

**In The Name of God**



**Shahrood University of Technology**

English Language Department

M.Sc. Thesis in Language Teaching

**A Comparative Study of Semantic Prosody in Bilingual English-**

**Persian Dictionaries**

By: Vahideh Mortazavi

Supervisor:

Dr. Seyed Hamzeh Mousavi

January 2018

## **Acknowledgment**

I would like to take this opportunity to express my gratitude to my dear family who have provided me with their invaluable support and assistance. I would also like to appreciate my supervisor, Dr. Seyed Hamzeh Mousavi

## تعهدنامه

اینجانب **وحیده مرتضوی** دانشجوی دوره کارشناسی ارشد رشته آموزش زبان گروه زبان انگلیسی

دانشگاه صنعتی شاهرود نویسنده پایان نامه **مطالعه مقایسه ای معنای عروضی در دیکشنریهای دو زبانه**

تحت راهنمایی دکتر سید حمزه موسوی متعهد می شوم .

- تحقیقات در این پایان نامه توسط اینجانب انجام شده است و از صحت و اصالت برخوردار است .
- در استفاده از نتایج پژوهشهای محققان دیگر به مرجع مورد استفاده استناد شده است .
- مطالب مندرج در پایان نامه تاکنون توسط خود یا فرد دیگری برای دریافت هیچ نوع مدرک یا امتیازی در هیچ جا ارائه نشده است .
- کلیه حقوق معنوی این اثر متعلق به دانشگاه صنعتی شاهرود می باشد و مقالات مستخرج با نام «دانشگاه صنعتی شاهرود» و یا «**Shahrood University of Technology**» به چاپ خواهد رسید .
- حقوق معنوی تمام افرادی که در به دست آمدن نتایج اصلی پایان نامه تأثیرگذار بوده اند در مقالات مستخرج از پایان نامه رعایت می گردد.
- در کلیه مراحل انجام این پایان نامه، در مواردی که از موجود زنده ( یا بافتهای آنها ) استفاده شده است ضوابط و اصول اخلاقی رعایت شده است .
- در کلیه مراحل انجام این پایان نامه، در مواردی که به حوزه اطلاعات شخصی افراد دسترسی یافته یا استفاده شده است اصل رازداری ، ضوابط و اصول اخلاق انسانی رعایت شده است .

## تاریخ

### امضای دانشجو

#### مالکیت نتایج و حق نشر

- کلیه حقوق معنوی این اثر و محصولات آن (مقالات مستخرج ، کتاب ، برنامه های رایانه ای ، نرم افزارها و تجهیزات ساخته شده است ) متعلق به دانشگاه صنعتی شاهرود می باشد . این مطلب باید به نحو مقتضی در تولیدات علمی مربوطه ذکر شود .
- استفاده از اطلاعات و نتایج موجود در پایان نامه بدون ذکر مرجع مجاز نمی باشد.

## **Abstract**

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the semantic prosody of a set of verbs across 10 English-Persian bilingual dictionaries based on Alan Partington's (1998) view of semantic prosody. The corpus consisted of ten most reliable bilingual English-Persian dictionaries. Drawing on a qualitative descriptive design and method, a total number of six lexical items (break out, cause, impress, bring about, influence, and happen) were looked up in the English-Persian dictionaries and the semantic prosody of their meanings was reported. The results revealed that in some particular cases, semantic prosody and semantic preference were as observable in Persian as they were in English. Moreover, the data also suggested that a lexicographer's success in transferring the semantic prosody is a function of the nature of the source word, that is- none of the dictionaries could accurately transfer the semantic prosody of all the selected words. It was therefore suggested that bilingual dictionaries need to be hired with caution because disagreement in semantic prosody across any two languages is inevitable. Further analysis of the data also revealed that printed dictionaries were more reliable than online dictionaries in terms of providing adequate and accurate semantic prosody for the selected words. Overall, it was concluded that it can be difficult for semantic prosody to become an integral part of bilingual lexicographic descriptions. Implications for theory and practice are presented.

**Keywords:** Semantic prosody; bilingual English-Persian dictionaries; Alan Partington; Qualitative research design; Persian translations

## Table of Contents

Abstract .....	VI
Dedication.....	III
Acknowledgments.....	IV
List of Tables .....	X

## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

1.1. CHAPTER OVERVIEW .....	2
1.2. PRELIMINARIES.....	2
1.3. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM.....	4
1.4. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES.....	6
1.4.1. RESEARCH HYPOTHESES.....	6
1.5. SIGNIFICANCE AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY.....	7
1.6. LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY: .....	8
1.7. DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS.....	8
1.7.1. GENERAL TRANSLATION: .....	9
1.7.2. TARGET LANGUAGE AND SOURCE LANGUAGE .....	9
1.7.3. SEMANTIC PROSODY.....	9
1.8. ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY.....	10

## **Chapter 2: Review of the Literature**

2.1. LEXICOGRAPHY AND DICTIONARIES: A BRIEF OVERVIEW .....	12
2.2. DEBATES OVER UTILIZING DICTIONARIES IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION .....	13

2.3. DIVERSITIES IN BILINGUAL AND MONOLINGUAL DICTIONARIES.....	15
2.4. THE PROS AND CONS OF UTILIZING BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES .....	19
2.5. STUDIES ON SEMANTIC PROSODY IN DICTIONARIES AND BEYOND ...	20

### **Chapter 3: Methodology**

3.1. CHAPTER OVERVIEW .....	26
3.2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	26
3.2.1. FEATURES OF SEMANTIC PROSODY.....	29
3.2.2. EVALUATIVE OR ATTITUDINAL FUNCTION .....	30
3.3. RESEARCH DESIGN .....	31
3.4. CORPUS AND THE RATIONAL FOR CORPUS SELECTION .....	32
3.5. PROCEDURE.....	35
3.6. DATA ANALYSIS .....	35
3.6.1. THE JUSTIFICATION OF CONTENT ANALYSIS AS A METHODOLOGY	35

### **Chapter 4: Results**

4.1. CHAPTER OVERVIEW .....	42
4.2. RESTATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	42



4.2.1. COMPARISON OF SEMANTIC PROSODY ACROSS THE TWO LANGUAGES .....	42
---	----

**Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion**

5.1. OVERVIEW .....	66
5.2. DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS.....	66
5.3. CONCLUSIONS.....	71
5.4. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS .....	72
5.5. LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH .....	74
REFERENCES.....	75

## List of Tables

<b>Table 3.1 List of lexical items .....</b>	<b>34</b>
<b>Table 4.1. Semantic prosody of the Persian translations of the word “break out” .....</b>	<b>45</b>
<b>Table 4.2. Semantic prosody of the Persian translations of the word cause .....</b>	<b>48</b>
<b>Table 4.3. Semantic prosody of the Persian translations of the word impress .....</b>	<b>51</b>
<b>Table 4.4. Semantic prosody of the Persian translations of the word bring about.....</b>	<b>54</b>
<b>Table 4.5. Semantic prosody of the Persian translations of the word influence .....</b>	<b>57</b>
<b>Table 4.6. Semantic prosody of the Persian translations of the word happen .....</b>	<b>60</b>
<b>Table 4.7. The frequency of the semantic prosody agreements between the six English words and their Persian translation in each of the 10 dictionaries.....</b>	<b>63</b>

---

# **Chapter One:**

## **Introduction**

---

## **1. 1. Chapter Overview**

The present chapter reports the research problem, definition of the key terms employed, research questions and particular limitations and delimitations of the study.

## **1.2. Preliminaries**

Prosody is one of the elements of language that contributes to lexical, rhythmic, and acoustic effects and the relationship between the words that are being spoken (Schwanenflugel, Hamilton, Kuhn, Wisenbaker, & Stahl, 2004). The construct semantic prosody, which refers to how there is a positive, negative, or neutral connotation between a word and its collocations (Barfield, 2012), has attracted a lot of attention among researchers. For instance, the noun ‘cause’ has a negative semantic prosody, with its collocations, including ‘accident’, ‘concern’, ‘damage’, and ‘death’, whereas ‘provide’ has a positive semantic profile and tends to co-occur with care, food, help, and money (Stubbs, 1995). Sinclair (2004, p. 249) shows how ‘place’ (used informally as in come back to my place) has a semantic prosody of “informal invitation” (as in ‘would you like to come back to my place’), and a tendency to co-occur with (or semantic preference for) the possessive adjective “my” (my place) and other items meaning “local travel.”

This collocational meaning is achieved by accompanying verbs of movement (such as come), adverbs of place (such as back, home, over) and the preposition to (come back to my place). Other recent analyses are beginning to examine “long-distance collocations” (Siepmann, 2005) and, as Hunston (2007) maintains, the powerful role that lexical collocations play in producing meaning beyond clause boundaries and across stretches of discourse. Furthermore, Hunston (2007) in his account of the role of semantic prosody in language teaching maintains that there is

little consensus about the features of semantic prosody. The author attributes these areas of disagreement to:

(a) the issue of whether semantic prosody is to be regarded as the property of a word/expression or of a longer unit of meaning; (b) whether semantic prosody's attitudinal meaning is best expressed as a binary distinction (positive vs. negative, favorable vs. unfavorable) or whether its characterization should ideally be conceptually more specific; (c) the question of whether semantic prosody can 'carry over' from one context to another; and (d) whether the semantic prosody is a type of meaning or a semantic or pragmatic process Hunston (2007, p. 250).

From a lexicographic perspective, the pragmatic (functional) meaning has been argued to be an integral part of (monolingual and bilingual) dictionaries (Hunston 2007). In other words, meaning cannot be recorded in a particular dictionary without considering the role of its co-text. Similarly, in the present research, I subscribe to the view that dictionaries should not limit themselves to presenting the "referential", "denotative", "cognitive", "semantic", etc., meaning, but should focus on providing an all-inclusive description of inherent semantic features of words, as well as the pragmatic circumstances of their use.

A number of successful (English) language learner's dictionaries have been designed to take into account these functional aspects of meaning. Although still lagging behind, bilingual dictionaries have also moved on from being mere "glossaries" expected to provide no more than "prototypical", "systemic" or "cognitive" equivalents to not only corpus based but "corpus-like" language resources, in which the user can explore words in real use. However, the absence of empirical studies on semantic prosody in bilingual English-Persian dictionaries necessitates the present research work.

The purpose of this study is, therefore, to review the nature of the semantic prosody in the Persian language through examining English words with confirmed semantic prosodies in bilingual English-Persian dictionaries with an analytic viewpoint.

### **1.3. Statement of the Problem**

Partington (1998) maintains that second or foreign language learners can generally benefit from being exposed to semantic prosody in bilingual dictionaries as many of these learners do not have direct access to the concealed grasp of pragmatic meaning that native speakers do. Therefore, it could be argued that in bilingual dictionaries collocational meaning, particularly semantic prosody, which by nature has little or no meaning in its own right and is functional, phraseological, textual and abstracted from various contextual features – which is why some authors have described the phenomenon as “collocational”, “discourse” or “pragmatic” prosody (e.g., Stubbs 1995, 2001) – should be presented as part of the definition or in an additional gloss. The question, however, remains as to how exactly semantic prosodies should be presented in bilingual dictionaries (Hunston, 2002), and this is addressed in the present research. On the other hand, very few studies have been performed on the transfer and comparison of the semantic prosody in bilingual dictionaries. Two available cases are in English-Chinese bilingual dictionaries (See Xiao & McEnery, 2006 and Zhang C., 2010) and the English-Korean bilingual dictionaries (See Lee, 2011). Xiao & McEnery (2006) indicate that the knowledge of the semantic prosody concept should be introduced and taught in language learning classrooms. Then, Zhang (2009) recommends augmenting the language learners’ communicative competence by integrating language-learning classes into semantic prosody concept. He also suggests that bilingual lexicographers describe the semantic prosody information of lexical words so it could be helpful for

language learners especially for the beginners and intermediate English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners.

What emerges clearly from the two studies, however, is that such phenomena should receive far more attention in pedagogy (language teaching, translation teaching, and dictionary compilation) than is currently the case. Therefore, the researcher intends to examine the same.

Another reason why input did not become intake was learners paid less attention to the low salience cues, especially when accurate LI translations were available to SLA. Thus, learners did not pay as much attention to the equivalent L2 words or content as to the LI translations. Even with multiple cues in L2, most learners had a tendency to focus on one cue a time. Therefore, based on Ellis' argument, learners may pay more attention to LI translation than L2 information in the bilingual dictionaries. Cook (2001) indicated one of the reasons why EFL learners prefer to use bilingual dictionaries is because when reading monolingual dictionaries, as he stated, "L2 learners have cognitive deficits with reading that are not caused so much by lack of language ability as by difficulties with processing information in a second language " (p. 92). Cognitive deficits occur even for advanced EFL learners. They cannot acquire vocabulary words or texts automatically as native speakers do in both the quality and quantity. From one study she mentioned conducted by Favreau and Segalowitz (1983), even for advanced L2 learners, they read L2 texts much slower compared with their reading in LI. Laufer and Harder (1997) concerned about the simple one-word translation in BDs might mislead EFL learners in finding accurate meanings. Schofield (1999) considered the short information in LI provided by BDs for easy assimilation might cause misleading to accurate meanings because only very few words can meet the translation equivalence.

Besides, Boggard's (1998) study found that EFL learners got lost on finding accurate meanings with high frequency words by using BDs.

## 1.4. Research Questions and Hypotheses

As mentioned, the present research study examines semantic prosody in a set of verbs across English-Persian bilingual dictionaries and provides possible methods and strategies for rendering such items: To this end, the following research questions were formulated to answer the aims of the study:

- **Research Q1:** To what extent the semantic prosody of English lexical items is adequately presented by bilingual English-Persian dictionaries?
- **Research Q2:** To what extent the semantic prosodies of lexical items are presented in bilingual English-Persian dictionaries in line with the study reports in the field?

