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A Contrastive Analysis of Persian and English

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Units: 2

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A Contrastive Analysis of Persian and English

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Objectives

The main objectives of this course are:

- To examine English and Persian as two different linguistic systems.
- To show their similarities and differences regarding their syntactic, semantic, phonological and morphological subsystems.

Status

With respect to translation courses, this course provides the students with necessary structural information about English and Persian which, in turn, enables them to have less difficulty in translating different texts.



UNIT ONE Contrastive Analysis (CA)

Contrastive Analysis Definition

Contrastive Analysis (CA), may be roughly defined as a subdiscipline of linguistics concerned with comparison of two or more languages or subsystems of languages in order to determine both the differences and similarities between them."

Cont...

Both English and Persian have phonemes which are conventionally represent by the same symbols /p/ and /f/, it should not be taken to imply that the English and Persian sounds are in any sense the same.

Cont.

Languages are also different in some aspects and similar in others. But the crucial thing is that looking for differences demands the establishment of a background of sameness that differences are significant.

Cont.

 This sameness of background is termed as "common base", "equivalence" or "tertium comparationis" abbreviated as TC.

Cont

Though scholars have had problem in characterizing the notion of sameness (or equivalence) in theoretical terms, contrastive analyst have performed their analyses by adopting certain practical procedure.

Equivalence can be primarily established with reference to:

- 1. Meaning
- 2. Structure
- 3. Function
- 4. Rule or Process
- 5. Textual and discoursal features

O Examples:

• a) The expressions:

■ P1: /mærd-e xub/

man-of good

■ E1: the good man

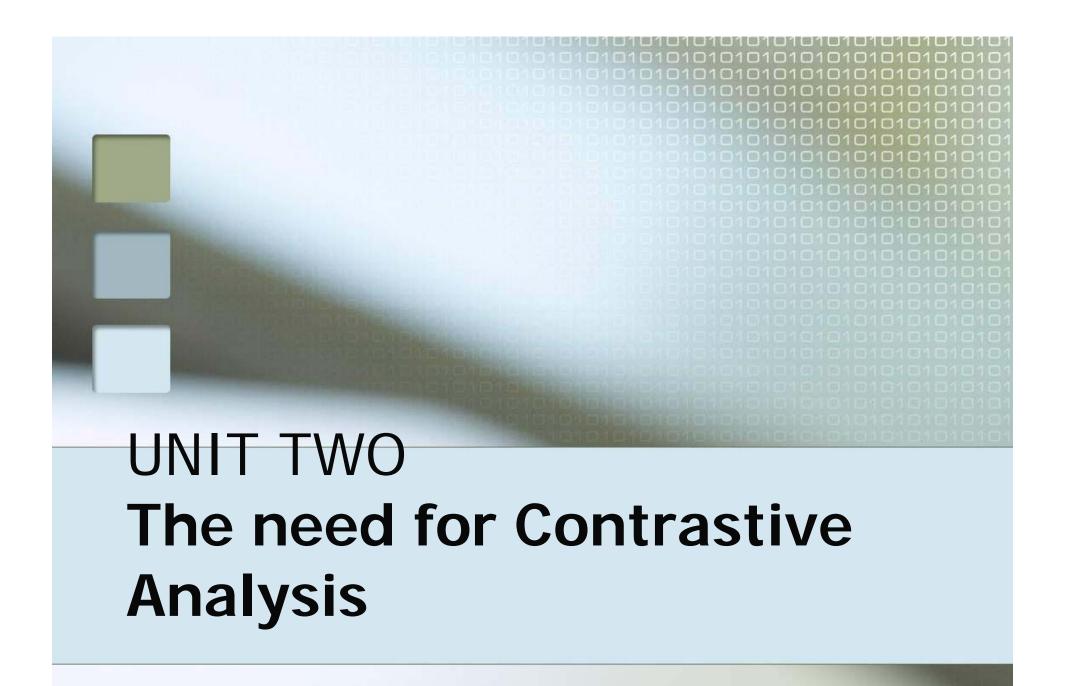
 are both noun phrases (NP) similar as a major category, but different in terms of their internal structures

O Examples:

o b) The two expressions:

P2: /mitunim dær-ra baz konim?/

- can we door-obj-marker open do
- E2: Can't we open the door?
 - Are functionally the same, while they are structurally different.



- Deviant:
- Not in agreement with the standard rules (of grammar)

Cont...

Interference:

The process of carrying over the speech habits of the native language into a foreign (or second) language, by which errors are generated.

Cont...

- Penglish:
- A term coined to refer to the kind of English spoken by Persians.

2.0. Theoretical Uses of CA

 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 implication or applicational values.

2.1. Application of CA

■ The data collected from our students reveal numerous "systematic" errors of various kinds. By systematic we mean "predictable" – i.e. errors which reasons can be provided for their occurrences.

2.1. Application of CA

Cont...

Let us look at some of the errors which can be extracted from the data in the areas of gerunds, infinitives, subordinators, relatives and prepositions after some degrees of normalization.

A. Confusion between infinitives and gerunds

Consider the following examples:

- **D1**. He went to the bazaar for buying grapes.
- D2. He advised me not to smoking.
- **D3.** They are pessimistic about to solve the problem.
- D4. She refused going on the trip.
- The above sentences demonstrate specific errors.

A. Confusion between infinitives and gerunds

Cont..

- 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.

A. Confusion between infinitives and gerunds

- 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.

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.

In English, we use either although or but.

Problems with subordinators and conjunctions, the way presented above, are said to be due to interference from Persian to English.

C. Problems with Relative Clauses

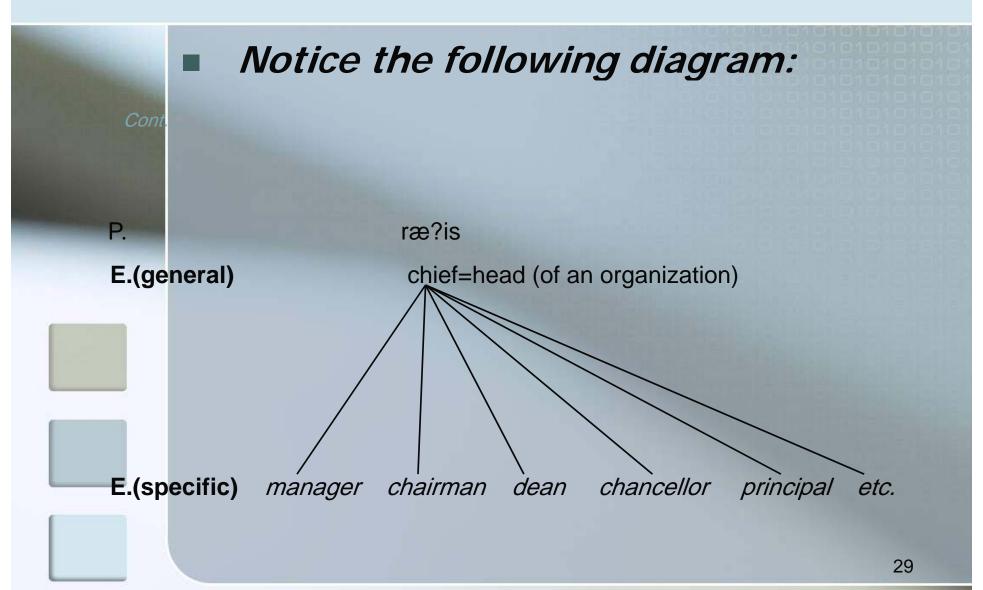
Note the following Penglish sentence:

- ■D6. The man I saw him yesterday, is sick today
- ■E6. The man that I saw yesterday, is sick today.
- **D7.** The person who I spoke to him is a writer.
- ■E7. The person who I spoke to is a writer.

