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THE SEARCH FOR TRANSLATION UNIVERSALS IN TRANSLATIONAL ENGLISH ACADEMIC PROSE: A CORPUS-BASED INVESTIGATION

Bolor Buyandelger¹

Abstract: *Previous studies suggest that translational language as a mediated discourse has descriptive features known as “translation universals” which set it apart from both the source language and the target language. Within the new paradigm of Corpus-based Translation Studies (CBTS), a number of translation universals have been proposed as hypotheses, including explicitation, simplification, and normalization. In order to validate these hypotheses in translational English academic prose, we compared translated and native English academic texts extracted from two balanced comparable corpora, namely COTE and FLOB. The log-likelihood test was used to show statistically significant differences between the linguistic indicators which realize the three translation universals. The results of the corpus-based investigation provide evidence in support for the simplification and explicitation hypotheses but against the normalization hypothesis. In future research, it will be possible to observe three or four translational languages at the same time so that more common features of translational languages will be observed.*

Keywords: *Translation universals; explicitation; simplification; normalization; academic prose; translational English; comparable corpora*

Introduction

Previous studies have shown that most translations not only fail to duplicate their source texts, but also deviate from comparable texts in the same target language (e.g., Laviosa, 2002). This observation has been generally corroborated by a fairly wide range of corpus-based studies which provide evidence of the linguistic features that differentiate translations from their source texts as well as from native texts (e.g., Gellerstam, 1986; Baker, 1993; Xiao & Hu, 2015). Based on their corpus-based exploration of lexical and grammatical properties of translational Chinese, Xiao and Dai (2014) concluded that “translational language as a type of mediated discourse has distinctive features that make it perceptibly different from comparable target language” (p.12). In this connection, Xiao and Dai (ibid.) also refer to Duff (1981) who found that translations often represent “a mixture of styles and languages” (p.12), or a patchwork made up of SL [source language] and TL [target language] elements. Consequently, translational language has been referred to as a third code, i.e., a variant sui generis with its own distinctive features that set it apart from both the source language and the target language (Frawley, 1984). In other words, the code (or language) that evolves during translation process and in which the translated text is expressed is unique.

While Frawley (1984) recognized translational language as a third code, a new line of research on the language of translation has been initiated by Baker (1993) who suggests that all translations are likely to show certain distinctive features which typically occur in translated rather than non-translated native texts simply by virtue of being translations. She calls these features “translation universals.” In a similar line of thought, Laviosa (2002) considers translation universals as recurrent common properties of all translated texts, which are “almost the inevitable by-products of the process of mediating between two languages rather than being the result of the interference of one language with another” (p.43). A number of translation universals have been posited by Baker and subsequent translation scholars, including explicitation, simplification, normalization, and levelling out. Other more fine-grained classifications of a series of potential features, such as source language interference

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and under-representation of target language-unique items, have also been proposed. Laviosa (2002) claims that these features are “recurrent common properties of all translated texts” (p.43). Translation universals are, however, strictly speaking, only hypotheses and thus may or may not be supported by further empirical evidence.

Over the years, it has been demonstrated time and again that corpus linguistic techniques provide a powerful tool to explore distinctive features of translational language, i.e., translation universals (e.g., Xiao & Hu, 2015), which, “as a special variant, like any other varieties of a natural language, merits investigation in its own right” (Mauranen, 2002, p.165). Keeping this in mind, we aim to reevaluate some of the existing translation universal hypotheses in the face of evidence from translational English by statistically comparing a range lexical and grammatical properties of translational English texts with original, or native (i.e., non-translated) English texts taken from comparable corpora. A very important suggestion given by House (2008) is that an assumption of universals in translation is genre-specificity. Academic prose is a widely used genre in sciences. Therefore, we select academic prose for the sake of reevaluating translation universals hypotheses. We hope that the findings of this research will help to address limitations of imbalance in the current state of translation universal research.

Theoretical considerations

Translation Studies underwent a corpus-based trend in the early 1990s under the impetus of the renowned translation scholar Mona Baker from the University of Manchester, who first laid down the agenda for a new research paradigm that was mainly constructed within Descriptive Translation Studies (DTS) on the basis of the idea of translation universals. This new paradigm, presently called ‘Corpus-based Translation Studies’ (CBTS), can be defined as the “branch of Translation Studies that investigates the nature of translation as a product and a process by the use of corpora, in light of the statistical analysis of the features of translated texts in relation to non-translated texts and the source text” (Hu, 2016, pp.1-2). It is within this paradigm that this research is situated.

In her 1993 seminal paper “Corpus Linguistics and Translation Studies: Implications and applications,” Baker first suggested that electronic corpora, as a basis for synchronic and diachronic research using quantitative and qualitative methods, might be the ideal means for investigation of the linguistic profile of translation.¹ In terms of research design, this meant either starting with a certain hypothesis, which was then tested, or else starting with a corpus analysis and culminating with a new hypothesis derived from the corpus data. This is nowadays considered as one of the standard methodologies used to establish recurrent patterns and regularities in the translated as opposed to the source (or non-translated) text in the relevant languages. In ensuing work, Baker (1995, 1996) further promoted the exploitation of corpora as useful aids for the elucidation of the nature of translation *per se*, viewed as “qualitatively different from that of text production” (Catford, 1965, p.20). Corpora, as Baker believed, could help Translation Studies make the leap from “prescriptive to descriptive statements, from methodologizing to proper theorizing, and from individual and fragmented pieces of research to powerful generalizations” (Baker, 1993, p.248).

Thanks to the initial statement and subsequent elaboration by Baker, the resulting development sufficiently proves that CBTS is now a “fully-fledged paradigm” (Laviosa, 2002, p.2) “that addresses a variety of issues pertaining to theory, description, and the practice of translation” (Laviosa, 1998a, p.474). Recently, researchers working in CBTS have come to adopt corpora as a way forward. CBTS requires parallel and comparable corpora on multiple languages. While parallel corpora (aka ‘translation corpora’) are composed of source texts and their corresponding translations

¹ Of course, corpora were not unknown to the discipline of Translation Studies when Baker introduced her agenda. As a matter of fact, at the University of Lund, Gellerstam (1986) had already compiled the first monolingual comparable corpus of Swedish novels to study translationese. Gellerstam’s research used corpora as an aid to improve translation practice; it therefore found its place within the applied branch of Translation Studies.

(e.g., CRATER; The Pendant Project; The English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus)¹, the texts in comparable corpora are comparable to each other according to a number of parameters set by the corpus designer, such as text length, genre and sampling period, but they are not reciprocal translations (e.g., Aarhus Corpus of Contract Law; The ZJU Corpus of Translational Chinese; The Kolhapur Corpus).

Some of the work in CBTS concerns theoretical issues, but actually most of it is descriptive. There exists a strong link with DTS with regard to the object of inquiry. Toury (1995) emphasized that DTS should be recognized as the central branch of Translation Studies and confers upon it the status of a scientific branch. He also stressed the central role of DTS as the primary condition for the advancement of Translation Studies into an overall and autonomous empirical science. The descriptive branch, exploring the interaction of function, product and process of translation, stands in a dialectal relationship to the theoretical and applied branches. The results of DTS studies reveal what translation “DOES involve,” while always having some bearing on the theoretical branch that concerns what translation “CAN, in principle, involve.” By founding the first step on an empirical basis with the use of corpora, theories of translation will be able to predict what translation is “LIKELY to involve” under variable circumstances (by specially considering which textual data to use) (Toury, 1995, p.15).

Figure 2.1 below illustrates the role played by corpus linguistics in Translation Studies. As reflected in the figure, corpus linguistics is increasingly being employed in different branches of Translation Studies, as it is able not only to link translation and linguistics—presenting very interesting research opportunities—but also to bridge the gap between different aspects of Translation Studies. Hence Figure 2.1 can be regarded as an illustration of the existing links between a discipline and a methodology.

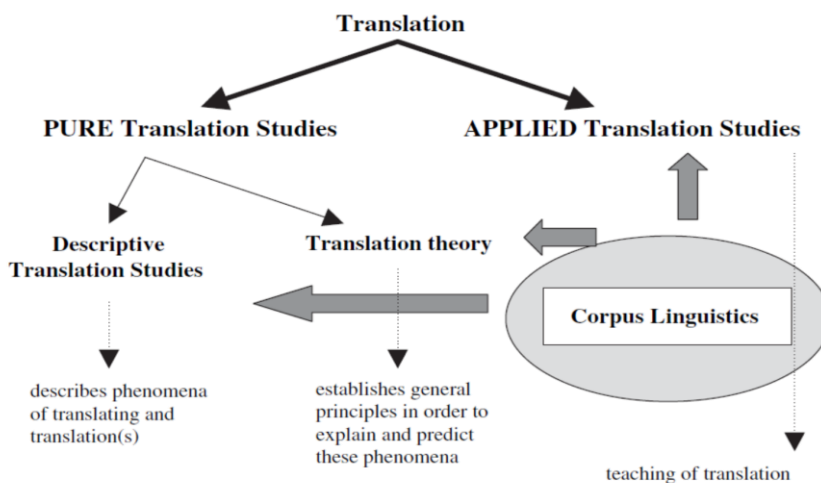


Figure 1. Corpus linguistics as a “link” in Translation Studies

In Translation Studies, the term ‘corpus’ is generally conceived as a “relatively small collection of texts assembled and searched manually according to specified design criteria” (Laviosa, 2002, p.12). These criteria can pertain to texts of a particular translator, author, period of time, genre, or text type. However, this definition of a corpus seems too simplistic and different for other frameworks. By adhering to Toury’s framework (roughly comparable to the abovementioned procedure), we can predict the possibility of ultimately formulating universal, probabilistic laws of translation. These “universals of translation” (Baker, 1993, p.243)—also referred to as “translationese” by Gellerstam (1986), that is, recurring features which distinguish translational language from native (non-translated) language—can be discovered by systematic research, which is made possible by the

¹ Parallel corpora can be further categorized ‘unidirectional’, comprising source texts and their translations in the target language), and ‘bidirectional’, comprising source texts and their reciprocal translations (Zanettin, 2014).

intrinsically empirical basis that the use of corpora entails. Over the past two decades, distinctive features of translational language have been an important research area in DTS.

The distinctive features of translational language can be identified by comparing translated texts with comparable native target-language texts, thus casting new light on the translation process and helping to uncover translation norms, or what Frawley (1984) calls “third code” (p.168). Baker (1993) defines third code as “a compromise between the norms and structures of the SL and those of the TL” (p.245). While Frawley (1984) recognized translational language as a third code, elaborating on Toury’s (1995) law of growing standardization and other previous studies (most notably Blum-Kulka’s explicitation hypothesis), Baker (1993) suggested that all translations are likely to show certain distinctive features “simply by virtue of being translations, which are caused in and by the process of translation” (Xiao & Hu, 2015, p.22). She called these features “translation universals” and inspired translation scholars to search for them in different languages.¹ Features of translation universals can be classified according to different parameters. For instance, Chesterman (2010) made a useful and widely respected distinction between S-universals (S stands for “source”) and T-universals (T stands “target”) according to the point of comparison: the first relates to universal differences between translations and source texts, and the second covers the differences between translations and native target-language texts. Mauranen (2007) suggests that the discussion of translation universals should follow the general discussion on ‘universals’ in linguistic typology.

Although Baker (1993) initially proposed six different types of translation universals, I will give an overview below of the best-known translation universals.² Each of them, Baker (1993) argues, “can be seen as a product of constraints which are inherent in the translation process itself” (p.246), which “accounts for the fact that they are universal” (ibid.). The fact that these features are universal means that they are not language-specific. That is to say, these features are assumed to occur generally in translational language, no matter what the source or target language is.

The Simplification Hypothesis

Simplification is the “tendency to simplify the language used in translation” (Baker, 1996, pp.181-182) which means that translational language is supposed to be simpler than native language in terms of lexicon, syntax and stylistics. Simplification at the lexical level has been defined as “making do with less words” (Blum-Kulka & Levenston, 1983, p.119). Simplification also involves using informal, colloquial and modern lexis to translate formal, literate and archaic words in the source text (Vanderauwera, 1985) and showing a preference for high-frequency words, lower lexical density, greater repetition of commonly used words, and less lexical variability (Laviosa, 1998b; 2002). Syntactic simplification occurs when syntactic complexity is reduced by replacing non-finite clauses with finite clauses (Vanderauwera, 1985), and when stronger punctuations are used to split lengthy and complex sentences in the source texts into short simpler structures in translated texts

¹ Baker (1993) initially used the term ‘universals’ but later retracted it and opted for a simple label ‘translational patterns and regularities’. It should be acknowledged that long before Baker (1993), Jiří Levý (1965) considered the endeavour to determine the linguistic features characterising translations one of the main goals of translation research—although he did not use the term “translation universal”—which called for rational, analytical evaluative methods.

² Baker’s list of TUs has been modified and expanded, to include standardization, conventionalization, conservatism and sanitization, Source-language shining through and transfer, convergence, disambiguation, avoidance of repetition, over-representation or under-representation of TL, distinctive distribution of lexical items and collocations, translation-unique items, and asymmetry (cf. Kenny, 1998; Mauranen & Kujamäki, 2004; Tirkkonen-Condit, 2004; Mauranen, 2007; Chesterman, 2010). However, while there is increasing consensus that translated texts are distinct from native writings in the target language, the translation universal hypotheses have also been a target of heated debate. For example, Pym (2008) flatly rejects the very concept of universals, while Tymoczko (1998), Malmkjær (2005) and House (2008) think it inconceivable to make universal claims about translation universals. It has also been argued, however, that the main value of translation universals (or general “laws” of translation) lies in their “explanatory power,” “even though not necessarily under the title of ‘universals’ ” (Toury, 2004, p.29).

(Malmkjær, 1997). Stylistic simplification involves, among others, breaking up long sentences and leaving out modifying phrases and words in the process of translation (Laviosa, 1998b).

The simplification hypothesis has been contested by a number of studies that have reported on more complicated linguistic features in translated texts than in non-translated texts in the target language, e.g., greater average sentence length (Laviosa, 1998b), more untypical collocations (Mauranen, 2000), and more frequent use of modifiers (Jantunen, 2004). Such studies are based on different datasets and carried out to address different research questions, and thus cannot be compared. However, as Laviosa (2002) cautions, earlier studies that posited the simplification hypothesis failed to provide sufficient evidence.

The Explication Hypothesis

The explication hypothesis was originally formulated by Blum-Kulka (1986) based on her investigation of shifts of cohesion and coherence in translation.¹ Explication is the idea that translators tend to make their translation more explicit than the source text by adding more information and linguistic material, such as connectives. Baker (1996) offers a broader definition of explication: the tendency in translation to “spell things out rather than leave them implicit” (p.180). Blum-Kulka (1986) maintains a distinction between explication necessitated by cross-linguistic differences between the source and target languages and translational explication arising from the translation process itself (cf., Baumgarten, Meyer & Özçetin, 2008). Explication is essentially a type of S-universal in Chesterman’s (2004) terms, which suggests that explicated instances can be identified by comparing the source and target texts in a parallel corpus. On the other hand, explication can also be observed as a T-universal on the basis of monolingual comparable corpora composed of translated texts and native texts in the target language.

Explication is the most thoroughly studied feature of translation; it has been found on different levels, ranging from lexis to syntax to textual organization, and also in culture specific expressions. However, the explication hypothesis has also been recently criticized, both from a theoretical and from a methodological perspective (see Becher, 2010). One of the criticisms of the explication hypothesis concerns mainly the notion of “translation-inherent” explication, that is the kind of explication that appears in translated texts only because of the translation process itself, and not because of lexical or grammatical constraints of the target language or grammatical mismatches between the two languages. It will require further research and crosslinguistic evidence to uphold the universal hypothesis of explication.

The Normalization Hypothesis

The third universal feature of translation, normalization—also referred to as ‘conventionalization’ (Mauranen, 2007)—is the alleged tendency to conform with typical features of the target language, even to the point of exaggeration, and will depend on the status of the source language: a higher status of the source language will decrease the tendency to normalize (Baker, 1996). This is in line with Toury’s (1995) law of growing standardization, which states that “in translation, textual relations obtaining in the original are often modified, sometimes to the point of being totally ignored, in favour of [more] habitual options offered by a target repertoire” (p.268). Examples of normalization evidenced by empirical studies include adapting odd punctuation marks in the source language to the target language norm, replacing metaphors or idioms in the source language with canonical ones that are functionally similar in the target language, overusing target language clichés, and using standardized target language to translate dialects in literary source texts (e.g., Baker, 1996; Kenny, 1998; Mauranen, 2007). Olohan (2004) also takes less variation in color synonyms in translation as evidence in support of her claim for normalization.

¹ See Pym (2005) for an excellent review of the explication hypothesis.

Normalization, however, is a controversial hypothesis. Toury (1995) himself, while formulating his law of growing standardization, concedes to “the well-documented fact that in translation, linguistic forms and structures often occur which are rarely, or perhaps even never encountered in utterances originally composed in the target language” (p.208). Tirkkonen-Condit (2002) also shows that “translations are not readily distinguishable from original writing on account of their linguistic features” (p.216).

Other translation universals

Levelling out relates to the “tendency of translated texts to gravitate towards the center of a continuum” (Baker, 1996, p.184). Laviosa (2002) calls it “convergence” (p.72), referring to the “relatively higher level of homogeneity of translated texts with regard to their own scores on given measures of universal features” (ibid.), or less variance in textual features in translated than original texts (Olohan, 2004, p.100). The evidence that Baker (1996) gives in support of the levelling out hypothesis is her observation that “the individual texts in an English translation corpus are more like each other in terms such as lexical density, type-token ratio and average sentence length than the individual texts in a comparable corpus of original English” (p.184). Levelling out is perhaps the least studied translation universal, with little empirical research done to verify its validity.

Source language interference, proposed by Toury (1995), is concerned with the influence of the source language upon the translated text. Toury finds that the status of the source language in the culture of the target language affects translation; therefore, if the source language has a high status, interference is likely to take place. By contrast, when the source language has a low status, standardization or normalization is likely to take place. Chesterman (2004) treats interference as an S-universal, in that it derives from source language features being carried out in the target language. Unique item under-representation is put forward by Tirkkonen-Condit (2002) as linguistic element in the target language that “lacks straightforward linguistic counterparts in other languages” (p.177). They are apt to be untranslatable. Tirkkonen-Condit explains it as “under-representation of target language unique items is due to the under-representation of such items to trigger them during the translation process” (ibid.).

Some of the translation universals are formulated as differences with respect to source texts or source language, while the rest are defined with reference to L1 texts in the target language. But as Chesterman (2010) claims, “some of them are evidently false; on others, the jury is still out” (p.38). In fact, claims of universality of some of the features of translation have been proven to be invalid, in their universal sense, although they may be valid as lower-level, conditioned generalizations for particular modes of translation.

Research question and methodology

In her 1993 paper, Baker (1993) proposed universal features of translation on the basis of her observation of translational English texts in four genres, i.e., fiction, biography, inflight magazines and news. Since then, a handful of scholars have sought to verify translation universals hypotheses on the basis of academic writing in different languages. For instance, Mauranen (2000) compared translated and non-translated Finnish texts in academic prose and popular non-fiction. Her analysis deals with text-reflexive (meta-textual) expressions, including a number of connectors, and reveals that most connectives have roughly equal frequencies in translations and originals, with a slightly higher occurrence in translations. Siepmann (2006) analyzed translation of the multi-word discourse markers in academic prose. Chen (2006) found that connectives, namely conjunctions and sentential adverbials, appear more frequently in translated Chinese popular science and information technology articles. However, the research produced so far is too limited in scope and quantity to be conclusive about the hypothesized translation universals.