### 1.4.1. Research Hypotheses

The above set of questions is aimed to guide this research systematically. However, in this heuristic research process, I stayed open to serendipitous discoveries as well. In other words, I was very much alert to unexpected findings emerging from the data and prepared to incorporate those findings into an ever-evolving conceptual understanding of the translation process. With these issues in mind, the following hypotheses were carefully formulated in order to answer the research questions posed above:

- **RH1:** The semantic prosody of English lexical items is not adequately presented by bilingual English-Persian dictionaries.
- **RH2:** The semantic prosodies of lexical items presented in bilingual English-Persian



dictionaries are not in line with the study reports in the field.

### **1.5. Significance and Purpose of the Study**

In order to achieve communicative competency in a second or foreign language, one central issue is the acquisition and application of a great number of collocational meanings that are often referred to as formulaic sequences. It has been widely recognized that these formulaic sequences make up a large portion of both oral and written language and play a major role in language processing and use (Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2004; Wood, 2010; Wray, 2002). Moreover, researchers have argued that the command of these collocational meanings is an essential aspect of communicative competence because it enables language users to process and produce language both fluently and accurately (Schmitt, 2004; Wood, 2010; Wray, 2002). With this in mind, the results of this study will help lexicographers and language teachers identify the ways of conveying pragmatics in the examined bilingual dictionaries. Further, it could be argued that the present study is a pioneering research in the Iranian context, which provides an overview of the current state of bilingual lexicography with specific reference to semantic prosody in English-Persian dictionaries. Then, the present research can provide guidelines for novice lexicographers and translators who need to gain the initial knowledge to take the preliminary steps (see Vossoughi & Pour Ebrahim, 2010). Finally, in the present research work, the writer hopes that this analysis will be a worthy inspiration for those who want to do further research with regard to semantic prosody as regard bilingual dictionaries.

## **1.6. Limitations and Delimitations of the Study:**

*Limitations:* Every research suffers from imposed limitations and this study is no exception. As studying semantic prosody in bilingual English-Persian dictionaries was the main objective of the present study, specifying all English words and their semantic prosody were quite impossible. Meanwhile, the inaccessibility of a comprehensive and authenticated parallel corpus in English and Persian aggravated the situation. Time also was a major limitation, which influenced the researcher's decision on selecting the size of the corpus; though, it was tried to lessen its imposed effect by doing more in less time. Finally, another limitation of this study was that the bilingual dictionaries were not randomly selected; as a result, the interpretation of the results may have been affected by the nature of the data.

*Delimitations:* This study is delimited to bilingual English Persian dictionaries only, and, therefore, the findings of the study may not be generalizable to dictionaries in other languages. Moreover, all the measures for assessing semantic prosodies and quality checks were standardized measures; however, they were piloted in order to examine their reliability. Finally, as the present corpus was delimited to English-Persian bilingual dictionaries, it would be necessary to examine if similar conclusions can be drawn in the case of other bilingual dictionaries.

## **1.7. Definition of Key Terms**

Although these terms will be elaborated on throughout the study, brief definitions of some the terms are presented here:

### **1.7.1. General Translation:**

According Bahaa-eddin (2011), in his review of translation theories, general translation consists of transferring the meaning of the source language into the target language. In this particular study, it is operationalized as translating in bilingual dictionaries from English into Persian.

### **1.7.2. Target Language and Source Language:**

In translation, according Bahaa-eddin (2011), as our theoretical definition, the target language is the language being translated to; it is the antonym of the source language, which is the language being translated from. In this study, as our practical definition, the target language was Persian and the source language was English.

### **1.7.3. Semantic prosody:**

Semantic prosody refers to “the attitudinal meaning, often pragmatic, of a lexical item” (p. 270). It is also worth mentioning that attitudinal and pragmatic meanings are multifaceted and therefore semantic prosody has been characterized in a variety of ways by various researchers (Whitsitt, 2005; Hunston, 2007; Stewart, 2010). The various facets of the definition of semantic prosody are evident from a chronological review of linguists’ work on this aspect of language (Stewart, 2010). On the other hand, it should be pointed out that the notion of prosody is taken from phonology; prosody is a meaningful event that is not necessarily located in a particular unit of expression, but may spread over several. The recognition that semantic prosody is a constant feature of different texts is one of the most important contributions of corpus work so far (Sinclair, 2003).

## **1.8. Organization of the study**

The current thesis is organized around five chapters. The first chapter, 'Introduction', discusses the importance of semantic prosody. Chapter one also includes the aim and significance of the study, research questions, hypothesis, delimitations and organizational study of the research. Chapter two 'Literature Review' presents an overview of the literature related to each of the research questions and the variables of the present study. The third chapter introduces the methodology for carrying out the study. Following this, chapter four covers the analysis of the data and the results. Eventually, chapter five deals with discussion, conclusions and implications of the study.

---

# **Chapter Two:**

## **Review of the Literature**

---

## **2.1. Lexicography and Dictionaries: A Brief Overview**

Traditionally, lexicography has been defined in narrow terms, as the practice of compiling and writing dictionaries (Jackson, 2013). This brief definition raises a certain number of questions. Is lexicography simply a practice or is it also, as Landau (2001) claims, an art and a craft? Does it include other activities related to the production of dictionaries, such as planning, editing, and revising? Are only dictionaries, and no other types of reference works, studied by lexicographers? Lexicography is a complex activity; it involves planning, data compilation, writing, editing, publishing, and marketing (Fontenelle, 2008). It is much more than merely mechanical, demanding creativity and craftsmanship along with familiarity with underlying theoretical principles to guide the practice. As Kirkness (2004, p. 56) writes, the definition of lexicography comprises such terms as art, craft, process, and activity “to emphasize the high degree of human knowledge, insight, judgement and skill required to produce the text of a successful reference work designed to be of practical use and benefit in real-life situations.” Finally, alphabetically-arranged word lists are certainly not the only type of reference works to come under the realm of lexicography. As a craft, lexicography has existed in various cultures for more than 4000 years, from the first word lists written on clay tablets to modern computerized databanks and online dictionaries (Derenick & Windle, 2000). Historically, the forces giving rise to lexicographic activity are related to several fields of endeavor, including commerce, politics, education, religion, sciences, linguistics, language planning, and communication sciences. Interest in lexicography and its products has increased greatly over the last two decades as a result, in part, of international commerce, tourism, foreign language teaching, and the existence of international organizations (Derenick & Windle,

2000). There are also scientific reasons that have contributed to this increased interest: the study of the lexicon has become essential in linguistic theory, foreign language teaching methods, and information science (Hartmann, 2016). Furthermore, the computer is now widely applied to lexicographical work, which has led not only to new compilation technologies and formats of reference works, but also to the use of lexicographic work in new fields, such as machine translation. The horizons of lexicography have been extended to such a point that, as Hausmann et al. (1989, p. xvii) and Hartmann and James (1998, p. vi) indicate, since the end of the 1970s a more global academic field concerned with dictionaries and other reference works has emerged.

## **2.2. Debates over Utilizing Dictionaries in Second Language**

### **Acquisition**

The functions of dictionaries are varied and useful because the content presents plentiful information to help users choose the correct usages. They help learners to understand and produce texts; thereafter, the vocabulary words checked are gradually acquired, based on the individual differences of those using these dictionaries. On the contrary, a few studies have been concerned about the disadvantages of dictionary usages. McKeown (1993) considered looking up words in the dictionaries as a fast and superficial solution for new words consultation and believed learners forgot these words soon afterwards. Miller and Gildea (1987) also claimed the uselessness of looking up words in the dictionaries for new words and then writing the words in sentences as L2 language learning strategies. Nevertheless, their opinions failed to clearly describe how well the dictionaries' functions were displayed and how deeply the vocabulary words were acquired from checking the dictionaries. Moreover, they did not consider the limits of time and motivation in the results. Greenwood (2002) indicated the definitions were

the obstacles learners encountered in learning new words. He questioned whether dictionaries provide accurate definitions and sufficient information to the users. Gonzalez (1999) generalized the reasons why dictionaries become a last resort for learners is that the frequent looking-up behaviors distract their attention and interferes with their short-term memory processing. The debates on whether the role of the first language in second language learning is a help or a barrier never stops. According to Folse's (2004) survey conducted in Japan, EFL teachers preferred learners to use monolingual dictionaries rather than bilingual ones because they believed the abundant information from monolingual dictionaries facilitated student learning. Folse (2004) thus argued against the helpfulness of monolingual dictionaries and instead suggested teachers allow students to use bilingual dictionaries in class.

Many studies indicated that EFL learners prefer utilizing bilingual dictionaries (BDs) rather than monolingual dictionaries (MDs) (Atkins, 1985; MacFarquhar & Richards, 1983; Schofield, 1999). Even by using bilingual dictionaries as LI to L2, as Pujol, Corrius and Masnou (2006) found from several studies, most EFL learners attempted to skip the monolingual translation. EFL learners feel more confident once they can connect the meaning of a target language word or expression with their first language (Cubillo, 2002). Besides, BDs are convenient for their expeditions of decoding vocabulary words by LI translation, even though experts consider MDs are more useful with more syntactic and semantic information.

The debates over choosing monolingual or bilingual dictionaries seem perpetual. Nation (2001) reported that Atkins and Varantola's study showed advanced language learners translate more from one language to another when access to both types of dictionaries was available. They discovered that most of their dictionary consultations centered around finding or checking on a second language translation. For this type of



task, bilingual dictionary use provided higher success than monolingual dictionary consultation. Cook (2001) suggested that EFL learners could choose either monolingual or bilingual dictionaries based on their beliefs of how their first and target languages are stored in their brains. If the learners believed words to be stored separately in the mind, they prefer monolingual dictionaries. In the opposite case, if users believe that these two languages can be stored effectively in one place, a translation dictionary will become their preference. Those categories are roughly based on the word description and comprehensible information provided by the dictionaries.

This dichotomy ignored the possibility of using specific learner type dictionaries. One type of monolingual dictionary is known as learners' dictionaries. These dictionaries provide more examples than typical monolingual dictionaries (Schofield, 1997). Research by MacFarquhar and Richards (1983) indicated that English learners showed a clear preference for a dictionary with a limited vocabulary and definitions. In some monolingual dictionaries for learners of English the definitions are written within a controlled vocabulary of about 2,000 words. As Nation (1990) pointed out, the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE) used a 2,000 vocabulary words. Although the later versions have made slight changes, LDOCE is expected to be comprehensible and feasible for even lower EFL learners to use as a vocabulary reference. Besides what Cook noted about the mental model of word storage, the reasons that EFL learners may not favor monolingual dictionaries may relate to personal psychological factors, unfamiliarity, and conventional learning habits.

### **2.3. Diversities in Bilingual and Monolingual Dictionaries**

Experts consider monolingual dictionaries the most helpful vocabulary references (Schofield, 1997) because of the abundant information provided on linguistics and

semantics. The advantages of monolingual dictionaries, besides providing more information and examples than other types of dictionaries (Fan, 2000; Laufer & Hadder, 1997), include L2 to L2 translation and sentence samples that L2 learners can utilize directly or paraphrase. Compared with other types of dictionary, monolingual translations could also avoid leaving out some information missing or mistranslation compared with other dictionaries which may have caused by the historical or cultural differences, for instance, the translation for particular food or festivals in English speaking countries. In some instances, the monolingual dictionaries provide better explanations of L2 words and phrases that cannot be found or do not have a similar meaning in first language (L1). Schofield (1997) specified the adequate usage of monolingual dictionaries in two cases: when the learners have some limited knowledge of the L2 words they are capable of consulting monolingual dictionaries for spelling, grammar, and other types of information independently; and when L2 learners have no knowledge or are unfamiliar with the word. Learners are capable of correlating an approximate L2 word because the monolingual dictionaries provide the functions of cross references for them to find words with related meanings or they are encouraged to utilize bilingual dictionaries first. With the increasing familiarity of using monolingual dictionaries, Laufer and Melamed (1994) found that L2 users of monolingual dictionaries performed better in reading comprehension and language production than users of bilingual dictionaries. Their findings may imply the benefits of quantity and long-term exposure of the target language in the learners' second language acquisition progress. On the other hand, Fan (2000) expressed the disadvantages of monolingual dictionaries by evaluating Hong Kong students' dictionary look-up behavior. The monolingual dictionaries provide multiple meanings of individual words that confused L2 learners. From her reviews of literature, many researchers are concerned that L2

learners with insufficient vocabulary will fail to find the accurate meanings, forms, phrases, or grammatical usages by using monolingual dictionaries because they provide too much information and too many illustrations. Another concern is that without LI translation, L2 learners will fail to connect the meaning to the L2 vocabulary words.

Bilingual dictionaries are popular among L2 learners. Two major advantages of bilingual dictionaries as Nation (2001) noted, is that they "provide meanings in a very accessible way" and "bi-directional-English first language and first language-English" (p. 290). Bilingual dictionaries have become L2 learners' preference in EFL countries, and a research study has shown them to be more efficient than utilizing a L2 to LI glossary translation than a L2 to L2 glossary (Oskarsson, 1975). Even though bilingual dictionaries are popular, they receive the most criticism. This is because not only do they provide the most limited L2 information, but as Fan (2000) pointed out, L2 learners who successfully find equal meanings of LI and L2 words may believe the different languages have similar or the same word forms or stylistic characteristics. Notwithstanding the fact that monolingual dictionaries are less helpful in L2 to L2 translations, a high percentage of teachers recommend their use to L2 learners to assist their reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition (Folse, 2004; Schofield, 1997). Many researchers recommend monolingual dictionaries for intermediate and advanced learners.

