A Corpus-based Comparison of Near-Synonymous Adjectives in General English and in Academic Writing

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Abstract

In academic writing, certain near-synonymous adjectives are commonly found, among which are *critical* and *important*. This study aims to analyze the unique and shared patterns of these two near-synonyms in academic discourse and general use. In the British Academic Written English (BAWE) Corpus, both adjectives modify nouns such as *point*, *method*, and *data*. However, each has its individual uses: only *critical* modifies *lure*, *path*, and *period*, and only *important* modifies *element*, *thing*, and *implication*. However, the collocation patterns are somewhat different in a reference corpus. In the British National Corpus (BNC), *critical* modifies *scrutiny* and *evaluation*, while *important* modifies *implication* and *consequence*. The two adjectives behave differently in the two registers. By comparing the unique uses of a word in a specialized corpus, one can explore its regular patterns. Such patterns could be contrasted more clearly by comparing to a reference corpus. We argue that the collocation analysis from a reference corpus may need to be accompanied by a specialized corpus for the understanding of the vocabulary of a specialized field.

Keywords: academic writing, near-synonym, corpora, adjective

Introduction

Important is listed as one of the words in the 1000 General Service List (GSL), while *critical* is in the second 1000 GSL list (West, 1953). Because of this, the words are not listed in the Academic Word List (AWL) (Coxhead, 2 000), since GSL words

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are automatically excluded from the AWL; both, however, are included in Paquot's (2010) Academic Keyword List (AKL). The AKL contains 355 nouns, 233 verbs, 180 adjectives, 87 adverbs, and 75 other words. Although it is not our intention to compare the word lists, it is worth pointing out that both *important* and *critical* are considered part of a general word list by some (e.g. West, 1953), but are included as academic keywords by Paquot. Yet, none of these word lists tells us how the usage of these two adjectives differs in general and in academic discourse. It is the aim of this work to compare them in the two genres using two corpora – the British National Corpus (BNC) and the British Academic Written English Corpus (BAWE). Our research questions are as follows:

(a) How similar or different are the linguistic behaviors of *important* and *critical* in a reference corpus and a specialized corpus?

(b) How will a corpus-based knowledge of the similarities and differences of the near-synonyms help raise awareness of them in ESP teaching and learning?

These two research questions will be answered based on our observations from the corpora.

As *important* and *critical* have at least one overlapping sense, they are qualified to be called near-synonyms (cf. Chung & Ahrens, 2008; Chung, 2011). The studies of near-synonyms are many and they mostly aim to disambiguate the senses of two closely related words. Our work includes not only sense disambiguation, but also the comparison of both *important* and *critical* in two corpora, focusing on their differences in meaning, as well as their different linguistic behaviors when they appear in different genres. As this pair of near-synonyms could appear in both general and academic discourse, they are hypothesized to possess different linguistic environments. Although there has been much research on English word lists and on near-synonyms, the study of near-synonyms in academic versus general discourse is less often seen, especially when examining a pair of near-synonyms that do not seemingly differ in most circumstances. *Important* and *critical* are less likely to evoke enough interest, for they are too general to display any significant differences. It is our purpose to figure out the differences between the two in the two different genres.

Literature Review

In the following, we first review previous research on adjectives in academic discourse, and then a brief review of academic vocabulary follows.

Adjectives in Academic Discourse

Adjectives are generally classified into two types, attributive adjectives and predicative adjectives. Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, and Finegan (1999) analyzed the syntactic roles of the two types, showing that the attributive adjectives normally precede the nominal expression, and function to pre-modify nominal expressions as shown in (1) with the adjectives in bold.

