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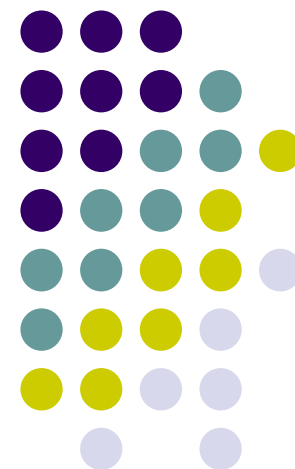
# بسمه تعالی

درس: بررسی مقابله‌ای ساخت جمله فارسی و انگلیسی  
تعداد واحد: 2

منبع: A Contrastive Analysis of Persian and English

مؤلف: Dr. Lotfolah Yarmohammadi

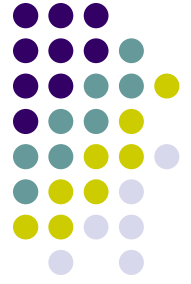
تهیه کننده: دکتر محمدرضا احمدخانی





هدف این درس بررسی مقابله‌ای دستور، واچ‌شناسی و واژگان زبان فارسی و انگلیسی است. در این درس که جزء درسهای تخصصی رشته ترجمه زبان انگلیسی است شیوه‌ها، مفاهیم و اصطلاحات پایه‌ای لازم برای مقایسه ساختهای نحوی، نظام آوایی و واژگان زبان فارسی و انگلیسی به دانشجویان آموزش داده می‌شود. هدف خاص این درس بررسی حوزه‌هایی است که در آن زبان انگلیسی و فارسی با هم متفاوت هستند.

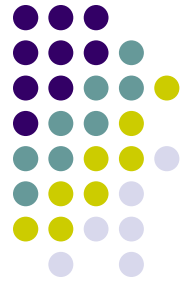
# UNIT ONE: Contrastive Analysis (CA)



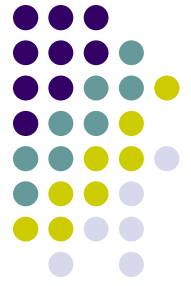
“Contrastive analysis” (CA), or contrastive linguistics, as Fisiak puts it, “may be roughly defined as a subdiscipline of linguistics concerned with the comparison of two



or more languages or subsystems of languages in order to determine both the differences and similarities between them contrastive analysis is a branch of linguistics.



The crucial thing is that looking for differences demands the establishment of a background of sameness that differences are significant. This sameness of background is termed as “common base”, “equivalence”.

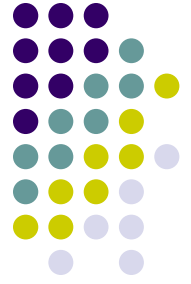


Equivalence can be primarily established with reference to: 1) meaning, 2) structure, 3) function, 4) rule or process, and 5) textual and discoursal features. Let us look at some examples:



a) Sentences “/ʔin ketab-ra dær zæman-e hafez neveshte ʔand/” and “This book was written at the time of Hafez”. are equal in meaning (at least in certain contexts) but different in structure.





b) The expressions

P2: /mærd-e xub/

E2: the good man

Are both noun phrases (NP) similar as a major category, but different in terms of their internal structures.

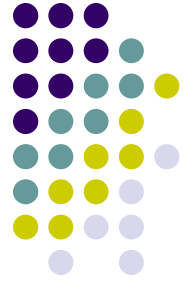


P2 can roughly be analyzed as N+Adj and E2 as Adj+N.

C) The two expressions:

P3: /mitunim dær-ra baz konim?/

E3: Can't we open the door?



are functionally the same. Both request the door to be opened, while they are structurally different. P3 is positive but E3 negative. Besides, they have different word orders.

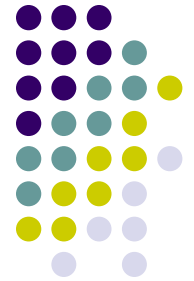


d) The two expressions:

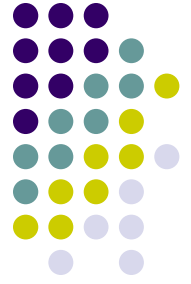
P4: /bærgǽsht/“coming back”

E4: récord

are nouns derived from verbs bǽrgǽsht and récord, respectively, by the process (or the rule) of stress shift.

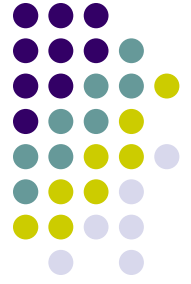


So the two languages are similar in utilizing the process of stress shift but different in the direction of the shift. In Persian, the direction is from left to right



while in English it is from right to left.

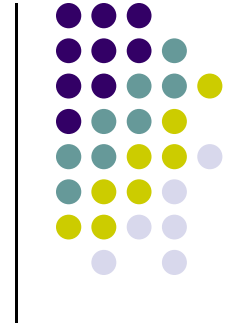
e) Now let us study the following English text from the Old Man and the Sea and contrast it with its



translation “pir mærd væ dærya” in terms of the underlined elements.

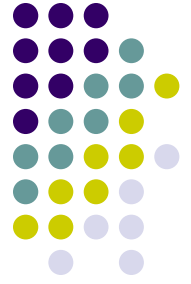
English Text

All my life the early sun has hurt my eyes, he thought (1).



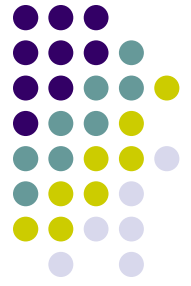
Yet they are still good (2). In the evening I can look straight into it without getting the blackness (3). It has more force in the evening too (4).





But in the morning it is painful (5).

just then he saw a man-of-war bird with his long  
back wings circling in the sky ahead of him (6).



He made a quick drop, slanting down on his back-swept wings, and then circled again (7). “He’s got something”, the old man said aloud (8).



## Persian translation

/pirmærd ba xod goft ke dær tæmam-e ?omr-æm ?aftab-e ?ævvæl-e sobh chæshm-æm-razæde ?æst (1). Væli chæshm-ha-ye mæn por su ?æst (2).



Qorub mitævan-æm rast tu-ye xorshid negah  
kon-æm va chæshm-æm siyah-i næ-ræv-æd  
(3). Qorub zur-e xorshid bishtær ?æst (4).  
?æmma sobh chæshm-e



?dæm-ra mi-zæn-æd (5).

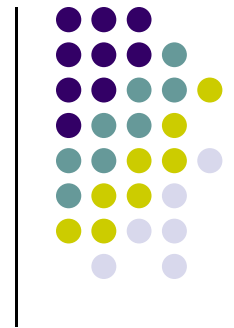
dorost dær ?in hengam bud ke pirmærd shaly-

?i-ra did ke ba bal-ha-ye bolænd-e siyah-esh

dær ?asman bala-ye

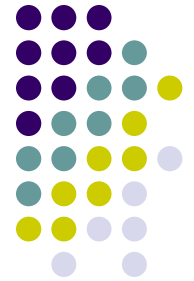


sær-e ?u chærx mi-zæd (6). pærænde xod-ra  
tond payin ?ændaxt væ ba bal-ha-ye vapæs  
xofte kæj forud ?ammæd væ sepæs bax be  
chærx zædæn pærdaxt (7).



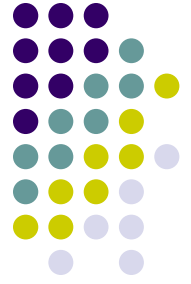
pr̥mærd̥ b̥a s̥eda-ye b̥olænd goft “?in chizi dide  
(?æst)” (8)./

The reader’s attention is attracted to one very important differentiating feature of the two texts.

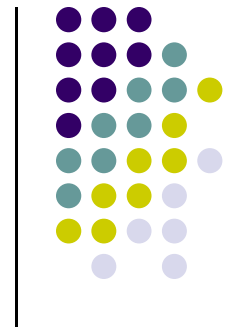


The pronouns he, they, it, it, it, he, he, he, in sentences 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 in English are rendered into Persian by pirmærd



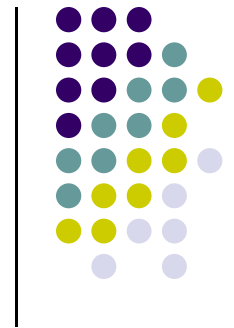


(old man), chæshm-ha-ye-mæn (my eyes),  
xorshid (sun)/, xorshid (sun), chæshm-e  
?adæm (the person's eyes), pærænde (bird),  
pirmærd (old man), and ?in (this) respectively.  
All renderings are

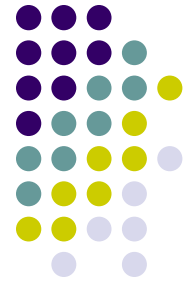


non-pronoun expressions. If the given pronouns are translated literally, the Persian text becomes at least stylistically unfavorable if not totally unacceptable.

Note that the two texts are translationally equivalent

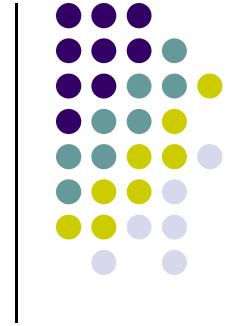


but different in terms of text-constructing devices (or textual features). One can utilize one or a number of the common bases enumerated above depending upon the data.



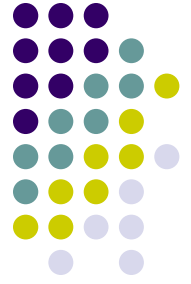
Based on the above facts the following revised definition can be provided for CA.

Contrastive analysis is a subdiscipline of linguistics that brings two or more language systems or subsystems



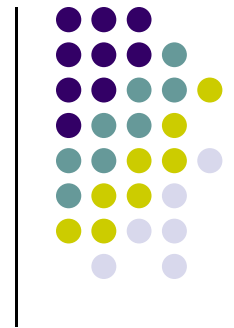
together and sets them against one another in order to determine the differences and similarities between them in terms of some specified linguistic features.

# UNIT TWO: The Need for Contrastive Analysis

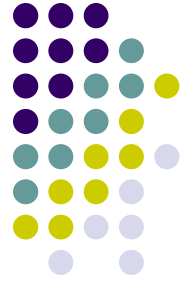


Theoretical Uses of CA:

Understanding human nature and his interaction with nature has recently become of paramount importance.



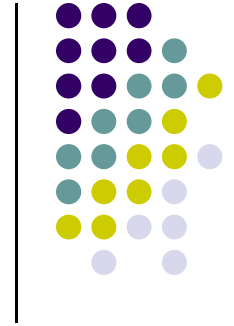
That is why in the modern world two disciplines of Genetics and Linguistics have gone through drastic changes and developments. So, doing contrastive analysis, as a tool of understanding different



peoples' behavior, is justified by its own virtue.  
We don't need to justify it by its implicational or applicational values.

Contrastive analysis will definitely shed some light on the way

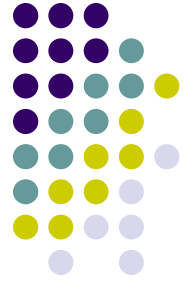




our minds operate and the way we acquire or learn languages. Through CA we can develop a better understanding of the structure of our minds.



Let us look at some of the errors in the following which can be extracted from the above data in the areas of gerunds, infinitives, subordinators, relatives and prepositions:



## A. Confusion between infinitives and gerunds

Consider the following examples:

D1. He went to the bazaar for buying oranges.

D2. He advised me not to smoking.

