) as one of the elementary meanings. Seme stands at the level of linguistic analysis. With this and describes the similarities and differences correlative sememes. Due to note the content of sememes to simpler, prodelnym in this case thought "semem, set specific structure of the first".



Thus, sema is minimal, further indivisible component of the plan content of the word. It is this understanding Seme we follow in this work.

Theoretical analysis of the problems of synonymy and Seme led to the following conclusions:

- 1) synonyms - words that belong to one and the same speech, fully or partially matched by value, but different in spelling and sound;
- 2) synonyms in language form a grouping of words and phrases, wearing a systemic nature;
- 3) the lexical meaning of the word is a combination of elementary semantic units;
- 4) sema is the minimum component values, and a set of seed forms a semantic structure sememes.

## **CHAPTER TWO. THE ANALYSIS OF WORDS CONVEYING THE SAME NOTION IN THE CONTEXT**

### **2.1. Different approaches to the study of synonyms**

This paragraph is devoted to the analysis of semantic and functional relationships and word and their synonymy in Modern English. V. G. Vilyuman, in detail analyzing all signs of synonymy, comes to conclusion that necessary and

sufficient for confession of the words as the synonymic ones features are general for the analyzed words semantic and functional signs but, however the problem of synonymy according to Vilyume's opinion is being lead to the discovering the resemblances and differences of the meaning and functions of the words on the base of their combinability. This idea might be truly supported by the investigations of other linguists such as A.V. Smirnitskiy and G. Khidekel.

We must also notion here that the understanding of the essence of the synonymous relations is closely connected with the understanding of the essence and structures of the semantic structure of a word.

V. G. Viluman defines the semantic structure of the word as a set of semantic signs, which are revealed at the determination of semantic adjacency of the synonymic words. According to his opinion, one of the possible ways of the determination of semantic adequacy of the words is offered by the analysis of the description of meanings for these words in explanatory dictionaries. Two words are considered as semantically correspondent to each other if their vocabulary meaning is explained one trough another. The relationship between two words can also be direct and mediated. For example, having studied the semantic relationship between verbs which are united by the semantic meaning of "to look" V. G. Viluman builds the matrix of the semantic structures of the synonymic verbs analyzed.<sup>10</sup>

The problems of the comparative study of lexicon in different languages have found their reflected images in the works of such kind famous lexicologists as A. V. Scherba, R. A. Budagov, V. G. Gak, B. A. Uspenskiy, V. N. Yartseva, Sh. Bally, S. Uliman, U. Veinrich, A. V. Smirnitskiy and the other.<sup>11</sup>

The verbs which fall into one synonymous row, can possess the miscellaneous character of composing restrictions. The composing restrictions can be of lexical, semantic or reffering character. The lexical restriction reveals in the

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<sup>10</sup> . Baker Sh. The Complete Stylistics. N/Y. 1992y. p.47

<sup>11</sup> Виноградов В. В. «Лексикология и лексикография», Избрание труды М.:, 1977. стр 119 - 122

following fact: a synonym can be used only with determined circle of words. However, the verbal synonyms practically do not possess such type of instructions, though there are some examples which might be suitable, to some degree, to the given type of restrictions.

To reach/ to achieve, to gain, to attain one's aim (e. g. the object of one's desire, success, fame, glory). The verbs "to gain" and "to attain" mustn't be substituted onto the verbs "to achieve", or "to reach", because the noun expression to reach/to achieve/the attention of the clerk are wrong.

The deep penetration to the essence of language phenomena, their nature and laws of the development is promoted by the collation of these phenomena in two and more languages.

Much linguistics consider as expedient to match the small systems between themselves, the members of which are semantically bound between itself. This marbles us to define the lexical elements, the members which are semantically bound between itself, of each system by means of investigation, and to note the moments of the coincidences between them, as well as to explain why the semantic sidebars of each word or words, which have the alike subject reference in compared languages, are turned out to be different.

For example, the Russian linguist M.M.Makovskiy in his article "Typology of Lexical-Semantic systems" emphasized that the typological analysis of lexicon must not only be reduced to the external, mostly available establishments, which are often available for observation, but often casual in coincidences in their lexical and semantically meanings. In the course of studies we must necessary realize, if there general structured lexical-semantic models, common for many languages (Russian and Uzbek are included), exist, and if yes, what kind of peculiarities and laws are observed for this.

Thereby, we see that the problem of synonymy was studied and being studied by lexicologists in particular way.

## Synchronic and diachronic approach to the study of synonyms

The distinction between synchronic and diachronic treatment is so fundamental that it cannot be overemphasized, but the two aspects are independent and cannot be understood without one another. It is therefore essential after the descriptive analysis of synonymy in present day English to take up a historical line of approach and discuss the origin of synonyms and the causes of their abandonment in English.

The majority of those who studied synonymy in the past have been cultivating both lines of approach without keeping them scrupulously apart, and focused their attention on the prominent part of foreign loan words in English synonymy, e.g: freedom – liberty or heaven – sky, where the first elements are native and the second, French and Scandinavian respectively. O. Jespersen<sup>12</sup> and many others used to stress that the English language is peculiarly rich in synonyms because Britons, Romans, Saxons, Danes and settling upon the soil of the British Isles could not but influence each other's speech. British scholars studied Greek and Latin for centuries used Latin as a medium for communication on scholarly topics.<sup>13</sup>

Synonymy has its characteristic patterns in each language. Its peculiar feature in English is the contrast between simple native words stylistically neutral, literary words borrowed from French and learned words of Greco – Latin origin. This results in a sort of stylistically conditioned triple “keyboard” that can be illustrated by the following:

Native	Borrowed (French)	Borrowed (L)
to ask	to question	to interrogate
to gather	to assemble	to collect
teaching	guidance	instruction

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<sup>12</sup> Jespersen, Otto. *Growth and Structure of the English Language*. – Lnd: Oxford, 1982.- pp.246-249

<sup>13</sup> I. V. Annold, “The English Word” M.; 1973, p 187

English also uses many pairs of synonymous derivatives, the one Hellenic and the others Romance, e.g.: periphery – circumference, sympathy – compassion.

The pattern of stylistic relationship represented in the above table, although typical, is by no means universal. For example, the native words *dale*, *dead*, *four* are the poetic equivalents of their much more frequent borrowed synonyms *valley*, *act* or the hybrid *beautiful*.

This subject of stylistic differentiation has been one of much controversy in recent years. It is universally accepted however, that stylistic and semantic properties may change and synonyms at one time formed a stylistic opposition only, may in the course of time become ideographically cognitively contrasted as well, and vice versa.

The introduction of a borrowed word almost invariably starts some alteration both in the newcomer and in the semantic structure of existing words that are close to it in meaning. When in the 13<sup>th</sup> century the word *sail* was borrowed into English its meaning was “a trip of land”. The upper layers of earth in which plants grow had been denoted since Old English by one of the synonyms: *eorpe*, *land*, *fold*. All these words had other central meanings so that the meaning in question was with them the secondary.

Now, if two words coincide in meaning and use, the tendency is for one of them, to drop out of the language. *Folde* had the same function and meaning as *eorple* and in the fight for survival the latter won. The polysemantic word “land” underwent an intense semantic development in a different direction and so dropped out of this synonymic series. In this way it became quite natural for *soil* to fill the obvious lexical gap, receive its present meaning and become the main name for the corresponding notion, i.e. “the mould in which the plants grow”. The noun *earth* retained this meaning throughout its history, whereas the word *ground* in which this meaning was formerly absent, developed it. As a result this synonymic group comprises at present *soil*, *earth* and *ground*.<sup>14</sup>

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<sup>14</sup> А.А.Уфимцева «Опыт изучения лексики» М.: 1962 стр 162

The fate of the word *Folde* is not at all unusual. Many other words not marked in the dictionaries as “archaic” or “obsolete” have dropped out in the same competition of synonyms: others survived with a meaning more or less removed from the original one. The process is called synonymic differentiation and is so current that M. Breal regarded it as an inherent law of language development. It must be noted that synonyms may influence each other semantically in two diametrically opposite ways: one of them is dissimilation, the other the reverse process, i.e. assimilation. The assimilation of synonyms consists in parallel development. An example of this is furnished by the sense development of Middle English adverbs meaning “swiftly”, and subsequently “immediately”. This law was discovered and described by G. Stern, H. A. Treble and G. H. Vallins give as examples the pejorative meanings acquired by the nouns *wench*, *knave*, *churl* which originally meant “girl”, “boy” and “laborer” respectively, and point out that this loss of old dignity became linguistically possible because they were so many synonymous terms to hand.<sup>15</sup>

The important thing to remember, is that it is not only borrowings from foreign languages but other sources as well that have made increasing contributions to the stock of English synonyms. There are for instance the words that come from dialects, and in the last hundred years, from American English and particular. As a result speakers of British English may make use of both elements of the following pairs, the first element in each pair coming from the USA: *dues* – subscription, long distance call – trunk call, radio – wireless.

There are some minor points of interest that should be discussed in connection with the problem of synonymy. It has been often found that subject prominent in the interest of community tend to attract a large number of synonyms. Its common knowledge that in “*Beauuf*” there are 37 synonyms for hero and at least a dozen for battle and fight. The same epic contains 17 expressions for sea to which 13 more may be added from other English poems of that period. In Modern English there are at least twenty words used to denote money: *beans*, *bucks*, *the chips*, *do* – *re* –

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<sup>15</sup> H. A. Treble and G. H. Vallings, “An ABC of English Usage”, Oxford, 1957 p.173

mi, the needful, wherewithal, etc. We know that in early New English the verb overlook was employed in the meaning of “look with a evil eye upon, cast a spell over” from which there developed the meaning “deceive” first recorded in 1596. Exactly half a century later we find oversee a synonym of “overlook” employed the meaning of “deceive”.

Of special importance for those who are interested in the present – day trends and characteristics peculiarities of the English vocabulary are the synonymic oppositions due to shift of meaning, new combinations of verbs with postpositive and compound nouns formed from them, shortenings, set expressions and conversion.

Set expressions consisting of a verb with a postpositive are widely used in present – day English and may be called one of its characteristic features.<sup>16</sup> Many verbal synonymic groups contain such combinations as one of their elements: to choose – to pick out, to abandon – to give up, to continue – to go on, to enter – to come in, to lift – to pick up....

## **2.2. The classifications of synonyms and their specific features.**

The semantic structures of two polysemantic words sometimes coincide in more than one meaning, but never completely.

Synonyms may also differ in emotional coloring which may be present in one element of the group and absent in all or some of the others. Lonely as compared with alone is emotional as is easily seen from the following examples:... a very lonely boy lost between them and aware at ten that his mother had no interest in him, and that his father was a stronger. (Albridge) I shall be alone as my secretary doesn't come to – day (M. Dickens). Both words denote being apart from others, but lonely besides the general meaning implies longing for company,

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<sup>16</sup> Roget's Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases, 1962 I. V. Arnold, “The English Word” M.; 1973 p144

feeling sad because of the lack of sympathy <sup>17</sup>and companionship. Alone does not necessarily suggest any sadness at being by oneself.