(1) One of the most **important** ways of achieving this is by the **regular** and **thorough** implementation of planned disinfection programmes in all livestock units. (taken from Biber et al., 1999, p. 510)

As illustrated in this example, the attributive adjective important pre-modifies the head noun ways, and similarly, the second head noun, *implementation*, is pre-modified by two attributive adjectives, *regular and thorough*. Biber et al. further subdivided the attributive adjectives based on their semantic domains by forming two major classes, namely, descriptive and classifying. Descriptive adjectives include those describing size or amount (e.g. *great*, *low*), time (e.g. *new*, *young*), color (e.g. *black*, *dark*), and evaluation (e.g. *important*, *special*), whereas classifying adjectives refer to those which describe relations (e.g. *same*, *different*, *general*, and *final*), topics (e.g. political, public), and affiliations (e.g. *American*, *British*). In contrast to the other three registers that they established, namely, conversation, fiction, and news, the authors also found that academic prose attests far more classifying attributive adjectives.

The other class of adjectives, predicative adjectives, differs from attributive adjectives in terms of syntactic position, as shown bolded in (2).

(2) *The tendencies are not significant and get weaker when data are corrected for guessing.* (taken from Biber et al., 1999, p. 515)

Biber et al. found that predicative adjectives are commonly used following copular verbs including *be*, *become*, *get*, *look*, *feel*, *seem* and *appear*. The copula

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be is the most prevalent verb used with predicative adjectives (over 20 times more frequent than any other), and it is the most frequent in academic prose. Some predicative adjectives (e.g. *sure, important, difficult, likely, necessary,* and *possible*) are particularly common in the academic genre since they are often used to express the author's stance, or the author's position in relation to the topic under discussion.

Investigation the spoken and written registers in the university, Biber (2006:13-14) had also discovered some meaningful observations on adjectives. In this work, Biber discovered that adjectives could vary in frequency in different registers. He pointed out that in the *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* corpus, "there are about 300,000 nouns per million words in academic prose, compared to only around 150,000 per million words in conversation" (pg. 14, citing data from Biber et al. (1999: 235)). As for adjectives, they are found to be far more common in academic prose (around 80,000 per million words) than other registers (around 60,000 per million words in fiction and newspaper and around 20,000 per million words in conversation).

Previous work on uses of adjectives in academic discourse was also undertaken in studies of evaluative language. In this line of research, adjectives were found to express the author's opinion (e.g. Hunston & Thompson, 2000) or the authorial stance (e.g. Swales & Burke, 2003). For example, Swales and Burke (2003) analyzed evaluative adjectives across the spoken and written registers in academic discourse. The spoken register data is from the Michigan Corpus of Academic English (MICASE), and the written corpus consists of Hyland's (2000) corpus of 80 research articles collected from eight disciplines. The evaluative adjectives considered by Swales and Burke were gradable adjectives occupying various positions on a continuum, including polarized adjectives at the extreme ends (e.g. marginal, crucial, essential, fundamental, trivial, irrelevant, key) and centralized adjectives occupying the middle positions (e.g. central, important, main, major, peripheral, relevant, serious, unimportant). The distribution of the adjectives showed that the centralized adjectives are prevalent in both registers (around 85%). The result of a statistical analysis showed that a significant difference holds between the frequencies of polarized adjectives of the spoken (69 per 100,000 words) and written (111 per 100,000 words) registers. A detailed analysis was also carried out by further dividing the adjectives into seven sub-categories as shown in Table 1.

 Table 1 Swales and Burke's (2003) classification of evaluative adjectives

Categories	Examples
acuity	smart, stupid
aesthetic appeal	centralized: <i>pretty</i> , <i>unattractive</i> polarized: <i>beautiful</i> , <i>hideous</i>
assessment	centralized: bad, boring, dull, exciting, fair, good, interesting, uninteresting polarized: amazing, awesome, awful, excellent, fascinating, horrible, incredible, terrible, unbelievable
deviance	centralized: <i>funny</i> , <i>odd</i> , <i>standard</i> , <i>strange</i> , <i>typical</i> , <i>unusual</i> polarized: <i>absurd</i> , <i>crazy</i> , <i>weird</i>
relevance	centralized: central, important, main, major, peripheral, relevant, serious, unimportant polarized: irrelevant, fundamental, marginal, crucial, essential, trivial, key
size	centralized: big, large, little, small polarized: enormous, huge, infinitesimal, minute, teeny, tiny, tremendous
strength	weak, strong

A comparison of the rate of occurrence in the two academic registers, spoken and written, showed that the former is more frequent in five out of the seven categories, namely, 'acuity', 'aesthetic appeal', 'assessment', 'deviance', and 'size'. The only two categories where instances in the written register outnumber the spoken are 'relevance' and 'strength'. Under the category of 'relevance', centralized adjectives such as *important*, *major*, and *relevant* (6.5, 2.7, and 2.4 tokens per 100,000 words, respectively) are used much more frequently in the written register. The adjective *important* is also found to be the most prevalent in the spoken register (4.9 tokens per 100,000 words).

