بررسی مقابله‌ای

سری کتاب‌های کمک آموزشی کارشناسی ارشد

مجموعه مترجمی زبان انگلیسی

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«ن والقلم و ما یسطرون»

کلمه نزد خدا بود و خدا آن را با قلم بر ما نازل کرد.

به پاس تشکر از چنین موهبت الهی، موسسه ماهان درصدد برآمده است تا در راستای انتقال دانش و مفاهیم با کمک اساتید مجرب و مجموعه کتب آموزشی خود برای شما داوطلبان ادامه تحصیل در مقطع کارشناسی ارشد گام موثری بردارد. امید است تلاش‌های خدمتگزاران شما در این موسسه پایه‌گذار گام‌های بلند فردای شما باشد.

مجموعه کتاب‌های کمک آموزشی ماهان به‌منظور استفاده داوطلبان کنکور کارشناسی ارشد سراسری و آزاد تالیف شده‌اند. در این کتاب‌ها سعی کرده‌ایم با بهره‌گیری از تجربه اساتید بزرگ و کتب معتبر داوطلبان را از مطالعه کتاب‌های متعدد در هر درس بی‌نیاز کنیم.

دیگر تالیفات ماهان برای سایر دانشجویان به‌صورت ذیل می‌باشد.

● **مجموعه کتاب‌های ۸ آزمون:** شامل ۵ مرحله کنکور کارشناسی ارشد ۵ سال اخیر به همراه ۳ مرحله آزمون تالیفی ماهان همراه با پاسخ تشریحی می‌باشد که برای آشنایی با نمونه سوالات کنکور طراحی شده است. این مجموعه کتاب‌ها با توجه به تحلیل ۳ ساله اخیر کنکور و بودجه‌بندی مباحث در هریک از دروس، اطلاعات مناسبی جهت برنامه‌ریزی درسی در اختیار دانشجو قرار می‌دهد.

● **مجموعه کتاب‌های کوچک:** شامل کلیه نکات کاربردی در گرایش‌های مختلف کنکور کارشناسی ارشد می‌باشد که برای دانشجویان جهت جمع‌بندی مباحث در ۲ ماهه آخر قبل از کنکور مفید می‌باشد.

بدین‌وسیله از مجموعه اساتید، مولفان و همکاران محترم خانواده بزرگ ماهان که در تولید و به‌روزرسانی تالیفات ماهان نقش موثری داشته‌اند، صمیمانه تقدیر و تشکر می‌نماییم.

دانشجویان عزیز و اساتید محترم می‌توانند هرگونه انتقاد و پیشنهاد درخصوص تالیفات ماهان را از طریق سایت ماهان به آدرس mahan.ac.ir با ما در میان بگذارند.

موسسه آموزش عالی آزاد ماهان

سخن مؤلف

برخلاف کتاب‌های موجود در بازار که تست-محور هستند، رویکرد کتاب حاضر در وهله اول شرح کامل درس است. این توضیحات از روی منابع اصلی این درس و براساس مباحث پرتکرار و اصلی کنکور در ۸ سال اخیر ارائه شده‌اند. در انتهای هر فصل تعدادی سوال تالیفی به‌همراه پاسخ تشریحی با توجه به حجم مطالب قرار داده شده که به داوطلبان کمک می‌کند میزان یادگیری خود را بسنجند. پس از این بخش سوالات دانشگاه سراسری آورده شده تا داوطلبان با نوع سوالات و نکاتی که در این سال‌ها مورد توجه طراحان بوده است بیشتر آشنا شوند.

با وجود اینکه در کنکور از این درس با عنوان بررسی مقابله‌ای (Contrastive analysis) یاد می‌شود اما درواقـع ایـن درس از دو بخش بررسی مقابله‌ای و تجزیه و تحلیل خطاها (Error analysis) تشکیل می‌شود. اما کتاب حاضر مشتمل بر سه بخش است که دو بخش اول آن مربوط به بررسی مقابله‌ای و بخش سوم آن مربوط به تجزیه و تحلیل خطاهـا مـی‌باشـد. مطالب بخش اول یعنی اصول و مبانی تئوریک بررسی مقابله‌ای و همین‌طور مطالب بخش دوم یعنی بررسی مقابله‌ای اجزای زبانی در فارسی و انگلیسی عمدتا برگرفته از کتاب دکتر ضیا حسینی، و مطالب بخش سـوم یعنـی تجزیـه و تحلیـل خطاهـا عمدتا برگرفته از کتاب دکتر کشاورز هستند. در تالیف این کتاب سعی شده است تا حد امکان داوطلبـان بـی‌نیـاز از مطالعـه منبع اصلی باشند اما در ارتباط با نوع خطاهایی که زبان‌آموزان فارسی زبان مرتکب می‌شوند، با توجـه بـه حجـم بـالای ایـن خطاها، بخشی از آنها در صفحات ۷۰-۷۲ کتاب آورده شده و بخشی نیز باید از روی رفرنس مطالعـه شـوند (صـفحات ۱۰۰- ۱۰۳ از کتاب دکتر ضیا حسینی و صفحات ۹۴ تا ۱۰۶ از کتاب دکتر کشاورز)

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Contrastive Analysis

1. COMPARATIVE LINGUISTICS

Comparing languages has always interested linguists, and so comparative studies in linguistics have a long history. Linguists have compared various stages in the development of a single language, for example comparing Old Persian with Modern Persian, to find out about the changes in the language. Sometimes different but related languages have been compared at a certain stage of their development in order to construct a proto-language, e.g. comparing Old Persian with Sanskrit in order to construct the proto Indo-European language. These studies have been known as **Comparative Historical Linguistics**.

Linguists have also been comparing languages as they are used today in order to classify them into certain groups on the basis of the occurrence of some features. Some linguists study the structural similarities between languages, regardless of their history, in order to establish a satisfactory classification, or typology of languages or special structures in languages. This type of study has been termed **Comparative Typological Linguistic**.

In addition to these two types of comparative studies, there is another type in which two or more languages can be compared to determine the differences and similarities between them. This kind of study is referred to as **Contrastive Analysis** or **Contrastive Study**. Like typological study, Contrastive Analysis (CA) is interested in comparing languages synchronically, though it has different aims. Contrastive analysis is concerned with both similarities and differences between languages at a particular level, i.e. phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic for a particular purpose, especially teaching and translation.

Although comparative typological linguistics and contrastive studies have different aims, they share two main elements: (1) a comparative element (2) synchronous comparison (synchronic comparative linguistics). In other words, in both comparative typological linguistics and contrastive analysis there is a common feature, or *Tertium comparitions* (TC), based on which the two languages are compared. As for synchronous comparison, the languages are compared and studied at the same stage of development in time rather than diachronically.