While most findings tend to confirm the existence of some universal features which set apart translations from texts produced under different constraints, there is also some counter-evidence (e.g., Wang & Qin, 2010). Research has shown that much variation depends on genre, text type and source language and, notwithstanding the growing number of studies, evidence is still confined to a few languages (especially European ones) and textual genres. To contribute to the existing scholarship on translation universals, we will take a corpus-based approach and seek to answer the following research question: Are translation universals hypotheses supported by translational English academic prose? To answer this question, we will check the features of translational English academic prose which may (or may not) show simplification, explicitation and normalization tendencies. The whole procedure consists of several steps. We will first collect data from two monolingual comparable corpora of native and translational English with the help of corpus tools, and then we will compare and analyze some of the linguistic features of native and translational English academic prose using statistical methods with the aim of validating the three hypothesized translation universals. We believe that the use of corpora can provide the investigation with solid empirical and quantitative data to produce reliable results and logical conclusions. In what follows, we will describe the design and composition as well as other technical details of the corpora used in this investigation, namely FLOB (The Freiburg-LOB Corpus of British English) and COTE (The Corpus of Translational English). The availability of these two corpora will enable us to answer the research question.

The first corpus, FLOB, is an updated version of the widely used Brown and LOB corpora. The only difference is that FLOB represents the English language used in the early 1990s, whereas Brown and LOB corpora represent the English language used in the 1970s and 1980s. The texts in FLOB were not obtained by random sampling but were selected carefully to match the LOB corpus as closely as possible. According to the creators of the corpus, the main aim was to achieve a close comparability with LOB rather than some kind of general statistical representativeness of printing output in Britain, in order to provide linguists with an empirical basis to study language change in progress. The second corpus, COTE, is a balanced comparable corpus of translational English texts, which is designed as a translational match of FLOB. The corpus is created with the explicit aim of providing a reliable empirical basis for identifying the typical common features of translational English texts and investigating variations in such features across different types of text on the basis of quantitative analyses of the balanced corpus of translational English in contrast with comparable corpora of native English. Like many balanced native English corpora such as FLOB, COTE includes metadata information such as text type and date of publication as well as linguistic annotation such as part-of-speech tagging. But as a translational English corpus, COTE additionally includes various translation-specific metadata, e.g., the source language, translator, date and source of publication in the header of each text sample, which makes it possible to categorize the texts to suit different research purposes. Both FLOB and COTE contain five hundred 2,000-word text chunks sampled from 15 genres. So the overall size of each corpus is approximately one million words. The text samples included in both corpora are taken from materials published in the U.K. in the 1990s. The two corpora are comparable as far as size and composition are concerned.

Table 1 below shows the genres covered in FLOB and COTE alongside information about their sample sizes and respective proportions.

Table 1. Composition of FLOB and COTE

Code	Text category/genre	Samples	Proportion
A	Press reportage	44	8.8%
B	Press editorial	27	5.4%
C	Press review	17	3.4%
D	Religion	17	3.4%
E	Skills/trades/hobbies	36	7.6%
F	Popular lore	48	8.8%
G	Biographies/essays	75	15.4%
H	Reports/official documents	30	6.0%
J	Science	80	16.0%
K	General fiction	29	5.8%
L	Mystery/detective fiction	24	4.8%
M	Science fiction	6	1.2%
N	Western/adventure fiction	29	5.8%
P	Romantic fiction	29	5.8%
R	Humor	9	1.8%
Total	500		100%

The fifteen genres included in the two corpora can be divided into four big categories, such as press (88 texts), fiction (126 texts), academic prose (80) and general prose (206 texts). Each of the two corpora contains 80 academic texts, which occupy 16% of the total number of texts. They come from academic books and scientific articles. We will make use of the academic texts (i.e., science) in each of the two corpora to observe features of translational English in comparison with native English in academic prose. It should be noted here that the term “academic prose” as used in this research is not a linguistic conceptualization, but a working definition.

The study makes use of two different corpus tools, namely WordSmith 4.0 and PowerGrep 4.0, to collect data. WordSmith 4.0 has three kinds of functions: WordList, Concordance and KeyWords. The WordList tool creates a list of all the words or word-clusters in a text, set out in alphabetical or frequency order. WordList generates word lists based on one or more plain text or web text files. They can be saved for later use, edited, printed, copied to word-processor, or saved as text files. The concordance, enables us to see any word or phrase in context so that we can see what sort of company it keeps. To use it people will specify a search word, which Concord will seek in all the text files they have chosen. With KeyWords, we can find key words in a text. To find keywords, one needs access to two or more word lists, which must be created first, using the WordList program. The second tool is PowerGrep 4.0, which involves the input of a regular expression to seek for data. PowerGrep tool can be employed in the following aspects: first, to find files and information anywhere on the PC or network; second, to comprehensively edit, maintain or convert large sets of data files or documents; third, to collect information and statistics from log files or archives. In this article, searching and collecting data is the most frequently used function with a tagset. Most of the data is collected with the help of PowerGrep.

Results and discussions

In this section, we discuss the findings of the investigation. The linguistic features of translational English academic texts are examined with respect to three universals, namely simplification, explicitation and normalization.

Simplification

The tendency towards simplification is usually revealed by primarily by three major linguistic indicators, namely lexical density, lexical variety, and average sentence length (Laviosa, 2002). In this article, the simplification tendency of translational English academic texts is first observed in terms of lexical density. Lexical density can be defined in two ways: either as the proportion of content words such as nouns, adjectives and verbs in the total number of words (Stubbs ,1996) or as the ratio of function words such as prepositions, conjunctions and auxiliaries within a clause to content words (Laviosa, 1998b).

In order to evaluate the simplification hypothesis, we first calculate lexical density in native and translational English academic prose on the basis of our corpus data.

Table 2. Proportion of content words in FLOB (J) and COTE (J)

Corpus	Proportion of content words	Significance	Log-likelihood
FLOB	60.09%	P<0.001	LL=290.28
COTE	57.24%		

As Table 2 shows, the proportion of content words in FLOB academic prose is 60.09%, whereas in COTE academic prose, it is 57.24%. In log-likelihood test, the difference is statistically significant (LL=290.28, p<0.001).

Table 3. Proportion of function words in FLOB (J) and COTE (J)

Corpus	Proportion of function words	Significance	Log-likelihood
FLOB	34.24%	P<0.001	LL=-123.24
COTE	36.75%		

On the other hand, as Table 3 shows, the proportion of function words in FLOB academic prose is 34.24%, whereas in COTE academic prose, it is 36.75%. But in the log-likelihood test, the difference is not statistically significant (LL=-123.24, p<0.001).

Table 4. Content-function word ratio in FLOB (J) and COTE (J)

Corpus	The ratio of content words to lexical words
FLOB	1.75:1
COTE	1.56:1

In terms of lexical density defined as the ratio of content words to function words, a significantly greater proportion of content words over function words is found in native English texts than in translational English texts (1.75:1 vs. 1.56:1), which means that the information load in native English academic prose is slightly greater than translational English academic prose. The result shows that translational English exhibits the tendency towards simplification, lending support to Laviosa's (1998b) observations of the core patterns of lexical features of translational English.

The other method commonly used in calculating lexical density is the well-known type-token ratio (TTR), i.e., the ratio between the number of types (i.e., unique words) and the number of tokens (i.e., running words). However, Scott (2004) proposes the standardized type-token ratio (STTR), which is the average type-token ratio based on consecutive 1,000-word chunks of text, as a more accurate method than the TTR, since the latter is often affected by text length. It appears that while lexical density defined by Stubbs (1996) measures informational load, the STTR measures lexical variety, as reflected by the different ways they are computed. As for lexical variety, the STTR in

FLOB in academic prose is 39.37; by contrast, the STTR in COTE in academic prose is 41.12. Because the STTR in academic prose of COTE is lower than that of FLOB, the result of STTR-based analysis does not support the simplification hypothesis.

Average sentence length has often been used as a linguistic indicator that realizes simplification. Readability is assessed by computing average sentence length. Malmkjaer (1997) observes that using stronger punctuation marks in translation entails shorter sentences in translational language, while Laviosa (1998b) notes that, in comparison with native English, the average sentence length is lower in translated English news texts but higher in translated English literary texts. We want to check if translational English academic texts have longer average sentences than native ones. Average sentence length is calculated by counting the number of words and dividing it by the total number of sentences. Table 5 reveals that the average sentence length in academic prose of FLOB is 26.15 words, whereas it is 29.11 words in academic prose of COTE.

Table 5. Average sentence length and average sentence segment length in FLOB (J) and COTE (J)

Corpus	Average sentence length	Average sentence segment length
FLOB	26.15	7.88
COTE	29.11	7.36

It can be seen that translational English academic prose has greater average sentence length than native English academic prose. The result is in line with Laviosa’s findings (1998b), thus the explicitation hypothesis is supported. However, the average sentence segment length in academic prose of FLOB is 7.88 words, in contrast with 7.36 words in academic prose of COTE. So the average sentence segment length of translational English academic prose does not validate the explicitation hypothesis.

Given that explicitation tendency of translational language is shown in extending condensed texts (Vanderauwera 1985), it is expected that translated academic texts would be longer than native academic texts at the paragraph level. Thus average paragraph length is also discussed here to evaluate if translated academic texts in English have greater average paragraph length than native academic texts in English.

Table 6. Average paragraph length in FLOB (J) and COTE (J)

Corpus	Mean paragraph length
FLOB	102.74
COTE	114.09

As Table 6 shows, average paragraph length in academic prose of FLOB is 102.74 words, whereas in academic prose of COTE, it is 114.09 words. It turns out that translational English academic texts do have much longer paragraphs than native English academic texts, which means that the universal hypothesis of explicitation is upheld in the light of academic English prose.

Explicitation

Explicitation is the process of introducing information into the target language, which is present only implicitly in the source language. As noted earlier, explicitation can be investigated either as a S-universal by comparing translated texts with their source texts in a parallel corpus or as a T-universal by comparing translated and native texts in the same target language. We take the latter “comparable” approach.

According to Xiao & Dai (2013), dash and parentheses exhibit a tendency for explicitation. If so, more punctuation will be used in translated texts. So we compare frequency of punctuation in the academic prose of the two corpora. As Table 7 shows, the frequency of punctuation in the academic

prose of FLOB is 11.86%, which is lower than that in the academic prose of COTE (12.38%), and the original numbers are 21,999 and 24,524 separately. But according to the log-likelihood test, the difference is statistically not significant (LL=-21.14, $p<0.001$).

Table 7. Frequency of punctuation in FLOB (J) and COTE (J)

Corpus	Frequency of punctuation	Significance	Log-likelihood
FLOB (J) COTE (J)	11.86% 12.38%	$P<0.001$	LL=-21.14
FLOB COTE	32.57% 34.21%	$P<0.001$	LL=-424.87

As Table 7 reveals, though punctuation seems more frequently used in the academic prose of COTE, there is no significant difference in terms of statistics. To sum up, neither in overall COTE nor in the academic prose of COTE is the explicitation hypothesis supported.

Conjunctions are found to appear more frequently in translational languages by Chen (2006). We compare two categories of conjunctions, namely coordinating conjunctions and subordinating conjunctions, in this article. According to our corpus data, the frequency of coordinating conjunction in the academic prose of FLOB is 5664, and it is 6293 in the academic prose of COTE. Just as Table 8 reveals, the normalized frequency of coordinating conjunction is 3.05% in FLOB (J) and in COTE (J) it is 3.17%. But in the log-likelihood test, the difference is statistically not significant (LL=-4.61, $p=0.03$). What's more, the frequency of prepositions or subordinating conjunctions in the academic prose of FLOB is 23381, and in the academic prose of COTE, 26182. Secondly, the normalized frequency of prepositions or subordinating conjunctions is 12.61% in FLOB (J) and 13.22% in COTE (J) respectively. But in the log-likelihood test, there is no significant difference in statistics (LL=-27.50, $p<0.001$), either. It is found that both the normalized frequency of coordinating conjunctions and the normalized frequency of subordinating conjunctions in translated academic texts seem higher than non-translated academic texts. But according to the log-likelihood test, there is no statistically significant difference. Thus, conjunctions in the academic prose of COTE do not manifest explicitation.

Table 8. Frequency of coordinating conjunctions and frequency of prepositions or subordinating conjunctions in FLOB (J) and COTE (J)

Frequency	FLOB (J)	COTE (J)	Significance	Log-likelihood
Frequency of coordinating conjunctions	3.05%	3.17%	$p=0.03$	LL=-4.61
Frequency of prepositions or subordinating conjunctions	12.61%	13.22%	$p<0.001$	LL=-27.50

Table 9. Frequency of coordinating conjunctions and frequency of prepositions or subordinating conjunctions in FLOB and COTE

Frequency	FLOB	COTE	Significance	Log-likelihood
Frequency of coordinating conjunctions	3.11%	3.31%	$p<0.001$	LL=78.86
Frequency of prepositions or subordinating conjunctions	11.42%	11.94%	$p<0.001$	LL=143.05

On the other hand, just as Table 9 shows, the normalized frequency of coordinating conjunctions in overall FLOB (3.11%) is lower than that of overall COTE (3.31%). The difference is statistically significant ($P<0.001$, LL=78.86). Also, the normalized frequency of prepositions or

subordinating conjunctions in overall FLOB (11.42%) is lower than that of overall COTE (11.94%). What's more, the difference is also statistically significant ($P < 0.001$, $LL = 143.05$). So it can be concluded that coordinating conjunctions and subordinating conjunctions are separately more frequently used in overall COTE; this shows the explicitation tendency of translational English.

The particle is a function word that can be used in English to form phrasal verbs. We counted the frequency of particles, which signifies whether phrasal verbs are more frequently used in translational English academic prose or not. The frequency of particles in the academic prose of FLOB is 7614, while in COTE academic prose it is 384. As Table 10 shows, the normalized frequency of particles is 4.1 % in the academic prose of FLOB and 0.19% in the academic prose of COTE. In the log-likelihood test, the difference is significant ($LL = 8497.58$, $P < 0.001$). It is clear that particles are much less frequently employed in translational English academic texts.

Table 10. Frequency of particles in FLOB (J) and COTE (J)

Corpus	Frequency of particles	Significance	Log-likelihood
FLOB (J) COTE (J)	4.1% 0.19%	$P < 0.001$	$LL = 8497.58$
FLOB COTE	0.35% 0.31%	$P < 0.001$	$LL = 39.67$

In the second place, the frequency of particles in overall COTE (0.31%) is also lower than that of overall FLOB (0.35%). The difference is statistically significant ($P < 0.001$, $LL = 39.67$). This can be found in Table 10, too. To sum up, translational English shows a lower frequency of particles both in the academic prose of COTE and in overall COTE, which implies that there are fewer phrasal verbs in the academic prose of COTE and overall COTE. As a result, the explicitation hypothesis is not valid in this case.

Here, we observe the features of modals, symbols and the word to in translated English academic texts. Modals are auxiliary verbs (e.g., can or will) that are used to express modality. Symbols in the two corpora represent mathematical, scientific and technical symbols. The word to, as both as preposition and infinitive marker is also discussed. Because average sentence length and average paragraph length of the academic prose of COTE are greater than those of the academic prose of FLOB, it is expected that the academic prose of COTE has higher frequency of modals, symbols and the word to (as preposition and infinitive marker). The result is as follows. The frequency of modals in FLOB (J) is 2190, and in COTE (J), it is 1884; the normalized frequency of modals is 1.18% in FLOB (J) and 0.95% in COTE (J). And in the log-likelihood test, the difference is significant ($LL = 47.63$, $P < 0.001$). Secondly, the frequency of symbols in FLOB (J) and COTE (J) are 185 and 115 respectively. Just as Table 11 shows, the normalized frequency of symbols is 0.09% in FLOB (J) and 0.05% in COTE (J). And in the log-likelihood test, the difference is also statistically significant ($LL = 21.43$, $P < 0.001$). Thirdly, the frequency of the word to (not as preposition or infinitive marker), in FLOB (J) it is 4301, and 4252 in COTE (J). The normalized frequency of the word to is 2.3198% in FLOB (J) and 2.1469% in COTE (J). In the log-likelihood test, the difference is significant ($LL = 12.82$, $P < 0.001$).

Table 11. Frequency of modals, symbols, and the word to in FLOB (J) and COTE (J)

Frequencies	FLOB (J)	COTE (J)	Significance	Log-likelihood
Modals	1.18%	0.95%	$p < 0.001$	$LL = 47.63$
Symbols	0.09%	0.05%	$p = 0.005$	$LL = 21.43$
The word to	2.31%	2.14%	$p < 0.001$	$LL = 12.82$

Table 12. Frequency of modals, symbols, and the word to in FLOB and COTE

Frequencies	FLOB	COTE	Significance	Log-likelihood
Modals	1.17%	1.09%	p<0.001	LL=40.23
Symbols	0.02%	0.02%	p=0.05	LL=-3.698
The word to	1.55%	1.41%	p<0.001	LL=74.16

It can be seen that in translational English academic prose, modals and the word to (as preposition and infinitive marker) appear less frequently than in native English academic prose. And the differences are statistically significant. But the frequency of symbols in the academic prose of FLOB is not statistically different from that of the academic prose of the FLOB. In short, the features of modals, symbols and the word to do not validate the explicitation hypothesis. What's more, as Table 12 shows, in overall FLOB and COTE, the features of modals, symbols and the word to do not support the explicitation hypothesis either.

Normalization

The normalization tendency of translational languages is manifested when translated texts are made to conform to the conventions of the target language. Vanderauwera (1985) points out that the purpose of normalization is to produce a translated text that is more readable, more coherent. In this research, agentless passives and by-passives are examined to evaluate the normalization hypothesis. In COTE and FLOB, passives are divided into agentless passives and by-passives. That is, passive constructions that do not include the agent by-phrase (e.g., The whole mainframe system was destroyed.) and passive constructions that introduce the agent with by-phrase (e.g., The savannah is roamed by beautiful giraffes.)

According to our data, the frequency of agentless passives in academic prose of FLOB is 2476, and in academic prose of COTE it is 2226 (see Table 13); the normalized frequencies are 1.33% and 1.12% respectively. In log-likelihood test, the difference is significant (LL=34.91, P<0.001). On the other hand, the frequency of by-passives is 301 in academic prose of FLOB, and in the academic prose of COTE, it is 304. The normalized frequencies are 0.16% and 0.15% respectively. In log-likelihood test, however, there is no significant difference in statistics (LL=0.48, P=0.49).

Table 13. Frequency of agentless passives and by-passives in FLOB (J) and COTE (J)

Frequencies	FLOB (J)	COTE (J)	Significance	Log-likelihood
Frequency of agentless passives	1.33%	1.12%	p<0.001	LL=34.91
Frequency of by-passives	0.16%	0.15%	p=0.49	LL=0.48

Table 14. Frequency of agentless passives and by-passives in FLOB and COTE

Frequencies	FLOB	COTE	Significance	Log-likelihood
Frequency of agentless passives	0.91%	0.89%	p=0.09	LL=2.77
Frequency of by-passives	0.01%	0.11%	p=0.95%	LL=0.01

We can conclude that the frequencies of agentless passives in academic prose of COTE do not exhibit the normalization tendency, nor do the frequencies of by-passives in academic prose of COTE show the normalization tendency. Furthermore, as Table 14 shows, there is no statistically significant difference between the frequency of agentless passives and by-passives in overall COTE and in overall FLOB texts. Therefore, the normalization hypothesis is not supported by our investigation.

