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CONTENTS

L2 ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH TENSE AND ASPECT MORPHOLOGY BY MONGOLIAN LEARNERS

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Abstract: *Previous literature has argued that the acquisition of L2 English tense and aspect morphology follows a universal acquisition pattern, known as the Aspect Hypothesis (AH). In order to test the AH, this paper investigates the acquisition of English tense and aspect markers by 60 Mongolian L2 learners at two different proficiency levels. The results of the investigation reveal strong associations between achievement/accomplishment verbs and past tense marking, and between activity verbs and progressive aspect marking, which is consistent with the AH's predictions. However, contrary to the AH, the extension of progressive aspect marking to stative verbs is also observed. More research is needed to provide further evidence for the AH's claim for universality.*

Keywords: *Aspect Hypothesis; English tense-aspect morphology; Mongolian learners of L2 English*

Introduction

The question of how learners acquire the temporal and aspectual forms of a second language (L2) and the meanings assigned to those forms has been a thriving research topic in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Tense and aspect are considered universal properties of language, thus all languages have the inherent capacity to express the same temporal and aspectual meanings, albeit by different means (Dahl, 1985; Comrie, 1985; Smith, 1997; Klein, 2014). The intuition behind this assumption is that all human beings are able to make temporal and aspectual distinctions consciously on the basis of their cognitive or perceptual faculties, regardless of their first language (L1). However, languages differ in the way they express such meanings because the expression of time is a consequence of the way in which the language is structured. Agglutinative or inflectional languages such as Mongolian or Russian, for instance, primarily use verbal morphology to mark tense and aspect, whereas isolating languages such as Chinese and Vietnamese utilize verbal particles, temporal adverbials or contextual information to signal them. Applying tense and aspect to convey temporal information may seem quite straightforward to a native speaker, but their language-particular forms and functions such as those exemplified above may pose significant challenges for L2 learners.

The relationship between verbal lexical semantics and the development of tense and morphology has been explored by a plethora of empirical studies. Some have claimed that the developmental sequence of tense and aspect morphology in L2 acquisition follows a universal pattern and it is influenced by the inherent lexical aspect of the verb (or, situation type) and narrative structure (e.g., Robison, 1995; Bardovi-Harlig & Reynolds, 1995; Bardovi-Harlig, 2000). This tendency is often referred to as the 'Aspect Hypothesis' (AH), which was first formulated by Roger Andersen in the late 1980s. This hypothesis has been supported by subsequent observations from studies on L2 acquisition of both Indo-European languages (e.g., French, Italian and Spanish) and non-Indo-European languages (e.g., Chinese, Japanese and Korean) with participants from different L1 backgrounds (see Robison, 1995; Bardovi-Harlig & Reynolds, 1995; Rocca, 2002; Giacalone-Ramat, 2002; Shirai & Kurono, 1998; Lee, 2001 for a review). Recent studies, however, have uncovered some discrepancies with the main predictions of the AH (e.g., Housen, 2002; Rohde, 2002; Duff & Li, 2002). In order to solve this dilemma, Salaberry & Shirai (2002) have argued that the simple form-meaning correlation is only one part

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of the picture that is conditioned by various factors, i.e., L1 transfer, input data and its processing, formation of prototypes discourse functions, instructional variables and cognitive or universal constraints. Still, further research is needed to test whether these discrepancies are idiosyncrasies or represent notable trends in SLA.

In order to test the AH's claims that verb inflections in early English interlanguage system function primarily as markers of the inherent lexical aspect, this paper analyzes data collected from Mongolian university students whose native language (i.e., Khalkha Mongolian) and English are similar in the way that they both map temporal and aspectual functions onto linguistic forms. The following research questions are addressed in the study:

(1) Is the association between past tense morphology and achievements accomplishments strong?

(2) Is the association between progressive aspect morphology and activities strong?

(3) Is the use of stative progressive observed?

(4) Are there the developmental changes in the distributional characteristics of verbal morphology regarding to the inherent lexical aspect?

It is hoped that the findings from this study will contribute to the current debate on the L2 acquisition of tense and aspect morphology.

Theoretical considerations

Tense

Tense and aspect are two concomitant but distinct semantic categories that embody the linguistic encoding of time. According to conventional understanding, tense is a formal category of grammar that, alongside other temporal expressions, enables the listener to reconstruct chronological relations among situations, and between them and the Speech Time (SpT), that is, the point of time of the utterance. Tense has been defined in both broad and narrow terms in relevant literature. This study adopts a universal definition of tense based on semantic and grammatical criteria along the lines of Comrie (1985): tense is a fully grammaticalized expression of location in time. This definition implies that tense markers should be taken as being integrated into the grammar of the language, typically morphologically bound, even though they are not really necessary for interpretation. Since tenses are obligatorily used, finite verb constructions almost always constrain location in time vis-à-vis SpT. Moreover, this study assumes that the temporal location indicated by tense belongs not to a single word but to the whole sentence, that is to say, tense is a *sentential* category.

Semantically, the basic meaning of tense is the temporal relations that are defined by three primitives, following Reichenbach's (1947) logical representation: SpT, Situation Time and Reference Time. The time point (or interval), at which a situation occurs or holds is referred to as 'Situation Time' (SitT) here, which is 'Event Time' in Reichenbach's terminology.[1] SitT can be further specified by temporal adverbials or embedded clauses; it is also inferable from contextual clues, common knowledge and general truth (Smith, 1997). SitT can be anterior to (e.g., *John sang. John was singing.*), synchronous with (e.g., *John is singing.*) or posterior to SpT (e.g. *John will sing. John will be singing.*), denoting the ontological times of the *past*, *present* and *future*, respectively. Such ternary distinction, in which SpT functions as the center of deixis[2], is conventionally referred to as 'simple tense', aka 'absolute tense'[3] (Comrie, 1985, p.36). In complex sentences such as *Eve will already have left by the time Adam gets back*, however, the situation expressed by the main clause (*Eve will already have left*) is anchored clearly not to the SpT but rather to a contextually determined RT (*by the time Adam gets back*). Locating situations

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[1] Based on Smith's (1997) recommendation, the term 'SitT' instead of 'ET' is chosen in this paper because it is more general, in that it explicitly includes states as well as events.

[2] In general, the moment of the utterance, the *hic et nunc*, "the here and now", is regarded as the center of deixis.

[3] It has since been pointed out that the term is somewhat misleading, since this kind of time reference is not truly absolute but is relative to SpT.

in time thus intuitively requires the incorporation of an additional semantic primitive: RT.[1] Situations whose SitT anchors to a RT rather than the SpT are said to have 'relative tense' or 'absolute-relative tense' (Comrie, 1985, p.36). RT was introduced to account for complex tenses such as the perfect[2] (e.g., *Adam has lost his key.*), the pluperfect (e.g., *Adam had given the message to Eve when he realized his mistake.*) and future perfect (e.g., *Eve will have gone to the shop before Adam comes here.*).

Not all languages make use of the ternary distinction. For instance, English, as well as Mongolian[3], is said to exhibit only binary distinction between *past* and *non-past* (or *present*), as there is no designated grammatical marker for the future tense (Comrie, 1985; Michaelis, 2020). The reason for this is that temporally past and future time references have a symmetrical relation to SpT, but their interpretations are not entirely symmetrical, since the future incorporates an element of modality, in addition to tense, and reference to it involves the modal overtones of conjecture, prediction, obligation, and volition with various degrees of certainty to the truthfulness of the information conveyed (Lyons, 1968; Dahl, 1985; Bybee et al., 1994). A situation to occur after SpT is by definition "non-factual", as opposed to past, which is factual and decided. In English, the future tense is expressed primarily by the modal *will* (e.g., *Adam will come here soon.*); that is to say, the language has only two tenses, i.e., past (e.g. *Adam came here yesterday. Adam was at home last night.*) and present (e.g., *Adam comes here every day. Adam is studying right now.*).

Aspect

There are basically two kinds of approaches to aspect, each with its own research focus and justification: the Western approach (aka 'Anglo-American approach'), rooted in the philosophy of action, mind and language emanating from Aristotle, and the Eastern approach (aka 'European approach'), which emerged from the study of aspect in Slavic languages. The former bases its analyses on *lexical aspect (*aka *Aktionsart)*[4], often using a theoretical approach founded on conceptual schemata, whereas the latter bases its typologies on the study of *grammatical aspect*, using the opposition of perfective vs. imperfective viewpoints. In an attempt to make a compromise between the Western and Eastern approaches, this study opts for a "combined" approach, in which aspect is defined as the speaker's presentation of the size of a situation through a grammaticalized viewpoint and the internal temporal composition of the situation. What it means is that aspect is regarded as a sentential-level category, which is made up of two independent but interactive components, i.e., *lexical aspect* and *grammatical aspect*.

Lexical aspect classifies a sentence as denoting a situation of particular type according to three sets of two-valued distinctive temporal features, i.e., 1) *stativity* vs. *dynamicity*, 2) *punctuality* vs. *durativity* and 3) *telicity* vs. *atelicity*. The valid combinations of these sets of temporal features will result in four situation types, as given in Table 1.

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[1] Smith (1997) says that in tensed languages, RT is available in all main clauses because all tenses involve RT, including absolute ones. In all absolute tenses, RT is the same as SitT. Comrie (1985), however, counters that RT is not needed for the interpretation of absolute tenses: tense locates a situation in time directly, without meditation of RT. For relative tenses, Comrie reintroduces RT point, which mediates the relationship of SitT and SpT.

[2] The category of perfect has been discussed in detail in Comrie (1985), who postulates a qualitative difference between the perfect and the other complex tenses, assuming that the perfect and the past tense in English do not differ in their temporal location but in their aspectual representation of a situation. Following Comrie, this study regards the perfect as an aspectual category.

[3] See Binnick (2012b), Janhunen (2012) and Brosig (2014) for a recent discussion on the Mongolian temporal system.

[4] Some argue that *Aktionsart* is not to be equated with the notion 'lexical aspect'. Binnick (1991), for instance, says lexical aspect "represents a classification of situations (and the linguistic expressions denoting these) in terms of abstract phasic structures. The *Aktionsarten* represent rather a classification of (expressions for) stages of situations and sub-situations" (p.213). No such distinction is made in this study.

STATE (e.g. *know; be*)	ACTIVITY (e.g. *run; push the cart*)	ACCOMPLISHMENT (e.g. *grow up; build a house*)	ACHIEVEMENT (e.g. *win; recognize*)
stative	dynamic	dynamic	dynamic
durative	durative	durative	punctual
atelic	atelic	telic	telic

Table 1. Situation types and their temporal properties

States are stative situations, consisting of an undifferentiated period, and so are considered homogeneous—without shift or variation, they have no internal stages, no perceivable inner dynamics, and involve no change or development. *Activities* are prolonged events that hold at an interval as a single process, since they consist of a concatenation of subevents. *Accomplishments* have a bipartite structure consisting of a process and a change of state, or outcome. *Achievements* are single-phase, telic events with no internal structure. These four situation types were originally introduced by the philosopher Zeno Vendler (1967). They represent the temporal classifications of real world situations that people make on conceptual and cognitive grounds. As such, we can talk about them "at an abstract level that holds across languages" (Smith, 1997, p.17).

Lexical aspect interacts with grammatical aspect at the syntactic and semantic levels.[1] Grammatical aspect refers to the formal encoding of the predication that represents the speaker's temporal viewpoint on a situation. The speaker's viewpoint can span an entire situation with the initial and final endpoints as in the *Perfective aspect*, or it can span only a portion of that situation as in the *Imperfective aspect*. Specifically, the perfective aspect provides a bounded view of the situation expressed by a sentence[2] (e.g., *Adam read that book yesterday.*); while the imperfective aspect excludes the initial and final endpoints of a situation and focuses only on the internal stages, there being no concern for the situation's completeness (e.g. *Adam was reading that book yesterday.*)[3]The two figures below illustrate the default temporal schemata of the two viewpoints. The slashes indicate the visible span of a given situation.

$$I\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots F_{Int/Arb}$$
$$//////////////////////$$

Figure 1. Temporal schema for the perfective viewpoint aspect (Smith, 1997, p.66)

$$I\ldots\ldots.////////\ldots\ldots F$$

Figure 2. Temporal schema for the imperfective viewpoint aspect (Smith, 1997, p.73)

English has four grammatical aspects: simple, a subvariant of the perfective (e.g., *Adam ate a cake.*), progressive, a subvariant of the imperfective (e.g., *Adam was at home when the phone*

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[1] The interaction of lexical and grammatical aspect has traditionally been understood as involving constraints on co-occurrence. For instance, states in English are syntactically incompatible with the progressive (**The kids are being tall.*). In recent times, the relationship has rather been seen as one of type coercion, in which one type of situation is implicitly taken as denoting a different type of situation, e.g. the progressive marker in *he is dying* transforms an achievement into an accomplishment via aspectual coercion. Details of the interaction between the two types of aspects is a matter of the workings of the lexicogrammar and the pragmatic conventions of an individual language (Smith, 1997).

[2] The perfective is not to be confused with the notions 'conclusive aspect' (Dahl, 1985) and 'completive' (Bybee et al., 1994). The latter two refer to the mostly derivational Slavic perfective affixes and similar forms in languages in which the forms stem from lexical sources that express doing something thoroughly, and to completion such as *finish*, *conclude* and *throw away*.

[3] Every attempt has been made in the literature to characterize what underlies the perfective vs. imperfective opposition (e.g., Comrie, 1976; Dahl, 1985; Bybee et al.,1994; Binnick, 1991; Smith, 1997). Most of these attempts have aimed at finding a requisite "invariant meaning"—*Gesamtbedeutung* (lit. "general meaning"), or the defining semantic property of the perfective[3], which teases it apart from its counterpart, the imperfective. The validity of stating an invariant meaning for viewpoint is based ultimately on the conviction that such a widespread grammatical feature cannot derive all its meaning from context.

rang.), perfect, a subvariant of the perfective (e.g., *Adam has lost his key*.), and perfect progressive, another subvariant of the imperfective (e.g., *Adam has been living in Ulaanbaatar since 2015*.).

Unlike lexical aspect, grammatical aspect is expressed morpho-syntactically by aspect markers, which can be inflectional morphemes, periphrases, auxiliaries or particles. The exact form of realization is decided by the grammar of an individual language.

Aspect Hypothesis (AH)

Aspect constitutes an essential part of language acquisition as well as of language use, as reflected in the lexicon and the grammar. In the last three decades, this topic has not only produced a vast amount of empirical research and many theoretical frameworks in SLA. Evidence from crosslinguistic L2 data (e.g., Andersen, 1986, 1989, 1991; Kaplan, 1987; Giacalone & Ramat, 1995; Housen, 2002) has led researchers to formulate the AH (Andersen & Shirai, 1994; Bardovi-Harlig, 1995; Robison, 1995). Based on the observation that children learning their L1 encode the completion of events (i.e., aspect) before they encode temporal relations between events and speech time (i.e., tense), the AH explores similar acquisitional patterns in L2 acquisition. Specifically, it examines interlanguage form-function associations from a form-oriented approach. The AH adopts the two-component approach to aspect, in which grammatical aspect is conceptually independent from lexical aspect.

The earliest work on the L2 acquisition of aspect is attributed to Roger Andersen (1986, 1991), whose version of the Aspect Hypothesis was labeled as the "Defective Tense Hypothesis." Andersen's analyses revealed the following developmental paths: past perfective (preterite) appeared earlier than past imperfective (imperfect), and the other in which verbs emerged with past perfective was "achievement→accomplishment→activity→state", whereas the order in which verbs emerged with past imperfective was "state→activity→accomplishment→achievement." Thus, perfective aspect starts from one end of the continuum of the four Vendlerian situation types, and imperfective aspect starts from the other end. In terms of semantic features, perfective past is first associated with [+punctual, +telic, +dynamic], while imperfective past with [-punctual, -telic, -dynamic].

Table 2 shows different versions of the AH that have been posited in the past:

Stage (year)	Name	Version
1 (1989)	Andersen	Relative Defective Tense Hypothesis
2 (1986, 1991)	Andersen	Defective Tense Hypothesis
3 (1990)	Robison	Primacy of Aspect Hypothesis
4 (1991/1994, 1996)	Shirai/Andersen & Shirai	Aspect Hypothesis

Table 2. Different versions of the AH

The most current formulation of the AH can be attributed to Andersen and Shirai (1994:133) who proposed that L1 and L2 learners will initially be influenced by the inherent semantic aspect of verbs (i.e., lexical aspect) in the acquisition of tense-aspect morphological markers associated with or affixed to these verbs. The AH is further divided into four separate hypotheses that are stated in terms of grammatical aspect and its relation to lexical aspect stated in terms of Vendlerian categories (Shirai, 1991, pp.9-10; Andersen & Shirai, 1996, p.533):

(1)   Learners first use past marking (e.g., English) or perfective marking (e.g., Mandarin) on achievement and accomplishment verbs, eventually extending its use to activity and stative verbs.
(2)   In languages that encode the perfective-imperfective distinction morphologically (e.g., French), imperfective past appears later than perfective past, and imperfective past marking begins with stative verbs, extending next to activity verbs, then to accomplishment verbs, and finally to achievement verbs.
(3)   In languages that have progressive aspect (e.g., Mongolian), progressive marking begins

with activity verbs, and then extends to accomplishment or achievement verbs.
(4)   Progressive markings are not incorrectly overextended to stative verbs (in L1 acquisition).

Although the four hypotheses are intended to apply to the acquisition of tense-aspect morphology in both L1 and L2, the hypothesis (4) is problematic for L2 acquisition, therefore, it will not be tested in this study.

To conclude, the AH contains two main claims: first lexical aspect influences the distribution of emergent verb morphology in learners' language (L1 and L2) and second the direction   of   the   subsequent   development   of   the   learners'   tense and aspect system (Andersen, 1991; Andersen & Shirai, 1994, 1996).

Methodology

The participants were 60 Mongolians adult learners of English who were English-major undergraduates from the University of the Humanities of Mongolia. Half of them were from a third semester course, while the others were from a sixth semester course. All participants completed a cloze-type fill-in-the-blank task that contains a total of 72 target items and 10 distracters including infinitive and gerund that are not under investigation in this study. The contexts for the cloze text were based on 4 different short passages. Learners were given the base form of the verbs in brackets and asked to fill in the blanks with the correct form of the verbs. Following Bardovi-Harlig & Reynolds (1995), all verbs were tested in the third person singular context, so that overt morphological marking would be obligatory in the past as well as in the present. A sample test item is given below:

My friend, Tom, _____ always___ (be) fat, but things (get) so bad recently that he (decide) _____ to go on a diet.

Most words in the passages were common lexical items, and the possible new words or phrases are provided with translations in brackets. All participants received a biographical questionnaire sheet and a one-page fill-in-the-blank task. The cloze test was timed for 20 minutes to limit monitoring of form. The dependent variable for the data analysis is represented by the verbal morphological form. Four categories were considered: simple past, simple present, perfect and progressive. All verbs were also classified according to their inherent lexical aspectual semantics, or situation types—states (STA), activities (ACT), accomplishments (ACC) and achievements (ACH). Four-step operational tests were used to distinguish situation types: 1) test of stativity, 2) test of activity and 3) test of punctuality. The application of these tests was performed sequentially. In other words, if a verb was stative, there was no need to test in the following steps. If a verb was non-stative according to the first test, then the second test was applied. According to Shirai & Anderson's (1995) diagnostic tests, 72 verbs were identified as 12 states, 30 activities, 19 achievements and 11 accomplishments.

Analysis and results

The learners' responses were grouped into categories according to verbal morphology: simple past included simple past tense forms and regularized forms; simple present included simple present tense and base forms such as *make*; progressive included present and past progressive with or without auxiliary; perfect included all perfect forms. The number of simple past, simple present, perfect and progressive responses to verbs in each situation type was tabulated.

The overall results are presented in Table 3. The percentage figures in the table represent the distribution of four forms of verbal morphology within each lexical aspect. In other words, each figure represents the portion of tokens that have the past, present, progressive and perfective markings in the given aspectual classification. The raw tokens are provided in the

parentheses. The results show that participants associate and use past and perfect tense morphology more frequently with events (achievements and accomplishments) than with activities and states in each level: more than 70% past tense markings on events and over 60% on activities and states; more than 5% perfect markings on events and less than 4% on activities and states. The progressive aspect markings spread from activities (21%, 16%) to accomplishments (9%, 9%) and achievements (7%, 7%). However, the use of progressive aspect marking with states is observed as well: 7% of all states (27/360) in each level. The developmental changes in the distributional characteristics of verbal morphology regarding to inherent lexical aspect are not significant. The variation between the counterparts is at most up to 6%.

Semester	Form	STA		ACT		ACC		ACH	
		%	(n)	%	(n)	%	(n)	%	(n)
3rd n=30	Past	65	(233)	64	(575)	72	(237)	73	(416)
	Prog	7	(27)	21	(190)	9	(31)	7	(42)
	Pres	25	(90)	12	(107)	12	(38)	10	(58)
	Perf	3	(10)	3	(28)	7	(24)	9	(54)
	Total	100	(360)	100	(900)	100	(330)	100	(570)
6th n=30	Past	63	(288)	62	(560)	70	(232)	72	(408)
	Prog	7	(27)	16	(140)	9	(31)	7	(29)
	Pres	26	(95)	20	(178)	14	(47)	16	(90)
	Perf	3	(10)	2	(22)	6	(20)	8	(43)
	Total	100	(360)	100	(900)	100	(330)	100	(570)

Note: Raw token frequency in parenthesis.

Table 3. Distribution of verbal morphology over lexical aspect categories

Discussion

The results reinforce the earlier findings in relation to the association between the past tense marking and the lexical aspect. In each level, the participants applied past tense markers to event predicates, i.e., accomplishment and achievement, more than those to state and activity. Though, the distribution of verbal morphology in all situation types (states, activities accomplishments and achievements) is slightly skewed, it is convincingly supporting evidence for the hypothesis.

The second claim of the hypothesis that progressive is marked more in activities was supported. It is worth noting that more than 70 tokens were tenseless progressive forms with no auxiliary which shows that the verbal morphology is marked for aspect rather than for tense. Bardovi-Harlig & Bergström (1996) pointed out that with the association of inflections with tense increased with level, the use of the tenseless progressive forms would drop out. The present study, however, found no such tendency, which may be explained by L1 influence since Mongolian progressive forms are mainly encoded by verbal inflections.

Contrary to the AH, the use of progressive aspect marking is not only restricted to activities and events, but also overgeneralized to states. Such overgeneralization of progressive aspect marking to states has been reported in many studies. Bardovi-Harlig (2000) argued that the task may influence rates of progressive uses with states: no greater than 3 in oral and written narratives (Robison, 1995); a high rate of 7 in cloze passages (Bardovi-Harlig & Reynolds, 1995).

The present study also found 7 uses of progressive with states by tutored learners of English in cloze passages. Further research is needed to examine whether this tendency is task-dependent, as Bardovi-Harlig claimed or just a coincidence. As the figures in Table 3 illustrate, the percentage figures between the counterparts in each level vary from at most 6 to 0. The range of variation is not big enough to claim that developmental changes are observed across proficiency levels. In cloze passages, the number of tokens is fixed which restricts the increasing or decreasing use of some forms of verbal inflections. Besides as Robison (1995) pointed out, cross-sectional data only "represents the fossilized end-states of a variety of developmental sequences" (p.366). To genuinely discover the developmental sequences of verbal morphology in interlanguage, longitudinal research employing the tasks of oral or written narratives is needed.

Conclusion

This paper presented an experiment conducted on the acquisition of tense and aspect morphology in L2 English. The experiment used cloze passages data from 60 Mongolian adult learners, whose native language, i.e., Khalkha Mongolian, grammatically marks tense and aspect just like English, to test how the tense and aspect morphology comply with the inherent lexical aspect, and how this association varies across different levels of proficiency.

The results of current study demonstrate that lexical aspect plays an important role in the use of past tense by Mongolian learners of English as a second language, which is in line with the AH's claims. Further support for the AH comes from the findings that the use of progressive aspect marking correlates more with the activities than with the events. However, overgeneralization of progressive aspect marking to states provides a counterexample to the hypothesis. Having been reported in many empirical studies, such counterexamples, therefore, cannot so easily be discarded, which calls for more solid empirical research to probe into the factors that affect the generalization.

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

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Abstract: *The subject for the consideration in the article is idioms with the component "**white & black**" 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 "white & black" 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 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. 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. 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.

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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). 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 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.

Methodology

The analysis of cultural codes carried out in this research 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 "**white & black**" in English, "**белый & черный**" Russian and "**цагаан & хар**" in Mongolian languages. The words "**white & black**" are included in a whole series of idioms, the meanings of which are connected with the process of speaking.