2. THEORETICAL AND APPLIED CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

Many linguists draw a distinction between *theoretical* and *applied* contrastive analysis. It is claimed that **theoretical CA** gives an exhaustive account of the differences and similarities between two or more languages, provides an adequate model for their comparison, and determines

how and which elements of the languages are comparable, while **applied CA** directs the comparison of the languages toward some specific non-linguistic purpose, such as translation, foreign languages teaching, or explanation of interlingual errors. Here the findings of theoretical contrastive studies provide a framework for the comparison of languages for a specific purpose.

3. THE CONCEPT OF TRANSFER

A major task of applied contrastive studies is the identification of probable areas of difficulty in another language where, for example, a given category is not represented in the surface structure of the foreign/second language. As a result, in the process of learning this foreign/second language some *interference* many occur.

Experiments in psycholinguistics indicate that the second language to be learned is always seen through the filter of first language rule system. While learning a second language, the rules of the first language (L1) are matched with those of the second language (L2): they are expanded, additional rules are learned, and some of the rules of the first language are discovered to be invalid in the second language. In this process, the differences between the rule system of the source and the target language cause interferences, which have to be given special consideration in second language teaching.

The systematic analysis and classification of errors that may occur as a result of this interference can be very important in pedagogical programming. In other words, contrastive analysis is based on the assumption that the second or foreign language learners will tend to *transfer* the formal features (forms), meanings, and also the culture of L1 to their L2 utterances, and so it is the main concern of applied contrastive analysis to identify areas of difficulty for second language learners and produce appropriate teaching materials to overcome these difficulties.

The concept of **transfer** which is the psychological cornerstone of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) is of two kinds, depending on the similarities and differences between the structures of the learner's native language and target/foreign language. When students come into contact with a foreign language, they will find some features of it quite easy because they are similar to their L1, so this old habit (i.e. the element in the native language) will facilitate the formation of a new habit (i.e. a new element in the target language). Here we say **positive transfer** takes place. However, some elements in the L2 are different from those in the L1, so learning them would be difficult for students because here the old habit impedes the formation of a new habit. Here **negative transfer** is believed to occur and learning becomes difficult; thus, errors may occur. How these errors are treated in CAH depends on the view taken by its proponents.

According to this view, transfer depends on similarities and differences between the two languages (the first language and the target language). Lado believes that those second language elements that are similar to the learner's first are easier to learn. The learners can positively transfer the similar elements to their second/ foreign language production. In contrast, the elements on second language that are different from the learner's first language are more difficult to learn. In this case, negative transfer occurs and makes learning the second language difficult for the learner. Therefore, the behaviorists and structural linguists believe that the key to successful second/ foreign language learning and teaching lies in the study of both similarities and differences between the learner's mother tongue and the target language.

4. PEDAGOGICAL VALUES OF CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

As mentioned before, the period after world war II was the heyday of contrastive analysis. During this period, contrastive analysis formed the basis of most foreign language teaching in terms of both theory and practice. In this respect, CA was used as main criterion for preparing instructional materials for foreign/ second language teaching.

The criterion was established by Fries. He held that to provide the most effective materials for foreign/second language teaching, a scientific description should be provided on the target language as well as one such description of the learner's mother tongue. The most effective material then is to be based upon a careful comparison of the two descriptions.

Behavioristic and structural views of foreign/ second language learning saw errors as being like sins in that they were signs of deficiencies in learning and teaching. As a result, they held, every attempt should be made to prevent errors. The very negative view of second language learning is also stated by skinner in another way. He argues that punishment can not reduce the probability of error reoccurrence and thus teachers must try to encourage the correct responses. Skinner believed that teachers should effectively reward the correct response rather that punish the errors.

5. VERSIONS OF CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

There are three versions of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) in the literature since it has always been a field of heated controversy and the advocates of this discipline have not shared the same views regarding its main tenets. The different views are discussed under the strong version, the weak version, and the moderate version.

5.1. The Strong Version
The advocates of the principle of transfer in foreign language learning have hypothesized that learning of similar items (sounds, words, structures, and cultural items) in the foreign language is easy and that of different items is difficult, and the degree of difficulty depends upon the degree of differences. The underlying assumptions of the strong version of CAH were outlined by Lee as follows:

1. The main cause, or even the sole cause, of difficulty and error in foreign language learning is interference coming from the Learner's Native Language (NL).
2. The difficulties are chiefly, or wholly, due to the differences between the two languages.
3. The greater these differences are, the more acute the learning difficulties will be.
4. The results of a comparison between the two languages are needed to predict the difficulties and errors which will occur in learning the foreign language.
5. What there is to teach can best be found by comparing the two languages and then putting aside what is common to them, so that what students have to learn equals the sum of the differences established by the CA.

One shortcoming of this hypothesis is that it can only describe *interlingual* errors, that is, errors in the foreign language which are caused by interference from the native language. Experiments, however, have shown that only one-third of the errors committed by learners are of this type. Two third of the learners' errors are caused by other sources.

5.2. The Weak Version

A number of psychologists disagree with the application of the principle of transfer in foreign language learning to predict errors that might occur. They suggest that in the process of foreign language learning, if the learner gets into trouble, he tries to resort to his native language for help. For example, in the case of a Persian learner of English, if the learner is not able to produce the interdental fricatives [θ and ð], he substitutes them with the alveolar fricatives or stops [s, t, z, d], the closest sounds in Persian. This is not because of proactive inhibition; rather the learner has not yet learned how to produce these English sounds, and so he refers to his previous linguistic knowledge, Persian sound system, for help. In other words, the native language does not interfere, rather it helps, and the linguist should only use the best knowledge available to him in order to account for the observed difficulties in second language learning. He starts with the evidence provided by linguistic interference and uses such evidence to explain the similarities and difference between the two systems. Therefore, in contrast with the predictive claim of the strong version, the weak version is a model with diagnostic and explanatory means. However, as it is clear the weak version – though more realistic and practicable than the 'strong' version – is still confined to errors caused by language transfer.

5.3. The Moderate Version

A recent development regarding the interpretation of language learners' errors as well as predicting them is the moderate version of CAH. The advocates of this theory believe that instead of transfer, the principle of *stimulus generalization* is at work in the learning of a native or foreign language.

> The categorization of abstract and concrete patterns according to their perceived similarities and differences is the basis for learning; therefore, wherever patterns are minimally distinct in form or meaning in one or more systems, confusion may result. Conversely, where patterns are functionally or perceptually equivalent in a system or systems, correct generalization may occur.

The implication is that, for example, a Persian learner of English will make fewer errors on the English items that are different from Persian than on those which are similar. In fact, since a Persian, while learning English, expects to learn a different system, and thus pays more attention to different items, which is a motivating factor in learning, the different items must be significantly easy to internalize; and this is what experiments have shown to be true: gross differences – because of their saliency – are often more easily perceived and stored in memory, while minimal differences can be overlooked because of overgeneralization.