Another approach to evaluative adjectives is by means of patterns. In Hunston and Sinclair (2000), the authors proposed the consideration of "local grammars" or "a categorization and terminology that is developed specifically for each area" (Hunston & Thompson, 2000, p. 74). Unlike earlier work, Hunston and Sinclair identified patterns of evaluative adjectives as summarized in Table 2 and argued for the use of patterns to distinguish evaluative from non-evaluative adjectives.

Patterns	Examples
<i>IT</i> + LINK VERB + ADJECTIVE GROUP + CLAUSE	It was certain that he was much to blame.
<i>THERE</i> + LINK VERB + <i>SOMETHING/</i> <i>ANYTHING/NOTHING</i> + ADJECTIVE GROUP + <i>ABOUT/IN</i> + NOUN GROUP/- <i>ING</i> CLAUSE	There's something rather appealing about being able to spend the evening in a town.
LINK VERB + ADJECTIVE GROUP + <i>TO</i> -INFINITIVE CLAUSE	Horses are pretty to look at.
LINK VERB + ADJECTIVE GROUP + THAT CLAUSE	He was very angry that she had spoken to people about their private affairs.
PATTERNS WITH GENERAL NOUNS	The <i>important</i> <u>point</u> is to involve them in the decision.

Table 2 Hunston and Sinclair's (2000) patterns of evaluative adjectives

With the exception of the last pattern (patterns with general nouns) in Table 2, all the other five follow a linking verb to occupy a predicative position. As mentioned by the authors, evaluation is "an extrinsic quality, being a matter of judgement" (p. 94), implying that evaluative adjectives are less likely to be attributive where they immediately precede a noun. Hunston and Sinclair's work sheds light on how patterns may serve to distinguish the types of adjectives (i.e. evaluative from non-evaluative).

The last line of research is synonymy studies where near-synonymous adjectives are compared for their linguistic behavior. In an earlier study, Gries (2001) examined

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the differences between -ic and -ical adjectives in English (e.g. politic(al), economic(al), classic(al), numeric(al), and problematic(al)). Gries conducted a corpus-based analysis to identify the R1 collocates (the first word to the right of the adjective) and common collocates shared by each pair aided by statistical tools (e.g. log-likelihood, chi-square). The results showed variations among each pair, although these pairs of adjectives had been traditionally considered to be synonymous. Some pairs (e.g. logistic(al) and symmetric(al)) exhibited divergent patterns based on the identification of non-overlapping or discriminating collocates. Gries' study provides us with a new method to measure the degree of similarity between synonymous words and dispels our misconception in conceiving all -ic/ical pairs as synonymous. In a more recent study on adjectives, Gries and Otani (2010) focused on the adjectives of size and investigated a set of synonyms (*big*, great, and large) and their antonyms (*little, small, and tiny*) with a more sophisticated method involving statistical analyses including hierarchical agglomerative cluster analysis, dendrograms, and snakeplots to measure the degrees of similarity among the words. Their results support their assertion that antonym pairs such as *big/little* and *large/small* are canonical antonyms. They also provided evidence to show that *tiny* behaves like *smallest* based on categories of the characteristics of collocating neighbors. The authors investigated these size adjectives with a wide range of categories including morphological features (tense, voice, and transitivity of the co-occurring finite verb), syntactic features including the syntactic position (attributive/predicative) and clause level (dependent/ main clause), as well as semantic features such as whether the noun is modified (the original term by the authors was 'modifiee or whether the noun is countable, whether count/non-count, concrete/abstract, human/organization, quantity/ongoing processes/ punctual events, whether the modifier is literal/metaphorical or quantitative/evaluative, and others. In other words, the annotation was multidimensional, considering various aspects of the co-occurring conditions of the target adjective set.