Conclusion

In this article, we have conducted a corpus-based investigation on the basis of texts culled from two monolingual comparable corpora of native and translational English in order to testify the existence of three hypothetical universals of translation, namely simplification, explicitation and normalization in the register of academic prose. The findings of the investigation are summarized as follows:

First, we have shown that Laviosa's (1998b) observations of the core patterns of lexical features of translational English are supported by the corpus data. Translational English academic prose has a significantly lower lexical density (i.e., the proportion of lexical words), therefore less information load, than native English academic prose. This finding supports the simplification hypothesis, which reveals that during translating process, translators tend to simplify a difficult academic text to improve its readability. However, there is no significant difference in the lexical density as defined by the standardized type-token ratio. In relation to native English, translational English has a relatively low proportion of lexical words over function words. We have also found translational English academic prose has longer average sentence length than native English academic prose.

Second, the findings of more specific English words are the following: 1) Particles are much less frequently used in translated academic prose than in native one; 2) Modals and the word *to* (regardless of preposition or infinitive marker) are less frequently used in translated academic prose than in native one. Both differences are statistically significant. These findings lend support to the explicitation hypothesis.

Third, the frequency of agentless passives in translational English academic prose is lower than that in native English academic prose. After all, academic texts are formal writings—they are usually concise, serious, and precise. It is possible that translators try to conform to the characteristics of academic texts. That is, the convention of genres is more stressed. To sum up, the normalization hypothesis is not supported in translational English, which may be either due to translation strategies or due to the differences of genres.

We hope that the study of translational English academic prose exemplified in this article has brought fresh evidence and insights to translation universal research in Mongolia.

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IDENTIFYING CULTURAL CODES IN IDIOMS WITH THE COMPONENT "WORD" IN ENGLISH, RUSSIAN AND MONGOLIAN LANGUAGE VIEWS OF THE WORLD

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Abstract: *The subject for consideration in the article is idioms with the component “word” in English, Russian and Mongolian language views of the world. The purpose of this article is to examine the similarities and differences in the system of images included in the phraseological units with the component “word” in English, Russian and Mongolian. The main task to achieve this goal is to analyze the nature of the correlation of fragments of reality verbalized in idioms with cultural codes, based on which the coding of cultural components in idiomatic funds of the studied languages is carried out. The analysis is based on the linguocultural approach to the study of phraseological materials formulated by V.N. Telia. As a result of interlanguage comparison of phraseological units, the correlation of idioms with cultural codes in the considered language pictures of the world (including the fragments of professional – religious, military, etc. discourses) is established. Similarities and differences of different cultural perceptions in the language view of the world are revealed.*

Keywords: *language and culture, idioms, language view of the world, phraseological view of the world, cultural codes, finger.*

Introduction

In modern linguistics, along with the study of language as a means of communication and cognition, a new trend has acquired particular relevance - the consideration of language as a set of cultural codes that human consciousness operates with when displaying and representing the language view of the world. In connection with the turn of linguistic research into the channel of anthropocentrism, questions of the study of universal and ethnospecific features inherent in national linguistic pictures of the world occupy an important place in modern linguistics. This issue is closely examined in the linguistic and cultural approach, from the standpoint of which this article research was carried out. Phraseology in this sense, according to the unanimous opinion of linguists, is the most cultured layer of vocabulary that captures the cultural experience of various ethnic groups, a naive and everyday vision of a picture of the world, in which both general, universal principles of organization of reality by the human consciousness are presented, as well as patterns preferred by one or another national-cultural consciousness (Spiridonova, Batsuren, 2019). Reflected by the human consciousness, anthropocentric in nature, and reflected by the language, objective reality in the phraseological foundation of a particular language is subjected to secondary interpretation. As a result, a whole system of images is fixed in the linguistic consciousness that represents the worldview of a particular ethnic group.

We emphasize that a comparative study of Mongolian and Russian phraseology, Mongolian and English phraseology in different spectra has been successfully carried out by linguists for many years. However, it is in this aspect that the phraseology of the Mongolian language has not been studied so much and can be said to be at the very origins of the study. This work touches upon and highlights the significant issues of identifying universal and ethnospecific features in the phraseology of these languages and is in line with the theoretical problem of the connection between language and society, language and national culture, language and national consciousness.

A separate consideration in our study was the study of cultural archetypes and cultural codes as components of the phraseological view of the world (PVW).

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Cultural archetypes are divided into universal and ethnic and are considered by us as the basic elements of culture, represented in consciousness in the form of archetypal images, the features of which are determined by the cultural environment and characterized by metaphorical representation. Cultural archetypes are the result of processing and a way of storing and representing a collective cultural experience.

Archetypal forms of cultural awareness of the world have left their culturally significant mark in the linguistic picture of the world, namely, in the phraseological foundation of the language. Archetypal traces in the figurative basis of phraseological units are the most ancient forms of awareness of the world observed by man.

From the most ancient archetypal representations of man come cultural codes that are universal in nature. At the same time, it should be noted that they capture the national way of seeing the world, which defines and shapes the national character.

Linguoculturology proceeds from the thesis that language, therefore, and the phraseological foundation of the language, is the guardian of the cultural codes of the nation. The identification of such codes is possible due to linguoculturological analysis of the PVW, which reveals the connection between language and mentality, reveals all kinds of correspondence of phraseological and mental units.

Cultural codes, which are universal in their essence, come from the most ancient archetypal representations of a person. At the same time, it should be noted that they capture the national way of seeing the world, which determines and shapes the national character. V.V. Krasnikh introduced quite an accurate, in our opinion, definition, which qualifies the culture code as a grid, which "culture throws on the world around, divides it, categorizes, structures and evaluates it" (Krasnikh, 2002, p. 232).

The relationship between the idioms and certain culture codes is kept subconsciously in the collective memory of the nation. As V.N. Telia notes that culture codes are those realities that are already endowed with a cultural meaning and which are the initial material for the cultural interpretation of the image of phraseology. Codes of culture are thematically united on the basis of the properties and actions of man himself, faunal, floral and other worlds, the objective world (natural or man-made "things"), natural-landscape or spiritual-religious worlds. Signs of realities correlated with culture codes, identified in the image of phraseology, are their functions, size, boundaries, shape, color, etc. Culture codes usually perform the role of symbols, standards, stereotypes in the "language" of culture and act as signs of the "language" of culture (BFSRL, 2006).

The phraseological view of the world (PVW) is a part of the general language picture of the world, outlined by means of phraseology. The phraseological foundation of any language is an invaluable repository of information about the culture and consciousness of the people, where people's views about the objective world are preserved.

The analysis of cultural codes carried out by us is based on the linguo-cultural approach to the study of the phraseological sources proposed by V.N. Telia in the book "Russian phraseology. Semantic, pragmatic and linguocultural aspects" (Telia, 1996) and represents the correlation of idioms with cultural codes in the language view of the world that are under our consideration.

A practical embodiment of this theoretical analysis is found in the fundamental work "A Large Phraseological Dictionary of the Russian Language. Meaning. Use. Culturological commentary» (BFSRL, 2006), where the cultural commentary is represented by three "zones" - an etymological reference, a regional geographic reference and a culturological commentary itself, which makes the dictionary unique at the moment.

For the concepts of the "language" of culture, embodied in the language means, language idioms are the most transparent as they contain characteristic traits of the worldview, reflexively correlated with this "language" and displayed in a figurative base of idioms" (Telia, 1999, p.9). In this article, we will consider similarities and differences in the images included in the somatic idioms with the component "**word**" in English, "**слово**" Russian and "**үг**" in Mongolian languages. The word "**word**" is included in a whole series of idioms, the meanings of which are connected with the

process of speaking. Generally, idioms about a word are devoted to four areas of meaning: communication and problems with it, fulfillment or non-fulfillment of given promises (responsibility), abusive and insulting expressions, word and deed.

Discussion

To achieve our goal, we will analyze the nature of interrelationship of fragments of reality verbalized in idioms and cultural codes. Thus, based on our analysis, the coding of cultural components in idiomatic funds of the three languages is carried out.

The analysis is based on linguistic and cultural approach to the study of the phraseological material formulated by V.N. Telia (Telia, 1996, 1999).

Our analysis allows us to represent a correlation of idioms with cultural codes in these language worldviews. Distribution of idioms in accordance with one or another cultural code appears as follows:

Cultural codes similar in English, Mongolian and Russian languages:

1. Anthropic+active:

Eng: *break (one's) word; breathe a word; buzz word; eat (one's) words; exchange words; from the word go; get the word; give the word; go back on word; hear word; keep (one's) word; leave a word for; mark my word; not believe a word of it; not breathe a word; not mince (one's) words; not utter a word; play on words; put (something) into words; receive word; spoken word; spread the word; swallow one's words; take at word; the operative word; twist (one's) words; utter a word; weigh one's words; words to live by; be not the word for it; bring word; from the word go; give smb one's word; have a word with somebody; have no words for smt; in word and deed; make words; mark my words; pass the word; send word; waste words; a word and a blow; word of command;*

Rus: *верить / поверить на слово (believe / take a word); дать себе слово (give yourself a word); держать слово (keep your word); устоять в своём слове (resist your word); сдержать слово (keep a promise); предоставить слово (give the word); ввернуть словечко (screw in a word); перекидываться словами (exchange words); замолвить словечко (put in a word); взять слово (take the word); запустить словечко (run a word); сказать своё слово (have your say); шепнуть словечко (whisper a word); вставить слово (insert a word); глотать слова (swallow words); дело не в словах, слово и дело (it's not about words, word and deed); словесное недержание (verbal incontinence); словесная интервенция (verbal intervention); словесная баталия (verbal battle), словесная эквилибристика (verbal balancing act); цепляться к словам (cling to words), ловить / поймать на слове (catch / catch at the word), тратить слова понапрасну (waste words in vain), не дать слова вымолвить (do not let the word say), не с кем словом перемолвиться (there is no one to say a word with); взвешивать свои слова (weigh your words); нанизывать слова (string words); не устоять в своём слове (not resist your word), изменить своему слову (change your word), переменить своё слово (change your word), отказываться от своих слов (give up your words), брать / взять свои слова назад (take / take your words back); сыпать словечками (sprinkle with words); бросаться словами (throw words); захлёбываться словами (choke on words); обронить слово (drop a word); (из него) слова не вытянешь ((from him) you cannot get a word); словом сказать (to say in a word), помани моё слово (remember my word), к слову сказать / молвить, к слову пришлось (by the way to say / to say); играть словами (play with words), жонглирование словами (juggle with words);*

Mon: *үг алдах* (to lose words – to promise); *үг алдуулах* (to make one lose words – to make somebody promise smt); *үг зөөх* (to carry words- to gossip); *үг хаях* (to throw word – to complain); *үгээ барих* (to hold word – not be able to find any words to say);

2. Anthropic+qualitative:

Eng: *a dirty word; a good word for everybody; a kind word for everybody; be the last word; fighting words; get a word in edgeways; have the final word; loaded word; true to word; word to the wise; bandy words; be as good as one's words; be too funny for words; be worse than one's words; big words; in other words; word perfect;*

Rus: *честное благородное слово* (honest noble word); *под честное слово* (on my word of honor); *ругательные слова* (swear words); *матерное слово* (obscene word), *нецензурное слово* (obscene word), *обидные слова* (offensive words), *хлесткое словцо* (biting word), *крепкое слово* (strong word); *приветственное слово* (welcome speech), *вступительное слово* (opening speech), *живое слово* (living word); *без лишних слов* (without many words); *другими словами* (in other words); *проникновенные слова* (heartfelt words); *пустые слова* (empty words); *(это всё) общие слова* (these are all) general words; *последнее слово* (the last word);

Mon: *үг сүггүй* (without words- immediately) ; *үгэнд дуртай* (to love words – to be curious);

3. Anthropic+active+somatic:

Eng: *have (one's) words stick in (one's) throat; put words in (one's) mouth; take the words out of mouth;*

Rus: *слова застряли в горле* (words stuck in my throat); *слова не идут на язык* (words don't go to tongue); *слово вертится на языке* (the word spins on the tongue);

Mon: *үг хэлээ билүүдэх* (to sharpen one's words and tongue – to chat in vain, to speak unnecessary words); *үг хэл нь гүйцэгдэхгүй* (one's word and tongue is too fast to get caught up – to be excellent in eloquent in making speech);

Cultural codes similar in two languages:

1. Anthropic: **Eng.** *(upon) my word; at a word; beyond words; in a word; in other words; not the word for it; of word;* **Rus:** *вот моё слово* (here is my word); *своими словами* (in your own words); *ни слова* (not a word); *слов нет* (i have no words); *на словах* (in words);
2. Anthropic+anthropic: **Eng:** *(one's) word (of honor); (one's) word is law; a play on words a war of words; at a loss for words; a household word; the N-word; the printed word; word by word; word for word; word of honor; word of mouth; one's word is law;* **Rus:** *слово чести* (word of honor); *господин своему слову* (lord to his word); *хозяин своему слову* (master your word); *человек слова* (man of his word); *мое слово - закон!* (my word is law!); *слово за слово* (word for word); *модное словечко* (buzzword); *не на словах, а на деле* (not in words, but in deeds); *мастер слова* (master of words); *слово в слово* (word by word); *слова утешения* (consolation words); *слово лечит* (the word heals); *свобода слова* (freedom of speech); *от слова до слова* (from word to word);
3. Anthropic+numeric: **Eng:** *in so many words; without many words; a word or two;* **Rus:** *первое слово* (the first word); *одним словом* (in a word), *одно слово* (one word), *на полслова* (in half a word), *в двух словах* (in two words), *на два слова* (in two words), *на пару слов* (in a couple of words); *ни полслова* (not half a word); *набор слов* (a set of words); *(это) одни слова* (these are) only words; *с первого слова* (from the first word);
4. anthropic+natural: **eng:** *word hole; burning words;* **rus:** *золотые слова* (gold words); *словесный понос* (verbal diarrhea); *бессловесная тварь* (wordless creature); *море слов* (a sea of words);
5. Anthropic+artifact: **Eng:** *portmanteau word; word on the wire;* **Rus:** *непечатное слово* (unprintable word); *словесная завеса* (verbal veil);

6. Anthropic+zoonomic: **Eng**: *parrot (someone's) words; weasel words; winged words; word of mouse*; **Rus**: *крылатые слова (winged words); слово - не воробей (the word is not a sparrow)*;
7. Anthropic+active+qualitative: **Eng**: *for want of a better word; hang on (one's) every word; put in a good word; put the hard word on someone*; **Rus**: *давать честное слово (give my word of honor); (его) слово дорогого стоит ((his) word is worth a lot); запутаться в собственных словах (get confused in your own words); (говорить) с чужих слов ((speak) with hearsay); перейти от слов к делу (go from words to deeds); не говоря лишних слов (without saying unnecessary words), не говоря худого слова (without saying a bad word); помянуть добрым словом (remember with a kind word)*;
8. Anthropic+active+numeric: **Eng**: *be unable to put two words together*; **Rus**: *ловить каждое слово (catch every word; (прервать) на полуслове ((interrupt) mid-sentence); разжевывать каждое слово (chew every word); и двух слов связать не может (and he cannot connect two words); запинаться на каждом слове (stumble over every word); не обмолвиться ни единым словом (do not say a single word)*;
9. Anthropic+anthropic+numeric: **Eng**: *a four-letter word; a man of few words; in words of one syllable; say a few words*; **Rus**: *слово из трех букв (a three-letter word); я (ему) слово, а (он) мне десять (I say (him) the word, and (he) says me ten)*;
10. Anthropic+anthropic+active: **Eng**: *not know the meaning of the word*; **Rus**: *слова (не) расходятся с делами (words (not) are at odds with deeds); поддержать словом и делом (support in word and deed); выдергивать слова из контекста (pull words out of context); владеть словом / даром слова (own word / gift of word); обрести дар слова (to acquire the gift of speech); из песни слова не выкинешь (you cannot erase a word from a song)*;
11. Anthropic+ anthropic+active+qualitative: **Eng**: *a true word spoken in jest*; **Rus**: *Душа на честном слове держится (he soul keeps on the word of honor)*.

Cultural codes existing only in one of three languages:

In English:

1. Anthropic+temporal: **Eng**: *word in season; word out of season*;
2. Anthropic+somatic: **Eng**: *(one's) word is (one's) bond; a word in (one's) ear; by word of mouth*;
3. Anthropic+religious: **Eng**: *God's word*;
4. Anthropic+spatial: **Eng**: *sesquipedalian words*;
5. Anthropic+constructive: **Eng**: *the word on the street*;
6. Anthropic+active+zoonomic: **Eng**: *not a word to throw a dog*;
7. Anthropic+active+ temporal: **Eng**: *once (the) word gets out*;
8. Anthropic+active+ active: **Eng**: *suit (one's) actions to (one's) words*;
9. Anthropic+anthropic+spatial: **Eng**: *have a way with words*;
10. Anthropic+artifact+numeric: **Eng**: *a picture is worth a thousand words*;
11. Anthropic+qualitative+numeric: **Eng**: *famous last words*;

In Russian:

1. Anthropic+gastronomic: **Rus**: *соленое словцо (salty word)*;
2. Anthropic+Color: **Rus**: *ради красного словца (for the sake of the red word)*;
3. Anthropic+active+ natural: **Rus**: *бросать слова на ветер (throw words to the wind)*;
4. Anthropic+active+qualitative: **Rus**: *подобрать нужное слово (find the right word)*;
5. Anthropic+active+artifact: **Rus**: *за словом в карман не лезет (doesn't fit into my pocket for words)*;

6. Anthropic+active+religious: **Rus:** *внять слову божью* (heed the word of God), *проповедовать слово Божие* (preach the word of God);
7. Anthropic+anthropic+qualitative: **Rus:** *спасибо на добром слове* (thank you for the kind words);
8. Anthropic+ anthropic+active+religious: **Rus:** *нести людям слово божие* (to bring the word of God to people);
9. Anthropic+ numeric+anthropic+numeric: **Rus:** *меньше слов - больше дела* (talk less, work more);
10. Anthropic+qualitative+qualitative+zoonomic: **Rus:** *доброе слово и кошке приятно* (a kind word and the cat is pleased);
11. Anthropic+qualitative+numeric+numeric: **Rus:** *Первое слово дороже второго* (The first word is more expensive than the second).

Results of the analysis of cultural codes and correlation of cultural codes can be represented as follows:

<i>English cultural codes:</i>	<i>Russian codes:</i>	<i>Mongolian codes:</i>
anthropic	anthropic	anthropic
somatic	somatic	somatic
active	active	active
qualitative	qualitative	qualitative
numeric	numeric	-
artifact	artifact	-
natural	natural	-
zoonomic	zoonomic	-
religious	religious	-
spatial	-	-
constructive	-	-
-	color	-
-	gastronomic	-

Conclusion

On the grounds of our analysis of the correlation of the somatic idioms with the component 'word' and the codes of culture, we can make the following conclusions:

Universal codes of the culture for the appropriate three language worldviews include 3 common set out of the 34 sets of cultural codes: *anthropic+active*, *anthropic+qualitative* and *anthropic+active+somatic* codes. For the Russian and English languages, 11 sets of cultural codes are common: *anthropic*, *anthropic+anthropic*, *anthropic+numeric*, *anthropic+natural*, *anthropic+artifact*, *anthropic+zoonomic*, *anthropic+active+qualitative*, *anthropic+active+numeric*, *anthropic+anthropic+numeric*, *anthropic+anthropic+active*, *anthropic+ anthropic+active+qualitative codes*. The presence of common sets of cultural codes indicates a single "cultivated" worldview of the three nations.