D. Problems with Prepositions and Particles

- Preposition and phrasal verb errors are of three kinds:
 - a) Omission
 - b) Insertion
 - c) Use of the wrong preposition

- 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



Cont

- When the linguistic systems differ, the source language might interfere with the target language.
- ■Therefore, we are justified to compare and contrast languages to determine their similarities and differences.

■The information obtained through the comparison and contrast between two languages can be profitably used in language teaching, translation, language, testing, stylistics, etc.

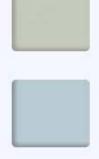


UNIT THREE Types of Contrastive Studies

- **L1.** The language of the learner
- **L2.** The language to be learned

Cont....

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



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

3.0. Theoretical CA

Contrastive studies are usually divided into theoretical and applied, each with a tradition of its own (Fisiak, 1973, 1975).

3.0. Theoretical CA

Cont

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.

3.0. Theoretical CA

Cont...

Formulation of universal features and characteristics of different languages and general language acquisition principles will naturally be the by-products of such studies.

3.1. 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.

3.1. Applied CA

Cont....

Theoretical studies, being neutral with respect to applications, are in equal degree interested in similarities and difference while applied studies often concentrate on differences.

3.1. Applied CA

Cont...

 The most important contribution of applied linguistic is pedagogical grammar – i.e., language descriptions geared to the demands of teaching.



UNIT FOUR Procedures of CA

Discourse:

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

Cont...

Pragmatics:

 A study of how context influences the way sentences conveys information.
 With language, we perform many functions.



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

4.0. Steps in Contrasting Two Language Systems

Executing a CA of classical type usually involves four steps:
 description, juxtaposition,
 comparison and prediction;
 and the steps are taken in that order.

4.0. Steps in Contrasting Two Language Systems

Cont....

These four steps are relevant to all levels of languages structure, namely, syntax, lexicon, phonology, pragmatics and discourse.

4.1. Description

The first step in executing a contrastive analysis is to provide description of the aspects of the languages to be compared.

4.2. Juxtaposition

Juxtaposition is a step where one decides what is to be compared with what. "The first thing we do is make sure that we are comparing like with like."

4.3. Comparison

In the comparison stage, the actual comparison and contrast of the two systems or sub-systems are performed. Not always are the two steps of juxtaposition and comparison are kept discrete.

Under the influence of the mother tongue the differences are transferred into the learner's language - i.e., interlanguage hence, interference is created in certain deviant structures are expected to be generated.

Cont...

This expectation is called prediction. But how do these deviant forms present themselves?
 The general assumption is that deviant structures reflect the structure of the mother tongue.

Cont....

It is reported that different things are not always the most difficult ones. Students' perception of difficulty does not always correlate with CA predictions.

Cont...

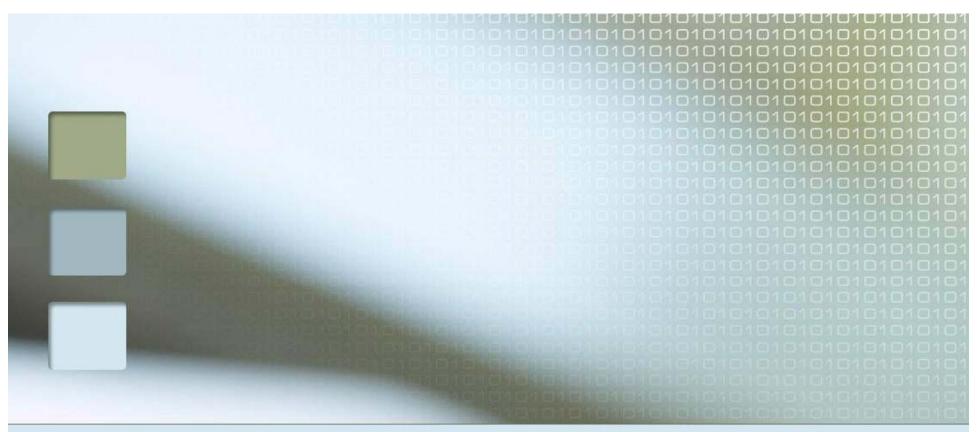
That is why the framework of CA we have been explaining and that we will be using is called the **Strong Version of Contrastive** Analysis Hypothesis. This is a version in which practically most, contrastive analysis activities are performed.

Cont...

Two other versions, namely weak and moderate, are named in the literature which are not well cultivated yet.

Cont....

■ 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.



UNIT FIVE Contrasting Grammatical Structures: Preliminaries

- Direct Object (D. Obj.) :
- In English this syntactic function is realized by means of a position relative to the verb.

Cont...

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 – i.e., usually immediately preceding a verb in the absence of indirect object.

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.

Cont...

This syntactic function for the above groups is realized by to, for and of in English, and /be/, /bæraye/ and /?æz/ in Persian respectively followed by a nominal.

Cont....

Prepositional Object (Prep. Obj.):

 Any object that has to be preceded by a preposition, except the prepositions mentioned above.

Cont

- 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:

Cont...

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.

ont.

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. In the sentence, "Mehdi saw him.", the verb saw functions as the predicator.

Cont

But in the sentence "Mehdi is in the garden.", the prepositional phrase in the garden is the predicator of the sentence. In a sentence like "Mehdi feels fine.", the whole predicate **feels fine** is meant to be the predicator of the sentence.

Argument:

Cont..

Names and entities which accompany the predicator in a basic sentence are called arguments. They are usually in the form of nominals.

5.0. Introduction

First we start with syntax, in syntax, juxtaposition starts with matching basic sentence patterns reflecting analogous sentential meaning.

A sentence pattern is a linear representation of a sentence expressed in terms of syntactic categories such as noun phrases (NP), verb phrases (VP), nouns (N), verbs (V), adjectives (Adj), etc.,

Cont..