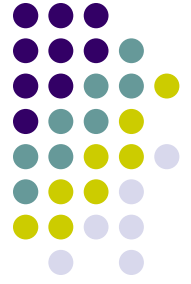


D3. They are pessimistic about to solve the problem.

D4. She refused going on the trip.

D5. Let's go to shopping next week

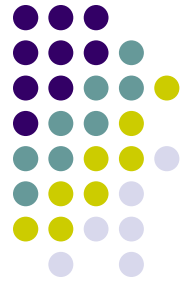
The above sentences demonstrate four specific errors:



1) Using for plus gerund construction instead of the infinitive, e.g.,

D1. He went to the bazaar for buying oranges.

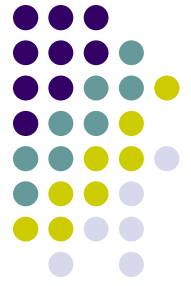
E1. He went to the bazaar to buy oranges.



2) using to with the gerund instead of to with the basic form of the verb, e.g.

D2. He advised me not to smoking.

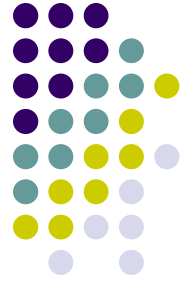
E2. He advised me not to smoke.



3) Using preposition with the infinitive, rather than the gerund, e.g.

D3. They are pessimistic about to solve the problem.

E3. They are pessimistic about solving the problem.



4) Using the gerund instead of the infinitive,  
e.g.

D4. She refused going to the party.

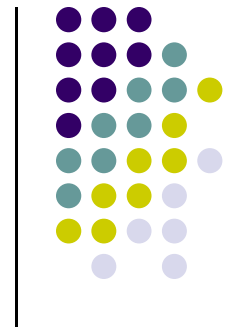
E4. She refused to go to the party.

Using gerund or an infinitive depends on by the  
type





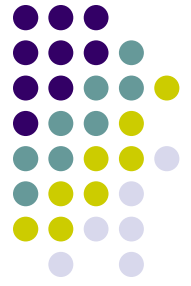
of the main verb in the sentence. A native speaker would not generate, for example, He went for buying oranges, because for buying does not function the same way as to buy functions.



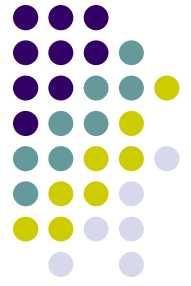
B. Confusion with subordinators and

Conjunctions: Consider the following example:

D5. Although he said he was going to be late,  
but he actually arrived on time.

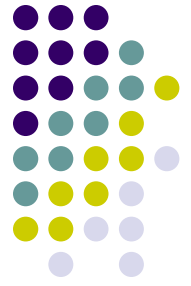


We use either the subordinator, although, or the conjunction, but never both. We can say either: E5a. although he said he was going to be late, he actually arrived on time.



or: E5b. He said he was going to be late, but he actually arrived on time. Consider the Persian equivalent:

P5. /pægærche ?u goft be mowqe miyayæd,  
æmma dir resid/



## C. Problems with Relative Clauses

Note the following Penglish sentence:

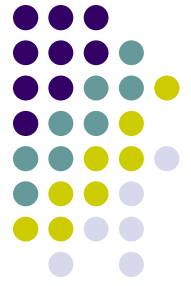
D6. The man that I saw him yesterday, is sick today.

The correct English sentence is:



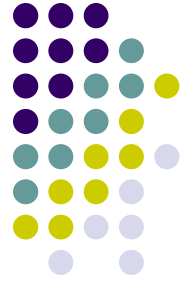
E6. The man that I saw yesterday, is sick today.

In D6. a Persian learner is inserting an additional pronoun in the relative clause.



## D. Problems with Prepositions and Particles

The fourth systematic error is the use of prepositions and phrasal verbs. Preposition and phrasal verb errors are of three kinds:



a) omission

b) insertion

c) use of the wrong preposition

Consider the following errors:

D8. I can't make a decision without thinking  
----- it.

D9. I enjoy from reading novels.



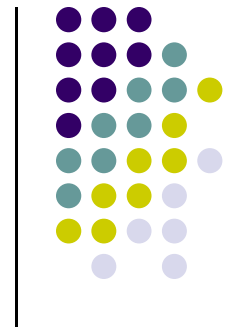


D10. He depends to his parents.

D11. He believes to God.

D12. He judged about the boy.

The problem with prepositions and phrasal verbs is a clear example of native



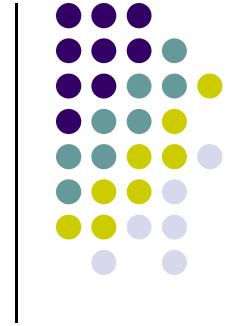
language interference. One problem with prepositions is that in English there are usually more prepositions than in Persian. In Persian, for example, the preposition /ʔæz/ can mean:



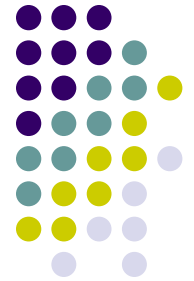
from, in, by, over, of, through, than, by way of, because, out of, or belonging to. The Persian preposition /be/ can mean: to, in, into, at, on, of, with, upon



for, from, and as. One problem with phrasal verbs is that they are learned as a unit and the particles have often different renderings in Persian.



For example, English believes in while Persian  
believes to; while Persian gets married with;  
English goes in a taxi



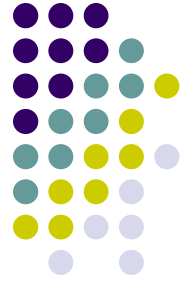
while Persian goes with a taxi. The problem is further complicated with English non-phrasal verbs such as enjoy and judge.



At the lexical level, the following Penglish expressions are produced by Persian learners of English:

D13. The chief of the bank

D14. The chief of the department



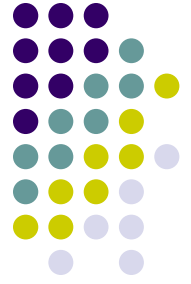
D15. The chief of the college

D16. The chief of the university

D17. The chief of the high school

The acceptable forms of the above errors are  
as follows:





E13. The manager of the bank

E14. The chairman of the department

E15. The dean of the college

E16. The chancellor of the university

E17. The principal of the high school



For phonological deviancies, note the following renderings:

D18. der ?ar terti ?estiyudents ?in dis delas.

D19. vat ?ar yu tinkin ?ebawt?

The above renderings are probable and approximate pronunciation

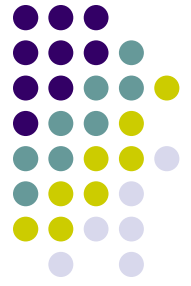


of the following English sentences by Persian learners.

E18. There are thirty students in this class.

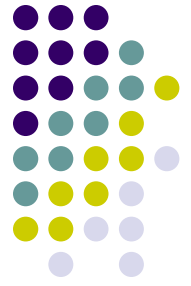
E19. What are you thinking about?

# UNIT THREE: Types of Contrastive Studies



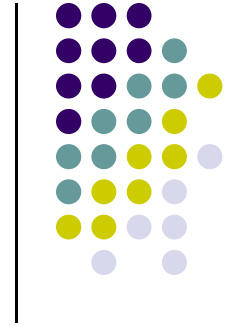
Universal feature: A property claimed to be common for all languages.

System: A network of patterned relationships constituting the organization of language.

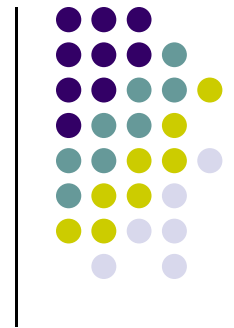


## Theoretical CA

Theoretical contrastive studies are concerned with spelling out similarities and differences in the structure of two or more languages-i.e., they have as their major objective an adequate description



and characterization of similarities and differences. Theoretical contrastive studies are usually based on a particular theoretical framework-e.g., structural, transformational or government and binding



theoretical linguistics has often been termed the scientific study of language. In the same view, theoretical CA is the scientific study of languages in contrast.

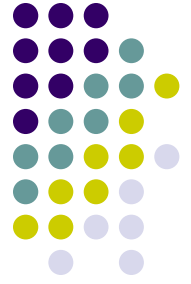


## Applied CA

Applied contrastive studies aim at making use of the theoretical contrastive analysis for some specific purposes, of which language pedagogy and translation are perhaps the most obvious examples.



# UNIT FOUR: Procedures of CA

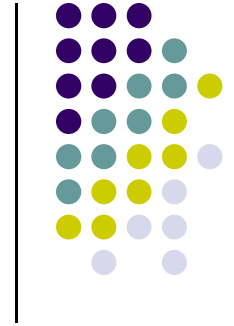


Discourse: A continuous and related stretch of language larger than a sentence.

Pragmatics: A study of how context influences the way sentences convey information.

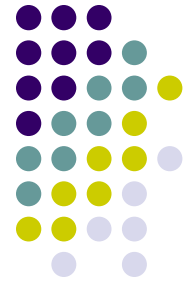


With language, we perform many functions. We can make promises, issue warnings, offer congratulations and extend invitations. All these have to do with people's use of language in specific contexts.



Pragmatics is concerned with the ways languages function.

Transfer: The process or result of carrying over speech habits from one language to another.

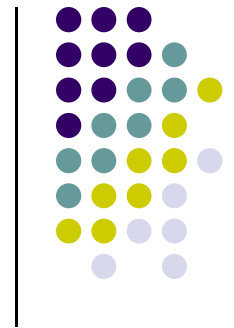


## Steps in Contrasting Two Language Systems:

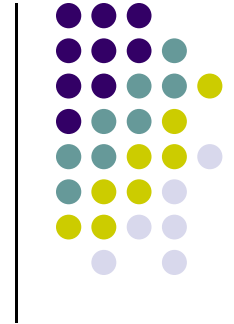
Executing a CA of classical type usually involves four steps: description, juxtaposition, comparison and prediction; levels of language structure are syntax, lexicon, phonology, pragmatics and discourse.



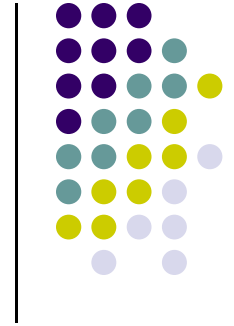
Under the influence of the mother tongue the differences are transferred into the learner's language, interlanguage, interference is created and certain deviant structures are expected to be generated. This is called prediction.



The differences between L1 and L2 would create interference and generate deviant structures-i.e., errors-in the learner's language. One can further argue that errors can make the learning task difficult.



So differences, interference and difficulty always work hand in hand. It is stated that the more different two structures in L1 and L2 are, the more difficulty learners in learning.

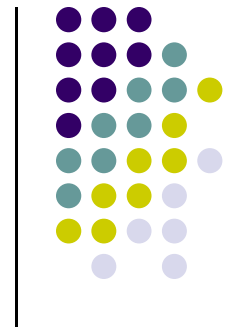


The strong version of contrastive analysis hypothesis: this is a version in which practically most, if not all, contrastive analysis activities are performed.