If the difference in the meaning of synonyms concerns the notion or the emotion expressed above, the synonyms are classed as ideographic synonyms, and the opposition created in contrasting them may be called an ideographic opposition. The opposition is formulated with the help of a clear definitive statement of the semantic component present in all the semantic component present in all the members of the group. The analysis proceeds as a definition by comparison with the standard that is thus settled. The establishment of differential features proves very helpful, where as sliding from one synonym to another with no definite points of departure created a haphazard approach with no chance of tracing the system.

“The Anglo – Russian Dictionary of Synonyms” edited by J. D. Apresyan analyses semantic, stylistic, grammatical and distributional characteristics of the most important synonymic groups with great skill and thoroughness and furnishes an impressive array of well – chosen examples. The distinctive features evolved in describing the points of similarity and difference within groups deserves special attention. In analyzing the group consisting of the nouns look, glance, glimpse, peep, sight and view the author’s surges the following distinctive features:

1. quickness of the action
2. its character
3. the role of the doer of the action
4. the properties and role of the object

The words look, glance, glimpse and peep denote a conscious and direct endeavor to see, the word glance being the most general. The difference is based on time and quickness of the action. A glance is “a look which is quick and

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<sup>17</sup> The term has been introduced by V. V. Vinogradov.



sudden". A simple is quicker still, implying only momentary sight. A peep is "a brief furtive glimpse at something that is hidden". The words sight and view, unlike the other members of the group, can describe not only the situation from the point of one who sees something, but also situation in which it is the object – that what is seen, that is most important, e.g. a fine view over the lake. It is also important about synonyms is that they differ in their use of preposition and in other combining possibilities. One can, for instance, use at before glance and glimpse (at a glance, at a glimpse) but not before look.

In stylistic opposition of synonyms the basic of comparison is again the denotational meaning, and the distinctive feature is the presence or absence of a stylistic coloring which may also be accompanied by a difference in emotional coloring.

It has become quite a tradition with linguists when discussing synonyms to quote a passage from "As you like it" (act V, scene I) to illustrate the social differentiation of vocabulary and the stylistic relationship existing in the English language between simple, mostly native, words and their dignified and elaborate synonyms borrowed from the French. We shall keep to this time – honored convention. Speaking to a country fellow William, the jester Touchstone says: Therefore you clown, abandon, - which is in the boorish is company, - of this female, - which in the common is woman: which together is abandon the society of this female, or, clown, thou perishes; or to wit, I kill thee, make thee away, translate thy life into death.

The general effect of poetic or learned synonyms when used in prose or in every day speech is that of creating an elevated tone. The point may be proved by the very first example in this paragraph where the poetic and archaic verb slay is substituted for the neutral kill. We must be on our guard too against the idea that the stylistic effect may exist without influencing the meanings; in fact it never does. The verb slay not only lends to the whole poetical and solemn ring; it also

shows the writer's and his hero's attitude to the fact, their horror and repugnance of war and their feeling for the victims.

The study of synonyms is a borderline province between semantics and stylistics on the one hand and semantics and phraseology on the other because of the synonymic collocations serving as a means of emphasis.

Synonymic pairs like wear and tear, pick and choose are very numerous in modern English phraseology and often used both in everyday speech and in literature. They show all insure their memorableness such as rhythm, alliteration, rhyme and the use of archaic words seldom accruing elsewhere.

The examples are numerous: hale and hearty, with might and main, nevertheless and notwithstanding, stress and strain, rack and ruin, really and truly, hue and cry, wane and pale, act and deed. There are many others which show neither rhyme nor alliteration, and consist of two words equally modern. They are pleonastic, i.e. they emphasize the idea by just stating it twice, and possess a certain rhythmical quality which probably enhances their unity and makes them easily remembered. These are: by leaps and bounds, pure and simple, stuff and nonsense, bright and shining, far and away, proud and haughty and many more.

In a great number of cases the semantic difference between two or more synonyms is supported by the difference in valence. The difference in distribution may be syntactical, morphological, lexical, and surely deserves more attention than has been so far given to it. It is, for instance, known that bare in reference to persons is used only predicatively, while naked occurs both predicatively and attributively. The same is true about alone, which, irrespectively of referent is used only predicatively, whereas its synonyms solitary and lonely occur in both functions. The function is predicative in this following sentence: if you are solitary, be not solitary, if you are solitary, be not idle ( S. Johnson). It has been repeatedly mentioned that their distributional difference is not less important. Begin is generalized in its lexical meaning and becomes a semi- auxiliary when used with

an infinitive. E.g.: It has begun to be done- it has been begun. It follows naturally that begins and not commence is the right word before an infinitive even in formal style.

Contextual or context- dependent synonyms are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions. It may happen that the difference between the meanings of two words is contextually neutralized. E.g. buy and get would not generally be taken as synonymous, but they are synonyms in the following examples offered by J. Lyons: I'll go to the shop and get some bread. The verb bear suffer and stand are semantically different and not interchangeable except when used in the negative form; can't stand is equal to can't bear in the following words of an officer: Gas, I've swallowed too much of the beastly stuff. I can't stand it any longer. I'm going to the dressing- station (Aldington).

The classification system for synonyms was established by Academician V.V.Vinogradov, the famous Russian scholar. In his classification system there are three types of synonyms: ideographic (which he defined as word conveying the same concept but differing in shade of meaning), stylistic (differing in stylistic characteristics), and absolute (coinciding in all their stylistic characteristics)".

Synonyms usually fall into several groups: 1) absolute synonyms; 2) phrase logic synonyms; 3) ideographic synonyms; 4) stylistic synonyms.

In English there are a lot of synonyms, because there are many borrowings, for example, hearty (native- cordial borrowing). After a word is borrowed it undergoes desynonymization, because absolute synonyms are unnecessary for a language. However, there are some absolute synonyms in the language, which have exactly the same style, e.g. to moan, to groan, home land, motherland. In cases of desynonymization one of the absolute synonyms can specialize in its meaning and we get semantic synonyms, e.g. "city" (borrowed), "town" (native). The French borrowing "city" is specialized. In some cases the native word is specialized in its meaning, e.g. "stool" (native), "chair" French).

Absolute synonyms are rare in the vocabulary and on the diachronic level, the phenomenon of absolute synonymy is anomalous and consequently temporary: the vocabulary system invariably tends to abolish it either by rejecting one of the absolute synonyms or by developing differentiation characteristics in one or both (or all) of them. Therefore, it does not necessary to include absolute synonyms, which are temporary exception, in the system of classification.<sup>18</sup>

The vagueness of the term “shades of meaning” has already been mentioned. Further more there seems to be no rigid demarcation line between synonyms differing in their shades of meaning and stylistic characteristics. There are numerous synonyms which are distinguished by both shades of meaning and stylistic coloring. Therefore, even the subdivision of synonyms into ideographic and stylistic is open to question.<sup>19</sup>

Sometimes one of the absolute synonyms is specialized in its usage and we get stylistic synonyms, for example “to begin” (native), “to commence” (borrowed). Here the French word is specialized, for example, “welkin” (bookish), “sky” (neutral).

Stylistic synonyms can also appear by means of abbreviated form belongs to the colloquial style, and the full form to the neutral style, for example “examination”, “exam”. In a stylistic opposition of synonyms the bases of comparison is again the denotational meaning and the distinctive feature is the presence or absence of a stylistic coloring which may also be accompanied by a difference in emotional coloring.

It has become quite a tradition with linguistic<sup>20</sup> when discussing synonym to quote a passage from Shakespeare’s. ”As you like it” (Act V, Scene 1) to illustrate the social differentiation of vocabulary and the stylistic relationship existing in the English language between, simple mostly native words and their dignified and

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<sup>18</sup> Ginzburg R.S. “A Course in Modern English Lexicology” M; p 58

<sup>19</sup> Muminov O.M “English Lexicology “T.;2006 p.90

<sup>20</sup> O. Jespersen, Growth and Structure of the English Language”, Oxr,1945 p.91;

elaborate synonyms borrowed from the French. We shall keep to this time-honored convention. Speaking to a country fellow William, the jester Touchstone says: Therefore, you clown, abandon,- which is in the vulgar leave,- the society,- which in the boorish is company,- of this female,- which in the com on is woman; which together is abandon the society of this female; or, clown, thou perishes; or to thy better understanding deist; or, to wit, I kill thee make thee away, translate thy life into death.

Among stylistic synonyms we can point out a special group of words which are called euphemism. There are words used to substitute some unpleasant or offensive words, e.g. “the late” instead of “dead”, “to perspire” instead of “to sweat”, etc.

In present day English euphemism is mostly based on same social and ethical standard of behavior, on the desire not to hurt other people’s feelings, to soften painful news and only in the second place, on superstition. Not only English but other modern languages as well have a definite set of notions attracting euphemistic circumlocutions. Within the diachronic approach the phenomenon repeatedly classed by many linguists as taboo.<sup>21</sup>

There also phraseological synonyms, these words are identical in their meanings and style but different in their combining with other words in the sentence for example, “to be late for a lecture” but “to miss the train” “to visit museums” but “to attend lectures”.

N.N.Amosova stresses the patterned character of the phrases in question, the regularity of connection between the structure of the phrase and resulting semantic effect. She also points out that there may be cases when phrases of this pattern have undergone a shift of meaning and turned into phraseological units quite different in meaning from and not synonymical with, the verbs of the same root. This is the case with to give a lift, to give somebody quite a turn, etc.

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<sup>21</sup> Human “The Principles of Semantic, Glos 1959,p.109.

If the difference in the meaning of synonyms concerns the notion or the emotion expressed, as was the case in the groups discussed above, the synonyms are classed as ideographic synonyms; and the opposition. They differ in their denotational meanings. For example, beautiful (usually about girls) and handsome (usually about men). There are ideographic synonyms but “to die – to pass away”, the neutral words have their stylistically colored words.

to see (neutral) but – to behold (bookish)

a girl (neutral) but – a maiden (poetic)

money (neutral) but – dough (colloquial)

to live (neutral) but – to band out (colloquial)

Prof. E. E. Aznaurova “points out those stylistic synonyms carry emotional evaluative information. Synonyms are distributionally different words, for example “too”, “also”, “as well” are synonyms. They always occur in different surroundings. The synonyms differ in their collocability, for example, we compare the collocability of synonyms “to book” and “to buy”.

Possible	Impossible
to book in advance	to buy in advance
to book somebody	to buy somebody
to book seats	to buy seats
to buy cheaply	to book cheaply
to buy from a person	to book a house

When speaking about complete synonyms they do not exist, Bloomfield says each linguistic form has constant and specific meaning “In contemporary

linguistics it has become almost axiomatic that complete synonymy does not exist. In the words of Bloomfield each linguistic form has a constant and specific meaning. If the forms phonemically different, we suppose that their meanings are also different. We suppose in shout, that there are no actual synonyms.