So the pattern of the sentence "The man saw the boy." can be linearly represented as:

Subject	Predicator	Object
NPI	VP	NP2
The man	saw	the boy

Cont....

- A basic sentence 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.

Cont....

2. All the elements in the sentence with their lexical realizations are meant to be obligatory; that is, all elements are essential for the structure to be a sentence of a given language. No optional deletion is applied either.

Cont....

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

5.1. Basic Sentence Patterns

Cont....

- The following sentences, then, are nonbasic.
 - E3. Mehdi said that Parvin bought the book.
 - **E4.** Mehdi wants me to sell this book.
 - E5. Mehdi and Hassan are students.

Cont

- ■In English, therefore, we can have at least *four major basic* sentence types as following.
 - A. Zero-place predicators (with no argument)
 - Example:
 - **E10.** It is windy.

B. One-place predicators (with one argument) Example: ■ E11. Mehdi cried. ■ **E12.** Mehdi is intelligent.

C. Two-place predicators (with two arguments) Example: ■ E13. Mehdi saw the boy.

■ E14. I am responsible for you.



D. Three-place predicators (with three arguments)

- Example:
- E15. Mehdi wrote a letter to Parvin.
- **E16.** The people elected Mehdi a president.
- **E17.** They painted the wall pink.



UNIT SIX Contrasting Grammatical Structures

ZERO – PLACE PREDICATORS

- Predicator denotes some point or period in time (an NP in English and Persian)
 - ■The sentence usually answers questions like, What time is it? or When was it?

■ EP1. Pro-SubjBE Pt (Np) be NP1 PP1. Subj bud budæn NP1 **Examples:** ■ E1. It was night. 2. It is early. ■ P1. /shæb bud/ 2. /zud ?æst/ 79

Cont...

- 2. Predicator refers to stretches of time such as day, month, year etc. (an NP in English and Persian).
- The sentence usually answers questions like, What day is it?, What date is it?, etc.

6.1. Discussion and Prediction

Cont...

The verb to be (and the verb to have in many occasions) is considered a dummy verb since it is predictable from the underlying case structure and adds no semantic meaning.



UNIT SEVEN Contrasting Grammatical Structures

ONE – PLACE PREDICATORS

- Collocation: Habitual cooccurrence of individual vocabulary items.
- Clitics: Forms which can fill slots at the phrase or clause levels, but cannot occur as free forms.

Cont...

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 in creating clitics.

Cont...

- Topicalization:
- The placement of an element of the sentence in front of it about which something is going to be said, e.g., as in Yesterday I met the man; the element yesterday is topicalized.

Cont...

- 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.

6. Predicator expresses general weather condition (an adjective in English and Persian). NP is the argument.

EP6. Subj BE WC

NP be Adi

Cont.

The argument NP includes places or environments such as English words for air, weather, room, sky, etc., all of which can be rendered to Persian word / hæva/ which are being affected by the predicator.

There are, of course, collocational restrictions between NPs and adjectives in the pattern, some of which will be illustrated.

PP6. Subj WC

Bud

NP Adj budæn

(hæva (ye+N))

E1. The weather outside is good. P1. /hæva xub ?æst/ **E2.** The room is hot. ■P2. /hæva-ye ?otaq daq æst/ **■E3.** The sky cloudy is. ■P3. /?aseman /or/ hæva ?æbri ?æst/.

Cont..

The two sentences It's warm and The weather is warm are rendered the same in Persian. The difference between the two in English is a matter of discourse. The second sentence is supposed to be more precise and formal.

We need to refer to a unique and important group of Persian sentences called indirect or non-personal.

Cont...

■Verbs in Persian can be divided into two groups: simple and non-simple. Simple verbs are verbs with one lexical element. Non-simple verbs are divided into compound and indirect (or non-personal).

Cont.

■A compound verb consists of a preverbal element and a verbal element. The preverbal element may be (a) a noun, (b) an adjective, (c) an adverb, (d) a preposition, (e) a verb stem. Indirect verbs are like compounds in terms of morphological structure.

Syntactically, however, they act differently.

Cont.

■Due to the special nature of the subjects demanded by these verbs, indirect verbs always are in the form of third person singular. The subjects are mostly names of parts of body.

Cont

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. The pronoun has a meaning of possession.

Examples: 1. /del-e mæn dærd mikonæd/ "My abdomen aches". 2. /delha-ye ?anha dærd mikonæd/ "Their abdomens ache".

Cont

In a non-personal Persian sentence, as a one-place predicator construction, predicator usually expresses an action which is performed irrelevant or contrary to the intention of the agent.

Cont.

Argument:

NP1. A noun usually refers to a *part of* the body or mental activity followed by a pronominal suffix.



NP1-ProCompound Verb

■ When contrasted with English, these sentences fall into several groups as the following:

■Group 1.

■In group1, the Persian surface subject – i.e., part of the body or mental activity – becomes the subject of the English rendering.

■EP20a. Subject Event-Unintentional Action Poss-NP1 VP(?) ■ Argument: ■NP1. A noun phrase usually refers to a part of the body or a mental activity. **■***Examples*: P1. /del-æsh dærd mikonæd./ "His/Her abdomen aches."

Cont

■Group 2.

In group, the often-deleted Persian topicalized subject obligatorily surfaces, the verb receives an appropriate rendering and most often the Persian surface subject appears as the English complement.

- So these structures are mostly two-place predicators.
 - **■EP20b.** Subj Event The part affected (complement)
 - NP2 VP (NP1 or PP, etc)
 - *Argument*:
 - ■NP2 (The person affected). Complement includes the Persian surface subject.

■Examples: 1. /pa-yæm dær ræft/ "I sprained my foot." 2. /dæstha-yæm zæxm shod/ "I got hurt in my hands." 3. /dæstha-yæm suxt/ "I burned my hands."

Con

Cont. Group 3.

- In group 3, the Persian topicalized subject obligatorily surfaces in English.
- The verb "to have" appears as the main
- verb of the sentence. In the rest of
- the sentence mostly
- ■all the trouble felt and
- the part affected are stated.

■EP20c. Subj HAVE Trouble Felt Part **Affected** NP2 have NP3 PP.NP1 ■ Thus, the structure of the translation usually turns out to be two or three-place predicator types.

■Group 4. This group of Persian non-personal sentences are rendered into English by the following pattern EP19. ■EP19. Subj **BE/FEEL Sensation ■**Examples: xosh-e/ - "He/She feels/Is ■P1. /del-æsh glad." Heart-his/her glad-is 107

P2./hal-æm xub-e/ - "I feel/ am fine." Feeling-my good-is ■ Note that in Persian in sentences 1 and 2 an adjective plus "be" act as an indirect verb. 108

Group 5.