One great advantage of this learning theory is that it can describe both *interlingual* and *interalingual* errors, that is, errors, the sources of which are either in the native language or target language. Hence, a great percentage of linguistic errors, resulting from overgeneralization of rules, either in the native or target language can be interpreted or predicted on the basis of stimulus generalization.

Certainly, there are some other types of errors whose sources are neither the native nor the target language. They may result from a number of non-linguistic factors such as the teacher, the learning strategy, the textbook, methodology, etc. which could be categorized as idiosyncratic errors. They differ for different learners and do not have much methodological value.

6. TECHNIQUES AND PROCEDURES OF CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

Comparison of any given pair depends on description and the description is provided through applying linguistic theories and methods. Therefore, there is an inevitable relation between CA and linguistic theories. James (1989) defines this framework as consisting of three phases:

1. CA adopts linguistic tactic of dividing up the concept of a language into 3 smaller and more manageable areas of phonology, grammar and lexis.
2. CA uses descriptive categories of linguistic unit, structure, class and system.
3. CA uses the linguistic description under the same model of language.

There are different linguistic theories which maybe used for the purpose of comparison. Traditional, structural and generative transformational models are dicussed briefly.

(a) Traditional approach describes languages based on two types of analysis: one dealing with the identification of parts of speech (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and function words like prepositions and conjunctions), and the other dealing with identification of functions of various parts of speech (subject, predicate, kinds of complements and modifiers). This traditional model is believed to work along the *horizontal* dimensions necessarily involved in comparing an element or a class of elements in L1 with an *equivalent* element in L2 and/or vice versa.

(b) Structural approach, expounded by Bloomfield (1933) and elaborated by Harris (1963), focusing on five types of structural signals for identifying parts of speech: function words, word order, inflection, derivational contrast, and suprasegmentals.

(c) Transformational generative grammar approach, by which the contrastive analysis has been profoundly influenced from three aspects: (1) the universal base hypothesis, (2) the deep and surface structure distinction, and (3) the rigorous and explicit description of linguistic phenomena[1].

Bloomfield expounded (1993) structural linguistics and Harris (1963) elaborated on it in his article "transfer Grammar". He claimed that this model could be used for comparative purposes. The task of structural and taxonomical CA was therefore to show similarities and differences between languages in terms of from and distribution of comparative units.

Generative transformational grammar criticized the above view of taxonomic contrastive analysis and taxonomic descriptive linguistics on the grounds that they were preoccupied with the surface structure of the language rather than the deep structure. Three aspects of the transformational grammar model that have a profound influence on CA are:

1. Universal base hypothesis
2. Deep/ surface structure distinction
3. Rigorous and exploit description of linguistic phenomena

Krzeszowki (1976-7) proposed another theoretical model for CA under the title of contrastive generative grammar. The difference of this model with structural models was that in structural models, each of the two languages or parts of them were involved in analysis (CA). These were analyzed independently first and then juxtaposed and compared. However, in contrastive generative grammar, the structures of L1 and L2 were generated from a common base and they

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1. For details of the linguistic models of discourse analysis, see Keshavarz (2008:18) & Ziahosseiny (1994: 20).

were compared and contrasted during this generation process. This means that contrastive analysis has only one phase (a single-phase CA).

James (1980) asserts that "executing [doing] a contrastive analysis involves two steps: description, and comparison" (p. 63). However, five different steps have been mentioned in the literature for comparing and contrasting two languages, or two subsystems for that matter. These are explained below.

I. Selection

It must be realized that a comprehensive comparison of two languages for pedagogical purposes is neither feasible nor necessary. Therefore, the analyst should select certain features of the target language that may potentially cause difficulty for the learners and then compare and contrast those features with parallel features in the learners' native language. Selection can be based on the analyst's teaching experience and bilingual intuition, if he shares the same native language with the learners. It can also be based on a prior analysis of errors committed by the learners.

II. Description

After the selection of certain linguistic items, structures or rules, the linguist or language teacher, should explicitly describe the two languages in question. Scientific description has been the core of contrastive analysis and the proponents of this theory have always put emphasis on parallel description of the two languages. By *parallel description* it is implied that the two languages should be described thrugh the same linguistic model or framework. For example, if the analyst used Generative-Transformational Grammar for describing certain aspects of the grammar of L1 he should use the same model for the description of L2. This principle works in the majority of cases; however, some languages may require the use of alternative models for their description.

III. Comparison

When the description of subsystems of the two languages is complete, the job of the analyst is to compare and contrast the two systems by juxtaposing features of the two languages in order to find similarities and differences between them. At this stage, the analyst has to decide what to compare with what. Linguistic features of the two languages are compared on three levels: form, meaning, and distribution of forms.

IV. Prediction

Having described and compared certain features across languages, the analyst can make predictions about difficulties learners may face in acquiring the second language. The analyst should judge whether similarities and differences found through the comparison of the two languages are problematic for the learners or not. Predictions can be arrived at through the formulation of a hierarchy of difficulty, as discussed below.

V. Verification

The final step in contrastive analysis is verification. In this stage, the analyst needs to find out whether the predictions made about errors and difficulties actually materialize or not. In other words, we need to ask whether second language learners in reality commit the type of errors predicted on the basis of the contrastive analysis of the two languages or sub-systems of those languages.

Prator (1967) captured the essence of the grammatical hierarchy in six categories of difficulty. Prator's hierarchy is applicable to both grammatical and phonological features of language. The six categories devised upon the notion of transfer, in the ascending order of difficulty, are presented by Brown uder the title of degrees of difficulty.

7. DEGREES OF DIFFICULTY

Now that a distinction has been drawn between interlingual and intralingual errors, it is time to review the degrees of difficulty that may arise in learning a foreign language and see how the interlingual errors may occur.

Level 0: Transfer
Sounds, lexical items, or structures that are similar in the two languages fall in this category. The assumption is that due to positive transfer, the learner faces no problem learning these elements of the foreign language. A number of phonemes in English and Persian /b, f, s, z, u, i/ are among the examples as well as words such as *door* / در, *the wall* / دیــوار, also concepts of negation and interrogation, and structures such as general word order باغ گل / گل باغ, *garden flower* / *flower garden*.

Level 1: Coalescence
Two or more items in the native language converge into one item in the target language. The learner has to overlook the distinction he learned in his native language. Examples of lexical coalescence in the case of Persian learners of English are:

آموزگار، دبیر/teacher	دفتر، کتاب/book
خاله‌زاده، دایی‌زاده، عموزاده، عمه‌زاده/cousin	دانش‌آموز، دانشجو/student

Level 2: Underdifferentiation
The equivalence of an item in the native language is absent in the foreign language. Persian learners of English must forget such items as Persian [x] and [y] or the words مگــر in sentences like آقای روحانی چندمین رئیس‌جمهور ایران است؟ in sentences like چندمین or ، مگر دانشجو نیستی؟ like

Level 3: Reinterpretation
An item exists both in the native and target languages. Sometimes they are equivalents, but other times they are not. So learners of the foreign language would overgeneralize on the basis of the similarity. On the basis of the equivalence of English and Persian present perfect tense in sentences (1) and (2), a Persian learner of English makes errors in sentences (3) and (4).