Monolingual dictionaries indeed convey more information (Laufer & Hadar, 1997) and avoid the gaps after language translations. Using monolingual dictionaries may train L2 learners to think and retain vocabulary words in L2 without mental lexical transformation loss. Baxter (1980) supported L2 learners' utilization of monolingual dictionaries because he believed that L2 learners are capable of deriving the meaning of words through the definition; even if they encounter grammatical errors in the

definitions, it will not hamper their vocabulary acquisition. Moreover, he argued that L2 learners can explicate the L2 meanings from monolingual dictionaries, and when they utilize the words productively are able to paraphrase and fill the cultural gaps following translation. It is not surprising that most L2 learners utilize dictionaries for a single purpose—to check the meanings of the new words—instead of learning those words. Alfredo's (2005) study of 150 EFL learners' vocabulary learning strategies revealed that learners' dictionary use was to check the meaning of the words rather than guess the meaning from the context, quietly reread the words, connect the L2 words to L1 definitions, and note the English meanings in the blank. The least used strategies were using audiotapes, taking notes, or using electronic dictionaries. Cubillo (2002) also presented similar findings based on personal teaching experiences. L2 learners generally skip the unknown words or lumber through the text (Gonzalez, 1999). As for preferences in using monolingual or bilingual dictionaries, most students tended to select bilingual dictionaries because they felt more comfortable with them (Cubillo, 2002). Feeling comfortable reduces learning anxiety and may further help learners to establish their self-confidence and motivate them to learn more automatically. Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) explained that motivation is crucial to language learning because of its relationship to the learners' needs for achievement and self-confidence.

From the learners' perspective, they tend to choose a shortcut to comprehend a new vocabulary word instead of developing effective strategies that require more effort (Krashen, 1985). No matter whether the information is from monolingual or bilingual dictionaries, L2 learners need to avoid ambiguous or insufficient definitions that are confusing. Learners' comfort with the learning environment and their willingness to make more mental efforts mutually affect each other.

## **2.4. The Pros and Cons of Utilizing Bilingual Dictionaries**

Bilingual dictionaries provide a shortcut for EFL learners to the target of comprehension-translation. Comprehensive translation is necessary for vocabulary acquisition. Nevertheless, the fact is that EFL learners have preferences in seeking LI translation (Laufer & Levitzky, 2006), and they often ignore part of the text or vocabulary words in the reading context. It is obvious that EFL readers may not have paid attention to all the information provided but to just a part of it. Ellis (2006a) discussed the impacts of selective attention and transfer phenomena and discovered the paradox of LI and L2 acquisition. By reviewing the learning strategies affecting LI and L2, he concluded, "The success of LI acquisition and the limitations of L2 acquisition both derive from the same basic learning principles" (p. 164). From his analysis, he discovered that what prevented SLA was the fact that learners failed to transfer the input to intake knowledge. The reason for this was learners' selective attention of either language caused the formation of a fragile foundation for L2. Further, linguistic elements of LI close to L2 facilitate EFL learners in acquiring L2; nevertheless, as learning continues LI becomes interference if learners fail to transfer their learning habits to L2 successfully.

Another reason why input did not become intake was learners paid less attention to the low salience cues, especially when accurate LI translations were available to SLA. Thus, learners did not pay as much attention to the equivalent L2 words or content as to the LI translations. Even with multiple cues in L2, most learners had a tendency to focus on one cue a time. Therefore, based on Ellis' argument, learners may pay more attention to LI translation than L2 information in the bilingual dictionaries. Cook (2001) indicated one of the reasons why EFL learners prefer to use bilingual dictionaries is because when reading monolingual dictionaries, as he stated, "L2 learners have

cognitive deficits with reading that are not caused so much by lack of language ability as by difficulties with processing information in a second language " (p. 92). Cognitive deficits occur even for advanced EFL learners. They cannot acquire vocabulary words or texts automatically as native speakers do in both the quality and quantity. From one study she mentioned conducted by Favreau and Segalowitz (1983), even for advanced L2 learners, they read L2 texts much slower compared with their reading in LI. Laufer and Harder (1997) concerned about the simple one-word translation in BDs might mislead EFL learners in finding accurate meanings. Schofield (1999) considered the short information in LI provided by BDs for easy assimilation might cause misleading to accurate meanings because only very few words can meet the translation equivalence. Besides, Boggard's (1998) study found that EFL learners got lost on finding accurate meanings with high frequency words by using BDs.

## **2.5. Studies on Semantic Prosody in Dictionaries and Beyond**

Throughout English as a Foreign Language (EFL) / English as a Second Language (ESL) student's careers, they will most likely use English dictionaries and bilingual dictionaries to determine definitions of individual words and word phrases. Zhang (2009) has argued that semantic prosody can help students understand how to use lexical items. Pan and Feng (2003) have stated that semantic prosody should be included in dictionaries especially when they are being designed for EFL learners. To determine the semantic prosody of three lexical items in English-Chinese bilingual dictionaries, Ji and We (2000) chose set in, rife, and propaganda and noted that none of the dictionaries they examined listed the phrase set in as being of a negative semantic prosody. The word rife was translated as if it had a positive semantic prosody. Wang (2004) examined five lexical items, incite,

impressive, contribute to, and persist and persevere in ten English-Chinese bilingual dictionaries. Wang found that impressive and persevere were appropriately translated into a positive semantic prosody, but that incite and persist were not presented in a negative semantic prosody in the dictionaries. The phrase, contribute to had a neutral prosody. Both of these studies suggested that the poor representation of semantic prosody could mislead NNES learners in their use of English words. In general, the lack of semantic prosody, with regards to word translations, in the designing of both English and Chinese dictionaries for EFL/ESL students is not ideal. Partington (1998) has stated, "Information about semantic prosody is vital for non-native speakers to understand not only what is grammatically possible in their language production but... also what is appropriate and what actually happens" (pp. 8). Zhang (2009) lists two reasons for the errors associated with semantic prosody and NNES learning. The first is that, "ESL/EFL instructors may be unaware of the importance of semantic prosody and underestimate it in teaching" and second that, "ESL/EFL textbooks or bilingual dictionaries do not explicitly represent the feature of semantic prosody or may provide inappropriate semantic prosodic information that can mislead language learners" (pp. 9-10). This has been noted in the Ji and We (2000) and Wang (2004) studies of English-Chinese bilingual dictionaries cited in Lee (2011). The use of semantic prosodic information should be made explicit in bilingual dictionaries especially for lower level and intermediate level NNES students who use bilingual dictionaries often. Over the last twenty years or so semantic prosody has aroused considerable attention within corpus linguistics. Interest in the subject was initially kindled in the late 1980s by Sinclair's observations about the lexico-grammatical environment of the phrasal verb SET in, later reiterated in Sinclair (1991: 74). Using

a corpus of around 7.3 million words, the author makes the following observation about this verb's grammatical subjects:

The most striking feature of this phrasal verb is the nature of its subjects. In general, they refer to unpleasant states of affairs ... The main vocabulary is rot, decay, malaise, despair, ill-will, decadence, impoverishment, infection, prejudice, vicious (circle), rigor mortis, numbness, bitterness, mannerism, anticlimax, anarchy, disillusion, disillusionment, slump. Not one of these is conventionally desirable or attractive (Sinclair, 1991, pp, (74–75).

Later in the same work the author notes, within the framework of his idiom principle that “Many uses of words and phrases show a tendency to occur in a certain semantic environment. For example the word happen is associated with unpleasant things – accidents and the like”. Sinclair's reading of semantic prosody is to be understood within his model of the extended lexical unit, which integrates collocation, colligation, semantic preference and semantic prosody. For example, in Sinclair 1996 (pp. 84–91) the author analyses the lexical items (a) the naked eye, for which he posits a prosody of ‘difficulty’ on account of its frequent co-occurrence with sequences such as barely visible to the, too faint to be seen with, invisible to, and (b) true feelings, for which he claims a prosody of ‘reluctance’, i.e., reluctance to express our true feelings, on account of co-occurrences such as will never reveal, prevents me from expressing, less open about showing, guilty about expressing. The pragmatic implications of semantic prosody are made explicit in the following:

A semantic prosody...is attitudinal, and on the pragmatic side of the semantics pragmatics continuum. It is thus capable of a wide range of realization, because in pragmatic expressions the normal semantic values of



the words are not necessarily relevant. But once noticed among the variety of expression, it is immediately clear that the semantic prosody has a leading role to play in the integration of an item with its surroundings. It expresses something close to the ‘function’ of an item – it shows how the rest of the item is to be interpreted functionally. (Sinclair 1996, pp. 87–88)

The term ‘semantic prosody’ itself first gained currency in Louw (1993), and was based upon a parallel with Firth’s discussions of prosody in phonological terms. In this respect Firth was concerned with the way sounds transcend segmental boundaries. The exact realization of the phoneme /k/, for example, is dependent upon the sounds adjacent to it. The /k/ of cat is not the same as the /k/ of key, because during the realization of the consonant the mouth is already making provision for the production of the next sound. Thus the /k/ of cat prepares for the production of /æ/ rather than /i:/ or any other sound, by a process of “phonological colouring” (Louw, 1993, p. 158). In the same way, it has been claimed, an expression such as symptomatic of (ibid: 170) prepares (the hearer / reader) for what follows, in this case something undesirable (co-occurrences of symptomatic of in the corpus used by Louw include parental paralysis, management inadequacies, numerous disorders). Phonemes are influenced by the sounds which precede them as well as those which follow, and therefore the semantic analogy extends not only to words that appear after the keyword, but more generally to the keyword’s close surrounds. According to Louw (1993, p. 159), “the habitual collocates of the form set in are capable of colouring it, so it can no longer be seen in isolation from its semantic prosody, which is established through the semantic consistency of its subjects”. Hence Louw’s (1993, p. 157) definition of semantic prosody as a “consistent aura of meaning with which a form is imbued by its collocates”, with its

implications of a transfer of meaning to a given lexical item from its habitual context. His examples of lexical items with prosodies include *utterly*, *bent on* and *symptomatic of*, for all of which he claims negative prosodies. The concept of semantic prosody is a contentious one – see Hunston (2007) and Stewart (forthcoming) for a summary of the particular bones of contention. Important contributions to the subject have also been made by Stubbs (1996, 2001), Partington (1998, 2004), Tognini-Bonelli (2001), Hunston (2002), Whitsitt (2005).

---

# **Chapter Three: Methodology**

---

### **3.1. Chapter Overview**

This chapter begins with a general overview of corpus linguistics methods as useful tools to analyze different texts. This chapter presents also the research design, instrumentation, theoretical framework, procedures, target corpus and sampling, and the statistical analyses utilized for this study. It also contains discussions about the appropriateness of the research method and design.

### **3.2. Theoretical Framework**

When describing a word form that was likely to be followed by something positive or negative, Sinclair (1987) referred to “good/positive” or “bad/negative” semantic profiles. For instance, Sinclair pointed out a specific lexico-grammatical environment, or “semantic environment” (1987, p. 112), of the phrasal verb *set in*, noting that the subjects of this phrasal verb always referred to some unpleasant states of affairs, such as rot, decay, despair, or bitterness, and so *set in* is described as having a bad semantic profile (pp. 155–6). The co-occurrence of the most frequent collocates and *set in* thus created a negative default value, which explained both semantic associations of words and speakers’ attitudes about their choice of words. This phenomenon was termed “semantic prosody” by Louw (1993, p. 157) when he linked semantic prosody to Firth’s (1957) phonological prosody due to a process of “phonological coloring” (Louw, 1993, p. 158).

Louw defined semantic prosody as a “consistent aura of meaning with which a form is imbued by its collocates” (p. 157), and so the words *utterly*, *bent on*, and *symptomatic of*, which were followed by *destroying*, *ruining*, *clinical*, *depression*, and *multitude of sins*, were imbued with undesirable meanings due to a transfer of meaning

from their habitual co-text. Semantic prosodies were seen as “reflections of either pejorative or ameliorative [semantic] changes [over a period of time]” (p. 169) that were based on frequent forms that “can bifurcate into ‘good’ and ‘bad’” (p. 171). Louw (1993) also pointed out the diachronic nature of semantic prosodies, remarking that semantic prosodies were “the product of a long period of refinements through historical change” (p. 164). Bublitz (1996) observed that “Words can have a specific halo or profile, which may be positive, pleasant and good, or else negative, unpleasant and bad,” similar to Louw’s (1993) “aura of meaning,” and that semantic prosody refers to negative or positive semantic coloring of node and collocate (Bublitz, 1996, p. 9). Stubbs (1995) examined the semantic prosody of a great number of words, including *accost*, *amid*, *amusement*, *backdrop*, *care*, *cause*, *commit*, *community*, *deadlock*, *distinctly*, *soar*, *heritage*, *lavish*, *loiter*, *lurk*, *proper*, *provide*, *somewhat*, *standard*, *undergo*, and *untold*, and shifted to the term “discourse prosody” from “semantic prosody” in order to better describe the discourse and pragmatic functions of semantic prosody. Sinclair (1996) developed the notion of “semantic prosody” in his model of five categories of co-collection of the lexical item/unit of meaning: Semantic prosody and the core were obligatory categories and collocation, colligation, and semantic preference optional categories. Sinclair defined “semantic prosody” as:

attitudinal, and on the pragmatic side of the semantic/pragmatics continuum . . . It expresses something close to the ‘function’ of an item—it shows how the rest of the item is to be interpreted functionally. Without it, the string of words just ‘means’—it is not put to use in a viable communication” (1996, pp. 87–8).

In fact, semantic prosody came to be regarded as the most important of all, as “the selection of the item is controlled by the prosody, because the whole point of

expressing oneself in this way is to pre-evaluate the actions, which would otherwise be evaluated positively by the reader/listener” (Sinclair, 2004, p. 175).

