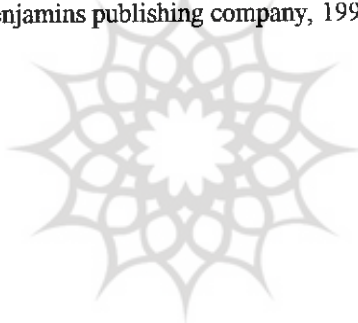




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پژوهشگاه علوم انسانی و مطالعات فرهنگی
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Contrastive analysis is useful for teaching while it may not fulfill all the pedagogical needs and the most important step to understanding a foreign language is its comparison with the native one which leads to insightful knowledge in both languages.

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program that matches the function of the language – grammatically and expressively – to translate any outer term into an inner term that has the same sense.

“Learning a language involves acquiring, besides a specific vocabulary, a general grasp of the phonetic and *syntactic structures* of that language” [22, p.151].

If a person wants to know a foreign language and become a translator, “he has to interpret grammatical meaning, both on a general level, and in relation to the distinction between SL and TL construction” [12, p.26]. Therefore, there is no doubt that a careful practical contrastive analysis of SL and TL is necessary for those who want to be translators.

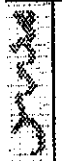
Lefevere believes that “the first rule (for translators) is to know both languages well... to penetrate deeply into the thought of the author to be translated” [23, p. 121]. Gentzler [24] says that the correctness of translation, the adequacy of the equivalent in second language text is always measured against the degree of correspondence with the source text linguistically or literally. The whole thing should be based on structural differences between the two languages. Thus, none of these ideas can come true if the person (translator) does not have a good command of both languages in all respects including the grammar.

In order to have communicative efficiency – being able to read, understand, and internalize – a language, students or translators should have a complete grasp of major grammatical concepts that are essential for any language – parts of speech. Of course, some may recommend that translators should have an absolute command of both languages. Consequently, studying the grammatical structures of SL and TL seems essential and unavoidable where the similarities and differences may help to produce better and more fluent pieces of work. Looking at what was presented in this part can give some insight to those who like to do a more acceptable job.

Presian and English nouns have almost the same function, but they from differently. Even the smallest differences can cause problems. If the learner reviews the points in both languages and outlines them, it is of great value to his education.

It is hoped that the scheme presented here, can guide the language learners and provide the teachers with some material to be used as a base for the drills they want to prepare for teaching. Investigation of such systems may prove to be crucial to language teaching while they also deserve some studies in their own right. The ultimate goal of teaching and learning a foreign language still needs more investigation, implication, and thought to be fulfilled. Viewing any study not as pathologies to be eradicated but as necessary and, possibly useful, stages in learning a language system, may prove vital and result in a deeper understanding and knowledge of a language and bring about better and more insightful approaches to language learning and teaching. A quote from Lado by Gass and Selinker seems the best statement to end this study:

“The list of problems resulting from the comparison of the foreign language with the native language ... must be considered a list of hypothetical problems until final validation is achieved by checking it against the actual speech of students” [25, p.2].



/orezo mikonæm servætænd budæm/

Here the sequence of tenses is observed as in English and its usage may not be a problem. The subjunctives are also used in Persian, but not very often.

Examples:

/tori rah mire ke goi padejah æst/

mesle inke

he walks as if king he is

(He walks as if he is a king)

In this example and others */tori/* and its equivalent */juri/* do not have an English translation, therefore, may cause some kind of confusion.

All of the reported speeches are in noun clause category and may not bring forth any problem, except the sequence of tenses which have to be explained, practiced, and learned thoroughly.

Conclusion

"Helping students learn to use grammatical structures accurately, meaningfully, and appropriately is the fundamental goal of grammar. ...

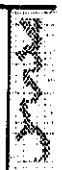
It is a goal consistent with the goal of helping students to communicate meaningfully..., and one that recognizes the undeniable interdependence of grammar and communication" [17, p.xviii].