(1) We have come to this gallery today.	ما امروز به این گالری آمده‌ایم.
(2) We haven't had lunch today.	ما امروز ناهار نخورده‌ایم.
(3) We are fasting today.	ما امروز روزه گرفته‌ایم.
(4) We are sitting in the classroom.	ما در کلاس نشسته‌ایم.

As you see, in the English sentences (3) and (4) the tense of verbs is present progressive, while in the Persian equivalents present perfect tense must be used.

Level 4: Overdifferentiation

This is the counterpart of level 2. Here an item in the foreign language is absent in the native language. So, for example, the Persian learner of English must learn the sounds [θ] and [ð] as new items. The English structures of "to be about to", perfect continuous, future in the past, past perfect continuous, etc., also fall in this category.

Level 5: Split

This is the counterpart of level 1. That is, an item in the native language diverges into two or more items in the target language. For example, the Persian learner of English must learn the distinction between the simple present tense and the present continuous tense which are equivalent to مضارع اخباری in Persian. Consider the following examples:

Where are you going? I am going to school.	داری کجا می‌روی؟ دانشگاه می‌روم.
Where do you go every week? I go to the mountain.	هر هفته کجا می‌روی؟ کوه می‌روم.

Words such as *eat/ drink* →خوردن, *chief/ president/ chancellor/ dean/ director/ chairman*→ رییس fall in this category.

If the contrastive analyst uses transformational generative grammar, then the degree of differences depends upon the number of transformations applied to change the deep structure into the surface structures in the two languages. For example:

Surface structure:	The red flower is on the table.	گل قرمز روی میز است	Surface structure:
Deep structure:	The flower is one the table. The flower is red.	گل روی میز است. گل قرمز است.	Deep structure:
Relativization:	The flower that is red is on the table	گلی که قرمز است روی میز است	Relativization:
Relative reduction:	The flower red is on the table	گل قرمز روی میز است	Relative reduction:
Adjective shift:	The red flower is on the table.		Adjective shift:

In the above sentences, English uses three transformations, whereas Persian uses only two. They are different in the application of one transformation rule; namely Adjective Shift. Some equivalent sentences in the two languages may differ in the application of two or more transformation rules. So, these will be more different than the examples which are different in the application of one rule. Also, the following sentences are exact equivalents, as the number of transformation rules applied on them is the same.

Surface Strucuture:	The flower on the table is pretty	گل روی میز زیبا است.	Surface structure:
Deep Structure:	The flower is pretty	گل زیبا است.	Deep structure:
	The flower is on the table.	گل روی میز است.	
Relativization:	The flower that is on the table is pretty	گلــی کــه روی میــز اســت زیبــا است	Relativization:
Relative Reduction:	The flower on the table is pretty	گل روی میز زیبا است	Relative reduction:

The above hierarchy of difficulty and Whitman's procedure (1970) for CA has shortcomings because subtle phonetic distinctions may be ignored. That is, the phonological environment and allophonic variants of phonemes may be overlooked. In addition, determing which category a particular contrast fits into is not always easy or even possible.

8. MARKEDNESS THEORY

Due to these shortcomings, some scholars later proposed the **markedness theory** to account for relative degree of difficulty by means of a universal grammar. Markedness theory distinguishes members of a pair of items that contains at least one more feature than the marked one. So the unmarked items have wider range of distribution than the marked ones.Thus learning the marked feature is more difficult. For example, in the case of the English indefinite articles (*a* and *an*), *an* is the more complex or marked form (it has an additional sound) and *a* is the unmarked form with the wider distribution.

Eckman (1981) showed that it is more difficult to acquire marked items in a language compared to the unmarked items. In other words, degree of markedness corresponds to degree of difficulty. Rutherford (1982) used markedness theory to explain why there seems to be a certain order of acquisition of morphemes in English, that is, marked structures are acquired later than unmarked ones. Brown (1987) holds that markedness theory provides a method for predicting difficulty in language learning which is more sophisticated than the contrastive analysis methods. However, determing degree of difficulty is still a largely subjective judgement. This is perhaps the same problem with any linguistic analysis. The objectivity of scientific methodology is still an allusion.

Practice Questions

1- Applied contrastive analysis is a type of contrastive studies which ……….. .
1) provides exhaustive accounts of similarities and differences between the languages being compared
2) belongs to the domain of theoretical linguistics
3) provides adequate models for comparison of the languages
4) seeks to determine the realization of a universal "x" element in one language which is realized differently in another language

2- According to the strong version of CAH ………. .
1) wherever patterns are minimally distinct in form or meaning confusion may result
2) the native language doesn't interfere, rather, it helps
3) the degree of difficulty depends upon the degree of differences
4) we can describe both interlingual and intralingual errors

3- Which one of the following is <u>NOT</u> correct?
Theoretical contrastive studies, as Fisiak puts it, ………
1) provide an adequate model for their comparison
2) are language independent
3) give an exhaustive account of the differences and similarities between two or more languages
4) identify probable areas of difficulty in another language

4- The sentence مگر دانشجو نیستی؟ doesn't have equivalence in English; so the Persian learners of English face which level of difficulty?
1) underdifferentiation
2) coalescence
3) over differentiation
4) reinterpretation

5- One of the underlying assumptions of the "………." of CAH were outlined by Lee is the greater these differences are, the more acute the learning difficulties will be.
1) weak version
2) strong version
3) moderate version
4) overgeneralization

6- Which one is <u>NOT</u> true about the Behavioristic Psychology?
1) It regards language acquisition as the formation of new habits.
2) It views language acquisition as an active mental process.
3) It was inspired by the ideas of Skinner.
4) It uses conditioning technique to reinforce correct response.

7- What kind of phenomenon occurs according to the following sentence?
"where do you go every week? I go to the mountains."   «هر هفته کجا می‌روی؟ کوه می‌روم»
1) coalescence
2) reinterpretation
3) over differentiation
4) split

8- The difference in the words suburb and حومه شهر, which does not total correspondence with its so called dictionary equivalent in Persian, is rooted in ……….. .
1) the grammatical patterns of the two languages
2) conceptual linguistic systems
3) patterns of conceptual systems
4) the patterns of thought in the two linguistic societies

9- ……….. does not suggest a method or technique of teaching, rather it provides methodologists with the what of teaching.