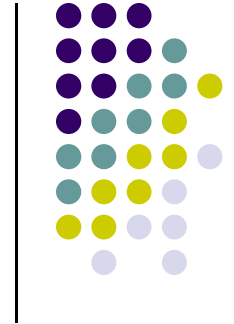
Two other versions, namely weak and moderate, are named in the literature which are not well cultivated yet. The weak version of CA, as Wardaugh (1970) claims, aims to explain



Only those errors which are already diagnosed by contrasting only the structures which are meant to be the sources of the errors. This version of CA according to James

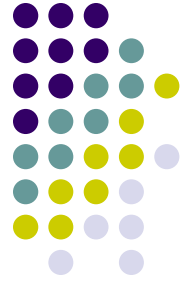


belongs to the field of Errors Analysis. The strong version of CA holds that the degree of difficulty correlates with the intensity of differences between the two structures in L1 and L2.

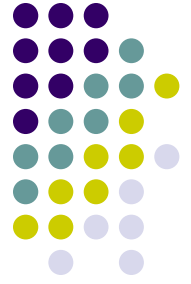


However, the moderate version claims that minimally distinct structures are more problematic for learners. Learning subtle distinctions with minute differences is, in fact, more difficult.

# UNIT FIVE: Contrasting Grammatical Structures



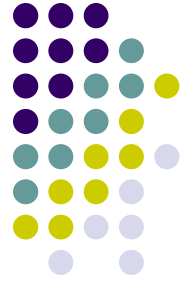
Direct Object (D. Obj.). In English this syntactic function is realized by means of a position relative to the verb-i.e., usually immediately following the verb.



In Persian this syntactic function is realized by means of /-ra/ ending and in certain cases by means of a position relative to the verb, usually immediately preceding a verb.

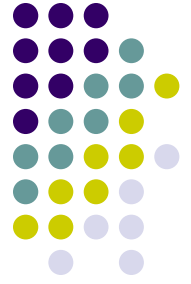


Indirect Object (I. Obj.). In English and Persian, indirect object always occurs with verbs which take both direct and indirect objects. They can usually be arranged into three semantic groups



of dative, benefactive and eliciting. This syntactic function is realized by *to*, *for* and *of* in English, and */be/*, */bæraye/* and */ʔæz/* in Persian respectively followed by a nominal.



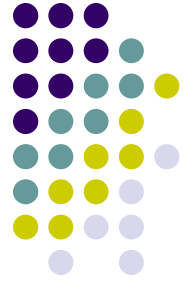


Prepositional Object (Prep. Obj.). Any object that has to be preceded by a preposition except the prepositions mentioned above. Pro-subject (Pro-Subj.). In English Pro-Subject is a non-referential subject which is represented

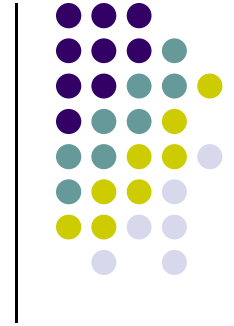


by expletive it and occupies the position of subject and is in agreement as to the person with the verb.

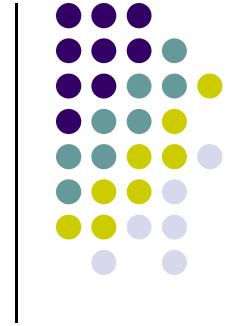
Predicator. Predicator is a term used to refer to the function



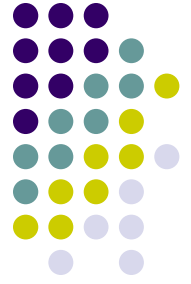
of the main verb in a sentence. The verb to be, however, is considered to be void of semantic content and is only a tense carrier.



In case the main verb of the sentence is a form of to be, the other elements in the predicate play the role of a predicator.

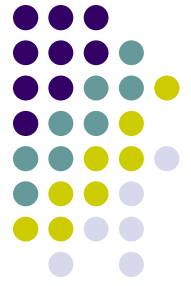


Argument. Names and entities which accompany the predicator in a basic sentence are called arguments.



A basic sentence pattern is a pattern such that:

1. The syntactic function of the elements of the sentence (e.g., subject, verb and object in a simple affirmative sentence) is never



repeated twice in the same pattern.

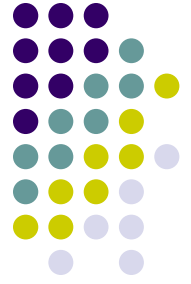
2. All the elements in the sentence with their lexical realizations are meant to be obligatory; that is, all the elements are essential.



3. The order of the words in the pattern and the intonation pattern are supposed to be the most neutral one.

According to the above requirements only traditional, simple, active





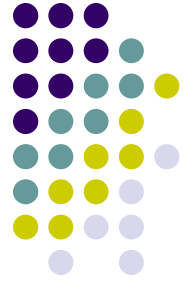
Declarative, positive sentences are basic, and traditional, non-action, non-affirmative, non-positive, complex, coordinated sentences, and sentences containing verbal complementation are all non-basic.



## A. Zero-place predicates

It is windy.

Pro-subj it in this sentence is meant to be empty of semantic content and doesn't count as an argument. Windy is the predicate.



## B. One-place predicates

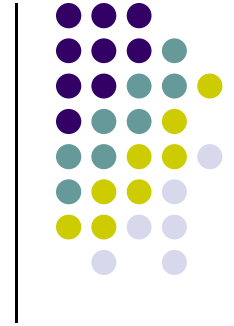
Mehdi cried.

Mehdi is intelligent.

## C. Two-place predicates

Mehdi saw the boy.

I am responsible for you.

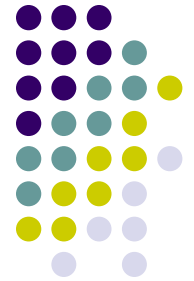


D. Three-place predicators (with three arguments)

Mehdi wrote a letter to Parvin.

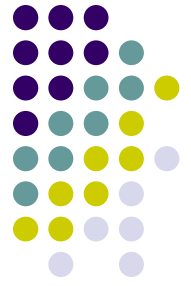
The people elected Mehdi a president.

They painted the wall pink.



Predicator “night” denotes some point or period in time, but predicator Friday refers to stretches of time. Deep is a gradable and open is a non-gradable adjective.

# UNIT SIX: Contrasting Grammatical Structures



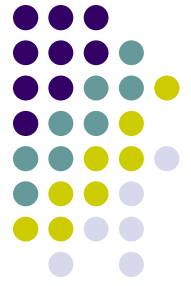
## Zero-Place Predicators

1. Predicator denotes some point or period in time:

It was night.

/shæb bud/

2. Predicator refers to stretches of time such as day, month, year



It's Friday.

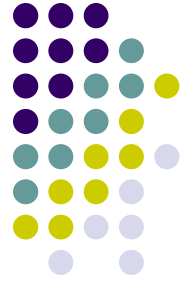
/(ruz-e)jom?e ?æst/

3. Predicator refers to some sort of sensation or describes general weather conditions

It's cold.

/hæva særd ?æst/

4. Predicator denotes a weather phenomenon:



It's raining

/baran mi-bar-æd/

5. Predicator identifies the person in response to the expressions such as Who is it?

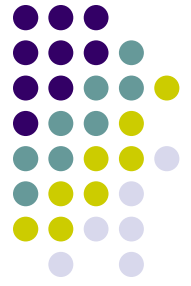
So there is no Zero-place predicator in Persian.

It's me

/mæn-æm/



# UNIT SEVEN: Contrasting Grammatical structures



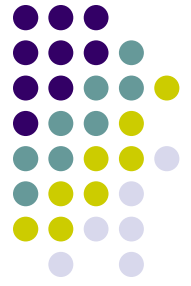
One-Place Predicators

Collocation: Habitual co-occurrence of  
individual vocabulary items

Clitics: Forms which can fill slots at the phrase  
or clause levels,

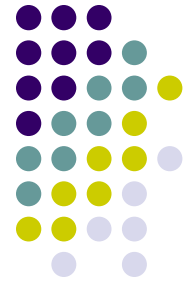


but cannot occur as free forms. In Persian the –æm in /xodæm/ “myself” is a clitic although it is attached to the /xod/ “self” making up a fused phonological word.

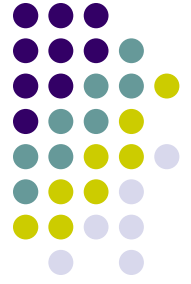


Cliticization: The process of creating clitics.

Topicalization: The placement of an element of the sentence in front of it about which something is going to be said, as in Yesterday I met the man



Overgeneralization: The process whereby the learner extends his use of a language feature beyond the limits allowed by the rule, e.g., overgeneralizing the regular past tense form (-ed) in such items as goed and eated.



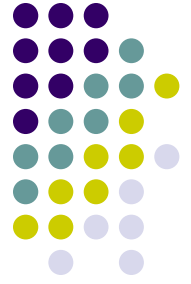
## Patterns

Predicator expresses general weather condition:  
NP is the argument. The weather (outside) is good.

Predicator refers to distance:

It's 100 kilometers to Tehran.

/ta tehran 100 Kilumetr ?æst/



Predicator denotes a class of objects to which the referent of the nominal argument belongs

Mehdi is a teacher.

I am a doctor.

Predicator expresses the acquisition of a new quality by the referent of the nominal argument

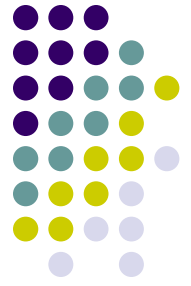


The most important verb members of this pattern are verbs like become, get, grow, turn, come, go, etc.

Mehdi turned red.

/rang-e mehdi sorx shod/

color-of Mehdi red became



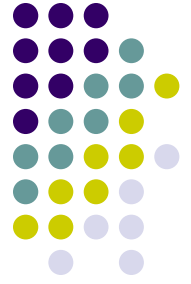
Predicator expresses the fact that the referent of the argument NP1

becomes a member of some class of objects, NP2

The important verb members of this group are become, turn, etc.

Predicator denotes location or time of the occurrence:





of the referent of the nominal argument.

Predicator expresses the supposition as to the quality or state of the referent of NP (a verb of appearing group plus Adj)



In English and verb /be næzær ræsidæn/  
“appear” plus Adj in Persian).

Mehdi looks happy.

Medi seems intelligent.

/Mehdi xoshhal be-næzær miræsæd/

Predicator expresses some perceptual quality  
of the referent of NP1.



The most important members of the VP are smell, taste, feel, sound, etc.

Predicator provides some description for the referent of the nominal argument:

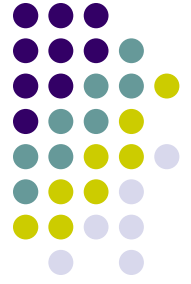


Predicator assigns some quality (usually color) to the referent of the nominal argument

That dress is black.

/ʔan lebas meshki ʔæst/

Predicator assign some measure quality or descriptive attributes usually gradable

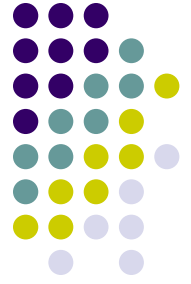


along a scale to the referent of the nominal argument:

This pool is deep.

This pool is three meters deep:

Predicator indicates an ownership relationship



Predicator denotes an action or state of the referent of the nominal argument:

The boy smiled.

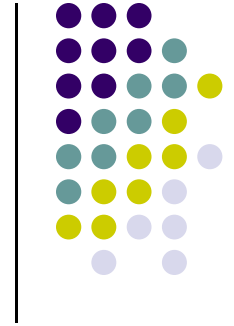
Predicator denotes some sort of sensation:

Mehdi feels/is comfortable.



Verbs in Persian can be divided into two groups: simple and non-simple. Simple verbs are verbs with one lexical element.