Persian sentences belonging to this group are actually sub-group of PP20 in which there is not a particular affected part of the body but the whole body is affected. The predicate consists of an adjective and the verb/ budæn/ "to be". The pronominal suffix, then, attaches to the adjective. All the sentences of this group can be rendered to EP19. 109

- Cont Group 6.
 - In this sub-group of non-personal sentences, the affected part of the body or the whole person is preceded by a preposition. One often can not decide whether the **VP** is a compound or an object + V.

- These structures are usually rendered into English by rule EP20b (i.e. Group 2)
 - Examples:
- 1. ?/æzæsh bæd-æm miyad/ "I hate him."
- from he bad-my comes
- 2. ?/æz sær-æm xab pærid/ "My sleepiness
- From- my sleep flew faded away suddenly."

■By juxtaposing English and Persian patterns 6 to 20, one can easily see the contrasts. Yet the following generalizations will be presented for further illustration.

Cont.

- Weather is predicted to be used in lieu of it, air, sky and enclosed place in Penglish.
- 2. The distance from-to-is predicted to be used for it in Pattern 7.



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.

Cont.

- Experiencer, Stimulus and Psychological Verbs:
- In sentences 1) Mehdi loves music and 2) The results disappointed Mehdi, the verbs love and disappointed are psychological verbs.

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Cont.

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. 118

Cont.

And disappoint whose subject is the stimulus is called a reverse
 psychological verb (see Burt and Dulay, 1972: Chap. 6)

• 21A. Predicator denotes an action or state which involves two objectsi.e., things or relationship between two objects- (a verb in English and Persian)

Argument 1: NP1 (agent, experiencer or stimulus)

Argument 2: NP2 or PP (goal, experiencer or stimulus)

■ EP21. Subj Events Obj

NP1 VP NP2 or PP

PP21. Subj Obj. Event

NP1 NP2 or PP VP

Cont.

- ■1. Separable Phrasal Verbs:
- 1. Bring back: recall; return
 - Your story brings back pleasant memories.

Other Examples:

Bring up, Call back, Call in, Call up, Chec off, Check out, Cheer up, Cross off, Cross out, Do over, Drop off, Figure out, Hand in

■2. Inseparable Phrasal Verbs: Call for: go to get I always call for my laundry on Friday afternoon. Call on: pay a visit Come across: find by chance Other Examples: ■Come to: Get into, out (of): Get on, off: Get over: Keep on: Look after: Look for: Look into: Put up with: Run out of: Take after:

Som ■ We should be careful to differentiate between phrasal verbs and verbpreposition sequences. Besides semanti and syntactic differences, particles carry strong accents while prepositions bear weak accents.

In a good number of cases, verbpreposition sequences in English are fixed – i.e., the verb is always followed by a particular preposition with a specifi meaning. It is, therefore, pedagogically advisable to learn each verb-preposition sequences as a unit. 125

- Predictions can be summarized as the following:
- ■1. Overgeneralization of the English passive rule to exceptions and producing utterances such as **His father was** resembled by Mehdi for Mehdi resembled his father.

2. Rendering cognate objects with adverbs of manner, and producing utterances such as They mercilessly fought for they fought a merciless fight.

3. Using prepositional objects in Penglish where in English direct objects are required and producing expressions such as I asked from him for I asked him. In this case, reverse psychological verbs are the most problematic.

4. Using direct objects in Penglish where in English prepositional objects are required, and producing expressions such as I approved his behavior for I approved of his behavior. This is, of course, not very much productive.4 129

5. Using prepositional objects in Penglish with prepositions different from what are required in English and producing expressions such as Mehdi believes to God of Mehdi believes in God

6. The tendency not to separate verb particles from the verbs in both optional and required contexts and to produce utterances such as: This is a dictionary. You can look up it if you don't know the meaning, for ... you can look it up

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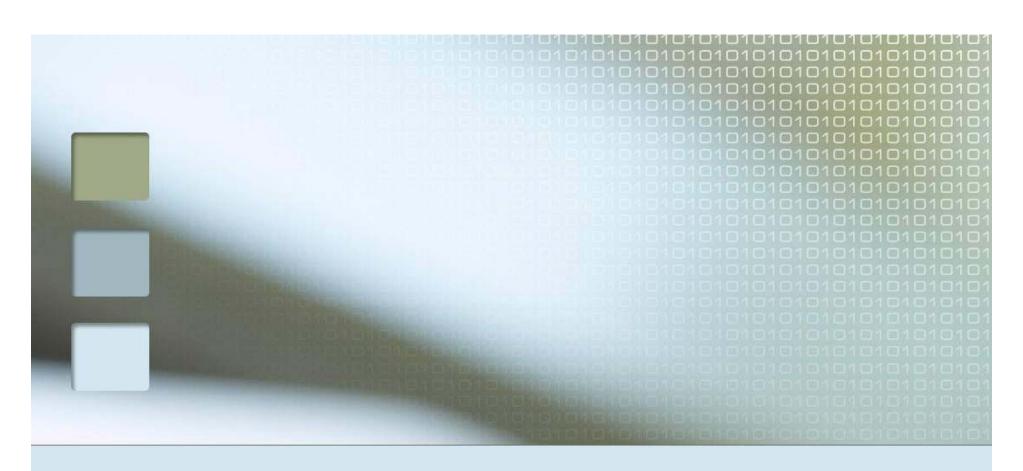
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7. Placing the object between the verb and its particle in the contexts not permitted due to overgeneralization. The learner overgeneralizes the case of separable phrasal verbs onto the inseparable one.

Cont.

8. The tendency to use more nonphrasal verbs in Penglish for their phrasal counterparts. Learners are expected to use to recover for to get over and to telephone for to call up more often.

 9. In the above generalizations, the problems of word order are totally ignored.



UNIT NINE Contrastive Grammatical Structures

THREE – PLACE PREDICATORS

• Stylistic Problem: If the learner has a number of choices available, but he utilizes only one (or a specific number of) 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. The question raised here, then, is of stylistic nature.

23. 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.

```
Argument 1:
              NP1 (agent)
Argument 2:
              NP2 (object)
Argument 3: NP3 (addressee)
EP23 Subj Event (action) D.
Obj P. Obj
               NP1
NP2 P.NP3
PP23 Subj D. Obj P. Obj
Event (action) NP1 NP2 P.NP3
VP<sub>1</sub>
```

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Send used in the meaning of fetch demands the preposition for:

Example:

They sent her for the doctor.

- In its other meanings, send can take either the
- ■I. Obj or the to P. Obj.

Example:

Send me word of your arrival.

By reviewing the contrastive rules and features in this Unit, one would be tempted to make the following predications:

Cont.

1. The tendency to use a prepositional object as the third argument can be more often observed in Penglish. Thus expressions such as He gave the book to me and He bought the book for me are more often used.

Cont.

While the expressions He gave me the book and He bought me the book are not favored, as in Persian Dative Movement Rule – i.e.