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 the 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. Color+artifact code:
Eng: *(as) white as a sheet; a whited sepulcher; white hat; white paper; white collar; (as) black as (one's) hat; (as) black as a skillet; (as) black as ink; a black box; be in (one's) black books; black tie;*
Rus: *белый билет* (white ticket)*; белый шар* (white ball)*; белые воротнички* (white collars)*; черная книга* (black book)*; черный ящик* (black box)*; черный шар* (black ball);
Mon*: хар гэр* (*black ger* - prison)

2. Color+natural code:
Eng: *(as) white as snow; (as) black as coal; (as) black as night; (as) black as pitch; (as) black as thunder; black gold;*
Rus: *белая смерть* (white death)*; белый камень* (white stone)*; белое золото* (white gold)*; белее снега* (whiter than snow)*; черное золото (нефть)* (black gold (oil))*; черная смерть (чума)* (black death (plague))*; черная дыра* (black hole)*; чернее тучи* (blacker than clouds);
Mon: *цагаан дусал* (*white drop* – planet)*; хар ус* (*black water* – alcohol, vodka)*; хар үүрээр* (at dawn)

3. Color+anthropic code:
Eng: *(little) white lie; a white knight; white man; white marriage; white sale; white rider; white wedding; (as) black as the ace of spades; a black mark; black babies; black list; black market; Black Russian; Black Twitter;*
Rus: *белая магия* (white magic)*; белый карлик* (white dwarf)*; белый стих* (blank verse)*; белая олимпиада* (white Olympiad)*; белый свет* (white light)*; белые деньги* (white money)*; белая гвардия* (white guard)*; белый офицер* (white officer)*; белый танец* (white dance)*; как белые люди* (like white people)*; черный юмор* (black humor)*; черная работа* (dirty work)*; черный рынок* (black market)*; черное слово* (black word)*; черный список* (black list)*; черное дело* (black business)*; черная душа* (black soul)*; черная зависть* (black envy)*; черные мысли* (black thoughts)*; черная неблагодарность* (black ingratitude)*; черный пиар* (black PR)*; черная метка* (Black label)*; черный народ* (black people)*; черный риелтор* (black realtor);

Mon: *цагаан Долгор (white Dolgor* – alcohol, vodka*); хар толбо* (black mark)*; хар дом* (black magic)*; хар мөртэй* (black sheep, have bad consequences)*; хар ухаан* (horse sense,educated guess)

4. Color+somatic code:
Eng: *white knuckle; a black eye; black-hearted;*
Rus: *белая кость* (white bone)*; черная кость* (black bone)*; черный глаз* (black eye)*;*
Mon: *хар элэгтэй* (no kith or kin of one; stranger, alien); цагаан гартан (blue blood; an egg head)

5. Color+gastronomic code:
Eng: *as the white on rice; white wine; white bread;*
Rus: *белое вино* (white wine)*;*
Mon: *цагаан мах (white meat – intestine)*

6. Color+zoomorphic code:
Eng: *a white elephant; white around the gills; white sheep; (as) black as a raven; a/the black sheep; the black dog;*
Rus: *белая ворона* (white crow)*; белые мухи* (white flies)*; белый конь* (white horse)*;*
Mon: *хар шоргоолж шиг (like a black ant – countless, lots of)*

7. Color+color+activity code:
Eng: *get (something) down in black and white; put down in black and white; set (something) down in black and white;*
Rus: *называть чёрное белым (* call black white)*;*
Mon: *хар цагааныг ялгах (to differ white from black* - distinguish good from bad)

8. Color+activity+somatic code:
Eng: *give someone a black eye;*
Rus: *взять под белы рученьки* (take under white hands)*; держать в черном теле* (keep in a black body)*;*
Mon: *хар нүд хага татах (to drag a black eye* – to wake up)*; хар нүд хамхих (to close black eyes* – to sleep)*; хар нүд хуулах (to scrab a black eye* – to wake up)*; хар нүдэн хийх (to make a black eye* - drink alcohol instead of fermented milk)*; хар хамраараа таслуулах (be cut off by his black nose – to be cut right in front); хар хэл хүрэх (to get a black tongue* – to have failures because of backbiting, slander and evil-speaking)*; хар толгойгоороо хариуцах* (to bell the cat; at one's own peril; play a lone game; carry the can)

Cultural codes similar in two languages:

1. Color+religious code:
Eng: *(as) white as a ghost; a white Christmas; (as) black as the devil;*
Rus: *Белый монах* (white monk)

2. Color+construction code:
Eng: *the White House;*
Rus: *белый дом* (white house)

3. Color+temporal code:
Eng: *a black day; black as night; black Friday;*
Rus: *средь бела дня* (in the middle of the day)*; белые ночи* (white nights)*; черный час* (black hour)*; черный день* (black day)*; черный год* (black year)*; черная суббота* (black

Saturday); *черная пятница* (black Friday); *на черный день* (for a rainy day);

4. Color+color code:
Eng: *black and white; blue and white; whiter than white; black and blue; black on black;*
Rus: *белым-бело* (white-white); *чёрным по белому* (black on white); *в черном цвете* (in black);

5. Color+floral code:
Eng: *lily-white;*
Rus: *черный тюльпан* (black tulip)

6. Color+zoomorphic+anthropic code:
Eng: *black sheep of the family;*
Rus: *сказка про белого бычка* (megillah); *принц на белом коне* (prince on a white horse);

7. Color+activity+artifact code:
Eng: *hang out a/the white flag; hoist a/the white flag; wave a/the white flag; paint a black picture (of someone or something);*
Rus: *шито белыми нитками* (sewn with white threads); *рисовать черными красками* (paint with black paint);

8. Color+activity+natural code:
Eng: *mark (something) with a white stone;*
Rus: *света белого не видеть* (not to see white light); *дела как сажа бела* (deeds are like white soot);

9. Color+anthropic+artifact code:
Eng: *men in white coats; white-collar staff; white-collar worker; white-van man; (as) black as the minister's coat;*
Rus: *в белый свет как в копеечку* (in white light like a pretty penny); *люди в белых халатах* (people in white coats);

10. Color+anthropic+ anthropic code :
Eng: *the white man's burden; (a bit) black over Bill's mother's; black mark beside name;*
Rus: *не жилец на белом свете* (not a tenant in the world); *бремя белого человека* (white man's burden);

11. Color+anthropic+qualitative:
Eng: *great white hope;*
Rus: *белый свет не мил* white light is not nice; *свету белому не рад* (not happy with white light);

12. Color+activity+zoomorphic code:
Eng: *show the white feather;*
Rus: *черная кошка пробежала* (a black cat ran)

13. Color+activity code:
Rus: *работать по-белому* (work white); *белое движение* (white movement); *играть белыми* (play white);
Mon: *цагаандаа гарах* (here goes; show one's face); *хар буух* (to regret); *хар дарах* (to have nightmares); *хар болгох* (to make into a layman; to unfrock)

14. Color+spatial code:
Eng: *белый континент* (white continent)*;*
Mon: *хар дотортой* (*to have black inwards* – be ill-minded, evil-minded)

15. Color+activity+anthropic code:
Rus: *по белу свету (ходить)* (walk around the world)*;*
Mon: *хар амиа хонхойлох* (save one's bacon/skin; into one's shell; on the make)*; хар дансанд орох* (into someone's bad books; ne in smb's bad or black book)*; хар дарсан зүүд; хар төвөг удах* (be a drag; can of warms)

16. Color+activity code:
Eng: *bleed (someone) white; hit the white; (as) black as (one) is painted;*
Mon: *хар авах* (smell a rat)

17. Color+color+qualitative code :
Eng: *as clear as black and white;*
Mon: *хар цагаан дуугүй (black and white silent* – silent, mute, dumb, wordless)

18. Color+anthropic+qualitative code:
Eng: *big white chief;*
Mon: *хар буруу санаагүй* (to be open and above board).

Cultural codes existing only in one of three languages:

In English:

1. Color+natural+qualitative: **Eng:** *(as) white as the driven snow*
2. Color+zoomorphic+zoomorphic: **Eng:** *(as) black as a raven's feather; (as) black as a raven's wing*
3. Color+artifact+artifact: **Eng:** *black-silk barge; pot calling the kettle black*
4. Color+artifact+qualitative: **Eng:** *little black book*
5. Color+color+zoomorphic: **Eng:** *(as) black as a stack of black cats*
6. Color+anthropic+qualitative+artifact: **Eng:** *talk on the big white (tele)phone*
7. Color+anthropic+qualitative+artifact+religious: **Eng:** *talk to God on the big white (tele)phone.*

In Russian:

1. Color+numeral: **Rus:** *Черная сотня* (black hundred)
2. Color+qualitative: **Rus:** *Белый и пушистый* (white and fluffy)
3. Color+color+anthropic: **Rus:** *Белый и Рыжий клоун* (white and red clown)
4. Color+activity+active: **Rus:** *довести до белого каления (*bring to a white heat)
5. Color+anthropic+temporal: **Rus:** *грабёж среди бела дня (*robbery in broad daylight)
6. Color+activity+artifact+artifact: **Rus:** *видал в гробу в белых тапочках* (seen in a coffin in white slippers)
7. Color+anthropic+color+floral: **Rus:** *война Алой и Белой розы (*war of the scarlet and white roses)
8. Color+somatic+somatic+qualitative: **Rus:** *очи черные, очи страстные*! (black eyes, passionate eyes)!

In Mongolian:

1. Color+somatic+somatic: **Mon:** *хар нүднээс хөмсөг гадуур* (turning a blind eye)*; хар толгойгоо цусдах* (shoot oneself in the foot); *хар хэл ам* (the power of words, the impact of what has been spoken)
1. Color+active+spatial: **Mon:** *хар нутаг дээр хаягдах* (be no better of than before; be back where one started; be back to square one)*;*
2. Color+activity+somatic+somatic: **Mon:** *цагаан хэл ам хүрэх* (*to get white tongue and mouth* – to get an evil eye (when everything, every plan fails)
3. Color+constructive+anthropic+color+constructive+anthropic: **Mon:** *хар гэртээ хаан, бор гэртээ богд* (a cock is valiant on his own dunghill; there's no place like home; a host in himself)*;*
4. Color+somatic+activity+spatial: **Mon:** *хар нүдээ ухаж өгөх нь холгүй байх* (to give earth (for smth); to feast the eyes; to be keen)
5. Color+somatic+natural+activity: **Mon:** *хар толгойдоо булуу хураах* (to make trouble for oneself; carry the can)*; хар толгойруугаа ус хийх* (get into trouble; be in a nice mess; to put one's head in a noose)
6. Color+natural+spatial+activity: **Mon:** *хар уснаас хол явах* (flee from the bottle)
7. Color+anthropic+color+anthropic: **Mon:** *хар хүний төлөө шар хүн* (fighting someone else's battles)
8. Color+somatic+activity+qualitative+somatic+active+anthropic+activity: **Mon:** *хар хөлсөө урсгаж, хатан ясаа үйрүүлж, хамаг чадлаа шавхах* (be the sweat of one's brow; sweat blood)
9. Color+natural+gastronomic+activity+qualitative+natural+artifact+activity: **Mon:** *хар усан дээр өрөм загсааж, халуун нурмыг хөвөнгөөр ороох* (it is still all up in the air; to be conciliatory; to pour oil on troubled waters)

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

English cultural codes	Russian codes	Mongolian codes
color	color	color
anthropic	anthropic	anthropic
somatic	somatic	somatic
activity	activity	activity
qualitative	qualitative	qualitative
artifact	artifact	artifact
natural	natural	natural
zoomorphic	zoomorphic	zoomorphic
construction	construction	construction
gastronomic	gastronomic	gastronomic
religious	religious	-
temporal	temporal	-
floral	floral	-
-	numeral	-
-	spatial	spatial

Conclusion

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

Universal codes of culture for the appropriate three language worldviews include 8 common sets out of the 50 sets of cultural codes: *anthropic+activity*, *anthropic+qualitative* and *anthropic+activity+somatic* codes. For the Russian and English languages, 12 sets of cultural codes are common: *anthropic, anthropic+anthropic, anthropic+numeric, anthropic+natural, anthropic+artifact, anthropic+zoonymic, anthropic+activity+qualitative, anthropic+active+numeric, anthropic+anthropic+ numeric anthropic+anthropic+activity, anthropic+ anthropic+activity+qualitative codes.* As for the Russian and Mongolian languages, 3 sets of cultural codes are common: *color+activity, color+spatial and color+activity+anthropic* sets of codes. And English and Mongolian languages also have 3 common sets of cultural codes: color+activity, color+color+qualitative, color+anthropic+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 7 sets of codes are unique: *color+natural+qualitative, color+zoomorphic+zoomorphic, color+artifact+artifact, color+artifact+qualitative, color+color+zoomorphic,color+anthropic+qualitative+artifact, color+anthropic+qualitative+artifact+religious* codes. There are 8 unique codes in Russian language: *color+numeral, color+qualitative,color+color+anthropic, color+activity+activity, color+anthropic+temporal, color+activity+artifact+artifact, color+anthropic+color+floral, color+somatic+somatic+qualitative codes.* And we can see 9 unique codes in Mongolian such as: *color+somatic+somatic, color+activity+spatial, color+activity+somatic+somatic, color+construction+anthropic+color+construction+anthropic, color+somatic+activity+spatial, color+somatic+natural+activity,color+natural+spatial+activity, color+anthropic+color+anthropic,color+somatic+activity+qualitative+somatic+activity+anthropic+activity, color+natural+gastronomic+activity+qualitative+natural+artifact+activity codes.* In the English language, *spatial* and *numeral* cultural codes are absent; in the Mongolian language – *religious, temporal, numeral and floral codes* are absent. However, in the Russian language there exist all 15 cultural codes considered in the research.

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 the linguistic cultural picture in three LVW (Language view of the world), due to the universality of person'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 into 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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CULTURAL SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES IN BLACK COLOR TERMS IN ENGLISH, CHINESE AND MONGOLIAN

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Abstract: *There is a close relationship between culture and language. There are numerous color terms in English, Chinese and Mongolian. Of course, there are numerous similarities in the meanings of these color terms. Though, because of the different culture, religion, custom and tradition, cognitive way of thinking, location, and lifestyle, the cultural implications of these color terms also significantly vary. This paper aims to argue that color study offers a new way of presenting multiculturalism. This will help foreign language learners use color terms appropriately and advance their understanding of multiculturalism. This paper presents the analysis and compares black color terms in English, Chinese and Mongolian. Also, the author will include some aspects and factors, which affect the cultural differences of English, Chinese and Mongolian black color terms. Although, a color study has been one of the most motivating and demanding themes for many centuries because understanding the cultural implications of the color terms actually have abundant importance in promoting the global cultural interactions in today's multi-cultural society.*

Keywords: *color; social construction of color; cultural implications; cultural differences.*

Introduction

To start with, the questions – What is color? And how do people perceive it? - have been discussed by scholars and linguists from different generations starting from the time of Aristotle and Democritus. Color is the part of things that is caused by varying characteristics of light being reflected or produced by them. To see color, we need to have light. At the point when light sparkles on an item a few hues bounce off the item and others are consumed by it. Our eyes just see the hues that are reflected. However, studies for colors are curiously constant across cultures and languages. The color research is not only related to early philosophers but also has a relation to scientists and linguists all along. The studies of color have been conducted from different viewpoints. Actually, they had various views on color perception than that is now accepted.

Color is everywhere and everything in the world has its own color. For example, in English, coal is **black**, milk is **white**, blood is **red**, the sea is **blue**, grass is **green** and the sun is **yellow**. All the languages in the world have their own words for colors. Scholars, especially linguists, have claimed that there is a relationship between colors, words and culture. Huang Qiang (2011: 99) mentioned that culture consists of language, and language has a significant role in culture. The Earth is the only home for the human beings even though we speak in lots of different languages. People have seen one Sun, one Moon and they have observed the nature around them, including mountains, forests, plants, living creatures and other objects. Every country and culture has their own knowledge of unique concepts of colors. Because of their understanding of colors and its symbolism, traditions that they cherish differ, which lead to different culture, tradition, religion and different views of the Universe.

However, in 1969, Berlin and Kay in their *Basic Color Terms: Their University and Evolution* book showed that there were 11 basic color terms in English: **white**, **black**, **red**, **blue**, **green**, **yellow**, **purple**, **brown**, **grey** and **orange**. As a result, there are six basic color terms shared in English, Chinese and Mongolian. Mongolians understand that **tsagaan** (white) is the basis of all colors, **khar** (black) is the complement of other colors. **Black** and **white** in the Mongolian color culture has a symbolic meaning of parents of other colors. **Black** is the father of other colors and

white is their mother. Some Mongolian phrases or terms are based on Western influence. Also, Mongolian borrowed some terms from other languages to create a unique Mongolian expression, for example, ***shar*** *sonin* (yellow journalism), ***tsagaan Oros*** (white Russian), ***ulaan Oros*** (red Russian), ***ulaan*** *khivs* (red carpet) and ***ulaan*** *bulan* (red corner). A Mongolian Scientist Dulam (2000) mentioned in his book that the coordination of color and culture existed because color symbolism stands in cultural color, life style, different views of the universe, social relations, philosophy and the tradition of religion (Dulam, 2000; 2007).

Cultural linguists argue that people experience universal terms across cultures, because the universal body of human is the source of many terms. We cannot understand color terms directly, but through the linguistic expression we can understand and explain color terms. Also, scholars believe that color term is based on the human thought and action. People of various cultures could use similar terms because people see similarly, think similarly and experience similarly. From the above, I assume that there could be several similar terms in English, Chinese and Mongolian. In addition, I found more similar terms in the three languages, which was a rather surprising result. I expected that there will be more different terms than similar ones.

Methodology

What is going on in people's mind, in their culture and language of different countries? This paper pays much attention to the profounder implication of different color, the Asian and American cultural experience to the different peoples' life experience, to the traditions and habits, which are related to the implication of color. Yu-Shan Han mentioned that Chinese language will become one of the international languages like English in near future. I agree with this statement that Chinese language is becoming widely spoken language in the world at present. Also, conventional Chinese life covers big geographical territories, wherein every place is normally divided into special sub-cultures. The paper is based on my PhD dissertation, which compared English and Mongolian color terms. In my dissertation, I was able to show a systematic comparative study on color terms in English and in Mongolian. My dissertation work and this paper are based on the method of correlation. Methods of correlation could be used with the purpose of studying the scope and the nature of associations between diverse variables. Correlation analysis is often used toward understanding the nature of associations between two distinct variables.

Thus, I collected the data not only from the Mongolian National Corpus and Mongolian etymology dictionaries, but also different sources such as previous studies on color terms, dictionaries and online sources. Then, I selected six basic color terms in Mongolian. Afterwards, I found similar terms from dictionaries of the three languages and other different sources, and analyzed the data. Then, I would like to relate the cultural implications of English, Chinese and Mongolian color terms with a few translation methods. The first one is the literal translation and the second one is the free translation, which includes cultural equivalence and functional equivalence. In the fundamental part, the paper manages social meanings of essential color terms in the three languages and the reasons for similarities and differences by referring to a few cases. By the contrastive investigation of social implications of essential color terms amongst three languages, we can find out about what is happening in their language and social. Finally, I made a precise analysis of the reasons caused the differences of the cultural implications of English, Chinese and Mongolian color terms, that covers tradition, culture and customs, cognitive way of thinking, color terms in history, color terms in culture, color terms in health, color terms in religion, color terms in social status and also, western influence of color terms. Here, I will only present black color terms in the three languages.

Neuroscience and Social Constructionism to color terms

Moreover, there is also a vibrant scholarship on the neurobiological theory of color appearance and the theory of the social construction of color, which are two of the essential fields of color study. As stated in the *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* journal, an extraordinary property of the cone framework is color vision. Seeing color permits people (and numerous different creatures) to segregate properties based on the appropriation of the wavelengths of light that they reflect to the eye. While contrasts in luminance are frequently adequate to recognize objects, color includes another perceptual measurement that is particularly helpful when contrasts in luminance are inconspicuous or nonexistent. Color clearly gives us a very extraordinary method for seeing and portraying the world we live in. Color vision is the capacity of a life form to recognize things in view of the wavelengths of the light they reflect, produce, or transmit. Color can be estimated and evaluated in different ways; in fact, an individual's impression of colors is a subjective procedure whereby the mind reacts to the stimuli that are created when approaching light responds with the few kinds of cone cells in the eye. In essence, different people see the same illuminated object or light source in different ways.[1] In addition, Edward Gibson (2017) discussed, "When we look at it, it turns out it's the same across every language that we studied. Every language has this amazing similar ordering of colors, so that reds are more consistently communicated than greens or blues" (Edward Gibson, Richard Futrell, Julian Jara-Ettinger, Kyle Mahowald, Leon Bergen, Sivalogeswaran Ratnasingam, Mitchell Gibson, Steven T. Piantadosi, and Bevil R. Conway , 2017).

According to DeValois and DeValois (1993:33), the explanation of why color appears to us in a particular manner is the human eye undergoes three stages to receive color. The first stage has three cone types which are L:M:S cones that stands for long, medium and short wavelength in ratios of 10:5:1. The next stage, retinal connectivity leads to three pairs of cone-opponent, and one pair of cone-nonopponent systems. Cortical stage, final stage, of color processing, the S-opponent cells are added to or subtracted from the L- and M-opponent units to split and rotate the one effective parvo geniculate response axis into separate RG and YB color axes, and separate luminance from color. Actually, human beings, with our three cone types, are better at receiving color compared to most mammals. However, some animals can see color better than we do. Some fish, birds and insects have four types of cones, permitting them to see ultraviolet light, which may help them see well.[2]

Another stream of scholarship that pertains to the relationship between color, culture and language is the social constructionist theory. The claim about the social construction of the real world is a hypothesis of learning in humanism and correspondence hypothesis that looks at the improvement of mutually built understandings of the world that frame the reason for shared suspicions about the real world. The theory focuses on the thoughts that individuals legitimize their experience by making models of the social world and share these models through language. As stated in the [sociology] article, social constructs can be distinctive in light of the general public and the occasions encompassing the era in which they exist (Sinn, 2016). There are numerous example social constructs, such as *nation*, *money*, *gender*, *race color*, *language*, *parliament* and so on. Additional example of a social construct is simply the idea/self-character. According to Charles Cooley, who was a famous American sociologist and was best known for his *looking glass self-theory*, "I am not who you think I am; I am not who I think I am; I am who I think you think I am" (Cooley, 1902, pp. 183-184). This shows how individuals in the public eye develop thoughts or ideas that may not exist without the presence of individuals or language to approve those ideas. The larger part of social constructionists complies with the principle that language does not reflect reality; rather, it creates it. In addition, social construction was observed by Ian Hacking (1999)

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[1] Edward Gibson, Richard Futrell, Julian Jara-Ettinger, Kyle Mahowald, Leon Bergen, Sivalogeswaran Ratnasingam, Mitchell Gibson, Steven T. Piantadosi, and Bevil R. Conway 2017.

[2] DeValois RL, DeValois KK, A multi-stage color model, Vision Research. 1993; 33(8):1053–1065.

and he stated that not only things, objects and facts of the world related to social construction but also our beliefs about them (Hacking, 1999).

Social reality is the "universe" of socially developed learning made by ideals of human social collaborations. Social reality is grounded in human culture, language, behavior, our way of life, and in effect colors the greater part of our knowledge about them. Colors can be perceived according to how we are socialized in our own culture. Word is the most dynamic piece of language. It can specifically mirror the social improvements. As it were, word is the reflection of the way of life, so is the color terms. One color could have various implications in various societies. As I hope to present in this paper, there are instances that the comprehension and emotions to color terms of English, Chinese and Mongolian people are similar, which underlines the likelihood or possibility of fostering multicultural communication among them. For instance, symbols, color terms, and metaphors to various countries are diverse due to their distinctive ways of thinking, surroundings, beliefs and religion. However, they can also be similar. Subsequently, the most essential is to pass on the source cultural understanding reliably and viably and break the cultural barriers. In addition, Taylor, Simon Peter (2018) stated that the previous have confidence in that every understanding is socially constructed while the later deliberates understanding to be socially constructed however acknowledges that some things are not. The strong procedure of Social Constructionism considers that every understanding is socially constructed that could be criticized for disregarding natural phenomena. Social Constructivism does not decline the existence of a neutral world (Taylor, 2018, pp. 216-222).

Theoretical Framework

Every one of the accomplishments from the study would advance a human view of colors towards forging greater understanding of the interactions between color, language and culture. Ancient researchers, such as Plato and Aristotle, are viewed as the founders of color knowledge from the philosophical point of view. Aristotle's hypothesis of color is identified with the fundamental components of the natural world, such as water, air, earth, and fire. Additionally, he proposed that all colors began from *white* and *black* in softness and obscurity individually. In 1969, Brent Berlin and Paul Kay created *Basic Color Terms: Their Universality and Evolution.* They suspected that "this allegation of total arbitrariness in the way languages segment the color space is a gross overstatement" (Berlin, B. and Kay, P., 1969).

Colors make our reality beautiful and breathtaking. Investigations of the color terms go back almost 2,500 years. There have been comparative studies on the color terms in English, Chinese and Mongolian, but they were limited within one or two color terms. More top-down studies of the date will outline a more orderly appropriation. According to Douglas Brown (1980) "a language is a part of culture and culture is a part of language, the two are intricately interwoven so that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture" (Brown, 1980).

Language is an essential image of the way of life. In the meantime, language is affected by culture. From a wide sense, language conduct is raised by culture. In other words, the methods for language that we use are connected with our social experience. In addition, language is sequences of rules for their use in connection to each other. We discover it when we acquire another language. Language usually conveys references and meanings away from itself. The meanings of a specific language speak to the way of life of a specific social crowd. To connect with a language intends to do as such with the culture, which is its mention point. Also, culture and language have a compound relationship. Language and culture have developed together, impacting each other all the while. In addition, A.L. Krober (1963) mentioned, "culture, then, began when speech was present, and from then on, the enrichment of either means the further development of the other" (Krobe, 1963).