What is important in teaching grammar is to take the three dimensions of form, meaning, and use into consideration and work on them. By working on different points, focusing on their functions, and doing meaningful exercises which engage the students in activities, the teachers can be confident that the teaching of grammar is useful, workable, and comparable to other languages. The teachers should provide a fundamental understanding of how grammar works and apply the methods of presentation which provide sound pedagogical explanations. If the teachers apply functional perspective in their work, they will be able to see various aspects of it, including understanding the problems that the learners have and helping them develop better skill through practice and, in cases, comparison of the TL (target language) with NL (native language) [10].

When a person masters a foreign language and can compare it with his own, not only can he communicate – speak, listen, read, and write – better, but also can translate from one to the other with precision, accuracy, and clarity. He becomes almost bilingual and does not translate literally to face problems that Millikan reports:

"But the main problems that the literal translator runs into are familiar ones of vagueness, ambiguity, and the simple failure of one language to have terms that correspond to those in another..." [22, p.147].

What, the Iranian students need now is to know the foreign language and know it functionally to be able to use it both in communication and translation, because there are so many of them who study to be translators. They must develop an inner





kubidæni is object. Therefore, all kinds of noun phrases can be used in different positions functioning as nouns. What is important is finding the most accurate equivalents in both languages and avoiding confusion. Unfortunately, the Persian grammar books are full of unfamiliar words which are not of any help to students. Instead of using simple common expressions for subject, object, etc. there are words which themselves need a lot of time and effort to be understood like /mosnæd/ or /mosnædonelæih/. Therefore, it seems advisable to use those words which are understood easily and make the process of learning simpler, faster, smoother, and enjoyable.

B. Clauses:

As a simple word like /gol/ (flower) can play all the noun functions and get different forms as plural and singular, all noun clauses can be placed in noun positions. All kinds of sentences including statements, questions, exclamations, and imperatives are used as nouns in Persian, but the only problem which may arise is when they are translated literally (word for word) into a target language. A thorough knowledge of expressions, idioms, sayings, and correct usage of the language is of significant value to the study of it and helps the learner to understand better and produce correct, natural, and fluent language.

Examples:

(*ou porsid æ gofti*) (object – question word)

he asked what I said (He asked *what I said*)

(*anæ gofti xub bud*) (subject – statement)

what you said good was (*What you said* was good)

(*ou feryad zæd æ gole qæjængi*) (object – exclamation)

he shouted what flower beautiful

(He shouted *what a beautiful flower*)

(*soal kærd aya anja miri*) (object – question yes-no)

he asked if there I went (He asked *if I went there*).

Here, the Persian verb in the question /miri/ can be used in the simple present, simple past, or even with would. Therefore, such cases may cause some problem in translation, except when they observe that the reported word is in past and the sequence of tenses should be maintained. Most of the examples given in the Persian grammar books are poems which add to the confusion of the students. That is why the teachers who teach grammar or contrastive analysis have to prepare sufficient prose examples to do enough drills in this part and provide the language learners with the insight that they need in their future career – teaching or translating.

'Wish' clauses are another part which need some attention. The word 'wish' is mostly translated as /orezo mikonæm/ while it has a better equivalent /kaʃki/ which is used in common natural language of the people.

/kaʃki servætæmænd budæm/

I wish rich I was (I wish I was/were rich)



A. Phrases:

Persian noun phrases are formed in different ways:

- (1) Two base nouns can combine and make a compound one:
/særbaz xane/ (barracks) → /særbaz/ (soldier) + /xane/ (house)
- (2) Two nouns of which the second qualifies or modifies the first:
/pedær zæn/ (father in law) → /pedær/ (father) + /zæn/ (wife)
- (3) Two nouns joined by the connective /o/ which may mean 'and':
/ab o hæva/ (climate/weather) → /ab/ (water) + /hæva/ (air)
- (4) By the stems of two verbs plus /o/:
/gir o dar/ (struggle) → /gir/ (to take) + /dar/ (to hold)
- (5) By the combination of an adjective and a noun:
/no ruz/ (new year) → /no/ (new) + /ruz/ (day)
- (6) Two nouns combined by the /ezaf/ sound /e/:
/tæxtæb/ (bed) → /tæxt/ (platform/seat) + /xab/ (sleep)
- (7) Two nouns connected by a preposition:
/etemad be næfs/ (self-confidence) → /etemad/ (confidence) + /næfs/ (self)
- (8) Reflexive pronouns: /xodemæn/ (myself). The reflexives have another equivalent in Persian which can be categorized as derived ones: /xodæm/, /xodet/ (yourself), etc.
- (9) A colloquial compound form is made by repeating the first word changing the first sound of it to /m-/ or /p-/ making a meaningless word which is used in combination with the first one to make some sense: /pul mul/, (money) or /qati pati/, (mixed). Here the first word is meaningful but the second is not.
- (10) Phrases made of indefinite qualifiers with nouns: /bæzi moæleman/ (some teachers), /hæme moæleman/ (all the teachers), /ænta moælem/ (a few teachers), etc.
- (11) Verb phrases used in subject, object, etc. positions acting as nouns: /ab dær havæn kubidæn/ (pounding water in a bowl = doing useless work or wasting time doing nothing). Another example can be /dexatæt kærdæn dær kare digæran/ (interfering in others business/ to be nosy).