1) Contrastive analysis
2) Error analysis
3) Applied contrastive studies
4) Linguistics across Cultures

10- One great advantage of ……….. is that it can describe both interlingual and intralingual errors.

1) weak version
2) positive version
3) moderate version
4) strong version

11- The difficulty level in which two or more items in the native language converge into one item in the target language is called ……… .

1) coalescence
2) transfer
3) split
4) reinterpretation

12- Words such as "eat / drink خوردن " fall in the ………. category.

1) underdifferentiation
2) reinterpretation
3) overdifferentiation
4) split

13- The difficulty attributed to the acquisition of "an" as opposed to "a" can best be explained by …… .

1) the capability continuum paradigm
2) the markedness differential hypothesis
3) the contrastive analysis hypothesis
4) the variable competence model

14- All of the following are among the assumptions of the strong version of CAH, <u>EXCEPT</u> ……… .

1) the sole cause of difficulty and error in foreign language learning is interference coming from the learner's NL
2) the difficulty is chiefly due to the differences between the two languages
3) the greater these differences are, the more acute the learning difficulties will be
4) the errors in foreign-language learning are due to the similarities between the two languages

15- According to James, the two steps of CA are ……….. .

1) selection- description
2) comparison-verification
3) description-comparison
4) comparison-prediction

16- Which of the followings is <u>NOT</u> suggested by theoretical contrastive analysis?

1) It investigates how a given category in language A is presented in language B.
2) It gives an exhaustive account of differences and similarities between two languages.
3) It provides an adequate model for comparison of languages.
4) It determines how and which elements are comparable.

17- The absence of the sound [θ] in the word 'eighth' in Persian is an example of …… degree of difficulty.

1) overdifferentiation
2) coalescence
3) reinterpretation
4) underdifferentiation

18- The weak version of the CAH ………. .

1) focuses on interference
2) emphasizes cross-linguistic influence
3) adopts a priori approach
4) accounts for observed difficulties

19- ………. is more realistic and practical than ………. .

1) Strong version, weak version
2) Strong version, moderate version
3) Weak version, strong version
4) Moderate version, weak version

20- Negative transfer occurs when ………. but positive transfer occurs when ………. .

1) an old habit facilitates the formation of a new habit – the old habit impedes a new habit
2) the old habit impedes a new habit – an old habit facilitates the formation of a new habit
3) the elements are similar to the native L – the elements are different from the native L
4) the elements are different from the native L – the elements are similar to the native L

21- What kind of phenomenon occurs for the Persian learner of English according to the following sentence?
"We are fasting today."   «ما امروز روزه گرفته‌ایم.»
  1) underdifferentiation   2) reinterpretation
  3) overdifferentiation   4) coalescence

22- In ………. stage, the contrastivist has both the similarities and differences of the two languages and so can make a list of difficulties that learners may face in learning.
  1) analysis   2) selection   3) description   4) prediction

23– Which of the following viewes first language acquisition as the formation of new habits acquired through repetition?
  1) Generative Transformational Grammar   2) Behaviorist Psychology
  3) Contrastive Analysis   4) Error Analysis

24- Which one is <u>NOT</u> true about transformational grammar?
  1) Neither T-rules nor phrase structure rules provide information about communication in real life.
  2) T-rules are particular to specific languages and cannot be generalized.
  3) T-rules concern only the syntactic structure of sentences.
  4) Certain details such as gender, number or case are not sufficiently dealt with.

25- Contrastive linguistics studies all the following varieties within a language <u>EXCEPT</u> ………..
  1) style   2) register   3) dialect   4) accent

26- Which one is <u>NOT</u> true about CA?
  1) It has been used in translation theory to investigate problems of interlingual transfer.
  2) It used to be the basis of teaching in foreign language.
  3) It was the main criteria for preparation of instructional materials.
  4) It considered errors as evil sign of deficiency and sough to prevent their occurrence.

27- All of the following are shortcomings of the model of hierarchy of difficulty in CA <u>EXCEPT</u>……… .
  1) the subtle phonetic distinctions may be ignored
  2) allophonic variant of phonemes may be overlooked
  3) determining the category of a particular contrast is not an easy task
  4) it is subjective and in contradiction with its scientific description

28- Marked items or structures are ………. .
  1) common and more basic than unmarked ones
  2) considered universal
  3) learned later than unmarked ones
  4) less complex than the unmarked ones

29- Theoretical contrastive analysis ………. .
  1) is language independent
  2) assists interlingual transfer in translation process
  3) helps find lexical equivalents in bilingual dictionaries
  4) was first introduced by Robert Lado in 1950s.

Practice Question Answers

1- Choice 4

☞ Choices 1 & 3 belong to theoretical contrastive analysis and choice 2 is incorrect.

2- Choice 3

☞ Choices 1 and 4 belong to moderate version and choice two belongs to weak version.

3- Choice 4

☞ Choice 4 belongs to applied contrastive studies.

4- Choice 1

☞ Underdifferentiation: The equivalence of an item in the native language is absent in the foreign language.

5- Choice 2

6- Choice 2

☞ Behavioristic psychology inspired by the ideas of Skinner, viewed first language acquisition essentially as the formation of new habits acquired through repetition and strengthened by the reinforcement of correct response. It views language acquisition not as an active mental process but as a passive mechanical one.

7- Choice 4

☞ Split: An item in the native language diverges into two or more items in the target language.

8- Choice 4

☞ The difference in the words suburb and حومه شهر, which does not total correspondence with its so called dictionary equivalent in Persian, is rooted in the patterns of thought in the two linguistic societies.

9- Choice 1

☞ Contrastive analysis does not suggest a method or technique of teaching, rather it provides methodologists with the what of teaching.

10- Choice 3

☞ One great advantage of moderate version is that it can describe both interlingual and intralingual errors.

11- Choice 1

12- Choice 4

13- Choice 2

☞ In the case of English indefinite articles ("a" and "an"), "an" is the more complex or marked form and "a" is the unmarked form with the wider distribution.

14- Choice 4

☞ The assumptions of the strong version of CAH are as follow:

1. the sole cause of difficulty and error in foreign- language learning is interference coming from the learner's NL.

2. the difficulty is chiefly due to the differences between the two languages.

3. the greater these differences are, the more acute the learning difficulties will be.

15- Choice 3

☞ James asserts that executing a contrastive analysis involves two steps: description and analysis. However, five different steps have been mentioned in the literature for comparing and contrasting two languages which include: selection, description, comparison, prediction and verification.

16- Choice 1

☞ Theoretical contrastive studies, as Fisiak puts it, "gives an exhaustive account of differences and similarities between two languages, provides and adequate model for comparison of languages, and determines how and which elements are comparable." Theoretical contrastive studies are language independent. They do not investigate how a given category in language A is presented in language B. Instead, they look for the realization of a universal category X in both A and B.