In a similar fashion, Liu (2010) examined five near-synonyms of attributive adjectives (*chief, main, major, primary, and principal*) and found that the internal semantic structure of this synonym set is quite intricate based on a behavioral

profile approach "for describing the distributional patterns of lexical items" (p. 59). Specifically, the nouns pre-modifying each of the adjectives were examined and classified into six categories including 'abstract' (e.g. concern, reason), 'concrete' (e.g. road, dish), 'dual' (e.g. source, component), 'institution' (e.g. school, corporation), 'position-title' (e.g. executive, counsel), and 'non-position title' (e.g. sponsor, author). Liu applied Gries' (2004) hierarchical configural frequency analysis program (HCFA 3.2 for R) to his categories of pre-modified nouns. The results showed that all five adjectives pre-modify 'abstract' and 'dual' nouns, but main is specific for modifying 'concrete' nouns, principal is for 'non-position title' nouns, chief is for 'position title' nouns, and *major* and *primary* are for 'institution' nouns. Furthermore, a crossregister comparison among the spoken, fiction, newspaper, magazine and academic writing registers indicated that the five adjectives also differ in degree of formality when they pre-modify abstract/dual nouns. Liu concluded that main is the least formal as it is more common in the spoken register and primary is the most formal and commonly found in academic writing. Major, chief, and principal are considered to be of neutral formality. In a recent study of near-synonyms of six adjectives (nice, kind, lovely, friendly, gorgeous, and pleasant), Hoffmann (2014) investigated their nominal collocates across five registers (spoken, fiction, magazines, newspaper, and academic writing) and suggested that style variation appears to influence the behavior of the adjectives. For example, these six adjectives are rarely found in academic writing but vary in distribution in the other four less formal registers. Both Liu and Hoffmann's work considered register variations, and their results demonstrated lexical specificity for various registers. In addition to this line of studies, research in academic vocabulary has also recognized the importance of disciplinary specificity, leading to the compilation of specialized corpora, to be discussed in the next section.

Academic Vocabulary

Previous work on near-synonyms appears to make comparison between different registers but few studies have contrasted a specialized corpus with a general one. However, researchers in academic vocabulary have long recognized the linguistic

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variation of a specialized corpus from a reference corpus (e.g., Chung & Nation, 2003; Hyland and Tse, 2007; Sutarsyah, Nation & Kennedy, 1994; Vongpumivitch, Huang & Chang, 2009). More recent studies such as Chen and Ge (2007) and Khani and Tazik (2013) have demonstrated a very different composite of vocabulary content, derived from a specialized corpus, as compared to the AWL which is derived from a general academic corpus. Ample research can be found to underscore the necessity of compiling discipline-specific word lists derived from specialized corpora for English for specific purposes (ESP) learners (e.g., Martinez, Beck & Panza, 2009; Wang, Liang & Ge, 2008). For example, Martinez, Beck and Panza (2009) constructed a specialized corpus of research articles in the agricultural sciences and compared their specialized word list with the AWL. Their results showed that only 72 word families coincide with those in the AWL, or approximately 10% of the specialized corpus. The authors also pointed out that some frequent academic words such as *culture* and strategy have technical meanings and collocations that are discipline-specific. For example, in agriculture the word *strategy* collocates with *control*, *management*, and adaptation (compare, e.g., learning strategy in applied linguistics and marketing strategy in business).