This category is similar to participle phrases in English except that Persian ones do not start with the same form or even the same parts of speech and they are mainly used as idioms or proverbs in Persian.

- (12) A noun as the head of the phrase with adjectives, demonstratives, or any other kind of modifiers: /moæleme xub/ (a good teacher).

Examples: In order to save time and space, a few examples are given. For details refer to Persian grammar books as Nobahar [19], Meshkat al-Dini [18], Natel Khanlary [21], and other available books.

lin saxteman særbaxxane æst/

this building barracks is (This building is a barracks).

In this example /saxteman/ is subject and /særbaxxane/ is subject complement. In the sentence *lin æmæl ab dær havæn kubidæn æst/* the phrase *ab dær havæn*





I book to him gave
(I gave the book to him).

Infinitives are used as simple-base-nouns in Persian: /ɑjɑmidæn/ (drinking/to drink), /xordæn/ (eating/to eat), /xɑbidæn/ (Sleeping/to sleep), etc.

lou xɑbidæn rɑ dust dɑræd/
he sleeping likes (He likes *sleeping/to sleep*).

B. Derived:

Derived nouns are made of a base – verb, adjective, noun, etc. – plus a suffix or prefix. The former group includes:

(1) Abstract nouns formed by the suffix /-i/ and an adjective, /xubi/ (goodness), a noun, /mærdi/ (manliness), or a verb, /xordæn/ (eatable). If the adjective or noun ends in /ɑ/ or /u/, the suffix /-i/ is added as /donɑi/ (wisdom) or /porgui/ (talkativeness). The words ending in /-e/ get the suffix /gi/ to become nouns: /zende/ (live) → /zendegi/ (life).

(2) Nouns are formed by adding the suffix /-an/, /-e/, /-ak/ or /-e/ to the main part of the verbs, that is, infinitive without the /udæn/ or /idæn/ as: færmudæn/ (to order) → /færmɑn/ (order), /xordæn/ (to eat) → /xorɑk/ (food), /kuʃidæn/ (to try) → /kuʃe/ (struggle), or /nalidæn/ (to whine) → /nale/ (whine or wail).

(3) Third person past tense of verbs plus the suffix /-ar/ make nouns: /ræft/ (he went) → /ræftar/ (conduct), /xærid/ (he bought) → /xæridar/ (buyer). This suffix is like ‘-er’ in English, except that it is added to simple form of the verbs.

(4) Adjectives may get the suffix /-a/ and change to nouns: /gærm/ (warm) → /gærmɑ/ (warmth).

(5) Suffixes such as /-e/, /-ban/, /-kar/, /-gar/, /-gær/, /-dan/, /-æk/, /-če/, /-gah/, etc. can be added to nouns and make derived forms: /čæjnm/ (eye) → /čæjme/ (water spring), /baq/ (garden) → /baqban/ (gardener), /gonah/ (sin) → /gonahkar/ (sinner), /yɑd/ (memory) → /yɑdgɑr/ (memorial), /zær/ (gold) → /zærgær/ (goldsmith), /qænd/ (sugar lump) → /qændɑn/ (sugar bowl), /doxtær/ (girl) → /doxtæræk/ (little girl), /baq/ (garden) → /baqče/ (little garen), /palaye/ (refining) → /palayeɡah/ (refinery).