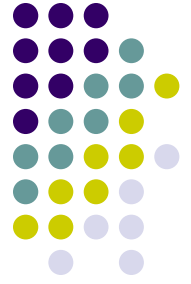
Non-simple verbs can be further divided into two



sub-groups: compound and indirect (or non-personal).

A compound verb consists of a preverbal element and a verbal element. The preverbal element may be (a) a noun such

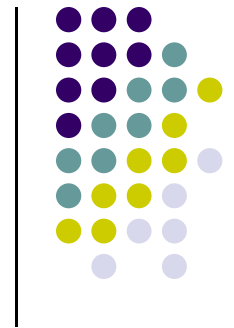




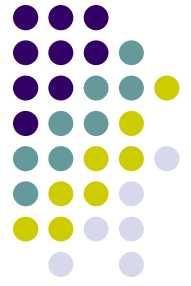
as /zæmin/ “earth” with the simple verb /xordæn/ “to eat” in the compound /zæmin xordæn/ “to fall down”, (b) an adjective such as /baz/ “open” with the simple verb /kærdæn/



“to do” in the compound /baz kærdæn/ “to open”, (c) an adverb such as /pish/ “forward” with the simple verb /ræftæn/ “to go” in the compound /pish ræftæn/

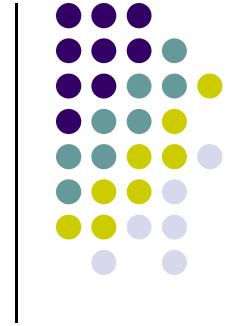


“to advance”, (d) a preposition such as /dær/  
“out” with the simple verb /gozæshtæn/ “pass”  
in the compound /dær gozæshtan/ “to die” (e) a  
verb stem such as /gir/



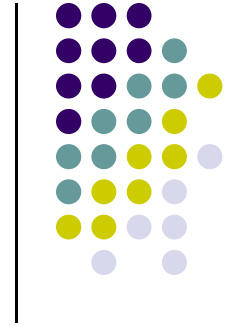
“taking” with simple verb /ʔaværdæn/ “to bring”  
in the compound /gir ʔaværdæn/ “to obtain”  
and many other combination.

Indirect verbs are like compounds in terms of  
morphological structure

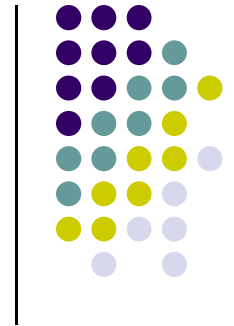


-i.e., they are made up of two or more elements as a unit.

Due to the special nature of the subjects demanded by these verbs, the verbs always

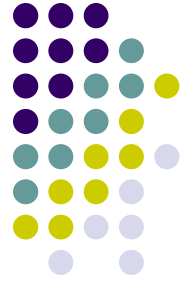


are in the form of third person singular. The subjects are mostly names of parts of body, or names of mental activities added to a pronoun referring



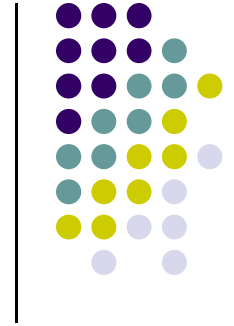
to a person to whom the part of the body or the activity belongs in the form of Ezafe construction.

/mæn del-æm dærd mikonæd/



some scholars think that in sentences like this  
/mæn/ --i.e., the topicalized non-affix pronoun  
subject is originally accusative after Khanlari.  
The verb does not agree with this

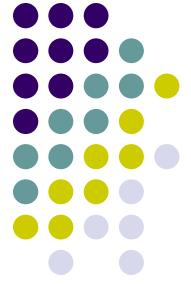




originally accusative subject in person and number. Thus the sentence is called non-personal.

There is not a particular affected part of the body but the whole body is affected.

# UNIT EIGHT: Contrasting Grammatical Structures:



## Two-Place Predicators

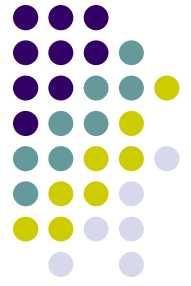
Agent and Goal: In a sentence like Mehdi kicked the ball in which the verb is of material or action type,



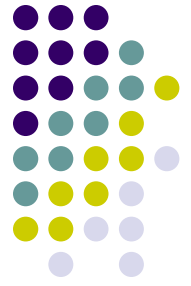
Semantically the subject, Mehdi, is the agent and the direct object, the ball is the goal.

Experiencer, stimulus and Psychological Verbs:

In sentences 1) Mehdi loves music



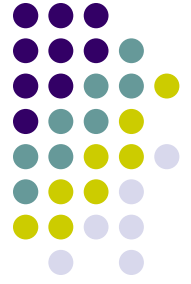
and 2) The results disappointed Mehdi, the verbs love and disappoint are psychological verbs as they reflect some sort of sensing processes. In the first sentence Mehdi is the experiencer



and music the stimulus. Music stimulates some sort of sensation within Mehdi who experiences the sensation. In the second sentence the results is the stimulus and Mehdi the experiencer.



Love in the first sentence whose subject is the experiencer is called a straightforward psychological verb and disappoint whose subject is the stimulus is called a reverse psychological verb.

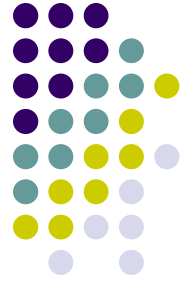


## Patterns

Predicator denotes an action or state which involves two objects:

I paid the bill.

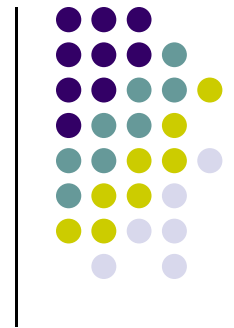
Both in English and Persian the verbs in these expressions are classified as transitive.



One of the criteria by which verbs are classified into transitive and intransitive is their capability to undergo a passive transformation.

There is a small group of transitive verbs





in English that have no corresponding passive forms. This group includes:

cost, fit, have, resemble and suit.

A number of straightforward and the majority of reverse psychological verbs



Such as enjoy, resent, regret, delight, interest, annoy, bore, disappoint, etc., belong to this group. The noun object of a separable phrasal verb may come between the two parts



or it may follow them both; a pronoun object must come between them.

Thus the phrasal verbs turn on, take off, call up and talk over are called separable.



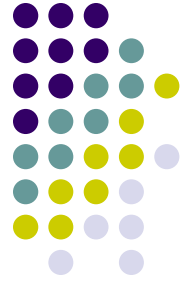
But note the following examples:

I got through the test (\* I got the test through)

(\* I got it through)

Thus phrasal verbs get through, pass on, take  
after

# UNIT NINE: Contrastive Grammatical Structures

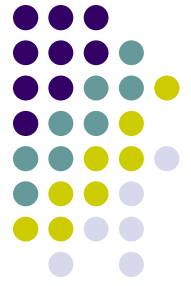


## Three-Place Predicators

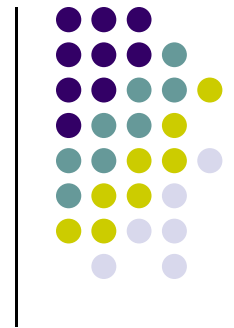
Stylistic Problem: If learner has a number of choices available, but he utilizes only one option(s), we are faced with a stylistic problem.



The two English sentences 1) Mehdi gave the book to him and Mehdi gave him the book are synonymous, and are said to mean the same



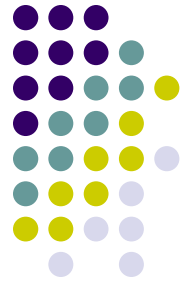
but Persian learners, under the influence of their mother tongue, are expected to use the first sentence more often than the natives do.



## Patterns

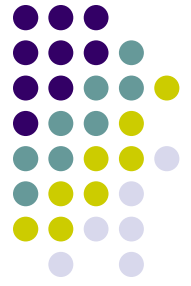
A three place predicator denotes an action which involves three arguments: agent, object and the entity, usually a human being, to which the action is directed





Some of the most important verbs belonging to subcategory 1 are advance, address, allow, bring, deliver, deny, drop, extend, feed, furnish, give, grant, hand, issue, lend, loan, mail, offer.

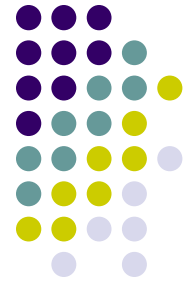
# UNIT TEN: Contrastive Analysis of Consonants and Vowels



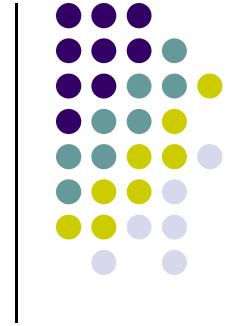
Aspirated vs Unaspirated. Voiceless stops such as [p], [t] and [k], especially before vowels, are released with some puff of air in



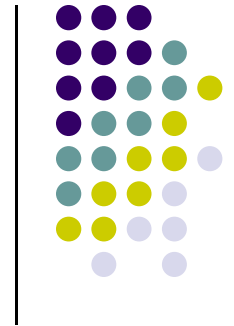
their articulation. They are usually symbolized by a small raised “h” such as [p<sup>h</sup>], [t<sup>h</sup>] and [k<sup>h</sup>]. Without raised “h” the stop sound is meant to be unaspirated.



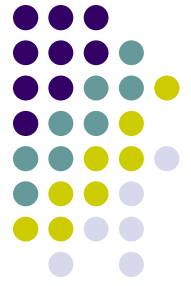
Released vs. Unreleased. Stops are released when they are fully articulated. Unreleased stops are shown by a raised hyphen above the letter sign. So unreleased k is symbolized as [k̚].



Palatalized. A consonant may become palatalized by raising the middle or rear portion of the tongue towards the roof of the mouth. Palatalization is marked by a small lowered “y”

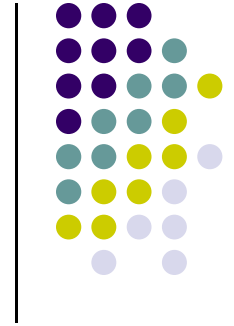


Devoiced. Stops, fricatives and affricates usually have voiced counterparts. But nasals, laterals and vibrants are inherently voiced and when they lose their voice in certain contexts,



They become devoiced. Devoiced signs are naturally voiceless. They are shown in capital letters.

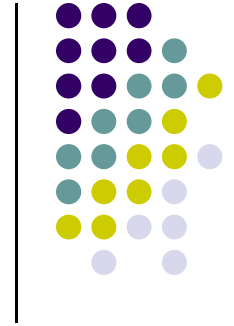
Velarized. English velarized /ɫ/ or “dark ɫ” shown as [ɫ] is produced by simultaneous articulation



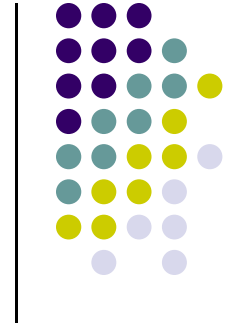
of the apex and the back of the tongue against the alveolar ridge and the velum, respectively.