In a cross-disciplinary study of sciences, social sciences, and engineering, Hyland and Tse (2007) also illustrated that some academic words vary in terms of their meanings and distribution and collocational patterns due to their distinct usage in each discipline. In addition, the study indicated intra-discipline variation by comparing the vocabulary concentration for each sub-discipline (e.g., biology, physics, and computer science for the sciences discipline). For example, about 52% of all unique words (283 items) in engineering cover more than 65% of all items occurring in the engineering sub-corpus. In the sciences, 244 families (or 43%) cover more than 65% of all items in the sciences sub-corpus, and 128 families (22.5%) in the social sciences subcorpus cover more than 65% of all items. Hyland and Tse urged ESP practitioners to note that the patterns they found "suggest a more complex picture of language use in the disciplines than notions of a general academic vocabulary allow, pointing to more specialized language uses" (p. 243). In other words, the difference between a specialized corpus and a reference corpus from which academic vocabulary is derived has been recognized.

Overall, early studies demonstrated the effectiveness of a corpus-based approach to analyzing synonymous sets of adjectives. Although the comparison of a specialized corpus against a general one reflects the different composition of a corpus, such a contrast may not be easily recognized by second/foreign learners of English. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to compare the linguistic behavior of a nearsynonym pair in two corpora.

Methodology

Two methods were employed to carry out the analysis of *important* and *critical*. First a sense disambiguation analysis was applied involving the consultation of a learner's dictionary. Second, a corpus-based approach was taken to examine the collocates of the two adjectives. The following subsections explain the research procedures in detail.

Sense Disambiguation Analysis

We first searched for the meanings of both adjectives in the online *Merriam-Webster Learner's Dictionary* (http://www.learnersdictionary.com/). A learner's dictionary was our target of investigation, because the results of the analysis can be directly applied to teaching. The sense entries of a learner's dictionary are restricted to a limited word list and provide the most common linguistic uses for language learners (Kernerman, 1996). This particular dictionary was selected for two main reasons. First, it is publicly accessible and, second, it provides at least three examples for each sense. Because our sense disambiguation analysis relied heavily on examples to provide specific linguistic contexts for making comparisons between two words, this dictionary suits our purposes well. We expect similar results would be produced if other dictionaries were used. The sense disambiguation analysis involved three major steps. First, the online *Merriam-Webster Learner's Dictionary* was used to search for *important* and *critical*, respectively. The search results were transferred to an Excel

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file for further analysis. Next, the senses from both words were compared along with the examples. Lastly, a replaceability test, which substituted one target word for another, was then applied to the dictionary examples. Then the authors judged whether the replacement would invoke a different meaning from the original in context. If the replacement did not involve any changes in meaning, the sense would be considered as overlapping for both words.

Senses	Examples from the Dictionary (square brackets taken directly from the dictionary)	Replaceability Test (square brackets added by the author)
(1) Important		
(a) (i) having serious meaning or worth	 She's an <i>important</i> [=significant] part of the team Diet and exercise are <i>important</i> for health. 	 ?She's a critical part of the team ?Diet and exercise are critical for health.
(ii) deserving or requiring serious attention	 an <i>important</i> problem In his editorial, he made several <i>important</i> points. It's <i>important</i> that you remember to send these forms on time. 	 a critical problem In his editorial, he made several critical points. It's critical that you remember to send these forms on time
(b) having power, authority, or influence	 He's one of the most important scholars in his field. an important artist 	 ?He's one of the most critical scholars in his field a critical artist =[a dying artist or one that has a critical judgment?]
(2) Critical		
(a) expressing criticism or disapproval	 You're always so critical. They are often critical of the mayor's policies. 	 You're always so important. *They are often important of the mayor's policies.
(b) of or relating to the judgments of critics about books, movies, art, etc.	 The book received much critical acclaim. [=many critics said good things about the book] critical writings/theory The movie was a critical success [=critics liked the movie], but it didn't make much money. 	 The book received much important acclaim. important writings/theory [important ≠ critical] ?The movie was an important success, but it didn't make much money.