Along with these similarities, there are also some differences in the world outlook presented in each language. Some of the codes of culture are present only in one of the compared languages: in English 11 sets of codes are unique: *anthropic+temporal*, *anthropic+somatic*, *anthropic+religious*, *anthropic+spatial*, *anthropic+constructive*, *anthropic+active+zoonomic*, *anthropic+active+temporal*, *anthropic+active+active*, *anthropic+anthropic+spatial*, *anthropic+artifact+numeric*, *anthropic+qualitative+numeric codes*. There are 10 unique codes in Russian language as following: *anthropic+gastronomic*, *anthropic+color*, *anthropic+active+natural*, *anthropic+active+qualitative*, *anthropic+active+artifact*, *anthropic+active+religious*, *anthropic+anthropic+qualitative*,

anthropic+anthropic+active+religious,anthropic+numeric+anthropic+numeric,anthropic+qualitative+qualitative+zoonomic,anthropic+qualitative+numeric+numeric codes. However, we can not see any unique codes in Mongolian. In English language cultural codes such as *gastronomic and color* codes are absent; in Mongolian - *numeric,natural, artifact, zoonomic, temporal, religious, spatial, constructive, gastronomic and color* codes are absent; in Russian - *color, spatial and constructive* codes are absent.

Thus, we can say that ethno-specific differences allow us to judge about the peculiarities of mentality, determined by cultural, historical, religious and mythological, geographical and climatic factors. The presence of a common set of cultural codes proves the universality of a linguistic cultural picture in three LVW (Language view of the world), due to the universality of man's existential characteristics: space, time. The presence of specific linkages of cultural codes confirms that the interaction of cultural codes in the linguistic consciousness occurs in different ethnic groups according to different models, which together with the figurative content determines the ethnic specificity of the formation of PVW.

Linguo-cultural theory proceeds from the thesis that the language, therefore, and the idiomatic fund of the language as well, is the keeper of the cultural code of the nation. The identification of this code is only possible through a specific linguistic and cultural analysis of the PVW, which reveals the connection between language and mentality and exposes all kinds of correspondences of idiomatic and mental units.

Based on a study of theoretical sources and practical material, we consider the cultural code as an instrument of access to the objective basic elements of culture. The basis of the cultural code is a certain classification, the structure of the typical in culture, a set of certain elements of culture that form the cultural constants of ethnic groups in the process of systematization and discretization of cultural experience. The code allows you to penetrate the semantic level of culture. The cultural code serves to create, transmit and preserve human culture. Its main characteristics are openness to change and versatility.

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CASE LICENSING OF EMBEDDED SUBJECTS IN ENGLISH AND MONGOLIAN

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Abstract: *This study aims to demonstrate that parameters, which characterize the grammars of individual languages such as English and Mongolian, are based on the differences of case licensing of an embedded subject in two languages. First, under the parametric variation, we propose that a relative clause with a genitive case-marked subject in Mongolian is a complementizer phrase. Second, we try to illustrate that in Mongolian, genitive-case marked subject and accusative case marked subject occur only in finite clauses while in English ECM accusative case marked subject - in infinite clauses. Finally, we aim to show that a subordinate clause in Mongolian has one more structure in comparison with the canonical clause structure CP+TP+VP of English adopting the analysis of split projection by Rizzi (1993).*

Keywords: *exceptional case marker, complementizer, embedded subject*

Introduction

Cross linguistically, the most common formations of the relative clauses are externally-headed construction, where the head appears in the higher clause and is modified by a clause including a gap to the external head and internally headed (head-in situ) constructions where the head exists in the modifying clause. Keenan and Comrie's Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy Hypothesis (Comrie & Keenan, 1977) is one of the crucial findings of researches for relative clauses. This is the relativization hierarchy which is from most accessible for relativization to least accessible as shown in (1). The symbol > denotes 'is more accessible than'.

1. Subject > direct object > indirect object > object of preposition > genitive > object of comparison. Consider the following example in English.
 - a. Subject RC: the dog [that _ carries the pup]
 - b. Object RC: the dog [that the pup carries _]
 - c. Indirect object RC; the dog [that the pup gave the food to _]
 - d. Object of a preposition; the people [whom he has been arguing about _]
 - e. Genitive RC: the man [whose house I saw _]
 - f. Object of Comparison RC: the women [who her son is taller than _]

The above examples show that English allows all of the functions of noun phrases in the hierarchy to be relativized. And they illustrate each of the possible grammatical functions of the nouns that can be relativized in English. Based on relativization evidence from about fifty languages, Keenan and Comrie (Comrie & Keenan, 1977) claimed that all languages seem to allow relativization on the subject and the accessibility of other functions to relativization differs cross-linguistically. As for Mongolian, relative clauses can appear in the first four slots in the hierarchy as shown in the following examples.

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3. Simple sentences:

- a. Dulma angi-daa Bold-d zahia bich-iv
Sub-nom classroom –loc Bold –dat letter write.perf
'Dulma wrote a letter to Bold.'

Subject RC:

- b. Angidaa Bold -od zahia bich -sen] hun (Dulma)
[classroom –loc Bold-dat letter write REL] person
'The person (Dulma) who write to Bold a letter in the classroom.'

Direct Object RC:

- c. [Dulma -iin angidaa Bold-od bich-sen] zahia [Dulma-gen classroom–
loc Bold -dat write REL] letter
'The letter which Dulma write to Bold in the classroom.'

Indirect Object RC:

- d. [Dulmaagiin angid zahia bichsen]hun (Bold)
[Dulma gen classroom loc-letter write-REL] person
'The person (which indicates Bold here)'

Oblique Object RC:

- e. [Dulmagiin Boldod zahia bichsen] angi
[Dulma-gen Bold- dat letter write REL] classroom
'The classroom at which Dulma write to Dorj a letter'

In Mongolian, genitives can only be relativized when a pronoun *ter* (that) is retained. Let's see the following example:

- f. [Minii harsan baishin] bol *ter* eregteigiinh.
I -gen saw-pst house- top that man
'The man whose house I saw'

As for the final slot, the object of comparison cannot be relativized in Mongolian. In accordance with the above examples of Accessibility Hierarchy to Mongolian relativization, Accessibility Hierarchy in English and Mongolian can be described as follows:

4. Accessibility positions for relativization:

English: SUB> DO>IO>OBL>GEN> OCOMP

Mongolian: SUB> DO> IO> OBL>GEN

most accessible

least accessible

least marked

most marked

As for Mongolian examples, apart from the subject relative clause, the subjects of the relative clauses are in the genitive case. On the other hand, Mongolian does not have RCs (=relative clauses with a gap) instead, it has attributive clauses, which involve simply attaching modifying clauses to the head noun. Comrie states (Keenan and Comries , 1977) that such clauses in East Asian languages (e.g., Korean, Japanese, and Chinese) are attributive clauses. Also, he observes that in these languages relativizability is constrained not by grammatical relations but by semantic and pragmatic factors. We explain this structural difference of relative clauses in English and Mongolian based on the following facts: 1) lack of relative pronouns and article system in Mongolian relatives and 2) the non-absolute correlation between a tensed clause, C, and nominalization.

Relative NP constructions in Mongolian and English

A relative noun phrase contains a nominal head and relative clause. The modifying relation between the nominal head and the relative clause is based on the 1) head which is involved in the

situation expressed by the clause 2) relation that is syntactically expressed by a gap and empty category. An empty category can be found in both English and Mongolian. In Mongolian:

5. a. [NP [Bold-iin t i bich-sen] nom i]
 Bold-gen write-pst (mod) book
 ‘The book that Bold wrote’.
- b. [NP[t i uran zuragt durtai]
 Dorji painting –at interest-(mod) Dorj
 ‘Dorj who is interested in painting’.
6. In English:
- c. [DP the [NP book [CP OP i[ip Anna bought t i]]]]
 [DP the [NP [book]i[CP which t i]j[C’[IP Anna likes t i]]]

As shown in (6a) the relative involves the structure of CP and the relative operator is contained in CP. Also, the head NP originates outside relative clause CP as suggested by Jackendoff (Jackendoff, 1977). A’-movement of relative operator exists in the relative clause overtly in (6a) or covertly in (6b). On the other hand, Kayne (Kayne, 1994) claims that the head NP originates from the relative clause CP.

In terms of the relative clause in Mongolian, the relative operator does not exist. Thus, it is not clear whether an intermediate A’-movement to the Spec of CP occurs. On the other hand, it is not clear that there is a complement that indicates the structural boundary between the relative clause and the head of NP. Instead, the subject of the relative clause is genitive case-marked and accusative case marked. The two relativization strategies in Mongolian have traditionally been called tensed gerundive with the suffix *san*, *dag*, and *j baigaa* reflecting the correlation between the grammatical roles of the relativized constituent. (Лувсанвандан, 2007)

7. a. [-I emegtei-g har-san] hun i
 woman-acc see-san (tensed gerundive) person
 ‘The person who saw the woman’
- b. [ter hun –ii – I har-san] emegtei i
 the person-gen see-san woman
 ‘The woman that the man saw’.

(7a) is a case of the subject relativization with the corresponding suffix on the verbal head *san*. (7b) exemplifies object relativization with the suffix *san* on the verbal head, as well as the subject is genitive case marked of the clause. Referring to the genitive subject, let’s take more examples with the suffix:

8. a. [udur bur huuhd-iin uila-h]chimee
 Every day a child –gen cry-h noise
 ‘the noise which (definite) child cries every day’
- b. [udur bur huuhed ui la-h]chimee
 Every day a child –nom cry-h noise
 ‘The noise which a child(indefinite) cries every day’

Note that the choice of genitive case marking on the subject leads to different interpretation, with specific and nonspecific subject readings, respectively. This is due to the fact that genitive marking on subject of finite and non-finite clauses in Mongolian correlates with the specific reading of the subject. Thus, we assume that the existence of a genitive marked subject in the clauses determines the particular relativization suffix on its verbal head and a genitive marked subject always coexists with tensed gerundive suffix (traditionally called).

Relative clause in Mongolian is a CP

9. a. Dulma [Bold-iig huduu yav-san] gej hel-sen.
 Dulma [Bold-acc countryside go-pst/comp say-pst
 ‘Dulma said that Bold went to the countryside’.
 b. Dulma Dorj-oos [hezee huduu yav-san]gej asuu-san.
 Dulma Dorj-abl[when huduu go-san –com ask-pst
 Dulma asked Dorj when he went to the countryside’.

(9a) contains a declarative ending whereas sentence (9b) contains an interrogative. A clause complements which is under VP node coexists with a complementizer *gej*, whereas the clausal complement selected by an N, is a full S(sentence) with a sentence ending *san* as shown in (10).

10. a. [[Bold/iin/iig huduu yav-san]] barimt
 Bold-gen/acc countryside-to go pst-MOD fact
 ‘the fact that Bold went to the countryside’.

The clausal complement in (10) can be considered to have the structure of IP since it involves tense of a clausal complement and exists after a sentence ending. A noun subcategorizing a clausal complement such as *barimt* (fact) in (10) can select a clause with a declarative sentence ending *san*. Moreover, *-san* preceding the head in (10) contains the tense of the clausal complement and prenominal predicate ending. The main different indicator of the relative clause from the main clause is the case of the subject, not predicate ending.

11. a. Bold \emptyset huduu yav-san
 Bold-nom(unmarked) countryside go-pst.
 ‘Bold went to the countryside’.
 b. *Boldiin /iig huduu yav-san.
 Bold-gen/acc countryside go-pst
 Int: ‘Bold went to the countryside’

As shown in (11b) main clause with genitive or accusative case marked subject is ungrammatical in Mongolian. On the other hand, we can see that predicate endings like *SAN*, *DAG* and *H* indicate TENSE apart from function of noun modifier.

12. a. [[Bold huduu yav-dag]] barimt
 nom/gen countryside go -dag-MOD fact
 ‘the fact that Bold goes to the countryside’.
 b. [[Bold /iin huduu yav-h]] barimt
 nom/gen countryside-to go -pst-MOD fact
 ‘the fact that Bold will go to the countryside’.

Now let’s compare the following two examples.

13. a. [Bold-iin t i Dulma-d ug-sun] nom t i
 Bold-gen Dulma-to give-past book
 ‘the book that John gave to Mary
 b. [IP Boldiin Dulmaad t i ugsun gedeg] nom I
 Bold-gen Dulma-to give-pst- ge-deg-pres (MOD) book
 ‘the book which is said that Bold gave it to Dulma’

The native speakers of Mongolian cannot easily discover different interpretations existing between (13a) and (13b). The relative clause in (13a) directly restricts the head, but the one in (13b)

has a clear indication that it is repeated. This difference is in connection to the specific recoverable elements *ge-deg* which are selected by the head noun. It is a representative form for a verb of speaking, ‘to say’. Also, this specific recoverable element can be deleted. Based on this observation, we argue that *ge-deg* is a complementizer in Mongolian. The structure in (14) makes clear that the construction preceding the head of the relative NP is also IP. This construction allows tense on the complement (specific recoverable element) *gedeg* as shown in (14).

14. a. [IP Boldiin Dulmaad t i ugsun ge-sen] nom I
 Bold-gen Dulma-to give-past-ge-pst (MOD) book
 ‘The book which is said that Bold gave it to Dulma’.

In other words, it means that [S Complement-Noun] construction and the relative NP are parallel in their structures and interpretation. D. Tserenpil (Rita Kullmann; Dandii-Yadamyn Tserenpil, 2005) claims that *ge-deg* is one of the complementizers in the relative clause and the relative clause in Mongolian is a CP. The internally headed relative clause (IHRC) construction in Altaic languages like Japanese and Korean has been one of the main topics since the 1980s. Internally-headed construction exists in SOV languages like Mongolian which have a non-absolute correlation between a tensed clause and C. This kind of a relation doesn’t exist in SVO languages and head-initial languages like English. Based on the fact that is related to a nominalized tensed clause, Carl Pollard and Ivan A. Sag (Carl Pollard and Ivan A.Sag, 1994) claim that languages with IHRC are head-final and have powerful, productive patterns of nominalization which are at least superficially similar to relative clauses. This observation is compatible with the correlation between syntactic nominalization and the IHRCs in Mongolian. In other words, the basic issue is focused on the prevalence of a nominalized tensed clause (IP) in a language like Mongolian and its correlation with IHRCs.

15. IHRC with an IP:
 a. Bold [TV \emptyset evder-sen] pro -iig zasav
 Bold TV-nom out of order-pst (mod) acc fixed up
 ‘Bold fixed the TV that is out of order’.

Based on the analysis of semantically empty nouns in Korean (Hang, 2013), we claim that (15) must be headed by a cover *t* form of the semantically empty nominal complementizer like *ge-deg* which is occupying the NP node. It means that sentence like (15) is nominal CP headed by *ge-deg*. When IHRC has the clausal complement with the structure of a CP as shown in (15), the construction is grammatical as shown in (16).

IHRC with a CP:

16. a. Bold [[TV evder-sen] gedeg]iig zassan
 Bold TV-nom out of order-past mod COMP -acc fix –past-dec
 ‘Bold fixed the TV that was out of order’.

Mirasugi (Mirasugi, 1996) analyses that an IHRC in Japanese has a structure of a pure complex NP, and it headed semantically null element *no* as shown in the next example: IHRC in Japanese.

17. a. Keikan-wa [dorooboo-ga ginkoo-kara detekita **no**]
 Policeman –top robber-nom bank-from came out -acc arrested.
 ‘The policeman arrested the robber who came out from the bank’

The structure of the Japanese IHRC proposed by Mirasugi (1996) is described in (18).

18. [NP [IP...] [no]]

As shown in (18) the complex NP structure contains the nominalized clause by a semantically empty element *no* and it has the structure of IP. Relativization and Topicalization in Mongolian: The relation between relativization and topicalization has a significant role in analyzing the existence of IHRCs which is a language-specific phenomenon in a language without an article system such as Mongolian. I argue that the nominative/genitive alternation in Mongolian relative clauses shows that nominative agents are less preferred than their genitive counterparts. As shown in (18) the subject of IHRC is a genitive case marked in Mongolian.

19. a. [Bold-iin Dulmaa-tai uulz -san] surguuli aldartai
 Bold-gen Dulma-with meet-pst(mod) school-nom famous-pres.
 ‘The school where Bold met Dulma is famous’

Otherwise, sentence (19b) is ungrammatical because of the subject with a topic feature in relative clause whereas in (19c) the object NP *Bold* is IP-adjoined by scrambling, and it is grammatical.

- b. *[Bold ni Dulma-tai uulzsan] gedeg surguuli aldartai
 Bold-Top Dulma –with meet-pst(ge mod)]school-nom famous
 ‘The school where Bold met Dulma is famous’
 c. IP Dulmaa-tai i[Bold-iin i uulz-san] gedeg surguuli
 Dulma-with Bold-gen meet pst- ge-mod school.

Conversely, in Mongolian the main subject with Topic feature is grammatical:

20. a. Bold ni Dulma-tai uulz-san.
 Bold-top Dulma –with meet-pst
 ‘Bold met Dulma’.

We analyze that nominal complementizer *ge-deg* already has a Focus feature. Thus, it cannot contain a topic phrase in Mongolian and IHRCs in Mongolian is a complex NP contain-ing CP.

Case Alternation of Embedded Subject in Mongolian

Embedded clauses in English and Mongolian

In Mongolian, the subject of embedded clauses can be realized with different case morphology. For example, in (21a) the subject of the relative clause can be realized as nominative, genitive, whereas in (21b-d) the subject of complement clause can be realized as nominative, genitive, accusative, and (22) genitive case marked subject does not coexist with complementiser *gej*. The genitive case marked subject appears in embedded clause headed by COMP *gedeg* and gerundive morphemes.

21. a. Bi[bagsh-/iin/ bich-sen zahia/gedeg/iig] unshsan
 I teacher-nom/genwrite-pst letter/comp/ acc read.
 ‘I read the letter which the president wrote’
 b. **nom**: Ter ene onol zuv gedegiig batalsan.
 He this theory-nom true-COM/acc postulate
 ‘He postulated the theory is true’.
 c. **gen**: Ter ene onol-iin zuv gedegiig batalsan.
 He this theory-gen true COM/acc postulated.
 ‘He postulated this theory is true’.

d. **acc:** Ter ene onol-iig zuv gedegiig batalsan.
He this theory acc true COM /acc postulated.
'He postulated this theory is true'

22. a. Bi Dorj-iig uhaalag gej boddog
I Dorj-acc smart COMP think-HAB
'I think that Dorj is smart'.
b. Bi Dorj \emptyset uhaalag gej boddog
I Dorj-nom smart COMP think-HAB
'I think that Dorj is smart'

Under the analysis of alternative case marked subject, the factitive verbs can be divided into two types.

23. A-Type

The verbs which subcategorize complement clause with alternative case marked subject (nom, acc, and gen).

- batlah –postulate
- harah -see
- medeh -know
- heleh- -say
- sonsoh -hear

24. B-Type

The verbs which subcategorize complement clause with alternative case marked subject (nom, acc).

- Bodoh -think
- Itgeh –believe

Let's compare again English with Mongolian.

25. a. He postulated that the theory is true.
b. He postulated the theory to be true.

As shown in (25a), The English verb postulate subcategorizes the complement clause which is introduced by the declarative complementizer that. The clause which is headed by that is a finite clause and the subject is licensed only nominative case by the closest a finite complementizer "that". As shown in (25b) the verb postulate subcategorizes infinitival complement clauses that have an accusative subject. Complement clauses like the theory to be true in (25b) are exceptional in that their subjects are licensed accusative case by the matrix sentence verb postulate. Thus, they are called Exceptional Case Marking clauses and verbs when used with an ECM clause as their complement is known as ECM verbs.