The prefixes used to make nouns are /pi-/ , /pæs-/ , /baz-/ , etc. plus third person past tense of the verb: /pi/ræft/ (progress), /baz/xærid/ (redeemed), and /pæs/sændɑz/ (savings).

All of the derived nouns can function as subject, object, subject complement, object complement, appositive, adjunct, and object of preposition. In order to save space and time sentence examples are not given. It is hoped this avoidance does not cause any problem.

II. Compound Nouns

Persian compound nouns also include phrases and clauses. They can function as nouns in sentences and appear in any position that a simple noun does. In order to make their roles clear, they are treated separately under phrases and clauses.



/dana/ (wise), the plural sign /-on/ changes to /-yan/, that is, an extra sound /y/ is added to make the pronunciation of it possible: /danayan/ [18, 19, 20].

There is another plural suffix in Persian /-gan/ which is used when the word ends in /-e/ sound and especially with rank of mathematical numbers as /fere/ste → /fere/tegan/ (angels), and /sæd → sædegan/ (hundredth). In latter the sound /-e/ is added to make the pronunciation possible. But, all of the nouns in this category can be changed to plural by /-ha/ as /fere/teha/.

Still other suffixes which are used as alternatives to the formal plural sign /-ha/ are /-jat/, /-at/, /-on/, and some irregular forms. The inflection /-jat/ is used with words that are collective but they can have plural form when the person refers to more than one kind of it: /mive/ (fruit) → /mive/jat/ (fruits). The inflection /-at/ is mainly added to the loan words from Arabic and occasionally with some Persian ones while all of them can be changed to plural with /-ha/: /mo/ahede/ (observation) → /mo/aheda/ (observations) or /heivan/ (animal) → /heivana/ (animals). Plural with /-on/ is used with nouns referring to human being: /enqelabi/ (revolutionary) → /enqelabion/ (revolutionaries) or /modi/ (material) → /modion/ (materialists). This inflection is usually used with the word that ends in /-i/ sound.

The last group is the irregular one and they have been learned through practice and use as: /æmæl/ (act-action) → /æmol/ (acts-actions), /elm/ (science) → /oloum/ (sciences), /mædrese/ (school) → /mædreses/ (schools).

Personal pronouns in Persian can be used in their original form /mæn/ (I) or as suffixes /-æm/ added to a verb, a noun, an adjective or even an adverb: /ræftæm/ (I went), /ketabæm/ (my book), /šadæm/ (I am happy), /xubæm/ (I am well). In this category we may include the demonstratives as /in/ (this), /an/ (that), etc. All these nouns can appear as subject, object, subject complement, etc.

Examples:

- (1) subject: /ou englisi mixanæd/
he English studies (He studies English).
- (2) object: /ou yek ketab xærid/
he a book bought (He bought a book).
- (3) subject complement: /ou moælem æst/
he teacher is (He is a teacher).
- (4) object complement: /anha ou ra ræisjomhur kærðænd/
they him president elected
(They elected him president).

Sometimes a word /be/ which is equal to as in English is used to make the sentence more natural in Persian:

- /anha ou ra be riasæt entexab kærðænd/
they him as president elected (They elected him president).
- (5) appositive: /bæradæræm, reza, inja æst/
my brother Reza here is (My brother, Reza, is here).
- (6) adjunct: /hæłqe tæld/
ring gold
- (7) object of preposition: /mæn ketab ra be ou dadæm/



He asked, "Who will type the letters"?

He told me (that) he would buy that book.

Frank believes that clauses after predicate adjectives denoting feeling, perception, wish, mental activities, and subjunctives can be classified as noun clauses [13]. Another type of noun clause is the 'it + adverbial + a that clause' sentence pattern.

It was there that he fell.

It is worth mentioning that in sentences expressing wish, subjunctive, perception and so on, the particular rules of each one should be followed. For example, after wish the sequence of tenses has to be observed:

I wish I were a teacher.

I suggest (that) he do his homework carefully.

For more detailed explanation on each point and the list of words belonging to perception, subjunctive, feelings, etc. see [13, 9, 14, 17, 16].