Table 3 Meaning, Examples, and the Replaceability Test of Important and Critical

(c) using or involving careful judgment about the good and bad parts of something	 The program presents a critical analysis of the government's st rategies. She has a talent for critical thinking. We need to look at these proposed changes with a critical eye before we accept them. 	 The program presents an important analysis of the government's strategies. [important ≠ critical] *She has a talent for important thinking. *We need to look at these proposed changes with an important eye before we accept them.
(d) extremely important	 We have reached a critical phase of the experiment. It is absolutely critical [=vital, essential] for us to remain together. This is a matter of critical importance to the future of our country. 	 We have reached an important phase of the experiment. It is absolutely important for us to remain together. *This is a matter of important importance to the future of our country.
(e) medical: relating to or involving a great danger of death	 He suffered critical injuries in the accident. The patient is in critical condition. = The patient is critical. [=the patient is very sick or injured and may die] a nurse who specializes in critical care [=the care of patients who are in critical condition] patients who are on the critical list; sometimes used figuratively (a government program that is on the critical list) [=that is in danger of failing or being eliminated] 	 *He suffered important injuries in the accident. ?The patient is in important condition. ?The patient is important. *a nurse who specializes in important care *patients who are on the important list; *a government program that is on the important list

Collocates

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In order to understand the two adjectives better, we then compared their collocates in two different genres – the British National Corpus (BNC) and the British Academic Written English (BAWE) corpus. The frequencies of *important* and *critical* in the BNC are respectively 38,716 and 5,627, while those in BAWE are 5,485 and 1,469. From the comparisons, we can say that *important* has more general use because it occurs much more often in the reference corpus – i.e., 6.88 times more than *critical*. Yet, in BAWE, its frequency is 3.73 times higher than *critical*, indicating the more prominent role of *critical* in academic than in general discourse.

Most earlier studies seem to have neglected the possibility that the usage of a pair of near-synonyms might differ when they appear in different genres. From Table 4, we can see clearly how *important* and *critical* differ in a reference corpus (BNC) and in academic writing (BAWE). The collocates were taken from the Sketch Engine and arranged in descending saliency.

From Table 4, *important* does not vary greatly in the two genres, with some shared collocates (bolded) but they appear in different orders. What differs greatly is the adjective *critical*, where in the reference corpus, *critical* modifies *acclaim* and *appraisal* more (sense 2b), but in the academic one, it modifies *lure*, *essays*, *path*, etc. which are totally different from the collocates in the reference corpus. Examples (3) below show the use of *critical* in the academic discourse.

(3) (a) In the case of our experiment, the **critical lures**, by their nature, come very close to the familiarity threshold level of the old words that are actually on the lists.

(b) In technical terms, the **critical path** of a project or a system can be defined as the path in which the "float" of all the processes is equal to "Zero".

From the next analysis of shared and non-shared collocates, the differences will become more apparent.

BNC (General)		BAWE (Academic)	
Important	Critical	Important	Critical
factor	acclaim	role	lure
role	appraisal	factor	essays
aspect	mass	aspect	path
part	evaluation	part	realism
feature	scrutiny	issue	dialogue
issue	judgement	element	thinking
thing	factor	thing	period
element	comment	implication	wage
point	thinking	feature	introduction

 Table 4 Noun Collocates Modified by Important and Critical

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implication	faculty	point	evaluation
contribution	pulsatance	determinant	discussion
consideration	examination	source	load
difference	importance	tool	angle
source	theory	distinction	theorist
question	temperature	consideration	interrogation
step	juncture	contribution	survey
consequence	frequency	theme	pg
respects	analysis	reason	factor
component	load	question	hypothesis
influence	review	step	analysis
matter	discourse	component	passions
distinction	writings	influence	value
function	edition	parameter	realist
lesson	stance	decision	guide
determinant	reflection	information	anthology

As for the modifiers of *important* and *critical*, the results in Table 5 were found. From here, one could see that the collocates of important are modified by quite similar modifiers (*most, more, particularly, very,* etc.). Comparatively, critical has fewer modifiers in academic than in general discourse. *Openly, fiercely, sharply, harshly, strongly, bitterly,* etc., most of which contain an evaluative feature, are hardly found in academic writing.