From the point of view of the speaker/writer, the textual process of constructing a lexical item was described as follows:

- First the speaker/writer selects a semantic prosody of x applied to semantic preferences.
- The semantic preference in turn controls the collocational and colligational patterns.
- The final component of the lexical item is the (invariable) core. (Sinclair, 2004, p. 34)

Thus Sinclair (2004, p. 34) suggested that “the initial choice of semantic prosody is the functional choice which links meaning to purpose; all subsequent choices within the lexical item relate back to the prosody.” For instance, the “textual sequence” (p. 34) of Sinclair’s (1991, 2004) “the naked eye” as a lexical item is described as follows: The speaker/writer selects a prosody of difficulty applied to a semantic preference of visibility. The semantic preference controls the collocational and colligational patterns, and is divided into verbs, typically see, and adjectives, typically visible. With see, etc., there is a strong colligation with modals—particularly can, could in the expression of difficulty—and with the preposition with to link with the final segment. With visible, etc., the pattern of collocation is principally with degree adverbs, and the negative morpheme in-; the following preposition is to. Partington (2004, pp. 131–2) defined semantic prosody as a kind of evaluative meaning which was “spread over a unit of language which potentially goes well beyond the single orthographic word and is much less evident to the naked eye.” Coffin, Hewings, and O’Halloran (2004) defined the term as “The way in which apparently neutral terms come to carry positive or negative

associations through regularly occurring in particular collocations” (p. xxi). In Hoey’s (2005) work on “lexical priming,” words and word sequences were primed for “pragmatic association” (pp. 26–9); for instance, the property of “vagueness” was associated with “sixty,” which co-occurred with about, around, almost, up to, and getting on for (pp. 26–7). Baker, Hardie, and McEnery (2006) define semantic prosody as “the way that words in a corpus can collocate with a related set of words or phrases, often revealing (hidden) attitudes” (p. 58).

### **3.2.1. Features of Semantic Prosody**

Hunston (2007, p. 250) identifies a few “sites of disagreement” regarding the features of semantic prosody, namely (a) “the issue of whether semantic prosody is to be regarded as the property of a word/expression or of a longer unit of meaning”; (b) “whether semantic prosody’s attitudinal meaning is best expressed as a binary distinction (positive vs. negative, favourable vs. unfavourable) or whether its characterization should ideally be conceptually more specific”; (c) “the question of whether semantic prosody can ‘carry over’ from one context to another”; and (d) whether the semantic prosody is a type of meaning or a type of semantic or pragmatic process. Very recently, Stewart (2010) gave a summary of features of semantic prosody, many of which are observed to stem from either Sinclair’s or Louw’s tradition. Features from Sinclair’s approach are that:

- it is central to the unit of meaning, one of the two obligatory elements;
- it is considered within a synchronic framework;
- it is a feature of a unit which is larger than the single word/expression;
- it is not restricted to semantically “neutral” lexical items; and
- it is not restricted to descriptions in terms of “good” or “bad.”

Features from Louw's approach are that:

- it is transferred or attached meaning;
- it is considered within both a diachronic and a synchronic framework;
- it is a feature of the word;
- it is associated above all with more semantically "neutral" lexical items; and
- it is generally expressed by means of a binary distinction whose primary terms are "good" and "bad" (positive/negative, favorable/unfavorable).

(Stewart, 2010, p. 161).

Stewart argues that Sinclair's interpretation of "semantic prosody" should be referred to as "discourse prosody" to better capture the function in the discourse, and Louw's interpretation remains to be referred to as "semantic prosody" (2010, p. 161). Stewart therefore suggests that the concept of "semantic prosody" be "profitably split into two concepts, notwithstanding some overlap between the two" (p. 163). The semantic prosody features reviewed by Stewart (2010) are (a) contributions from scholars on the concept since 1987, with a focus on its evaluative function and its hidden quality; (b) synchronic and diachronic issues; (c) the potential drawbacks of viewing semantic prosody as belonging to the word or part of a longer sequence of words; and (d) issues regarding inferring semantic prosody from concordances from corpus data. Some of the features (Hunston, 2007; Stewart, 2010) will be further described in the following.

### **3.2.2. Evaluative or Attitudinal Function**

Stewart observes that "the evaluative quality of lexical items described as being associated with semantic prosody is not always manifest," arguing that some semantic prosody examples in the literature do not actually express any attitudinal function, for example, describing something as visible or invisible to the "naked eye" (Sinclair,



2004) could be heard as a statement of fact rather than an evaluation or attitude (Stewart, 2010, p. 22). In addition, semantic prosodies are considered context-dependent and register-dependent. For example, when load of is followed by rubbish, nonsense, and so forth (Louw, 2000), the phrase suggests a negative evaluation, but the same prosody does not apply to “Another Load of Crystal Candy and Cadbury’s Chocolate Being Delivered” written on the side of a fleet of delivery trucks, the writer’s intention of which may be to get others’ attention “through an eye-catching word combination” (Stewart, 2010, p. 23). Another example is the verb “cause,” which “loses its association with negative evaluation when it occurs in ‘scientific’ registers” (Hunston, 2007, p. 263), although such are often individual instances of occurrence rather than the norm. Stewart notes that the evaluative function of semantic prosody is sometimes equated to connotation, expressing “second-order or peripheral meanings” (Stubbs, 1993, p. 35), and yet the connotative aspect is in conflict with Sinclair’s view, that is, semantic prosody plays “a central, pivotal role within the unit of meaning” (Stewart, 2010, p. 40)

### **3.3. Research Design**

Two research designs are mostly discussed in the literature, qualitative and quantitative (Creswell, 2013). The research approach taken in the present study was the qualitative one. According to Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, and Walker (2013), the goal of a qualitative research is to explore a behavior and develop new. Moreover, qualitative method is an exploratory design that seeks to explore the underlying reasons of the problem with a view of developing a theory (Cozby, 2009). However, the goal for a quantitative study is to collect facts and test them to verify a theory (Edmonds, & Kennedy, 2017).

Quantitative methods involve huge quantities of numerical data and the use of mathematical statistical tools for data analysis (Christensen et al., 2011).

The present research relied on a qualitative descriptive design and method (Cresswell, 2013) to analyze the corpus. In other words, this study used a descriptive qualitative method to study the problem, because this study was concerned with describing and counting the semantic prosodies in the data. The goal of qualitative descriptive studies is a comprehensive summarization, in everyday terms, of specific events experienced by individuals or groups of individuals. While phenomenology, grounded theory, and ethnography also are descriptive qualitative approaches, by nature, they are not exclusively in the descriptive domain because they also tend to explain phenomena (Ary, Jacobs, Irvine, & Walker, 2013). Thus, a basic/fundamental qualitative descriptive design is a valuable method in and of itself.

### **3.4. Corpus and the Rational for Corpus Selection**

In order to shed some light on the process of corpus selection for this study, this section particularly discusses the criteria used to select the corpus and some of the difficulties encountered in the process of selecting the corpus for the purposes of this study. Corpora may be parallel (consisting of source texts and their translations) or comparable (consisting of translated and non-translated texts of similar criteria in a single language). Comparable corpora should "cover a similar domain, variety of language and time span, and be of comparable length" (Baker 1995: 233). Translational corpora may be unidirectional (consisting of translations into one language only) or multidirectional (consisting of translations to and from a certain language) (Zanettin 2008). In addition, translational corpora might include texts produced by different groups (such as professionals or learners) or methods (such as human-translated or

machine-translated). For this study, I built a set of specialized corpora based on the combined criteria of text-type/genre and production method. Given that any corpus design entails considerations of representativeness, and involves important decisions regarding the corpus size, text selection criteria, a balance of texts, length of individual samples, mark-up, etc. (Baker 1995), I selected the following bilingual English-Persian dictionaries as the corpora:

- Alī Muḥammad Ḥaqq-šīnās, Intihābī, N., & Samī'ī, Ḥ. (2010). Farhang Moaser One-volume Millennium English-Persian Dictionary: Two Volumes in One.
- Ḥayyīm, S. (1999). Farhang Moaser: Larger English-Persian dictionary (Vol. 2). Farhang Moaser Publishers.
- Aryanpur Kashani, M. (2003). The Aryanpur progressive English-Persian dictionary (Ch\* ap-i 1. ed.). Tehran: Jahan.
- Bateni, M. R., (1390) Pooya English- Persian Dictionary: IPA
- Bestdic Online Dictionary available at <http://bestdic.ir/>
- Fastdic Online Dictionary available at <https://fastdic.com/>
- Lingoes Translator (A Dictionary Software)

Moreover, the verbs to be included for this study was randomly selected from among the most important verbs mentioned in the previous research (Hunston, 2007; Kennedy, 2003; Louw, 1993, 2000; Stubbs, 1995, 2001; Wei, 2002; Xiao & McEnery, 2006). The selection of the key words included for data analysis was based on the following list:

Table 3.1 List of lexical items

<b>Author</b>	<b>Lexical Item</b>	<b>Type of Prosody</b>
<b>Sinclair</b>	Break out	-
	Happen	-
	Set in [intransitive]	-
<b>Louw</b>	(Be) bent on	-
	(be) build up of [intransitive]	-
	build up a [transitive]	+
	Utterly	-
	End up + verb+ ing	-
	Get oneself verb+ ed	-
	A recipe for	-
<b>Stubbs</b>	Cause (v.)	-
	Accost	-
	Fan the flame	
	Signs of	-
	Career	+
	Underage	-
	Teenager(s)	-
	Potentially (adj.)	-
	Provide	+
<b>Partington</b>	Commit	-
	Peddle/peddler	-
	Dealings	-
	Completely	-
	Rife	-
	Impressive	+
<b>Hunston</b>	Influence	-
<b>Tognini- Bonelli</b>	Face (As a (v.) in abstract sentences)	-

<b>Hunston</b>	Sit through	-
<b>Schmit &amp; Carter</b>	Bordering on	-
<b>Xiao &amp; McEnery</b>	Bring about	+

### **3.5. Procedure**

First the thirty selected lexical items and their counterparts in Persian were examined in a parallel corpus and then they were probed in nine most reliable bilingual English-Persian dictionaries (five Hardcopies and four Softcopies) according to the outcomes of the first step in line with the aforementioned studies. Examining the very lexical items in an English-Persian parallel corpus would be considered as the second step.

### **3.6. Data Analysis**

The different semantic prosodies identified throughout the materials were extracted word for word and coded. Frequency of coded units were counted and tabulated in order to establish which ones are the most dominant. After the extraction and coding of units, each unit was placed into a thematic category or sub-category for analysis. Eventually, intra-coder reliability was determined through the percentage of agreement on the coding of units which yielded a Cronbach Alpha of (93%).

#### **3.6.1. The Justification of Content Analysis as a Methodology**

The content analysis approach adopted in this study is a well-established research methodology in the social studies field. Weinbrenner (1992) suggested several useful dimensions of textbook analysis. However, as a group of European social studies scholars pointed out, “It seems utopian to try and analyze all textbooks under all aspects. A pragmatic approach is therefore necessary to find out whether a textbook is

useful in a given situation and in the hands of a particular teacher or pupil” (Bourdillon, 1992, p. 10). In light of that advice, this used a qualitative content analysis approach which, according to Krippendorff (2004), is a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context, a method of inquiry into symbolic meaning of messages. Similarly, Fraenkel and Wallen (1996, p.405) describe it as “a technique that enables researchers to study human behavior in an indirect way, through an analysis of their communications, e.g., textbooks, essays, newspapers, novels, graffiti, films.

Content analysis has evolved into a scientific method and deals with issues related to social sciences, linguistics, educational material, history, anthropology, and psychology. This approach has proved to be practical in so far as it helps to handle large volumes of written documents. Besides, with the use of computer software, it has become possible to carry out large-scale studies in different fields of research. Krippendorff (1980) further describes content analysis as a research technique and a practical guide to action. Its purpose is not only to lay down the facts or to interpret them, but it also seeks to provide reliable analysis of the data so that researchers can replicate the research findings. Content analysis is somehow difficult to define, partly because it is less standardized than is for instance a more quantitative methodology. Moreover, it usually has a broader focus than does quantitative research, and it “must be performed relative to and justified in terms of the context of the data” (Krippendorff, 1980, p.23). Ideally, content analysis involves studying the data in all or most of their complexity, rather than focusing on just a few aspects. Therefore, it is important to note that content analysis is an unobtrusive technique and it accepts unstructured material. It is also context sensitive and thereby able to process symbolic forms and it can cope with large volumes of data. On the other hand, the notion of “inference” is a key concept in

content analysis, and it refers to the way the researcher relates data to their context. In other words, the researcher should attempt to select a sample that represents a population of interest. This is important because his goal is ultimately to generalize from the sample to the population, that is, to make inferences about the population from the results obtained with the sample.

Content analysis makes different forms of inferences, such as: (a) systems, which lead to extrapolations of data (e.g., trends, pattern, differences); (b) standards, which provide a kind of reference (e.g., evaluations, identifications, audits); (c) indices and symptoms, which are indicators of a particular phenomenon (e.g., Smoke indicates fire); (d) linguistic representations, which are assertions about the reality they represent (e.g., personal letters may show what the world of the writer looks like); (e) communications, which are messages exchanged between interlocutors and which modify the relationship in the process (e.g., dynamics of behavior, conflict, or consensus can be inferred from a certain type of communication); and (f) institutional processes, which can be inferred from the analysis of messages from specific social institutions (e.g., journalism, politics, education, literature, and the arts). These forms of inferences, notes Creswell (2013) are the different ways in which content analysis uses known variables from an empirical sample in order to make guesses (inferences) about unknown variables in a population that the sample represents.

Moreover, data sampling is needed in content analysis for practical purposes. Its goal is to reduce a large volume of data to a manageable size. Because of the great expense involved in studying most data of interest, Creswell (2013) thinks that content analysts must content themselves with studying a sample that presumably represents the large volume of data. . . Solving the problem of making the study feasible to conduct creates a different problem in the process, namely, whether the results can be

generalized from the sample to the entire population (i.e., whether generalizations can be made from the sample to an entire group of persons, things, or events having at least one trait in common called “population”). The content analyst should definitely determine the specific population to which inferences from the sample are directed.

The procedures used in selecting the sample are very important. Therefore, the sampling process is guided by a “sampling plan” (Krippendorff, 1980, p.66) which explains how to obtain a representative sample of the population of interest.