In the early twentieth-century linguistic relativity Benjamin Lee Whorf endorsed what is known as Whorfianism theory, which is named after him. Whorfianism theory is the understanding

that the linguistic functions of someone's local language have an effect on the way that he or she thinks. The theory has had a changeable history. That was a concept that has obtained large popular interest, primary to the extensive perception that there was as many extraordinary worldviews as there are languages. Interestingly, I found two invaluable books, *The Language Hoax: Why the World Looks the Same in Any Language* (2014), by John H. McWhorter and *Through the Language Glass: Why the World Looks Different in Different Languages* (2010), by Guy Deutscher. As we see from the titles of the two books, these present opposite sides. However, as Ernest Davis mentioned that their purpose was to stand opposite to the Whorfianism. Mostly, John McWhorter tried to define "manifesto" in opposition to the Whorfianism. McWhorter's book is extra narrowly targeted at Whorfianism; there may be plenty less extraneous data. McWhorter's purpose was to show that the 'idea that languages as pairs of glasses does not hold water in the way that we may, understandably, wish it did' (McWhorter, 2014). Whereas, Deutscher's book was really greater an academic history than a presentation of modern science; definitely in phrases of space, if no longer of emphasis. The primary half of Deutscher's book has to do with the history of the color words across languages. He did a brilliant process of laying it out clearly. Another half in Deutscher deliberated the comparative complexity of language. He privileged that the whole languages are similarly compound.

Culture enjoys to coverup as human nature. The finding that other cultures had different ideas about what constitutes true civilization, typically provokes a sort of fundamentalistic response of cultural superiority and naturally this response is expressed in words, which often contain within themselves the very superiority being argued. This is an important book, more importantly, it lifts the veil of language just enough to see its creative mechanism at work. No language provides a neutral, objective description of the world. All languages come with historical background which directs attention and prejudices conversation as much as it allows communication and cooperation. It probably takes as much effort to recognize this as it does to learn a language in the first place. The fact is that "language is a cultural convention that doesn't masquerade as anything but a cultural convention." Deutscher calls it a 'lens.' It often does take social sciences, actually science in general, one or two generations to catch up with good philosophy.

As McWhorter puts it: 'Worldwide, chance is the only real pattern evident in the link between languages and what their speakers are like'. It is important to note that a number of researchers understand color in the following ways, for example: Wierzbicka (1990: 99) viewed that color ideas were created to certain characteristics of human experiences. Also, Zhang (2007) stated that color played an important part in human communication. Likewise, another researcher Wang (2007) mentioned that every country had its own color terms and culture was related to color. The relationship between culture and language puts a great influence on cores of color terms. Moreover, Rasekh and Ghafel (2011: 213) mention:

> *Color is a kind of natural phenomenon. Color terms play an important role describing things, expressing words' meanings and strengthening languages' influence, and are also rich in cultural associations. That is to say, they can be used either literally to refer to different colors or metaphorically to convey their associative meanings. Colors in different languages and cultures may convey different associative meanings* (Rasekh, A. E. and Ghafel, B., 2011, pp. 211-224).

With the advancement of present day study of colors, an ever-increasing number of individuals believe that comparative study is a "multicultural communication". Along these lines the field of studies has changed to cultural and multicultural studies. From the above, we can see that if language influences the way we communicate and is intimately associated with subculture, there can be a close courting among the thoughts and tradition via language. Looking at a few historical languages, we discover that the more sophisticated the language is, the greater evolved the civilization, and perhaps the opposite is also true. Language is one part of culture, so that to

explore the similarities and differences between the different languages could be reasonable if the researcher knows both or three culture well. There are six basic color terms in the three languages such as English, Chinese and Mongolian but the number of color terms are more than 3,000 in English, and more than 2,000 in Chinese and more than 2500 expressions in Mongolian language.

Color Terms

In 1969, Brent Berlin and Paul Kay created *Basic Color Terms: Their Universality and Evolution.* Berlin and Kay researched the color terms of 98 languages and made the pecking order of the advancement of the 11 essential color terms of all languages, as appeared in Figure 1:
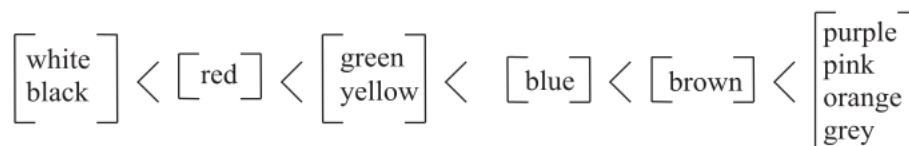
$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{white} \\ \text{black} \end{bmatrix} < \begin{bmatrix} \text{red} \end{bmatrix} < \begin{bmatrix} \text{green} \\ \text{yellow} \end{bmatrix} < \begin{bmatrix} \text{blue} \end{bmatrix} < \begin{bmatrix} \text{brown} \end{bmatrix} < \begin{bmatrix} \text{purple} \\ \text{pink} \\ \text{orange} \\ \text{grey} \end{bmatrix}$$

Figure 1. Order of basic color terms

In Figure 1, Berlin and Kay (1969: 4) show that any language incorporates no less than two color terms, ***white*** and ***black***. When a language has three color terms, then the 3rd should be ***red***. In a specific order, when a language has four color terms, the 4th color will be ***green*** or ***yellow***, yet not both of the two, as appeared in the figure above. At that point, if there are 5 terms in a language, it incorporates both ***green*** and ***yellow***. Thus, the 6th color term is ***blue*** in a language, which has 6 color terms, and the 7th one is ***brown*** in a 7 color terms. At that point, the 8th stage shows a language containing an expression for ***orange***, ***pink***, ***gray***, ***purple*** or some mix of colors. The essential conclusion of their work is stated with their own words: "First, there exist universally for humans eleven basic perpetual color categories, which serve as the psychophysical referents of the eleven or fewer basic color terms in any language. Second, in the history of a given language, encoding of perceptual categories into basic color terms follows a fixed partial order" (Berlin, B. and Kay, P., 1969, p. 4). Berlin and Kay's hypothesis has affected cross-disciplinary exploration. From that point forward, numerous researchers have examined color terms from alternate points of view.

For Gill Philip (2003:238), "Colors have symbolic meanings, but color words, being mere words, can only express those and other meanings in collocation with other words." Also, he mentioned about black and white: "As black is the color of darkness and white the color of light, they have been symbolically related to evil and good respectively, through further symbolism which dictates that goodness is pure and inspired by divine light, whereas its opposite, evil, is impure and has an affinity with the dark" (Phillip, 2003, p. 238).

From the above discussions, the color terms, white, black, red, green, yellow, blue, purple, pink, brown, gray and orange are the eleven basic colors in English. Following this schema from Berlin and Kay, color terms in Mandarin Chinese would correspond in this manner: 'red' *hóng*, 'yellow' *huáng*, 'green' *lu*, 'blue' *lán*, 'black' *hēi* , 'white' *bái* , 'purple' *zǐ* , 'pink' *fěn*, and 'gray' *huī*. Similarly, 'black' *khar*, 'white' *tsagaan*, 'red' *ulaan*, 'blue' *tsenkher*, 'green' *nogoon* and 'yellow' *shar* are the basic colors in Mongolia. However, a Mongolian linguist Nansalmaa (2015: 59) did a research on color naming and concluded that Berlin and Kay's (1969) study on 11 colors in English did not match with Mongolian color terms in some degrees. The English word *blue* has two different meanings in Mongolian *khukh* (dark blue) and *tsenkher* (light blue). Moreover, this study includes some examples of *khukh* (dark blue) and *tsenkher* (light blue) color terms in Mongolian. Therefore, Berlin and Kay's schema is different in Mongolian *blue* color.

The Mandarin Chinese language has more basic color terms than the English language and the Mongolian language, such as white, black, red, green, yellow, blue, purple, brown and gray. Truthfully, Chinese is rich and colorful language. Here, I have to mention here Deng Yanchang and Liu Runqing (1999), who were the earliest researchers have made a clear and systematic analysis on the color terms. Deng and Liu did a specific comparison on the implications of Chinese

and English color terms. Moreover, they compared the functions of them. However, the three languages share black, white, red, blue, green and yellow colors.

Analysis of Cultural Implications of Black Color terms in English, Chinese and Mongolian

As I have mentioned earlier, the color terms play a significant role in the multicultural communication of the contemporary world and also because the implication of the color in three cultures regularly has dissimilar features, some implications even make the color turn into color taboo. As mentioned before, in the three languages, expressions and words of different colors are plentiful.   Colors represent various meaning to people of various countries and cultures. The differences of color terms vary from culture to culture. The reason for having the same terms can be related to the similar image and physical feelings support on the general physiological system of humans. We have completely different histories, cultures, religions, experience, backgrounds and lifestyles. There exist some different color terms in English, Chinese and Mongolian. All of these differences head to form different terms of the six basic colors in these completely diverse languages. Even though English, Chinese and Mongolian belong to very different language families representing totally different sedentary and nomadic cultures, they share some terms for particular color.   Different implications of colors play an essential role in the multicultural communication, nowadays. Nations and peoples in the entire world are widespread and thoughtful. The implication of the colors is not only a significant implement for multicultural communication, but also an essential cultural factor of the bridge between the cultural content and usage. If people from different culture do not appreciate other culture's implications of colors, it is tough to perform good and precise communication.

There exist experiential bases of color terms. There are a few common kinds of similarities such as correlations in experience, perceived structural similarity, introduced by basic terms and source being the root of the target. These three languages share numerous universal terms of six basic colors. A comparative study of color terms is useful to overcome misunderstanding and recognize cross-cultural communication in English, Chinese and Mongolian. This study includes numerous similar black color terms and a few different black color terms in English, Chinese and Mongolian. I will handle ***black*** color terms at this time.

The Implication of Black in English, Chinese and Mongolian

Different cultures share basic values, but in different ways. The values vary from culture to culture. As mentioned earlier, English, Chinese and Mongolian have completely different histories, cultures, religions, experience, backgrounds and lifestyles, even though there exist the same color conceptual metaphors in these languages. This study shows that English and Mongolian share same implication of ***black*** color.

Similarities of the black color terms in English, Chinese and Mongolian

Black is related to the official things such as cars, dress code and documents. ***Black*** means to threaten or spread fear, for example, in English, the ***black*** *banner*, which was the pirate flag, designed to intimidate, threaten or spread fear. However, in Mongolian, the *Dörvön khölt* ***khar*** *tug* (four-base black flags) was used in the period of war during the *Genghis Khan* Empire. *Dörvön khölt* ***khar*** *tug* was designed to threaten and intimidate the other sides. ***Black*** is converged with darkness and evil spirit, and it is used to outline some person or something disallowed in English, Chinese and Mongolian. Across the three cultures, the ***black*** color represents the symbol of bad and evil. There is some cultural universality in English, Chinese and Mongolian. ***Black*** is used to symbolize non-standard. Some terms are based on the influence of the Western culture and

this is an example of American influence. ***Black*** is connected with various awful deeds and terrible personality. In three languages, ***black*** is related to bad mind and behavior. In reality, our heart does not turn into ***black,*** but in three languages ***black*** *spot* is related to disgrace.

1) **Illegal is black.** The ***black*** term is converged with obscurity and devil, and is used to outline some person or something *forbidden* in English, Chinese and Mongolian. In English, "***black*** market" is an illegal traffic or trade in officially controlled or scarce commodities and "***black*** money" is an income illegally obtained or not declare for tax purposes.[1] Example in Chinese, "黑社会" means an unlawful social organization always taking part in some illegal activities, "黑店" refers to an inn run by brigands, "黑车" is compared to the taxi without a driving license and taxes paid, "黑人黑户" refers to residents who have no permanent residency permit.[2] In Mongolian, actually drug or narcotic is ***white*** itself. Narcotic is related to ***black:*** "***khar*** *tamkhind dontokh*" - to become addicted to drugs or narcotics. Also, there are exactly the same expressions which refer to residents who have no permanent residency permits, in Chinese and Mongolian. For example, in Mongolian *ted solongos yvaad* ***khar****lasan*, in both languages it means to live illegally in a foreign country. Therefore, 'Illegal' is understood in terms of ***black*** in three languages.

2) **Bad/harmful is black.** He (2011:162) mentioned, "In western culture, the ***black*** color is the sign of darkness. In the Bible, the ***black*** color stands for the devil, the pain and misfortune". The color ***black*** is mostly related to negative qualities. In English, *"**black** mark"* is a note or record of a person's misdemeanor or discreditable action and ***black****guard* means a scoundrel, an unprincipled contemptible person and an untrustworthy person. In addition, ***Black*** *lie* is about easy and unkind 'selfishness'. ***Black*** *lie* is very harmful for others and it means 'bad'. People use ***black*** *lie* in order to get themselves out of trouble or to gain something they wish. In Chinese, "黑 7 月" refers to the students' worried mood about their grades during the college entrance examination before the reform and opening up in China.[3] Also, in Taiwanese Mandarin such examples as 黑心 hēixīn [black-heart] which means being bad or behave badly.[4] In Mongolian, 'being bad' is also understood in terms of ***black*** as "***khar*** *sanaatai baikh*" which means having bad idea, "*mash* ***khar*** *sanaatai*" that means to bear bad intention' and "*gudamjni* ***khar*** *buleg*" which means a group of bad people in Mongolian. The expression means that ***black*** means 'bad/harmful' in the three languages.

3) **Non-standard is black.** ***Black*** *English* is used by a number of North American ***black*** *people,* who form some new vocabulary or terms, which differ from Standard English. In English, ***black*** *English* refers to the English spoken by North American Black people. ***Black*** means black-skinned people, who speak English in their own way. Their English sounds non-standard as "***Black English***". In Chinese, "黑车" is compared to the taxi without a driving license and taxes paid, in Chinese.[5] In Mongolian, as mentioned before, some Mongolian terms are based on an influence of Western culture and this is an example of an American influence. After the Democratic revolution, Mongolians started using Mongolian in their own way. In Mongolian ***black*** is used to symbolize 'non-standard' as "*gudamjnii* ***khar*** *yaria*" which means non-standard speaking. However, In English, Chinese and Mongolian 'non-standard' is understood in terms of ***black***.

4) **Unlucky is black.** In the three languages, ***black*** means unlucky affairs. In English, "a ***black***-letter day" refers to a day in the church calendar marked in black letters (as opposed to the red letters traditionally used to mark saints' days); (hence) an inauspicious day, and "be in a black mood," indicates one is down in his or her spirit. There are also phrases like "***black*** future" "***black*** sheep" and "***black*** Monday" which can express this meaning. In English, ***black*** *sheep* means *disliked person* or one who is disfavored. In

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[1] www.oxforddictionaries.com

[2] Liuxiuyan, *On the Cultural Connotations of English and Chinese Basic Color Terms,* 2011

[3] Liuxiuyan, 2011

[4] Huei-ling Lai, Siaw-Fong Chung, *Color Polysemy: Black and White in Taiwanese Languages*, Taiwan Journal of Linguistics, Vol. 16.1, 95-130, 2018

[5] Liuxiuyan, 2011

England, in ancient times the ***black*** *sheep* was understood in terms of 'evil'. In Chinese, there are also expressions such as "***black*** future" (暗淡的前途), "***black*** sheep" (败家子) and "***black*** Monday" (黑色星期一) that could mean same meaning.[1] In Mongolian, "***khar*** *udur*" (black day) is same as ***black*** *Monday* which means an unlucky day; disliked day', also "***khar*** *teneg tolgoit*" (black foolish-headed) means unlucky person. In the three cultures, ***black*** stands for negative 'unlucky' quality.

5) **Evil is black.** ***Black*** is seen as the conventional color of witchcraft and ***black*** *magic* in the cultures of Western countries, and it has been connected with 'evil'. In English, ***black*** *magic* is associated with the devil or with evil spirits; hidden or secret magic. "In Western Esotericism's shared belief that magic was real and defining it as evil and using such labels as sorcery, witchcraft, and ***black*** *magic*.[2] ***Black*** *magic* as practiced in medieval times may be defined as the use of the supernatural knowledge of magic for evil purposes; the invocation of diabolic and infernal powers to blind them as slaves and emissaries to man's will; in short, a perversion of legitimate mystical science" (Melton, 2001: 200).

There are many terms English, Chinese and Mongolian which reflect the relationship between the color ***black*** and the meanings such as "not good", "bad", "evil", etc. In Chinese, "黑白颠倒 which refers to those who treated something good as bad, wrong as right, "背黑锅 which means be unjustly treated. In Mongolian, there are a few similar terms ***khar*** *dom khiij khun, amitan ailgaad* which means black quackery, and ***khar*** *id shid, dom togloom bish* which means ***black*** magic is not a game. ***Black*** is understood in terms of 'evil' in three languages. ***Black*** is seen as the traditional color of quackery in the three cultures.

In addition, ***black*** is also the color of grief mutually in the eastern countries and western countries. As we know, citizens in English-speaking country, also in Mongolia, dress in ***black*** on the occasion like funeral, and Chinese people used to wear ***black*** yarn to convey their condolence and sadness as well. In the three languages, ***black*** is mostly linked with negative senses, which derive from metaphors such as 'illegal', 'bad/harmful', 'non-standard', 'disfavored', and 'evil'.

Differences of the black color terms in English, Chinese and Mongolian

However, there are a few different ***black*** color terms in English, Chinese and Mongolian. In English, 'Angry' is understood in terms of ***black*** as in the following examples, ***Black*** *words* which means unlucky or not good words, which can make others 'angry'. ***Black*** *look* means an expression of anger, hatred, or utter contempt. On the other hand, Mongolian understands 'fast' in terms of ***black*** but there is no counterpart in English and Chinese. For example, ***khar*** *khurdaaraa guin ireed* (black in fast run) which means someone runs very fast'. In addition, the history of the Mongolian people begins through *Genghis Khan*, who was the great founder of the world's biggest empire. *The Secret History of Mongols* has been the oldest existing legendary work. After the *Genghis Khan*'s death in AD 1227, it was written by an unknown writer for the Mongol royal family. At that time, ***tsagaan*** *yast* (white boned) terminology referred to the noble in *the Secret History of Mongols* of *Genghis Khan*. In this script, ***tsagaan*** *yast* means golden kinship of *Genghis Khan* (royal blood), but ***khar*** *yast* (black boned) a servant or a slave. The lower class does not exist in English in terms of ***black***. The lower class is understood in terms of ***black*** in Mongolian as in the following example, *Baliar* ***khar*** *guilgachin be* (what a black beggar) which means lower social class, but nowadays people use this word as slang, and *kharts khun* ***khar*** *yastai* (servant has black bone) which means poor people; maidservant of *Genghis Khan*. In Mongolian ***black*** is also associated with 'dungeon/prison'. ***Khar*** *ger* (black ger) itself is not ***black***. It is ***white***. From the ancient time ***khar*** *ger* (black ger) is understood in terms of a prison, a dungeon or a jail. ***Black*** assimilates negative vitality and it implies the unfamiliar ending. It is cryptic, keeping a great deal covered inside, unwilling to demonstrate its genuine sentiments. Also, in Chinese ***black*** symbolize determination, seriousness, and honesty. [3]

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[1] Liuxiuyan, 2011
[2] http://www.merriam-webster.com; Include date of access
[3] Liuxiuyan, 2011

Discussion

English, Chinese and Mongolian are three completely different languages. English belongs to an Indo-European language family; Chinese belongs to the Sino-Tibetan *language* family, whereas Mongolia belongs to the Altaic language family. Different cultures share basic values, but in different ways. The values vary from culture to culture. This study shows that English, Chinese and Mongolian share same *black* color terms. Thus, I hypothesize that there might be some universal expressions in English, Chinese and Mongolian, because universal human experience produces universal primary terms across cultures at the specific level. Scholars claim that a specific term is based on the way the human body and brain function. There are few reasons of different implications of English, Chinese and Mongolian black color terms. As mentioned earlier, English, Chinese and Mongolian have completely different histories, cultures, religions, experience, backgrounds and lifestyles, even though there exist the same black color terms in these three languages.

Cognitive way of thinking

The reason for having the same expressions associated with certain color terms can be related to the similar image and physical feelings support on the general physiological system of humans. The meanings assigned to color terms vary from culture to culture. Cognitive linguists argue that people experience universal terms across cultures, because the universal body of human is the source of similar experiences and these include experiences of color. In scientific terms, we cannot understand color terms directly, but through the linguistic expression we can know and understand and explain color terms by the way that they are used to describe phenomena in the world. Cognitive linguists also argue that some special expression is based on the human thought and action. People of various cultures could use similar term because people see similarly, think similarly and experience similarly. Similarly, a Mongolian researcher Dorjdagva (2010: 107) points out that the cultural universality is not dependent on the social structure, experience, historical background, geographical locations and lifestyle of any culture, but it has numerous universal characteristics.[1]

In English, 'angry' is understood in terms of *black* as *black a word which means* unlucky or not good words, which can make others 'angry'. *Black look* means an expression of anger, hatred, or utter contempt. In English, *green* is connected with jealousy. It is sticking to the similar common idea like *green with envy*, which means so jealous. On the other hand, in Chinese *green* is related to youth which means strength and energy some examples are described like "in the green wood" (在风华正茂的年代); "in the green" (血气方刚); "a green old age" (老当益壮); "the green years" (青春).[2] Also, Mongolian understands 'fast' in terms of *black* but there is no counterpart in English and Chinese. For example, *khar khurdaaraa guin ireed* (black in fast run) which means someone runs very fast'.

Color Terms in History

As mentioned earlier, English and Mongolian have completely different history, of course. Every element of culture, history, and society influences a language. Every culture builds up national elements, generalizations, and images. In Mongolian *black* is also associated with 'dungeon/prison'. *Khar ger* (black ger) itself is not *black*. It is *white*. From the ancient time *khar ger* (black ger) is understood in terms of a prison, a dungeon or a jail. *Black* assimilates negative vitality and it implies the unfamiliar ending. It is cryptic, keeping a great deal covered

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[1] Dorjdagva, T. *Soyol sudlal.* Ulaanbaatar: National University of Mongolia Press, 2010; 107
[2] Liuxiuyan, 2011

inside, unwilling to demonstrate its genuine sentiments. In old times Chinese, the people who were in the woods and helped the poor by robbing the rich were named as "绿林好汉".

Color Terms in Religion

In the Bible, ***black*** is the emblem of evil. The hell in Christianity is lightless, and it is regarded as a place for the people who did evil deeds to go after their death. The betrayer Judah has a ***black*** aureole above his head. When tempted by the demons, Jesus often appears in the black. ***White*** is a holy color in Christianity, and it symbolizes truth and virtue. Jesus and his angels are dressed in ***white***.

Color Terms in Social Status

The lower class does not exist in English in terms of ***black***. The lower class is understood in terms of ***black*** in Mongolian as in the following example, *Baliar **khar** guilgachin be* (what a black beggar) which means lower social class, but nowadays people use this word as slang, and *kharts khun **khar** yastai* (servant has black bone) which means poor people; maidservant of *Genghis Khan*.

Conclusion

In conclusion, in the English, Chinese and Mongolian languages, we could find more similar examples of black color terms due to the universal cognitive capabilities, cognitive processes, religion, culture, and way of thinking and experience. Moreover, Huang (2011: 99) mentioned that language had a crucial role and it was an inseparable part of culture. Culture and language reflect each other. People can understand different terms and idioms without knowing a specific cultural background. There are many studies about color terms and a number of researchers dealt with various perspectives. Here in this article, I compared black color terms using method of correlation and literal translation in English, Chinese and Mongolian and tried to analyze them. The main purpose of this study is to analyze black color terms by showing evidence from Mongolian in comparison with English and Chinese. Moreover, it should be noticed that this study mainly focuses on the language use and its association with the given cultures. I have found that there are more similarities than differences between the expressions in English, Chinese and Mongolian. Even though English, Chinese and Mongolian belong to very different language families representing totally different sedentary and nomadic cultures, they share some terms for particular colors with each other. I can draw the following conclusions, from what has been analyzed above.

To start with, there exist similarities of English, Chinese and Mongolian ***black*** color terms. From what has been demonstrated above, we can get the point that there really exist great similarities and differences of English, Chinese and Mongolian black color terms. Consequently, understanding and learning the cultural implications of the color terms actually have excessive importance in encouraging the multicultural exchanges. Color is thoroughly associate with our life and has no general boundaries. Acquiring and understanding the cultural implications of the multicultural terms is extremely beneficial to scholars and students. Recent survey is anecdotal evidence. Anecdotal evidence is a limited range of instances that support or disprove an argument however, which are not reinforced by statistical analysis or scientific data.[1] Therefore, anecdotal evidence has often been criticized as unscientific and anthropomorphism, primary to misunderstanding of the clarifications (Heyes, 1993, pp. 177-188). Nevertheless, the usage of cautiously particular clarifications and anecdotes could overwhelm certain issues. Bates & Byrne (2007) claim that cautiously composed anecdotes could make an appreciated basis of data – "the

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[1] www.merriam-webster.com

plural of anecdote can be data" (Bates, L.A. & Byrne, R.W. , 2007, pp. 12-21). I propose that trustworthy anecdotal evidence could be enough to spread on the defensive value. Rollin (1997) claims that the use of anecdotal evidence is suitable as long as there may be a possible link from the story to the inference made, supported via common experience and history understanding (Rollin, 1997, pp. 125-133).