### **2.3.Peculiar distributional features of synonyms and their semantic combinability**

Synonymic pairs like wear and tear are very numerous in modern English and often used both in everyday speech and in literature. They show all the typical features of idiomatic phrases that ensure their memorability such as rhythm, alliteration, rhyme and the use of archaic words seldom occurring elsewhere.

The examples are numerous: hale and hearty, with might and main, nevertheless and notwithstanding, modes and manners, stress and strain, rack and ruin, really and truly, hue and cry, wane and pale, without let or hindrance, act and deed. There are many others which show neither rhyme nor alliteration, and consist of two words equally modern. They are pleonastic, i. e. they emphasize the idea by just stating it twice, and possess a certain rhythmical quality which probably enhances their unity and makes them easily remembered. These are: by leaps and bounds, to pick and choose, pure and simple, stuff and nonsense, bright and shining, far and away, proud and haughty and many more.

In a great number of cases the semantic difference between two OP more synonyms is supported by the difference in valence. Distributional oppositions between synonyms have never been studied systematically, although the amount of data collected is very impressive. The difference in distribution maybe syntactical, morphological, lexical, and surely deserves more attention than has been so far

given to it. It is, for instance, known that bare in reference to persons is used only predicatively while naked occurs both predicatively and attributively. The same is true about alone, which, irrespectively of referent, is used only predicatively, whereas its synonyms solitary and lonely occur in both functions. The function is predicative in the following sentence: you are idle, be not solitary, if you are solitary be not idle. (s. JOHNSON) It has been repeatedly mentioned that begin and commence differ stylistically, it must be noted, however, that their distributional difference is not less important. Begin is generalized in its lexical meaning and becomes a semi-auxiliary when used with an infinitive. It follows naturally that begin and not commence is the right word before an infinitive even in formal style. Seem and appear may be followed by an infinitive or a that-clause, whereas look which is stylistically equivalent to them is never used in these constructions. Aware and conscious are followed either by an o/-phrase or by a subordinate clause, e. g. to be aware of one's failure, to be aware that one's failure is inevitable. Their synonym sensible is preferably used with an o/-phrase.

Very often the distributional difference between synonyms concerns the use of prepositions: e. g. to answer a question, but to reply to a question. The adjectives anxious and uneasy are followed by the preposition about, their synonym concerned permits a choice and is variously combined with about, at, for, with. The misuse of prepositions is one of the most common mistakes not only with foreigners but with native speakers as well.

Lexical difference in distribution is based on the difference in valence. An example of this is offered by the verbs win and gain. Both may be used in combination with the noun victory: to win a victory, to gain a victory. But with the word war only win is possible: to win a war. We are here trespassing on the domain of set expressions, a problem that has already been treated in an earlier chapter. Here it will suffice to point out that the phraseological combining possibilities of words are extremely varied.



It has been repeatedly stated that synonyms cannot be substituted into set expressions; as a general rule each synonym has its own peculiarities of phraseological connections. The statement is only approximately correct. A. V. Koenig has shown that set expressions have special properties as regards synonymy, different from those observed in free phrases. Some set expressions may vary in their lexical components without changing their meaning, e. g. cast (fling or throw] smth in smb's teeth. Moreover, the meaning may remain unchanged even if the interchangeable components are not synonymous: to hang on by one's eyelashes (eyelids, eyebrows),-to bear or show a resemblance. The nouns glance, look and glimpse are indiscriminately used with the verbs give and have: to give a look (a glance, a glimpse), to have a look (a glance, a glimpse). With the verbs "cast and take the word glimpse is not used, so that only the expressions to cast a glance (a look) or to take a glance (a look) are possible. With the verbs steal, shoot, throw the combining possibilities are further restricted, so that only the noun glance will occur in combination with these. It goes without saying that phraseological interchangeability is not frequent.

The verbs which fall into one synonymous row, can possess the miscellaneous character of composing restrictions. The composing restrictions can be of lexical, semantic or referring character.

The lexical restriction reveals in the following fact: a synonym can be used only with determined circle of words. However, the verbal synonyms practically do not possess such type of restrictions, though there are some examples which might be suitable, to some degree, to the given type of restrictions:

For example, if we analyze the two synonyms - «to creep» and «to crawl», the latter, is more preferable in usage with the names of animals who are deprived with limbs (e.g. Snakes, gophers, etc.)

Ex: *The snakes crawled around the tree.*

Contrary to the above mentioned character, the semantic restriction is assigned by denotation of determined semantic feature, which a synonym must possess when correlating in syntactical relationship with the given word.

For instance, in the synonymic row «*to escape*», «*to flee*», «*to fly*», «*to abscond*», «*to decamp*» in the meaning of «*қочуу*» the first three synonyms possess a broad combinability, than the last twos. That is, in the case of semantic combinability the subject of the corresponding actions are both people and animals.

Ex: *His best tow dogs escaped from the camp, the dog fled into the forest.*

Meanwhile, the subject action of the verbs «*to abscond*» and «*to decamp*» are only people.

More complicated than the previously mentioned groups are the synonyms with the referring combinability restrictions. The example of such restrictions can be shown on the following synonymic row: «*to reach*» - «*to achieve*» - «*to gain*» - «*to attain*» in the meaning of «*әруулық*» The following noun expressions which denote the purpose or the result of the action are of typical character for these three synonyms:

*To reach / to achieve, to gain, to attain / one's aim* ( e.g. the abject of one's desires, success, fame, glory), «*to reach* (an understanding, agreement), «*to achieve* the reputation for being rude», «*to achieve* the realization of a dream», «*to gain / to attain / the attention of the clerk the confidence of the mountain people*. It should be borne in the mind that the last examples the verbs «*to gain*» and «*to attain*» mustn't be substituted onto the verbs «*to reach*», or «*to achieve*», because the noun expression «*to reach / to achieve / the attention of the clerk the confidence of the mountain people* are wrong (and not only somewhat different in the meaning).

Supervising more attentively to the nouns «*attention*» and «*confidence*», which are capable to enter in the place of the direct object in the sentences with the verbs «*to*

gain” and “to attain”, but not as the direct object to the verbs “to reach” and “to achieve”, we may notice the following interesting peculiar feature of the studied synonymical phrases: the subject for the state, marked by the words “attention” or “confidence”, do not correspond to the subject of the action, marked by the verbs “to gain” and “to attain”, i.e. the attention of the clerk is attracted not by the clerk himself, but by the other person, and the confidence of highlanders is achieved by someone different from highlanders.

However, the verbs “to gain” and “to attain” are capable to match with the nouns, marking such conditions (the characteristics, situations), the subjects of which coincide with the subjects of actions corresponding to these subjects: that is in the case of the verbs “to gain / to attain / one’s aim success, glory” the subject of the action of “to gain / attain” is one and the same person.

So now we can formulate the referring restriction for the verbs “to reach” and “to achieve”: they cannot be combined with the names of conditions, the subjects of which do not coincide with the subject of the action marked by these conditions.

The similar difference is presented in the pair of the synonyms “*to condescend*” - “*to deign*” ( *in the meaning of “chuxodumь”*): the first of them is combined both with the name of the action or property, the subject of which coincides with the subject for the verb “to condescend” (e.g. he condescend smile); and with the name or state the subject of which does not coincide with the subject for the verb “to condescend” (cf.: to condescend to smb’s folly). Meantime, the verb “to deign” can be combined in its meaning only with the names of the proper actions or the characteristics of the subject:

Ex: *He didn’t deign to smile, he didn’t deign to their folly.*

The differences in combinability between the synonyms can, like constructive differences, be motivated or non-motivated.

Let us take into consideration, for instance, the synonyms “*to surprise*” - “хайратга солмоқ” and “*to amaze*”, “*to astound*” – лол қолмоқ”, “хайрон қолмоқ”. They differ, in particular, on the feature of degree of a feeling. All the three synonyms can be combined with the adverbial modifiers of measure, but the verb “to surprise” can be combined with any circumstance of this class (ex.: he was a little not a little, very much sup), while “to amaze” and “to astound” can be combined only with those adverbial modifiers of measure, which mark the super high or the maximal degree of property, condition or feeling. At least once unusual unless absolutely anomalous, word-combinations.

In the above mentioned case the differences in combinability are naturally removed from the differences in the meanings of synonyms. However, even the differences in combinability can be semantically non-motivated.

Below we shall take into consideration some more several examples of differences in combinability between the synonyms.

The verb “gather” “йиғмоқ” differs from their synonyms “to assemble” and “to congregate” by the following: the subject for the verbs “to assemble” and “to congregate” can only be (in stylistically neutral text) only the living beings, but the subject for the verb “to gather” - can be expressed by any moving things:

e.g. *The clouds are gathering, it will rain.*

The verbs “*to ponder*”, “*to meditate*» and “*to ruminate*” in the meaning of “*фикр юритмоқ*” are combinable with the names of situation, characteristic, products of thoughts as object (the theme) of reflections:

cf.: to ponder / to meditate/ upon the course of actions; to ruminate over the past; to ponder / to meditate, to ruminate/ the point.

The verbs “to ponder” and “to meditate” are combinable with the names of the person as object for reflections; the latter is characterized for the verb “to ruminate”:

Ex.: *to ponder on modern young men, he meditated on all those people and the things they represented in his life.*

The verbs “to depress”, “to oppress” and “to weigh down (upon)” in the meaning of “*угнетать*” can be combined with the names of feelings, actions, characteristics, etc. as the reasons for the oppressed condition:

ex.: a feeling of isolation depressed / oppressed / her, she was oppressed by fear, oppressed / weighed down / by the heat. Besides, the verbs “to depress” and “to oppress” can be combined with the names of the concrete things and living beings in same meaning, which is not characteristic for the phrasal verb “to weigh down (upon)”:

ex: *the dim room depressed / oppressed / her, she depressed me.*

The problems of semantics on - former call the rapt attention to themselves by the leading scientists of the whole world. At the modern stage of development of linguistically science the important meaningfulness is gained both in the questions of the determination and revision of the background notions of semasiology, and the narrower problems of the concrete studies which are finally also directed on solving of the global philosophical problems of the correlation between the language, thinking and reality.

We analyze this chapter from the viewpoint of the Russian philologist E.V.Drozd. According to this work E.V. Drozd has denoted the study of the semantics and the peculiarities of the combinability of the English verbs “to amuse”, “to entertain”, “to grip”, “to interest”, “to thrill”

The given group of verbs was chosen not accidentally. The verbs “to amuse”, “to entertain”, “to grip”, “to interest”, “to thrill” reflects the important social and psychological notions, connected with intellectual - cognitive and emotional sphere of human activity and this group differs in a rather big frequency of its usage. The interest to this group is also undutiful from the purely a linguistically standpoint because of its extent semantic structure, and the various possibilities for combinability.