To obtain a representative sample for a specific population, each unit must stand the same chance of being represented in the collection of sampling units. Otherwise, a bias may occur which can distort the research findings and lead to false conclusions. The relationship between the population, the sample, and generalizability is such that not all samples are representative of the entire population. Only representative samples allow the researcher to generalize about the population. One way for researchers to get around the problem of sampling, suggests Krippendorff (1980), is to study the entire population of interest. Another way is to determine relevant units, i.e., which units need to be included in the sample. This can be done by random sampling where no pattern is employed in sample selection. However, what is an adequate sample size? There is no set answer. The smaller the size of the sample, the greater the risk of sampling error. A large sample often tends to be a better representative of the population than a small one. Clearly the sample has to be manageable. Content analysis research is considered as valid to the extent that its inferences or conclusions are supported in the presence of independently obtained evidence. In other words, independent evidence should corroborate the results of the research. The validity of a study can be established for example by having a panel of experts’ codes a few samples from the sample population to confirm one’s findings. Krippendorff makes a distinction between internal validity



and external validity. Internal validity or reliability refers to whether the research process yields a result that is valid in the research context.



---

# **Chapter Four: Results**

---

## **4.1. Chapter Overview**

The present study set out to investigate the semantic prosody of a set of verbs across 10 English-Persian bilingual dictionaries based on Alan Partington's (1998) view of semantic prosody. A total number of six lexical items (break out, cause, impress, bring about, influence, and happen) were looked up in the ten English-Persian dictionaries and the semantic prosody of their meanings was reported. The following steps were taken in this study. The collected data were summed up, using content analysis as an approach and then were tabulated based on the results. In this chapter, the semantic prosody of the Persian equivalents of each lexical item will be compared across the ten dictionaries as well as their English semantic prosody. The first part of this chapter presents the statistical analysis of the data.

## **4.2. Restatement of the research questions**

- **Research Q1:** To what extent the semantic prosody of English lexical items is adequately presented by bilingual English-Persian dictionaries?
- **Research Q2:** To what extent the semantic prosodies of lexical items are presented in bilingual English-Persian dictionaries in line with the study reports in the field?

### **4.2.1. Comparison of Semantic prosody across the Two Languages**

In order to determine the extent to which the semantic prosody of English lexical items is adequately presented by bilingual English-Persian dictionaries, the first Persian equivalent (from among several equivalents) for each vocabulary in each dictionary is presented with its most frequent collocations. The first vocabulary to be analyzed was the verb "break out". In English, this word collocates with negative words like "fire"

and “war”: For example, ‘the fire broke out’. In this manner, it is considered to have a negative semantic prosody (Partington, 1998, p. 77). Regarding the selected Persian equivalent for this word, four dictionaries including Hezareh (Millenium) English-Persian dictionary (2013), Millennium English- Persian Dictionary (2010, and Farhang Moaser, and Haim, S. (2009) had opted for " dær gereftæn ". Since the word collocated with " nezaʔ, dzæng " (quarrel, war) in Persian, it shows that the word has similarly negative semantic prosody. Interestingly, the three online dictionaries including Google Translate, Bestdic Online Dictionary, and Fastdic Online Dictionary as well as the software dictionary (Lingoes Translator) had opted for " fojuʔ yaftæn " as the Persian equivalent for the word “break out”.

- (1) Dær            dʒolge                            teliko beyne iran    væ    yunan  
 dzæng        dær    gereft  
 In            plain                    Tellicobetween Iran and    Greece war        in  
                   get  
 There happened a war between Iran and Greece in the Telco Plain.
- (2) Beine        æfrare        mosællæh    nezaʔ        dær    gereft.  
 Among    assassin        armed        quarrel        in    got.  
 Quarrel broke out among armed assassins.

The verb " fojuʔ jaftæn " generally collocates with " bimari, virus "(disease, virus). Since these collocations are considered as negative words, it can be claimed that the online dictionaries as well as the software dictionary are parallel with the English word “break out” in terms of semantic prosody.

- (3) In            bimari        dær        færqe        asia        biʃtær        fojuʔ  
 yafte.  
 This        disease        in            East Asia        more        epidemy  
 found.  
 This disease has spread more in east Asia.
- (4) In        virus        axiræn        fojuʔe    biʃtari    yafte.  
 This virus        recently        spread        more    found.  
 This virus has recently spread more widely.

The two remaining dictionaries including Aryanpur, M. (2008) and Bateni, M. R., (2011) had preferred the word " ʃoruʔ ʃodæn " over other equivalents. The word generally collocated with both positive and negative words.

(5)	mæraseme	qore keʃie	dʒame	dʒæhani	2018	ʃoruʔ
ʃod.						
	Ceremony	draw	cup	world	2018	begin
became.						

World cup 2018 drawing ceremony was started.

(6)	ba	exradʒe	ou	dærdesærha	ʃoru ʃod.
	With	dismissal	he	troubles	started.
	With his dismissal the troubles started.				

Positive collocations of this word are "reqabæt, mosabeqe "(competition, match). On the other hand, this word can also collocate with Words of negative connotation such as "dʒæŋ,extelaf, doʃvari" (war, discord, difficulty). Then, drawing on Stubb (1996), if both positive and negative collocates exist in the context, the target word can be said to have a neutral or mixed prosody. So, Aryanpur, M. (2008) and Bateni, M. R., (2011) have opted for a Persian translation of "break out" which deviates its English equivalent in terms of semantic prosody. Some sentences including positive and negative collocates of the translations of the word "break out" were selected and presented in table 4.1.

Table 4.1. Semantic prosody of the Persian translations of the word “break out”

Break out (-)	Dictionaries	Translation	Example
	Millenium (2013),	dær gereftæn	bær sære rønt dær bazare petroʃimi dzang dær gereft
	Millennium (2010), Farhang Moaser, and Haim (2009)	(-)	on top rent in market Petrochemical war in got.  war took place on the rents in Petrochemical market.
	Google Translate, Bestdic Online Dictionary, and Fastdic Online Dictionary	ʃøju:ʔ jaftæn (-)	ehtemale ʃøjuʔ jaftæne bimarii dær mænnteqe digær vodʒud daræd.  Possibility spread finding disease in Areas other exist has.
	Lingoes Translator		There is the possibility of the spread of the disease in other areas.
	Aryanpur, M. (2008), Bateni, M. R., (2011)	ʃoruʔ ʃodæn (n)	(-)bædbæxti æz andʒa ʃoru:ʔ ʃod ke goftim ma mæntæqi hæstim.
			Misery from there started that told we rational are.  Misery started when we told that we are rational.  (+) sale tæhsilie dzædid dær xælxal ʃoruʔ ʃode Year educational new in khalkhal started. New educational year was started in Khalkhal.

*Note:* - = negative semantic prosody. + = positive semantic prosody. n = neutral semantic prosody.

The second word to be analyzed was the verb “cause”. Some previous studies (e.g. Louw, 1995) have reported that this word mainly collocates with negative words including *problem, difficulty, disease*: e.g. *the cause of the accident is not clear*. This word is followed by expressions of undesirable things, which is considered to have a negative semantic prosody (Partington, 1998, p. 77). Regarding the selected Persian equivalent for this word, Farhang Moaser, and Haim, S. (2009) have selected "elæte tʃizi budæn". In the Persian language, the verb can collocate with both positive and negative nouns including "bimari, piʃraft, etefaʃ" (disease, development, event).

(7) In fæaliætha elæte piʃrafte ʃerkæt konændegan æst.  
 This activities cause of development participants is.  
 These activities are the cause of participants’ development.

(8) ʃærayete dzævi elæte tæxirhaye motævali æst.  
 Conditions weather cause delays repeated is.  
 Weather conditions is the main cause of repetitive delays

Hence, concerning semantic prosody, the word "elæte tʃizi budæn" is not similar to the English word “cause”. The other four printed dictionaries including Aryanpur, M. (2008) and Bateni, M. R., (2011) Hezareh (Millenium) English-Persian dictionary (2013), and Millennium English- Persian Dictionary (2010) as well as the offline dictionary (Lingoes Translator) has chosen the Persian word “baes ʃodæn” as the equivalent of “cause”. Although the word sometimes collocated with positive words (e.g. ʃokufaii), it mainly collocated with the negative concepts such as bimari, dærdesær, hærdʒomærdʒ (disease, trouble, chaos).

(9) Vitamin si baese dzævanie pust miʃævæd.  
 Vitamin C cause youth skin becomes.  
 Vitamin C makes the skin younger.

(10) Bi næzmi dær xab baese bimarihaie ruhi væ dzesmi miʃævæd.



Disorder in sleep causes disease mental and physical become.

Sleep time disorder cause mental and physical diseases.

Moreover, the three online dictionaries including Google Translate, Bestdic Online Dictionary, and Fastdic Online Dictionary have selected “sæbæb fōdan” as the Persian equivalent for the word “cause”. This word is generally collocates with both positive and negative words. Regarding the positive collocations of this word “rofd, behbud” (growth, improvement) could be mentioned. On the other hand, this word can also collocate with words such as "ek:təbl, æz bein ræftæn" (disorder, destruction) which carry negative connotation. Since both positive and negative collocates exist in the context, the target word can be considered to have a neutral or mixed prosody (Stubb,1996).

(11) fæaliæte      fiziki      sæbæbe      rofde      selulhaie xakestæri  
mifævæd.

Activity      physical      causes      growth      cells      gray  
become.

Physical activity results in the growth of gray cells.

(12) Sigar kefidæn      sæbæbe      extelalate xab      mifævæd.

Smoking      causes      disorder sleep      becomes.

Smoking results in sleep disorder.

More sentences including positive and negative collocates of the translations of the word “cause”

Table 4.2. Semantic prosody of the Persian translations of the word cause

Cause (-)	Dictionaries	Translation	Example
	Farhang Moaser, Haim, S. (2009)	elætə tʃizi budæn (n)	bayæd qæbul konim ke ellæte in dʒarianat hæstim. Must accept that cause this events are. We must accept that we are the cause of these events
	Aryanpur, M. (2008), Bateni, M. R., (2011), Hezareh, Millenium, (2013), Millennium (2010), Lingoes Translator	baes fodæn (-)	tærkandæne dʒufe suræt baese fælædz fodæne æsab miʃævæd. Blast pimple face causes paralysis Become nerve becomes. Blasting pimples results in nerve paralysis.
	Google Translate, Bestdic Online Dictionary, Fastdic Online Dictionary	sæbæb fodan (n)	(-) bitævædzohi bæ kudæk sæbæbe ebtela be æfsordegi dær bozørgsoli miʃævæd. Inattention to child cause catching depression in adulthood become. Inattention to children at childhood causes depression at adulthood (+) røvjæte hoquqe ʃæhrvændi sæbæbe toseje pajdar miʃævæd. respect right citizenship cause development constant become. Respect for citizenship rights causes sustainable development.

*Note:* - = negative semantic prosody. + = positive semantic prosody. n = neutral semantic prosody

The next two words (impress and bring about) are considered as words with positive semantic prosody. The third lexical item to be analyzed was the verb “impress”. In English this word mainly collocates with positive concepts like “*favorably, greatly, particularly*”. For instance: *I was greatly impressed by the news.* Since the collocates are mainly positive words, this lexical item has a positive prosody. Regarding the selected Persian equivalent for this word, five dictionaries including Farhang Moaser, the three online dictionaries (Google Translate, Bestdic Online Dictionary, Fastdic Online Dictionary), and Lingoes Translator had preferred “*tæhte tæsir qærar dadæn*”. As we know, the Persian word mainly collocates with both positive and negative concepts. Since both positive and negative collocates exist in the context, this lexical item can be said to carry a neutral or mixed prosody.

(12) Edzrajæf            mæra    tæhte    tæsir    qærar dad.  
Performance        me        under    influence    put    give.  
His performance impressed me.

One dictionary \_ Bateni, M. R., (2011) \_ had preferred “*æsær gozsftæn*” as the Persian equivalent for the word “impress”. The verb generally collocates with both positive and negative concepts. Since this word does not carry any positive or negative senses (it is neutral in terms of semantic prosody), it is not parallel with the English word “impress” in terms of semantic prosody.

(13) In            hadese        xeili    bær        ræftaræf    æsær    gozajt.  
This    event        much    on        behavior    effect    put.  
This accident influenced him very much.

The four remaining dictionaries including Aryanpur, M. (2008), Hezareh (Millenium) English-Persian dictionary (2013), Millennium English- Persian Dictionary (2010), and Haim (2009) had preferred to choose the Persian word “tæsir gozaftæn” as the equivalent for “impress”. The verb generally collocates with both positive and negative word. As positive collocations of this word "mosbæt, fegerf, tʃæfmgir" (positive, strange, impressive) could be mentioned. On the other hand, this word can also collocate with "mænfi, moxæreb, bæd"(negative, destructive, ba) which carry negative connotation. Then, drawing on Stubb (1996), if both positive and negative collocates exist in the context, the node word can be said to bears a neutral or mixed prosody. So, these four dictionaries have opted for a Persian translation of “impress” which is not in parallel with it in terms of semantic prosody.

(14) nuʃidane ab bær salamæte kolieha tæsire mosbæt  
daræd.

Drinking water on health kidneys effect positive  
has.

Drinking water has a positive effect on the health of kidneys.

(15) mæsrafe bedune tædʒvize daru tasire mænfi  
migozarad.

Using without prescription medicine effect negative  
put.

Using medicine without prescription has a negative effect.

Further sentences including positive and negative collocates of the translations of the word “impress” were selected and presented in table 4.3.