Persian Nouns

Nouns are words, phrases, or clauses which are used to name persons, animals, things, places, times, events, concepts, etc. All the nouns are third person, except some of the pronouns. Nouns usually function as subjects, objects, subject complement, appositive, and object of prepositions. Nouns can be proper, common, concrete, abstract, countable, uncountable (mass), singular, or plural [18, 19].

Persian nouns like the English ones can be divided based on their forms into simple and compound to make the comparison and contrast of them easier and more practical for EFL learners.

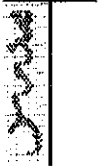
I. Simple Nouns

Simple nouns as well as the compound ones can be defined by an article /yek/, a suffix /-i/, or a word /ra/ when they are singular and by the plural inflections plus the suffix /-i/ or /-i/ and /ra/ when they are plural. Simple Persian nouns can be divided into base and derived forms with the implication that the plurals are included in the base forms in order to make the comparison easier.

A. Base:

Base nouns in Persian include all the abstract, concrete, countable, noncountable, proper, common, etc. which have or contain a base or main stem with exception of the plurals which have the inflectional suffixes. Base nouns cover all the names of persons, things, events, time, pronouns, etc. which do not carry the derivation suffixes. Simple nouns do not have any sign besides their base form: /pesær/ (boy), /kuh/ (mountain), /ab/ (water), /dærya/ (sea), etc.

Plural nouns have two inflections /-ha/ for all of the nouns or /-an/ for animates and plants and /-in/ when there are two of an object, person and so on: /pesærha/ or /pesæran/ (boys), /daryaha/ (seas) but not /dæryaan/, and /mohæselin/ ((two) students). Occasionally /-in/ is used for more than two and that is when the person is not careful or uses everyday informal speech. When a noun ends in /a/ sound as



- (d) appositive: *My idea that he is a good teacher is not right.*
- (e) after it : *It is my idea that he is a good teacher.*
- (f) object of preposition: *He gave the money to whoever needed it.*

(2) yes-no questions with 'it' or 'whether':

- (a) subject: *If / Whether he is a good teacher does not concern you.*
- (b) object: *I don't know if he is a good teacher.*
- (c) subject complement: *The issue is if he is a good teacher.*
- (d) object of preposition: *He worries about whether he will get the book.*
- (e) appositive: *The question whether he will get the book or not is not answered.*

(3) question-word questions:

- (a) subject: *When he gets the money is his problem.*
- (b) object: *He does not know when he will get the money.*
- (c) subject complement: *The question is when he will get the money.*
- (d) object of preposition: *He worries about when he will get the money.*
- (e) appositive: *The question when he will get the money is not clear.*
- (f) object complement: *He wants to know the question when he will get the money.*

All kinds of questions with who, whom, what, why, etc. can be used in this category.

(4) requests:

- (a) subject: *That he comes soon was asked.*
- (b) object: *He asked that he comes home soon.*
- (c) subject complement: *The request is that he comes home soon.*
- (d) object complement: *They ordered him that he comes home soon.*
- (e) appositive: *His order that she comes home soon was obeyed by her.*

(5) exclamation:

- (a) what: 1. object: *I know what a good book it was.*
2. object of preposition: *I talked about what a good book it was.*
3. subject: *What a good book it is concerns me.*
- (b) how: object: *I know how well she cooks.*

Other possible forms and functions may be found in various textbooks or the teacher can provide them. All types of the reported speeches, direct or indirect, are noun clauses and fit one of the above categories [14, 9]. e.g:

He said (that) he would go home soon.



A. Phrases:

Noun phrases function as a simple noun taking the same positions in different sentences. In cases they may be called 'expanded nouns'. Regardless of name, the head of the phrase or group is a noun which represents a thing – animate or inanimate – including human [10, 9, 13]. These groups or phrases are formed by (1) a noun and an adjective preceding it like: good night or English department. It is also possible to have more than one adjective; (2) a noun plus an infinitive as in He is subject to attack; (3) an infinitive or gerund followed by a noun or pronoun like: I want to see you. They dislike studying grammar, (4) a noun and a prepositional phrase as in The water in the bath is warm or The leg of the chair is broken; (5) an indefinite qualities plus a noun as some of, all of, every, each, etc. e.g. Some of the students are here or That water is not good to be used; (6) prepositional phrases acting as nouns such as: He swam in the (cold) water. Examples of noun phrases are abundant in English and any combination of words that can take the place of a noun or be considered as a subject, object, subject complement, etc. is a noun phrase. For details and more examples refer to Master [9], Frodesen [16], Thewlis [17], Lock [10], Murphy [14], or any workbook on grammar.