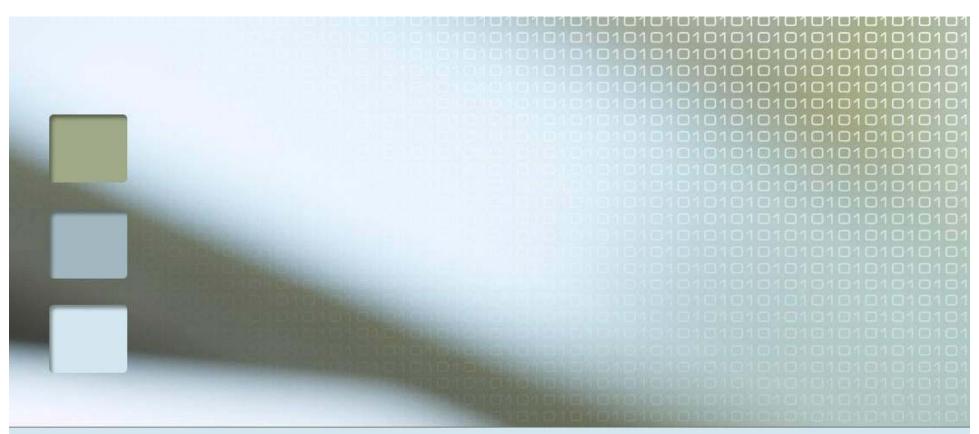


■EP23c – doesn't exist. This is, however, a stylistic matter not a grammatical one.

Cont.

The possibility of placing the prepositional object before the direct object (without deleting the preposition), as the new order corresponds to an acceptable order in Persian in certain contexts.

3. The possibility of overgeneralizing the EP23c into the exceptions and producing expressions such as Mehdi explained me the problem for Mehdi explained the problem to me.



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.

Cont.

They are usually symbolized by a small raised "h" such as [ph], [th] and [kh]. Without raised "h" the stop sound is meant to be unaspirated.

Cont.

- Released vs. Unreleased.
- Stops are released when they are fully articulated, otherwise they are unreleased shown by a raised hyphen above the letter sign. [k-].

Cont.

- 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" such as [g_y].

Cont.

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.

Cont

Velarized.

English velarized /l/ or "dark l" shown as [] is produced by simultan^tous articulation of the apex and the back of the tongue against the alveolar ridge and the velum, respectively.

- cont Syllabic.
 - In American English, the consonants /m/, /n/, /l/ and /r/ can become the most prominent segments in the syllable. In this way they function as vowels and are called syllabic.

 Syllabicity is shown by placing a short vertical line underneath the

consonant in question e.g., [m] as in

bottom.

Cont Retroflex.

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

Cont.

- 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.

Cont.

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].

- Dental-alveolar.
 - Persian /d, t, s, z, and n/ shown as [d, t, s, z and n] have dentalalveolar articulation. Their English counterparts, however, have alveolar articulation.

Cont.

- 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 >].

Cont.

The following steps need to be taken in comparing the two systems of segmental sounds in English and Persian:

Cont.

1. To compare the two phonetic inventories and detect the phonemes which do not match in the two languages.

Cont.

2. To match the corresponding phonemes in the two languages to verify their phonetic substances – i.e., to see if their phonetic bases are different.

Cont

3. To contrast the allophonic variants of each corresponding phoneme with respect to their specific environments.

Cont.

4. To compare the distribution of the individual phonemes in different positions – i.e., initial, medial, final – or their occurrences as members of consonant clusters.

Cont.

5. To carry out actual comparison of accent placements and intonation patterns on the juxtaposed corresponding morphological and syntactic patterns.

Cont...

- D. The phonetic signs of English vowels are each exemplified in the following:
- 1. [i] for the medial sound in the word "deed"
- 2. [ε] for the medial sound in the word "bed"
- 3. [æ] for the medial sound in the word "bad"
- 4. [U] for the medial sound in the word "look"

Cont.

- E. The phonetic signs of Persian vowels are each exemplified in the following:
- [i] for the medial sound in the word /did/ "saw"
- 2. [Æ >] for the medial sound in the word /bæd/ "bad"

Cont.

- [u] for the medial sound in the word /dud/ "smoke"
- 2. [o] for the medial sound in the word /bot/ "idol"
- 3. [a<] for the medial sound in the word /bad/ "wind"

F. In non-final unaccented syllables of informal American speech all vowels (except a few diphthongs) usually change into [] Example: Phonology [f nál ji] vs Phonological [f n láj *a b* 9 9

Cont.

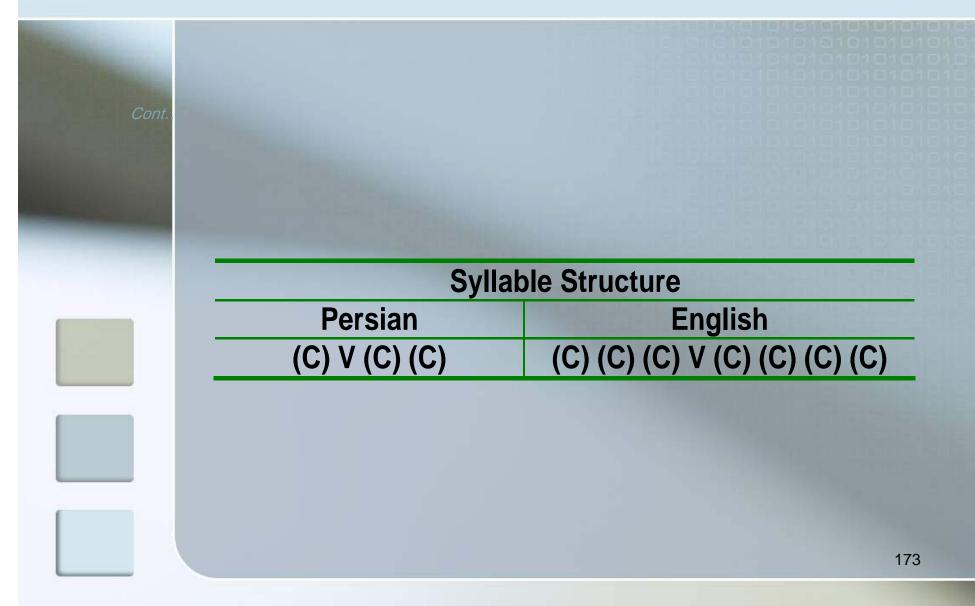
G. All vowels before /r/ and /l/ in American English undergo central diphthongization. The vowel in feel will be shown as [i]

Cont.

 H. Vowels can be short, half-long or long. They are shown as [V], [V.] and [V:] respectively.

Examples: leaf [lif], leave [li.v], Lee [li:]

10.1. Juxtaposition and Comparison of Consonants and Vowels



Assuming that a Persian learner might transfer his mother tongue habits into English, the following deviant production can be expected.