In Mongolian, the case licensing on the subject of the subordinate clause is quite different from English. In other words, the alternative case marked subject can appear in finite clauses headed by adnominal complement *gedeg*, and gerundive morpheme of a verb. To explain these case licensing in Mongolian based on the theory within the framework of UG, it is necessary to diverge from the canonical clause structure of CP+TP+VP. Specifically, we consider that the subordinate clause in Mongolian is the Complementizer +ADN phrase and which has one more structure in comparison with canonical clause structure CP+TP+VP of English following analysis of split projection by Rizzi (1997). For the convenience of this analysis, let's look at the Mongolian data again in (26).

26. a. **nom:** Ter ene onol \emptyset zuv gedegiig batalsan
 He this theory-nom true-COMP/acc postulated.
 ‘He postulated that the theory is true’.
- b. **gen:** Ter ene onol-iin zuv (gedegiig)batalsan .
 He this theory-gen true COMP postulated
 ‘He postulated this theory is true’.
- c. **acc:** Ter ene onoliig zuv gedegiig batalsan
 He this theory acc true COMP/acc postulated.
 ‘He postulated this theory is true’.

There is no problematic difference in comparison with English counterpart in sentence like (25a). If we change the subject of the embedded clause *ene onol* (this theory) with a personal pronoun, it will be ungrammatical as shown in (26a). However, for (26b) and (26c) if we use the personal pronouns, they are grammatical as shown in (27b) and (27c).

27. a. **nom:** *Ter chi shudarga gedegiig batalsan.
 He you-nom honest COMP/accpostulated.
 Int: He postulated that you are honest.
- b. **gen:** Ter chinii shudarga gedegiig batalsan
 He you-gen true COMP/accpostulated.
 ‘He postulated that you are honest’.
- c. **acc:** Ter chamaig shudarga gedeg-iig batalsan.
 He you- acc true COMP/acc postulated.
 ‘He postulated that you are honest’.

However, there isn’t any obvious difference of meaning between embedded clauses with genitive case marked subject and clauses with accusative case marked subject, Mongolian native speakers can tell easily the differences from a discourse perspective. In other words, in (27b) embedded clause with genitive marked subject *chinii* (your) is a focused constituent that typically represents new information. In this respect, the focused genitive subject of embedded clauses differs very little from the embedded clause with the accusative case marked subject and nominative case marked subject. Let’s compare the following two sentences:

28. a. Nuuriin end baidag/gedeg/iig bi medne
 Lake-gen here be-COM/acc I know
 ‘I know that the lake is here’.
- b. Nuur end baidag /gedeg/iig bi medne
 Lake-nom here be-COM/acc I know-pst
 ‘I know that lake is here’

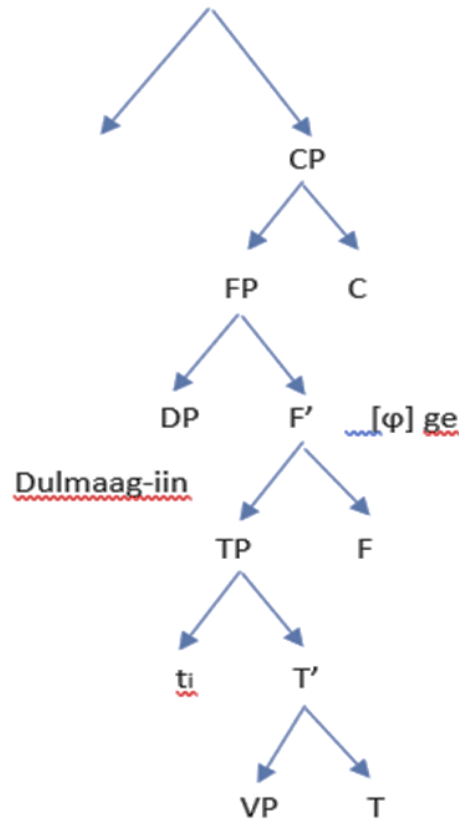
Here, genitive case marked subject in (28a) denotes focused information. Rizzi (1993) argues that focus constituents occupy the specifier position within the Focus Phrase. More specifically, he suggests that complementizer has a role in specifying whether a given clause is declarative, imperative, or exclamative in force. As (28) shows, genitive case marked pronoun is focused in Mongolian when the pronoun is used with *ge*. Even though it denotes the meaning my property, it is more focused than DP *minii hurungu* (my property) in Mongolian. Let’s consider the following example:

29. Minii ge-h hurungu
 I-gen ge property
 Int: ‘my property’

Mood phrase in Mongolian: The derivation of subordinated clauses with the alternative subject (30a, b &c) can be sketched in the following way as shown in (29d).

30. a. [Dulma-giin zahidal bichsen /gedeg/iig] harsan.
 [Dulma -gen letter write-pst COMP/acc] saw
 ‘I saw Dulma’s writing a letter’.
- b. [Dulma zahidal bichsen/gedeg/iig] harsan.
 [Dulma-nom letter write COMP/acc] saw
 ‘I read the letter that Dulma write’.
- c. [Dulma-g zahidal bichsen/gedeg/] iig harsan.
 [Dulma-acc letter write-pst/gedeg/acc saw-pst

d.



Based on above-mentioned derivation we suggest that a genitive case marked subject in an embedded clause of Mongolian undergoes A-movement to the embedded Spec-FP and that [f] feature triggers A-movement. Since all subjects of finite embedded clause are Nominative case marked, Chomsky (Chomsky, 2005) argues that feature transmission from C to T is obligatory. Conversely, we suggest that this is optional, not obligatory, under the alternative case marked subjects of the embedded clauses in Mongolian. The complementizer *gedeg* optionally transmits its [f] features to T. The C head *ge-deg* transmits its [f] features, and T enters into an Agree relation with the subject of the embedded clause by taking the [f] features. The nominative case is then realized as a result of [f] feature checking by T. Otherwise, in (30d), the [f] feature remains on COMP *gedeg* and T does not become a probe for Agree. Also, the subject of the embedded clause is not a licensed nominative case. Instead, the COMP head *gedeg* transmits its [f] feature to Focus, and Focus becomes capable of entering into an Agree relation with DP which is in Spec-Focus Phrase (before this Agree relation DP in Spec-TP moved Spec-Focus Phrase position due to the [EPP] feature of head Focus of Focus phrase). The head Focus constituent of the Focus Phrase contains an [EPP] feature and an uninterpretable focus feature, and this attracts a DP in the specifier position of TP which carries (Chomsky, 2005) matching interpretable focus feature to move to the specifier position within

the focus phrase. As a result of this agreement, the complement clause like “*Dulmaagiin zahidal bichsen gedeg*” is derived.

Object raising

According to Chomsky (1981), *him* is in the embedded clause and is a licensed accusative case from the matrix verb via exceptional case marking (ECM). He claims that the object moves to the higher clause as shown in (31) and (32).

31. The DA proved [the two men to have been at the scene of the crime] during each other’s trial.

32. The DA proved [no one to have been at the scene] during any of the trials.

The antecedent two men c-commands the reciprocal each other in (31) and no one c-commands any in (32). Based on this evidence, he argues that ECM object does not exist within the embedded clause instead in a higher position. On the other hand, (Lasnik, 1999) suggests that object stays in-situ, and object raising in English may be optional under the following fact.

33. a. * who was [a picture of t] selected?
 b. Who did you select [a picture of t]? cf. (Lasnik, 1999)

Movement of *who* out of the subject is ungrammatical as shown in (33a), whereas movement of *who* is grammatical in (33b). Lasnik (Lasnik, 1999) observed that movement out of the subject is not allowed since the subject is raised from spec of VP to Spec of AgrSP. *Who* out of the object in (33b) shows that the object stays in situ. Because of a lack of the case marker, it is difficult to demonstrate the optional raising of the object. Contrary to English, Mongolian has overt case markers to mark both the raised and in-situ. The raised object is marked by an accusative case marker. It means that object raising in Mongolian is optional like object raising in English. The limited number of verbs in Mongolian displays the same effects of ECM behavior observed with the believe class of verbs in English, where the subject of lower clause receives accusative Case from the higher verb. The difference is that the ECM verbs in Mongolian select tensed clauses. In Mongolian embedded subjects can either stay in –situ and get a nominative case or raise to the higher clause and get an accusative case as shown in (34).

34. a. Bi [Bold-iig untsan] gej bodson.
 I [Bold-acc sleep-pst/COMP think-pst
 ‘I think that Bold slept’.
 b. Bi [Bold untsan] gej bodson
 I [Bold-nom sleep-pst COMP think-pst
 ‘I think that Bold slept’ ECM; V matrix [NP to VP embedded]

35. a. He expected [me to teach English].
 b. He expected [that I would teach English].

In (35a) NP *me* gets case from outside the embedded infinitival clause and the case relationship crosses a TP boundary. In (35b) Nominative case is licensed to NP due to the presence of complementizer.

Let’s look at Mongolian counterpart.

36. [Namaig angli hel zaana] gej ter bod-son
 [I-acc English teach FUT] COM he expect-pst
 ‘He expects that I will teach English’.

Chomsky (2005) argues that the phase head transmits its features to its complement. Thus, COMP transmits its [f] edge feature (EF) to T, thus only T is possible to license nominative Case. Specifically, the COMP transmits its [f]-features to the embedded T in (35), and the nominative case on the embedded subject is assigned by T. This feature transmission does not appear in Mongolian counterpart. Thus, we propose the accusative case of the embedded subject is assigned by matrix V, which inherits feature from the matrix V. In other words, the accusative as shown in (34) a certain verb like *bodoh* (think) in Mongolian takes a clausal complementizer, GEJ, and the subject of the embedded clause can be marked with the only accusative and whereas a class of verb like *medeh* (know) takes adnominal affix *gedeg* and the subject of the embedded clause can be marked with either nominative, accusative case and genitive with little semantic difference. Therefore, ECM in Mongolian seems to be dependent upon the properties of the matrix verb. Consider the following ECM examples in English and Mongolian case on the embedded subject with overt complementizer *gej* is obligatory raising in Mongolian as shown in (36). One of the evidences for ECM in English is that raised NPs can be passivized in (37).

37. a. John believed him to be a genius.
 b. She was believed to be a genius.

Similarly, in Mongolian embedded accusative subjects occur in the passivization as shown in the following examples:

38. a. Bi ene hulgaichiig barigdsan gej medsen.
 I this thief-acc catch –PASS/COM know-pst
 ‘I knew that this thief was caught.’
 b. Ene hulgaich- barigdsan gej medegdsen
 This thief catch-PASS/COM know –PASS/pst
 Int; ‘This thief was known to have been caught.’

39. [TP... [VP SUBJ V’ [CP t subj...]

Adopting optional raising analysis of Hiraiwa (Hiraiwa, 2001) we attempt to show some pieces of evidences against the subject-to-object raising analysis/ECM in Mongolian:

40. Adverbial clauses:
 Bi Dulmag yavahiin umnu zalgasan.
 I Dulma-acc go-FUT before call-pst
 ‘I called before Dulma went’.

In 40, the proposition *umnu* (before) selects accusative case on its complement *Dulmaa yavah* (Dulma went) and the postposition and its complement are adverbial modifier. Raising out of the adverbial modifier *Dulmag yavahiin umnu* (before Dulma went) is blocked by 41.

41. Adjunct Island Constraint
 Nothing may be moved out of a clausal adjunct.

Under this assumption, the accusative case marked NP *Dulmaa-g* is considered as a constituent of the adverbial modifier. For another piece of evidences, let’s try to insert matrix adverb after the subject of embedded clauses to test whether the subject of the embedded clause is constituent of the matrix clause. If it is grammatical, it indicates that the embedded subject is subject-to-object raising and thus a constituent of matrix clause.

42. a. Margaash Dulma Boldiig yavsaniig medeh bolno.
 Dulma tomorrow Bold-acc go-pst/acc know/ will –FUT
 ‘Tomorrow, Dulma will know that Bold left’.

- b.*Dulma Bold-iig margaash yavsaniig medeh bolno
 Dulma Bold-acc tomorrow go-pst/acc know / will-FUT
 Int; ‘tomorrow, Dulma will know that Bold left’.

In (42a) the adverb *margaash* (tomorrow) is modifying the matrix verb. However, that the matrix adverb cannot appear after the accusative embedded subject *Dulma-g* as shown by (42b). Evidence against ECM comes from the fact that accusative embedded subjects lack direct object property. The embedded subject in Mongolian can occur in the genitive case as shown in (43a). In other words, the subject of the embedded object clause can be nominative (unmarked) or accusative and genitive with little semantic difference. The matrix subject may occur in a different position.

43. a. Bi Ene hulgaich-iin bari-gd- saniig medsen
 I this thief-gen catch –PASS-pst/acc know-pst
 ‘I know that this thief was caught’.
 b. Bi ene hulgaich-iig barigdsaniig medsen
 I this thief-acc catch –PASS-pst know-pst
 ‘I know that this thief was caught’.
 c. ene hulgaich barigdsaniig bi medsen
 this thief –acc catch –PASS-pst I know-pst
 ‘I know that this thief was caught’.

Based on all pieces of evidence against subject-to-object analysis, a new proposal will appear related to cases on the embedded subjects. According to Chomsky’s (2005) implementation of Agree, I attempt to propose an alternative approach to the Mongolian ECM. Accusative case on the embedded subject is licensed by the matrix *v* through Agree. According to this analysis, the accusative subject need not lift to the matrix clause for its case to be assigned.

44. [TP...[vP vo[vp Vo[CP....SUBJ...]]]]

Conclusion

We have demonstrated that parameters, which characterize the grammars of individual languages such as English and Mongolian, are based on the differences of case licensing of embedded subject in two languages. Specifically, I propose that subordinate clause in Mongolian has one more structure in comparison with the canonical clause structure CP+TP+VP of English adopting the analysis of split projection by Rizzi (1993). Canonical structures of embedded clauses in English and Mongolian:

English: CP+ TP+ VP
 Mongolian: CP +FP+ TP+VP

Second, we propose there are two types of raising analysis under accusative subject construction:

- A-type: optional raising analysis
- B-type: obligatory raising analysis

Putting these two claims together, I have shown that differences between the head-initial SVO and the head-final SOV languages would be the correlation between a tensed clauses and COMP. In other words, in languages like English, this kind of relation is absolute, while in languages like Mongolian it is not absolute. A tensed relative clause in Mongolian is not solely licensed by COMP, and it can coexist with other syntactic elements such as [+focus]. In contrast, a tensed clause in SVO languages like English can be licensed only by COMP (Comrie & Keenan, 1977)

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A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF AUGMENTATIVE WORDS OF MEANING OF ADJECTIVES IN ENGLISH AND MONGOLIAN

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Abstract: *This article is devoted to the study in the current issue of modern linguistics, contrastive study of augmentative words of meanings of adjectives. The practical significance of the work is in the possibility of using the results of the research in theoretical courses of contrastive linguistics, contrastive phraseology, in courses of theory and in the development I will compare degree modifiers of adjectives in English with the augmentative words of meanings of adjectives in Mongolian and in detail the two classes in the languages based on those environments, usage, and examples.*

Keywords: *Language, Analysis, intensifier, linguistic environment*

Introduction

Most languages are exceedingly complex in structure and all have their own frame of reference, therefore, one language should not be approached and described in terms of another language. English and Mongolian are non-cognate languages-that is genetically unrelated, being derived from different ancestors: one from the proto-Altaic family, the other from the proto-Indo-European. The Mongolian and English languages have substantial grammatical, semantic and lexicological dissimilarities.

An adjective is a word that modifies a noun. Adjectives in English and Mongolian share the same characteristics of nouns such as describing colors, qualities, sizes, mass etc. In Mongolian the adjective itself usually is not inflected. In English many but not all adjectives have inflected forms. The inflection is connected with gradability based on meaning. Adjectives describing subjective opinion, size, age, condition, temperature and color can show a scale of intensity, that is, they have degree of comparison.

Literature

There are various terms and various ways of categorization in the literature. Most linguists agree that degree and quantification are two notions that have measurement in common. Sweet (1981) recognizes a class of adverbs of degree (quantity), which modify adjectives, adverbs, and occasionally nouns (p.124). Bas Aarts (2008) “Most adjectives are gradable, i.e. they can be preceded by words such as very, extremely, less, etc. (cf. very helpful, extremely nasty, less interesting) which indicate the extent to which the adjective applies to the word it combines with” (p.31). Randolph Quirk (2014) “Modifier of adjective-an adverb may premodify an adjective. Most commonly the adverb is an intensifier or emphasizer” (p.149).

Mongolian linguists, such as (Avgaandandar, 1828; 1997, p.34); mash, ulemj, nen, asar, yalanguya (I.J.Schmidt, 1831, p.39); (Byambasan. P, 1966, p.104-109); (Bazarragchaa.M, 1990, p.324); (Unurbayan.Ts, 2004, p.233); (Munkh-Amgalan.Yu, Kan Shin, 2014, p.110) mentioned about Augmentative of Meanings of Adjectives in their books.

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Expressions of degree are conspicuous elements in human communication. English linguists use different labels for items which modify verbs and items which modify adjectivals. The following table shows the terminology used in four different linguistic works.

Source (Судлаачдын нэр, бүтээлийн хэвлэгдсэн он)	Modifier of adjectivals (тэмдэг нэрийн тодогтогч)	Modifier of verbs (үйл үгийн тодогтогч)
Halliday 1985	Submodifier I'm <i>awfully</i> sorry. " <i>Awfully</i> sorry."	mood adjunct They don't usually open before ten.
Quirk ба бусад 1985	Modifier We have enjoyed some <i>extremely excellent</i> performances at this theater.	Subjunct He just stopped talking.
Allerton 1987	Intensifier "A <i>really</i> good detective never gets married."	adverb of degree The water was extremely cold.
Collins 1990	Submodifier The buffalo is <i>utterly</i> stupid animal.	adverb of degree She is running very fast.

Materials and method

The selected degree English and Mongolian modifiers are all identified as modifiers of degree in lexicographic works. The entries and examples are drawn from Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary, English-Mongolian dictionary and Mongolian-English Dictionary. The basic methods of the research are comparative-methodological method, the descriptive method, which includes methods of observation, interpretation, comparison, generalization and elements of statistical method.

Degree modifiers of adjectives in English

Some adjectives have heightening effect on the noun they modify, or the reverse, lowering effect. At least three semantic subclasses of intensifying adjectives can be distinguished:

- Emphasizer : a certain ('sure') winner
a real ('undoubt') hero
- Amplifier: a complete victory- the victory was complete
utter folly
- Downtoners: I quite like him (Randolph Quirk ,Sydney Greenbaum 2014:142).

An adverb may premodify an adjective. Most commonly the adverb is an intensifier or *emphasizer*: *extremely dangerous, deeply concerned, perfectly reasonable, really beautiful, very good, just impossible*. (Randolph Quirk , Sydney Greenbaum, 2014, p.149).

The selected degree English and Mongolian modifiers are all identified as modifiers of degree in lexicographic works. The entries and examples are drawn from Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary, where synonyms are given for all the entries.