Any combination of the above groups also can make a noun phrase as: He is a young teacher of the school, where the subject complement has two parts 'a young teacher' and 'of the school'. The richness of language in using phrases makes it impossible to list all that exist but familiarity with their roles and understanding their functions helps the students to avoid committing errors/mistakes in language use and translation. What is really needed is a series of drills carefully prepared and practiced in the class to give the language learners and opportunity to realize the forms and functions of noun phrases and gain a good practical command of them in different language skills. Then, the job of the language teacher is somehow fulfilled and he may be satisfied that he has done something practical and useful.

B. Noun Clauses

Noun clauses like noun phrases and simple nouns can function as the subject, object, subject complement, object after 'it' subject, appositive, object of prepositions. Noun clauses usually contain markers as that, where, when, why, what, which, how, how far, how long, how much, and how many. The marker "that" is sometimes omitted without making any change in meaning, form, or function [13, 9, 14]. Examples of noun clauses in different positions are as follows:

(1) statement:

(a) subject: That he is a good teacher is well known.

(b) object: I know that he is a good teacher.

(c) subject complement: My understanding is that he is a good teacher.

Nouns like adjectives, adverbs and verbs have derivational forms. They are made of verbs, adjectives, or nouns and suffixes, a combinations of two nouns, or nouns and indefinite quantities – some, any, no, etc. Reflexive pronouns are also included in this category [9, 10, 13, 15].

1. Suffixes which make nouns are -ness, -ity, -y, -ment, -(t)ion, -sion, -ance, -ence, -ing, -er, -or, -ee, -(i)an, -age, -al, -(e)ry, -ure, -cy, -ster, -dom, etc. e.g. *kindness, facility, army, payment, action, omission, conveyance, persistence, seeing, distant, dependent, brotherhood, realism, realist, friendship, teacher, advisor, employee, breakage, arrival, bribery, enclosure, captaincy, gangster, freedom*, etc. The words which are derived by getting suffixes can be used in noun positions if they make sense in the sentences made. That is, the sentences in which this type of words are used should be meaningful and the nouns must be capable of doing, receiving, or participating the roles they are assigned to.

2. Prefixes may change verbs, adjectives, or adverbs to nouns: re-, co-, con-, com-, out-, in-, im-, ex-, on-, pre-, suf-, man-, anti-, etc. Examples are: *reaction, coeducation, contact, compose, outdoor, input, import, exchange, ongoing, preclude, suffix, man-made, disagree, accuse, antiwar*, etc.

3. Stems may combine with each other and form nouns: phil, soph, logy, antro, like, bibli, graph, geo. Examples are: *biblio phil, philo sophy, antropology, war like, geo graphy*, etc.

4. Indefinite qualities (function nouns) added to nouns or combined with each other: any, some, every, one, no, who, where, what, other, ever, etc. e.g. anyone, everybody, nothing, sometime, whoever, nowhere, whatever, another, etc.

Each of these are considered as one word while they are formed of two parts and for this reason they are classified in simple derived nouns. They can take the place of nouns in sentences and function as such. e.g.:

Whoever wants can come.

Is everybody ready?

I have nothing to eat.

5. Reflexive pronouns is another group which can function as nouns in object position [13, 9, 17]; myself, yourself, himself, herself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves,

He cut himself. (object)

They washed themselves. (object)

II. Compound Nouns

In the previous part, simple nouns – base or derived – were discussed. They are one word nouns even though they may consist of two bases in the case of the derived ones. Here, phrases and clauses are the concern, and phrases are groups of words which function as nouns in different sentences and not what transformationalists may mean by noun phrase (NP)





Nouns are one of the most important parts of speech in English and they can be used as subject, objects (direct or indirect), objects of preposition, subject complements, apposition, and object complements. All the nouns, things, pronouns, phrases or clauses which take these positions are treated as nouns in this study e.g. *Ali, chair, he, bookstore*, etc [10, 9, 14, 16].