In addition, the aim of this paper is to help foreign scholars and learners understand the similarities and differences of English, Chinese and Mongolian and to provide some helps during their research work. However, it was problematic to define each black color term in details, therefore, the analyses of this paper are critically incomplete. This paper was initial comparative study on the cultural implications of English, Chinese and Mongolian black color terms by analyzing the similarities and differences of them, as well as the reasons, which caused these similarities and differences, and each one contains specific examples. Since there must exist some limitations, I hope some further research could be performed later, such as adding more cultural implications of each black color term, similar and different, and researching more reasons that had caused these differences.

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EXEPTIONAL CASE MARKING IN ALTAIC LANGUAGES

Dashdavaa Vanchinsuren[1]
Altanchimeg Tsogbadrakh[2]

Abstract: *The purpose of this research is to show the (in)compatibility of the Mongolian Language with theories and conditions of UG in that I investigate Exceptional case marked construction and its peculiarities in Mongolian in comparison with Japanese, Turkish and Uyghur within the following questions. - Is the Genitive assigned by the head noun from the outside of the relative clause? - What is the syntactic category of this kind of relative clause? - Is it possible that relative clause with exceptional case-marked subject is nominalized?*

Keywords: *universal grammar; exceptional case marked subject; relative clause; genitive subject construction; Altaic languages*

Introduction

Some Altaic languages such as Japanese, Turkish, Mongolian, and Korean allow a genitive subject in certain environment. There are various theoretical issues with relative clauses with genitive case marked subject as shown figure 1.
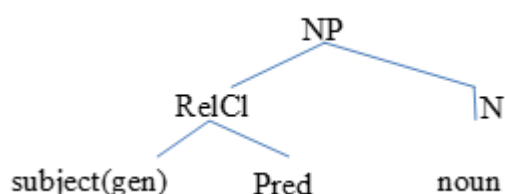

Figure 1.

Apart from Japanese and Turkish and Uyghur, Mongolian is one of the languages with genitive case marked subject in embedded clauses even though there is not enough research within the scope of the Universal Grammar. In Mongolian, genitive subject appears in the relative clause's expressions illustrated in (2) and (3).

Complex NP:
2. [Min – ii unshsan] nom chuhal
    [I - gen read – pst] book important is
     'The book I read is important.'
    Verb Complement:
3. Bi [Bayar – iin yavsn] /iig medsengui
    I – nom [Bayar – gen leave] – nominalizer, acc know – NEG – pst.Prog
    ' I didn't know that Bayar left'.
     The relative clause 3 has the structure below.

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[1] *PhD, Foreign Language Center, School of Arts and Sciences, National University of Mongolia*
[2] *MA, Foreign Language Center, School of Arts and Sciences, National University of Mongolia*
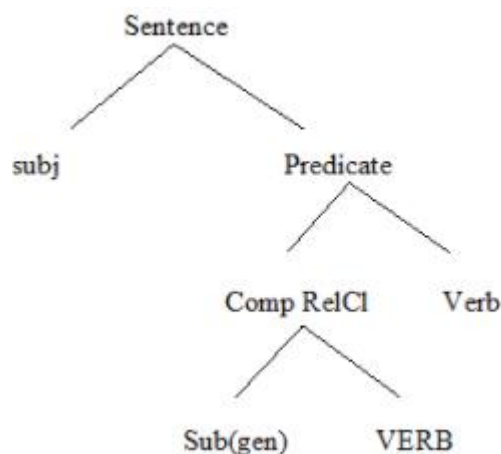
Figure 2.   Relative clause structure in (2) & (3).

As shown in (3), the subject of the relative clause is licensed by genitive marker and the relative clause is necessarily embedded inside NP. In (4), the relative clause with genitive subject functions as a complement of verb.

Previous research: Altaic languages like Japanese, Turkish, Uyghur and Korean allow genitive subject in certain environments. See Bedell (1972), Harada (1971), and Kornfilt (1984). The following is a Mongolian example.

4.   [Min-ii unshsan] nom chuhal
      [I-gen read-pst] book – important is
      'The book I read is important'.

Two types of licensing have been proposed for genitive subjects in Turkish and Japanese:
          - D-licensing: Genitive is licensed by a clause-external D head.
          - C-licensing: Genitive is licensed by a clause-internal C head

Let's first consider the D- licensing Hypothesis:

The genitive on the subject is licensed by the D associated with the nominal head. (cf. Miyagawa (1993)
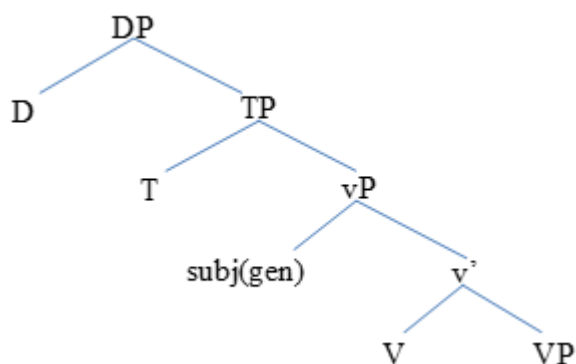

Figure 3. Determiner with nominal head.

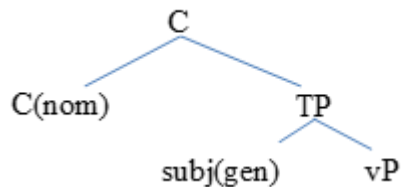Next let us consider the C-licensing Hypothesis

Figure 4.

The genitive is licensed by the subjunctive morphology of the V-C complex (Hiraiwa 2000), or the WH-agreement on COMP (Watanabe 1996) within the clause that contains the genitive subject.   We argue that genitive subject can occur even if there is no nominal head in Mongolian.

6.   a. Comparative:

        Bi [Dulma – giin unshsan – aas] olon nomiig unshsan.
        [Dulma – gen read than] many book-acc I read.
      'I read more books than Dulma did'.
    b. Adverbial;
        [Bold – iin yavsan – ii daraa] bi nom unshsan.
        [Bold – gen go-san COMP – gen after] I book read-pst.
      'I read a book after Bold went.'

This is one of the crucial evidence against D-licensing, leading us to adopt the C-licensing approach. In the next section, we will show the process of genitive case assignment within the embedded clause in Mongolian based on feature transmission adopting   Hiraiwa's proposal.

Genitive Subject Constructions in Other Languages

Genitive Subject Constructions in Japanese

Ga/No Conversion in Japanese has been the subject of a great deal of researches. See Harada (1971) Bedell (1972), Watanabe (1996) Hiraiwa (2000) Miyagawa(2008), and others)
      In a main clause, *ga* and *no* aren't interchangeable.

7.   a. John ga hon o kata
        Sub-nom book-acc bought
        'John bought a book'
    b. John no hon o kata
        Sub-gen book-acc bought
8.   a. John no hon
        John's book
    b. *John ga hon
        In contrast to 7b and 8b, *ga/no* conversion is possible in 9 below, which is a relative clause.
9.   a. [John ga kata] hon
        'a book that John bought'
    b. [John no kata]hon
        'a book that John bought'

The sentence in 9 shows that *no* can optionally replace *ga* in a relative clause not in main clause. Miyagawa (2008) introduces D-licensing analysis, that the genitive subject must occur with a head noun which has D in order to be licensed. Figure 10 shows nominative and genitive structures in the D- licensing approach of   Miyagawa (2008).
10.

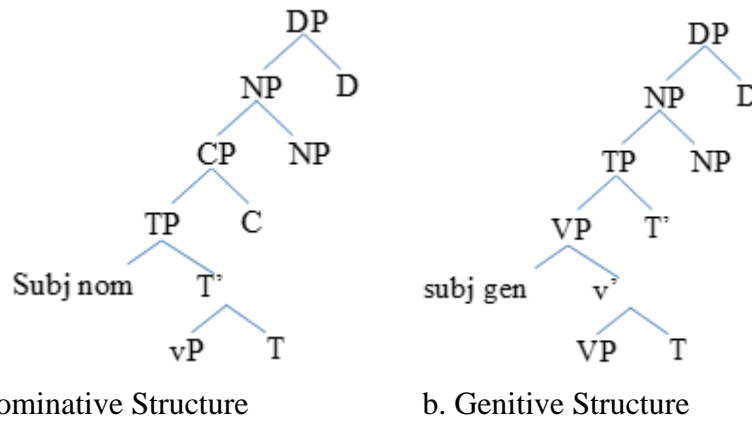a. Nominative Structure   b. Genitive Structure

Figure 5.

C-Licensing analysis proposed by Hiraiwa (2000) assigns the same structure which contains a CP, to both the nominative and genitive structures. He claims that genitive subject is licensed through the C and T when C carries the feature [+N].

The above mentioned structure in10 shows nominative/genitive structure in the C-licensing hypothesis (Hiraiwa 2000). In sum, there are two claims for Nominative and Genitive Structures, namely, D-licensing or C-licensing.
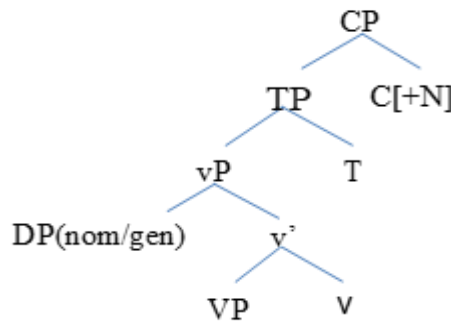
11.

Figure 6.

Genitive subject construction in Turkish

12. Ben [Ali – nin cam – ikir – dig – i zaman] – I biliyor-du-m.
    I-nom [Ali – gen glass – acc break – ASP – AGR(N) -acc know – prog – pst - 1sg
    'I knew when Ali broke the glasses'.
13. Ben [Ali – nom cam – i kir – dig – i zaman] gerceg – i
    I-nom [Ali – nom glass – acc break – ASP – AGR(N)truth acc know – prog/pst - 1sg
    'I knew the truth when Ali broke the glasses. cf. Kornfilt (1984)[12]

The sentence in 12 and 13 show us nominative- genitive alternation is not optional in Turkish in that nominative isn't allowed in 12, genitive is not allowed in 13 where subordinate clause is an adjunct. Now let's compare the genitive subject construction (GSC) in Japanese with GSC in Turkish. If we look closely at the inflection of the example sentences like 7,9 12 and13 the following facts will be observed; In Japanese the genitive subject relative clause is not associated with tense, but instead, what we find is aspect. But in Turkish when the subject is nominative as shown in 13, the relative clause is a full CP. A relative clause consists of a full CP is an adjunct, hence it does allow D-licensing from outside, so that the case marking on the subject when there is full CP which is limited to the Nominative assigned by within the RC(Relative clause).

Genitive subject construction in Uyghur

Contrary to the languages mentioned above, the morphological agreement with the genitive subject in Uyghur appears either on head noun of the embedded clause (123a) or on the verbal complex (121b) optionally with an overt COMP head-LIQ.   (cf. Asarina and Hartman 2011)[13]
Uyghur:
14.   a. [men – in ket - ken – (liq)] heqiqet – im muhim.
       I – gen leave - (RAN - (LIQ) fact -1sg.POSS important
      'The fact that I left is important'
    b.   Otkur [Ajgul – nung   ket ken – lik] -o N – n – ni di - d – i .
         Otkur [Ajgur – gen   Leave RAN-(LIQ)] -3.Poss – acc say PST-3
        'Otkur said that Ajgul left'. Asarina and Hartman (2011)

14a shows that agreement with the genitive subject appears on the head noun, which is a property of D-licensing. 14b, on the other hand, shows that the agreement appears on COMP, which is property of C-licensing. Azarina and Hartman (2011) claim that the Uyghur genitive subject is uniformly licensed by D regardless of the placement of agreement either on a head noun 14a or a verbal complex 14b.They assume the existence of a phonologically null N with D as a head noun when one does not explicitly appear, as shown in 15.
15. Otgur   [Ajgul – nung ket – ket – (liq)] – o N- i   - ni di d-i.
    Otgur Ajgu l – gen   leave – RAN - (LIQ)   -3.POSS – acc   say –Pst-3
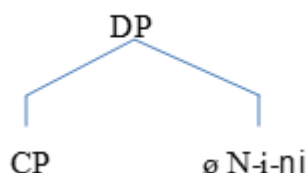   'Otgur said that Ajgul left'.

Figure 7.

As illustrated in 16 Azarina and Hartman (2011) propose that the genitive structure contains CP.
16.   Otkur   [Ajgul — nung   ket ken – lik] øN-3.POSS/acc
      Ajgur-gen leave RAN-(LIQ)
 In sum, Azarina and Hartman(2011) claim that the Uyhgur genitive subject appears in CP with an external D which integrates properties of C-and D-licensing hypotheses.

Genitive subject construction in Mongolian

The aim of this section is to analyse the nature of non-nominative subject like Genitive Subject of the embedded clauses   in Mongolian. In this section we will focus on the question of how the genitive case marker is assigned in these constructions in Mongolian. Hale (2002) claims that relative clause in Dagur[15] has an AspP (= Aspectual Phrase), which is commonly found in prenominal modification.   He argues that AspP is smaller in the structure than CP and it allows nominal head to get the genitive case inside AspP. The proposal is based on the possessive agreement between D and the embedded subject as shown in 17.
Relative Clauses-agreement on noun:
17.   a. [Min– ii av – san] mori min* sain.
        [I – gen buy – pst] horse – 1.s gen good
       'The horse that I bought is good'. (Hale, 2002:109)
    b. [Bold / iin/ iig nom unshsan-iig] bi har – san
       [Bold/ gen / acc book read-acc   ] I see - pst
        'I saw that Bold read a book'.

Hale's another reason for positing Aspect instead of a full CP is that verb does not have any agreement morphology. According to Hale, agreement would not occur on the verbal inflection because there is no C to host the agreement to begin with. Also he argues that AspP in Dagur allows phi-feature on D (=min) to enter into agreement with the subject in the relative clause as shown in 18.
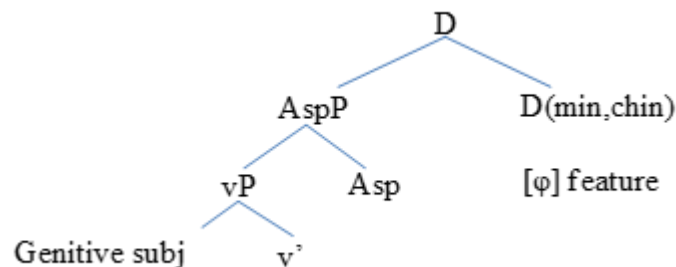
18.

Figure 8.

Against Hale's proposal, we will propose that 1) embedded clause with genitive case marked subject is CP, 2) it is the nominalized form of COMP that assigns the genitive case marker on the subject and 3) this COMP also enters into agreement with the subject. Our arguments are based on the following facts.

First, in standard Mongolian there is no possessive agreement between head noun and embedded subject with genitive case marker. Thus, the sentence 17 is ungrammatical in standard Mongolian. Second, embedded verb carries agreement. The agreement is morphologically realized on the verb as shown in 18. In 18a the subject *Dulma* of relative clause is singular and the verb inflection carries agreement (phi-feature). In contrast, 18b the subject *oyutn-uud* (students) is plural and the verb has plural inflection, *-sgaa*.

   a. [Dulmaag – iin unsh – san] nom
      [Dulma – gen read – pst – 1sg] book
       'the book that Dulma read'.
   b. [Oyutnuud – iin unshitsgaa – san] nom – nuud
     [Student – PL – gen read – PL – pst   ] books
      'the books that students read'.

Third, Hale's D-licensing proposal for relative clauses with genitive case marked subject in Mongolian is too complex to account for subordinate clause with genitive case marked subject like 19, which has no head noun.

19. Bi [Dulmaa – giin zahidal bich – sen – iig] med – sen
   I [Dulmaa – gen letter write - pst/acc] know – pst
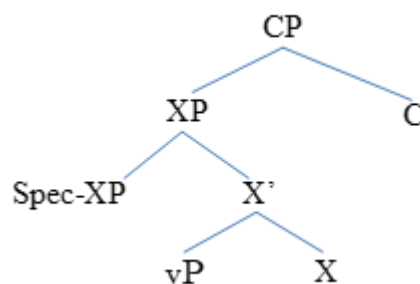 'I know that Dulma wrote a letter'.

Figure 9.

In this section we propose that in the Mongolian relative clause only CP occurs and the verb nominalized. We will also propose that the nominal agreement may occur and the subject is genitive case marked.

Optionality in Case marking in Relative clauses

According to Miyagawa (1989), in the Japanese relative clauses, the genitive subject is possible, but the nominative case may occur instead. However, in Mongolian only the genitive case is allowed. Relative Clause:

20. a. Japanese:
>   [Hanako – no/ga tukutta] tabemono
>   [Hanako – gen acc cooked] food
>   'the food that Hanako cooked'.

  b. Mongolian:
>   [Dulmaa – iin/* hii-sen] hool
>   **[** Dulmaa – gen/*nom cook – pst **]** food
>   'the food Dulma cooked'.

In Japanese genitive subject seems to be optional, so that nominative case can also occur instead. But in the Mongolian Relative clause there is no optionality; only the genitive case marking is possible.

Optionality of Case Marking in Complement Clauses

The case marking optionality within the complement clause is reverse of the optionality we observed above mentioned relative clauses. In Japanese complement clause only allows a nominative subject, but in Mongolian triple case alternation (Nominative, Accusative and Genitive) is possible.

21. Japanese:
>   [CP anata – ga /*no   uti-de tabemono – o tukuru to] kitta.
>   **[** you nom/*gen home-at food – acc cook COMP **]** heard.
>   '(I) heard that you will cook food at home'.
>   Mongolian:

22. a. [Dulma gertee hool hii–sen–iig] bi medsen
>   [Dulma – nom home – at food cook-COMP/acc] I know
>   'I know that Dulma cooked food at home'.

  b. [Dulma – iin gertee hool hii-sen-iig] bi medsen[17]
>   [Dulma – gen home – at food cook-COMP/acc] I know-pst
>   'I know that Dulma cooked food at home'.

  c. [Dulma - g gertee hool hii-sen-iig] bi medsen
>   [Dulma – acc   home-at food cook-COMP/acc] I know
>   'I know that Dulma cooked food at home'.

Except the difference on the subject case, the patterns of verbal predicate within the complement clause are identical as shown in 22.a.b.c.This evidence leads me to conclude that genitive case marked embedded subject is C-licensing in Mongolian. It is not identical to genitive subject construction in Japanese.

CP-Adverbs

Hale (2002) suggests that the Dagur (Mongolian) relative clause as AspP and explores the possibility that the genitive subject relative clause in Japanese is identical to Dagur (Mongolian) since it has the reduced AspP. Miyagawa (2008) claims that embedded clauses with nominative subjects are CPs, while embedded clauses with genitive subjects are reduced (TPs). To support this claim, Miyagawa (2008) argues that CP-level adverbs are consistent with nominative subject relative clauses, but not with genitive subject relative clause as illustrated in 23. CP- level adverb with nom subject (relative clause):

23. a. [Saiwai – ni Taroo-ga/*no yonda] hon
      [Fortunately Taro-nom/gen* read] book
      'The book that Taro fortunately read' cf. Miyagawa (2008)
CP-level adverb with-nom subject only (complement clause);
   b. John – wa [kinoo saiwainimo Mary –ga /?no   kita koto]-o shir-anai
      John – top [yesterday   fortunately Mary –nom/?gen came fact]-acc know –neg
      'John doesn't know (the fact) that Mary fortunately came yesterday.'

     We can diagnose the size of the embedded clause in Mongolian based on the Miyagawa's test. If Mongolian genitive subject embedded clauses are full CPs, then embedded clause in Mongolian should be unlike embedded clauses in Japanese and receive CP-level adverbs in these clauses.
CP- level adverb with genitive subject (Relative clause):
24. a. [uneheer Bayar – iin bich – sen] nom – iig uzuuleech
      [truly Bayar – gen write] book – acc show
      'Show (me) the book that Bayar truly wrote'.
   CP-level adverb with gen subject (complement clause):
   b. Uneheer chinii yavsan gedgiig medsengui
      Truly you-gen leave SAN ge-deg acc know-NEG
      'I did not know that you truly left'.
     In accordance with the above mentioned examples, we can conclude that relative clauses and complement clauses in Mongolian are not identical to the relative clauses in Japanese.

Transitivity restriction

     Next observation is related to the object of embedded clauses with genitive marked subject. As shown in example sentences 25.a.b.c accusative case marker is restricted on the objects of the embedded clauses with genitive marked subject. This kind of transitivity restriction has been researched by Harada (1971) and Hiraiwa (2000) among others.
25. Japanese:
    a. Kinoo John -ga hon wo kata mise yesterday John-nom book-acc buy-pst shop [nom-acc]
    b. *Kinoo John -no hon wo katta mise yesterday John-gen book-acc buy–pst/ADN shop [gen-acc] 'the shop where John bought books yesterday'.
    c. *Kinoo hon woi John no ti   katta mise [acc-gen]
       Yesterday book-acc John -gen buy-pst/ADN shop
       'The shop where John bought books yesterday'.
     As shown in 25b, accusative case restricted when the subject has genitive Case. 25c shows that sentence is still ungrammatical even though the accusative case is scrambled before the genitive subject. Similarly, in Mongolian accusative case is restricted when the subject has genitive case as shown in 26.
26. Bi/*Minii nom- iig unshsan udur
    I-nom /*I-gen book-acc read -san day
    'The day that I read a book'

Gerund and nominalization in English

     Mongolian and English have nominalized structures. English has verbal gerund phrases like *ING* and Mongolian has sentential nominalizers such as *SAN/DAG*. As shown in 27 English and Mongolian nominalized structure exhibit nominal distribution externally and verbal property internally.
27. a. Mary's painting of his father is delight to watch
      b. Bi Bold-iin shalgaltaa amjilttai ug-sun/gedeg/-iig medsen

I Bold-gen exam successfully pass –COMP/acc know

'I know that Bold passed his exam successfully'.

English Verbal Gerund: The four types of nominalized constructions in English below will be in the scope of this study as shown in 28.

28. - that -clause :   That John kissed   Mary surprised Bill

     - for-to clause :   For people to love children is common

     - to-infinitive :   To please John is easy

     - (verbal) gerund: I dislike Anna's painting.

In connection to nominalization in Mongolian, among these various types of nominalized construction in English, this section refers   only   to the verbal gerund construction which doesn't fully show the nominal properties, instead exhibit the properties of both the noun and verb categories as shown in 29.

29.   a. Tom ('s) getting arrested alarmed Anna.

     b. Anna saw Tom's getting arrested.

     c. Tom is concerned about Anna's getting arrested.

In 29 the verbal gerund phrase like noun phrase *Tom's getting arrested,* appears in argument position such as subject, object or prepositional object position. However, the English verbal gerund phrases internally exhibit the VP-like properties as shown in 30.They, like verb but unlike noun, are modified by adverbs.

30.   a. Anna disapproved of my *quiet/quietly leaving before anyone observed.

     b. Anna disapproved of my quite /* quietly departure.

     c. I quietly left before anyone noticed.

Next, English verbal gerund phrases are negated with particle not. But it can't negate a noun.

31.   This student's not having written a paper disturbed the others.

In conclusion, English verbal gerund phrases externally exhibit nominal distribution whereas internally have the verbal properties. Analysis of English Verbal Gerund: Malouf (1998) proposes the Mixed Category Approach (MCA) to define the mixed properties of English gerund phrases. According to MCA, the gerund belongs to a category that is shared by nominal and verbal categories as shown in 32.

32.
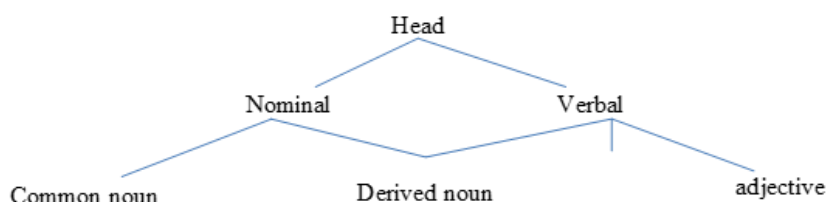
Figure 10.

In Mixed Category Approach, Malouf (1998) rejects the traditional view in which category is an absolute discrete unit. As shown in 32, nominal is divided into common nouns (CN) and derived nouns (DN)/gerund/. Verbal is divided into DN/gerund, Verb and other predicative categories. Since DN/gerund is divided by Nominal and Verbal, it inherits all constraints and feature structures from both Nominal and Verbal. For example, DN and gerund will be able to occur anywhere Nominal can occur and combine with nominative or accusative   case markers. Also DN and gerund (hereafter it is termed as Gerund) will have verb-like selectional properties.

In other word, it subcategorizes for subject and objects. Also MCA explains why adverbs, and not adjectives, modify the nominalized word in English. The properties in (151) are given as follows:

33.   a. Nominal: appears as complements of verbs and prepositions
        b. Verbal: assigns nominative, accusative or oblique case to its complements; modified by adverbs
        c. CN: modified by adjectives

Based on these definitions, the modification related properties can be explained as shown in 34.