№	intensifier/	synonyms	Examples
1	absolutely	totally	That's the absolutely fascinating piece of work.
2	completely	quite	He forced himself to lie absolutely still.
3	perfectly	totally	He was completely bald.
4	entirely	completely, absolutely, totally, utterly	This is a perfectly normal baby.
5	utterly	totally	McGovern had told them something entirely different.
6	quite	absolutely, totally, completely	On the other side of the island, the view was utterly different.
7	totally	entirely	You're quite right.
8	almost	rather, relatively	He was quite young.
9	very	overall	A totally new situation arose.
10	terribly	practically	I had almost forgotten about the trip.
11	extremely	extremely	That's very nice of you.
12	awfully	frightfully, very	It is terribly important
13	frightfully	terribly, very	He played an extremely important part in the revolution.
14	most	awfully	He was an awfully good rugby player.
15	highly	highly, extremely, very	I'm frightfully sorry.
16	jolly	very	The film is most disturbing
17	fairly	extremely, very	The report is highly critical of case policies.
18	rather	pretty	We provide a jolly good service, I think.
19	pretty	somewhat;	It is fairly complicated.
20	slightly	very	I'm rather puzzled by this question.
21	somewhat	kind of	The company thought I did rather well.
		a bit	I'm pretty certain she enjoys it.
			White wine should be slightly chilled.
			My own part was fascinating, if somewhat alarming.

When we look at this list of degree modifiers, it becomes clear that there are subgroups of synonyms. *Absolutely*, *completely*, *perfectly*, *entirely*, *utterly*, one of the entries for *quite*, and *totally* express maximum force, and most of them are used as synonyms for one another in the list. In the same way *very*, *terribly*, *extremely*, *awfully*, *frightfully*, *most*, *highly* and *jolly* are employed as synonyms for one another.

Augmentative of Meaning of Adjectives in Mongolian

Through modification, the meaning of an adjective can be slightly changed without changing it to another word category. In order to intensify the meaning, adverbs are used. For example.

*Mongolia has **very many** livestock. (eng.)*

Mongol oron masi olon maltai. (mng.)

*This is with **an extremely big** price. (eng.)*

Ene daan yeke ünetei yum da. (mng.)

There are modal adverbs with the meaning “completely”, derived by reduplication of the first syllable of the word with the inserted consonant – *b*. If the first syllable of the word concerned is *no*, the adverb is *nob*; if the first syllable is *qa*, the adverb is *gab*, and so on. *qab qar-a* ‘completely black’, *qab qaranqyui* ‘pitch dark’, *ub ulyan* ‘completely red’ (Poppe.N, 1991, p.59).

The intensifying adjectives or intensifiers are formed with the first open syllable of an adjective + b + adjective in positive degree (*ub ulyan* 'very red', *hab har* 'deep black', *hüv hüren* 'deep brown') or intensifying adverbs + adjectives in positive degree (*čas ulyan* 'very red', *pad har* 'deep black') or intensifiers (*masi, nen, tun, yeke, aimyar* etc. all having the general meaning very). (Batchuluun. D, 2013, p.174).

No	Mongolian-English dictionary ¹ (1986)	Collocation	
	Mongolian	English	
1	masi	very, extremely	masi sain - very good
2	ülemj (-iin)	much, many, abundant, greatly, highly, extensively	ülemj yeke - very large, extremely big, gigantic
3	nen(g)	extremely, especially, particularly, all the more, still more	nen darui - immediately, at once, without delay nen masid- extremely, exceedingly nen olon - still more nen türüünd - first of all, above all nen shine - most recent nen yalanγuya -particularly, furthermore
4	asar	very, very much, greatly, extremely	asar tom - very great, large, big
5	yalanγuya	especially, particularly, moreover, furthermore	-
6	ayui	mighty, huge, gigantic	ayui čadal - mighty strength
7	üter	immediately, quickly, at once	-
8	čing	Firm, unswerving, unshaken, unshakable, truthful, sincere	čing bat - firm, unshakable, loyal, sincere čing bishrel – unshakable, true faith čing zorigt - having unshakable courage or will power chaste čing süjig – sincere devotion, unshakable faith čing ünen – absolutely sincere čing ünench – truthful, sincere, faithful čing hemeen (literary) – sincerely, with all one's heart
9	arai	Barely, scarcely, only, just, somehow, not quite, a little, too, nearly, almost, a little bit, barely sufficient	arai бага – little too small arai boloogüi – not yet..., not quite done yet aria murii – somehow, with difficulty aria čamai – with difficulty arai čarai – somehow, with difficulty
10	bür	very, fully, completely, quite	bür sain - perfect bür urid – long before
11	tun/ton	quite, very, extremely	ton bazaah ügüi – quite unsatisfactory, very poor ton züv – absolutely correct ton sain – extremely good
12	dan	only, one, unique (ly), quite, altogether	dan gants - only one, quite alone dan öör – quite different, otherwise
13	onč	Special, particular, extraordinary	onč sain – exceptionally good, excellent onč erh – special privilege onč büren erht elčin said - ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary
14	čas	-	Čas ulayan – bright red, crimson red, pure red
15	tas	categorically, completely, asunder, counter, contrary, against	tas zörüü – quite contrary, tas öör – quite different
16	čel	absolutely, very, completely	čel zaluu – very young, of tender age čel höh – deep blue čel hüiten – ice-cold
17	den	-	den dun - barely, hard, with difficulty
18	shal	complete, utter, total	shal demii – utterly useless shal noiton – thoroughly wet shal ömnöö – totally different shal teneg – fool

¹Gombojab Hangin, A Modern Mongolian-English Dictionary (Indiana University, 1986)

19	pad(-an)	-	hsal hudal – brazen lie pad har – jet black, pitch black pad haranhui – pitch dark
20	tes	absolutely, altogether, totally, completely	tes buruu – absolutely wrong, quite false tes öör – quite different
21	tag	completely, absolutely, exactly	tag dülii – completely deaf tag sohor – completely blind
22	pig	full to capacity, jammed full	pig düüren – brimming, jammed full
23	čoo	through and through, completely	čoo shine – brand-new, čoo бүтэн – whole and undamaged
24	azai	-	Azai buural – grayish-white
25	čarmai	naked, bare, nude	čarmaa biy - naked body, a nude, čarmaa нүтсген - stark naked
26	čelden	intensifying adverb before adjectives of color	čelden har čarai – a coal-black face
27	hyazgaar ügüi	unlimited, infinite, vast	-
28	toim ügüi	disorderly, big, immense	-
29	too tomsh ügüi	very great or many, immense, innumerable, immeasurable, inexpressible	-
30	üzmeer ügüi	-	-
31	harsh ügui	-	-
32	mun (č)	indeed, very, just, really	-
33	daan (č)	extremely, very, too	daanč ert – too early, даан их – too big
34	hičneýen	how much, how many	-
35	engui	limitless	-
36	teg	exactly, precisely	Teg dörvöljin – perfectly square, teg dund – right in the middle
37	tan	-	-
38	čal	-	čal buural – white-hair-ed, hoary with age
39	het	beyond, in excess, over, ultra	het davstai - too highly salted
40	tuiliin	extremity, very, the most	tuiliin бага- minimum, tuiliin yeke - extremely large, tuiliin sain-extremely good, the best, yuiliin čuhal-extremely important
41	hamgaas	-	-
42	hamgiin	-	hamgiin бага-smallest, hamgiin sain-best, хамгийн түрүү- first aff all
43	yutai	with what?	Yutai saikhan ödör be? – what a beautiful day!
44	zuirlesh ügüi	incomparable, unequalled	-
45	ashid	always, permanent (ly)	-
46	adag (-iin)	worst	-
47	id	darling, force, power, energetic, vigorous	id zaluu nasan deeree yavaa hun - a man in the very prime of life
48	dalai	-	-
49	davuu	better, superior; outstanding, excellent	davuu čanar -superiority
50	heterhii	excessive, extreme, exorbitant, over, ultra	heterkii olon – too many, heterhii čanga – too severe, too strict
51	dendüü	too, too much, excessively	Davs ni dendüü – to be too salty
52	ulam	further, still more	ulam yeke – still bigger ulam sain – still better ulam ulam – more and more
53	pelden	-	-
54	ten	equal, identical	ten hagas-exactly half, ten čačuu - quite equal; identical
55	ogt	completely, altogether	ogt boloh ügüi – absolutely impossible ogt kereg ügüi – completely useless
56	üneýer	truly, really	üneheer sain – really good üneheeriin – truly, really
57	neleen/neleed	significantly, considerably; considerable, a large amount; quite	nileed sain – quite good; nileed sogtuu - quite drunk
58	ijil ügüi	matchless, incomparable,	ijil ügüi zorigtoi - courage, remarkably brave

		excellent, splendid; odd, unpaired, single;	
59	hos ügüi	unpaired, single; matchless, peerless	-
60	ögiülešh ügüi	inexpressible, indescribable;	ögiülsh ügüi saihan – beautiful beyond expression
61	en	-	en terguund – foremost, very first
62	hačïn	curious, quite, extremely	-
63	čoodon	-	-
64	üi	-	üi olon/tümen–multitude; innumerable, a great many
65	tüg	-	tüg tumen – an innumerable quantity, great multitude, thousands of thousands, millions
66	yostoi	real, just	yostoi mön- really, true
67	ünenhüü	true; truly	-

Comparison

The English adverbs extremely, very, terribly, definitely have the effect of intensifying the adjectives they modify, but there is also another very important side to them. On the other hand, they are used to give specification of degree but they also show involvement and in that respect add to the emotive and subjective dimension of the discourse. Mongolian pre-positional particles ‘masi’ very, ‘yeke’ big, very, ‘tun’ extraordinary, ‘nen’ even more and ‘daan’ extremely show the degree of the characteristics the adjective expresses ‘tun’, ‘nen’ almost exclusively used in the written language (poems, songs, or very official). For example:

Зураг зурах **тун** нарийн ажил. (mng.)

Zurag zurah **tun** nariin ajil

To draw pictures is a **very careful job**. (eng.)

In the colloquial language, ‘маш’ (mash), and ‘их’ (yeke) are most widely used, but among the youth words like ‘аймаар (frighteningly)’, aygui (embarrassing) have become popular.

Гадаа **аймаар** хүйтэн байна. (mng.)

Gadaa **aimaar** huiten baina.

It is **quite cold**. ..? (eng.)

It is **freezing**. (eng.)

‘too’, ‘extremely’ (хэтэрхий (heterhii), дэндүү (dendüü), даанч (daanč)) are the expression of emotional meaning. For example:

These trousers are **too expensive**. (eng.)

Энэ өмд **дэндүү** үнэтэй байна. (mng.)

Ene ömd **dendüü** ünetei baina.

‘Absolutely, totally’ (pig, tes, shal, tag, čel, čoo, pad, chas, čal’) are express a kind of superlative. For example: absolutely stupid (shal teneg, shal mangar), completely blind (tag sohor), totally wrong (tes buruu).

In Mongolian adjectives modified by intensifying adverbials, linker among Mongolic languages, which generally use only /b/, e.g. čab čagaan ‘snow-white’; hav har ‘pitch-dark’.

Мядаг хөвгүүнээ үзвэл царай нь **цав цагаан**, гэдэс нь үлээсэн гүзээ мэт мах мяраагүй туранхайн туйл болжээ. (Ц.Д)

When Myadag saw the boy he had gone **completely pale** and appeared as thin as though fleshless, though his stomach seemed blown up. (translated by D.Altangerel)

Conclusion

After looking at augmentative words of meaning of adjectives in English and Mongolian, there are a few possible outcomes to conclude about the comparison.

- In the two contrastive languages, the structure of the augmentative of meaning of adjectives is generally universal. In English the adverbs have the effect of intensifying the adjectives and have a degree function. In Mongolian intensifying adjectives are formed the pre-positional particles and adjective.
- The augmentative words of meaning of adjectives are relatively a lot, about 67 in Mongolian language, 21 adverbs in English.
- English linguists use different terms for items which modify adjectives such as intensifier, modifier, submodifier, emphasize. Augmentative of meaning of adjectives, intensify the meaning, modification of adjectives are encountered in the Mongolian literature.
- Take the first syllable of the adjective and add “-B”, then the adjective follows as a whole in Mongolian. it is only /b/ (or its variant /w/) that occurs as the linking consonant in Mongolic emphatic adjectives: other adjectives with consonants that look like linkers at first glance turn out to be cases of pseudo-intensive adjectives in which the same emphatic effect is achieved either by an intensifying adverbial particle that occurs before the adjectives and modifies them.

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IMPACT OF ONLINE ESL TEACHING ON THE NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MONGOLIA'S STUDENTS' ATTITUDES UNDER COVID-19 CIRCUMSTANCES

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Abstract: *The spread of COVID-19 is causing unprecedented challenges to the education system around the world. Since February 2020 due to the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic, there was a sudden disruption of the education process and all levels of education transferred to online mode in Mongolia. This study seeks to find out the students' attitudes towards online English teaching at the National University of Mongolia (NUM) to have a better understanding of the students' issues and improve their attitudes. For this purpose, 58 students of the National University of Mongolia were distributed a questionnaire to measure their perspectives. The majority of the students feel positive about having online ESL classes, but some technical and personal challenges such as connection problems, limited computer skills encountered by the students were revealed.*

Keywords: *COVID-19, online teaching, ESL students.*

Introduction

The invention of personal computers and laptops has revolutionized the whole world whereas Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Skype, and other social networking programs and applications have provided people with a new means of communication and allowed them to exchange ideas across the world. According to *Measuring the Information Society Report 2018* "more than half of the world's population is now online. At the end of 2018, 51.2 percent of individuals, or 3.9 billion people, were using the Internet" (Union, 2018, p. 2). Moreover, almost 60% of households now have Internet access at home, and a substantial number of households use their mobile phones by using their data plan of the mobile-broadband subscription (Union, 2018). With the development of human society and the advancement of technology, the amount of information has been increased enormously, and as the learning process has changed dramatically, moving from "teacher-centered" to "learner-centered" then to "knowledge-centered". In the middle of the 20th century, traditional training or face-to-face training was predominant, while e-learning and blended teaching have been more widely practiced in these days. Developing online materials is more expensive, time-consuming, and labor-intensive than developing classroom learning materials, which underweight its benefits. Many people enjoy using innovative tools or means of communication for their professional and personal lives due to the flexibility and convenience of their smart devices (Shinjee, 2020).

English has become the global language of the world because of trade and politics, which have additionally advanced the prominence of English usage. The British council reported that, between 2018 and 2019, approximately 80 million individuals around the planet were occupied with active efforts to learn English, and over 100 million teachers and learners used the teaching resources (The British Council, 2020). Moreover, English is an official and/or de facto language in over 70 countries and at least 25% of the world's population speaks English, and knowledge of English is always an effective way of advancing one's prospects for a good-paying job (The United Kingdom Government, 2013). Using the Internet to learn a foreign language became more common than ever before as the Internet technology develops, learning is not limited to face-to-face teaching. It allows

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teachers and students to communicate across the globe and offers tremendous opportunities to save time, money, and time. Over the last decade, teaching English online became an important part of the ESL agenda around the world particularly in higher education.

Relatedly, one report indicated, as shown in Table 1, that the global market for global English language learning (ELL) was among the largest and fastest-growing in the entire education sector from 2012–2017.

Table 1. English E-learning market.

Global Market Segment	2012 Market Value US\$ (In Billions)	Forecast CAGR 2012–2017	2017 Forecast Market Size US\$ (In Billions)
Global English Language Learning	\$63.30	25%	\$193.20
Higher Ed eLearning	\$48.80	25%	\$149.00
K-12 eLearning	\$16.60	33%	\$69.00
Educational Gaming	\$2.00	30%	\$7.40
Social & Virtual Learning/Communities	\$1.00	40%	\$5.60

Sources: Retrieved from <https://mdreducation.com/reports/the-k-12-education-landscape/> (accessed on 6 December 2020).

The COVID-19 pandemic has led to the worst education crisis in a century. Prolonged school closures exaggerating learning poverty rates from 53% to 63% in lower-middle-income and upper-middle-income countries and 94% of the total students (1.6 billion) were out of school at the peak of school closures (The World Bank, 2021). Moreover, 220 million tertiary education students of 180 countries were impacted by the closures of campuses globally (Azevedo, 2020). It is obvious that students are the most impacted stakeholder of the education system during the COVID-19, while for teachers and administrators, it is about management and computer skills. For instance: attending online classes in isolation from home can cause psychological and physical distress.

According to the report by the International Telecommunication Union “despite the difficult circumstances of a large landlocked country and the second-lowest population density in the world, Mongolia has made notable strides in telecommunication coverage, in particular using wireless communications. Despite the country’s large size and low population density, backbone networks are well-developed and international connectivity is assured through cross-border connections to its two large neighbors” (International Telecommunication Union, 2018, p. 119). Tuul et al (2016) stated that Mongolia has had infrastructure potentials to develop online teaching as a result of the E-Mongolia National Program 2005–2012. Furthermore, the Government of Mongolia approved the policy and strategic plan of development of information and communications technology (2017–2025) in February 2017 to ratify the Information and Communication Technology development to the global trend; advance e-Governance, to practice technology in other sectors; to expand the e-government services and its easy delivery (Union, 2018). One of the key differences between face-to-face and online learning is that face-to-face involves the students and teachers interact with each other in real-time, whereas students work on their own through the provided materials and work at their own pace during online teaching (Rennell, 2020). Online teaching has both pros and cons. Some possible advantages are as follows:

- Cost-effective
- Time effective
- No commuting is required
- Flexibility
- Ecologically-friendly

- Students can access the course content at any time and place.

On the other hand, some possible negative impacts are as follows:

- Technology skill required
- Reduced thinking skill
- Students are cannot be monitored properly
- Expensive
- Assessment issues
- Health issues

Simonson et al (2019) described that online learning requires the participants to use modern high technology products and discussed that online learning is the modern way of language teaching. Furthermore, as Devrim and Bayyurt (2010) stated that online learning programs enables students to communicate and promote interpersonal communication and promotes language and cognitive skills. English online programs require content management, effective course management system, e-learning platform, and portal of education (Tan, 2019; Simonson et al., 2019). This research contributes substantially to the increasing use of online education at Mongolian higher education institutions by evaluating the current situation of online English teaching from students' perspectives.

E-learning dimensions

Aparicio et al (2016) presented e-learning/online learning dimensions in the following framework (Figure 3) by reviewing the literature on e-learning dimensions. The e-learning systems' theoretical framework identified the three main components of information systems which are people, technologies, and services. It is evident from figure 1 that *People* (*customers*: students, employees; *suppliers*: teachers, institutions; *board and shareholders*: education ministry) involve in e-learning systems. While *Technologies* (*contents*: documents, audio, and video; *communication*: discussion area, forum; *collaboration*: multi-user dialog, sharing tools) allows the direct or indirect communication of the different groups of people, and it supports people to manage the content of the course, enables online teaching, and offers collaboration tools. The third dimension: *Services* (*pedagogical models*: open learning, distributed learning; *instructional strategies*: contextualizing instruction, presenting and cueing content) combines all the activities linked to pedagogical models and instructional strategies. This study shall research the first dimension of the e-learning system.