Proceeding with the concrete procedure of analysis of semantic composition of the given verb, we put the following problems before ourselves:

- 1) clearly delimit and describe the verbal word as a nominative and structured unit of the language, to analyze the peculiarities of the semantic structure of each verb and match them;
- 2) to install on the base of semantic composition what the subject of the name comprises in itself: only the main verbal component of action, condition, motion or it comprises the accompanying features: the manner, the source, the purpose - and to compare the verbs on this parameters.

In our study we used the method of vocabulary definition, by means of which the set of seams of the given lexical importance was analyzed, and any vocabulary mark was taken for instruction on semantic component. The observations show that the vocabulary definition comprises in itself, on the one hand, the instruction on attribute to the more general semantic area, but, on the other hand, - the enumeration of individual semantic features of a word. Uniting the synonymous, (excluding the rare cases of usage) we have got the set of components for the meaning of each investigated verb .

The Analysis shows that the general component for all the investigating verbs is a seam “*to affect the emotions*”, which gives us, as we seem, the right to refer the considered verbs to the category of the emotional ones. It is interesting to note that

no even one of the dictionaries, describing the meaning of the verbs “*to amuse*” and “*to entertain*”, gives the word “*emotion*” as such, but the presence of the component “*joy*”, “*happiness*”, “*revelry*” (purely emotional features) allows us to fix the presence of the component “to affect the emotions” in these verbs as well.

The general component for four from five considered verbs was the following: “to engage” and “keep the attention”. According to the investigations, this element in miscellaneous degrees is expressed in the meanings of the analyzed words in the following number: for “to amuse” it is fixed in 14, for “to entertain” - 11, for “to grip” - 19, for “to interest” - in 25 dictionaries. The component of meaning of the verb “to excite” is met in four from five verbs, that puts the verb “to thrill” in somewhat specific position. The other components are of purely specific character.

As conclusion, we may say that the verb, as no other part of speech, has a broad set of differential features, vastly complicating the semantics of it.

In the meaning of a verb there might be a denotation to the specifying of the denoted actions, to the conditions of persons, subjects, ways, types of the action, correlations to its communicators, modality of the content assignment of the utterance, time of the speech act, etc.

So, we say that two words are synonymous if substituting one for the other in all contexts does not change the truth value of the sentence where the substitution is made. Synonymy dictionaries include something that native speakers have very clear intuitions about. They have the intuition that a number of words may express the same idea.

Ex: You can find ‘kill’ as a synonym of ‘murder’, and ‘strong’ as a synonym of ‘powerful’, but not the other way round:

When you say they A and B are synonymous because they express the same object, you expect also that if A is synonymous of B, B is also synonymous of A. but this

isn't reflected in dictionaries. If A is a synonym of B and B is a synonym of A, these are true or absolute synonyms. They are interchangeable. But there are no absolute synonyms, it's an intellectual creation. Native speakers feel that some pairs of synonyms are more synonymous than others. This gives us the idea of a scale of synonymy. Obviously, the idea behind synonymy is that of sharing meaning that is that two words share (part of) their meaning. It has become a problem to establish how much overlapping do we need for two words for being considered synonyms.

Ex: truthful: honest they are synonyms although they share only part of their meaning; truthful: purple they are not at all synonyms.

E. Cruse says that an important thing here is contrast. When a speaker uses them indistinctively, he emphasizes their similarities not their differences.

Ex: kill: murder they share part of their meaning

The greater the number of features two words share, the more synonyms they are.

A and B share almost all of their meaning components.

Ex: - creature animal dog + Alsatian philosophy tree cat Spaniel.

Alsatian' and 'Spaniel' share more atoms of meaning than creature' and 'philosophy' but they are not synonyms. So this claim is wrong, because we need two things for synonymy: we need overlapping of meaning and, at the same time, the two words do not have to be contrastive.

Cruse says that synonyms must not only share high degree of semantic overlapping but also a low degree of implicit contractiveness. So, a high degree of semantic overlap results in a low degree of implicit contrast.

Ex: *John is honest* = *John is truthful*



*He was cashiered, that is to say, dismissed. = He was murdered, or rather executed*

Cashiered' and 'dismissed' are synonyms, while 'murdered' and executed' are contrastive synonyms

*Arthur's got himself a dog -or more exactly, a cat.*

The inherent relationship between 'cat' and 'dog' is that of contrast, for that reason this sentence is odd. It is impossible to put an end in the scale of synonyms.

Ex: *rap: tap rap: knock rap: thwack - rap: bang*

They are not prototypical synonyms. They are peripheral synonyms

Behind any study of synonymy is the idea of the quest for the establishment of true synonyms. Cruse reviews some apparently true synonyms.

Ex: *begin: commence; munch: chew; hate: loathe.*

Cruse takes into account the question of the contextual relations. For two words to be true synonymous we need two conditions: equivalence of meaning and equivalence of contextual relations. This is highly problematic because words don't behave like that. They tend to specialize in their contextual relations. 'Begin' and 'commence' mean exactly the same but in terms of contextual relations they are not.

Ex: *Johnny, tell Mummy when Playschool begins and she'll watch it with you.*

*Johnny, tell Mummy when Playschool commences and she'll watch it with you.*

*Arthur is always chewing gum (+)*

*Arthur is always munching gum (-)*

*I don't just hate him, I loathe him (+)*

*I don't just loathe him, I hate him (-)*

Apart from this there are minus aspects we have to take into account

Syntax: two syntactic terms have to behave syntactically the same

Ex: *Where is he hiding?* = *Where is he concealing?*

Conceal' needs an argument (DO)

*Johnny, where have you hidden Daddy's slippers? (+)*

*Johnny, where have you concealed Daddy's slippers? (-)*

Sense: you have to choose the correct sense of the word if you want to prove that two words are synonymous.

Ex: *Arthur's more recent car is an old one (+)*

*Arthur's most recent car is a former one (-)*

*He had more responsibility in his old job*

*He had more responsibility in his former job*

## **2.4 Analysis of of Near Synonymy with the help of prefixes *super-*, *hyper*, *mega-*, and *ultra*.**

Many linguists agree that synonymy is a semantically based notion. Less would hold the view that it is basically pragmatic. The most important types of criteria shared by proponents of the semantic approach are the following: (1) full correspondence of meaning with all the component senses identical in content, consequently, interchangeability in context, (2) paraphraseability, (3) similarity of meaning via sharing a body or cluster of meaning components or features, however, with retention of relational, compositional and truth-conditional independence, (4) sharing semantic field relatedness. Most supporters of the pragmatic view, including myself, tend to accept the above semantically based criteria, but they would add to them a few pragmatically based factors, such as (5) gradability of inter-relatedness within the domain of a prototype and (6) relatedness to given conceptual frames.

On the basis of the above, semanticists argue for a notion of *full*, *absolute*, or *complete synonymy*, in which there is full identity of sense and contextual relatedness. Lyons even goes further: characterizing the nature of complete correspondance of meaning and identity of potential contextual occurrence and hence usage, he sets up three types: *full*, *complete*, and *total* synonyms, differentiating them on the basis of the totality of meaning and context<sup>22 23</sup>. Moreover, he adds to this the criterion of propositional equivalence as a basic requirement. At the same time, he and others express that this type of synonymy hardly, if at all, exists in language, and that the importance of possible candidates for this notion is mainly of stylistic nature. Most of the lexical items taken to be synonymous by expert or non-expert users of a language are far from being identical in meaning, they just show a certain degree of similarity of their senses. Consequently, they are not rigid in their collocational range. The body of such synonyms is called *near synonyms* or *plesynonyms*. Both semanticists and lexical pragmatists study this group, the latter concentrating on the critical role of criteria

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<sup>22</sup> Cruse, D. A. Paradigmatic Relations of Inclusion and Identity III: Synonymy, in D.A. Cruse, F. Hundsnurscher, M. Job and P.R. Lutzeier (eds.) *Lexicology: An International Handbook on the Nature and Structure of Words and Vocabularies* (Berlin: Walter de Gruyter) 2002 pp-485-497.

<sup>23</sup> Lyons, J. *Language, Meaning and Context*. London: Fontana 1981p-50

(3) – (6) of the above list. In addition, they attribute great importance to the role synonyms play in different registers of usage. In analyzing sets of near synonyms, Cruse states that members of such groups tend to appear in clusters in the vocabulary of speakers, demonstrating that "synonyms are particularly frequent in areas which are in some way emotionally or socially sensitive for human beings"<sup>24</sup>. Not being strictly a proponent of frame semantics, however, Cruse fails to attribute this observation to conceptually based frame-relatedness, delineating synonyms from their semantic field-relatedness. His idea about contrastivity used as a method of testing near synonymy is based on significant pieces of observation, however, it calls for further, empirically based research. Details of such research are outlined in Chapter 4 of Murphy<sup>25</sup>.

Cruse observes that gradience within prototypicality is an important feature of identifying near synonyms, but he also notes that this type of identification and measurement is not exclusive. Not all clusters of synonyms are centered around a prototypical member which he calls a 'core term'. There exist non-centered clusters of synonyms as well. However, here again, he fails to refer to the role of conceptual frame-relatedness as an organizing principle. Lexical semanticians and frame semanticians will have to give an account of the particular domains with a description of their types as part of their research. Another task is to reveal the types and subtypes of words, expressions, and constructions (and their potential class relatedness) that belong to a cognitive-lexical domain under the dominance of a prototype or without it, and also to measure the type of relation and distance among each member of a set. In earlier studies of conditions of synonymy primarily content words have been targets of analysis. Synonymic relations of functional lexical items have rarely been studied. The need for such research is

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<sup>24</sup>Cruse, D. A. Paradigmatic Relations of Inclusion and Identity III: Synonymy, in D.A. Cruse, F. Hundsnurscher, M. Job and P.R. Lutzeier (eds.) *Lexicology: An International Handbook on the Nature and Structure of Words and Vocabularies* (Berlin: Walter de Gruyter) 2002. p-495

<sup>25</sup> Murphy, M.L. *Semantic Relations and the Lexicon* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press) 2003.pp-133-168

highlighted in Murphy<sup>26</sup>. The present paper is a contribution to this less studied field, wherein the synonymic nature of four amplifying, intensifying prefixes in English and Hungarian is analyzed.

*Intensifying prefixes in English: super-, hyper-, mega-, and ultra-*

It has to be noted that the intensifiers studied here are not easy to identify in their function as prefixes. They can occur as lexical constituents of compound forms, some of them may have a full, independent lexical status marked in writing by hyphenation or separation of the collocating lexical elements. In this function intensifiers dominantly refer to a positive polarity of verbal appreciation and express a high emotional content. *Super-* has a high rate of frequency in expressing this function either predicatively or as an attribute, whereas out of the other three lexical items only *mega-* may carry such functions, as exemplified by (I):

- (I) (1) Oh, that's super!  
(2) What a super idea!  
(3) That's mega!  
(4) That is a really mega idea!  
(5) That's hyper!  
(6) Oh, that's ultra!  
(7) What a hyperexciting film!