34.   a. [HEAD adverb [MOD[HEAD   Verbal]]]]
       b. [HEAD adjective [MOD[HEAD CN]]]

  In 34, adverb is selected to modify members of verbal.

Subjunctive and Imperative Clauses in Mongolian

    In connection to Mood phrase in Mongolian, we illustrate that accusative case marked subject occurs in Subjunctive and Imperative clauses, whereas genitive case marked subject doesn't   as shown in (35a,b).
    Subjunctive embedded clause:

35.   a. Chamaig margaash gertee hool hiig-eesei gej bi husej bna
            You-acc tomorrow home-loc food cook-SM COMP I want-pst
            'I want for you to cook food at home tomorrow'.
       b. *Chinii margaash gertee hool hiig-eesei gej bi husej bna
              You-gen tomorrow home-loc food cook-SM COMP I want-pst
               Int: 'I want for you to cook food at home tomorrow'.
    Finite indicative clause with genitive case marked subject:

36.   [Chin-ii uchigdur gertee hool hiisen-/ge-deg/iig] bi sons-son.
       [You-gen yesterday home-loc food cook-COMP –acc] I hear-pst
       'I heard that you cooked   food at home yesterday'.

    These two types of embedded clauses exhibit some differences:
First, in 36 the embedded subject is on accusative case whereas in 36 the embedded subject on Genitive case.   Second, as shown in 36 nominal indicative is finite, and can be overtly marked past simple inflection *sen*. In contrast, subjunctive embedded clause in 37 is infinitive.

37.   [Chinii gertee hool hiine] gedeg-iig bi sonsson.
       [You-gen home-loc food cook-FUT] COMP/acc I hear-pst
       'I heard that you will cook food at home'.

    As the translation makes clear, the embedded clause in 37 is independent from the root clause with respect to tense (regardless embedded subject with genitive case). In other words, embedded clause has its own tense feature.   This contrasts with embedded subjunctive clauses, with respect to tense; these depend on the clause they are embedded under, as shown in 38:

38.   [Chamaig gertee hool hiig-eesei] gej bi husej bna
       [You-acc home-loc food cook-SM/com] I want-pst
       'I want for you to cook   food at home tomorrow'

    These examples have shown us that the clause in 38 with genitive marked subject has tense, and indicates verbal properties, in contrast to subjunctive clauses with accusative case marked subject that lack tense completely, and lack verb properties.

    Based on these evidences of [+N] (nominal)[+M](Modality)feature, alternative case marked subject of embedded clause can be divided into two main groups (A-TYPE and B-TYPE):

    A-TYPE [-N,+M] imperative and subjunctive embedded clauses are   infinitive and the embedded subject is only   on accusative case   like ECM in English.

    B-TYPE [+N, -M] embedded clause which is indicative mood in Mongolian is finite and the embedded subject is on triple case alternation (nom,acc and gen) due to discourse meaning of clauses.

Feature transmission in English and Mongolian

We will explain genitive case assignment on subject of embedded clauses in Mongolian based on the Feature transmission mechanism Chomsky (2008) in which head plays a significant role in the assignment of Case. More specifically, Chomsky argues that only phase heads COMP and v carries [ɸ] features inherently when entering into the lexical arrangements.

On this theory, T which is not a phase head and it lacks [ɸ]feature of its own and can become a probe for nominative Case checking by virtue of transmitting [ɸ] from N. Chomsky (2008) proposed it based on the observation that the presence of C is necessary for Nominative Case assignment.

Let's take the following ECM examples in English.

39.   a. We expect [him to come]
       b. I believe [him to be genius]

In these English sentences, the subject of the infinitival complement clauses exists on accusative case and nominative subject is not allowed in this position. This unavailability of nominative Case has been caused by the nature of T. In other words, in a tensed clausal complement, T is [ɸ] feature which is fully-valued and hence it is able to value nominative case, whereas in an infinitive clause, T is [ɸ] feature-defective and is unable to value Case. On the other hand, Chomsky claims that unavailability of nominative case is related to the absence of COMP. Also he argues that COMP is above T and it is able to assign Nominative case. Case assignment requires [ɸ] features on T, thus [ɸ]features on T originate from COMP. It means COMP transmits its [ɸ] feature to T. In (171), the matrix verb takes a TP complement without a COMP layer. Thus there is not any transmitted [ɸ] features to T. and T is unable to assign the case to the embedded subject. As a result of this, a probe V takes [ɸ] feature from v, and assigns accusative case to DP.

Based on this theory, let's take the following example:

40.   a. I know what Anna ate.
       b. [C [ɸ] T Anna [v[ate what]]]]].
       c. [What i[C [Anna i[T[t i [v[ate t i]]]]]]

In 40, the subject, Anna, is located below the wh- operator *what*. In order to explain 40a.b.andc, Chomsky (2008) claims that the transmitted [ɸ] feature from COMP makes T function as a probe and assign Nominative case to embedded subject. As a result, the embedded subject undergoes A-movement to Spec-TP. Finally, the derivation proceeds from 40a-to 40c.   In the following section we argue that this is what happens in subject with genitive case of the embedded clause in Mongolian. In connection to the triple case alternation on the embedded subject in Mongolian, we claim that COMP in Mongolian contains features [+-M] and [+-N]. Specifically, we argue that genitive case marked subject is within the non-factive–indicative clauses.

Mongolian verbs are inflected for tense and mood complementizer moves to the heads of these functional categories to check off their features.

41.   [Minii duu duulah-iig] chi sonsooroi
       [I-gen song sing-FUT-acc/COMP] you hear-IMP
       'you have a listen to my song'.

Genitive Case Licensing in Mongolian

As for genitive case licensing in Mongolian, Spec-FP and Nominalized Complementizer play crucial role in explaining the process of genitive case licensing. We argue that Spec-FP is focus position in Mongolian. We propose the structure of construction 42 to be 43.

42.   [Dulma-iin gertee hool hii-sen/gedegl-iig] bi medsen
       [Dulma-gen home-at food cook-COM/acc] I know
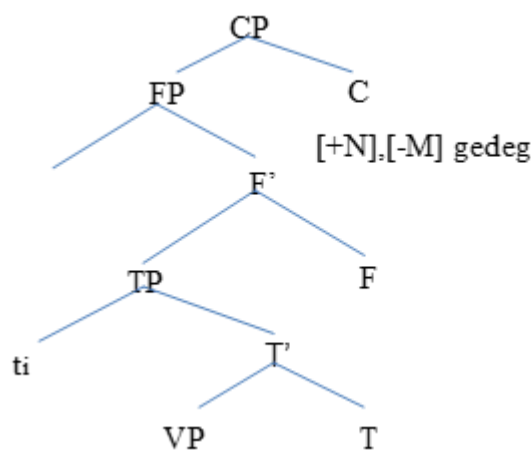   'I know that Dulma cooked food at home'.

47

43.

Figure 11.

As shown in the above construction, we propose that the subject of the embedded clause (Dulma) moves up to Spec of FP, in order to receive case from the C which is specified as [+N] ,[-M]. The head C assigns case to the NP under government. Since the only position governed by C is the Spec –FP.

A noun phrase will not be able to move up to Spec-CP since it is a nominal operator. In addition to the fact that C cannot govern an NP at Spec-FP, there is another motivation for an NP to move out of   Spec-TP in order to receive a case from Comp.

In accordance with feature evidences, we propose that complementizer with [+N] [-M] feature assigns Genitive case to embedded subject under the Agree. Nominative case and Genitive case in Mongolian are depending on categorial features of AGR. Accusative case of embedded clause is default in Mongolian.

Conclusion

Linguists mention genitive subject of the embedded clause in Mongolian in their comparative researches in the following ways;

"….We will explore the possibility that the Genitive –subject RC in Japanese is identical to Dagur in having the reduced AspP. As we will see, the inflection on the verb appears to mark aspect, not tense". cf. Miyagawa (2008).

" …..I assume that the phi-feature at D in Dagur is inherited by N and the phi-feature at D enters into agreement with the genitive subject".(Hale 2002)

Consideration that genitive subject in Mongolian appears in embedded clauses with the head noun that has morphological agreement (min, chin, ni), lead them to conclude genitive subject in Mongolian is D-licensed. But Standard Mongolian doesn't enforce the above properties above. When subject of relative clause is Genitive, the head noun does not bear possessive agreement. As far, against the above facts, I attempt to show that Genitive subject embedded clauses in Mongolian are full CPs based on the following facts:

- *ge* is optionally occurred in genitive and accusative subject of
  embedded clauses.
- Inflections of embedded verb in Mongolian function as a tense.

Secondly, we suggest that relative clause allows only genitive case in Mongolian whereas Nominative and Genitive case conversion is possible   in Relative clause in Japanese.

As mentioned above the embedded nominal indicative clauses are independent from the root clause with respect to tense regardless embedded subject with genitive case in Mongolian.

In other words, this section shows us that indicative clause with genitive marked subject has tense, and indicates verbal properties, in contrast to subjunctive clauses with accusative case marked subject which lacks tense completely, and verbal properties.

Finally, we propose that complementizer with [+N] [-M] feature assigns Genitive case to embedded subject under Agree. Nominative case and Genitive case in Mongolian are depending on categorial features of AGR. Accusative case of embedded clause is default in Mongolian.

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EUPHEMISMS IN POLITICAL DISCOURSE:
A CASE STUDY OF THE PRESIDENT DONALD TRUMP'S SPEECHES

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Abstract: *Linguistics forms a major part of the field of education. The study of euphemisms in linguistics is becoming increasingly important. In particular, studies of euphemisms and the language of politics have proliferated in past decades, with many studies from various perspectives and in different fields being conducted to unravel the meanings behind them. In this sample study, we analyze five official speeches from the 45th president of the United States, Donald Trump. President Trump is known to be a direct speaker, who uses euphemisms sparingly. Because of this, our research focuses on a sample of five speeches on the topic of immigration, from 2018-2019. These speeches have gained international attention due to being controversial in nature, and our study dissects President Trump's usage of euphemisms and their meaning within the context of his speech. The speeches were analyzed according to Warren's word formation classification.*

Keywords: *euphemism, political discourse, word formation, compounding, derivation*

Research rationale

The person-centered concept in modern linguistics requires an in-depth and detailed study of linguistic phenomena from a multidisciplinary perspective. In Mongolia, there is a social need not only to learn English, but also to widen the scope and use of research. The main role of the president is very important in politics. In particular, the president's use of official and body language and euphemisms in international negotiations, agreements, and treaties had an important impact on international unity and peace. Recently, a political researcher, Nouiri Takoua, has endeavored to examine the use of specific language for developing/stating policy and other various sociopolitical ends. Indeed, many allege that such use of language attenuates the pernicious form of communication and dampens the effrontery of political reality, by means of replacing offensive terms with allegedly impartial ones. From a pragmatic view, this common strategy is referred to as "Political Euphemism". [3]

Methodology and data collection

The goal of this study was to collect and analyze the euphemisms of the 45th president of the United States, Donald Trump, which were extracted from his remarks and speeches between 2018 and 2019- in particular those euphemisims regarding immigration law. In our opinion, President Trump speaks directly and avoids euphemisms generally, which differs from previous standards set by former presidents. We chose President Trump in this study because his speech is well-known for being direct and clear. First, we read many speeches from 2018-2019, using sources such as the *New York Times* and UN General Assembly website, and counted the euphemisms in each speech concerning immigration. Then, we highlighted five reports from these digital sources and read them very carefully to select the euphemisms. Next, we drew upon Warren's classification of word formation devices, phonemic modification, loan words and

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[3] Nouiri, T. (2015). English Euphemism in Political Discourse: A Politeness Strategy or Deception. (Dissertation)

semantic innovations. Our two research questions for this study are as follows: How often does he use euphemisms in his speeches? Which of Warren's devices for forming euphemisms appear more frequently? Therefore, our research aims to further study Warren's classifications and to delve deeper into how euphemisms are formed.

What is Euphemism?

Euphemism is a Greek term of two constituents; the first is "eu'' which means "good or well'' and the second is "pheme'' which refers to "speech'', regardless of the suffix "ism'' which is attributed to the act of doing something (the free dictionary, 2011). Broadly speaking, euphemism can be presented as written or verbal utterances, stretches of words that act as a protector screen to militate against flippant and offensive language. According to Wilson (1993), euphemisms are "words with meaning or sounds thought somehow to be nicer, clearer or more elevated and so used as substitutes for words deemed unpleasant, crude or ugly in sound or sense". Along with the same line, Allan and Burridge (1991) defined euphemism as "aalternatives to dispreferred expressions, and are used in order to avoid possible loss of face" (p.11).[1] In o ther words, euphemisms are expressions that are used to eschew other expressions that are deemed beyond the pale. They are used to avert abhorrent, abominable, and overall negative words and expressions where they replace them with more acceptable, friendly, and le ss outrageous ones. Eschholz (2000 stated that " a language without euphemisms would be a defective instrument of communication)". [2]

Warren's Classification

Warren (Warren, 1992) states that the formation of euphemisms involves three formal innovations. She deals with how euphemisms are formed. Warren's model is based on contextual meaning and she states that dictionary meaning is different from contextual meaning. Dictionary meaning is the meaning of a language community, while contextual meaning is the meaning that is interpreted by the interpreter in a specific or given context. These three formal innovations are word formation devices, phonemic modification, and loan words. The euphemism formation process according to Warren (1992: 45) is in the next part, as follows:

1. Word formation devices
Word formation can be done in several ways:
***a.* Compounding**
Compounding is the process of combining two words that have milder meaning to replace the word which has an offensive meaning.
***b.* Derivation**
Derivation is the process of forming a word that produce a new word and new meaning. For example, a "military blunder" became known as a *SAPFU*
***c.* Blends**
Blending is the process of forming a new word which is a combination of two or more parts of the word.
***d.* Acronym, etc**
An acronym is a word that is a combination of letters or syllables that are written and pronounced as an acceptable word. An example of an acronym is SNAFU ['Situation Normal All Fucked Up'], a military euphemism for a possibly unsuccessful event.

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[1] Beatrice Cecilia Warren (2017) What Euphemisms Tell Us about the Interpretation of Words.
[2] Nouiri, T. (2015). English Euphemism in Political Discourse: A Politeness Strategy or Deception. (Dissertation)

e. Onomatopoeia

Onomatopoeia is a word that imitates the sound of the nature and environment.

2. Phonemic modification

Phonemic modification is the replacement of the word form. Phonemic modification consists of:

a. Back slang

Back slang is the process of replacing the word form by inversing the word order. For example, *epar* (back slang for *rape)*

b. Rhyming slang

Rhyming slang is the repetition of intermittent sounds and is usually found at the end of the adjacent rhyme line. For example, *elephant and castle*

(rhyming slang for "arsehole")

c. Phoneme replacement

Phoneme replacement is the process of replacing the rough form, offensive, and impolite form to sound better. For example *fug* (instead of *fuck)* i.e. one sound of the offensive term is replaced.

d. Abbreviation

An abbreviation is formed by shortening the words or sentences into one letter or more.

3. Loan words

Borrowing words can come from various languages. Euphemisms can be formed by borrowing foreign language such as *lingerie* from French, *calaboose* "jail" from Spanish *calabozo, sativa* "marijuana" from *cannabis sativa* the Latin name.

According to Warren (Warren, 1992), formal innovation is not the only process of forming euphemism. Besides formal innovation, there is a semantic innovation which consists of: particularizations, implications, metaphors, metonyms, reversals, understatements, and overstatements.

4. Semantic Innovations

Semantic innovations are going to form a new meaning from the interpretation provided before.

a. *Particularization:* this type of euphemism should describe how the interpretation of words in context can create a new meaning because there is a certain type of euphemism that involves a creation of new contextual sense. For example, the yellow card "warning card in football" is not only a yellow card, since yellowness is not its only defining feature. It is used by the referee to warn the football players that they have violated a rule. This functional feature need not be explicitly stated. The interpreter knows the meaning when the yellow card is shown.

b. *Implication:* in this case, the intended meaning can be drawn although it is not explicitly stated. For example hang up ("end a telephone conversation"), go to the toilet ("urinate and/or defecate"), sleep with somebody ("have sexual intercourse with somebody").

c. *Metaphor:* a figure of speech that describes an object or action in a way that is not literally true, but helps explain an idea or make a comparison. In this case, metaphor includes some dimensions of the conventional meaning which are also the dimensions of the contextual meaning. For instance: mole "secret agent" (both moles and secret agents work under cover); mousse "hair cosmetic" (both the dessert and the cosmetic have foamy consistencies); egg "head" (both heads and eggs have oval shapes).

d. *Metonymy:* usually called as a "general for specific" since there is a co-occurrent relationship between contextual and conventional meaning. This category includes the maximally general for "it" [sex] and contextually dependent "thing" [male or female sexual organs, etc].

e. *Reversal (Irony):* it is the opposite meaning of what has been uttered by someone. The conventional meaning of a word is suitable with the contextual meaning as long as it is reversed. For example, early means "late" or blessed "damned".

f. *Understatement:* the conventional meaning of a word matches with the contextual meaning when some applied features of meanings are reduced or decreased. For example, "sleep" [die] and "deed" [act of murder or rape].

g. *Overstatement:* it is also known as hyperbole, the conventional meaning of a word is suitable with the contextual meaning by seeing to what extent or to what degree some applied feature of meaning is exaggerated. For example, "a narcotic" becomes "all stimulating substances including dope, alcohol and marijuana."
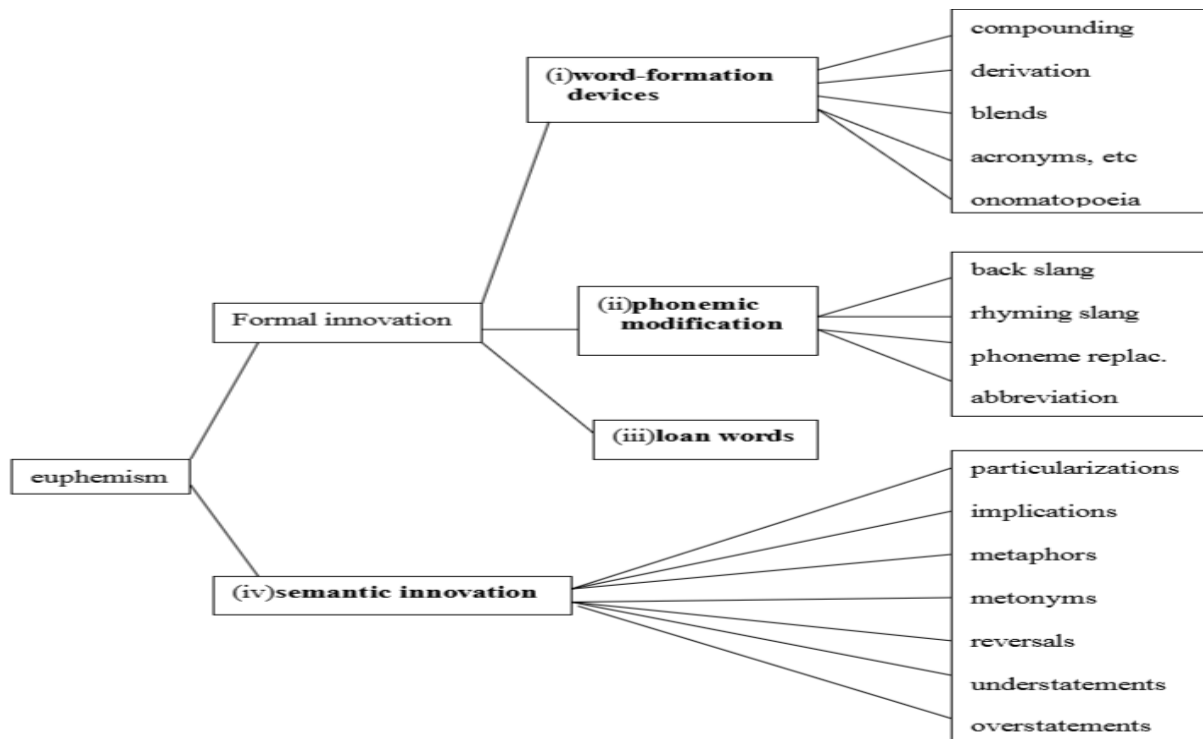
Figure 2. The process forming euphemism according to Warren (1992: 45)

Based on the explanation above, it can be concluded that the form of euphemism can be seen in four processes: word formation, phonemic modification, loan words, and semantic innovation.[1]

What is Political Discourse?

Discourse is an extensive term with miscellaneous meanings which combines a compilation of definitions, enclosing a vast area from various disciplines. The term is derived from the Latin 'discursus' which means 'an argument'and which refers to the type of argument attributed to the discussion of ideas. According to Van Dijk (1997), discourse is commonly identified as a way of language use and a kind of social communication, which can be defined as an interactive event in a particular social status. He added that in studying discourse, "analysts want to include some other essential components such as who uses language, how, why and when" (ibid, 1997, p. 2). It indicates, as stated by Fairclough (1989), "the whole process of interaction of which a text is just a part" (p.24), which, in its turn, means everything that dive beyond the literal

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[1] Beatrice Cecilia Warren (2017) What Euphemisms Tell Us about the Interpretation of Words

meaning and the syntactic meaning of the text, where people tend to communicate ideolog ies and different practices. In other words, discourse is generally concerned with how social interaction and meaning are created and retained by a social group, and mainly in how people take advantage of language to exercise power and prevail influence. For instance, interviews, conversations, meetings, letters, diaries, propaganda, discussions, laws, contracts, political discourse, songs, poetry, and news, just to mention a few (Van Dijk, 1981).

Along with media discourse and other types of political rhetoric, PD is inclusive of a blanket of subject matters bent on a spectrum of systematic methods. However, we need first to contemplate about the enigmatic nature and meaning of the term political discourse. It may be considerably arduous to clinch its rigorous meaning as all types of discourse might be construed as political. Many linguists and researchers concurred on a series of irrefutable definitions that might go on with the term. Two distinct notions have been introduced by Shiffrin and Tannen (2001): The first, " a discourse which is itself political", and the second, "An analysis of political discourse as simply an example of discourse type, without explicit reference to political content or political context" (p.398). Broadly speaking, it is the consequence of politics in general, which endeavors to convey political events, political ideas and activities, and political relations related to history and culture. PD is the type of discourse controlled by the institution enclose d by political practices in different context.

Analysis of Donald Trump's speeches

In this research study, we aimed to investigate the use of euphemistic expressions in president Donal Trump's speeches.   In this respect, a citation of the main aims and methodologies of the study will be provided with a thorough analysis of the selected speeches according to Warren's classification and finally the analysis will come up with the results of the formation of euphemism.