Table 4.3. Semantic prosody of the Persian translations of the word impress

	Dictionaries	Translation	Example
<b>Impress (+)</b>	Farhang Moaser, Google Translate, Bestdic Online Dictionary, Fastdic Online Dictionary, Lingoes Translator	tæhte tæsir qærar dadæn	adate æfrade karizmatik baes (n) miʃævæd digæran tæhte tæs:r qærar begirænd. Habit individuals charismatic cause becomes others under influence put take. Charismatic individual's habits make others be impressed by them.
	Batani, M. R., (2011)	æsær gozʃtæn (n)	siasæte ærzie ʃonævær bær turism (n). niz tæsir migozaræd. Policy monetary floating on tourism Too influence put. Floating monetary exchange affects tourism.
	Aryanpur, M. (2008), Hezareh (Millenium) English-Persian dictionary (2013), Millennium English-Persian Dictionary (2010), Haim (2009)	tæsir gozʃtæn (n)	nufidane ab bær salamæte kolieha tæsire mosbæt daræd. Drinking water on health kidneys effect positive has. Drinking water has a positive effect on the health of kidneys. mæsrafe bedune tædzvize daru tasire mænfi migozarad. Using without prescription medicine effect negative put. Using medicine without prescription has a negative effect.

Note: - = negative semantic prosody. + = positive semantic prosody. n = neutral semantic prosody

The fourth word which was analyzed regarding semantic prosody was the verb “bring about”. In English, this word mainly collocates with positive words like “change”: *The decision will bring about active participation in classroom activities*. In this manner, it is considered to have a positive semantic prosody (Partington, 1998, p. 77). Regarding the selected Persian equivalent for this word, four dictionaries including Hezareh (Millenium) English-Persian dictionary (2013), Millennium English- Persian Dictionary (2010, and Farhang Moaser, and Haim, S. (2009) had opted for "færahæm aværdæn". Since the word mainly collocated with "æmkøn, tæri:r" (possibility, change) in Persian, it can be claimed that similar to its English equivalent, the word has a positive semantic prosody.

(16) xædamate interneti      emkanate      jædidi ra      færahæm  
miavææd.

Services    online    options    new Providence    brings.

Online services provide new options.

Interestingly, the three online dictionaries including Google Translate, Bestdic Online Dictionary, and Fastdic Online Dictionary as well as the software dictionary (Lingoes Translator) had opted for "sæbæb fædæn" as the Persian equivalent for the word “bring about”. Indeed, these dictionaries did not make any distinction between the translation of “cause” and “bring about” while one of these words has positive semantic prosody and the other has negative semantic prosody. The verb generally collocates with words of different senses. Since these collocations are neither considered as negative words nor as positive words, it can be claimed that the online dictionaries as well as the software dictionary are different from English word “bring about” in terms of semantic prosody. Indeed, while "baes fædæn" has neutral semantic prosody, “bring about” is positive in terms of semantic prosody.

(17) tʃe ævameɪli sæbæb ʃod bazi ra bebærim?  
 What factors reason become match win?  
 What factor made us win the match?

(18) æz beɪn ræfræne dʒæŋgəl sæbæbe xoʃksali  
 miʃævæd.  
 From between go jungle cause draught  
 becomes.  
 The destruction of jungles results in draught.

The two remaining dictionaries including Aryanpur, M. (2008) and Bateni, M. R., (2011) had preferred to choose the Persian word "be ærmæqan aværdæn" as the equivalent for "bring about". The word generally collocated with positive word. As positive collocations of this word "movæfæqiæt, xoʃbæxti" (success, happiness) could be mentioned. Then, drawing on Stubb (1996), if positive collocates exist in the context, the node word can be said to bears a positive semantic prosody. So, Aryanpur, M. (2008) and Bateni, M. R., (2011) have opted for a Persian translation of "bring about" which is in parallel with it in terms of semantic prosody.

(19) Tæhærok sælamæti be ærmæqn miavææd.  
 Activity health to gift bring.  
 Physical activity brings about health.

Some more sentences including positive and negative collocates of the translations of the word

"bring about" were selected and presented in table below.

Table 4.4. Semantic prosody of the Persian translations of the word bring about

<b>Bring about (+)</b>	<b>Dictionaries</b>	<b>Translation</b>	<b>Example</b>
	Millenium (2013), Millennium (2010), Farhang Moaser, and Haim (2009)	færahæm aværdæn (+)	defaʔe moqædæs emkane +) goftogu ba dzæhan ra færahæm miaværad. Defense holy possibility negotiation with world provide bring. Holy defense brings about the possibility of negotiating with the world.
	Google Translate, Bestdic Online Dictionary, and Fastdic Online Dictionary Lingoos Translator	sæbæb fodæn (n)	tæqva sæbæb miæværad ensan rahi ra berævæd ke bajæd miræfte. Virtue causes become human way go that must gone. Virtue makes human go the way he must had gone.
	Aryanpur, M. (2008) and Bateni, M. R., (2011)	(+)be ærmæqan aværdæn	(+) in kar bedune fæk asare xubi be ærmæqan miaværad. This work without doubt effects good to gift bring. This work will certainly bring about good effects.

*Note:* - = negative semantic prosody. + = positive semantic prosody. n = neutral semantic prosody

The next word to be analyzed for its semantic prosody is “influence” which is considered as neutral in terms of semantic prosody. It is considered as neutral because



collocated with both neutral, positive, and negative words including the adverbs “heavily, deeply, strongly”: *Marx was strongly influenced by the historian Niebuhr; Several factors are likely to influence this decision.* As the example reveals, the words around “influence” do not carry any positive or negative sense. Since both positive and negative collocates exist, it can be said to bears a neutral prosody (Hashemnia, Hosseini-masum, Yousefi, 2013). Out of the 10 dictionaries which were covered in this study, four equivalents were recorded as the Persian translation of the word “influence”. The three online dictionaries (Google Translate, Bestdic Online Dictionary, Fastdic Online Dictionary), Haim (2009) and Lingoes Translator had opted for "nofuz kærðæn bæŕ". As we know, the Persian word mainly collocated with both positive and negative concepts. Since both positive and negative collocates exist in the context, the node word can be said to bears a neutral or mixed prosody.

(20) hækerha movæfæq be nofuz be saite etela? ræsani fodænd.

Hackers succeeded to penetrate to site information-base became. The hackers managed to penetrate the information base.

Two dictionaries \_ Aryanpur, M. (2008) and Bateni, M. R., (2011) had provided the word "tæsir gozafstæn" as the translation of the word “influence”. The verb generally collocated with both positive and negative concepts. Since this word does not carry any positive or negative sense (it is neutral in terms of semantic prosody), it is parallel with the English word “influence” in terms of semantic prosody.

(21) ævamele ziadi bæŕ in dʒærjanat tæʒsir gozashtand.

Factors many on this affairs effect put.

Many factors influenced these affairs.

Two dictionaries \_Millennium English- Persian Dictionary (2013) and Farhang Moaser had. preferred the Persian word "tæhte tæsir qarar dadæn". This word is

parallel with the English word “influence” in terms of semantic prosody (both are neutral).

(22) Siasæt haje dʒdid ajandeje æfrade zjadi ra tæhte tæsir qærar midæhæd.

Policies new future people many under effect put gives.  
New policies influences the life of many people.

The last dictionary, Hezareh (Millenium) English-Persian dictionary (2010), had preferred to choose the Persian word “æsar gozâstæn” as the equivalent for “influence”. The generally collocated with both positive and negative word. As positive collocations of this word "mæsbæt, fegerf, tʃ æfmgir" (positive, wonderful, outstanding) could be mentioned. On the other hand, this word can also collocate with "mænfi, moxæreb, bæd" (negative, destructive, bad) which carry negative connotation. Then, drawing on Stubb (1996), if both positive and negative collocates exist in the context, the node word can be said to bears a neutral or mixed prosody.

(23) Musiqi be tærze qabele tævædʒohi bær ruhiat æsar migozaræd.

Music to way significantly on morale effect put.  
Music affects morale in a significant way.

(24) Etjade madær bar dʒænin æsære su migozaræd.

Addiction mother on foetus effect negative put.  
Addiction has a negative effect on the foetus.

So, these four dictionaries have opted for a Persian translation of “impress” which is not in parallel with it in terms of semantic prosody. Some sentences including positive and negative collocates of the translations of the word “influence” were selected and presented in table below.

Table 4.5. Semantic prosody of the Persian translations of the word influence

	<b>Dictionaries</b>	Translation	Example
<b>Influence (n)</b>	Google Translate, Bestdic Online Dictionary, Fastdic Online Dictionary, Lingoes Translator, Haim (2009)	nofuz kærdæn bær (n)	ou ke rænge dzævani væ (+) effæt daræd ta æmaq ruhæm nofuz mikonæd. He that color youth and chastity has to depth soul penetrate do. He who has the signs of youth and chastity penetrates into my soul. doʃmæn æz tæriqe tæqire (-) negæref nofuz mikonæd. Enemy from way change attitude infiltrate do. Enemy infiltrate through the change of attitudes.
	Aryanpur, M. (2008), Bateni, M. R., (2011)	tæsir gozaʃtæn (n)	bærdzæstegi haie færhængi (n) bær turism tæsir migozaræd. Prominence cultural on tourism influence put. Cultural prominence influences tourism industry.
	Millennium English- Persian Dictionary (2013), Farhang	tæhte tæsir qarar dadæn (n)	(n) tævanaei hajæf daværan ra tæhte tæsir qarar dad. Abilities referees under influence put.

	Moaser		His abilities impressed the referees.
	Millennium English-Persian Dictionary (2010)	(n) æsær gozaftæn	(n)tʃegune tæbiæt bær sælamætie ʃoma tæsir migozaræd? How nature on health you influence put? How does nature affect your health?

- : negative semantic prosody. + : positive semantic prosody. n : neutral semantic prosody.

The last word to be analyzed for its semantic prosody was “happen” which is considered as neutral in terms of semantic prosody (Sinclair, 1996). The word is considered as neutral because it can collocate with both neutral, positive, or negative words including the adverbs “never, sometimes, always”: *It’s easy to predict what will happen next*. As the example reveals, the words around “happen” do not carry any positive or negative sense. Since both positive and negative collocates exist, it can be said to bears a neutral prosody (Hashemnia, Hosseini-masum, Yousefi, 2013). Out of the 10 dictionaries which were covered in this study, five equivalents were recorded as the Persian translation of the word “happen”. Google Translate had used the word "be voqu peivæstæn", Bestdic Online Dictionary had used the word "bærxord kærdæn", Fastdic Online Dictionary has used the word "ruj dadæn", Haim (2009), Bateni, M. R., (2011), and Lingoes Translator had opted for "rox dadæn". Hezareh (Millenium) English-Persian dictionary (2013), Millennium English- Persian Dictionary (2010), Bateni, M. R., (2011), and Farhang Moaser had preferred to consider “etefaq oftadæn”

as the translation of “happen”. Out of the five suggested equivalents “be voqu peivæstæn, ruj dadæn, and rox dadæn” generally collocated with negative words like: "hadese" (accident) and "etefaq" (event). Then, they are considered as words with negative semantic prosody. So these three words are different from the source language word “happen” in terms of semantic prosody.

(25) In hadese dær saæte 16:50 rox dad.  
 This accident in o'clock 16.50 happened.  
 This accident happened at 16:50.

(26) Tjæra tæsadofe navhe amrikaei dær sænapur ruj dad?  
 Why collosion warship American in Singapur  
 happened?  
 Why the collision of the USA warship took happened in Singapur?

(27) Pæs lærزه dær bojnord be voqu? pejvæst.  
 After shock in Bojnourd happen.  
 Aftershocks happened in Bojnourd.

On the other hand, the two words "etefaq oftadæn, vaqe fodæn" are neutral in terms of semantic prosody because they co-occur with both positive and negative words.

(28) Dær in tjænd sal etefaqate xub væ bæde ziadi  
 oftadænd.  
 In this several year events good and bad many  
 fel.l  
 During these days many good and bad events happened.

(29) Etefataæf morede tæhsin vaqe fod.  
 Information case qppreciation happened.  
 His information was appreciated.

Table 4.6. Semantic prosody of the Persian translations of the word ha

	Dictionari es	Translati on	Example
<b>Happen (-)</b>	Haim (2009), Bateni, M. R., (2011), Lingoes Translator	rox dadæn (-)	41 mored hadese dʒadeʔi dær esfæhan rox dad. 41 cases accident road in Isfahan happened. 41 case of road accident happened in Isahan.
	Hezareh (Millenium) English-Persian dictionary (2013), Millennium English- Persian Dictionary (2010), Farhang Moaser, Bateni, M. R., (2011)	etefaq oftadæn, (n)	Bozorgtærin fæværan dær tule 12 sale æxi:r etefaq oftad. Largest eruption in length 12 years recent happened. The largest eruption happened in recent length 12 years. æfzajefe qeimæte næft (n) etefaq oftad. Increase price oil happened. An increase in oil prices occurred bæraje ævælinbar(+)

Happen (-)			<p>etefaq oftöd: hozu:re</p> <p>ferkæthaje tæræfe qærardöd dær næmajefgah.</p> <p>For first time</p> <p>companies happened: presence side contract in exhibition.</p> <p>It happened for the first time: the presence of contractors at the exhibition.</p>
	Google Translate	Be voqu peivæstæn (-)	<p>pij binie daneßjøre</p> <p>daneßgahe ilam be voqu peivæst.</p> <p>Prediction associate university Ilam to happened.</p> <p>The prediction of the associate professor of Ilam University came true.</p>
	Fastdic Online Dictionary	ruj dadæn(-)	<p>bejne moxalefin væ</p> <p>movafeqine dolæt moßadzere ruj dad. Between opponents and proponents government disputes happened.</p> <p>There were disputes between the proponents and the opponents.</p>

*Note*” -= negative semantic prosody. += positive semantic prosody. N: neutral semantic prosody

Then, it can be claimed that these two words are in line with the word “happen” in terms of semantic prosody. The following table summarizes the semantic prosody role of the word “happen” along with its Persian translations. As it was mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, the purpose of this study was to understand the extent the semantic prosody of English lexical items is adequately presented by bilingual English-Persian dictionaries. The criteria for the adequacy of the Persian translations in each dictionary is considered as the number of semantic prosody agreements between English word and its Persian translations. In other words, the more semantic prosody agreements between the source word and the target translation in a specific dictionary, the more adequate the dictionary is. The frequency of the semantic prosody agreements between the six English words and their Persian translation in each of the 10 dictionaries is presented below in Table 4.7.