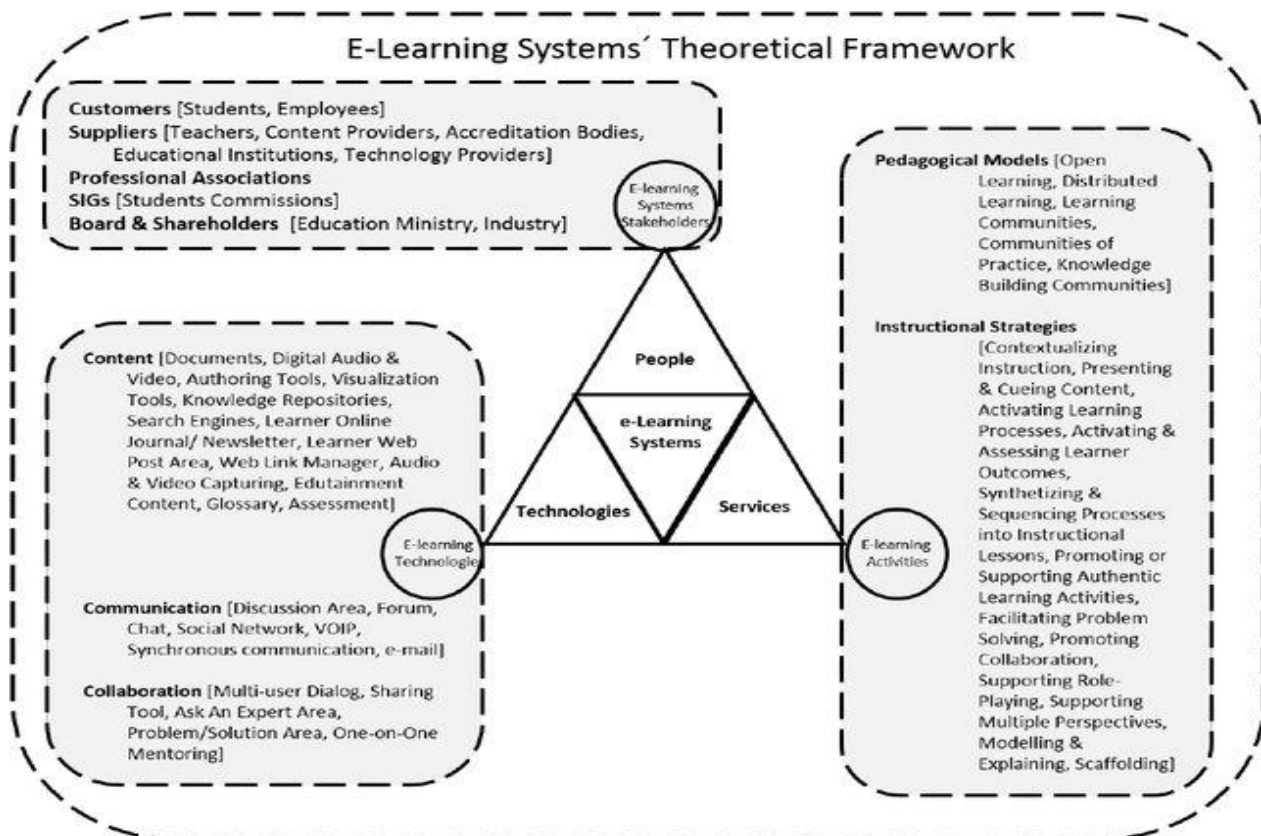


Figure 1. Holistic e-learning systems theoretical framework
 Source: (Aparicio, Bacao, & Oliveira, 2016)

Significance of the Study

When COVID-19 hit the world, everything came to a standstill for the first time in history everywhere. People had to stay indoors and practice social distancing for the first time and started seeking new ways to entertain themselves. Most importantly, it was challenging for the education sector stakeholders and make sure students got the education they needed, which meant teachers had to learn how to teach their students online. Most of the teachers did not have any chance to learn how to teach effectively. It has been over a year, but COVID-19 is still raging, and it does not look like it is disappearing anytime soon. The tertiary education institutions and the authorities had to design regulations and policies for online teaching to implement in the education field at the university level. Several studies have been conducted on various online learning dimensions, i.e., barriers and impact of online learning in the students' academic achievements, but few studies were done on the attitude of students towards online learning. Students are the most significant stakeholder of the education process, it is crucial to study more about students' approaches towards online education and the results should be considered effectively to enhance online teaching quality and convenience for the students.

Objective of the Study

The main objectives of the study are to find out students' interest in online ESL teaching at the higher education level and to study the efficiency of online ESL teaching and its influence on the students' attitude. The study emphasizes students' perceptions and attitudes of online teaching and learning. Also, it is conducted to investigate the following research questions:

1. What is the current situation of online teaching under the COVID-19 pandemic?
2. How does this unprecedented online teaching particularly ESL online teaching affect students' learning?
3. What is the students' assumption or attitude towards online ESL teaching?

Methodology

This research adopted an experimental approach with a case study method and the analysis was made qualitatively. It involved mixed levels (level-1, level-2, and level-3) of 58 students of the National University of Mongolia selected randomly by the researcher. The ages of the students were between 17-21 years and all of them were computer-literate. A questionnaire was in English language and was developed based on 25 items by the researcher. The questions focused on the first dimension (students) of the e-learning system developed by Aparicio et al (2016).

It was constructed on five Likert-scale and closed-ended, having options Strongly Agreed (SA), Agreed (A), Undecided (UND), Disagreed (D), and Strongly Disagreed (SD). A questionnaire was distributed to the students at the end of semester 1 of the academic year 2020-2021 through their email addresses as there were no classes and Universities were closed due to a wave of pandemic COVID-19. According to Braun and Clarke (2006) the most appropriate method of analysis would be a thematic analysis to identify the students' perception which would provide the researcher with scope for further investigation of the subject in question. The author conducted thematic analysis of data and summarized it by describing the students' perceptions of the ESL online teaching and learning whilst incorporating the broader condition of online language teaching in Mongolia.

Findings

All 58 students participated and responded to the questionnaire, in response to question 1. Nine students strongly agreed, 10 agreed, 5 undecided, 22 disagreed, and 12 strongly disagreed with the given statement. In other words, the majority of the students think that online teaching is not necessary and is favored by the students in everyday circumstances. In response to question 2, six students strongly agreed, 12 students agreed, none of the students undecided, 25 students disagreed, and 15 students strongly agreed that online teaching is convenient for them. It is obvious that most of the students find online learning is suitable for the students. The majority of the students agreed (22 and 21), whereas some students (13 and 17 students) disagreed with statements number 3 and 4 which means that students perceive face-to-face teaching as better than online teaching, but they think that online teaching can improve their English language competencies.

In responses to the questions 5 and 6, students' opinion regarding the quality of online teaching is negative among students due to its audio and video quality and Internet outages. The majority of the students (16 and 22 students), disagreed that the quality of online teaching is the same as face-to-face teaching while only a few students agreed with the statement (12 and 4 students). Students' trend towards question 7 which was about students' involvement in classroom activities during online teaching was undecided. 18 students undecided, 11 students agreed, whereas only 2 students strongly agreed, and 8 students agreed with the statement.

The students' response towards question 8 was negative. The majority of the students answered "strongly disagreed" with the statement that online teaching assures quality learning. 12 students disagreed, whereas 11 students were not sure, 11 students agreed and only 6 students strongly agreed.

In response to question 9, 19 students strongly agreed, 15 strongly agreed, 8 undecided, 2 students disagreed, and 14 students were strongly disagreed. It is evident from the majority of the students approve that online teaching ensures teacher-students communication.

Table 2. Responses to Questionnaire about Online Teaching

No.	Statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	Online teaching is necessary only in special situations.	12	22	5	10	9
2.	Online learning is convenient for the learners.	15	25	0	12	6
3.	Online teaching is not as good as face-to-face teaching.	8	13	8	22	7
4.	Online teaching can improve language learning practice.	5	17	2	21	13
5.	Online teaching can be organized without any delay.	7	16	15	12	8
6.	Audio and video quality is as good as face-to-face teaching.	12	22	18	4	2
7.	Online learning involves every student in activities.	9	11	18	8	2
8.	Online teaching assures quality learning.	18	12	11	11	6
9.	Online teaching provides good opportunities for teacher-student interaction.	14	2	8	19	15
10.	Online teaching provides good opportunities for student-student interaction.	20	18	8	8	4
11.	Online teaching requires daily performance.	12	16	12	18	0
12.	Online teaching is suitable for learning English.	9	4	8	22	15
13.	Teachers are easily accessible during online teaching.	5	7	4	24	18
14.	Teachers are qualified to teach online courses.	22	17	7	3	9
15.	The instructions are clear for the students in online learning.	3	15	9	18	14
16.	Students are compelled to learn through online teaching.	2	5	8	19	24
17.	Students can access course materials at their convenience.	0	7	14	20	17
18.	Students have sufficient expertise and experience to have online classes.	5	17	9	16	11
19.	Every student has an equal opportunity to access online materials.	8	5	6	22	17
20.	Students can access the Internet at any time.	10	19	11	9	9

21.	Students have equal opportunity to involve in classwork during online teaching.	7	8	13	12	18
22.	Students feel insecure during online teaching.	12	19	13	14	0
23.	Students encounter psychological and behavioral problems during online teaching.	9	11	6	14	18
24.	Students do not pay appropriate attention to online teaching.	7	10	2	15	24
25.	Students can practice their English during online classes.	8	10	15	19	6

In response to question 10, the students' attitudes towards peer-to-peer interaction, was negative, 20 students strongly disagreed, 18 students agreed, 8 students undecided, 8 agreed, and several students strongly agreed. Facts collected about questions 11, 12, and 13 represented that most of the students agree that online teaching enables them to work every day; studying English online is a good experience, and teachers are easy to communicate during the online classes. 12, 9, and 5 students strongly disagreed, 16, 4, and 7 students disagreed, 12,8 and 4 undecided, and 0, 15 and 18 students strongly agreed with these statements. The 22 students out of 58 students strongly disagreed that the teachers have sufficient knowledge and skills to teach online (question 14). In other words, students think that teachers need further professional development and information technology expertise. Only 12 students agreed and strongly agreed. For statements 15, 16, and 17, attitudes of the students were positive regarding clarity of instructions, and course materials. 32, 43, and 37 students agreed and strongly agreed with the statements. It is obvious from question 18, that half of the students have sufficient knowledge and computer skills required for online learning whereas the other half do not have enough information technology knowledge to participate in online classes. In response to questions, 19 and 22 students agreed, and 17 students strongly agreed that they have an equal opportunity to access the course material while 15 students answered negatively regarding the statement. It can be seen from the responses of question 20 that students are not able to access the Internet at any time, due to possible reasons such as high cost, limited access or limited technological devices, or limited broadband plan. Interestingly the majority of the students (24) strongly agreed with question 24, that students do not pay much attention to online teaching, while only 7 students strongly disagreed. In terms of the psychology and behavior of the students, 18 of the students strongly agreed that students face psychological problems during online classes (question 23) but they disagree that they feel insecure during the classes (question 22). For the last statement, most of the students (19 students) agree that they can practice their English during the online classes, whereas a minority of the students (8 students) did not agree with the statement.

Discussion and conclusion

The thematic analysis of the results shows that the students have varied attitudes towards online English teaching. Most of the students feel they do have equal opportunities to access the course materials; communicate with teachers; participate in class activities. Moreover, the majority of the students agree that they can learn English online; practice the course materials any time at their convenience, and access the course content. According to the findings, teachers are more easily accessible, contact with the teachers more easily via messages or emails.

On the contrary, students' attitudes towards some elements of online teaching were negative including the limited Internet access; lack of computer skills; attention issues (many distractions when

studying from home); instructors' limited technological knowledge; quality problems; internet connectivity; and poor quality of video and audio due to internet outages.

Education technology can be a powerful tool to support and connect teachers, students, and other stakeholders and build effective education in special circumstances like COVID-19. Technology has both positive and negative impacts on education. Teachers and students should take advantage of technology and try to eliminate the drawbacks. The unprecedented outbreak of COVID-19 forced us to teach and learn online without any interventions. So, it will be a good experience to adopt blended teaching and learning particularly in higher education institutions when we resume face-to-face teaching. Moreover, teachers and students should be provided with necessary computer skill training before the commencement of the academic year. Online education is trending in the world particularly after the outbreak of pandemic Covid19 in 2020, so, effective strategies should be promoted in Mongolia. Due to some studies, online education requires an extra budget, so some funding should be planned for the promotion of e-learning and teaching particularly in higher education.

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MOTIVATION IS THE KEY TO ENGAGING ONLINE LEARNERS DURING THE PANDEMIC

Nyamjav Banzragch¹

Abstract: *When shifting from a traditional face-to-face classroom to a virtual setting, most educators confront various challenging problems. One of the main issues to be addressed is the students' passive participation in online classes, which signifies that the traditional methodology used in the classroom setting is not appropriate for online classes to some extent. Therefore, we as educators have to be in search of new methods to teach and engage students during the global pandemic. In particular, trying out and using a variety of techniques to motivate students is fundamental for teachers' goal to minimize dropout from their courses and help them succeed by having them feel passion for successful learning. In the last two semesters of online teaching, we have been able to make our students' attitudes towards their learning positive and improve their academic performance by using the refreshing approach with three essential functions. This paper intends to share our experiences and methods to motivate our online learners based on our successes and failures of these past two semesters.*

Keywords: *intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, online class, online learning, encouragement, engagement, goal setting, feedback, student autonomy.*

Introduction

Since the beginning of 2020, all levels of educational organizations worldwide have had to close down entirely and shift to online classes as the COVID-19 pandemic hit us all hard. As online teaching and learning have turned into an inevitable new trend, we have faced some unique challenges regarding taking online courses. Starting from the spring semester of 2020, the Mongolian government declared nationwide quarantine, and all public and private universities and colleges face the challenge of conducting online classes for the first time for most of us. Like others, all the professors and instructors of the National University of Mongolia (NUM) have had an enormous responsibility to transfer classroom lessons to online forms, which is a massive work including preparation, production, and delivery to students in a short period. Nevertheless, the difficulty lies in the fact that online learning is different from face-to-face instruction significantly. When learning in a classroom and interacting with a teacher and other classmates, students get much more involved in classroom activities. However, many online learners fail before seeing any improvement and encouraging result from their online course when it comes to distance learning as it is less demanding in terms of devotion and focus. According to Ericksen (1978), practical learning in the classroom is dependent on the teacher's ability to maintain the curiosity that brought students to the course. In the online setting, it is clear that even more abilities are required from teachers to motivate the learners sitting behind the screen since most students are dependent on their instructors to be inspired, challenged, and stimulated. Because "A lack of motivation to learn could be at the root of the problem ... and motivation is considered to be the necessary cornerstone on which the other steps follow and build" (Ernest & David, 2005, p.23-47). Thus, the big challenge for teachers is keeping their students fully engaged and motivated in an online environment.

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As can be seen, motivation has been widely accepted by instructors and researchers as one of the critical precursors that can influence the rate and success of learning. There is a big difference between teaching in a motivated classroom of students and working with demotivated students for English language teachers. Since teaching and learning any foreign language require a positive relationship between the student and the teacher, there is no other way but to create a pleasant and encouraging environment to be succeeded.

During the online course of the spring semester of 2020, half of my students started to get less active, not do their homework or not complete their assignments on time from the middle part of the semester. As mentioned above, keeping them always engaged and active in the online classes was the problem arisen. Therefore, we tried to find the solutions to the question “What are the best ways to motivate students during online learning?”. This paper first considers what motivation is and its types, then goes on to the methodology to motivate students intrinsically, including goal setting, creating an accessible environment and improving student autonomy, and finally discusses the results of the approaches experienced in the online classrooms of last semester.

Literature review

What is motivation?

Many believe that keeping students interested and motivated is as simple as following a formula. Unfortunately, there is not a magic formula or a fairy wand that will help teachers motivate their students since each group is different from the other ones. Numerous factors such as interest, perception, desire, self-confidence, self-esteem, patience, and persistence influence a given student’s motivation to learn (Bligh, 1971; Sass, 1989). According to Barak et al. (2016), motivation generally refers to the psychological dynamism which enables action. In other words, active learning is reflected in students’ motives for learning, the promising learning outcomes they strive for, and positive emotions and attitudes towards the class and teacher.

For foreign language learners, motivation is defined as learners’ orientation regarding the goal of learning a target language, as stated by Wei Wang and Ju Zhan (2020). Moreover, Ellis (2008) regarded motivation as the efforts made and driven by learners’ desire or need to learn a foreign language. Apart from this, Lightbrown and Spada (1993) defined the motivation for foreign language learning as a complex phenomenon influenced by two major factors: the communicative needs of learners and their attitudes towards the foreign language learning community. Regardless of the forms of motivational factors, we – the instructors should continuously fuel our online learners’ inspiration and belief that they can advance their learning.

As it has been demonstrated above, motivation is defined in various ways by different researchers, but they seem to reach an agreement that motivation is a thing that energizes human behavior and gives it direction.

Intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation

Deci and Ryan (1989) found two different types of motivation: intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation deals with behavior performed for their purposes, in order to experience pleasure, satisfaction such as the enjoyment of doing a particular activity. In other words, it is driven by personal willingness. Extrinsic motivation deals with actions and manners performed to meet some extrinsic requirements or rewards; specifically, it usually originates from the expectation of obtaining certain learning outcomes, such as meeting language requirements, attaining a degree or certificate, graduating, getting high scores in exams, being able to get better job opportunities after graduation or promoting and ensuring workplace competitiveness. Both of the

trends are prevalent in every classroom of students today. A question like "Which type of these motivation trends is more significant for student learning?" may arise. According to Lepper (1988), extrinsically oriented students were likely to expend minimal effort for maximal reward. Research also upheld the idea that extrinsic rewards for the intrinsically motivated students' efforts lessen the level of intrinsic motivation. (Deci, 1971; Lepper & Green, 1975). In addition to this, Spaulding (1992) proposed based on her research that when learners' perception of autonomy (intrinsic motivation) was undermined by teachers' practice of extrinsic rewards, the initial level of intrinsic motivation decreased. Spaulding also detailed it more that although a learner's rewarded behavior might increase, when the extrinsic rewards were taken away, the intrinsic motivation level was poorer than it had been initially. These researchers' viewpoints and research results prove that it is better to consider explaining what students should keep in mind as they aim for high-quality work rather than telling them what they need to do to get a good grade.

On the other hand, Kawasaki (2020) suggested creating a rewarding system explaining that it appeals to extrinsic motivation and can also help students nurture intrinsic motivation. She also mentioned, "adding badges to the course is an easy and popular way to recognize your student's accomplishments along the way and keep them engaged and eager to keep learning with you." Judging from this, even though we should keep rewards small and focus more on things that fire students' intrinsic desire, the online language instructors need to make careful and proper use of both types of motivation in teaching practice to promote positive attitudes towards language learning.

Methodology

Generally, every English university instructor has 3-4 classes per one semester in Mongolia, and each class consists of 25-31 students. Hence, such a large class size is usually not manageable for teachers to motivate and have them actively involved in classroom activities. Without a personal aspiration to learn something, real learning cannot take place. So, the most important thing for online language teachers is increasing students' motivation and using the proper approaches and interesting presentations.

Last spring semester, we overcame the challenge of shifting from our traditional classroom instruction to online class. At that time, we spent most of our time sitting at the computer preparing PPT lessons, adding audio to some of them, and taking live lessons through various platforms, including Zoom, Microsoft Teams, Edmodo, and Facebook. We ended that semester being very busy and trying to figure the online teaching out. Many of our students were quarantined in the countryside, which caused a lot of problems due to lack of equipment and poor internet access. Teachers understood that situation and tried to support their students as best as they could. However, for the most part, learning outcomes were not good enough. In my case, I had 49 students in total in two upper-intermediate groups except for the intermediate one who took an academic English course. In addition to the regular homework, I gave the small additional assignments like learning English songs and live singing in the Facebook group and writing three different gratitude a day in a separate notebook in order to make them interested and engaged in online learning and also turn their anxious mood and attitudes into positive ones. Facebook messenger was also used thoroughly to give them prompt feedback, motivational techniques such as inserting inspiring quotes and aphorisms with interesting pictures at the end of every PPT lesson and rewarded the students who completed all assignments with some extra points. These methods worked well for half of the students but did not work for the rest. Not a few students stayed in touch for a week and then disappeared for 2-3 weeks without explaining their reasons.