Compounding	*Lay at rest*	Our hostages have been released. And as promised, the remains of our fallen heroes are being returned home to *lay at rest* in American soil. (*UN General Assembly on Sep 25, 2018, 3pm*)
Derivation	*Military facilities* Fallen heroes lay at rest	The missiles and rockets are no longer flying in every direction. Nuclear testing has stopped. Some *military facilities* are already being dismantled. Our hostages have been released. And as promised, the remains of our *fallen heroes* are being returned home to *lay at rest* in American soil. (*UN General Assembly on Sep 25, 2018, 3pm*)
	Extraordinary progress	Read the White House's official transcript of the remarks, as delivered, below. Today, I stand before the United Nations General Assembly to share the *extraordinary progress* we've made. (*UN General Assembly on Sep 25, 2018, 3pm*)
	Greatly strengthened border security	We have passed the biggest tax cuts and reforms in American history. We've started the construction of a major border wall, and we have *greatly strengthened border security*. (*UN General Assembly on Sep 25, 2018, 3pm*)

	Sovereignty in return	I honor the right of every nation in this room to pursue its own customs, beliefs, and traditions. The United States will not tell you how to live or work or worship. We only ask that you honor our *sovereignty in return.* (*UN General Assembly on Sep 25, 2018, 3pm*)
	Humanitarian crisis	Every solution to the *humanitarian crisis* in Syria must also include a strategy to address the brutal regime that has fueled and financed it: the corrupt dictatorship in Iran. (*UN General Assembly on Sep 25, 2018, 3pm*)
	Peacemaking *New resolve*	When we do, we will find new avenues for cooperation unfolding before us. We will find new passion for *peacemaking* rising within us. We will find new purpose, *new resolve,* and new spirit flourishing all around us, and making this a more beautiful world in which to live. (*UN General Assembly on Jan 9, 2018, 3pm*)
	Customs and Border Protection	Every day, *Customs and Border Protection* agents encounter thousands of illegal immigrants trying to enter our country. We are out of space, and we have no way to promptly return them back home to their country. America proudly welcomes millions of lawful immigrants who enrich our society and contribute to our nation, but all Americans are hurt by uncontrolled illegal migration. (*Jan 8, 2019, New York Times*)
	A foot hits the ground	*A foot hits the ground,* we have to by law, with these horrible people that are making their own rulings, having nothing to do with our Constitution, we have to take those people in, even if they're, criminals and we have hardened criminals coming in. You think those people are perfect? They're not perfect. (*Oct 25, 2018 by Eugene Kiely, D'Angelo Gore*)
Acronym	-	-
Onomatopoeia	-	-

Table1: Word formation devices

Implication	*Extraordinary progress*	Read the White House's official transcript of the remarks, as delivered, below. Today, I stand before the United Nations General Assembly to share the *extraordinary progress* we've made. (*UN General Assembly on Sep 25, 2018, 3pm*)
	Sovereignty in return	I honor the right of every nation in this room to pursue its own customs, beliefs, and traditions. The United States will not tell you how to live or work or worship. We only ask that you honor our *sovereignty in return.* (*UN General Assembly on Sep 25, 2018, 3pm*)
	Forged	I have *forged* close relationships and friendships and strong partnerships with the leaders of many nations in this room, and our approach has already yielded incredible change. (*UN General Assembly on Sep 25, 2018, 3pm*)
Metaphor	*Greatly strengthened border security*	We have passed the biggest tax cuts and reforms in American history. We've started the construction of a major border wall, and we have *greatly strengthened border security.* (*UN General Assembly on Sep 25, 2018, 3pm*)
Metonymy	*Concern*	America's national security *concerns,* such as nuclear talks with North Korea, tensions with Iran, and his trade war with China. (*UN General Assembly on Sep 25, 2018, 3pm*)
	Regime Strategy	Every solution to the humanitarian crisis in Syria must also include a *strategy* to address the brutal *regime* that has fueled and financed it: the corrupt dictatorship in Iran. (UN General Assembly on Sep 25, 2018, 3pm)
	Vulnerable	Illegal immigration exploits *vulnerable* populations, hurts hardworking citizens, and has produced a vicious cycle of crime, violence, and poverty. Only by upholding national borders, destroying criminal gangs, can we break this cycle and establish a real foundation for prosperity. (*UN General Assembly on Sep 25, 2018, 3pm*)
Understatement	*A foot hits the ground* *Lay at rest* *Fallen heroes*	*A foot hits the ground,* we have to by law, with these horrible people that are making their own rulings, having nothing to do with our Constitution, we have to take those people in, even if they're, criminals and we have hardened criminals coming in. You think those people are perfect? They're not perfect. (*Oct 25, 2018 by Eugene Kiely, D'Angelo Gore*)

		And as promised, the remains of our *fallen heroes* are being returned home to *lay at rest* in American soil. (*UN General Assembly on Sep 25, 2018, 3pm*)
Overstatement	-	-
Revarsal /irony/	-	-
Particularizati on	-	-

Table 2: Semantic innovation ways

When we classify the euphemisms from the speeches by Warren's classification, the following is the result shown in a Pie chart. In addition, some euphemisms can be categorized into the two or three forms at the same time.
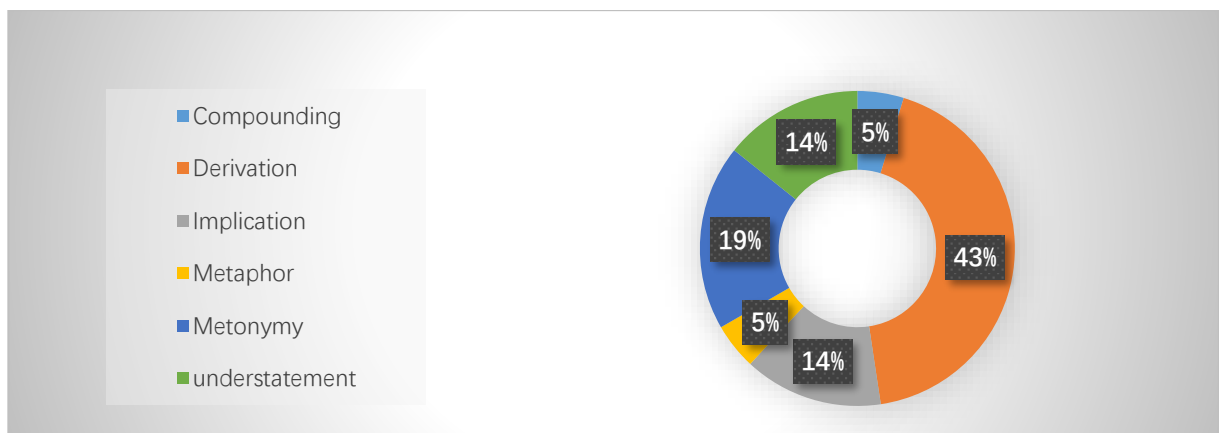

Figure 1: Eupehmisms in Warren's classification

As we can see, the majority (43%) of the euphemisms were in the Derivation category, followed by Metonomy with 19%, Implication and Understatement were the same- 4% respectively, while Compounding and Metaphor were very low, at just 5 percent. However, euphemism in the Reversal and Overstatement categories within Semantic Innovation was not observed, while euphemism in the blends, acronym and onomatopoeia categories in the Word Formation category were also not present in the sample.

Conclusion

Recently, linguistics has become a very important field, and it is necessary to study euphemisms in depth. Although euphemisms are commonly used in both spoken and written language, they have been used in political discourse as a tool to express war damages or economic losses in a softer, more positive light; but as the 45th President of the United States, Donald Trump, used little concealment or protection in his speeches and statements, we recognized the impact of his blunt speech while generally avoiding euphemisms. Our first goal in this study was to examine how often President Donald Trump uses euphemisms in his speeches. From his speeches, we highlighted five reports on immigration in 2018-2019, and examined the euphemisms from these speeches. As we predicted, Donald Trump used the least amount of euphemisms compared to President Biden; in other words, he is a direct speaker to his audience. However, because the United States has its own customs and politicians often pay close attention to the identities and

positions of their audience, the study found that Donald Trump's outspokenness and coarse speech was intended to intentionally appeal to his voter base, who appreciated his lack of political correct speech.

Our next goal was to classify the euphemisms according to Warren's form, with Derivation, Implication, and Metaphor being the most classified terms. Previous research shows hat it is common in political discourse to deploy euphemisms under the categories of Implication or Metaphor. From this research, we recognize that Trump uses few euphemisms in his speeches. Because, he uses direct language rather than "politically correct" terms when we are exposed to his speeches- however, he knew to use euphemisms when necessary in order to appease his audience in certain situations. Specifically, he often use euphemisms to discuss or refer to treaties with foreign countries, and to express condolences to the families of fallen soldiers. Warren's classification of euphemisms helps us understand the linguistic significance of using euphemisms in certain situations; for example, by using the euphemism of "fallen soldiers", Trump displays respect and reverence for the families of deceased servicemen and servicewomen.

Our study of euphemisms in political discourse is a starting point. There is a lot of work to be done in depth and comparative analysis in the future, as can be seen from the above research results. However, we are confident that our research sheds light on how President Trump used euphemisms sparsely in an effective way to influence his audience, which is relatively rare in American politics.

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TEACHING ENGLISH PHRASAL VERBS
TO MONGOLIAN STUDENTS

Batkhuu Tseveen[1]

Abstract: *Teaching and learning phrasal verbs can be a more arduous task than teaching other aspects of English. Teachers as well as students would agree that English phrasal verbs (e.g., to beef up, to give up, to do with) pose a huge challenge to English learners. Likewise, translators & interpreters face challenges when translating and interpreting to and from English. Therefore, successful methods of teaching English phrasal verbs to English learners would definitely help ease the process of learning phrasal verbs and interpreting and/or translating them to and from English. A number of approaches to teach phrasal verbs have been developed. In this paper, characteristics of phrasal verbs will be explored and the methods for teaching English phrasal verbs will be examined. When employed, these approaches will enable students to figure out the meaning of a phrasal verb with ease. This article also suggests some other useful tips for teaching phrasal verbs.*

Keywords: *phrasal verbs, teaching methods, in/transitive and idiomatic phrasal verbs*

Introduction

A plethora of research has been done on teaching English phrasal verbs to non-native speakers of English. English phrasal verbs, categorized as idiomatic & non-idiomatic, are widely used by native speakers of English (Moon, 1997) but cause some degree of strain both for non-native students and teachers of English, translators and interpreters alike. Koprowski (2005) states that a phrasal verb is a phrase which consists of a verb in combination with a preposition or adverb or both, the meaning of which is different from the meaning of its separate parts: 'look after', 'work out' and 'make up for' are all phrasal verbs**.** As cited in Manal et al. (2020) phrasal verbs are defined as any two-part verbs consisting of a lexical verb followed (continuously or discontinuously) by an adverbial particle, which "behaves to some extent either lexically or syntactically as a single verb" (Quirk, Greenbaum, & Leech, 1985). And phrasal verbs are two-or three-word idiomatic expressions, consisting of a verb and a particle or a combination of a particle and a preposition (Darwin & Gray, 1999). Therefore, learning to recognize, comprehend, and actively use phrasal verbs should be an essential part of English teaching and learning process.

Most students don't use and/or avoid using phrasal verbs as it is difficult to figure out the meaning of phrasal verbs by themselves without the help of instructors. Cornell (2005) asserts that using phrasal verbs in speech is a true test of fluency. This is especially true for Mongolian ESL students whose language has no verb + particle combinations. Laufer & Eliasson (1993) describe in their study of Hebrew-speaking ESL students that phrasal verbs cause learners both to misinterpret received messages and avoid using the construction [verb +particle] by opting for single word verbs instead.

Characteristics of phrasal verbs & differentiating phrasal verbs from verb/preposition combinations

The words that constitute a phrasal verb are a verb and a preposition. Sometimes, the first word in a phrasal verb is not a verb at all, but when paired with the preposition, the phrase becomes a verb. For example, the phrasal verb "beef up" consists of a noun (beef) and a preposition (up). When combined, they become one verb meaning "to improve or strengthen". Phrasal verbs aren't translated literally. Hence, when we try to differentiate a phrasal verb from a verb and a preposition

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combination (depend on etc.,) we have to look at the whole sentence. If the two words are understood literally, it's a verb and a preposition not a phrasal verb. If they have to be taken together with a new meaning that is not related to the meaning of the lexical verb alone, it's a phrasal verb. For example, this can be illustrated with "went out".

a) We went out for some fresh air. In this sentence, it is simply a verb (went) and preposition (out).
b) Jane went out with Dave in college. In the sentence "went out" is a phrasal verb meaning dated or spent time romantically.

Darwin and Gray (1999) identify three semantic categories of phrasal verbs: literal, idiomatic and aspectual. It is also important to address the differences of literal and idiomatic phrasal verbs. The verb in literal phrasal verbs still retain much of their meaning (Darwin and Gray, 1999) but the adverb or prepositions adds a nuance that would not be understood from its basic meaning as in *wash up, wash over, and wash down*. However, other phrasal verbs are fully idiomatic; in those cases, the meaning of a phrasal cannot be worked out by studying the main verb and the preposition. In idiomatic phrasal verbs such as *make up* (*be reconciled*), the usual meanings of *make* and *up* seem to be lost (Darwin & Gray, 1999) as in the examples that follow:

a) work out = come to a solution
b) work out = do exercise
c) bring up = suggest something
d) bring up = raise children.

According to Darwin & Gray (1999), the aspectual phrasal verbs are more transparent than those of idiomatic phrasal verbs, but perhaps not as transparent than those of literal phrasal verbs. Whereas the verb proper in aspectual phrasal verbs can be understood literally, the particle contributes meanings, not commonly understood, about the verb's aspect. For example, *up* in *They ate up all the chips and drank up all the soda* signals that the actions are complete. Besides the semantic categorization, instructors should clearly explain the four types of phrasal verbs 1) transitive phrasal verbs 2) intransitive phrasal verbs, 3) separable phrasal verbs and 4) inseparable phrasal verbs accordingly. The point here is to help learners learn to differentiate phrasal verbs from a common verb and preposition combinations. Transitive phrasal verbs always require an object after them. Without an object, the transitive phrasal verb cannot convey a meaning. For example, she **looks after** her **children**.   I am trying to **give up smoking**. Intransitive phrasal verbs don't require an object after themselves, and the sentence with an intransitive phrasal verb makes sense. For example, two patients **passed away** due to Corona virus infection (**die**). The car **broke down** (stopped working). Besides, parts of a phrasal verb (a verb and a preposition/adverb) can be separated and/or can be joined together. They are called separable phrasal verbs. For example, please **turn** the lights **on** or please, **turn on** the lights.

Teaching of phrasal verbs

The issue of how to teach phrasal verbs has provoked a heated discussion. Although teaching phrasal verbs has always been a challenge for teachers, and dull task for learners, it is necessary to develop students' skills in understanding and using them availing every possible method. As phrasal verbs are used daily, it is important to encourage students to learn and use them daily. Avoiding the use of phrasal verbs exacerbates language learning and eventually causes unnatural speech such as, people may say "I found an old picture of mine in the childhood memory box" instead of saying "I came across an old picture of mine in the childhood memory box". Hence, one of the most reliable ways of learning phrasal verbs can be through extensive reading. As extensive reading is done on a voluntary basis and reading for pleasure, students will easily pick up phrasal verbs. One of the assignments I had to assign to my students was to choose an English novel to read and make a list of phrasal verbs they come across. The goal of the assignment was

to make the students learn to identify phrasal verbs on their own. Once they can identify them, then phrasal verbs will be a lot easier to understand and eventually can use them in their writing and speech with ease.

We are advised to avoid teaching phrasal verbs in alphabetical lists. The problem with a long list is that it is a daunting task to memorize phrasal verbs and their meanings, making it difficult to use phrasal verb in daily speech and writing. When learning phrasal verbs from long lists "many students know the phrasal verb from a list, but then fail to use or recognize them in their conversations with native speakers. Lists can be useful, but it may be difficult to transfer this knowledge from the written page to your active knowledge" (Dainty, 1992 as cited in Darwin & Gray).

It is also advisable to avoid teaching phrasal verbs grouping based on the main verb of a given phrasal verb. For example, it would not be a wise idea to teach all the phrasal verb with "get" at once. If phrasal verbs are taught this way, they have nothing in common but the same main verb, and it is very challenging to absorb and retain the phrasal verbs for later use. So then, how should we teach phrasal verbs?

Scholars have suggested various methods of teaching phrasal verbs including a) teaching phrasal verbs from an (alphabetical) list, b) teaching phrasal verbs in context or context method, c) teaching phrasal verbs as groupings, d) teaching phrasal verbs as separable or inseparable, and e) teaching phrasal verbs as transitive or intransitive.

Depending on the setting, instructors may choose any of the above methods excluding teaching of a set of phrasal verbs from a list. Andrzej Cirocki (2003) claims that if we aim at teaching a few phrasal verbs to our students, we should present them in many different real contexts so as to enable students to deduce their exact meaning and to see whether they are transitive or intransitive, separable or inseparable. All these items can be noticed by students if phrasal verbs are presented in authentic contexts. Cirocki (2003) elucidates the context method by asking his students to read a passage 'Hotel Blaze Escape Drama' where some phrasal verbs are used instead of single verbs.

Hotel Blaze Escape Drama
*At present it is not known how the fire started. It seems the fire, **broke out** in the early hours of the morning. The fire alarm **went off** at around 2.00 a.m. It is thought it was **set off** by smoke coming from one of the bedrooms on the first floor. The fire spread quickly from the first floor to the second floor. The fire brigade were **called in** immediately and fire fighters were on the scene within 15 minutes, but by this time the hotel was already in flames. They fought the blaze and managed to get it under control, though it **took** them **two** hours to **put** the fire **out*** (Cirocki, 2003).

Using this method, students should be able to figure out the meanings of the phrasal verbs, learn them and eventually utilize them in their daily writing and speaking because it is easier to learn phrasal verbs from the given context. Cirocki (2003) further states that having deduced meanings of phrasal verbs from authentic contexts, it is time to apply such types of exercises so that students can memorize them much better and also see them in new contexts. Additionally, instructors may also provide students with some texts written with lexical verbs but not with phrasal verbs. Then students are asked to replace the verbs with phrasal verbs that carry the same meaning with a given verb. This can be done when practicing both speaking and writing or as vocabulary practice. For instance, can you think of a better idea (come up with)?

Besides guessing phrasal verbs' meaning, students may be encouraged to determine whether the phrasal verbs they come across are transitive or intransitive, and separable or inseparable. This way EFL students will learn to use phrasal verbs naturally. Darwin & Gray (1999) state that most transitive phrasal verbs form passives (e.g., *The form was filled out*) and form action nominals as well (…*the filling out of forms* …). They further affirm that a phrasal verb veers from verb norms because the particle can often be separated from the verb proper in a position after the

object. Thus, with many transitive phrasal verbs there is a choice as to where the particle appears: I *looked up* his name in the phone book; I *looked* his name *up* in the phone book.

Another method worth recommending when teaching phrasal verbs is groupings. Trusler (2013) suggests that grouping phrasal verbs into categories based on the same verb is another way to teach. She reasserts that it presents phrasal verbs in small, logical, and manageable groups as shown below.

Phrasal verbs with "look"

look after	take care of
look down on	think less of
look into	investigate, find more information
look out	be careful
look over	review, examine
look up	check, find
look up to	admire

Table 1: Phrasal verb grouping with "look"
Source: https://esllibrary.com/blog/how-do-you-teach-phrasal-verbs

Phrasal verbs with "take"

take after	resemble
take away (from)	learn
take off	leave
take on	start
take out	take on a date
take over	replace

Table 2: Phrasal verb grouping with "take"
Source: https://esllibrary.com/blog/how-do-you-teach-phrasal-verbs

Phrasal verbs with "get"

get along (with)	have a good relationship
get away	go on vacation
get away with	not get caught while doing something bad
get out of	no longer have to do something
get over	recover, overcome
get through	survive, bear

Table 3: Phrasal verb grouping with "get"
Source: https://esllibrary.com/blog/how-do-you-teach-phrasal-verbs

This method should definitely be followed by some meaningful drills in many different forms. For instance, students can fill in gaps with given phrasal verbs, or appropriate particles that go with a certain verb as in the example sentences below from Upstream Proficiency textbook. This method can be employed in many different ways depending on students' level of English. One is to have them fill in the particles:

1. I can't stand here all day chatting. I should be **getting** ………. – I've a bus to catch. (**along** = move / leave)
2. Should the terrain be too mountainous for jeeps we can always **fall back** ……….. the mules. (**fall back on** = rely on as an alternative / resort to)
3. The agreement between the two airlines to merge has **fallen** ……………. . (**fall through**= fail to happen)
4. I wouldn't be able to **get** …………… much as I do if I didn't have my car. (**get around / about** = travel / circulate)
5. The local residents have finally **fallen** ………… with the proposal to build a light rail system. (**fall in with** = agree)

6. It's high time the bus company **got** …….. to replacing its buses. (**get round to** = eventually do something). (*Source*: Upstream Proficiency, Student's Book, 2002.).

Another method worth recommending is based on providing students with a particular topic and associating it with phrasal verbs. For instance, instructors may ask their students to write a letter to their friends talking about their problems with studying. While writing such a letter, students can make use of phrasal verbs of the following type: *get down to, keep on with, take down, fall behind, put off, get through, catch up with* and many others (Cirocki, 2003). Cirocki writes that in practice it may look like this:

> *Dear Paul,*
> *I have problems with my studies at school. I find it difficult to **get down to** work in the afternoons and I can't concentrate on anything right now. I spend most of my time listening to CDs or watching TV instead of doing my homework. The other students in my class are much better than I am and I find it hard to **keep up with** them. I can't **take down** the important things my teacher says because I write very slowly. He has told me that I'm **falling behind with** my lessons. I'm not good at ...*

Cirocki (2003) further states that in order to make our students write fully authentic texts, the role of the teacher is confined to proposing an interesting topic. Nevertheless, teachers may also ask their students to make use of as many phrasal verbs as possible in their compositions. The main benefit of such exercises is the fact that students write about things they are fond of and are really interested in. This enables students to apply long term memory, due to which they will be able to remember certain things forever and make use of them in various speeches or essays.

Another method of teaching phrasal verbs is through listening. This method is similar to the method teachers employ when teaching listening skill in which a text is provided and students fill in the blank while listening. Upendran (2001) articulates that when teaching phrasal verbs many songs can be successfully employed to provide meaningful contexts for learning phrasal verbs. He illustrates this by using the song "Another Day in Paradise" by Phil Collins in which students were provided with incomplete songs, and asked to fill in the blank; then they discussed what phrasal verbs they caught while listening, discussed the meanings of each phrasal verb, and students received contextual clues of phrasal verbs. Upendran (2001) further states that when the students were unable to define a phrasal verb, there was no attempt to provide them with one. Instead, the phrasal verb was used in a context and all students were expected to guess the meaning. For example, when the students were unable to define "**call off**", the following context was provided.

> *"The class is over. You're ready to begin looking through your notes in the short break before the next class. You have a test on that class. Suddenly a student runs into the classroom and shouts that the test is called off as the teacher has left to deal with a family emergency. You are overjoyed, and you throw your books back into your bag and rush to the playground to join the cricket game."*

The students were asked to determine the meaning from the context provided. Once the meaning had been arrived at, further examples of how the phrasal verb was used were provided.

- John's appointment with the doctor was **called off**.
- The teacher **called off** the meeting.

Maryam Akbary, Hesamoddin Shahriari & Azar Hosseini Fatemi (2016) studied four different types of music genres and the number of phrasal verbs found in each type of music to define how phrasal can be taught through songs. Through their study, Maryam et al., found that the type–token[1] ratio reveals the variety with which phrasal verbs were used in each of the four

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[1] The type - token ratio is a means of assessing lexical diversity.

genres of music in their studies. It can be seen that the greatest variety in the use of phrasal verbs can be seen in the Hip-hop genre, followed by Metal and Pop, both of which had approximately the same level of variety in the phrasal verbs of their song lyrics. Finally, the least variety was observed in song lyrics from the Rock genre. This is illustrated with the table below:

Genre	Types[1]	Token	TTR
Pop	356	788	0.45
Rock	269	612	0.43
Hip-hop	621	1114	0.55
Metal	281	607	0.46
Total	539	3121	0.17

Table 4. The raw frequency of phrasal verbs types and tokens in each genre

Maryam Akbary, Hesamoddin Shahriari & Azar Hosseini Fatemi (2016)

Some lines of songs that include English phrasal verbs have been provided below from some popular artists as examples of using songs. The phrasal verbs are underlined & the corresponding meanings are given in brackets along with the artists' names.

1) *Don't take your love away from me,*
   'cause breaking up is hard to do. (separate, end a relationship) by Neil Sedaka,
2) *Baby I'm just gonna shake, shake, shake, shake, shake*
   I shake it off, I shake it off (to free yourself from something, to get rid of something)
   Every little thing that you do or say, by Taylor Swift,
3) *I am hung up on you* (to be obsessed with)
   Waiting for your call baby
   I am caught up, (be involved in something not intended; to become involved in)
   I don't know what to do by Madonna
4) *I just can't get you out of my head*
   You loving is all I think about
   I just can't get you out of my head (remove somebody from mind) by Kylie Minogue,
5) *I have run, I have crawled,*
   I have scaled these city walls only to be with you
   But I still haven't found what I'm looking for (search for something/someone) by U2, and
6) *I put my makeup on a Saturday night ...* (place something on part of one's body)
   Wake up wake up on a Saturday night ... (stop sleeping) by Hillary Duff.

After working on the lyrics, the phrasal verbs being taught and their meanings could be turned into some thought-provoking exercises as follows.

Instruction: Have a look at the words below and match the phrasal verbs in the song lyrics to their meaning and singers.

1. *Breaking up* is hard to do	A. collect or gather
2. *Hung up*	B. don´t take off your clothes
3. I can´t *get you out of* my head	C. stop sleeping
4. I still haven´t found what I'm *looking for*	D. I'm crazy / mad about him
5. My heart will *go on*	E. continue
6. *Wake up*	F. our relationship is over
7. You can *leave* your hat *on*	G. remove something from your mind
8. *Pick me up*	H. search for someone or something

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[1] The term "**token**" refers to the total number of words in a text, regardless of how often they are repeated. The term "**type**" refers to the number of distinct words in a text. Thus, the sentence "a good book is a book that you like" contains nine tokens, but only seven types, as "a" and "book" are repeated.

Maryam et al., suggest that using songs for teaching phrasal verbs can be highly effective for EFL students. To do so, it is urged that instructors are supposed to avail different methods not only listening and filling in but also, for instance, students can be asked to fill in the missing phrasal verbs by guessing before listening, and then listening to check.

One of the important points to remember when teaching phrasal verbs is to teach students how to differentiate phrasal verbs from regular verb-preposition combinations. Darwin & Gray (1999) states that potential phrasal verb has distinctive characteristics. According to their approach, *look up* is a phrasal verb because, by nine tests of Bolinger (as cited in Darwin & Gray, 1999), it can be replaced by one word (*find*), it forms a passive (*is looked up*), it yields an action nominal (*the looking up of*), the particle can occur after the direct object (*look the word up*), direct object pronouns normally precede the particle (*looked it up*), most adverbials cannot be placed between the verb proper and the particle (*look it quickly up*), the particle receives stress (*LOOK UP the word*), and *up* is on Fraser's (1976) list of particles [that are used in forming real phrasal verbs].

Alternatively, knowing the most frequent particles used in forming English phrasal verbs would make learning English phrasal verbs less challenging. Once ESL/EFL learners are familiar with but not limited to these particles, they will be able to recognize phrasal verbs without getting confused.

	Common particles	Examples
1	around	to come around; to shop around
2	away	to put away; to turn away; to take away
3	back	to cut back; to hold back; to set back
4	down	to cut down; turn down
5	in	to break in; to break into; to bring in
6	off	to put off; to pay off; to go off
7	on	to build on; to get on; to take on
8	out	to back out; to fill out; to stand out
9	over	to hand over, to pull over; to take over
10	through	to come through; to get through; to win through

Table 5. the most frequent particles & examples used in English phrasal verbs.