- 1. Aspiration of all English unaspirated voiceless stops – i.e., aspirating English [p, t, k] after /s/.
- Examples:
- ski is rendered as stop as
- and spot $as_{e^{\underline{k}}k_{y}^{h}i],$ [?es $\underline{t}^{h}a < p^{-}$]

$$[?e\underline{s}p^ha<\underline{t}]$$

Cont.

2. Strong palatalization of English velar stops before front vowels and in final positions in cases they are released.

- Examples:
- **get** is rendered_[gye_t]as
- and **book** as

3. Interpretation of English alveolar stops, fricatives and nasals as dental-alveolar-i.e., pronouncing English alveolars [t, d, s, z and n] as [t, d, s, z and n].

Cont

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

Cont

5. Substitution of Persian /z/ or /d/ for English [dh] – i.e., then is pronounced as den or zen.

Cont.

6. Substitution of English /ŋ/ by
 Persian /ng/ (phonetically as [ŋg].

У

Example: sing is rendered as [sing].

У

Cont.

7. Interpretation of English velarized /l/ as non-velarized —i.e., pronouncing dark [I]s as clear [I]s.



Example: file is rendered as [fa<yl].</p>

Cont.

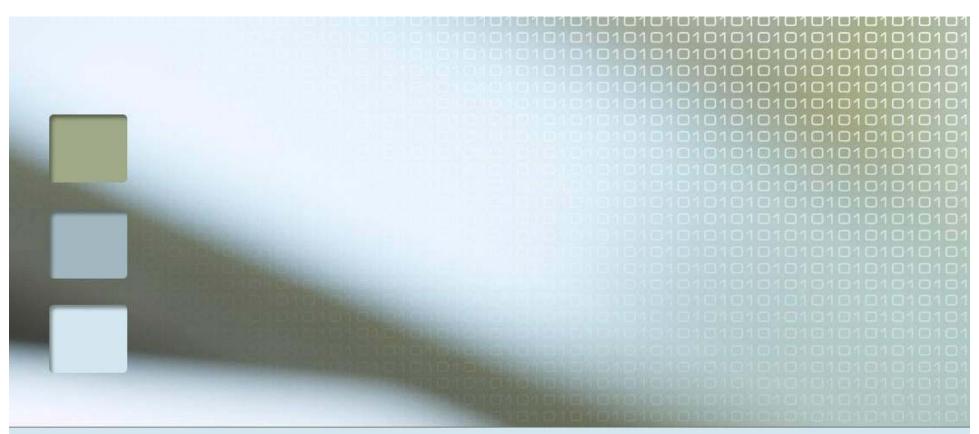
8. Interpretation of the English retroflex /r/ as flap intervocalically and thrilled elsewhere. In final positions, however, it can be substituted by any one of the four choices of voiceless trill, voiced trill, voiceless flap and voiced flap.

9. Substitutions of English syllabic [m], [n], [], and [] by Persian /-Vm/+/-Vp/, /-VI/ and /-Vr/. /-V/ is usually rendered as /-e/ but other vowels such as /o/ could be expected as well.

10. Substitution of English /w/ by /v/ syllable-initially –i.e., went is pronounced as vent.

ont.

11. Interpretation of the initial CC-clusters as 1) CVC- or 2) ?VCC- /V/ is rendered as /u/ if the second C is /w/ and /i/ if the second C is /y/ and /e/ if otherwise.



UNIT ELEVEN A Contrastive Analysis of Accent and Intonation

11.0. A Descriptive Summary of Accent and Intonation

- ■11.1. Accent or Stress
- Stress is usually defined as the degree of force with which a word or syllable is uttered. Stress gives a certain basic prominence to syllables.

On listening to a stretch of speech, one finds that some syllables stand out from remainder of the speech sounds. Syllables are made prominent by means of loudness as well as by other features.

Syllabic prominence is achieved by the combined effect of:

- a) Loudness (stress)
- b) Pitch
- c) Quantity of the vowels
- d) Quality of the vowels

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

In this work, *two levels of accents* are taken into consideration: *accented* and *unaccented* (or less accented).

Accented syllables are marked by placing the
// sign above the vowel sound of the syllable.

11.2. Accent in Persian

- 11.2.1. Word Accent
- It is commonly believed that word accent in Persian is predominantly on the final syllable.

11.2.2. Accent in Compounds and Phrases

In Persian, nominal compounds normally have their stronger accent on the last member of the compound which then follows the pattern of the simple word in isolation.

11.2.2. Accent in Compounds and Phrases

The other members of the compound decrease their inherent prominence to a lower level. Thus, the original strong accents of the syllables in the other members are automatically reduced to a secondary level.

11.2.2. Accent in Compounds and Phrases

Cont.

Examples:

- a) /telefón/ "telephone" and /xané/ "house"; /telefonxané/ "telephone office".
- b) /ketáb/ "book" and /forúsh/ "selling"; /ketabforúsh/ "bookseller".

- We can loosely talk of two kinds of accents: word accent and grammatical accent.
- When fully-accented words are put together to construct a phrase or a sentence, usually one syllable or one of the words becomes more prominent.

Cont.

The most prominent syllable in such utterances is meant to posses a grammatical or sentence accent.

Usually, the highest pitch falls on the more strongly accented syllable of the sentence.

Cont

- The following remarks are worth mentioning.
- 1. In sentences with negative particles or affixes, the accent falls on the negative particles.
- Examples:
- a) /mæn zæmín xordæm/ "/ fell down".
- b) /mehdi kar némikonæd/ "*Mehdi doesn't work*".

2. In simplex interrogative sentences containing a question word, the strong accent falls on the question particle.

Example:

/chéra mi-xændi?/ "Why are you laughing?"

Cont.

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

Examples:

- a) /?ægær be ? esfæhan mi-rævid, gæz yadetan næ-rævæd./
- b) /ketab-i-ra ke shoma xæridid, xandæm /

- **4.** Compound sentences are considered to have separate strong accents for each individual clause.
 - Examples:
 - a) /mehdi dærs mi-xanæd va mæn namé mi-nevisæm//

Cont.

- 5. Choice compounds carry the primary accent on the choices in question:
- Examples:
- a) /qæhvé mi-xori ya chayi?/ "Would you like coffee or tea?"
- b) /ya bé-xor ya bé-mir/ "You should either eat or die"

11.3. Accent in English

11.3.1 Word Accent

In *English*, there is a tendency toward placing the accent near the beginning of the word. Instances where the final syllable receives the accent, unlike Persian, are not very many.

Cont.

A. Nominal compounds ordinarily have a strong accent on the first component with the following specifications:

Cont

- 1. Compounds could be constructed from two nouns.
- Examples:
- bláckbird, bús stop, stréet car. This includes expressions such as everywhere and every one.

Cont.