We also have to note that all four prefixes are of Greek or Latin origin. *Super-* was the one to gain wider use as an intensifier, and *mega-* is the youngest member of this lexical domain. Although they have not lost their original meaning in their

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<sup>26</sup> Murphy, M.L. *Semantic Relations and the Lexicon* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press) 2003. P-144

intensifier function as prefixes, a definite rate of its neutralization can be observed in testing native speakers' intuitive judgment. The content of their intensifying function shows various sets of variation, among others in different quantitatively based, qualitatively differing types of frame-based domains. Observing their distribution in such domains reveals several lexical gaps in their sets, as exemplified by (II):

(II) (1) supermarket/store, hypermarket/store, megamarket/store,  
ultramarket/store

(2) VGA/SVGA/SXGA/UXGA monitor

(3) superstar, hyperstar, megastar, ultrastar

In (II)(1) one can observe a gradience of primarily spatial extension, a quantitative feature in the given order of the examples listed, but qualitative differences are also manifested in the group. At the time when certain stores, markets were introduced with a large quantity of products in the 60s and 70s of the last century, calling them *supermarkets* was primarily contrasted with *ABC stores*, which were smaller in size and the choice of goods, and they dominantly specialized in selling food products. Then, as a newcomer into commerce, *hypermarkets* started to be established in the 80s, being even larger in size, offering an even wider range, a greater variety of products. Still in that decade, but significantly in the 90s, *megastores* such as Virgin started to function in various countries of western culture, which shopping institutions were perhaps even larger in size than the earlier types of stores and markets, but quite uniquely, their characteristic feature was, and still is, to specialize in selling one given type of products on a large scale. Items in (II)(2) exemplify the gradually growing, higher quality of the resolution of computer monitors given in megapixels, wherein the code X refers to *extra*, S

represents *super*, and U is the sign used for *ultra*. In (II)(3) the differently prefixed lexical items refer to the degree, and certainly also to the type of starship, wherein there is a definite contrast between *superstar* and *megastar* not only in greatness and fame, but also in versatility of activity and talent. With the aim to observe how the above and other possible factors underlying the above outlined marked heterogeneity emerge as potential characteristic features in the semantic choice and usage of the prefixes themselves, let us, in the following, study their definition in various desk size dictionaries of British English.

**The representation of the intensifying prefixes super-, hyper-, mega-, and ultra- in six, corpus-based dictionaries of English**

The dictionary definitions were studied concerning their categorization of the nature of the relation of the morpheme to the lexical item following it, the part of speech related categorization of the resulting word, and the sense of the intensifier as described. The results are given in Tables 1-4.

**SUPER-**

<b>Dictionary</b>	<b>Category</b>	<b>Type of prefixed lexical item</b>	<b>Keywords of meaning identified</b>
COBUILD2001	Prefix	adjective	sg. at higher level than sg. else
OALD 2005	combinin g form	adjective,adverb, noun, verb	extremely, more/better than normal, above, over
CIDE 1995	combinin g form	-----	larger, more effective/powerful/ successful than usual, over, above
Macmillan 2002	prefix	noun, adjective, verb	more/better/bigger than usual

LDOCE 2003	prefix	-----	more, larger, greater, more powerful
BBC English	prefix	adjective, noun	Quality in an unusually large degree, bigger/more powerful/more important version of sg.

Table 1.: Dictionary definitions of *super-* used as a prefix

It can be seen from the above definitions that the dictionaries studied show some variation in their identification of the category of the functional lexical item itself: the notion of 'combining form' is not described precisely in their categorial classification. They also fail to give a systematic categorization of the resulting lexical item in terms of parts of speech. Items with a highly opaque meaning appear among the key words of their definitions ("normal" (OALD) vs. "usual" (Macmillan)). Gradience and the possible polarity of intensification are expressed in vague terms and on a random basis, however, positive polarity is vaguely recognized in 4 of the 6 dictionaries (OALD, CIDE, Macmillan, and BBC). The relevance of selectional restrictions related to the prefixed words is hardly recognized in the definitions.

Examples used in the dictionaries show great variation in their part of speech representation, frame-relatedness and formal properties. COBUILD: *superfast*, *superweapon*; OALD: *super-rich*, *superhuman*, *superglue*, *superstructure*, *superimpose*; CIDE: *superscript*, *superstructure*, *superimpose*, *supercomputer*, *superstate*, *supermodel*, *superhero*, *super-rich*, *superfast*, *superfine*, *super-soft*, *super-absorbent*, *superconcentrated*; Macmillan: *supersonic*, *super-virus*, *superhero*; LDOCE: *superrich*, *superefficient*, *superfit*; BBC: *supersensitive*, *super-fit*, *superstate*, *super-plastic*, *supercomputer*. Loose semantic relation is marked by a relatively high number of hyphenated words in the list.

## **HYPER-**



Dictionary	Category	Type of prefixed lexical item	Keywords of meaning identified
COBUILD 2001	prefix	adjective	someone with a lot or too much of a particular quality
OALD 2005	prefix	adjective, noun	more than normal, too much
CIDE 1995	combining form	-----	having too much of the stated quality
Macmillan 2002	prefix	adjective, noun	more than usual/normal
LDOCE 2003	prefix	-----	more than usual, too much, beyond the usual size/limits
BBC English	prefix	adjective	someone having too much of a particular quality

Table 2.: Dictionary definitions of *hyper-* used as a prefix

Definitions of *hyper-* differ from those of *super-* at a significant rate. Concerning part of speech relatedness, this prefix is dominantly added to adjectives to form adjectives, with the dominance of the [+animate], [+human] selectional features where observed. This can be seen by looking at the examples given in the dictionaries as well. The functional lexical item is recognized as a pure prefix by most of the dictionaries studied. Some of the identifying key words used by Macmillan and LDOCE are highly opaque in content ('usual' vs. 'normal'). Concerning polarity most dictionaries seem to take this prefix to have a negative tone.

Examples given show a slight dominance of adjectives over nouns. Frame-relatedness is significantly marked, wherein intellectualism, medicine, psychology and economy, that is, the field of the sciences seem to have dominance in this

group. COBUILD: *hypercritical, hyperfit*; OALD: *hypercritical, hypertension*; CIDE: *hyper-ambitious, hyper-aware, hyper-expensive*; Macmillan: *hypersensitive, hyperinflation*; LDOCE: *hyper-extended, hypersensitive, hyper-inflation, hyperlink*; BBC: *hyper-cautious, hyper-fastidious*.

#### MEGA-

Dictionary	Category	Type of prefixed lexical item	Keywords of meaning identified
COBUILD 2001	prefix	noun	unit of measurement – a million times bigger,
OALD 2005	combining form	noun	very large/impressive (informal)
CIDE 1995	combining form	-----	big (informal), number: one million times the stated unit
Macmillan 2002	prefix, adjective	noun	(informal) extremely, one million, very large, impressive, emphasize size/importance/quality of sg/one
LDOCE 2003	prefix	noun	a million, (informal) extremely, very big
BBC English	----	----	-----

Table 3.: Dictionary definitions of *mega-* used as a prefix

It is shown by all of the dictionaries observed that one of the dominating meanings of *mega-* as a prefix is to serve as a precise unit of measurement referring to one million. Beyond this, being the youngest member of the group of amplifying prefixes studied in this paper, characteristically it expresses a positive tone or polarity. The dictionary definitions all reveal highly homogeneous characteristic

features of content referring to size and expressing appreciation. The prefix is dominantly used to form nouns, the importance of which factor is significantly justified by the types of examples listed. Adjectives can also take this prefix, which is a factor not represented in the definitions. Examples given are the following: COBUILD: *megaton, mega-bucks, mega-star*; OALD: *mega hit, mega rich, megastore, megawatt, megabyte*; CIDE: *megarich, megabucks*; Macmillan: *mega traffic jam, mega popular, megawatt, megastar*; LDOCE: *mega hit, megawatt, mega-rich, megastore*; BBC: ---. Separation or hyphenation of the lexical components refer to the transitory nature of a still looser type of connection.

#### ULTRA-

Dictionary	Category	Type of prefixed lexical item	Keywords of meaning identified
COBUILD 2001	prefix	adjective	sg./one with a quality to an extreme degree
OALD 2005	prefix	adjective, noun	extremely, beyond a particular limit
CIDE 1995	combining form	-----	extreme, extremely
Macmillan 2002	prefix	adjective, noun	extremely, (technical) outside a particular range
LDOCE 2003	prefix	-----	extremely, (technical) above and beyond sg. in a range
BBC English	prefix	adjective	sg/sone with a quality to an extreme degree

Table 4.: Dictionary definitions of *ultra-* used as a prefix

Even though in definitions of *ultra-* polarity is not represented by most dictionaries (with the exception of, perhaps, Macmillan's, this prefix usually carries either a

markedly negative or, to some extent, positive tone and polarity in its content and use, referring to extreme cases of experience. The examples listed show significant frame-relatedness, wherein the technical fields dominate over others (mainly representing aspects of the sciences). COBUILD: *ultra-modern, ultra-ambitious*; OALD: *ultra-modern, ultraviolet*; CIDE: *ultra-expensive, ultra-modern, ultra-rich, ultra-sensitive, ultra-short, ultra-trendy*; Macmillan: *ultra-modern, ultra-cautious, ultra-right-wing, ultra-short (radio waves)*; LDOCE: *ultra-modern, ultra-cautious, ultra-light sg., ultrasound*; BBC: *ultra-sophisticated, ultra-modern*.

### **The representaion of prefixed lexical entries given in the dictionaries studied**

As already mentioned in above, this constitutes a highly heterogeneous group, certain members of which require further, precise morphological study and analysis from the point of view of identifying or refuting the prefix status. Although most of the words in these lists constitute one lexical unit, a looser connection marked in writing (separation or hyphenation) can also be randomly observed. In spite of all this, we would still like to give the list of the items here to be able to compare them with the results of psycholinguistic tests used as control methods over the results of corpus-based observations discussed in the next section.

#### **SUPER-**

COBUILD<sup>27</sup>: *superannuated, superannuation, superb, superbug, supercharged, supercilious, supercomputer, superconductivity, superconductor, super-ego, superficial, superfluity, superfluous, supergrass, supergroup, superheated, superhero, superhighway, superhuman, superimpose, superintend, superintendent, superior, superiority, superlative, superman, supermarket, supermini, supermodel, supernatural, supernova, superpower, supersede, supersonic, superstar,*

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<sup>27</sup> Collins COBUILD English Dictionary for Advanced Learners (3rd edition) Glasgow: HarperCollins Publishers.2001.