To find out why they are less active, I asked every student who did not study for two weeks or more and did not have any contact regarding the online lessons to tell their teacher the real reason for their inactivity without worry via Facebook messenger, and took notes of their excuses and

explanations. Apart from this, I read and observed students' complaints and comments about online courses posted to the NUM Student Group. When analyzing the notes of students' explanations about their inactivity, the common things noticed in their excuses were that they had no time management and the ability to overcome their laziness and procrastination. From the comments and complaints posted to the student group, it was concluded that poor teacher feedback was another primary reason for their dissatisfaction with online classes, which made students reluctant to study.

However, last fall, we had more opportunities to improve our previously prepared PPT lessons, correct some mistakes we made in the previous semester, and expand or develop our teaching methods in a better way. Interestingly, I also had 49 students in total in two upper-intermediate groups in that fall semester as in the previous one.

Although many factors contribute to online teaching effectiveness, the primary motivating factor that drives a person to do something without being lazy is to have a specific goal. As intrinsic motivators drive a person forward, I wanted our students to have a sense of purpose that encourages their course participation and engagement, forcing them to keep doing even tricky tasks. However, one will not be able to make an effort in the long run when they have a goal but no clear plan to lead it and no ability to do it independently. Therefore, in digging into the problems and attempting to solve them, I read other researchers' works in this regard and tried many approaches. Finally, in addition to some student-encouraging techniques used in the past, three critical approaches were developed to address the issues mentioned above, based on previous experiences, the analysis, and the conclusion of the notes about students' excuses and complaints.

I implemented those methods that every teacher does not use but significantly impacted students' online and offline learning. Those are as follow:

Goal setting with students after determining the value of the subject

It is usually strenuous for students to get into their learning zone when they are at home, whereas when teaching takes place in a live classroom, the learning mindset is activated the minute one walks into the classroom, and it is easier for the students to focus on what needs to be done. When online ESL students are studying from home and at their computers, it is straightforward for them to become distracted. Setting tangible goals will keep the students more focused, remind them why they are taking the time to learn English, and make the learning experience more relevant. Therefore, goal setting and progress monitoring are potent motivators because they impact both the expectancy of success and the value of the task.

On the first day of the class in the last fall semester, an orientation class was taken through Zoom. It gives us an opportunity to know about their attitude and feeling about the academic English class through talking freely with our students about what they thought of English, the importance of learning it and, why they choose this course to study, in other words, they were questioned whether they did it with their own will or as it was compulsory to take. Approximately half of my all 78 students from 3 different groups answered that learning English was a must because they needed it in their future lives and careers. Half of the remained students answered that they chose this course because it was compulsory according to the school curriculum. Nevertheless, the other half of them did not answer these questions. Later, students who did not respond were observed and found that they had poor language skills and lacked self-confidence.

Interestingly, except for the two students, they could not give a clear and definite answer to the questions as "What is your major definite purpose of learning English?" and "What will you exactly use English for?" This means that our students tend to imitate the attitude of society and their peers without realizing and deeply reflecting its true nature on themselves. They call goals too general and have no specific purposes, which often leads to ambiguous and uncertain situations in which they do not know their desired destination, where to start, and what to do. Therefore, the first step to be taken was to help them set their goals correctly and clearly. It can, on the other hand, be basically

said that it is related to coaching. The primary approach to coach is to ask the right questions so as to make people think by themselves to find the answer they are searching for. In order to do so, the following questions were asked as it felt that it was better to evaluate the first half of the year 2020, and they might have found the problems they should have solved in the rest half of the year.

1. What did you do so well last eight months?
2. What did you do poorly, and what were you weak about last eight months?
3. What did you spend most of your time on?
4. What did you learn new?
5. What problems do you have in the four main pillars of your life, such as *work and school, health and exercising, family and friends, and personal development*?

After answering writing on their notebooks, I explained to them that they could find some goals to set for the rest of the year from their answers because everything comes out of problems. They were good at finding what they had been missing out on and should have made a habit and also found out what goals they could put in those four columns. I then asked the following questions to help them find their medium and long-term main goals in their lives.

6. If you were told to live only using all the knowledge and skills you have learned until today, what would you regret not having done yet?
7. If you only had five years to do something for yourself and make a difference in your life quality, what would you do in the next five years? (If it is said what you have done in those five years will influence entirely on the rest of your life and you will not be able to do anything in order to improve your life after these five years, what will they be you would do in these five years?)

After having had them write their answers on their notebooks, I asked them few more questions to make it easier for them to accomplish by making their goals small steps or purposes to be able to assign to monthly and weekly plans and also make them consider their inefficient habits which had been hindered their progress and achievements. The questions were as follows:

8. How can these goals be divided into smaller pieces?
9. What do you need to do, or what steps do you need to achieve each of these goals?
10. What has been stopping you from taking these steps until now? What could be your obstacle or enemy?

When students are part of the conversation and involved in all these processes, they develop ownership of the goal, which makes it more valuable. Obviously, I read all of their goals related to learning English and made sure their goals were reasonable and measurable. Setting a reasonable goal helps to ensure students experience success, which will motivate them to make further progress, whereas having a measurable target is crucial to know if they have reached it and consequently getting those positive feelings that come with achievement. Apart from this, only inspired instructors can inspire their students as emotions such as laughter and inspiration are contagious. Hence, it is the instructor's vital role to serve as a living example of passion towards the subject and allow students to see the same interest in their teacher. Once the teacher and student together have clear, specific, measurable, achievable, realistic, and timed objectives for English class, students will have confidence in their ability to succeed, which makes it simpler for a language teacher to continue to strengthen the students' motivation and deliver online activities.

Creating an open and accessible environment for students

“According to Paige Paquette, the biggest reasons why students drop out of online courses include feelings of isolation, frustration, and disconnection, as well as a general lack of faculty contact, instructor participation, and social interaction. Therefore, a sense of community, encouraging engagement, interaction with other participants, and collaboration are all factors that contribute to student success. Things like eLearning tools, personalized learning environments, and mobile applications also help the subject matter feel more relevant and applicable to students’ everyday lives.” (Stanford, 2016) Hence, one of our best approaches for keeping our students on assignment was establishing virtual office hours. Making ourselves available at a specific time for chatting or video conferences worked well. We also added to that the opportunity for students to text us. It seems almost all of the students would rather text through Facebook messenger than email to the instructor with their questions. To us, the Facebook messenger also provided us ample opportunity to give them timely feedback.

As stated by July Mayer (2019), “feedback is critical in online learning. When the educational process occurs in a classroom, the teacher has numerous opportunities to give feedback in real-time, thus streamlining students and pinpointing their mistakes early. When the studies take place on a distance basis, delayed feedback may result in the students’ sense of isolation and may even cause some serious deviations from the course.” She also suggested using tech tools to give feedback and noted that “Technology is highly helpful for online teachers, and you can make use of various programs to give feedback when your students require it. You can share verbal feedback with students via a simple audio podcast, provide video feedback with screen captions and arrange video conferences with Zoom to discuss important issues and give virtual feedback sessions” (Mayer, 2019). During every week, in a separate paper, we recorded the students’ questions which we promptly responded to with audio or text messages through Facebook messenger. Moreover, we arranged a video conference with Zoom or Teams for the whole class once a week not only to check for correctness and add to background knowledge but also to discuss complicated parts of the lessons of the week and explain important questions asked by students that week. This type of immediate feedback created a more comfortable environment for students and reduced the possibility of their being left behind without understanding some particular subjects.

What is more, we pointed out when they got stuck and where troubles might have lied ahead of them since students are not 100 percent successful when they are learning. Furthermore, we frequently reminded them to ask if they did not know and constantly asked how to help them while being enthusiastic.

Improving student autonomy

Finally, it is essential to stick to the nature of online learning, also called self-directed learning. In the online educational setting, learners succeed if only they are able to take control over their educational process. Self-directed learning has many advantages as it increases students' options, self-confidence, independence, motivation, and also the development of different skills for lifelong learning. Accordingly, we asked ourselves, “What are the main factors which push the learner to self-directed learning?” As we considered this question, the following six are the main catalysts to student autonomy.

1. Knowing why and what to do
2. The feeling of being in a warm and accessible environment
3. Having good planning and time management
4. Having the belief that they can succeed
5. Being encouraged
6. Knowing how to do or criteria of the task

The first two conditions can be covered by those mentioned earlier two main approaches like involving students in independent goal-setting at the start of the course to take full ownership of the process and maintaining an open and accessible environment for students by giving timely and sensitive feedback. For the other four qualities, we have experienced the following four methods.

To make the students have good planning and time management, we have created the calendar of assignments and the schedule of materials to be studied for the course in order to enable them to monitor their learning process. Besides, at the end of oral communication class, that means once a week, we found 5-10 minutes to talk about planning and time management, giving them the opportunity to share their time management experience, learn from each other, and be encouraged.

To build the students' self-confidence, we increased the difficulty of the material as the semester progressed. Students were given opportunities to succeed at the beginning of the semester. Once students felt they could succeed, we gradually increased the difficulty level. Moreover, we implemented Cashin's idea that assignments and exams should include easier and more complicated questions, which allows every student to take a chance to experience success as well as a challenge (1979).

In order to inspire them, we rewarded their success. According to Cashin (1979), both positive and negative criticisms influence motivation, but research consistently demonstrates that students are more affected by positive feedback and accomplishment. Praise builds students' self-confidence, competence, and self-esteem. Therefore, we as instructors tried to recognize sincere efforts even if the product is less than stellar. Also, we let the student know that we believed they could improve and succeed over time even when a student's performance was weak.

In order to make the students better aware of the criteria for the tasks, we used the method of introducing students to the excellent work accomplished by their peers. While sharing the ideas, knowledge, and accomplishments of individual students or group works with the class as a whole, we provided class time for students to read essays or assignments submitted by classmates and had students write a brief critique of other group's assignments as a team. In evaluating and criticizing others' work, students have had a better understanding of their work requirements.

Results

During the first online semester, school administrators instructed teachers not to give F grade, which signifies the failing grade, to students, but to be as flexible as possible and keep assignments minimum. By taking into account the psychological and unpreparedness of the student for the online course due to unforeseen circumstances, the aim is not to give a bad grade to lower the GPA, and if necessary, to give W (withdrawal) or S grade (meaning satisfactory) that does not affect the student's GPA. Therefore, the student's knowledge and skills were evaluated a little more than the reality. However, in the fall, we began to adapt relatively to the situation comparing to the previous semester, and we had an opportunity to have a class in the classroom for more than a month in the middle of the semester. At the end of the online course, the students were given a certain amount of bonus points, but it was much lower than in the previous semester, and the students' grades were more realistic, based on an objective assessment of the student's actual academic performance and diligence. When comparing students' academic results in the spring semester of 2019-2020 with the success of the autumn semester of 2020-2021, the following differences are observed.

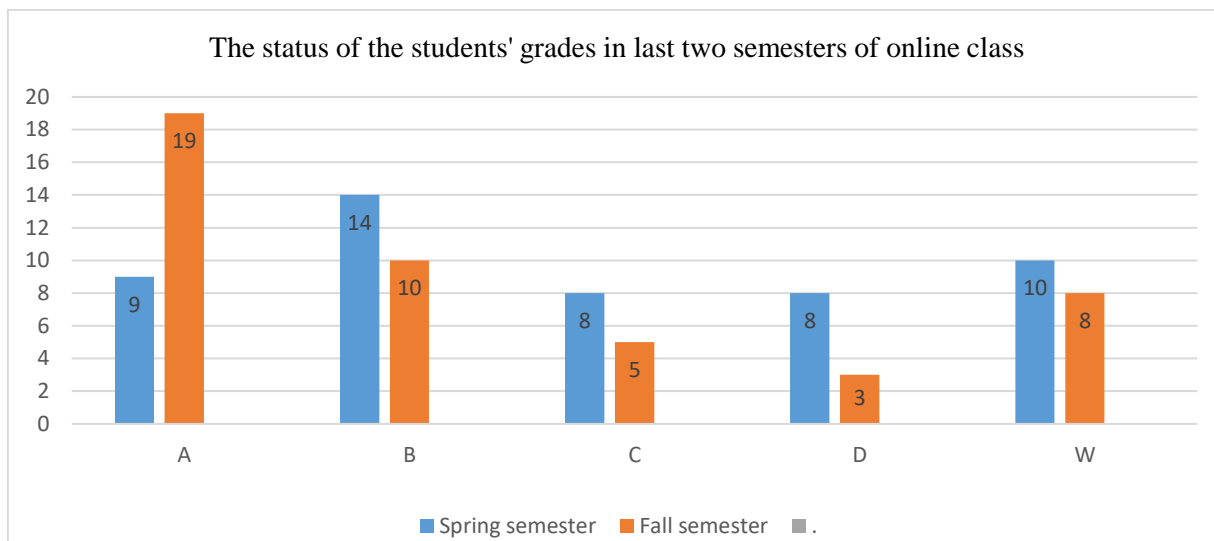


Chart 1. The status of the students' grades in last two semesters of online class

As can be seen from the chart above, we can see an increase in students' academic achievements. The number of the learners whose academic results were A in the last fall semester was increased by ten than the number in the previous term, and also the number of students who got a W grade (which allowed students who were going to get an F grade to re-study the subject and improve their grades) was decreased by two. In the spring semester, 21 percent or 10 of the students got W and S grades. It was clear that they did very poorly due to the wrong choice of language level (choosing a more challenging level rather than the level they were supposed to learn), inadequate internet access in rural areas, and lack of capabilities of self-study online, which led them to get a W or S grade. However, each student who received a W in the fall semester was asked to clarify the reasons and take notes. The reasons for the eight students who received a W grade in the fall semester are as follows:

- The two of the students realized that they had chosen the much higher level, not the level they were supposed to take. As a result, they voluntarily wanted to get a W when having realized they could not do well.
- One of them was hospitalized for more than a month and missed school, and consequently, he received a W at his request.
- One of them chose to take 21 credit courses for the semester, and because the professional courses were laborious and challenging to complete, he decided to sacrifice his English course explaining that he did not have time for the course of distribution requirements.
- One other student got a W because he had to dedicate all his time to his diploma work. For this reason, he did not have time for his language class and got a W grade.
- Two of the students did not attend the online class for the first month, which means they missed the orientation class, including the goal-setting session. Nevertheless, when they started taking classes in the classroom, they started to attend their class actively. Unfortunately, when it returned to the online learning back, they were irresponsible again and did not do their classwork and homework, which was the reason why they got a W grade.

From the above, there are four main reasons for students' dropping out of their class and getting a W grade during online learning.

1. The first main reason causing them a problem is not to learn the language level that suits them, but to learn 1-2 levels higher than they should. For a student with poor basic knowledge, an upper-intermediate English course is overwhelming and complicated, so they give up the most.
2. The second reason is that students choose many complex subjects simultaneously, which means 21 credits a semester, without balancing their workload. As a result, they tend to sacrifice one or two subjects when overwhelmed by too many assignments, prioritize their professional subjects, and postpone the subjects of distribution requirements.
3. Even though students choose the course to study, they are irresponsible and miss many hours of classes due to a lack of goals, time management, and autonomy.
4. Other external factors, such as sudden health problems, a lack of online learning techniques, and poor internet access, lead to unsuccessful learning.

It is shown that our approach eliminates only one of the main reasons for students to drop out of class but does not address the other three reasons. However, by positively influencing the attitudes of the students towards their studies and motivating them, there has been a positive impact on their attendance rate, persistence, academic achievements. We have seen in our own experience that the percentage of students whose results were A and B increased dramatically by 17%.

At the end of last fall, NUM conducted a detailed survey of all teachers and students about the two-semester online teaching and learning, and the results were reported to teachers through the departments they belong to before the start of the new semester at the end of January. The following survey question results were very interesting as the question was related to this work. When the question "*What learning difficulties arose during the e-learning?*" was asked, 40,624 of the students surveyed said they had no problems, but 48,866 students said they had some problems. An analysis of the answers to this question shows the following:

1. Lack of ability to self-motivate and manage time – 15835
2. Lack of ability to learn independently - 10457
3. Lack of ability to complete written assignments - 7920
4. Lack of reading comprehension skill - 6586
5. Lack of writing skills - 4685
6. Others - 338

As can be seen from the number (15835 and 10457) of students who faced the first two challenges, a lack of self-motivation, time management, and independent learning skills are the main difficulties for most students in conducting e-learning, which confirms that the issues we saw during our online teaching and the goals we set were accurate. Finally, the results are summarized in general as follows:

1. Thanks to the method of helping students with independent goal-setting at the start of the course, their intrinsic motivation towards English learning has been greater than before. As a result, throughout the semester, most of our students have been very active, and their self-efficacy and academic achievements were significantly higher than the previous spring semester.
2. With the introduction of time management and planning through the lessons, they have become more active in devoting their time to their goals and lessons, which has been evident in the fact that they were delivering their assignments on time they were supposed to.
3. The first three weeks were easiest for them, with little homework, and they constantly completed and delivered all assignments without giving up. It instilled in them the confidence from the

beginning that they would be able to complete the course successfully. Their assignment size was gradually increased from the fourth week, and from the sixth week, they were given some coursework to complete. Nevertheless, from the beginning, they had learned to complete their regular assignments and receive full compliments and assessments from us; they tried hard to keep them intact.

4. They liked and loved our little complimentary words given on every assignment, followed by some comments about their mistakes they made. They responded positively to every positive and negative comment their teacher gave and asked questions freely from us.
5. After doing several practices of reading and checking other teams' essays according to the criteria given by a teacher, their ability to edit the structure of the essay and essay writing skills improved. There was no need for a teacher to repeatedly explain the essay structure, as in the previous spring semester. We were able to focus more on other weaknesses of our students.
6. At the end of last semester, we received many words of gratitude from the students. We found common words of encouragement in their words like, "I used to believe that I could never learn English, but now I have gained much confidence that I can learn it if I want to, thanks to you. Thank you, my teacher, for teaching me so many important things which will surely make a valuable contribution to my future."

Conclusion

As can be seen, online learning differs from a traditional classroom, but the situations and times are rapidly changing, and we cannot teach by the old standards, ignoring the students' needs and circumstances of today. Regardless of the student's attitude towards the class, there is a natural environment for students to study in the classroom setting. Once a student enters a class, they listen to or participate in the lesson to a certain extent since the learning conditions are spontaneously created there, and the learning signal is automatically activated in the student's brain. However, in the case of learning at home through online practice, the student is more required to be positive and motivated to dedicate himself or herself to the lesson. Therefore, for the teacher to create this situation, especially for first-year students and sophomores, it is necessary to make them aware of the significance of the subject and relate it to their goals. In other words, intrinsic motivators are keys to boosting foreign language learners' self-direction and willingness to learn. Mainly, setting goals gives students a purpose, they give the lesson and course direction, they help improve a student's self-esteem and confidence, and students who set their own goals tend to achieve more. Also, students are more likely to do something when they feel encouraged and expect them to succeed. Hence, it is essential to avoid closed contact as much as possible and to create a supportive and positive atmosphere to boost or uphold their performance.

To sum up, by adapting to the technological requirements, making our online courses accessible and convenient, and we will be able to reap the rewards in the form of students' progress and gratitude. In particular, in the online classroom setting, specific goal setting, creating an open and accessible environment for students, and supporting their autonomy through several optimal methods are three main catalysts to learning motivation. They change the students' attitudes towards the subject, improve their learning results, and instill in them the ability to manage themselves for the rest of their lives.

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