2. The above compounds can become the first components of other larger compounds but the pattern of accent placement remains unchanged.

Examples:

- drúgstore clerk, stréet car driver,
- páy day check.

Cont.

B. Compound verbs made up of a simple verb and a particle have the primary accent on the particle.

Examples:

make úp, come ín, fall dówn, look úp, take óut and turn óff.

Determining sentence accent in English is fairly straightforward. To simplify the matter, we may first divide all English words into two classes:

- 1. Content words, which usually have meaning in themselves, and
 - 2. Function words, which have little or no meaning other than the grammatical idea they express.

- The 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."

Cont

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

The pitch of the voice varies over different syllables of the utterance. The normal pitch of the voice of the speaker is called **mid**. The pitch of the voice higher than normal is called **high**.

The pitch of the voice lower than normal is called low. We can show mid as 2, high as 2 and low as 1. "Falling pitch (intonation) terminal" is symbolized as #, and called a 'double-cross juncture'.

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One may start an utterance with a normal pitch of the voice and raised his voice to a high pitch on the remaining words or syllables. This sort of ending is called a 'rising pitch terminal' which is shown as //.

One can start an utterance with a normal voice pitch and raise his voice to the high pitch level on the stronger accent and drop his voice to the normal level again.

11.4 Pitch and Intonation

This sort of ending is called suspensive pitch (intonation) terminal which is shown as / and named as 'single-bar juncture'. 216

11.4 Pitch and Intonation

Cont

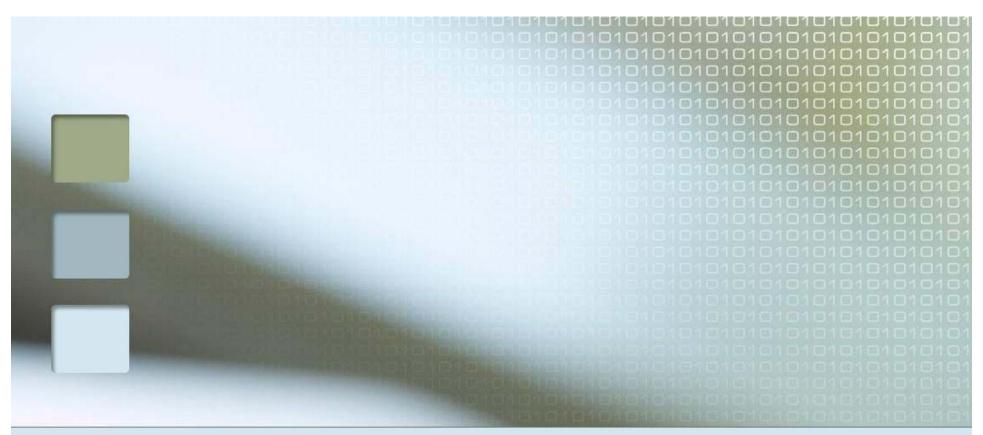
■ The above description can be shown as the following:

231#, 23//, 232/231#, 232/23//, 32/231#, 31#.

■ Each of the above is called an 'intonation contour'.

11.4 Pitch and Intonation

Examples: 31# "The English students can go hóme", may be pronounced as: ■ 2 3 2 / 2 31#
■The English students can go hóme. 2 " bæradær- e mehdi be mædrese "miŕævæd". 1 # 218



UNIT TWELVE Contrasting Vocabulary (Lexical Systems)

Formal Aspects

■Often one finds a series of apparent synonyms in one language given as equivalent of just one word in the other language. The finer distinctions between theses "synonyms" are left to the reader to discover.

Item by item comparison in lexical CA is not always profitable. Whole conceptual fields or groups of items sharing similar features should be compared where possible. Then similarities and contrasts become more readily apparent.

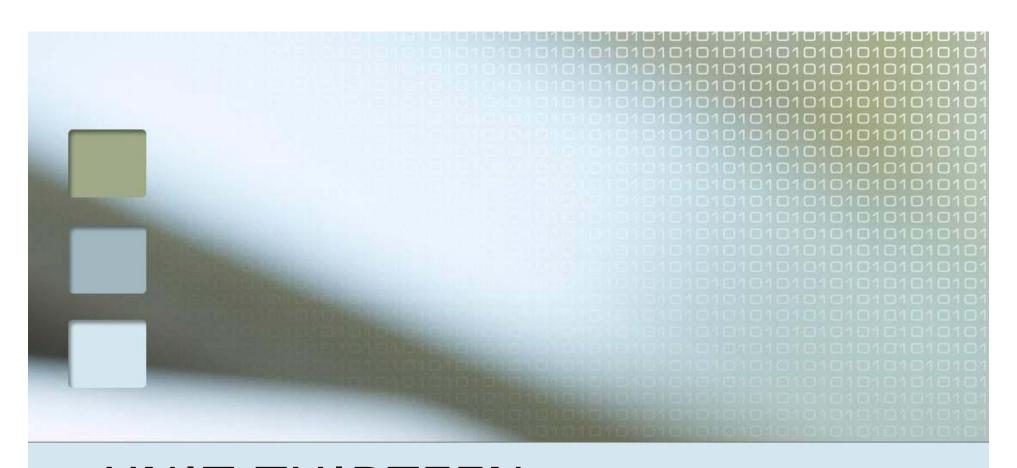
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Cont.

As Krzeszowski (1990) maintains, contrastive vocabulary is concerned with contrasting formal and meaning properties of simple words (e.g., table, man, radio, etc.) -

- complex words (e.g. writer, disagreement, etc.) compound words (e.g. blackboard, armchair), compound-complex words (e.g., typewriter, radio-announcer), phraseological fusion or idioms (e.g. red tape, kick the bucket), ---

-- phraseological unities (e.g. show one's teeth, to wash one's dirty linens in public) and phraseological collocations (e.g. make a decision, take a break, have breakfast).



UNIT THIRTEEN Contrasting Vocabulary Systems

Semantic Fields

Explanation of Less Familiar Terms and Concepts

- Approximative System
- "An approximative system is the deviant linguistic system actually employed by the learner attempting to utilize the target language.

13.0. 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

13.0. Contrasting Semantic Fields

The lexical fields are, then, the realization of semantic fields.
 Semantic fields contain concepts; lexical fields contain real words.

13.0. Contrasting Semantic Fields

Two lexical fields of "color terms" and "measure words" with two different approaches will be studied in the following.

Different languages usually select different color terms for a different range of color terms in the spectrum. In this respect, they could contrastively display full isomorphism or lack of isomorphism.

