

# بررسی مقابله ای ساخت جمله فارسی و انگلیسی

منبع:

A Contrastive Analysis of  
Persian & English

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# A Contrastive Analysis of Persian & English

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خلاصه ای از مطالب کتاب

A summary of the contents of the book

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# UNIT ONE

- Contrastive Analysis Definition: “ Contrastive Analysis (CA), may be roughly defined as a sub discipline 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.”

# 1.1 Similarities & Differences

Both English and Persian have phonemes which are conventionally represented 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.

- 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.

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

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- 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

# 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



# Examples:

- 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

# UNIT TWO

- The need for Contrastive Analysis
- Explanation of Less Familiar Terms or Concepts
- Deviant: Not in agreement with the standard rules (of grammar)
- Interference: The process of carrying over the speech habits of the native language into a foreign (or second) language, by which errors are generated.
- 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.

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.

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.

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

## E. Other Problems

- At the lexical level, the following Penglish expressions are produced by Persian learners of English:
  - D13. The chief of the bank.  
D16. The chief of the university
  - D14. The chief of the department  
D17. The chief of the high school
  - D15. The chief of the college

- 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

- **B.** Explanation of Less Familiar Terms or Concepts
- L1. The language of the learner
- L2. The language to be learned
- **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).
- 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.
- 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.
- Theoretical studies, being neutral with respect to applications, are in equal degree interested in similarities and difference while applied studies often concentrate on differences.
- 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
- Explanation of Less Familiar Terms and Concepts
- 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.
- Transfer: 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.
- 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.

## 4.4. Prediction:

- 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. 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.

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

- Two other versions, namely weak and moderate, are named in the literature which are not well cultivated yet.
- 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
- Explanation of Less Familiar Terms and Concepts
- Direct Object (D. Obj.) :In English this syntactic function is realized by means of a position relative to the verb.
- 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. In the sentence, "Mehdi saw him.", the verb saw functions as the predicator.
- 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:** 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.

# 5.1. Basic Sentence Patterns

- 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.,
- So the pattern of the sentence "The man saw the boy." can be linearly represented as:
- The following sentences, then, are non-basic.
- E3. Mehdi said that Parvin bought the book.
- E4. Mehdi wants me to sell this book.
- E5. Mehdi and Hassan are students

# 5.2. Basic Sentence Types

- 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). Examples:
  - 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
- 6.0. Patterns
- 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-Subj            BE            Pt (Np)
- It                    be            NP1
- PP1.            Subj                    bud
- NP1                    budæn
- Examples:
- E1. It was night.                    2. It is early.
- P1. /shæb bud/                    2. /zud    ?æst

- 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

- 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
- Explanation of Less Familiar Terms and Concepts
- 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 in creating clitics.
- 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.
- 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.

# 7.0. Patterns

- Predicator expresses general weather condition (an adjective in English and Persian). NP is the argument.
- EP6.        Subj        BE        WC
- NP        be        Adi

- 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))
- 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/.

- 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.

# 7.1. Non-Personal Sentences

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

- 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.
- Argument:
- NP1. A noun usually refers to a part of the body or mental activity followed by a pronominal suffix.
- PP20. Subj            Event-Unintentional Action
- NP1-Pro            Compound 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."

# 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 predicates.
- 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."

# 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.
- Examples:
  - "I have wrinkles on my forehead."
  - P1. /pishani-yæm chin daræd/ -  
forehead – my wrinkle has
  - "I have chaps on my hands."
  - P2. /dæstha-yæm choruck xorde ?æst/ -  
Hands – my chap eaten is

# Group 4.

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

## 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.

# 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 faded away"
    - From- my sleep flew suddenly."

## 7.2. Discussion and Predictions

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

# UNIT EIGHT

- Contrasting Grammatical Structures
- TWO – PLACE PREDICATORS
- Explanation of Less Familiar Terms and Concepts
- 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.
- 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 (see Burt and Dulay, 1972: Chap. 6)



# 8.0. Patterns

- 21A. Predicator denotes an action or state which involves two objects-i.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

# 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, Check 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:
- We should be careful to differentiate between phrasal verbs and verb-preposition sequences. Besides semantic and syntactic differences, particles carry strong accents while prepositions bear weak accents.
- In a good number of cases, verb-preposition sequences in English are fixed – i.e., the verb is always followed by a particular preposition with a specific meaning. It is, therefore, pedagogically advisable to learn each verb-preposition sequences as a unit.

# 8.1. Discussion and Predictions

- 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.
- 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 ... .
- 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.



- 8. The tendency to use more non-phrasal 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 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 [ph], [th] and [kh]. 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 [k-].

- 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 /ɹ/ or “dark ɹ” shown as [ɹ̠] 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 [ɻ] 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 [ɾ].
- 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

- 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.

## and close syllable ends in consonant.

- 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/ [khy iyuth]. 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/ [khuwin]. 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 tænbæI/
- 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.  
/?ægær be ?esfæhan 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/qæhvé mi-xori ya chayi?/
- a particular part of the utterance is specifically emphasized for special effect, to convey specific information or to seed 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.
- 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

- 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 næxoréd/ mæn mirævæm#/
  - 2. A sentence with the /mægær næ/ tag question, seeking confirmation. /mehdi ráft mædrese/ mægær náé#/

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: /ʔæsbab-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.