Table 5	<i>Modifiers</i>	of Important	and Critical

BNC (General)		BAWE (Acad	BAWE (Academic)	
Important	Critical	Important	Critical	
most	highly	most	absolutely	
more	openly	very	highly	
particularly	fiercely	particularly	most	
very	sharply	extremely	more	
equally	harshly	more	very	
as	strongly	especially	also	

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extremely	bitterly	as	
less	especially	also	
vitally	particularly	increasingly	
increasingly	mildly	equally	
especially	severely	SO	
SO	absolutely	less	
also	extremely	highly	
crucially	equally	therefore	
all	unusually	vitally	
therefore	increasingly	all	
really	deeply	crucially	
terribly	most	hugely	
obviously	less	critically	
strategically	more	greatly	
quite	as	quite	
too	very	obviously	
potentially	both	still	
least	SO	economically	
that	too	now	

When we compared these two adjectives in terms of their shared and non-shared collocates using the Sketch Differences feature, the following results were found. In Table 6, we only considered those that are not particularly more frequent with any of the adjectives, or in other words, the collocates that are shared equally by both adjectives. From Table 6, one can see that the shared collocates of *important* and *critical* are different in the BNC and BAWE under the same grammatical relation. For instance, the modifiers of *important* and *critical are clearly/especially/often* etc. (i.e., *clearly/especially/often important/critical*) but only *highly important/critical* is equally shared by *important* and *critical* in BAWE. This table tells us that the two adjectives are behaving differently in the two registers.

Table 6 Shared Collocates of Important and Critical (in descending saliency values)

Grammatical Relations	BNC	BAWE
Modifier (e.g., <i>clearly</i> <i>important/critical</i>)	clearly, especially, often, now, both	highly
Modified (e.g., <i>important/critical</i> variables)	variables	point, method, data, component, difference, parameter, activity, stage, condition, character, level, system
and/or (e.g., important/ critical and/or useful)	useful, recent, theoretical, certain, serious, great, current, active, old, historical, contemporary, substantial, major, independent, modern, traditional, popular	social, difference, new, legal

After we had compared the shared collocates, we then looked at the non-shared collocates. Table 7 provides this information. From Table 7, one can see how the same adjective could differ in use between two genres. For instance, *important* is used differently in the BNC and BAWE except for *vitally*, *crucially*, and *all* (bolded items are found in both general and academic use, though still exclusively used with *important* only). This means that these collocates co-occur exclusively with *important* (and not *critical*, and vice versa) but there are still differences in the two corpora because the BAWE collocates are examples of academic use. The fewer bold entries there are in the table, the rarer are the collocates for a particular genre.

	imp	important		critical		
	BNC	BAWE	BNC	BAWE		
modifier	vitally	particularly	openly			
	crucially	extremely	fiercely			
	all	especially	sharply			
	therefore	as	harshly			
	terribly	increasingly	strongly			
	obviously	equally	bitterly	absolutely		
	strategically	SO	mildly	absolutely		
	potentially	less	severely			
	least	therefore	absolutely			
	that	vitally	unusually			
	critically	all	deeply			
	sufficiently	crucially	little			
10.1	implication	element	acclaim	lure		
	contribution	thing	appraisal	essays		
	consideration	implication	mass	path		
	source	determinant	evaluation	realism		
	consequence	tool	scrutiny	dialogue		
	respects	distinction	judgement	thinking		
modified	influence	consideration	thinking	period		
	matter	contribution	faculty	wage		
	lesson	theme	pulsatance	introduction		
	determinant	reason	importance	evaluation		
	exception	question	temperature	discussion		
	ingredient	step	juncture	load		
and/or	urgent	single	constructive			
	interesting	desirable	informed			
	influential	ethical	creative			
	archaeological	conservation	analytical			
	valuable	influential	reflective	realist		
	only	clinical	biographical	contemporary		
	additional	interesting	scholarly	ongoing		
	strategic	other	hostile	creative		
	contributory	strategic	sceptical			
	prognostic	popular	cynical			
	worthwhile	useful	bourgeois			
	structural	relevant	verbal			