17- Choice 1

☞ When an item in the foreign language is absent in the native language we are dealing with overdifferentiation degree of difficulty.

18- Choice 4

☞ The weak version of CAH requires of the linguist only that he use the best knowledge available to him in order to account for observed difficulties in second language learning.

19- Choice 3

☞ The weak version – though more realistic and practicable than the strong version – is still confined to the notion of linguistic interference.

20- Choice 2

☞ Negative transfer occurs when the old habit impedes a new habit, but positive transfer occurs when an old habit facilitates the formation of a new habit.

21- Choice 2

☞ Reinterpretation: an item that exist both in the native and target languages. Sometimes they are equivalents, but other times they are not.

22- Choice 4

☞ Whitman maintains that CA involves four different procedures including description (of the two languages), selection (of certain forms), contrast (mapping of the relationship of one system to the other) and prediction respectively. When the contrastivist has both differences and similarities then he goes to the prediction stage.

23- Choice 2

☞ The Behaviorists, inspired by the ideas of Skinner, viewed first language acquisition essentially as the formation of new habits acquired through repetition and strengthened by the reinforcement of correct responses.

24- Choice 2

☞ Some problems with transformational grammar as a model for contrastive analysis are: T-rules concern only the syntactic structure of sentences. Neither T-rules nor phrase structure rules provide information about paradigmatic relations or between particular sentences of the language, that is, the way in which sentences are used in actual communication. Neither do the rules provide any clues as to when sentences are used and what choices are appropriate in cases where there are various options for the rules.

25- Choice 4

☞ Contrastive linguistics studies can also be applied to the description of one or more verities within a language such as dialects, registers and styles.

26- Choice 1

☞ Contrastive analysis is used as a tool in translation theory to investigate problems of equivalence. During its heyday, it became the basis of teaching in foreign language and it was the main criteria for the preparation of instructional materials. The purpose of the materials was to ensure as far as possible that learners performed without error because errors were considered as evil sign of deficiency on teaching and learning.

27- Choice 4

☞ Since CA involved some degree of subjectivity and this did not meet the scientific description criteria of behavioristic psychology, some of the proponents of CAH made an effort to formalize the prediction stage o CA in order to remove some of the subjectivity involved. The best known attempt was hierarchy of difficulty. Thus subjectivity is NOT one of its weak points.

28- Choice 3

☞ Unmarked structures are common and more basic and more core in a language than marked ones. These items are considered universal in that they are common across all languages of the world. In a pair of marked-unmarked structures, the marked member contains at least one more feature then the unmarked one.

29- Choice 1

☞ All other options are features of applied contrastive analysis. There are two main types of Contrastive analysis: theoretical and applied. The latter gives an exhaustive account of the differences and similarities between two or more languages, thus defining such notions as congruence, equivalence. The applied CA draws on the findings of the theoretical CA to provide a framework for the comparison of languages, selecting whatever information is necessary for a specific purpose.

State University Questions

1- Both contrastive and typological studies ……… . (State University, 86)
1) share the synchronic element
2) focus on the negative transfer from L1
3) have a comparative historical orientation
4) study various stages in the development of L1 and L2

2- One great advantage of the moderate version of CAH is that it can describe errors the sources of which are in the ……… . (State University, 86)
1) native or target language   2) systems of language
3) native language   4) target language

3- Theoretical contrastive studies ……… . (State University, 86)
1) have a direction from L1 to L2 or vice versa
2) emphasize the surface representation of languages
3) attempt to identify the probable areas of difficulty
4) look for the realization of a universal category in L1 and L2

4- The weak version of the CAH argues against ……… . (State University, 86)
1) focusing on interference   2) adopting a priori approach
3) accounting for observed difficulties   4) emphasizing cross- linguistic influence

5- The difficulty attributed to the acquisition of an L2 as opposed to an L1 can best be explained by ……… . (State University, 86)
1) the variable competence model   2) the Capability Continuum Paradigm
3) the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis   4) the Markedness Differential Hypothesis

6- The principle of stimulus generalization suggests that ………. (State University, 86)
1) human beings learn based on similarities and commit errors because of differences.
2) human beings learn based on similarities and commit errors because of similarities.
3) wherever patterns are different in form or meaning in one or more systems, confusion results.
4) wherever patterns are functionally or perceptually equivalent in a system or systems, overgeneralization results.

7- According to the principle of stimulus generalization, ……… . (State University, 87)
1) man learns because of similarities and commits errors because of differences
2) the linguistic elements which are more different in two languages are more difficult to learn
3) the linguistic elements which are similar in two languages, but are minutely different, are easy to learn
4) human beings learn on the basis of similarities and commit errors because of similarities too

8- The strong version of "contrastive analysis hypothesis" is characterized by all of the following EXPECT ………… . (State University, 87)
1) it can help the contrastivist to predict the learners' interlingual and intralingual errors
2) it is a learning theory based on behavioristic psychology which says learning is a change of behavior
3) the more different items in the source and target languages are believed to be the most difficult to learn
4) the principle underlying the theory is transfer, which says that the source language affects the target language learning

9- One great advantage of the moderate version of contrastive linguistics is that it can describe ……… .

1) both interlingual and intralingual errors
2) overgeneralization errors due to the target language
3) errors the sources of which are in the target language
4) errors the sources of which are in the native language

10- In terms of markedness theory ……… .

1) universal errors should be corrected
2) errors committed by all learner constitute UG
3) unmarked structures are acquired later than marked ones
4) difference in parameter setting is a source of difficulty

11- One of the main criticisms leveled against CA is that it ……… .

1) does not make a strong predictive claim
2) ignores overgeneralization with in the L2
3) fails to categorize learning difficulties
4) underemphasizes correlation between learning difficulty and L1-L2 differences

12- The learning of the English sounds [θ] by a Persian learner exemplifies the process known as ……… .

1) overdifferentiation
2) reinterpretation
3) transfer
4) split

13- All of the following are among the claims of contrastive analysis which met strong criticism EXCEPT ……… .

1) phonological errors are predictable
2) errors made by L2 learners are interlingual
3) L1 is the sole source of interference
4) the greater L1-L2 differences, the more difficult L2 learning

14- The phenomenon in which two or more items in the native language converge into one item in the target language is referred to as ………

1) split
2) reinterpretation
3) coalescence
4) under-differentiation

15- One great advantage of the moderate version of contrastive analysis hypothesis over the strong version is that it can describe ……… .

1) errors the sources of which are mainly in the target language
2) overgeneralization errors due to the target language
3) errors the sources of which are in the native language
4) errors resulting from subtle L1-L2 differences

16- The Markedness Differential Hypothesis explains relative degree of difficulty by means of ………… .

1) cognitive feedback
2) grammar consciousness raising
3) affective feedback
4) principles of universal grammar

17- The suggestion that the analyst should be most interested in the levels between deep and surface structure is probably supported by ………… .