*superstate, superstition, superstitious, superstore, superstructure, supertanker, supervise, supervision, supervisor, supervisory, superwoman*

OALD<sup>28</sup>: *superabundance, superannuated, superannuation, superb, the Super Bowl, superbug, supercharged, supercilious, supercomputer, superconductivity, superconductor, supercontinent, super-duper, superego, superficial, superfine, superfluous, superglue, supergrass, supergroup, superheated, superheavyweight, superhero, superhighway, superhuman, superimpose, superintend, superintendent, superior, superiority, superlative, superman, supermarket, supermodel, supernatural, supernova, supernumerary, superordinate, superpose, superpower, superscript, supersede, supersize, supersonic, superstar, superstate, superstition, superstitious, superstore, superstructure, supertanker, Super Tuesday, supervene, supervise, supervision, supervisor, superwoman*

CIDE<sup>29</sup> : *superabundant, superabundance, superannuated, superannuation, supercharge, supercharger, supercilious, superconductivity, superconductor, superego, superficial, superficiality, superficially, superfluous, superfluity, superfluosness, superglue, supergrass, superhighway, superhuman, superimpose, superintend, superintendent, superior, superiority, superlative, superman, supermarket, supermodel, supernatural, supernova, superpower, supersaver, superscript, supersede, supersonic, superstar, superstition, superstitious, superstore, superstructure, supertanker, supertitle, supervise*

MACMILLAN<sup>30</sup>: *superabundance, superannuated, superannuation, superb, Super Bowl, superbug, supercharger, supercharged, supercilious, supercomputer,*

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<sup>28</sup> Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (7th edition) 2005. (Oxford: Oxford University Press)

<sup>29</sup> Cambridge International Dictionary of English (1st edition) 1995. (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press)

<sup>30</sup> Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners (1st edition) Oxford: Macmillan 2002.

*superconductivity, superconductor, superduper, superego, superficial, superfluity, superfluous, Superglue, supergrass, superhero, superhighway, superhuman, superimposed, superintend, superintendent, superior, superior court, superiority, superlative, superlatively, superman, supermarket, supermodel, supermom, supernatural, supernova, supernumerary, superordinate, superpower, superscript, supersede, supersonic, superstar, superstate, superstition, superstitious, superstore, superstructure, supertanker, supervene, supervise, supervision, supervisor, supervisory, superwoman*

LDOCE <sup>31</sup> : *superabundance, superabundant, superannuated, superannuation, superb, superbug, supercharged, supercilious, supercomputer, superconductivity, superconductor, superduper, superego, superficial, superfluity, superfluous, super-G, Superglue, supergrass, superhero, superhighway, superhuman, superimpose, superintend, superintendent, superior, superiority, superlative, superlatively, supersmall, superman, supermarket, supermodel, supermom, supernatural, supernova, superpower, superscript, supersede, supersize, supersonic, superstar, superstate, superstition, superstitious, superstore, superstructure, supertanker, supervene, supervise, supervision, supervisor, superwoman*

BBC ENGLISH<sup>32</sup>: *superabundant, superannuated, superannuation, superb, Super Bowl, supercilious, superconductivity, superconductor, super-ego, superficial, superficiality, superfluity, superfluous, supergrass, superhighway, superhuman, superimpose, superintend, superintendent, superior, superiority, superlative, superman, supermarket, supernatural, supernova, superordinate, superpower,*

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<sup>31</sup> Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (4th edition) Harlow: Pearson Education Ltd 2003.

<sup>32</sup> BBC English Dictionary (1st edition) London: BBC English and London: HarperCollins Publishers 1992.

*supersede, supersonic, superstar, superstition, superstitious, superstructure, supertanker, supervirus, supervise, supervision, supervisory*

### **HYPER-**

COBUILD: *hyperactive, hyperbole, hyperbolic, hyperinflation, hyperlink, hypermarket, hypersensitive, hypertension, hypertext, hyperventilate*

OALD: *hyperactive, hyperbaric, hyperbola, hyperbole, hyperbolic, hypercorrection, hyperglycaemia, hyperinflation, hyperlink, hypermarket, hypermedia, hypernym, hypersensitive, hyperspace, hypertension, hypertext, hyperthyroidism, hypertrophy, hyperventilate*

CIDE: *hyperactive, hyperbola, hyperbole, hyperbolic, hypercritical, hyperinflation, hypermarket, hypersensitive, hypertension, hypertext, hyperventilation, hyperventilate*

MACMILLAN: *hyperactive, hyperbole, hypercritical, hyperinflation, hyperlink, hypermarket, hypersensitive, hypertension, hypertext, hyperventilate*

LDOCE: *hyperactive, hyperbole, hypercritical, hyperinflation, hyperlink, hypermarket, hypersensitive, hypertension, hypertext, hyperventilate*

BBC ENGLISH: *hyperactive, hyperbola, hyperbole, hyperinflation, hypermarket, hypersensitive, hypertension*

### **MEGA-**

COBUILD: *megabyte, megahertz, megalomania, megalomaniac, megaphone, megaton, megawatt*

OALD: *megabit, megabucks, megabyte, megadeath, megaflop, megahertz, megalith, megalithic, megalomania, megalomaniac, megalopolis, megalosaurus, megaphone, megastar, megastore, megaton (megatonne), megawatt*

CIDE: *megabyte, megalith, megalithic, megalomania, megalomaniac, megalomaniacal, megaphone, megastar, megastore, megaton, megawatt*

MACMILLAN: *megabit, megabucks, megabyte, megadeath, megadose, megahertz, megalith, megalithic, megalomania, megalomaniac, megalopolis, megaphone, megastar, megastore, megaton, megawatt*

LDOCE: *megabit, megabucks, megabyte, megahertz, megalith, megalithic, megalomania, megalomaniac, megaphone, megastar, megaton, megawatt*

BBC ENGLISH: *megahertz, megalith, megalomania, megalomaniac, megaphone, megaton, megawatt*

### **ULTRA-**

COBUILD: *ultramarine, ultrasonic, ultrasound, ultraviolet*

OALD: *ultramarine, ultrashort, ultrasonic, ultrasound, ultraviolet, ultra vires*

CIDE: *ultramarine, ultrasonic, ultrasound, ultraviolet*

MACMILLAN: *ultramarine, ultrasonic, ultrasound, ultraviolet*

LDOCE: *ultramarine, ultrasonic, ultrasound, ultraviolet*

BBC ENGLISH: *ultramarine, ultrasonic, ultrasound, ultraviolet*

Not surprisingly, the highest amount of words is listed under *super-* in all six dictionaries, and these are the lists where we can find the greatest variety of fields



and frames. There is a high rate of the same lexical items occurring in each list, which words dominantly are representatives of frames of technical nature or come from domains of the sciences, but more common words representing human, especially social relations are also represented at a significant rate. In the case of words prefixed with *hyper-* the lists are definitely much shorter, and a significantly lower rate of frame-based variation can be observed. Words prefixed with *ultra-* are very few and the lists do not show any variation in frame-relatedness, the choice of lexical items listed, or in internal morphological variation. Lexical items prefixed with *mega-* do not show a rich variation of lexical choice in their occurrence in the six dictionaries either, but variety of frame-relatedness is marked, especially concerning possible occurrence in informal registers. This is certainly due to the growing productivity of usage in various types of socio-cultural context. It can also be traced that the more recent the edition of a given dictionary the higher the number and type (in terms of the variety of frame-representation) of lexical units represented, which fact is critically obvious in the case of *mega-* used as a prefix.

Concerning the ratio of the representation of lexical units in terms of part of speech relatedness the lists reveal the following distribution in the dictionaries.

<b>Dictionary</b>	<b><i>Super-</i></b>	<b><i>Hyper-</i></b>	<b><i>Mega-</i></b>	<b><i>Ultra-</i></b>
COBUILD	<b>Total:</b> 46 N: 26 Adj: 16 V: 4	Total: 10 N: 6 Adj: 3 V: 1	Total: 7 N: 6 Adj: 1	Total: 4 N: 1-3 Adj: 1-3
OALD	Total: 57 N: 35 Adj: 16 V: 6	Total: 19 N: 14 Adj: 4 V: 1	Total: 17 N: 15 Adj: 2	Total: 6 N: 3-5 Adj: 2-4

CIDE	Total: 44 N: 27 Adj: 11 V: 5 Adv: 1	Total: 12 N: 7 Adj: 4 V: 1	Total: 11 N: 8 Adj: 3	Total: 4 N: 1-3 Adj: 1-3
Macmillan	Total: 55 N: 32 Adj: 15 V: 7 Adv: 1	Total: 10 N: 6 Adj: 3 V: 1	Total: 16 N: 14 Adj: 2	Total: 4 N: 1-3 Adj: 1-3
LDOCE	Total: 53 N: 32 Adj: 14 V: 6 Adv: 1	Total: 10 N: 6 Adj: 3 V: 1	Total: 12 N: 10 Adj: 2	Total: 4 N: 1-3 Adj: 1-3
BBC	Total: 38 N: 19 Adj: 14 V: 5	Total: 7 N: 5 Adj: 2	Total: 7 N: 6 Adj: 1	Total: 4 N: 1-3 Adj: 1-3

Table 5.: Distribution of dictionary items in terms of parts of speech

It can be seen that in the case of lexical items prefixed with *super-* there is a dominance of nouns as opposed to adjectives or verbs exemplified by the six dictionaries studied, and the same nominal dominance can be observed in the case of words prefixed with *hyper-*, although the number of these (as well as other)

prefixed items is significantly lower. Items prefixed with *mega-* show the same type of difference, which is markedly represented in the dictionaries. On the other hand, this type of difference is not so obvious in the case of *ultra-*, where categorization of the lexical items according to part of speech relatedness can be ambiguous, and in which group the number of items listed is lowest. To judge the reliability of the data presented, it has to be noted that although the dictionaries consulted are all corpus-based, they were compiled on the basis of corpora different in size and the type of makeup, which factor might influence overall judgements made by the careful researcher.

### Corpus-based data

In the following we will study the occurrence of lexical items prefixed with *super-*, *hyper-*, and *ultra-* in COBUILD's Bank of English<sup>33</sup>. Table 6. gives data of the top 20 words in order of frequency of occurrence in the corpus .

	<i>Super-</i>	<i>Hyper-</i>	<i>Ultra-</i>
1.	super 25767	hyper 1066	ultra 5071
2.	superb 12337	hypertension 805	ultraviolet 1282
3.	superior 8759	hyperactive 738	ultrasound 995
4.	supermarket 7880	hyperbole 549	ultramarine 251
5.	supermarkets 5072	hyperactivity 370	ultrasonic 195
6.	supervision 4824	hyperinflation 363	ultras 102
7.	superstar 3235	hyperion 250	ultravox 65
8.	superintendent 3126	hypermarkets 187	ultralight 56
9.	superiority 2985	hypertext 180	ultrathin 33
10.	superbly 2626	hypermarket 177	ultramodern 31
11	supervisor 2611	hypersensitive 138	ultrabra 27
12	supervised 2438	hyperbolic 137	ultramar 26

<sup>33</sup> COBUILD: The Bank of English 2002.