Table 4.7. The frequency of the semantic prosody agreements between the six English words and their Persian translation in each of the 10 dictionaries.

	Haghsheenas	Farhang Moaser	Hain	Aryampur	Hezarah (Millenium)	Batani	Google Translate	Bestdic Online Dictionary	Fastdic Online Dictionary	Lingoes Translator	Percent of agreement
<b>Break out</b>	A	A	A	D	A	D	A	A	A	A	80
<b>Cause</b>	A	D	D	D	A	A	D	D	D	D	30
<b>Impress</b>	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	0
<b>Bring about</b>	A	A	A	A	A	A	D	D	D	D	60
<b>Influence</b>	A	A	A	A	A	A	D	D	D	D	60
<b>Happen</b>	A	A	D	A	A	A	D	D	D	D	50
<b>Percent of agreement</b>	83.33	66.67	50	50	83.33	66.67	16.77	16.77	16.77	16.77	
Paper dictionaries appropriate representation: 67%							Online dictionaries appropriate representation: 16%				

A: semantic prosody agreement with the Persian translation    D: semantic prosody disagreement with the Persian translation

Based on the results from Table 4.7., Haghsheenas and Hezarah (Millenium) are the most adequately translated English- Persian dictionaries because in five verbs (out of the six compared verbs) the translation agreed with the English word in terms of semantic prosody. On the other hand, Google Translate, Bestdic Online Dictionary, Fastdic Online Dictionary, and Lingoes Translator are the least adequately translated dictionaries because in all of them only on verb (out of the six compared verbs) the translation agreed with the English word in terms of semantic prosody.



---

# **Chapter Five:**

## **Discussion and Conclusion**

---

## 5.1. Overview

The primary objective of the present research was to investigate the semantic prosody of a set of verbs across 10 English-Persian bilingual dictionaries based on Alan Partington's (1998) view of semantic prosody. In this final chapter, a detailed discussion of the findings is provided and conclusions will be presented. Moreover, the chapter concludes with a discussion of the implications for policy and practice and also suggestions for further research.

## 5.2. Discussion and Interpretation of the Results

The findings of the present study added to the previous literature (e.g. Sardinha, 2000; Tognini-Bonelli 2001) regarding how and in what ways bilingual dictionaries could be useful or in some cases hampering, especially as regards the notion of semantic prosody. The findings indicated that, in some particular cases, semantic prosody and semantic preference are as observable in Persian as they are in English. For, example, regarding the selected Persian equivalent for the verb "break out", four dictionaries, including Hezareh (Millenium) English-Persian dictionary (2013), Millennium English-Persian Dictionary (2010, and Farhang Moaser, and Haim, S. (2009) had opted for " dær gereftæn ". Since the word collocats with " nezaʔ, dʒæng " (quarrel, war) in Persian, it shows that the word has negative semantic prosody as it is the case with its English semantic prosody. Interestingly, the three online dictionaries, including Google Translate, Bestdic Online Dictionary, and Fastdic Online Dictionary as well as the online software dictionary (Lingoes Translator) had also opted for " fojuʔ yaftæn " as the Persian equivalent for the word "break out", which has negative semantic prosody. While English and Persian could be regarded as distinctly unrelated languages, the collocational behaviour was found to be quite similar in the two languages. This is in

line with the findings of the studies in the literature which have so far been reported for related language pairs, e.g. English vs. Portuguese (Sardinha 2000) and English vs. Italian (Tognini-Bonelli 2001). The data may also provide support for the reason why bilingual dictionaries are popular among L2 learners as they can provide omprehensible LI translation (Stark, 2011).

Moreover, the major advantage of bilingual dictionaries, as Nation (2001) notes, is that they "provide meanings in a very accessible way" (p. 290). Even though bilingual dictionaries were found to be useful in this study, they were not successful in providing accurate semantic prosodies in all the cases and therefore it is suggested that they should be sued with caution. This is mainly because not only do they provide the most limited L2 information, but as Fan (2000) pointed out, L2 learners who successfully find equal meanings of LI and L2 words may believe the different languages have similar or the same word forms or stylistic characteristics. So, it is suggested that teachers use bilingual dictionaries with caution. Overall, although bilingual dictionaries and the functions they serve are varied and help learners to understand and produce texts (Jackson, 2013) and many consider consulting dictionaries an important strategy for L2 learners (e.g. Schmitt, 2000) this study showed that, in some cases, the use of such dictionaries for language learning purposes could be misleading. This point has been supported by Laufer and Harder's (1997), Schofield (1999) and Boggard's (1998). Laufer and Harder's (1997) were concerned with the simple one-word translations in bilingual dictionaries and the fact that these translations might mislead EFL learners in finding precise meanings. Schofield (1999) considers the information in LI provided by bilingual dictionaries for easy assimilation and the cases where the short information might mislead a person in obtaining actual and contextual meanings because only very few words can meet the translation equivalence. Boggard's (1998) found that EFL

learners could hardly ever find an accurate meaning with high-frequency words by using bilingual dictionaries. Further support is provided by Cubillo's (2002) study. He points out that bilingual dictionaries need to be hired with caution because disagreement in semantic prosody across any two languages is

inevitable. He adds that most students tended to select bilingual dictionaries because they feel more comfortable with them.

This is also in line with some experts' consideration that monolingual dictionaries are the most helpful vocabulary references (e.g. Schofield, 1997) because of the abundant information provided on linguistics and semantics. Some literature suggested that monolingual dictionaries are more beneficial than bilingual dictionaries to EFL learners. For instance, Winter (1992) pointed out an advantage of monolingual dictionaries over bilingual dictionaries is that when using monolingual dictionaries EFL learners can more effectively select an accurate L2 word from their memory bank. Monolingual dictionaries (Fan, 2000; Laufer & Hadder, 1997), in addition to providing the learners with more information and examples, offer L2 to L2 translations and sentence samples to the learners enabling them to utilize the information or paraphrase directly.. Compared with other types of dictionaries, monolingual dictionaries could also avoid missing information or misinterpretation of words compared with other dictionaries which may have caused by the historical or cultural differences. In some cases, the monolingual dictionaries provide better explanations of L2 words and phrases that cannot be found or do not have a similar meaning in the first language (L1). Schofield (1997) specified the adequate usage of monolingual dictionaries in two cases: when the learners have some limited knowledge of the L2 words they are capable of consulting monolingual dictionaries for spelling, grammar, and other types of

information independently; and when L2 learners have no knowledge or are unfamiliar with the word.

Moreover, the data suggested that a lexicographer's success in transferring the semantic prosody is a function of the nature of the source word. For instance, in this study, none of the dictionaries could accurately transfer the semantic prosody of the word "impress". Indeed while some words are transferred easily, others are not. Similarly, this point was mentioned in Wang's study. Wang (2004) showed that inappropriate representation of semantic prosody can lead to misuse of English words by non-native English speakers. Despite the inadequacy of the bilingual dictionaries representing appropriate semantic prosodies of the words (as mentioned above), the use of bilingual dictionaries in language learning classes is encouraged since bilingual dictionaries have become L2 learners' preference in EFL countries and has been shown to be more efficient than utilizing a L2 to L2 glossary (Oskarsson, 1975). A language learner has the choice of using a bilingual or a monolingual dictionary. In line with this, Cook (2001) suggests that EFL learners can choose either a monolingual or a bilingual dictionary based on how their first and target languages are stored in their brains. If the learners believed words to be stored separately in mind, they would choose a monolingual dictionary.

Moreover, considering the results above, it is now possible to discuss the second research question in light of the empirical evidence. Analysis of the data about the dictionaries appropriately representing the semantic prosodies of these six words shows that Haghshenas and Hezareh (millennium) are the two dictionaries with the highest appropriate (83.33%) semantic prosody of the words used for this study. On the other hand, the four online dictionaries, Google Translate, Bestdic Online Dictionary, Fastdic Online Dictionary, and Lingoes Translator with 16.77% appropriate representation of

semantic prosodies of these six words are the worst ones. The remaining four dictionaries, Farhang Moaser, Haim, Aryanpur, and Bateni with 66.67%, 50%, 50%, and 66.67% fall in the middle of the continuum.

Moreover, the order of the dictionaries' adequacy revealed to be as follows:

- Hezareh (Millenium)
- Haghshenas
- Farhang Moaser
- Bateni
- Aryanpur
- Haim
- Bestdic Online Dictionary
- Fastdic Online Dictionary
- Lingoes Translator
- Google Translate

Therefore, the results suggest that printed dictionaries are more reliable than online dictionaries in terms of providing adequate and accurate semantic prosody for the selected words. Printed dictionaries have often been compared with online dictionaries in the literature (e.g. Fuertes-Olivera and Nielsen, 2011) with regard to their functions their effects on language learning. Therefore, this finding supports de Schryver's (2003) contention that, as opposed to online dictionaries, printed dictionaries should be the best form of the dictionary for learning English vocabulary in general and collocations in particular. This finding also supports Fuertes-Olivera and Nielsen's (2011) finding that bilingual online dictionaries' treatment of translating semantic prosodies is either nonexistent or very poor. Therefore, it is suggested that in actual L2 classrooms,



students, especially those with lower levels of English proficiency, should be shown different instances of what online dictionaries can and cannot translate, especially in terms of semantic prosody, “so that language learners can be made aware of the uncertainty of relying on these systems” (Niño, 2009, p. 6). In general, L2 learners have varied strategies for learning a new word based on a personal preference among the available solutions and their specific purposes. They may, for example, ask teachers for a first language (L1) translation, check for a L1 cognate, use dictionaries, guess from context, and so on (Schmitt, 1997).

### **5.3. Conclusions**

Most EFL learners are used to bilingual dictionaries. The overall results of the study indicated that dictionary type plays a key role in providing accurate information about semantic prosody. The results of the study indicated that the use of online dictionaries (84% inappropriate representation) is not recommended to English learners except in cases where there are no other options because they fail to provide appropriate semantic prosody for the words in the target language (i.e. Farsi). However, based on the results provided in chapter four, printed dictionaries prove to be much more precise (50% and above) in representing semantic prosodies, thus, they are recommended. In addition, among the printed dictionaries used in this study, two proved to be more precise in representing the semantic prosodies of the words, Haghshenas and Hezareh (Millennium) with 83.33%.

Therefore, it is suggested that learners of English employ these two dictionaries if they can. The results also indicated that there is a considerable disagreement in the content of the dictionaries examined in this study. This point was even more evident in the case of the online dictionaries examined in this research. Based on

Cubillo's (2002) study, it was also suggested that bilingual dictionaries need to be hired with caution because disagreement in semantic prosody across any two languages is inevitable and because they often failed to explain important semantic differences between items. Overall, it is concluded that semantic prosody may not easily become an integral part of lexicographic descriptions (Šorli, 2013). This is important because the 21st Century language learner will need to be a sustaining force. In other words, if EFL students with learning difficulties are to be prepared for today's school and academic challenges, the educational paradigm, including the writing of bilingual dictionaries, must be broadened to include more nuanced issue such as semantic prosody into account.

#### **5.4. Pedagogical Implications**

Conducted in an EFL setting in Iran, the findings of this study reveal that preparing bilingual dictionaries that focus on semantic prosodies should be taken seriously both by policy makers at the macro level and dictionary writers at the micro level. Although learners have a variety of resources which they can use to learn more collocations or to find suitable collocates, each resource has its own limitations. The results from a comparison of entries in the dictionaries showed that the dictionaries need to standardize their definition of what actually constitutes a collocation. In fact, it can be argued that some of these limitations may result from a lack of clarity concerning what exactly constitutes a collocation, or by extension semantic prosody, (Gabrovsek, 2015) and a lack of understanding of the linguistic features and processes which influence the process by which collocations are formed. Moreover, besides teaching the subject matter, teachers can devote considerable time to improve students' awareness of semantic prosody in both

monolingual and bilingual dictionaries and the skills by applying some strategies. Since students may find challenging locating semantic prosodies, it would even be necessary to ensure that the students would employ greater effort and persistence while facing challenges. Teachers can also work on their students' dictionary skills as regards semantic prosodies by providing peer modeling in accomplishing tasks. Peer modeling can persuade the students that they can also do the tasks (Ormrod, 2009). Therefore, EFL teachers may include explicit instructions on understanding semantic prosodies in classes. Teachers can show the students inappropriate use of these skills to teach them when and where to use skills appropriately. Teachers can also teach their students to evaluate their use of skills and to fix unsuccessful strategies. In terms of curriculum planning, one priority educators ought to consider is the creation of dictionary learning goals once the role of the dictionary plays in the classroom has been established. Subsequently teachers need to decide how dictionary consultation practices in class can interact and align with the themes studied. Being aware of the dictionary's complexity and designing appropriate learning activities can help educators avoid false decisions and make learning more efficient. Although many people consider that leaving the choice of type of dictionary to learners may be ideal, using the same type of dictionary for every class member is beneficial in some ways. For instance, the instructors can ensure that all learners access the same information, and learners are easier to predict what information they will find in the dictionary (Carduner, 2003). It is also suggested that instructors guide their learners toward familiarization with dictionary consultation skills.

## **5.5. Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research**

Though the results brought out some significant findings, the designed research potentially has room for improvement in research design, curriculum planning and instructional delivery. In other words, several limitations of this study should be noted. First, the corpus was relatively small and restricted to a group of English-Persian dictionaries. Replications with a larger sample are necessary before the results can be generalized. Second, as studying semantic prosody in bilingual English-Persian dictionaries was the main objective of the present study, specifying all English words and their semantic prosody was quite impossible. Meanwhile, the inaccessibility of a comprehensive and authenticated parallel corpus in English and Persian aggravated the situation. Time also was a major limitation, which influenced the researcher's decision on selecting the size of the corpus; though, it was tried to lessen its imposed effect by doing more in less time. Moreover, the topic of this work might be further explored by including more aspects into the study of bilingual dictionaries in several languages. Another limitation of this study was that the bilingual dictionaries were not randomly selected; as a result, the interpretation of the results may have been affected by the nature of the data.