Syllabic. The consonants /m/, /n/, /l/ and /r/ can



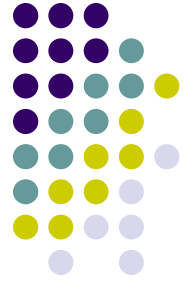


become the most prominent segments in the syllable they function as vowels and are called syllabic. Syllabicity is shown by placing a short vertical line underneath the consonant

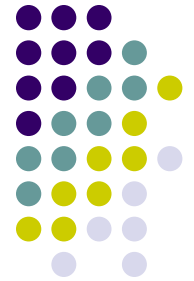


Retroflex. A retroflex /r/ sound shown as [r] is usually formed by curling the tip of the tongue back behind the alveolar ridge.

Flap vs. Trill. A Persian



r between two vowels is flap, formed by a single touch of the tip of the tongue against the alveolar ridge area. A trill, however, is produced by rapid vibration

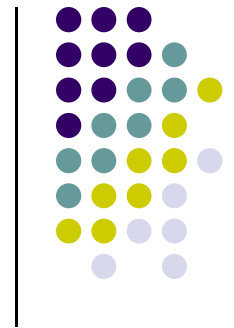


of the tip or front of the tongue against the roof of the mouth. Trilled r is symbolized as [r]. In American English /t/ can become a flap in certain



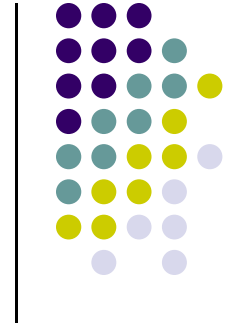
contexts. It is shown phonetically as [t].

Dental-alveolar. Persian /d, t, s, z, and n/  
shown as [d , t , s , z and n] have dental-  
alveolar articulation



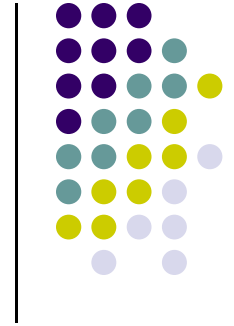
Their English counterparts, however, have alveolar articulation.

Fronted vs Backed. In Persian the vowel a is said to be fronted-i.e., produced in a position further forward in the mouth



than what may be regarded as the basic position of the sound. It is shown by [a<].

However /æ/ is backed and shown by [Æ].



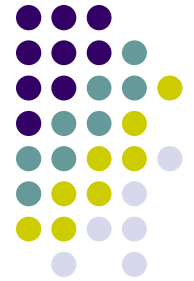
Assumed phonetic Base. Assumed Phonetic Base is a phonetic shape which is taken as basic form among the allophonic variants of a phoneme.

Neutralization. Two or more phonemes are said





to be neutralized when their already-existing contrasts are lost in a particular environment. In English many vowels lose their contrasts before /r/.



Open vs Close Syllables. Open syllable ends in vowel and close syllable ends in consonant.



The following deviant productions can be expected from a Persian who is learning English:

Substitution of Persian /s/ or /t/ for English [th] –  
i.e., thank is pronounced like tank or sank.

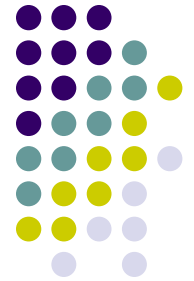


Substitution of Persian /z/ or /d/ for English [dh]

–i.e., then is pronounced as den or zen.

Substitution of Persian /Ci-y/ for English /Cy/.

Example: cute tends to be

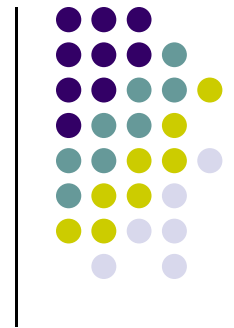


Rendered as /kiyut/ [k<sup>h</sup><sub>y</sub> iyut<sup>h</sup>]. The clusters involved are:/ py, by, ty, dy, cy, jy, ky, gy, fy, vy, thy, sy, hy, my, and ny/.



Substitution of Persian /Cu-w/ for English /CW/.

Example: queen tends to be rendered as /kuwin/ [k<sup>h</sup>uwin]. The clusters involved are: /pw, bw, tw, dw, kw, qw, thw, sw, shw, and hw/.



Substitution of Persian /sher/ for English /shr/.

Example: shrink tends to be rendered as /sherink/ [sherinkhy]. the cluster involved is: /shr/.

Substitution of Persian /ʔes-C/ for English /sC/.

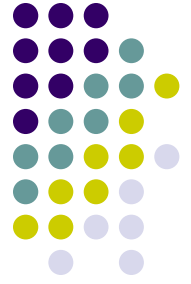


Example: 'school' tends to be rendered as /ʔeskul/ [ʔeskhul]. The clusters involved are: /sp, st, sk, sf, sm, sn, and sl/.

Substitution of Persian /ʔesh-C/ for English /shC/.



# UNIT ELEVEN: A Contrastive Analysis of Accent and Intonation



Stress is usually defined as the degree of force with which a word or syllable is uttered.



Syllabic prominence is achieved by the combined effect of:

a) loudness (stress)

b) pitch

c) quantity of vowels-i.e., longer vowels are more prominent

d) quality of vowels-i.e., opener vowels are more prominent



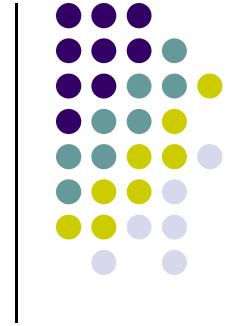
The term accented syllable or strong accent is used in this work for the more prominent, and unaccented syllable or weak accent is used for the less prominent syllable.



## Word Accent

It is commonly believed that word accent in Persian is predominantly on the final syllable.

In Persian, nominal compounds normally have their stronger accent on the last member.

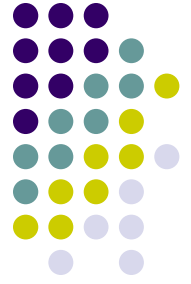


The following varieties of compounds receive strong accents on the final element:

1. compounds made up of two or more simple or complex elements:

/telefonxané/

2. Conjoined nominal expressions



and nominalized sentences.

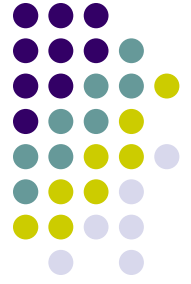
/kar-o-kushésh

/zæmin xordæ-e mehdi/

3. Compound numerals:

/bist-o-sé/

4. In compounds functioning as vocatives, primary accents shift to the initial syllable of the first element.



/kétabforush/!

Nominal phrases receive primary accent according to the following scheme:

1. Nominal and prepositional phrases, have their stronger accents on the originally accented syllable of the last member

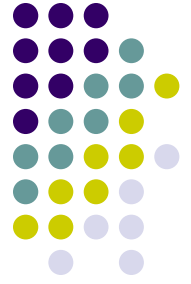


ketab-e hoséyn/

2. Phrases containing numerals and indefinite determiners like /hæmé/, /chænd/ have their stronger accent on the accent-bearing syllable of the first member.

/shésh ruz/





3. In phrases functioning as vocatives, primary accents shift to the initial syllable of the first element.

/pésær-e tænbæł/

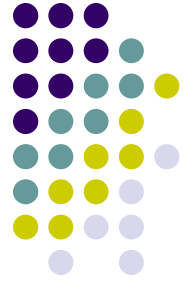
Sentence Accent

The most prominent syllable in such utterances



is meant to possess a grammatical or sentence accent. Usually, the highest pitch falls on the more strongly accented syllable of the sentence.

It is the new information which carries the strongest accent



The following remarks are worth mentioning.

1. In sentences with negative particles or affixes, the accent falls on the negative particle.

*/mæn zæmin xordæm/*

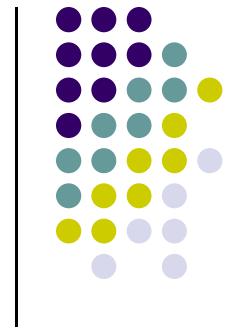
2. In simplex interrogative sentences containing



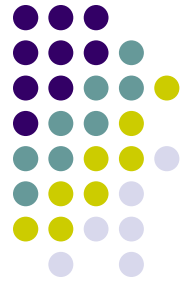
a question word, the strong accent falls on the question particle.

/chéra mi-xændi?/

3. Complex sentences are considered by this author to have a separate strong accent for each clause



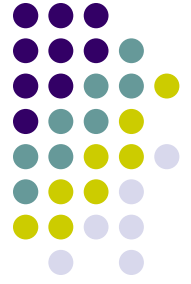
of course, the subordinate or the relative clause which precedes the main clause usually has its strong accent on the final syllable of the clause and the main clause



follows the normal pattern of accentuation for simplex sentences.

/ʔægær be ʔesfæhan mi-rævid, gæz yadetan næ-rævæd./

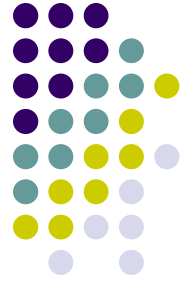
4. Compound sentences are considered to have separate strong accents



for each individual clause. Individual clauses follow the pattern of accentuation of simple sentences:

/mehdi dærs mi-xanæd va mæn name mi-nevisæm/

5. Choice compounds carry the primary

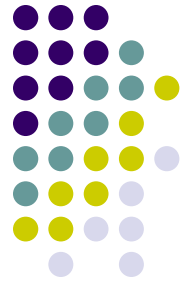


accent on the choices in question

/qæhv́é mi-xori ya chayi?/

a particular part of the utterance is specifically emphasized for special effect, to convey specific information or





to seek special question on behalf of the speaker. This kind of accent is called emphatic or rhetorical accent. Another term used for the same thing is “pragmatic accent”.

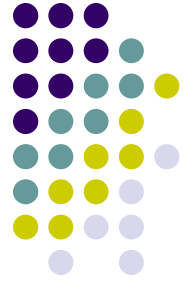


## Word Accent

in English, there is a tendency toward placing the accent near the beginning of the word.

Accent in Compounds and Phrases in English:

A. Nominal compounds ordinarily have

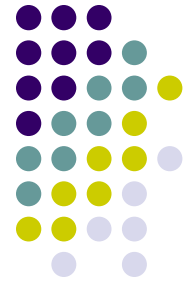


a strong accent on the first component with the following specifications:

1. Compounds could be constructed from two nouns.

bláckbird

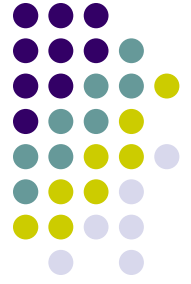
2. The above compounds can become the first components



of other larger compounds but pattern of accent remains unchanged.

drúgstore clerk

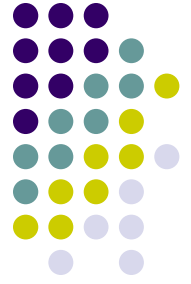
B. compound verbs made up of a simple verb and a particle have the primary accent on the particle. make *úp*



C. Nominal phrases of modifier-head type carry the primary accent on the head noun.

Black bird

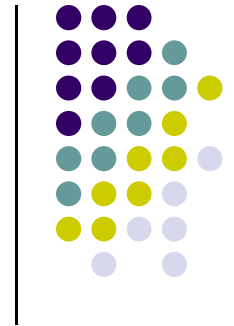
D. Nominal phrases of determiner-head type also carry the primary



accent on the head noun.

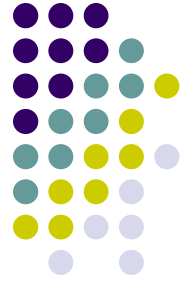
my friend

E. Nominal phrases consisting of a last name as a head noun and first names or titles as tails carry the primary accent on the head noun.