Additionally, being aware of the most common lexical verbs and the corresponding particles used in forming phrasal verbs in English would definitely benefit students in recognizing phrasal verbs instantly.

	Lexical verbs	Common particles that are used with preceding verbs
1	come	about, across, along, back, down, forward, in, on, out, over, up
2	bring	about, along, back, down, in, out, up
3	get	about, along, around, back, down, in, off, on, out, over, through, up
4	go	about, ahead, along, around, away, back, down, off, on, out, over, round, through, up
5	look	after, ahead, around, back, down, forward, out, over, round, through, up
6	move	about, along, around, away, back, forward, in, on, over
7	put	across, away, back, down, forward, in, off, on, out, up
8	send	away, back, down, in, off, out, up
9	take	along, away, back, down, in, off, on, out, over, part, up
10	turn	around, away, back, down, in, off, on, out, over, round, up

Table 6: The most common lexical verbs & corresponding particles used in forming phrasal verbs.

Conclusion

Phrasal verbs are one of the most important but difficult parts of English for both ESL/EFL students and instructors alike. Yet, it is frequently avoided by ESL/EFL learners due to its complicated nature. Therefore, applying an appropriate teaching approach needs to be considered to reduce students' anxiety and to promote their understanding and their use of phrasal verbs. The inclusion of phrasal verbs in ESL curriculum and materials has become a necessity. That being said, it is worth considering presenting the most useful & frequent phrasal verbs when teaching them based on research findings. How then are we supposed to highlight the importance of phrasal verbs in English teaching and learning? Research has shown that contexts can have a positive influence on students' learning and comprehension of English phrasal verbs through readings and songs. We are convinced that phrasal verbs have to be taught by knowing the patterns based on whether they are transitive or intransitive and idiomatic or non-idiomatic.

A phrasal verb consists of a verb proper and a morphologically invariable particle that function together as a single unit both lexically and syntactically (Darwin & Gray, 1999). Although they were once thought to be common only in speech and informal writing, it is now accepted that phrasal verbs are found in all types of registers, from comic books and street slang to the most academic forms of the language (Cornell, 1985). If phrasal verbs, an important part of communication, are not presented properly, students tend to avoid using them. Therefore, instructors are expected to create teaching materials in a way that doesn't cause confusion and avoidance among students considering the aforementioned characteristics that define phrasal verbs. Teaching students the most common phrasal verbs would alleviate the anxiety ESL learners face until they are ready to proceed.

How are we supposed to teach and learn English phrasal verbs? Teaching phrasal verbs in contexts, in groupings and through listening comprehension would be of benefit. As an option, teaching phrasal verbs through songs can be effective. Maryam, Shahriari & Azar (2016) examined different types of music genres and the number of phrasal verbs each type contained and claim that teaching phrasal verbs through songs would be applicable.

Research has also shown that employing extensive reading can have a positive influence on students' vocabulary growth including phrasal verbs. The key here is to focus on teaching phrasal verbs through contexts, groupings and songs students are keen to listen to, and extensive reading rather than from long lists of words. Using texts that have high frequency phrasal verbs would be constructive. This article has discussed ways to distinguish phrasal verbs from regular verb-preposition combinations, and knowing if they are separable or inseparable, and transitive or intransitive. Making the learners familiar with the most frequent particles and their underlying meanings would as well facilitate learning and teaching of phrasal verbs.

To conclude, phrasal verbs are not just a random combination of prepositions or adverbs and verbs and there exist some idiosyncrasies in phrasal verbs that distinguish them from regular verb-preposition combinations. Although the points and characteristics discussed in the article may vary in the extent of their reliability or result, they need to be applied in practice and further explored in order to contribute to the teaching of English phrasal verbs to Mongolian EFL students.

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IMPROVING STUDENTS' WRITING SKILLS THROUGH THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CRITICAL APPROACH – PEER FEEDBACK

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Abstract: *This article reports the findings of a study exploring the effectiveness of applying a peer feedback technique in the L2 literacy skills development instruction at the academic level. A total of 126 students learning Academic English at the upper-intermediate level at the National University of Mongolia participated in our study. The participants were involved in three phases of peer-review activities and asked to submit a portfolio including their first drafts, peer-review sheet, and final essay along with teacher feedback at the end of the course. The results showed that applying the peer feedback technique to L2 writing activities helped reduce the teacher's workload, developed and sharpened students' critical thinking skills which are important in university-level work, and promoted students' L2 literacy skills in a collaborative learning setting. The authors discuss the pedagogical implications with the goal of developing the students' critical thinking, literacy, and collaborative skills and reducing teachers' working load as well.*

Introduction

In the context of education, it is important to note that most exams whether they are assessing foreign language abilities or not, regularly rely on the students' writing proficiency to assess their knowledge (Harmer, 2004). This statement suggests that writing is the most demanding skill to be taught at the National University of Mongolia as part of an Academic English course at all levels including pre-intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate, and so on. At both pre-intermediate and intermediate levels, we teach the process of paragraph writing, while at the upper-intermediate and advanced levels we teach how to write an essay at an academic level. Learning to write academically at university instills literacy skills and confidence into students to express their opinions and ideas in written form and helps them continue studying and working successfully in their future academic lives and desired fields. However, as one of the productive skills, learning to write is a difficult task for many learners, especially in the second language (L2) (Allan and Vallette, 1981). For many Mongolian students, writing coherently without any grammatical mistakes is probably the most challenging endeavor among the four language skills. Moreover, progress in this skill comes gradually with a lot of effort and time by both students and teachers, so it tends to be considered the most boring and difficult task (Oyunzaya, 2009). Hence, the teacher faces the challenge of exploring various teaching techniques such as "how people actually learn to write in a second language and how teaching contributes to this learning" (Hedgcock & Ferris, 2005, p. 3) to make the class much more enjoyable and support the students' L2 writing development.

In teaching writing, most teachers have their students write a well-developed paragraph or essay. In writing these essays, students usually make various and numerous grammatical, structural and logical mistakes. After students hand in their written work, the teacher corrects their mistakes and provides feedback which requires the teacher to be engaged in a lot of time-consuming draft-response-revision cycles. According to Peterson (2010), error correction and feedback can help

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students to build up their L2 writing development and other academic skills; nevertheless, providing corrective feedback is quite hard for teachers who have tight session schedules and classes with more than 25 students in one group, since students want all their mistakes to be corrected and need to receive clear, explicit and positive feedback. To achieve that goal, the teachers are frequently engaged in massive written commentary or teacher feedback at various points through the draft-response-revision cycle. According to Hedgcock and Ferris, "In most instances, teacher response represents the single largest investment of teacher time and energy, much more than time spent preparing for or conducting classroom sessions" (2005, p. 185). For teachers, spending massive time responding to student writing and providing the potential benefits of their feedback is a complex and challenging endeavor. In the 1970s and 1980s, L1 composition scholars were stating a number of advantages and benefits of multiple types of peer feedback. Moreover, both L1 and L2 teachers and researchers have claimed that peer feedback activities in the classroom contribute a number of benefits (Hedgcock & Ferris, 2005). Hence, we focused on the several advantages of "peer feedback" (also called "peer review") in reducing the teacher's workload, building the students' critical skills, and supporting the collaborative learning process. We further hypothesized that employing the peer feedback method in L2 writing instruction can be an appropriate solution to solve the problems that we are currently facing.

Peer review is an important part of mental life and an effective teaching approach for developing critical thinking abilities in students. (Developing Critical Thinking through Peer Review, 2016). In fact, English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching has not been separated from the discussion on the significance of implementing critical thinking into the instructional process. "Critical thinking is the intelligently self-controlled process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and/or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action." (Harits, 2006, p. 186). In peer review, the students read fellow students' paragraphs or essays and contribute their valuable suggestions and corrections to fellow students' L2 literacy skills. The process also allows students to build the critical thinking skills needed while they are analyzing and responding to others' writing. In other words, "It focuses on the writing process, improves critical analysis skills, and allows them to improve their work before it is graded. Peer editing generally refers to commenting on a paper's organization, tone, format, flow, grammar, punctuation, and so on" (Rollinson, 2005, p 22).

Such opportunities to engage in "peer feedback," when well managed, can help students improve their reading and writing skills as well as learn how to collaborate effectively while maintaining a critical attitude. Richard stated that "the effective writer frequently has to pause, go back, reread, rethink, consult with other writers, rewrite, and write some more, he or she must be able to concentrate intensively on the composition" (2003, p. 104-105). Becoming an effective writer, therefore, involves students in a collaborative learning process. In addition to revising their work in light of the peer commentary on their rough drafts, students probably also need help from their teacher or peers before the actual writing begins and again later, to stimulate thinking. At that point, peer feedback also encourages the students' collaborative learning activity which allows them to ask questions or suggest strategies as well.

We will first analyze pieces of literature that examine the application of the peer review method in writing class. Then we will detail how we implemented peer review in five groups of 126 students in three stages: pre, during and post peer review. We will also provide the peer revision and peer editing checklists we used in our teaching. The outcomes of this approach and procedure will be presented in the results section.

Literature Review

Harmer (2004) identifies four stages in the writing process. The writer plans and develops ideas in the first stage, which is planning. The writer's ideas are transformed into words and phrases in the second stage, drafting. The third step is editing, in which the writer returns to his or

her draft and makes changes such as adding materials, modifying ambiguous information, fixing something that is unclear or confusing, and rephrasing. A final stage is a ready-to-serve text after the draft has been edited, reflected on, and revised. On the other hand, in the "College Writing" textbook used in our university Academic English classes, the writing process is organized into three steps: (1) gathering information, (2) focusing and organizing, and (3) drafting, editing and revising. When it comes to developing high-quality ready-to-serve writing, the editing and revising section is essential. However, in the "College Writing" textbook used in our university Academic English classes, inexperienced students rarely have the competence to edit their initial draft with acceptable quality in the final editing and revising step. They seldom provide their instructors with well-corrected final drafts, which shows that their capacity to self-edit is very limited. Employing the peer feedback method in L2 writing instruction can mitigate those drawbacks besides encouraging students to read peers' writing, notice their mistakes, share opinions, give suggestions, and get benefits. A number of English teachers and researchers also emphasized the benefits of peer feedback and error correction in reducing the teachers' workload both outside and in the classroom. Hedgcock and Ferris (1998) state that peer feedback plays an important role in writing, and it is considered an essential tool for both teachers and students while responding to students' written work. Truscott (1996) also claims that error correction is a vital factor for students in order to enhance their ability to write accurately and fluently.

Peterson (2010) found that the peer feedback method has the greatest impact in the following situations:
1. When writers are stuck, peers can use suggestions to assist them in moving forward with their writing.
2. When reading others' writing, peers ask for clarification on something that is unclear or missing information.
3. When they discover something incoherent or unclear, peers express their emotional response to the writing by laughing, becoming annoyed, or hesitating.
4. Peers cast doubt on the veracity of specific ideas or literary details.

We examined the benefits of peer feedback when it is employed in teaching writing. There are several main reasons, according to Rollinson (2005), that teachers must choose peer feedback in the ESL writing classroom. For starters, it could be one way to reduce the number of errors the students make in their work before submitting their draft to the teacher (Ur, 1996). This assertion is backed up by Hyland and Hyland (2006) who argue that providing feedback and correction during the writing process, rather than at the finish, is more beneficial. Second, peer responding might inspire students to contribute in writing conferences where they can learn a lot from one another to enhance their work (O'Malley and Pierce, 1996). Peer response or peer review can be done efficiently in small groups or pairs where their collaboration is enhanced. Lastly, becoming a critical reader of other people's writing may lead to students becoming more critical readers and revisers of their own work. As a result, they can extend their own opportunities to learn how to write (O'Malley and Pierce, 1996). However, when adopting the peer feedback technique, teachers may run into various problems. Some students have a proclivity to rely solely on the teacher's answer (Hyland, 2003 and Harmer, 2004). Consequently, they will disregard the advice of their peers. Furthermore, students prefer to focus on sentence-level issues rather than ideas and organizations while delivering criticism (Hyland, 2003). Therefore, the instructor's support is required to ensure that the students understand how to give constructive feedback and how to modify their own drafts depending on the comments of their peers in order to improve their writing quality (Widiati, 2004).

Some studies have differentiated between providing and receiving feedback in an academic setting (Bart, 2018). Bart (2018) compares "the effects of providing versus receiving peer feedback on students' performance in the context of an authentic academic writing assignment". In his study, 136 students at the Research-Intensive University of Netherlands participated by filling in both pre-test and post-test questionnaires. After receiving eight weekly lectures in which participants covered two topics—family pedagogy and educational sciences—they were required to write and submit a draft essay on one of those two topics. The peer feedback step took place in

week 7. After that, students' critiqued drafts were given back for revising, and students submitted a final version of their essay in week 8. Criteria were designed to assess academic essays' content, structure, and style. The results of this study showed that both peer feedback providers and receivers improved from draft to final essay.

Zhang (2018) expanded the idea of peer feedback to an examination the way online resources impacted EFL student writers' development of critical thinking skills, a practice which is largely ignored in the writing classroom by focusing on grammar and structure instruction. His case study aimed "to call EFL writing teachers' attention to the importance of teaching critical thinking as well as to provide them with an accessible tool for adopting and using supplementary materials in the classroom while developing their students' critical thinking skills in regard to the construction of effective writing". He conducted a week-long case study among the English-major freshmen at a top university famous for its excellence in English teaching in China. All participants were informed about the nature of the study at the beginning of the semester. The results of the study demonstrated that students obtained knowledge on how online writing resources could be utilized for text analysis, evaluation, and regulation. Moreover, it was shown that there is an effective relationship between the use of online resources and the development of students' critical thinking skills.

Procedure and methodology

This study explores techniques that can be used in developing the writing skills of students who are learning Academic English at the upper-intermediate level to reduce the teacher's correction workload, develop students' critical thinking skills, and support collaborative learning with the aid of peer feedback. In the autumn semester of the academic year 2021, we applied this strategy in five groups totaling 126 students learning Academic English at the upper-intermediate level at NUM. We employed peer review three times in our courses, starting with the moment the students began writing the entire essay after they had been taught the structure of the essay and writing methodology according to the College Writing 3 textbook. We divided the peer-review process into three main phases: pre-peer review, during-peer review, and post-peer review.

Pre-peer review

We first provided explicit instructions to students in this phase since the majority of them did not know or did not have any experience on how to make comments on their peers' writing in a precise and constructive way. Furthermore, we discovered that, despite the fact that their textbooks provide exercises with criteria for self-editing student papers, students frequently lack a thorough comprehension of the criteria instructors employ when marking papers. As a result, we distributed a self-composed checklist with the essay criteria along with the sample essay, and we collaboratively and interactively edited and reviewed the essay according to the criteria in order to model or provide a well-guided example on how to review peers' work. We identified the essay's strengths and advantages while doing so, and we gave comments together on that.

Second, to avoid negative outcomes such as ambiguous positive responses and the misunderstanding of the peer feedback process, we taught and explained the value of peer feedback. The following points were covered when we emphasized the significance of peer review to the students:
- Students would develop some important skills that are essential for peer review. Reading ability is required to identify a writer's main point and locate points of support or relevant data; writing ability is required to write clear, specific comments and questions; and collaboration skills are required to work in pairs and formulate critiques in a descriptive and constructive manner.
- Peer review is not only a requirement for the course, but it is also an important component of the writing process. Even if we do not agree with or appreciate every comment provided

by peers, peer review is beneficial since it aids the writer in determining which parts of the work are effective and which are confusing, incomplete, or unconvincing. To illustrate, a writer may learn from a peer reviewer that a paper's weakest point is its introduction, that the paper's main point or thesis is not yet clear, that there are gaps in the logic or support that weaken the paper's effectiveness, or that a paper's conclusion presents an intriguing idea but leaves the reader with unanswered questions.

- Completing academic writing assignments helps students prepare for professional work. Whatever students undertake after graduation, the quality of their ideas and works will be measured in large part by their ability to communicate effectively in writing to a variety of audiences. Peer critique can assist them in developing their writing language as a means of communication with readers.
- Students should obtain a better knowledge of the writing standards by engaging in peer review. It also gives students useful knowledge, ideas, and insights to help them better their own writing through revisions.

We asked the students to work on their essays in pairs, recognizing that they are more engaged in learning and working together, which allows them to learn from one another. Before arriving at class, pairs were given the task of gathering as much information as possible about the essay topic. They worked in pairs in class to discuss their essay strategy or outline, and to pick which facts or examples to include in their essay. Following that, they collaborated on a first draft of the essay, which included four paragraphs: an introduction, two body paragraphs, and a conclusion. We thought it was vital to avoid forcing students to produce an essay with too many paragraphs when using peer review because students' interest in reading fluctuates depending on the size of the text. The longer the text, the more likely they are to get lethargic, bored, or careless in their reading in order to finish quickly, and the smaller the text, the more active they are in reading. Thus, we requested a four-paragraph essay when employing the peer-review technique.

Because it is easier for them to grasp a typed essay than a handwritten one, students were told to have self-edited their first draft, typed it in Word, printed it, and had it ready for peer review when they arrive for the next class. When typing their essay, they were also asked to use a Times New Roman typeface with a font size of 12 and a line spacing of 1.15. As a result, their writing fitted on one A4 sheet and was suitable for being edited and critiqued.

During-peer review

Before practicing peer review in class, students worked on the essays they had co-written previously, printed them out, and brought them to the next class. The teacher exchanged and distributed their writings to other pairs of students for peer feedback. The following two checklists, which had been used when the instructor modeled to students how to review the work in the pre-peer review phase, were also given to all pairs for their editing and reviewing the assigned essay.

№	Revision Checklist	Comments
	Names of the writers:	
	Names of the readers (reviewers):	
1	Does the essay have a clear *thesis statement* (main idea) in the introduction?	
2	Is there a *topic sentence with a clear controlling idea* in each body paragraph?	
3	Does each controlling idea in the body paragraphs clearly related to the main idea in the thesis statement?	
4	Are there *main points* to develop the controlling idea in body paragraphs?	
5	Is each main point adequately supported with *supporting details/ specific details*?	
6	Are appropriate *transitions* used where necessary?	

7	Are there any *quotations* that support the paragraph's main points? Is the *format of the in-text citations* right?	
8	Are the *sentences* *clear and direct*? Can they be understood on the first reading? Are the sentences varied in length and structure? Could any sentences be improved by combining or restructuring them?	
9	Are the *words* in the essay clear and precise?	
10	Does the essay have *an effective conclusion*—one that emphasizes the main idea and provides a sense of completeness?	
11	What is the best part of the essay?	
12	What is the weakest part of the essay?	

Table 1. Revision checklist

Once they finished revising their peers' essays, they shifted their attention to the finer details of editing and proofreading their work. In this case, they used the following editing checklist.

Names of the writers:		
Names of the editors:		
№	**Editing Checklist**	**Comments**
1	Is each sentence clear and complete?	
2	Is it possible to improve any short, choppy sentences by combining them?	
3	Can any long or wordy sentences be rephrased to be more concise or broken down into shorter units and recombined?	
4	Does each verb agree with its subject?	
5	Are all verb forms correct and consistent?	
6	Are pronouns used to refer to the nouns? If so, are their reference unmistakably clear?	
7	Is each word spelled correctly?	
8	Are the punctuation and capitalization correct?	

Table 2. Editing checklist

They discussed the essay with each other as they read it together as a pair, using the checklist as a guide. Students debated, discussed, and raised questions about some of the essay's flaws during the peer review. If they had any doubts, disagreements, or problems, they turned to the teacher for guidance. Besides, they were told to add a notation regarding any apparent errors on the sheet of printed essay using a different colored pen. We also reminded them that when checking and commenting according to the checklists, if there was a well-written section that met the criteria, they should have written a positive comment highlighting the strong point, and if there was a poorly-written part, they should have offered their suggestion in an empathetic but honest and objective manner. Despite the fact that the participants in this experiment were studying at the upper intermediate level, their language proficiency varied. Therefore, we allowed them to employ code-switching for their questions and comments.

After peer review, their essays were returned to the owners along with the peer feedback. Following that, we explained how to work with peer review and that authors should keep a sense of ownership over their writing without feeling disappointed or offended. Furthermore, we advised our students to be aware that they are not obligated to utilize all of the comments if they believe those suggestions will not help their essay. In other words, we advised that students must be skeptical of peer feedback. They were then instructed to use their peer review to edit their essay at home, type their final draft, print it, and attach it to their first draft and the checklist sheet for peer review.

Post-peer review

The instructor gathered the students' final drafts along with their first drafts and peer-reviewed checklists, examined, and assessed them in the following class. From these three pieces of materials, the instructor could determine whether students actively participated in peer review and how diligently they worked. A special bonus of 2 points was provided to those who worked hard and did a good peer-review so as to promote their involvement. This served as an incentive for them to engage actively in subsequent peer reviews.

As a result of this process, students had a portfolio that included the first draft, peer review sheet, and final document with teacher feedback. At the end of the semester, each student got three sets of materials relating to the three essays they had submitted. In consequence, as the semester unfolded, they could keep track of their progress and evaluate themselves.

Results

The findings show a substantial difference in the students' writing and reviewing abilities before and after they were taught utilizing the peer-feedback approach. Both instructors were quite satisfied with this strategy after implementing it in their classrooms in the previous semester. Their satisfaction came from the following results:

1. Prior to incorporating peer input, students used to self-edit, self-revise according to the textbook's exercise instructions, and then hand in their final manuscript to the teacher. We adopted the strategy of co-writing in pairs to limit the number of people editing essays and make our work simpler at the time, but we had to red pen the entire content and write a lot of remarks. However, after using this strategy, we had a lot fewer red-pen corrections, and many of the comments that had previously been remarked on were no longer needed. The reason for this is that the majority of the comments we used to write were added as criteria in the revision and editing checklists. Consequently, if we come across an error related to the criteria in the checklist, it was enough to comment using a short keyword. Second, the structure of the students' essays began becoming practically flawless, and they were able to develop their essays in a coherent manner while staying true to the main idea of the essay. Minor grammar errors, such as subject-verb agreement, pronoun reference, spelling, and capitalization issues began to decrease as well.

2. A comparison of the three peer evaluations completed by the students revealed that they improved their editing skills. In the third experience, they performed much better than in the prior two peer assessments. In their first peer review, most of the essay faults went undetected or disregarded, and authors occasionally unnecessarily altered a correct text. They also ignored a minor number of comments. However, in the final peer review, in addition to asking more confident questions and making numerous comments, they discovered a far larger number of mistakes. This demonstrates that their ability to read, edit, and review the work of others had improved.

3. We also believe that the examples of instructor feedback provided in their final versions contributed to their increased ability to review, and reinforced the understanding and ability they gained during peer review. Furthermore, having the chance to edit and assess the work of others using the same criteria used for their own papers greatly improved their ability to be critical of their own and others' work. This was evident in the fact that the quality of the essays they produced increased with practice, as did the quality of criticism they provided to others' papers. In brief, we were able to achieve our main goal of improving our students' writing skills by employing this strategy.

4. Writing in pairs and reading, editing, and evaluating others' work together taught students to collaborate with others. At first, some of them tended to be passive, quiet, uncomfortable, and they made their own decisions without consulting their partners. Nevertheless, as a result of their pair-working practices, they became more open, friendly,

and collaborative. They started easily conversing in class, especially during the pair writing and pair review, and were full of genuine laughter at times. Some of them split their duties to save time and then supervised each other's work. The collaboration not only allowed them to discuss, exchange ideas, and look at issues from a different perspective but also gave them the opportunity to become real partners or close friends. Furthermore, they were able to fill up the gaps in their knowledge by learning from and explaining to one another.

Discussion and conclusion

This paper explored techniques that can be adopted in the L2 literacy skills development of students who are learning Academic English at the upper-intermediate level at NUM. Specifically, three research questions were asked: (A) Can students acquire critical thinking skills via the employment of a peer feedback approach? (B) Can a teacher's working load be reduced as a result of utilizing peer feedback in the classroom? (C) Can peer feedback techniques encourage the students' collaborative learning activity?

Through the peer-review process conducted in three main phases such as pre-peer-review, during-peer-review, and post-peer-review, the critical thinking skills were tested especially in both the during-peer-review and post-peer-review phases. Our study results showed that both writers' and readers' critical thinking skills could be gradually developed while they are involved in peer-review activities. In particular, we found that the writers' critical thinking skills had dramatically been developed when they returned the last portfolio. The writers could recognize their common mistakes which are also made by their peers while they are reviewing peers' writing so we believe that this process allows the writers to criticize their and others' writing. This conclusion is based on the students' positive responses to the end-of-project questionnaire. Similarly, Bart's (2018) study illustrated that the L2 literacy skills of peer-review provider and receiver equally were enhanced from draft to final essay.

As regards the reduction of teachers' workload, our findings confirmed that adopting the peer feedback method as a facilitator for teacher reviewing work is an effective tool in L2 writing instruction. Hedgcock and Ferris (2005) claim that teacher review occupies the single largest investment of teacher time and energy; each of us used to spend extremely much time reviewing around 90 students' drafts and final essays per semester of the academic year before testing this method in our writing classroom. In addition to the teacher's benefit, most students also enjoyed the peer review activities in spite of experiencing a little challenge making unconfident commentaries on their fellow students' work on the first portfolio.