 Table 7 Non-shared Collocates of Important and Critical

18	Siaw-Fong	Chung & Li-yin C	Then	
adj_comp_of (e.g., Such factors are <u>considered</u> important when choosing books and audiovisual materials)	consider seem deem regard view sound feel appear play look think see	deem prove consider seem appear show		go
adj_subject (e.g., <i>The distinction is</i> <i>important</i> because)	distinction friendship sex accuracy issue consideration continuity outcome phenomenon aspect religion availability	preface witchcraft can distinction communication consideration autonomy variable customer factor criterion association	mission article design committee	
np_adj_comp_of (e.g., You forget everything important ,)	forget consider miss think regard remember feel believe lose find see	feel make find	publish	
pp_in-p (e.g.,that the toxin is so important in the <u>pathogenesis</u> of disease)	pathogenesis aetiology context respect identification evaluation run climate interpretation formation right assessment	metabolism estimation decade respect context society movement industry development world approach year		

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pp_to-p (e.g.,that does not mean that it is less important to our future economic <u>well-being</u> .)	well-being Christian survival economy client individual animal child Britain woman community people	debate understanding business individual development company people		placement success project
pp_for-p (e.g., not as important for its own <u>sake</u>)	sake survival purpose reason researcher pilot future understanding interpretation parent teacher reader	lodge archaeologist shareholder plc professional development organisation success growth business reason company		
pp_at-p (e.g.,but it is <i>important</i> at the <u>outset</u> to see what it amounts to)	outset stage level time point			
pp_as-p (e.g., Far more important as a <u>source</u>)	source	source		
pp_of-p (e.g.,while critical of some aspects of CNAA's procedure)	factor		aspect failure policy lack proposal way plan practice quality approach government	

As shown in Table 7, *important* is more register-specific in grammatical relations where its nominal collocates (underlined) are present in a post-modifying prepositional phrase (e.g. *important* in the <u>pathogenesis</u> of disease; less important to our future economic well-being).

Discussion

In the present study, we compared the linguistic behaviors of a near-synonym pair, *important* and *critical*, in both a reference corpus and a specialized corpus. We found that the two words behave divergently in the two genres, and this would very likely affect how we would go about teaching these particular adjectives. As illustrated in Tables 4 and 5, the noun collocates and modifiers of important and critical for both corpora differ to a certain extent. Furthermore, as shown in Table 6, where shared collocates of *important* and *critical* are presented, we could not find any overlap between the two corpora. This finding indicates that the two corpora contain different linguistic contexts for our target words and, thereby, give rise to different results when a collocation analysis is applied. When we paid attention to the near-synonym pair, the corpus results showed that the two near-synonyms displayed both similarities and differences. The most obvious difference can be seen in the results of non-shared collocates of the two adjectives (see Table 7); the two adjectives vary in the way they are used in the two corpora. More shared collocates between the two corpora can be identified for *important* than *critical*.

Previous studies on near-synonyms tend to draw research results directly from a single corpus source, neglecting the different results which may be obtained from different corpora, and in different registers. Here in our study we directly addressed this issue by extending the research findings to practice. Our data revealed degrees of variation when collocation analysis is applied to different corpora. Even for frequent adjectives such as *important* and *critical*, the corpus-derived difference is apparent. Consequently, when it comes to teaching and learning these adjectives in ESP/EAP classes, we need to take into account corpus type. A reference corpus such as BNC is useful due to its generality as well as size; however, when general or disciplinary

variations are of concern, a specialized corpus would be needed to accompany the general one. While the reference corpus provides us with a wide range of possible collocates, the specialized corpus provides us with needed specificity.

Conclusions

In this study, we analyzed a near-synonym pair, *important* and *critical*, in a reference corpus (the BNC) and a specialized corpus (BAWE). As demonstrated by the corpus results of the near-synonym pair, a reference corpus does not produce a set of collocates that is very similar to a specialized corpus. We urge ESP/EAP practitioners to be aware of the differential results derived from different corpora and on genre variations when applying corpus analysis. Future work can be carried out to extend our research findings to the classroom and to investigate the pedagogical effect of using a reference corpus and a specialized corpus for ESP/EAP learners in writing.

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