13	superficial	2086	hyperplasia	105	ultrafast	25
14	superpower	1797	hypersensitivity	101	ultranationalist	20
15	supervisors	1573	hyperventilating	97	ultraconservative	20
16	supernatural	1544	hyperventilation	87	ultraworld	19
17	superannuation	1526	hypertensive	84	ultratone	19
18	supervise	1442	hyperspace	80	ultrasounds	18
19	supermodel	1435	hypericum	72	ultralite	16
20.	superiors	1289	hyperbaric	62	ultraframe	15

Table 6.: Frequency of top 20 words prefixed with *super-*, *hyper-*, *ultra-* in the corpus

Quite obviously, the ratio of the occurrence of the three sets of prefixed words matches with their ratio seen in the lists of dictionary items given above . The highest rate of frequency in all three groups refers to the occurrence of the given lexical item as a separate unit, in which case it is written separate from its phrasal head. As outlined above, in such cases we are not facing pure cases of prefixation, but functionally and from the point of view of communicative content and force, the meaning of the lexical unit is still the same. The tendency is similar to the process of the neutralization of meaning so frequently observed in the domain of amplifiers, intensifying adjectives or adverbs<sup>34</sup> . The most heterogeneous group from the point of view of representing true prefixed vs. transitory stages in the development of the morpheme to semantic neutralization, i.e. toward prefixation, is that of words beginning with *super-*.

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<sup>34</sup> Partington, A. Corpus Evidence of Language Change – The Case of the Intensifier, in M. Baker, M.G. Francis, and E. Tognini-Bonelli (eds.) *Text and Technology: In Honour of John Sinclair* (Amsterdam: J. Benjamins), 1993:177-192.

As compared to the choice of words used as individual lexical units given in the six dictionaries, we can see that the most frequently occurring words beginning with *super-* in the corpus data show great variation in kind: they are rather heterogeneous in their frame relatedness, but those being parts of lexical networks representing social reality, specifically human societal relations and reality, are significantly represented. The other two lists, especially words prefixed with *hyper-*, reveal a significantly higher rate of frame relatedness, wherein the lexis of technical, medical and psychological reality are markedly represented in the group similar to the content of lexical items listed in dictionaries. The group of words prefixed with *ultra-* is more mixed from this point of view, but relatedness to the conceptual frames of political life or to frames of technology is also markedly manifested.

Concerning the rate of decrease in the number of occurrence in the three groups, one is witness to emerging gaps: there is a significant gap following the words taking the first five positions in the group prefixed with *super-*, whereas in the other two groups a gap at a declining rate of occurrence occurs after the words taking the first three positions.

Comparing the kinds of words taking the top 20 positions here with the words represented in the dictionaries studied in section 2.1.5, it has to be noted that there is a high rate of similarity of makeup in the case of those prefixed with *hyper-* and *ultra-*, whereas commonality of occurrence is significantly lower in the case of those prefixed with *super-*.

Concerning the nature of the part of speech representation of the words in the three groups, those prefixed with *super-* show the dominance of nouns (N: 12, Adj.: 6, V: 1, Adv.: 1), and we can see a similar ratio in the case of items prefixed with *hyper-* (N: 13, Adj.: 7), whereas a much more even distribution of these two categories of words can be observed in the third group (N: 11, Adj.: 9 – but – as already noted above, it is not easy to identify the part of speech, the nominal or adjectival role of the words listed here, without studying their occurrence in texts).

As for polarity, lexical items prefixed with *super-* dominantly lean towards positivity, whereas those prefixed with *hyper-* show a moderately dominant negativity, especially in examples representing technically related types of frames. The list of items prefixed with *ultra-* is mixed from this point of view: although the words signify the extreme nature of a manifesting property, it can be understood to express either positive or a negative polarity based on the type and nature of the frame-related context with the exception of the political scene, where the words carry a significantly negative tone.

Concerning the simultaneous occurrence of data in the lists of dictionary examples and those of the psycholinguistic experiments, there is a significantly higher rate of matching. This is highest in the case of words prefixed with *super-* (in which group there are only two items that do not appear in the frequency lists of the Bank of English corpus data, and there are only three which have a low rate of dictionary listing). Matching is also significantly high in the group prefixed with *hyper-* (50% of the items listed). In the list of words prefixed with *mega-* the ratio of matching items is medium: matching significantly occurs referring to the top (first 7) positions of the list. With the exception of one item (*megabyte(s)*) no matching can be observed in the second part of the list. As for words prefixed with *ultra-*, which have the highest number of items in the four lists of the experiment, there is hardly any matching (only 3 cases) with the list of dictionary representation. We have to note however, that it was particularly this prefix which had the lowest (although highly coherent and systematic) rate of representation in the 6 dictionaries in their list of examples.

A unique feature of the psycholinguistic experiments is the marked appearance of the prefix function of the morphemes under investigation indicated by the lack of hyphenation or separation between the collocating lexical units. Only a small number of cases of separated or hyphenated lexical items appear in the lists. The same tendency can be observed in the lists of corpus-based data and the dictionary items, pointing to the significance of the process of semantic neutralization and the

emergence of the role of amplification expressed by the lexical units investigated. The only group in which the outstanding lexical status of the unit is still represented is that of the psycholinguistic experiment referring to prefixation with *ultra-*.

Concerning the category of the words in the lists in terms of parts of speech, the group of *super-* shows an outstanding dominance of nouns. In the group of prefixation with *hyper-* the ratio of nouns and adjectives is balanced (50%), counter to the data of dictionary representation and the corpus data. Words prefixed with *mega-* are all nouns, with the exception of only two adjectival instances, which data show full correspondence with those of the dictionaries. As for the list of words prefixed with *ultra-*, there is a strict dominance of adjectives, which fact was not shown clearly by dictionary representation, and had quite a low rate of significance in the corpus data.

Concerning the dominance of frame-relatedness we can observe that the group of words prefixed with *super-* shows a great variation of possibilities. Words prefixed with *super-* reveal attachment to frames of the medical field at a significant rate, as the highest number of term-like items can be found in this group. The lists of *mega-* and *ultra-* show a great variety in representing various domains of social reality, and it is these two groups where the number of items coming from informal registers is highest, and in which the choice of items is significantly different from that of the corpus-based and dictionary data.

## **CHAPTER THREE. TEACHING WAYS OF SYNONYMS IN THE CONTEXT**

### **3.1. Teaching synonyms as an integrated skills**

We want to present a sample of lesson plan for reinforcing synonyms and building vocabulary.

#### Objectives of the lesson

Students will

- follow directions.
- reinforce awareness and knowledge of synonyms.



- build vocabulary skills.

Keywords : synonym, vocabulary, game, antonym, opposite, foreign language

Materials Needed: shopmaterials

- index cards
- synonym word lists (see below)

## Lesson Plan

### Before the Lesson

This fun activity requires advance preparation of a deck of cards. You'll need one card for each student and one for yourself. The prep is simple:

- ☐ Make a list of synonym word pairs that are appropriate for your grade level.

Examples:

*sad* and *unhappy*

*mistake* and *error*

*sleepy* and *drowsy*

*perhaps* and *maybe*

A thesaurus is a great and easy source for finding grade-appropriate synonym pairs.

You'll find two lists below, one for use with students in grades 2 to 4 and the other for use in grades 5 and up.

- ☐ Use a *blue* marker to write on blank index cards or 3- x 5 paper the first word in one of the synonym pairs. (For example, write *sad* on the first card, *mistake* on the second card, *sleepy* on the third card) Keep the cards in order.
- ☐ Use a *red* marker to write on the back of the first card the second word in the second synonym pair on your list (*error*). Continue by writing, in sequence, the second words in each synonym pair. So, on the back of *mistake* is *drowsy*; on the

back of *sleepy* is *maybe*. On the last card, write the second synonym in the first word pair on the list -- in the example above, it would be *unhappy*.

Now you're ready to play the game!

### **The Lesson**

Mix up the cards and distribute them to students, one card per student -- don't forget one for yourself. Have students look at the *blue* word on the card they hold. Start the game by showing and calling out the *red* word on your card. The students must look at their cards to see who has the blue word that is a synonym for the word you call out. That student should call out the synonym.

For example, if you show and call out the word *error*, the student who is holding the blue word that is a synonym for error -- in this example, *mistake* -- must call out that word.

Then, the student holding the card on which was written the synonym for your card (*mistake*) flips over his or her card and reads the red word (*drowsy*) on the back. Students look at their cards to see if they hold the blue word that is a synonym for *drowsy*. The game continues until you have gone all the way through the deck of cards.

### **Variations on the Game**

- Time students to see how long it takes them to complete the game. When the game is finished, collect the cards and redistribute them so students have a different card than the one they held in the first game. Play the game again. Try to beat the time it took to play the first round.
- Prepare several decks of cards and play the game with different sets of synonyms.
- Make the game more challenging by selecting difficult synonym pairs.
- Play the same game using antonyms (opposites).

- Play the game using words and their definitions.
- Play the game using foreign language synonyms; or foreign language verbs and their English meanings.

**Sample Synonym Pairs** . Use a thesaurus to create a grade-appropriate list of synonyms.

You might use an online thesaurus. In addition, some versions of Microsoft Word have their own easy-to-use thesaurus. Simply click **Tools** in the menu bar, then choose **Spelling and Grammar**, and **Language**.

I used a thesaurus to create the synonym lists below. The first list might be appropriate to use at grades 2-4.

center, middle	damp, wet	hurry, rush
gaze, stare	hear, listen	lost, missing
lump, chunk	odd, strange	stop, halt
paw, foot	paste, glue	present, gift
quick, fast	get, receive	funny, silly
sad, unhappy	small, little	smile, grin
stay, wait	stream, creek	tow, pull
pick, choose	lid, cover	neighborhood, community
big, large	harm, hurt	fire, blaze
fight, battle	hate, dislike	crash, smash

This list might be appropriate to use at grades 5 and up.

disappear, vanish	caution, care	petty, unimportant
copy, duplicate	danger, hazard	distribute, dispense

divide, separate	hesitant, indecisive	inappropriate, improper
poison, toxin	ponder, contemplate	prison, penitentiary
substitute, replacement	sudden, unexpected	tough, rugged
weaken, undermine	veer, swerve	natural, organic
inspect, examine	insult, offend	clench, squeeze
unprotected, vulnerable	courageous, valiant	categorize, classify
mission, assignment	liberty, freedom	restriction, limitation
traditional, customary	exaggerate, magnify	alternative, option

## Assessment

Students will correctly identify the synonym word pairs.