I. simple Nouns

Simple nouns include all the names, things, and pronouns which have either a base or derived form.

A. Base:

All the words, singular or plural, which are the names of persons, things, places, times, situation or events are referred to as base nouns: *Ali, book(s), station, Sunday, beauty, war*. They can be used as subjects, objects, objects of preposition, complements, or appositives. Regardless of the fact that these nouns are concrete, abstract, common, proper, countable, uncountable, plural, or singular, they can take all the positions mentioned above. The pronouns (subject, object, and possessive) can be used in place of any of these nouns taking the same positions [13, 9, 14].

- (1) Subject: *Ali/He is studying.*
- (2) Object: direct object: *I saw Ali/him.*
indirect object: *I gave him the book.*
- (3) Subject complement: *He is a teacher.*
- (4) Object complement: *We elected him president.*
- (5) Object of preposition: *He deposited the money in the bank.*
- (6) Appositive: *Reza, the teacher, is here.*
- (7) Noun adjunct: *He bought a silver ring.*

Noun adjunct is treated as an adjective even though it is a noun (see adjectives). Moreover, in direct addresses a noun may be used as the subject of the request:

Ali, please come here.

Please come here, Ali.

Usually the position of a subject is before the verb:

- (1) after there: *There is a book on the desk.*
- (2) after adverbials:
 - (a) place: *On the hill is a school.*
 - (b) negation: *Never have we seen him.*
 - (c) after so, such, only: *He likes tea, and so does Ali.*

In rare situations and for emphasis an object may be placed before a subject:

The English teacher I like more than anyone else.

In cases, the function nouns – some, both, all, another, a few, others, this, those, etc., some which may be called noun determiners, demonstrative and so on may play the role of nouns in English [15, 13, 10].

B. Derived

and possibly a comparison showing what they are and how they are used can be of great value and have useful things to say to language learners [10]. Moreover, all languages do not have the same words or phrases for the same concepts and only the comparison of them may help the students realize this point and be more conscious of the problems they will encounter. Therefore, it takes a communicatively efficient speaker of both languages to translate well [11]. "The translator has to interpret grammatical meaning, both on a general level, and in relation to the distinction between (source language) and (target language) constructions" [12].

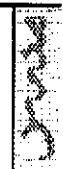
Lexical meaning is also important and has to be considered both outside and within context. Besides, any lexical unit has elements of grammar – nouns have gender, number, case, countable or mass, abstract, concrete, etc. [10]. A translator may look at lexical items (nouns, verbs, etc.) in different manner, but examining carefully, comparing and contrasting them is what he needs in order to do a good job. A translator should interpret and analyze the SL text, translate on the basis of SL and TL syntactic structures, and reformulate the text for writer's intention, reader's expectation and norms of TL [12]. As a result, any one who wants to use a language properly and communicate efficiently, has to have a good command of the language in question, but being a translator requires him to master both languages in every respect, especially their grammar not only communicatively but also comparatively, realizing the problematic areas and differences to be able to translate naturally, meaningfully, and understandably.

Lock believes that there are four levels of analysis: phonology, lexis, grammar, and semantics. Grammar also has two aspects: (1) arrangements of words; and (2) structure of words and parts of speech. Sentences can be analyzed into units which may have one word or a group of words – phrases and clauses. He says "Thus the analysis... will take into account four ranks (levels) within grammar: word, phrase, clause, and sentence" [10, p.5].

One of the major grammatical areas which needs careful attention, study, analysis, and practice is nouns. Recognition of nouns is one thing but classification is another. Some grammarians divide nouns into proper, common, countable, noncountable specific, general, etc. Then, they treat pronouns, noun phrases and clauses separately. Contrary to different classifications of English nouns [10,9,13,14], in this study nouns, both in English and Persian are grouped to simple (base and derived) and compound (phrases and clauses).