1) generative contrastive analysis
2) structural linguistics
3) slot-and-filler grammar
4) strong version of contrastive analysis

18- Investigating all of the following categories is within the domain of traditional contrastive analysis EXCEPT ……… . (State University, 90)

1) phonological transfer
2) appreciative systems
3) tenses in L1 and L2
4) hierarchy of difficulties

19- The principle of *stimulus generalization* implies that a Persian learner of English will make ……… . (State University, 90)

1) fewer errors on the English items that are similar to Persian than on those which are different
2) more errors on the English items that are different from Persian than on those which are similar
3) fewer errors on the English items that are minutely different from Persian than on those which are very different
4) fewer errors on the English items that are different from Persian than on those which are similar

20- Coalescence refers to a situation in which ……… . (State University, 90)

1) there is an item that exists both in the native and target language; sometimes they are equivalents, but other times they are not
2) two or more items in the native language converge into one item in the target language
3) an item in the native language diverges into two or more items in the target language
4) the equivalence of an item in the native language is absent in the foreign language

21- The conclusion that L1-L2 differences do not necessarily cause great difficulty ……… . (State University, 91)

1) negates markedness theory
2) downgrades L1 negative transfer
3) supports the cross-linguistic influence
4) underscores the significance of interlingual error

22- The contrastivist following the traditional grammar as his framework for study, can compare……… . (State University, 92)

1) tense systems, sound systems and grammatical structures
2) parts of speech or functions of various parts of speech
3) the surface phenomena such as sentence structures and modification structures
4) basic sentence patterns, major sentence constituents, and verb phrases

23- The transformational theory has supremacy over the structural theory for the contrastivist, because ……… . (State University, 92)

1) the transformational theory stresses the connection between language and thought, and between cognition and human language
2) the main implication for transformational theory is the enumeration of the differences between the subsystems of languages
3) the aim in the structural theory is to find the ways of expressing the same meaning with different forms in different languages
4) the contrastivist tries to find how transformational processes lead from common surface structure in different languages to different deep structures

24- When two or more items in the native language converge into one item in the target language, the process is called ………… (State University, 92)

1) coalescence
2) split
3) underdifferentiation
4) reinterpretation

25- According to Fries (1945), the ultimate goal of Contrastive Analysis refers to ……… . (State University, 92)

1) predicting learners' errors
2) preventing learners' errors
3) preparing the most effective teaching materials
4) providing feedback for learners

26- The principle of transfer involves ………. .   **(State University, 92)**
1) the positive effect of the first learning on the second, in two successive learnings, which causes facilitation
2) the negative effect of the first learning on the second, in two successive learning, which causes interference
3) the inhibition of learning when the first learning is different from the second in two successive learnings
4) two successive learnings and causes the first learning in such a case affect the second learning

27- The weak version of the CAH ……… .   **(State University, 93)**
1) was a reaction to cross-linguistic influence
2) tended to explain linguistic difficulties a posteriori
3) had been developed before the strong version of CAH
4) rejects the significance of interference across languages

28- According to Lade, difficulty in learning ……… .   **(State University, 93)**
1) can be described a priori
2) a sixlevel hierarchy of difficulty
3) is based on interlingual error studies
4) can be predicted by marked and unmarked features

State University Answers

1- Choice 1
☞Typological language is a branch of linguistics that studies the structural similarities between languages, regardless of their history. The chief rational behind typological linguistics is to find out about the common features found in all the languages of the world. Contrastive and typological studies do not regard the history of languages, so both share the synchronic element.

2 – Choice 1
☞One of the great advantage of the moderate version of CAH is that it can describe errors the sources of which are in the Native or target language.

3- Choice 4

4- Choice 2
☞The weak version of the CAH argued for adopting a posterior approach.

5- Choice 3

6- Choice 2
☞The principle of stimulus generalization suggests that human beings learn based on similarities and commit errors because of similarities. It implies that a Persian learner of English will make fewer errors on the English items that are different from Persian than on those which are similar.

7- Choice 4

8- Choice 1

9- Choice 1

10- Choice 4

11- Choice 2
☞As CA ignored intralingual errors, we conclude overgeneralizations are also ignored.

12- Choice 1

☞Since the Persian learner of Egnlish has to learn an entirely new sound in Englsih, the example represents over-differentiation.

13- Choice 1

☜منبع این تست فصل اول کتاب Contrastive analysis & Error analysis کشاورز می‌باشد.

14- Choice 3

15- Choice 2

☞One great advantage of moderate version is that it also describes intralingual errors.

16- Choice 4

☞Due to shortcomings of difficulty hierarchies, **markedness differential hypothesis** was proposed by some scholars to account for relative degrees of difficulty by means of principles of universal grammar.

17- Choice 1

☞Chomsky postulated a syntactic base of language called "deep structure", and a series of transformations. The end result of a transformational-generative grammar is a "surface structure" that, after the addition of words and pronunciations, is identical to an actual sentence of a language.

18- Choice 2

19- Choice 3

☞Stimulus Generalization holds that the categorization of abstract and concrete patterns according to their perceived similarity or differences is the basis for learning. Thus, whenever patterns are minimally distinct in form or meaning in one or more systems, confusion may result.

20- Choice 2

21- Choice 2

22- Choice 2

☞If the contrastivist chooses the traditional grammar as his model, he will deal with identification of parts of speech, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and function words; or he will be concerned with identification of functions of various parts of speech in the sentence, such as subject, predicate and kinds of components and modifiers.

23- Choice 1

☞Some say that the transformational thinking is superior over structuralist view in its approach to the relationship between language and other phenomena related to language. While the structural linguistics analyzes language and describes its units and patterns without any reference to anything outside language, the transformationalist stresses the connection between language and thought, and between human cognition and human language.

24- Choice 1

☞In **coalescence**, two or more items in native language converge into one item in the target language.

25- Choice 3

☞Fries (1945) wrote: "The most effective materials [for foreign language teaching] are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned."

26- Choice 4

☞Transfer involves two successive learnings and causes the first learning in such a case affect the second one. This effect could be of two basic types: positive or negative.

27- Choice 4

☞The weak version of CAH states that the native language does not interfere, rather, it helps.

28- Choice 1

☞Lado believes in the strong version of CAH, so he claimed that difficulty in learning can be described a priori.