### 3.2.Teaching synonyms in the context

The present study set out to compare the effects of different vocabulary teaching strategies, teaching vocabularies through context, dictionary definition, and synonyms, on short-term and long-term retention of vocabulary items. 90 intermediate EFL learners were randomly divided into three groups of context, definition, and synonyms (thirty learners in each group). 30 vocabulary items were selected and taught to them in two sessions. Two delayed post-tests were administered to investigate the retention of vocabulary items, the first one after four weeks and the second after eight weeks of delay. The obtained scores were analyzed through one-way ANOVA. Results revealed that the context method produced superior results compared with the other two methods in both delayed post-tests. The findings of the study provide pedagogical implications for EFL teachers, learners, syllabus designers, material developers and language test makers. The findings of the study also provide helpful information about the most

effective way of teaching vocabulary that leads to a more durable retention of L2 words.

To conduct this study, the following materials were used: a. Vocabulary items: Thirty vocabulary items were selected to be taught to the students. Students were studying the book New Interchange 1, so the vocabulary items were selected from the book New Interchange 2 so that the selected vocabulary would be a little higher than their proficiency level. As a result, they had a strong motivation to learn them.

b. Vocabulary handouts:

Each group had their own handouts. For the synonym group, the synonyms were extracted from Dictionary of Synonyms and Antonyms (Manser, 1990). For definition group, Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary and Narcis electronic dictionary were used, and for the context group different sentences were selected from various sources like dictionaries, books, newspapers and so on. The selected vocabulary items were divided into two parts (of 15 words). Three handouts were constructed and given to students during the treatment sessions. The handouts contained the same vocabulary items for each group; however, they used different ways of teaching.

c. Delayed tests:

In this study, two delayed posttests were administered to investigate the effect of teaching methods on retention of vocabulary items.

Two tests of 15 multiple choice questions were constructed as delayed posttests of the study. The first one was administered after four weeks and the second one after eight weeks. The participants were not informed that they would be tested on the items because the study aimed to test their retention of vocabulary actualized in a subconscious and natural way.

Procedure

First of all, the students were randomly divided into three groups of synonyms, definition, and context; each with 30 students. Then in these two sessions students learned thirty vocabulary items (15 items in each session). Each group had its own handouts.

For the synonym group, synonyms were extracted from Dictionary of Synonyms and Antonyms (Manser, 1990), for definition group Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary was used, and for context group, different sentences were selected from various sources like dictionaries, books, and newspapers in which new vocabularies from learners' textbooks were used and the contexts were easy enough for learners to comprehend.

Vocabulary was taught to the three groups. Two meetings were held for teaching each group. In each session, 15 vocabulary items were taught to the students. The participants in the synonyms group were instructed to establish the form-meaning link and associate the given word with its synonym as the initial stage of word knowledge. In the definition group, the participants were informed that the provided meanings for words were taken from the dictionary. The words were presented and defined to the learners.

In the context group, students were provided with three sentences for each word as the context in which it occurs. The participants were asked to read the sentences and the teacher provided explanations on them so that the meaning of the intended word was clear for them. For all the participants, the handouts for teaching the target vocabulary were given each session. The vocabulary items were the same among the groups; however, their handouts contained the meanings according to their respective method of conveying meanings, but they were not informed about posttests.

To investigate the effect of the selected methods of conveying meaning on retention of the vocabulary items, the learners were given two delayed posttests. The first posttest was administered four weeks after teaching of items, and the

second posttest four weeks after the first test. In each posttest, half of the items (fifteen items) were tested to prevent overlaps. Because repeating the same items in second test might help learners to be able to recall the meanings of the vocabulary items. At last, the results of the posttests were statistically analyzed to check the hypotheses of the study and give answers to the research questions. For example,

### Writing Synonyms from Context Clues

Directions: Replace each highlighted word in the following passages with the synonym that best fits the context of the sentence.

1. George stepped over and threw his blankets down on the burlap sack of straw that was a mattress. He looked into his box shelf and then picked a small yellow can from it. "Say. What the hell's this?" "I don't know," said the old man. "Says 'positively kills lice, roaches and other scourges.' What the hell kind of bed you giving us, anyways. We don't want no pants rabbits." (Pg. 18)

Synonym for **scourges**:

2. The boss deliberately put the little book in his pocket. (Pg. 22)

Synonym for **deliberately**:

3. The boss turned half away. "Well, God knows he don't need any brains to buck barley bags. But don't you try to put nothing over, Milton. I got my eye on you. Why'd you quit in Weed?" "Job was done," said George promptly. (Pgs. 22-23)

Synonym for **promptly**:

4. The old man looked uneasily from George to Lennie, and then back. "I jus' come there," he said. "I didn't hear nothing you guys was sayin'. I ain't interested in nothing you was sayin'. A guy on a ranch don't never listen nor he don't ast no questions." "Damn right he don't," said George, slightly mollified, "not if he wants to stay work in' long." (Pg. 24)

Synonym for **mollified**:

This study compared the effects of conveying meaning through synonyms, dictionary definitions, and context on short-term and long-term retention of English vocabulary items by male intermediate level EFL learners.

The first research question dealt with whether there was any statistically significant difference among the effects of teaching vocabulary through synonyms, dictionary definition, and context on short-term retention of vocabulary items. Based on the analyses presented in, the first null hypothesis was rejected. Therefore, the findings of the study showed that there was a statistically significant difference among the effects of synonyms, dictionary definition, and context on short-term retention of vocabulary items. The results showed that the context group out performed the definition group, and the synonyms group. The definition group also gained better results compared to the synonyms group. The synonyms group obtained the lowest scores.

The obtained results suggest that the provided context had helped the learners to create a network of associations for the meanings. Learners connect words and phrases in a context to other words, phrases or images and create an image of the event or the state that has been mentioned in the context.

This image helps learners' retention. This study tested the vocabulary knowledge of the learners at recognition level, where learners were asked to choose the meaning on multiple choice tests (rather than recall or produce the target words). When learners face a word, a lexical entry for that word must provide information of two different types: form and meaning. Lexical recognition is "the point at which a one-to-one match is achieved between words encountered in speech or writing and words in the mind"<sup>35</sup>. As Field argues "most current models assume that words are linked in a complex network which reflects semantic relationships such as partial synonymy, antonymy and hyponym. Lexical items are similarly associated by form. This has obvious

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<sup>35</sup> Field, J.. Psycholinguistics: the key concepts. New York: Routledge. 2004. p-155



benefits for understanding language”. Elaboration assists the process of building a mental representation; “a non-verbal construct which forms a reader’s/listener’s understanding of a text and which is constantly updated as more information is processed in comprehension” and it can help the learner and support recall of the information.

The point that the definition method gained a lower mean can be due to the length of definitions forcing a greater cognitive load on memory (without much of an association) and the lowest mean for synonym can be the effect of discreteness of the given word (in the form of rote rehearsal).

The first research question investigated the effects of different ways of teaching on short-term retention of vocabulary items and the results showed the effectiveness of instruction and the overall superiority of the context method over the other two methods.

The results of long-term delayed post-test indicated that the context group outperformed the definition group while the synonyms group with a mean of 8.07 out of 15 suggesting a very promising educational value for this method. The definition group also gained better results compared to the synonyms group with a mean of 6.47 out of 15. The synonym group scored the lowest with a mean of 5.43 out of 15.

The results of the present study indicated that teaching vocabulary through context is the most effective way in comparison with the other two ways (i.e. definition and synonym). Because the context around the word helps the learner to create an image of the event or the state that has been mentioned in the context which leads to a longer and more effective retention. The findings of this study also showed that the definition group had better results than the synonym group. The synonyms group had the lowest scores; it means memorizing lists of words cannot effectively help learners to keep the meaning of those words in their mind for a long time. On the whole, it can be concluded that the context group would continue

to gain the highest results as a result of forming association with the mental network of knowledge.

## **Conclusion**

Beyond any doubt, in this paper I have been able to touch only the tip of the iceberg. I hope to have been able to show that synonymy is a domain which is at least as pragmatic and it is semantic in nature, and that studying it requires a corpus-based investigation whereby lexical as well as encyclopaedic information, frame-based dependence, semantic field relatedness and the role and type of background knowledge can be grasped, but which method of analysis also calls for investigation of native speaker judgments of semantic and pragmatic relatedness via tests of word association and lexical priming, serving the purpose of a control over the data provided by corpora, as also outlined in Murphy .

So, the conclusion is that some words of a language don't lend themselves well to the analysis in terms of semantic fields. Other important idea is the difficulty of

finding finite sets of words. In any case, there's an internal contradiction between the ideas of a set with the structuring of words of a language. A set is a close set. A word can belong to several fields depending on the organizing concept. Speakers of the language clearly identify the central example but not the peripheral ones. This doesn't mean that it would never happen that. The degree of flexibility in the discrepancy of the categorization of words is smaller.

Ex: Please give me some more tables ('Table' is here a mass noun meaning 'space in a table').

E.G. Two races are grown in India. Here two races' refers to 'two types of rice'

The idea behind this is that the dynamic character of a vocabulary cannot be reflected in the static character of the semantic fields, which are a static way of organizing the vocabulary of a language.

Having analyzed the problem of synonymy in Modern English we could do the following conclusions:

- a) The problem of synonymy in Modern English is very actual nowadays.
- b) There are several kinds of analysis of synonyms: semantical, stylistic and componential.
- c) A number of famous linguists dealt with the problem of synonymy in Modern English. In particular, Profs. Ullmann and Broal emphasized the social reasons for synonymy, L. Lipka pointed out non-binary contrast or many-member lexical sets and gave the type which he called directional opposition, V.N. Comissarov and Walter Skeat proved the link of synonymy with other kinds of lexical devices.
- d) Thus, various concepts are synonyms. However, we stopped at that synonyms - words relating to the same part of speech, fully or partially matched by value, but different in spelling and sound

- e). 1) synonyms - words that belong to one and the same speech, fully or partially matched by value, but different in spelling and sound;
- f) synonyms in language form a grouping of words and phrases, wearing a systemic nature;
- g) the lexical meaning of the word is a combination of elementary semantic units;
- h) sema is the minimum component values, and a set of seed forms a semantic structure sememes.
- i) The problem of synonymy is still waits for its detail investigation.

And at last that concerning the dominance of frame-relatedness we can observe that the group of words prefixed with *super-* shows a great variation of possibilities. Words prefixed with *super-* reveal attachment to frames of the medical field at a significant rate, as the highest number of term-like items can be found in this group. The lists of *mega-* and *ultra-* show a great variety in representing various domains of social reality, and it is these two groups where the number of items coming from informal registers is highest, and in which the choice of items is significantly different from that of the corpus-based and dictionary data.

Having said about the perspectives of the work we hope that this work will find its worthy way of applying at schools, lyceums and colleges of high education by both teachers and students of English. We also express our hopes to take this work its worthy place among the lexicological works dedicated to synonymy.

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