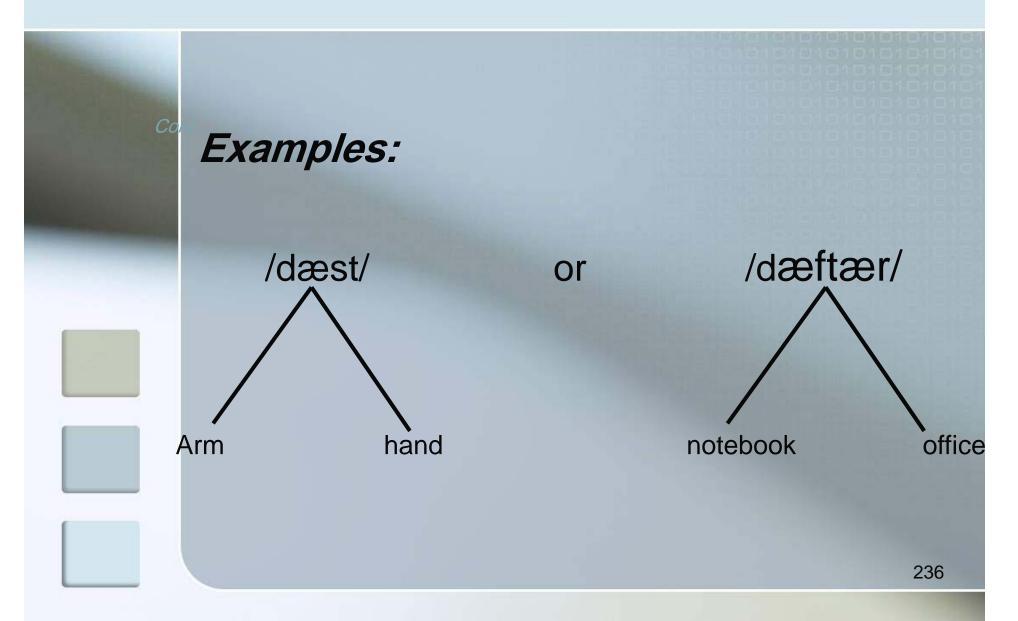
In "full isomorphism" the two color terms in the two languages are meant to be the same.

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.

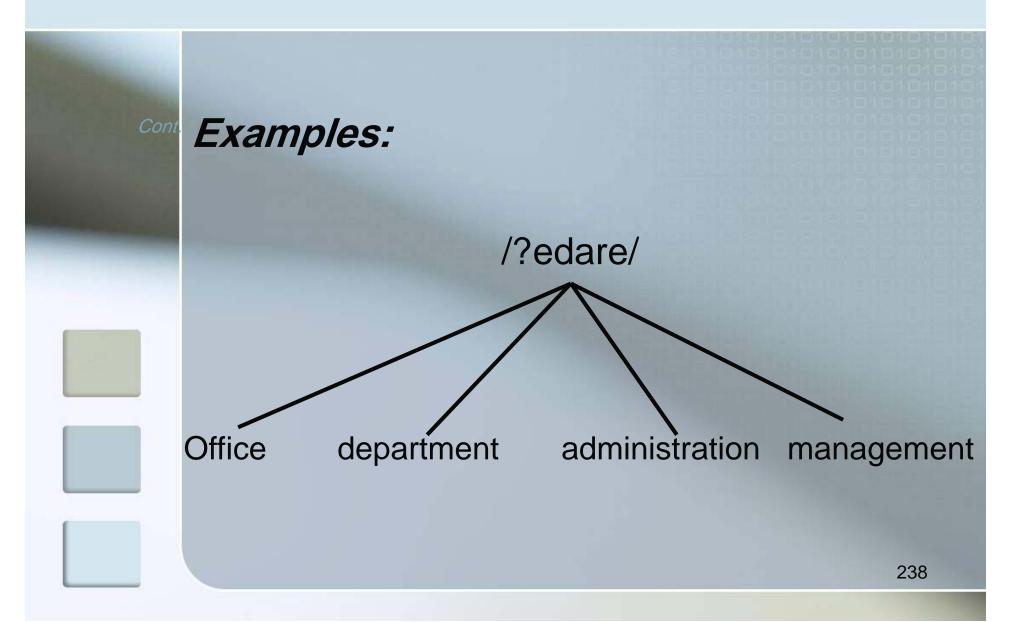
sefid: white 1./riš sefid/ grey beard 2./?atræ sefid galvanized iron 1./tælay-e sefid/ 1. White gold 2./benzin-e sefid/ 2. White gasoline 1. White hot /hæyæjan zæde/ 2. White collar /monši/

•When a term in language A has two or more counterparts in language B, the term "lexical split" is used to denote the relationship. Lexical split could be simple or complex.

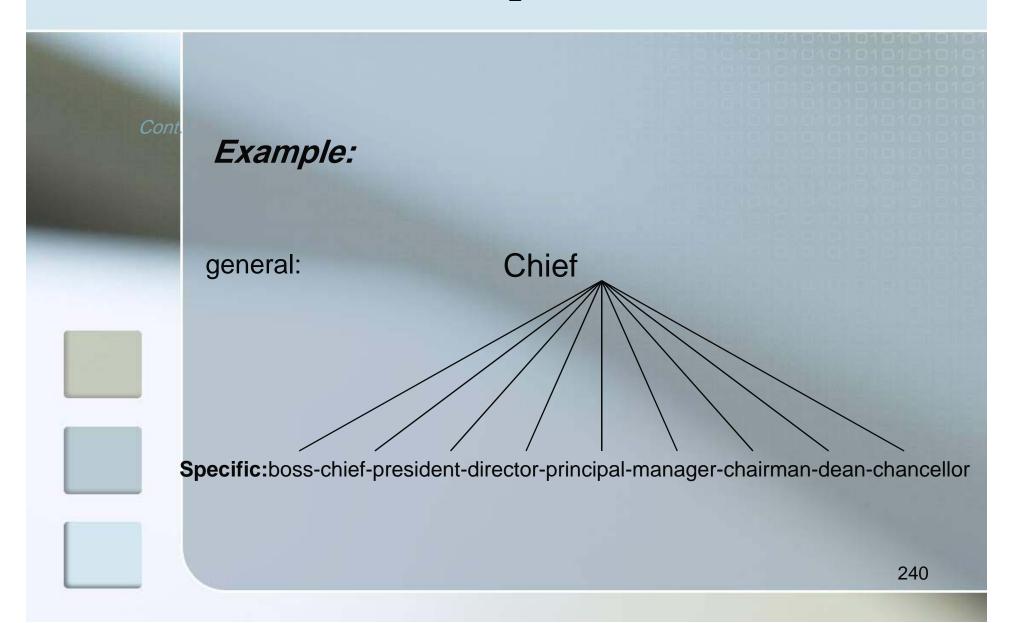
Simple lexical split is characterized by the existence of one lexical item in Persian and two in English.



Multiple split is characterized by the existence of one lexical item in
 Persian and three or more lexical items in English.



•Often when there are more than two lexical items in English, one of them will be more general and the others may have specific designations.



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