Finally, researchers who pay more attention to dictionary consultation research could go further by evaluating a longitudinal and large-scale survey pertaining to the field of learners' language transferring progress by investigating the dictionary consultation activities. This means that a study on the production of vocabulary acquisition by comparing the usage of these two types of dictionary can bring researchers a deeper insight into how learners apply the learnt words from the dictionary as output, which can be further evaluated by implementing the writing tasks.

## References

- Atkins, B. T. S. (1996). Bilingual dictionaries: Past, present and future. *EURALEX'96 Proceedings. Göteborg: Department of Swedish, Göteborg: Göteborg University*, 515-546.
- Baxter, J. (1980). The dictionary and vocabulary behavior: A single word or handful? *TESOL Quarterly*, 14, 325-336.
- Béjoint, H. (2000). *Modern Lexicography: An Introduction*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cheng, W. (2013). Semantic Prosody. In E. b. Chapelle, *The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics* (p. 47). Oxford: Blackwell publishing Ltd.
- Cubillo, M. C. C. (2002). Dictionary use and dictionary needs of ESP students: An experimental approach. *International Journal of Lexicography*, 15(3), 206-228.
- Dam-Jensen, H., & Zethsen, K. (2008). Translator awareness of semantic prosodies. *Target*, 20(2), 203-221.
- de Schryver, G. M. (2003). Lexicographers' Dreams in the Electronic-Dictionary Age. *International Journal of Lexicography*, 16(2), 143-199.
- Ebeling, S. O. (2014). Cross-linguistic semantic prosody: The case of commit, signs of and utterly and their Norwegian correspondences. *Corpus-based Studies in Contrastive Linguistics, Oslo Studies in Language*, 6(1), 161-179.
- Fan, M. Y. (2000). The dictionary look-up behavior of Hong Kong students: A large-scale survey. *Education Journal-Hong Kong-Chinese University of Hong Kong*, 28(1), 123-138.

- Firth, J. R. (1957). Ethnographic analysis and language with reference to Malinowski's views. *Man and Culture: an evaluation of the work of Bronislaw Malinowski*, 93-118.
- Firth, J. R. (1975). *Modes of meaning*. College Division of Bobbs-Merrill Company.
- Flowerdew, J., & Mahlberg, M. (Eds.). (2009). *Lexical cohesion and corpus linguistics*. (Vol. 17). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.
- Flowerdew, L. (2012). Corpus-driven Learning and Language Learning Theories. *10th Teaching and Language Corpora Conference*. Warsaw.
- Fuertes-Olivera, P. A., & Nielsen, S. (2011). Online Dictionaries for Assisting Translators of Lsp Texts: The Accounting Dictionaries 1. *International Journal of Lexicography*, 25(2), 191-215.
- Geeraerts, D. (1984). Dictionary classification and the foundations of Lexicography. *I.T.L. Review*, 63, 37-63.
- Gohari, S. (2013). *Semantic prosody studies of two groups of words related to "causing" and "occurring"*. Unpublished master's thesis, Islamic Azad University science and research center, Iran, Tehran.
- Gray, J. C. (1986). Creating the electronic New Oxford English Dictionary. *Computers and the Humanities*, 20, 45-49.
- Hoey, M. (2007). *Lexical priming and literary creativity*. Routledge.
- Hossieni M., Seyed Mohammad G. (2015). *A comparative study of semantic prosody of a number of verb combinations in Persian and English. Comparative linguistic researches 4<sup>th</sup> period, No.7, pp. 219-244.*
- Hunston, S. (1995). A corpus study of some English verbs of attribution. *Functions of Language*, 2(2), 133-158.

- Hunston, S. (2002). *Corpora in applied linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hunston, Susan, and Geoffrey Thompson, eds. *Evaluation in text: Authorial stance and the construction of discourse: Authorial stance and the construction of discourse*. Oxford University Press, UK, 2000.
- Jackson, H. (Ed.). (2013). *The Bloomsbury companion to lexicography*. A&C Black.
- Kennedy, G. (1998). *An introduction to corpus linguistics*. New York: Routledge.
- Laufer, B. (1997). The lexical plight in second language reading. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds.) *Second language vocabulary acquisition* (pp. 20-34). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Laufer, B. (1998). The development of passive and active vocabulary: Same or different? *Applied Linguistics*, 19, 255-271.
- Laufer, B., & Hadar, L. (1997). Assessing the effectiveness of monolingual, bilingual, and “bilingualised” dictionaries in the comprehension and production of new words. *The modern language journal*, 81(2), 189-196.
- Laufer, B., & Hill, M. (2000). What Lexical Information Do L2 Learners Select in a CALL Dictionary and How Does It Affect Word Retention?
- Laufer, B., & Hadar, L. (1997). Assessing the effectiveness of monolingual, bilingual, and “bilingualized” dictionaries in the comprehension and production of new words. *Modern Language Journal*, 81, 189-196.
- Lee, S. (2011). Semantic Prosody in Bilingual Dictionaries and EFL Learners' Sentence Writings. *English Teaching*, 66(2), 253-272.
- Louw, W. (1993). Irony in the text or insincerity in the writer? The diagnostic potential of semantic prosodies. In M. Baker, G. Francis, & E. Tognini-Bonelli, *Text and*

- technology: In honour of John Sinclair* (pp. 158- 176). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.
- Louw, W. (2000). Contextual Prosodic Theory: Bringing Semantic Prosodies to Life. In C. Heffer, & H. Sauntson (Eds.), *Words in Context. In Honour of John Sinclair*. Birmingham: ELR.
- Louw, W. E. (2010). Semantic prosody for the 21st century: Are prosodies smoothed in academic contexts? A contextual prosodic theoretical perspective. *Proceedings of 10th International Conference on Statistical Analysis of Corpus Study* (pp. 755-764). Rome: University of Rome.
- McEney, A., & Xiao, Z. (2007). Parallel and comparable corpora: What is happening? In G. M. Anderman, & M. Rogers (Eds.), *Incorporating Corpora. The Linguist and the Translator* (pp. 18-31).
- McEney, T., & Gabrielatos, C. (2006). 3 English Corpus Linguistics. In B. Aartas, & A. McMahon, *The handbook of English linguistics*. Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- McEney, T., & Wilson, A. (1997). *Teaching and language corpora (TALC)* (Vol. 9). ReCALL.
- Meyer, C. F. (2002). *English corpus linguistics: An introduction*. Cambridge University Pres
- Nesi, S.( 2003). The use of collocations by advanced learners of English and some implications for teaching. *Applied Linguistics*, 24(2), pp.223-242.
- Nesi, S.( 2003).. *Collocations in a learner corpus*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Nielsen, S., & Almind, R. (2011). From data to dictionary. In *E-lexicography* (pp. 141-167). Bloomsbury Academic.



- Niño, A. (2009). Machine translation in foreign language learning: language learners' and tutors' perceptions of its advantages and disadvantages. *ReCALL*, 21(2), 241-258.
- odaresKhiyabani, S.(2012). Semantic prosody in case of semantic similarity. A number of semantics workshops. (p.?) Iranian linguistics community and Ahura publication, Tehran, 2012, humanitarian science research and cultural studies.
- Oskarsson, M. (1974). On the Role of the Mother Tongue in Learning Foreign Language Vocabulary: An Empirical Investigation. *ITL Review of Applied Linguistics*, 27, 19-32.
- Pan, P., & Feng, Y. (2003). Corpus-based analysis of semantic prosody and its applications. *Contemporary Linguistics*, 5(4), 359-366.
- Partington, A. (1998). *Patterns and Meanings*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Partington, A. (2004). "Utterly content in each other's company: Semantic prosody and semantic preference 9(1), . *International journal of corpus linguistics*, 9(1).
- Philip, G. (2009). Why prosodies aren't always present: Insights into the idiom principle. *Proceedings of the Corpus Linguistics Conference CL2009* (pp. -). Liverpool, UK: University of Liverpool.
- Piotrowski, Tadeusz (1989) Monolingual and bilingual dictionaries: Fundamental differences. In *Learners' dictionaries: State of the art*, Tickoo, Makhan L. (ed.), 72-83. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.
- Roby, W. B. (1991). *Glosses and dictionaries in paper and computer formats as adjunct aids to the reading of Spanish texts by university students*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Kansas, Lawrence.

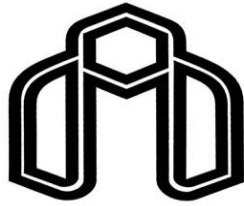
- Sardinha, T. B. (2000). Semantic prosodies in English and Portuguese: A contrastive study. *Cuadernos de Filología Inglesa*, 9(1).
- Sardinha, T. B. (2000). Semantic prosodies in English and Portuguese: A contrastive study. *Cuadernos de Filología Inglesa 9/1: 93–110.*, 9(1), 93- 1
- Schmitt, N., & Zimmerman, C. B. (2002). Derivative word forms: What do learners know?. *Tesol Quarterly*, 36(2), 145-171.
- Sinclair, J. M. (1991). *Corpus, concordance, collocation*. Oxford University Press.
- Sinclair, J. M. (1996). The search for units of meaning. *Textus*, 9, 75-106.
- Stark, M. (2011). *Bilingual thematic dictionaries* (Vol. 140). Walter de Gruyter.
- Stewart, D. (2010). *Semantic Prosody: A Critical Evaluation*. New York: Routledge.
- Stubbs, M. (1995). Collocations and semantic profiles: on the cause of the trouble with quantitative studies. *Functions of language*, 2(1), 23-55.
- Tognini-Bonelli, E. (2001). *Corpus linguistics at work* (Vol. 6). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.
- Tomaszczyk, J. (1986). The bilingual dictionary under review. In *Zurilex'86 Proceedings: Papers Read at the Euralex International Congress* (pp. 289-297). Zurich: University of Zurich.
- Wang, H. & Wang, T.. (2005). A contrastive study on the semantic prosody of CSUSE. *Modern Foreign Language*. 28/3: 297-307.
- Wei, N.X. (2006). A corpus-based contrastive study of semantic prosodies in learner English. *Foreign Language Research*, 132, 50-54.
- Whitsitt, S. (2005). A critique of the concept of semantic prosody. *International journal of corpus linguistics*, 10(3), 283-305. doi:10.1075/ijcl.10.3.01whi.

- Wingate, Ursula (2002) *The effectiveness of different learner dictionaries. An investigation into the use of dictionaries for reading comprehension by intermediate learners of German.* (Lexicographica Series Maior 112.) Tübingen: Niemeyer.
- Winter, C. (1992). Bilingual dictionaries: Between language and speech. In *Vocabulary and applied linguistics* (pp. 41-51). Palgrave Macmillan, London.
- Wynne, M. (Ed.). (2005). *Developing linguistic corpora: a guide to good practice.* Oxford: Oxbow Books.
- Xiao, R., & McEnery, T. (2006). Collocation, semantic prosody, and near synonymy: A cross-linguistic perspective. *Applied linguistics*, 27(1), 103-129.
- Zanettin, F. (2002). Corpora for translation practice. In *Proceedings of the First International Workshop on Language Resources (LR) for Translation Work and Research*, (pp. 10-14). Las Palmas de Gran Canaria.
- Zgusta, L. (1987). Translational equivalence in a bilingual dictionary: Bāhukośyam. . *Journal of the Dictionary Society of North America*, 9(1), 147-154.
- Zhang, C. (2010). A comparative corpus-based study of semantic prosody. *Language Teaching and Research*, 1(4), 451-456., 1(4), 45-456.
- Zhang, W. (2009). Semantic prosody and ESL/EFL vocabulary pedagogy. *TESL Canada Journal*, 26(2), 1-12.

## چکیده

این مطالعه براساس نظریه آلن پارتینگن (۱۹۹۸)، معنای عروضی تعدادی از افعال را در ده دیکشنری که از معتبرترین دیکشنریهای دو زبانه انگلیسی- فارسی هستند بررسی می کند. با استفاده از روش تحقیق کیفی، معنای عروضی شش عدد از افعال شامل (شیوع یافتن، سبب شدن، تحت تاثیر قرار دادن، موجب شدن، تاثیر گذاشتن، اتفاق افتادن) استخراج و گزارش شدند. نتایج نشان میدهند، در بعضی موارد خاص معنای عروضی و معنای ترجیحی در زبانهای انگلیسی و فارسی به یک نسبت قابل مشاهده اند. بر این اساس نظر به اینکه عدم تطابق معنای عروضی در هر دو زبانی امری اجتناب ناپذیر است، لذا توصیه میشود دیکشنری های دو زبانه محتاطانه مورد استفاده قرار گیرند. همچنین آنالیز داده ها نشان میدهند، دیکشنری های چاپ شده از لحاظ آرایه ی معنای عروضی دقیق کلمات مورد تحقیق در این مطالعه، نسبت به دیکشنری های آنلاین معتبر ترند. بطور کلی میتوان نتیجه گرفت که الحاق معنای عروضی کلمات بعنوان بخشی از توضیحات لغوی در دیکشنریهای دو زبانه کاری دشوار است. علاوه بر این، در این تحقیق دلالتهای نظری و عملی نیز آرایه شده اند.

کلمات کلیدی: معنای عروضی، دیکشنری دو زبانه انگلیسی - فارسی، آلن پارتینگن، روش تحقیق کیفی، ترجمه های فارسی.



دانشگاه صنعتی شاهرود

گروه زبان انگلیسی

پایان نامه کارشناسی ارشد آموزش زبان

مطالعه مقایسه ای معنای عروضی در دیکشنریهای دو زبانه انگلیسی -

فارسی

نگارنده : وحیده مرتضوی

استاد راهنما

دکتر سید حمزه موسوی

بهمن ۱۳۹۶