Mr. Smith

F. Prepositional phrases and phrases consisting of a noun as a head and a prepositional phrase as a tail usually carry the strongest accent on the head



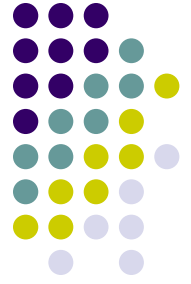
noun of the prepositional phrase.

In English

G. The following expressions and the similar constructions also have the primary accent on the final element.

very much

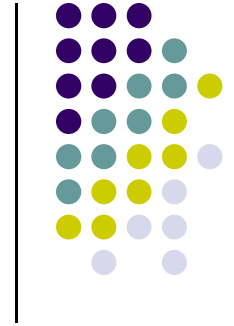




H. Nominal phrases made up of the indefinite expressions none, all, each of everyone followed by a prepositional phrases carry the primary accent on the special expressions.



General Sentence Accent Placement Rule. The rule says, “place the strongest accent on the appropriate syllable of the last content word in the phonological phrase or simply the clause”.



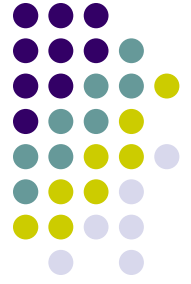
The man came to dinner.

The pitch of the voice is determined by several factors. The most important is the tension of the vocal cords.

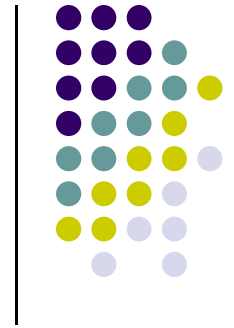


Intonation is the pitch variations over a range of syllables to denote syntactic information.

The normal pitch of the voice of the speaker is called mid. Mid pitch is

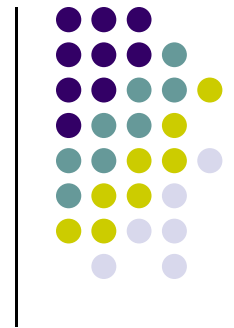


common and serves as a standard of comparison for others. The pitch of the voice higher than normal is called high. The pitch of the voice lower than normal is called low.



Falling pitch symbolized by #, rising pitch by //  
and suspensive pitch (ending in normal pitch)  
by /.

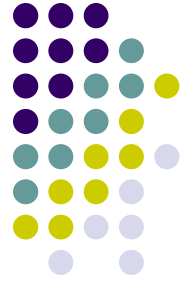
The above descriptions can be shown as



the following: 231 #, 23//, 232/ 231#,  
232/23//,32/231#, 31#.

## Intonation in Persian

A. 231# contour. This pattern is used with the following utterances:



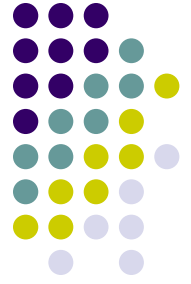
## 1. Declarative simple sentences

/resturan dæst-e rást-e/

2. Declarative sentences containing auxiliary, special and reporting verbs followed by sentential complements as specified below.

/fekr mikonæm mehdi bérævæd/

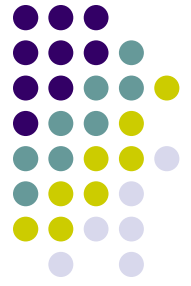




3. Interrogative sentences containing question words-i.e., Wh-questions- in the middle (or the end) of the sentence.

/mehdi cigoft/

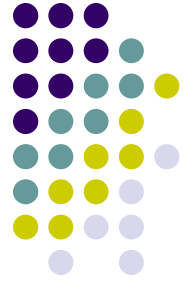
B. 31# contour. This pattern is used in the following utterances:



1. Declarative sentences in which the first syllable of the sentence carries the stronger accent.

*/nǽbayæd mehdi berævæd/*

2. Question sentences with a question word at the beginning of the sentence.

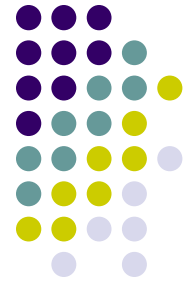


/ki mixahæd benevisæd/

1. A question with a statement word order and with no question particles.

/mehdi tænhá mand || /

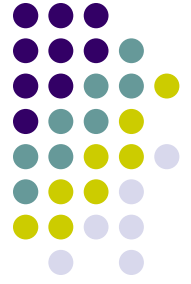
2. A question introduced by the particle /?aya/



/?aya hæmeye shoma daneshju ?id//

D. 33// contour. This pattern is used as follows:

1. A question with a statement word order, without any question particle, and with the sentence

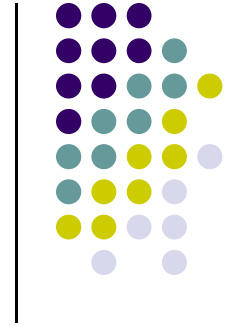


accent on the first syllable of the sentence:

/mixahi benevisi//

E. 232/(2)31# contour. The pattern is utilized in the following cases:

1. An affirmative sentence composed of two clauses



an interrogative complex sentence with question particles in the main clause, and regular and choice compound statements.

/?æagær mehdi qæza næxoræd/ mæn  
mirævæm#/

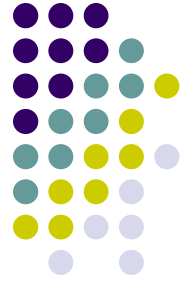


2. A sentence with the /mægær næ/ tag question, seeking confirmation.

/mehdi ráeft mædrese/ mægær næé#/

F. 232/ (2)33// contour. The following structures use this pattern:

1. An interrogative complex

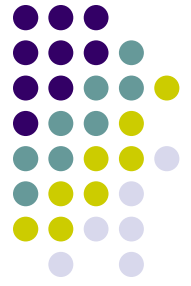


sentence in which the main clause follows the subordinate one and that the main clause does not include a question particle.

*/?ægær mehdi qæza næxoræd/ (to) miri//?/*



# UNIT TWELVE: Contrasting Vocabulary



Concepts lexicalize in the forms of simple words, complex words, compound words, compound-complex words or even phrases.

I. Persian: Simple word: /miz/

English: Simple word: table,



II. Simple word: /zærf/. Complex word: container

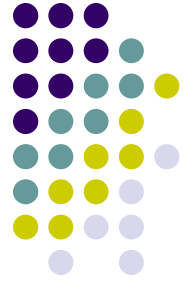
III. Simple word: /barut/. Compound word: gun powder

IV. Complex word: /bimarestan/. Simple word: hospital

V. Compound word: /?æsbab-bazi/. Simple word: toy

Compound word: /mashin-e hesab/.

Complex word: calculator



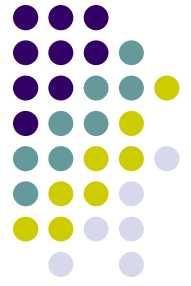
## Contrasting Word Formation Processes

Affixation.

Deviant structure can be generated through the effect of overgeneralization in affixation

Compounding.

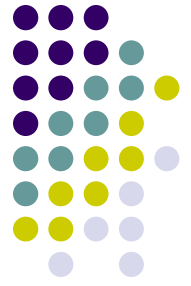
But just like derivatives, not all compounds preserve the meanings of their constituent elements.



## Accent shift

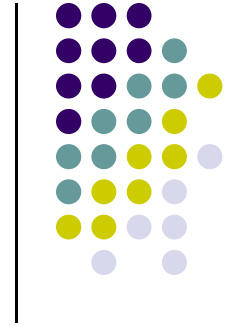
The direction of the shift in English and Persian is not the same. In Persian the direction is from left to right and in English from right to left.

# UNIT THIRTEEN: Contrasting Vocabulary Systems:

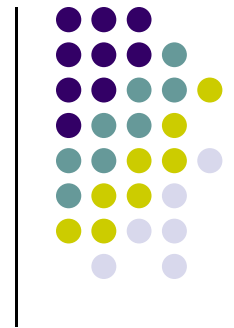


## Contrasting Semantic Fields:

A semantic (or conceptual) field is an area of meaning that is represented in the lexicon by a group of related words. These groups of related words are called lexical fields.



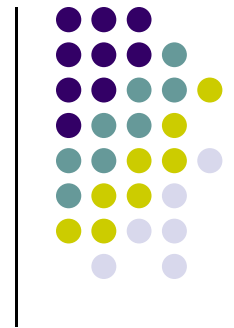
In “full isomorphism” the two color terms in the two languages are meant to be the same. If language *A* uses a different color term or a descriptive translation



for a given color term, then we have a case of lack of isomorphism.

Full isomorphism: /tælay-e sefid/ white gold,

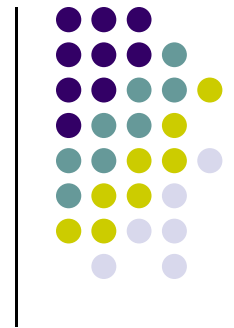
non-isomorphism: /ris sefid/ grey bearded



## Measure Words

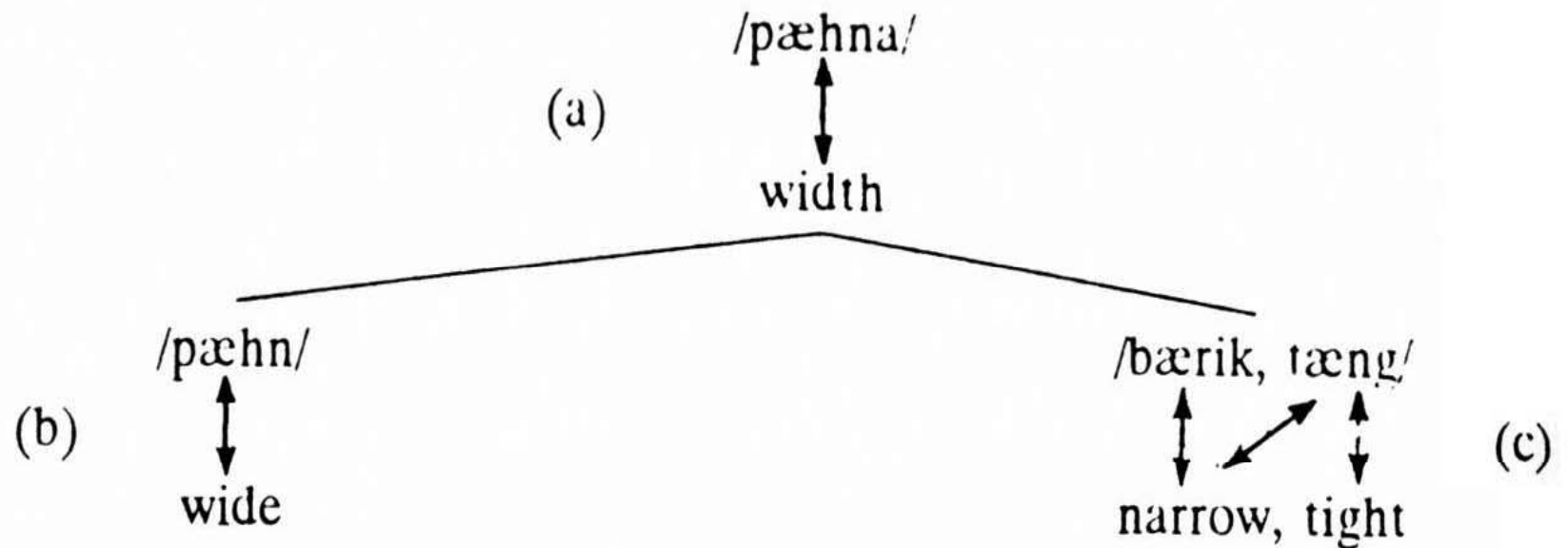
When a term in language A has two or more counterparts in language B, the term “lexical split” is used to denote the relationship.