English Nouns

English nouns are identified by five criteria: (1) noun-determiners: the, a, her, etc.; (2) inflections, '-es' for plural and '-s' for possessive: *boys, Ali's*, etc.; (3) suffixes: '-er', '-ness', '-ity': *teacher, boldness, hostility*; (4) position: before the verb as subject, after the verb as object; and (5) superfixes: imprint (noun) vs. imprint (verb) [15, 13].





teaching a language [4]. Learners who are exposed to selected and gradual language patterns can learn a second language faster. Of course some creativity can enter into the process of language learning [5]. Therefore, the identification and analysis of interferences between languages – native and target – can be a central aspect of such a study and foreign language teaching seems to profit from it. L1 and L2 have similar and different processes in learning and structure which can explain some of the transfers or interferences. But what is important in doing CA is to help learners become more conscious of the structures of the two languages and avoid problems while using either, especially when they translate. “CA is a fairly good predictor of avoiding errors” [6].

Being familiar with all the problems, a teacher can sensitize his students to the types of corrections he makes, to how they should function when they study, to react properly and to understand the points so deeply that may never face any problem in their career. In short, the whole aim is the usefulness of learners awareness of and productive involvement with active concentration. Of course, the role of feedback in the process of teaching and practicing should not be ignored, especially in terms of bringing about a lasting effect on learner’s behavior. “The role of teacher feedback... is clearly vital, but it may be that not all forms of feedback are as vital as we sometimes think” [7]. Therefore, no aspect of language teaching and learning can be accountable by itself, for what happens in this process. Anyhow, greater clarity and consistency of feedback is desirable if a job is worth doing properly.

For some teachers, the teaching of grammar means providing students with opportunities to use the language in real life situations where they can communicate. If this view is accepted and followed, our students may begin to learn to communicate in another language and use it correctly and appropriately. It is important to remember that instruction of grammar helps our students gain competence and confidence in the language [8]. The teacher can teach the rules of language, but more important is to encourage the students to practice and use what they know. However, in the grammar classes more attention should be paid to form and function of language to make the students familiar with basic grammatical patterns as well as to teach them how to make correct statements and use appropriate forms. Therefore, students must learn how to use the language correctly and appropriately which makes teaching of grammar a challenging task. In order to achieve the goals of language teaching, the teacher should use different techniques that may help him in his endeavor.

Master believes that grammatical instruction has neglected the role of discourse and pragmatics [9]. It is important to show the learners how sentences are built because only the knowledge of basic sentence structure may help to carry out pragmatic function. Knowing how and where to correct the students is part of the art of language teaching. It should be noted that any incomplete knowledge of language system (grammar) results in an inadequate, confusing, or erroneous use. Therefore, learning a foreign language is not easy and involves commitment of time and effort, but can be enjoyable when the students realize that what they have learned can be used in their career – communication and translation. To be of real use, a description

A Contrastive Analysis of Persian and English Nouns

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Abstract

Translation has been a subject of interest all through the history of language teaching and learning. Nouns as a major part of speech deserve to be studied and contrasted to facilitate the procedure of translation by foreign students. In this article, a contrastive study of Persian and English nouns is carried out to help teachers, students and those who are interested in the subject. In the conclusion some ideas on the use of this contrastive analysis of nouns and its benefits in language learning and translation are presented.

Keywords: nouns, contrastive analysis, parts of speech, translation, language learning.

Introduction

Currently, many serious statements are challenging contrastive analysis but it can be of some value to foreign language teaching. CA (contrastive analysis) has even been revitalized under the influence of generative transformational grammar and the theories associated with it [1]. The differences found in the two languages can be the chief source of difficulty in learning a second/foreign language. Even a language which is closely related to English provides substantial amount of interference. It is CA which helps teachers realize their students' errors and use them as a guide to their teaching. Such an analysis is of use to both inexperienced and experienced teachers, especially the former. Knowledge of the learner's language and its differences and similarities with the second/foreign one is of practical teaching use in many ways, one of which is translation [2].

The major contribution of the linguist to the teaching and learning a language is in a contrastive study of the systems of first and second/foreign languages, out of which comes an inventory of difficulties the students face and need special cure and emphasis in teaching. Sometimes the differences may seem obvious but not easy to explain. CA may help teachers learn to adapt themselves to the learner's needs rather than to impose upon him the preconceptions of how, what, and when to learn [3].

Contrastive analysis predicts the errors by comparing the linguistic systems of mother tongue and target language. Gradual learning of the target language system may result in a deeper understanding of it in general and a better method for