Chapter 2

How to Compare and What to Compare

- ◈ **PHONOLOGY**
- ◈ **SYNTAX**
- ◈ **LEXICAL ITEMS**
- ◈ **DISCOURSE**
- ◈ **CRITICISMS OF CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS**

How to Compare and What to Compare

Since the comparison of languages depends on description, there exists an inevitable implicational relationship between contrastive analysis and linguistic theoretical models. James (1989, pp. 27-28) defines this kind of framework as consisting of three different phases. First, the contrastive analyst tries to divide up the concept of 'a language' into three smaller and more manageable areas: the levels of phonology, grammar, and lexis. Secondly, he makes use of descriptive categories of linguistics: unit, class, and system. Thirdly, he uses descriptions arrived at under the same 'model' of language. Following describes a comparison of languages at phonological, syntactic, lexical and discourse level.

1. PHONOLOGY

An adequate contrastive analysis of speech sounds will embrace their substantial properties, their mutual relationship, and the functions that they perform in the phonological organization of the language. Thus, two phenomena, *segmental* and *suprasegmental*, are the focus of contrastive studies concerning speech sounds and their arrangements.

Segmental phonological studies, in classical contrastive analysis, include comparisons of *paradigmatic* listings of sounds and their equivalents across languages to find out: (1) whether the source language has a phonetically similar phoneme (in the place and manner of articulation, and even in the acoustic and auditory features) as the target language; (2) whether the allophones of the phonemes are similar in both the source and the target language; and (3) whether the phonemes and their allophones have similar distributions, and also the *syntagmatic* relations between sounds, i.e. various combinations of sounds called diphthongs and consonant clusters.

2. SYNTAX

The contrastivists can compare the grammatical structures in two languages, based on structural linguistics or transformational generative grammar. Grammatical structures refer to matters of form that correlate with matters of meaning, that is, formal devices that convey meanings and relationship. Speakers of language make different interpretations based on grammatical devices. Seven grammatical signals are used in languages to convey different meanings:

(a) Word order: For instance, the word order of *is* before *he* in the sentence *Is he there?* spoken with a rising-falling intonation is the signal for one type of asking for information in English. It is because of this arrangement of word order that a native speaker of English makes a distinction between the above sentence and the sentence *He is there*, which is a signal for giving information.

On the other hand, the difference between the meanings of phrases *garden flower* and *flower garden* illustrate the significance of word order in English. The two sentences *John has a garden flower* vs. *John has a flower garden* convey two different meanings: one referring to *flower*, the other one to *garden*. There are also examples of this grammatical signal in Persian such as:

گل باغچه/ باغچه گل، درخت میوه/ میوه درخت، شهر بزرگان/ بزرگان شهر

Although both Persian and English use this grammatical signal, the relationship between the two nouns used in the two languages is not the same. In English, the second noun is the head noun and the first noun is the modifier, whereas in Persian the roles are reversed. Thus, the two languages use this grammatical signal in different ways. For example in English *a garden flower* is a flower, but in Persian باغچهٔ گل is a garden.

(b) Inflection: Inflections are affixes that indicate number, gender, tense, genitive case, and comparison. Examples of inflections in English and Persian are:

Number: *book, book**s*** / کتاب، کتاب‌ها – گیاه، گیاهان یا گیاه‌ها

Gender: *actor, actr**ess*** / مدیر، مدیره – بازیگر زن، بازیگر مرد

Tense: *jump, jump**ed*** / بپریم، پریدیم

Genitive: *Mary**'s** book* / کتابِ مریم

Comparison: *large, larg**er**/ beautiful, more beautiful* / بزرگ، بزرگ‌تر

The examples show that the use of inflection is not always the same in different languages. For instance, the inflection indicating number exists both in English and Persian, but the form and distribution are not the same. The inflection for gender is almost disappearing from English, and Persian does not use it at all (except for some idiosyncratic forms that are not common anymore). In Persian no distinction is made for gender; therefore, the words male or female should be added to the head noun as a modifier to emphasize the gender. The tense markers in English are limited but Persian uses a variety of them. There is only one genitive inflection in Persian, i.e. *Ezafe* ِ , but in English −*'s* and the preposition *of* are used for different purposes. And finally, for comparison, the inflections are used differently. In English, −*er* is used with one syllable and a number of two syllable adjectives, yet with more than two syllables the word *more* is used. This distinction is not made in Persian. The same distinction is made for superlative adjectives in English, where −*est* is used with one syllable adjectives and *the most* is used with more than two syllables; however there is no such distinction in Persian.

(c) Correlation of forms: The correlation of form in English and Persian differs to a great extent. In the English sentences, the correlation between the relative pronouns and verbs with the antecedent noun is quite clear, as in the following sentences:

The list of the books which is good… (The list is good.)
The list of the books which are good… (The books are good.)
The list of the men who are good… (The men are good.)

In these sentences the correlation between *list* and *is* indicates that *list* is the antecedent of *which*. The correlation between *books* and *are* indicates that the antecedent of *which* is *books*. In the third example the correlation of form between *who* and *men* signals that the men are good, not the lists. In Persian, however, this correlation is not always a clear grammatical signal. Consider the following examples:

صورت اسامی کتاب‌ها که روی میز است ... (صورت اسامی روی میز است.)

صورت اسامی کارکنان که در سالن هستند ... (کارکنان در سالن هستند.)

The correlation of form between صورت اسامی and است in the first example and the correlation of form between کارکنان and هستند in the second example signal that the antecedent of که in the first sentence is صورت اسامی and in the second sentence it is کارکنان. Yet the following sentences are also grammatical in Persian:

صورت اسامی کتاب‌ها که روی میز است ... (کتاب‌ها روی میز است.)

صورت اسامی کتاب‌ها که روی میزند ... (کتاب‌ها روی میزند.)

In these sentences, the antecedent of که is کتاب‌ها, but the correlation of form is shown differently in these two sentences; in the first one it is shown between کتاب‌ها and the singular verb است, and in the second one it is shown between کتاب‌ها and the plural verb اند. The reason is that in Persian (but not in English) usually the inanimate subjects, unlike the animate subjects, do not agree with their verbs. Plural inanimate nouns can come with either singular verbs or plural verbs, and mostly with singular verbs, as in the following examples:

میز و نیمکت در اتاق است.

مریم و رامین در اتاق هستند.

This phenomenon, though in most cases a redundant feature, makes Persian learners of English commit errors, especially in the use of third person singular marker in the simple present tense and the use of plural morpheme, particularly with nouns preceded by a cardinal number:
* John open the door everyday. / John and Mary open the door every day.
Mary has many books. /*Mary has two book.

(d) Function words: There are different function words in languages used for different purposes, such as question words, conjunctions, prepositions, etc. Look at the following sentences:

(1) Ali came.   علی آمد.
(2) Who came?   کی آمد؟

The difference between sentences (1) and (2) in English and Persian is that sentences like (2) are questions which are signaled by the function words *who* and کی in the two languages.

(e) Intonation: Intonation refers to the music of a sentence. There are two major intonation Patterns in Persian and English: rising-falling and rising, one used for statements and the other used for yes/no questions. Consider the following sentences:

Ali is a student.   علی دانش آموز است.