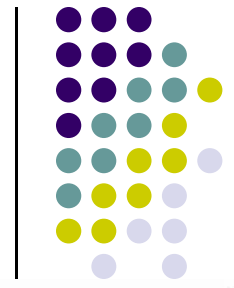




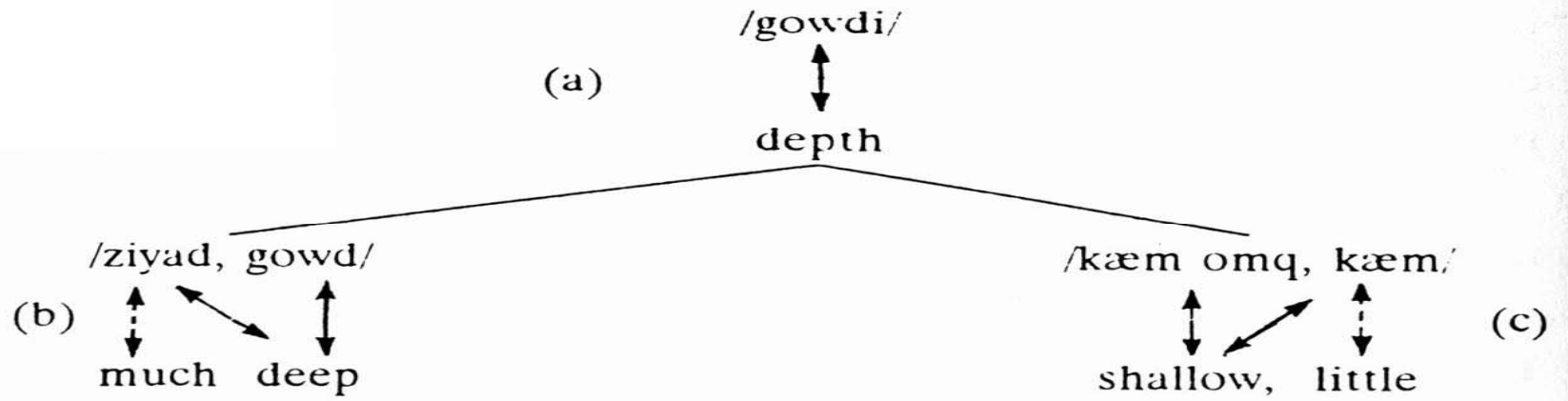
The lexical correspondences of the items in question are sketched below:

## 2.2 /pæhna/

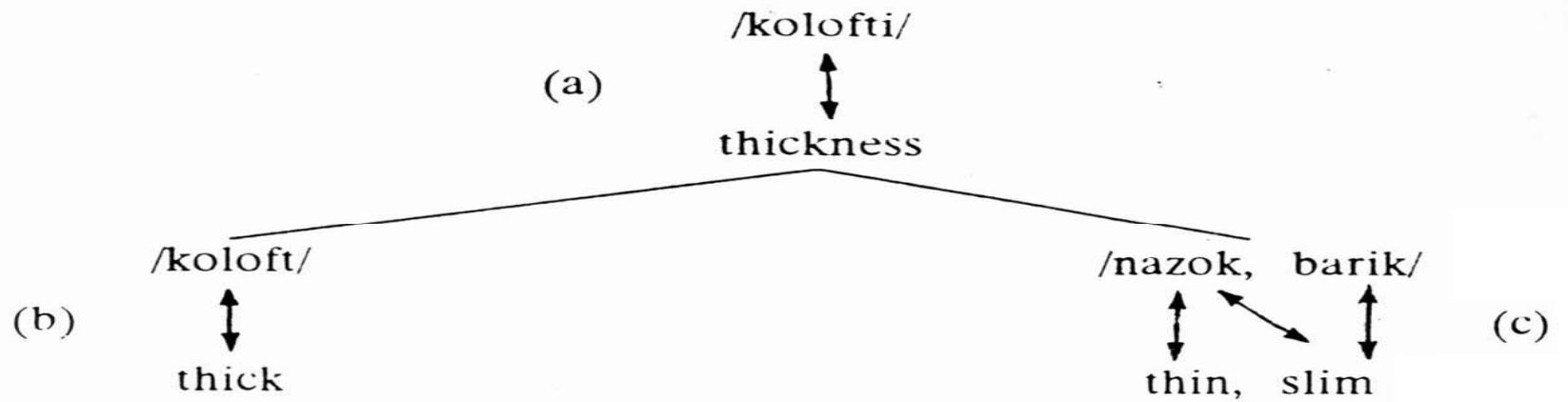


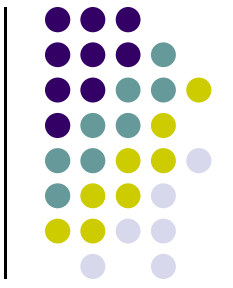


### 2.3 /gowdi/

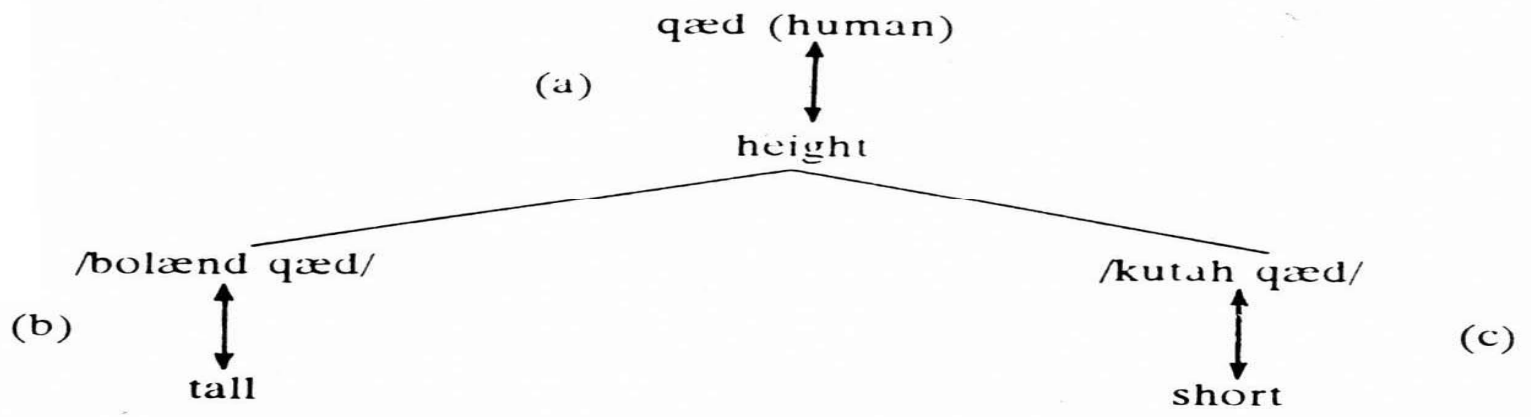


### 2.4 /kolofti/

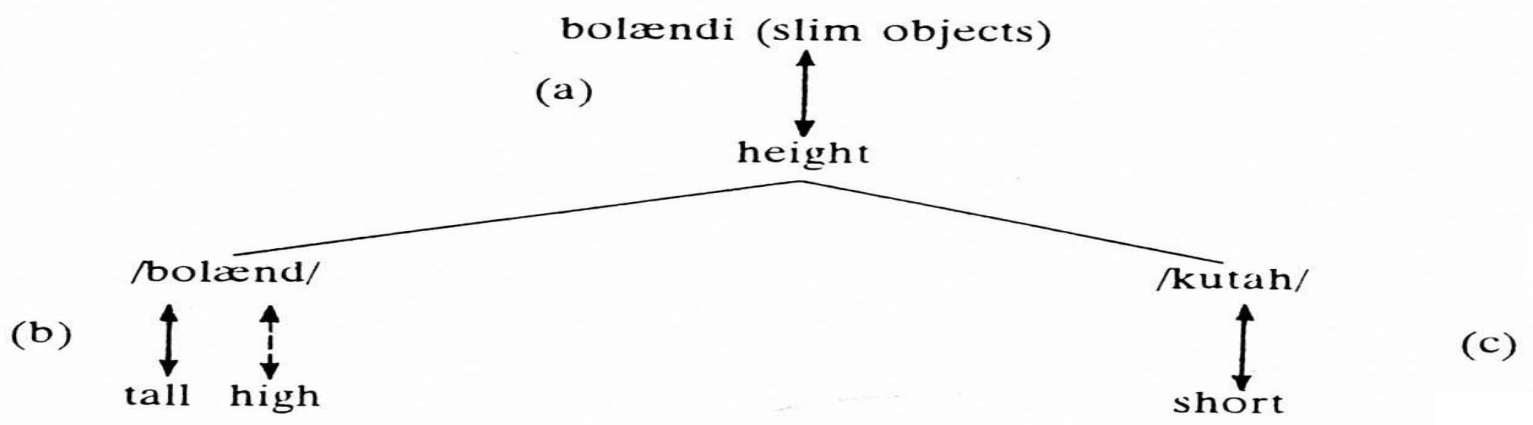


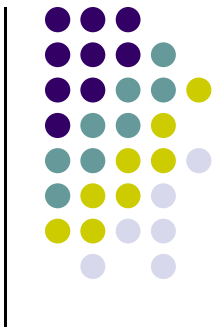


### 2.5.1 /qæd/

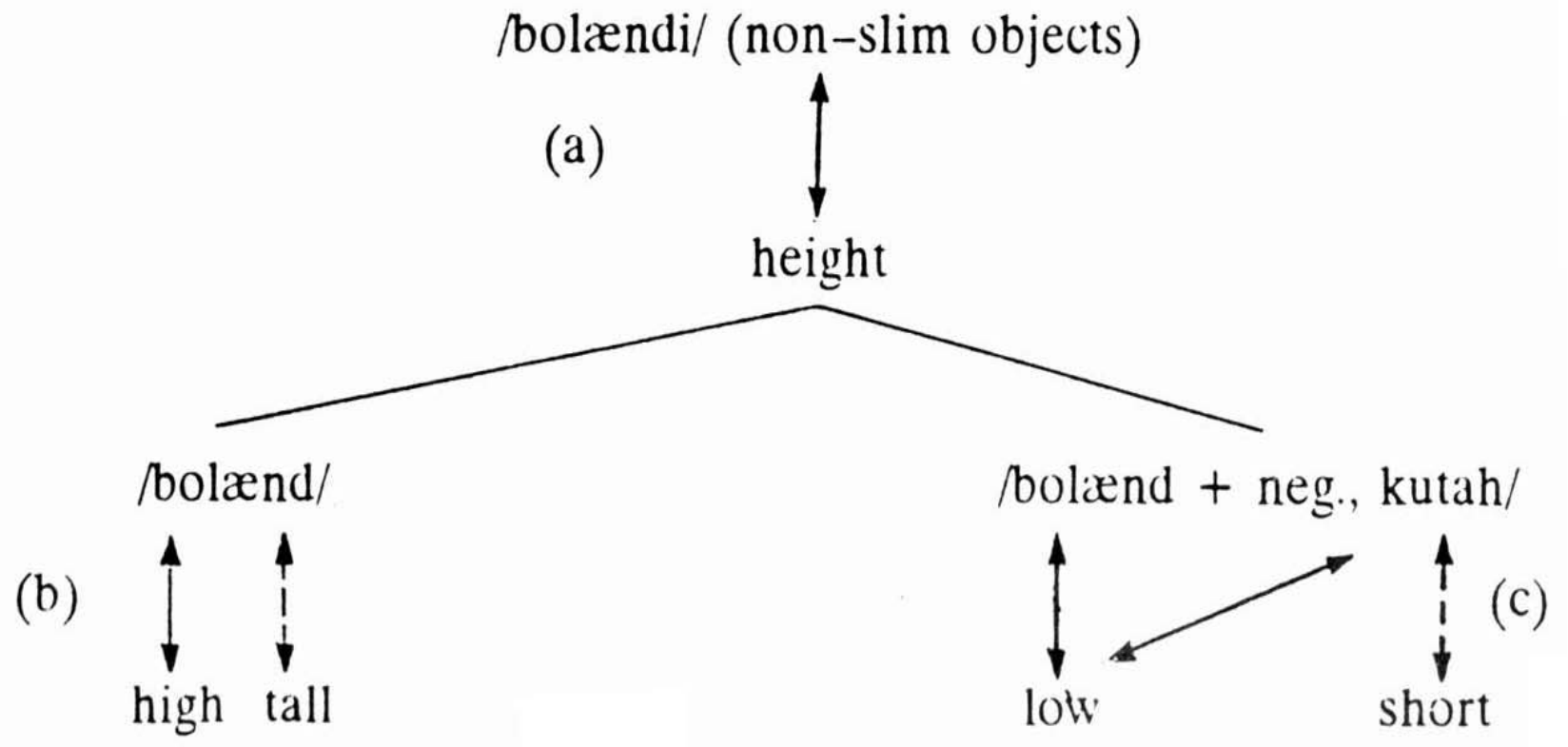


### 2.5.2 /bolænd/





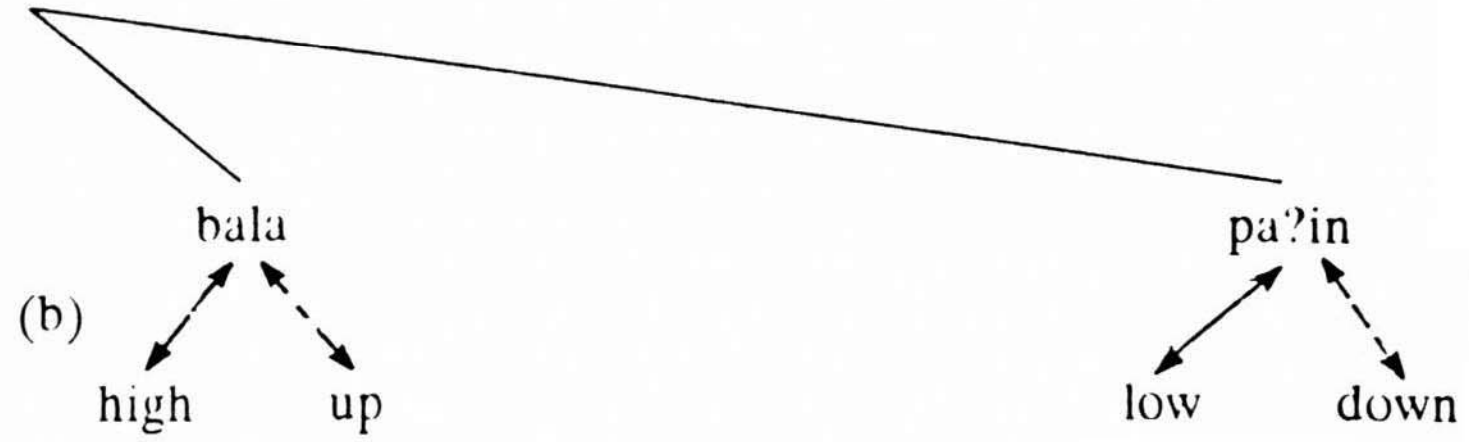
### 2.5.3 /bolænd/



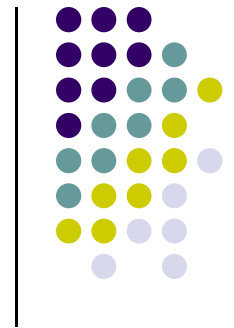


### 2.5.4 /bolænd/

(a) bolændi, fasele-ye . . . æz (sæth-e) zæmin (flying objects)  
altitude, The distance of . . . from the (surface of the) ground

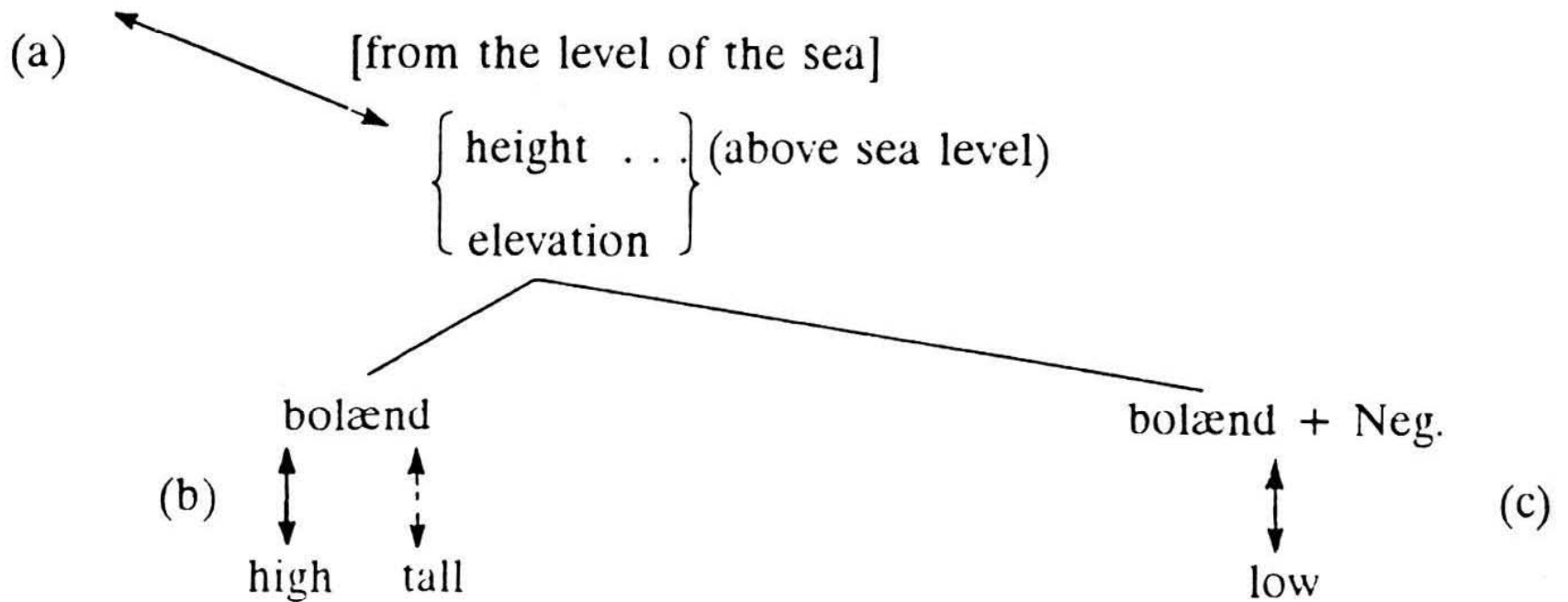


(c)



### 2.5.5 /bolænd/

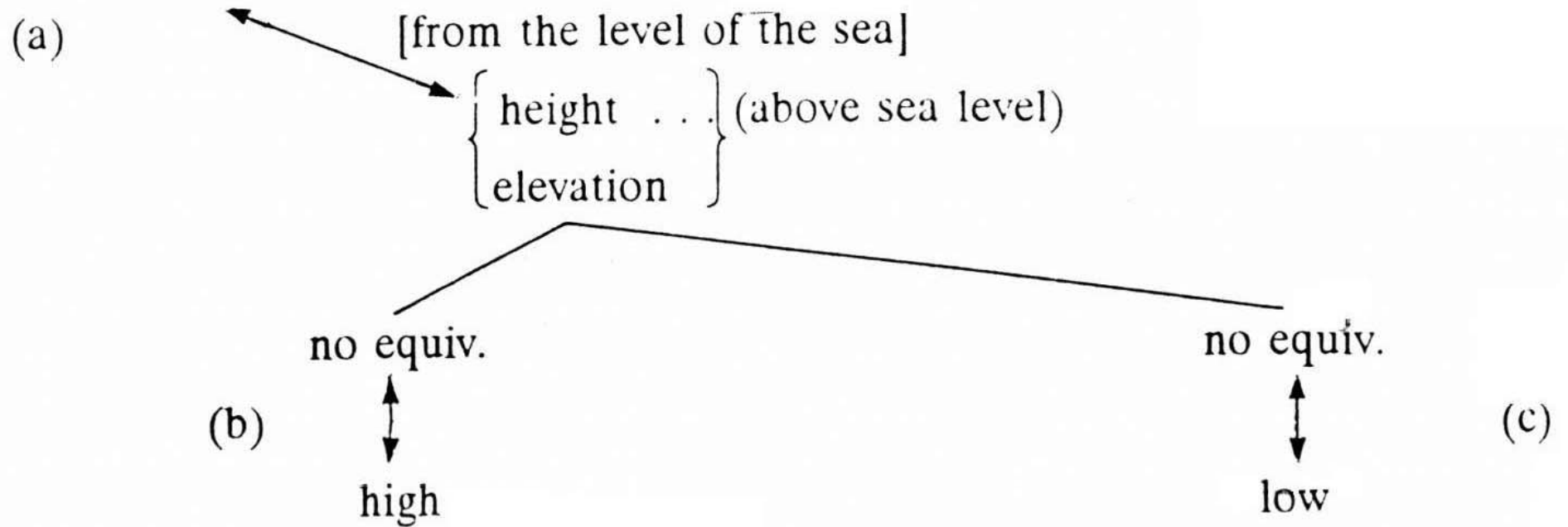
bolændi, . . . az (sæth-e dærya) (mountains)





## 2.5.6 /bɔlænd/

bɔlændi . . . æz sæθ-e dærya (cities)

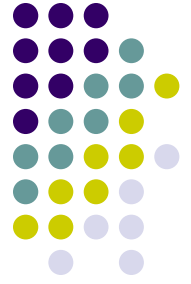




Possible deviant expressions, with their non-deviant utterances given in parentheses if felt necessary, are as follows:

1. Longness (length),
2. wideness (width),
3. deepness (depth),
4. highness (height),
5. tallness (height of a person)





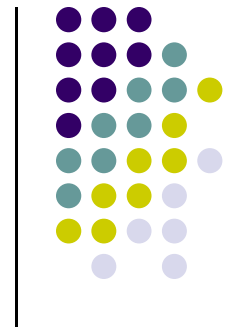
6. The street is tight. (The street is narrow.)

7. Much snow has rained.

8. It has snowed much.

9. A lot of snow has rained.

The snow is deep.



10. It has snowed much.

11. The snow is much.

12. Little snow has rained.

13. It has rained a little snow.

14. The snow is little.

15. It has snowed little.

The snow is deep.

The snow is not deep.

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