The answer to the third research question could clearly be found in the while-peer-review phase. Richard (2003) argues that collaboration plays a significant role for students to become effective writers since it requires them to pause, go back, consult with other writers, rewrite, and focus intensively on the composition. Our results showed that the during-peer-review phase encourages students' collaborative learning skills. Also, we observed that peer response activities tend to build classroom community.

Finally, the findings of this study indicated three considerable outcomes from the employment of peer feedback in the L2 writing classroom. As L2 teachers in both high school and university, we hope that other EFL teachers in those settings may find the effective results that we have experienced by adopting the peer feedback techniques in their writing development classroom … with their own modification of our procedures.

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APPLYING CONCEPT MAPPING PRINCIPLE IN POWER-POINT PRESENTATIONS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

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Abstract: *The effectiveness of power-point presentations (PPTs) on language learning has been controversial, even if it is widely used in language teaching and learning today. PPTs are being criticised for its ineffectiveness on students' learning performance, especially in terms of its pedagogical weaknesses. Therefore, this study aims to investigate whether the use of concept mapping (CM) in PPTs will increase the effectiveness of PPTs in language classrooms by minimising its pedagogical weaknesses. In this study, 60 students at National University of Mongolia (NUM), were divided into two groups, one of which was an experimental group where PPTs were used with CM, and the other one was a control group where basic/conventional PPTs were used. A pre-test and post-test, followed by a fact-gathering questionnaire were used to determine the effectiveness of this combined method (CM + PPTs). This study will be beneficial for the Mongolian language teachers who use, or are going to use PPTs in their classrooms. In other words, language teachers will be able to identify PPTs' weaknesses, and learn how to use PPTs effectively in their classrooms. The research result shows that students who attended a class with the combination of CM graphics and PPTs had higher test performance and positive attitudes towards this combined approach.*

Keywords: *power-point presentation, concept mapping, learning performance, pedagogical weakness, constructivist approach, meaningful learning.*

Introduction

PPTs are widely used in language teaching and learning in various contexts. There are many research works done on the usefulness of PPTs by comparing it with a traditional language teaching method, especially within the contexts where English is taught as a foreign language (EFL). As it was shown, language learners are more likely to prefer PPTs in EFL contexts. Although PPTs are shown to be preferred by students, there are mixed findings on its effectiveness on learners' performance. These mixed results are explained, especially in relation to PPTs' pedagogical weaknesses. Adams (2006) criticized PPTs as pedagogically ineffective since it recommends bulleted points which decontextualize the contents by putting them into separate and isolated points. Kinchin, Chadha, and Kokatailo (2008), and Hay, Kinchin, and Lygo-Baker (2008) suggested using CM in PPTs in order to make it more effective and useful in the classroom. The idea of using CM in PPTs was not originally developed for the language classrooms, but it was for the science subjects.

However, this combination can also be used in language teaching. In other words, when CM is applied in PPTs, it will minimize the pedagogical weaknesses of PPTs, by diminishing its bulleted points, and offering more interactive graphics. Those interactive graphics enable students to see the relationships between the main ideas of the content which will make them think deeper, by giving them a deeper understanding on the given topic. Therefore, this study tries to show the importance of using Concept Mapping and PPT combination in language teaching and learning.

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Literature Review

There are many research works which show the advantages of PPTs in language teaching and learning within various contexts, especially with regards to learners' positive attitudes towards it. Al-Dersi and Alkash (2013) carried out a study in EFL context (Libya) among 111 university students aged between 21-23 to examine the effectiveness of PPTs by using interview and classroom observation methods. According to Al-Dersi and Alkash (2013), the students liked PPTs because it helped them to understand complex ideas and theories in an easy way, and it made the class more interactive by motivating the students, and making them engaged in the lessons. As the study showed, the students had positive attitudes towards PPTs, as well as it was beneficial to their learning achievements. This study did not use any performance test or exam except for the interview and observation which can influence the validity of its results and findings. However, its results were supported by other works in different contexts. For instance, Oommen's (2012) study on the investigation of learners' perception on PPTs and the effectiveness of PPTs on students' learning performance indicated the same results as the previous work. Oommen's focus was 50 Saudi Arabian male students at the Preparatory Year Programme (college) aged between 18 – 20 who were learning English as a compulsory subject. The study used a survey questionnaire to find out the students' preference and final exam for assessing their achievements. The students who had PPTs in their lessons outperformed the students who had traditional oral classes in their final exam. The study also showed higher preference ratings on PPTs among the students.

Although learners' positive attitudes towards the use of PPTs in the classroom have been illustrated and confirmed by many research works as discussed above, the benefits of PPTs on students' learning performance have been problematic, and there are three different views on it. Some research works like the ones mentioned above (Oommen, 2012; Al-Dersi and Alkash, 2013) illustrate that PPTs are more beneficial to the students' learning performance than traditional strategies while others argue that PPTs are as effective as traditional ones or they are equally beneficial. There are also a few works which illustrate that PPT is less effective than conventional classes. For example, Corbeil (2007) showed the equal effectiveness of PPTs and *textbook + blackboard* strategies (traditional way of teaching). Corbeil's study was done among 105 Canadian second-year university students who were learning French as a second language. The students gave a pre-test and post-test followed by a questionnaire on the effectiveness of PPTs. During the experiment, the students were divided into two groups based on their preference and test scores. More students preferred classes with PPTs, yet the students were grouped into two groups with equal numbers. The result of the study on the students' preference and attitudes towards PPTs was the same as the previous ones (more preference and positive attitudes). Students who used PPTs all liked PPTs due to its additional examples, clarity of explanations, visual effects, interactivity, and accessibility. Some students found its lively, eye-catching, and colourful slides very useful and effective. However, a few students commented that PPTs were distracting because of its drab and inappropriate colours. The students who had a traditional classroom liked the traditional way of teaching as the materials were stated explicitly with adequate examples. There was not significant difference in the two groups' exam results in both pre-test and post-test. As the study showed, the students had higher preference in PPTs, yet PPTs were as effective as conventional classroom strategy.

There is also another research by Bartsch and Cobern (2003) done in Texas within 39 university students in Social Psychology class (not language class). It used different types of assessments such as recording, quizzes, different types of rating surveys after each class and at the end of the semester to identify the effectiveness of PPTs. This study focused more on the content of PPTs and used three different types of structures in its presentations as text only, text plus relevant items, and text plus irrelevant items. It was shown that students' attitudes towards PPTs have become more positive throughout the study. In other words, the number of students who preferred PPTs increased at the end of semester compared to rating surveys after each class.

However, there was lower performance on quizzes which was explained in relation to the irrelevant non-text items on PPTs. As the study showed, when non-text items or graphics were irrelevant to the context on the presentation it was more distracting and caused low performance as well as it decreased learners' enjoyment, whereas relevant graphics or pictures were found to be neither helpful nor harmful. It was said that relevant non-text items can be more useful for difficult, complex, and abstract items. Therefore, it reminds teachers to be careful when deciding what to include and how to include in PPTs. As Bartsch and Cobern argued, using only text in PPTs can be less time consuming and more appropriate for simple declarative information. Ögeyik (2016) carried out an experiment on the efficacy of PPTs and conventional lectures among the students at teacher training programs. This study was special as its participants were 89 students who were trained to become English language teachers at a Turkish university (around 20s). The results were discussed based on a pre-test and post-test, followed by a questionnaire. According to this study, a conventional lecture/discussion was more beneficial than a PPT lecture because the students found the former type more interactive and engaging as it was more beneficial, especially to their professional and academic developments. Students who had conventional class had higher performance on the tests than the ones with PPTs. The lower performance of PPTs was explained with regards to the lack of discussion in the classroom due to the lecturer's dominant talk and strict order of the slides. Ögeyik showed that PPT was not so effective in students' performance even if it had a higher preference rating.

As the above mentioned research works discuss, it is confirmed that students prefer PPTs to traditional ways of teaching. Students are more likely to prefer it because of its colours, fonts, lights, and visual images, as well as its contents and structures. However, its effectiveness on the learning performance is found to be quite controversial since those works show mixed results on it. It is supposed that those problems can arise in relation to its inappropriate formats, and irrelevant contents, as well as the way of the lecturer's delivery. Therefore, to make PPTs more effective, it is vital to pay attention to those things while designing and creating one's own presentations. In other words, teachers should choose more appropriate designs and formats, and more relevant non-text items, and deliver it more effectively by making students more active and engaged in the lessons.

Even though PPT is believed to be an effective tool in language teaching, it has been criticised, particularly in terms of its pedagogical weaknesses. Adams is one prime example figure who criticized PPT concerning its pedagogical disadvantages. Adams (2007) introduced some important pedagogical issues related to the use of PPTs in the classroom. According to Adams, the problems arise due to PPT itself and teachers' habituation to this tool. In other words, PPT itself suggests default templates with bullet points which were originally developed for business and marketplaces. Since this template was designed for different purposes to educational ones, it will definitely be problematic in this sector. As Adams argued, teachers use these bullet points more often instead of using more advanced versions of this tool as AutoContent Wizard which can be more helpful and beneficial. The reason for teachers' choosing this bullet pointed template can have some reasons as it is easy to use and less time-consuming and so on. When teachers use this template with bullet points which show key ideas of the content in a sequential/linear order, learners receive those points as the only truth which should be emphasized, and they do not think critically and creatively and they lack deeper understanding on the subject matter (Adams, 2007). According to Adams, this teaching creates a passive learning environment where a teacher becomes the only active participant and message delivery which then leads to a non-interactive and decontextualized environment. Teachers only focus on the slides and do not pay attention to their audience or learners (Adams, 2007). Adams also added that when a content is divided into bullet points, learners can hardly see the relationships between ideas and concepts. Hence, learning becomes meaningless and less effective.

Since PPTs are being under criticism due to its pedagogical weaknesses, language teachers need to pay attention to the effective use of PPTs in their classrooms. One of the best solutions can be applying other teaching strategies while using PPTs. There are some studies which suggest

some solutions on these issues in other areas. For instance, Kinchin et al. (2008), and Hay et al. (2008) developed the idea of using CM in PPTs. As they propose, CM can help learners see the relationships between the main ideas instead of isolated bulleted points as it suggests the graphics which emphasize the relationships between the concepts and ideas. Thus, students will be able to understand how the ideas are being connected to each other, and will be able to have a deeper understanding on that topic (Kinchin et al., 2008). Hence, the application of CM in PPTs can be one good solution to this issue.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

This study aims to determine whether the combination of CM and PPTs can be more effective than PPTs with bullet points in language teaching and learning in the Mongolian context. To do so, this study addresses the following   questions:
1. Does the combination of CM and PPTs enhance the students' performance?
2. What are the students' perspectives on the effectiveness of this combined method?
The first question will be answered with the help of performance tests (pre-test and post-test), and the second question will be answered with the help of a fact-gathering questionnaire on the effectiveness of the combined method by the students after the experiment. Then the overall effectiveness of this combined method will be analysed based on these findings/results.   The limitation of this study is that it only focuses on the students without any concerns with the language teachers in order to make the experiment more manageable and focused.

Methodology

Sampling

The participants were students from the National University of Mongolia, who have just enrolled at the university. There were 60 students aged between 17-19 who were equally divided into two different groups: experiment and control groups, each of which had 30 students. This sample can be quite small for quantitative research as it should represent the whole population of the university. However, in an experimental study, a sample should be selected in terms of its higher possibility of clarity in making comparisons (Punch & Oancea, 2014). This sample will enable the experiment to make its comparisons as clear as possible because these 60 first-year students have just finished their secondary school program and entered this university which requires them to have intermediate level of English. Thus, these students are more likely to have similar English language proficiency which will decrease the possibility of having more influencing control variables between independent and dependent variables.

Study design

It was a pre-structured experimental study which compared two groups with regards to their one dependent and one independent variable. In other words, one group was a treatment group where the combination of CM and PPTs was used and the other one was a control group where traditional PPTs (bullet pointed texts) were used. This experiment lasted for one semester at NUM. As there is a textbook provided by the university, both treatment and control groups followed the content of that textbook, but the ways of teaching varied. In the treatment group, their teacher (researcher) used CM graphics in PPTs to teach the content, while traditional bullet pointed PPTs were used in the control group by the same teacher. All the contents and texts were the same for both groups as they used the same textbook. Pre-test was taken at the beginning of the experiment, the first week of the semester. This test was taken for two purposes: one was for grouping students (in addition to the students' interests) and the other one was for keeping students' records. The post-test was taken at the end of the experiment, last week of the semester. The material of the

post-test was exactly the same for both groups which was based on the textbook content. The results of the both tests were used to compare the mean scores of the two groups. A fact-gathering questionnaire with 10 statements based on a five-point Likert summative rating technique ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), was given to the experimental group in order to analyse their perceptions on the use of CM graphics and PPT combination in their language learning.

Results

The students' pre-test and post-test scores were calculated through SPSS 16, and it shows no significant difference among the two groups' performance at the very beginning of the semester, but there was a meaningful distinction between the mean scores of the groups after the experiment (after the combination of CM and PPTs was applied to the treatment group). The treatment group's students' responses to the questionnaire (Table 2) show that the majority of the students who attended the class with the combination of   CM graphics and PPTs have positive attitudes towards this approach.

Tests	Students	Number	Mean Score
First Test	Treatment	30	17.43
	Control	30	17.49
Second Test	Treatment	30	19.49
	Control	30	17.59

Table 1. Results of the pre-test and post test

The test results show that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of both groups at the beginning of the semester. However, after the experiment, the students of the treatment group show a better performance compared to the other one.

SA(5)	A(4)	U(3)	D(2)	SD(1)
Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Statements	SA	A	U	D	SD	Mean
1. The use of CM in PPT made the lesson more interesting	18 / 60%	10 / 33%	2 / 7%	0 / -	0 / -	4.66
2. The lesson with CM was well-organised and understandable	14 / 47%	12 / 40%	4 / 13%	0 / -	0 / -	4.33
3. The use of CM made me more focused on the lesson	17 / 57%	10 / 33%	2 / 7%	1 / 3%	0 / -	4.50
4. CM helped me to improve my language knowledge	18 / 60%	11 / 37%	1 / 3%	0 / -	0 / -	4.83
5. I was required to take an extensive note	0 / -	0 / -	5 / 17%	17 / 57%	8 / 26%	4.16
6. I was able to have more systematic notes	19 / 63%	8 / 27%	2 / 7%	1 / 3%	0 / -	4.50
7. The lesson with CM was effective	12 / 40%	15 / 50%	1 / 3%	2 / 7%	0 / -	4.50
8. CM made me able to review key points during the class	17 / 57%	12 / 40%	1 / 3%	0 / -	0 / -	4.83

9. I prefer lessons without CM	0	0	4	14	12	
	-	-	13%	57%	40%	4.66
10. I prefer the use of CM in my class	20	9	1	0	0	
	67%	30%	3%	-	-	4.83

Table 2. Results of the fact-gathering questionnaire

As the mean scores (ranged from 4.16 to 4.83) of the questionnaire show, students have high perceptions towards the combined use of CM graphics and PPT in the language learning classroom.

Discussion

As the study results illustrate, the combined use of CM and PPTs increases the students' understanding on the given topic and plays an important role in their performance. Thus, in order to use PPTs more effectively by solving the pedagogical issues presented by some researchers including Adams (2006), teachers can use different types of approaches and strategies. For instance, as Vallance and Towndrow (2007) suggested, using interactive tasks will definitely be very useful and beneficial. However, this paper highly recommends one possible solution based on the literature by Kinchin et al (2008) and Hay, Kinchin, & Lygo-Baker (2008) as well as on this study results. In other words, what this paper would recommend is to use concept mapping techniques in PPTs.

So, *'What is CM?' 'Why should we use CM in PPTs?'* If language teachers use concept mapping techniques in their PPTs, it can create more meaningful learning which encourages learners' deeper understanding, critical and creative thinking. The ultimate purpose of contemporary language teaching and learning is meaningful learning. Hence, it should be emphasized and implemented in every language learning process. Concept mapping is a constructivist approach developed by Novak in 1972, which shows the relationships between ideas in a hierarchical/nonlinear way with the help of graphics. The aim of the concept mapping is meaningful learning. Hence, this technique can be used in PPTs because PPT has particularly been criticised for its bullet points which are structured in isolated and decontextualized formats that makes learning passive, rote, and meaningless.

Graph 1. An example of CM graphics

Although concept mapping is not commonly used in PPTs, particularly in language teaching environment, this study finds this combination very interesting and beneficial. Moreover, there are some other interesting study results regarding the use of CM in PPTs. For instance, Kinchin et al (2008) showed the benefits of the combination of concept mapping and PPTs based on their study results from 400 structured observations on university teaching of various academic disciplines. According to them, PPT gives teachers more opportunities to develop their own reflective construction of knowledge, and this knowledge can be constructed more effectively and

efficiently with the help of concept mapping. Moreover, when concept mapping is used in PPTs, learning will become more meaningful and beneficial because learners will be able to see the relationships between the main concepts, and will be able to have a deeper understanding of the content (Kinchin et al., 2010). Kinchin et al. highlighted the importance of the combination of concept mapping and PPTs not only in students' learning achievements but also in teachers' professional development. In other words, according to them, teachers will be encouraged to think deeper beyond the linear/surface structure when they use concept mapping in order to transform the knowledge accurately and efficiently to their learners. Furthermore, this structure makes learners think critically while giving them deeper understanding and knowledge on a content. Hay et al. (2008) criticized PPT due to its ill-structured linear bullet points, and suggested using concept mapping interactive tasks for its treatment. As they see, when teachers and students create their own maps on the same topic and have discussions on them, it will create more meaningful learning. Hence, when concept mapping techniques are applied in PPTs, it will be very advantageous because concept mapping can help to fix all the weaknesses of PPTs, especially by decreasing its pedagogical weaknesses, and enhancing its pedagogical benefits.

Conclusion

PPT is proven to be preferred by students as it attracts their attention with the help of its good-looking appearance as well as its simple and well-organised structures which help students to lessen or lower their cognitive overload for the understanding of difficult and complex concepts. However, the effectiveness of PPTs in students' learning performance has been controversial and problematic. Therefore, to make PPTs more effective and beneficial, teachers should know why they are using this tool in a specific context. In other words, the purpose of using this tool ought to be clear and concise. Once teachers know why they are using this tool, they will be able to decide how to use it. Technology and pedagogy should be considered equally important. Generally-speaking, when teachers use PPTs, they tend to pay more attention to its format than content which makes language learning less efficient. Therefore, teachers should be aware of the appropriate use of this tool in accordance with their learners' needs and purposes. Most importantly, to use PPTs more efficiently, teachers should have good knowledge and abilities to apply various pedagogical approaches and strategies within a specific context. The results of this study show higher preference of the students towards the effectiveness of the combined use of CM graphics and PPTs in the language classroom, and better learning performance as well. Students' positive attitudes towards PPTs is one big advantage for language teachers because it creates a more supportive atmosphere for their teachers to develop their own pedagogical skills by applying different methodologies in the classroom.

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PERSPECTIVES ON PRESENTATION-BASED LEARNING

Tumurkhuyag Battumur[1]

Abstract: *The presentation-based learning activities are the most effective way to improve students' active learning process among language-learning methodologies. At our Department of Foreign Languages, MNUMS, students of all levels are required to prepare a presentation 5-6 times according to the syllabus. We designed our syllabus in ways that the presentation will come towards the end of a chapter or series of lessons that focus on a particular language or skill area. Presentations are a great way to have students practise all language systems such as vocabulary, grammar, discourse and phonology and other core skills such as reading, speaking, writing and listening. Aim of the study is to determine effectiveness of presentation-based learning .In our study we used action research design: planning, actingand observing. The questionnaire, seminar class observation, and student interview were used for data collection. Presentations are a great way to practise a wide range of skills specially speaking skill and to build the general confidence in students. We find that students who are good at presenting are better communicators and they are more able to structure and express their ideas clearly. We are able to conclude that, self-confidence leads to a more positive outcome in the learning process.   A presentation is an effective way for students to share with others what they have learned.*

Keywords: *presentation-based learning, self-confidence, effective learning.*

Introduction

We all agree with that among many language learning strategies, presentation-based learning is regarded as the core method to build student's active learning. With this method students develop, organise, and present ideas and materials on a particular issue (Shaw, 2001) Presenting is itself an exercise in active learning: Students develop, organize, and 'present ideas and materials on an issue (Bonwell 1991; Adams & Hamm, 1994).

At our Department of Foreign Languages, MNUMS all level students must prepare presentations 5 to 6 times according to syllabus. We structured our syllabus so that the presentation occurs at the end of a chapter or set of lessons focused on a specific language or ability. During their studies, students learning General English should prepare at least 6 presentations, while students learning Medical English should prepare the same number of presentations. The quality and skill with which students present is determined by their English knowledge and preparation.

Presentations are a great way to have students practise all language systems areas such as vocabulary, grammar, discourse and phonology and skills like speaking, reading, writing and listening. During our language classes students are encouraged to use systematic methods to facilitate their presentations in the classroom. The foremost goal of emphasizing presentation skills in higher education is to help develop professionalism in the learning environment. In this era of technological advancement, students can improve their presentation skills using high-tech equipment, thus improving their ability to present information in a professional manner. In our country someemployers are displeased with the quality of fresh University graduates. Their main complaint is graduates poor communication skills. Those poor ratings are not generally associated with their academic experience, but the poor attitude and communication skills shown during interviews or in the workplace.

When students present and speak before the class, they mainly practice several skills such as speaking, communication and debatingskills as well as building self- confidence in speaking in

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the class. Students expressedthat the presentation improved their understanding of the course content, taught them to research independently, and encouraged better class interactions and group learning (Ghorbani&Ghazvini, 2016; Opitz & M, 2010). Active involvement in a class could bring satisfaction and enjoyment which increase the retention rate and better grades (Allen & Baughman, 2016).

When students received presentation-based tasks, active learning process happens continuously from preparation to the presentation performance before the class. During preparation, students are busy searching formaterials, reading different sources, browsing the internet, discussing with classmates or consulting with the lecturer, and preparing an interesting and structured power point slides.Moreover, students check their grammar and pronunciation.

According to Grimm (2015) and Brown (2004) students learn concepts better and gain an in-depth understanding when they write about them.   When students present the topic the most of them use the power point slides. Power point preparation requires students to read a lot and highlight the crucial points of the content in the slides. The use of power point in the classroom helps students to overcome the limitation and lack of traditional lecturers as a result of the ability to structure, organise and emphasize key points competently. (Apperson, Laws, & Scepansky, 2008; Daniels, Kane, & Rosario, 2007; Szabo & Hastings, 2000). Sugahara & Boland (2006) reported that involving power point media in learning promotes better attention from learners to enable them achieve higher retention rate as well as to encourage better participation rate.

Presentation-based learning activities are expected to inspire all students, when acting as a presenter or as an audience. During presentation-based learning all students are able to participate in the learning process actively. When a student acts as a presenter, he or she will take the preparation for their presentation seriously.When students are serving as an audience, they would pay more attention so that they can provide a proper assessment to their peer presentations (Baranowski & Weir, 2011; Shaw, 2001; Weimer, 2013).

Incidentally, students not only acted as an audience but also contributed to the process so that it promoted the development of active autonomous learning whereby students think reflectively and take responsibility (Wen & Tsai, 2006).

Several studies reported that proactive peer evaluation in higher education helps students to adopt a more self-directed attitude towards their learning and self-regulated learning that stimulate their learning process (Boud& Molloy, 2013; Carless, 2007;

The aim of this study and methods

The aim of this study is to determine effectiveness of presentation-based learning. In addition, our study aimed to enhance students' contribution and to strengthen self-confidence throughout their learning in the English class.

In our study we used action research design: planning, acting and observing methods. The questionnaire, seminar class observation, and student interview were used for data collection. Also we used an interview method. We conducted a Workshop: How to organize presentation based learning among medical students.

Our Department lecturers include explicit instructions in the syllabus about presenting requirements, such as what students will present on, how long it will last, how they will evaluate and be evaluated, and how much it will go toward the overall class grade. We say to students: "Your presentation will be evaluated by other class participants according to (a) the relevance of your presentation to the course theme; (b) academic vocabulary choice richness; (c) the length of your presentation; and (d) the manner and style of your presentation, (e) pronunciation

We evaluate our student's presentation in two ways: peer editing and teacher's evaluation. The procedure connects students with each other in a learning community (Scheff, 1997). They become both doers and evaluators in the learning process. Listening students learn from speaking students in subject matters while applying both class standards about presentation, as established by the instructor, and civil expectations toward public speech, as perceived in society, in their

evaluations (Rinehart, 1999). Speaking students learn from their role as listeners and judges, and internalize both class standards and civil expectations in their own preparation for and delivery of presentation (Killingsworth, Hayden, &Dcllana, 1999). The new approach encourages students to participate actively in the academic process.

Shaw (2001) reported that students involved in a significant learning effort invested in presentation-based activities where they demonstrated interest in their performance and evaluated other's presentations.

Also, self confidence is very important during presentation. Self-confidence can be defined as how a student feels about him or herself and of his or her abilities in learning (Briggs, 2014; Salim, 2015). Students with self-confidence, are more enthusiastic and persistent in their learning (Al-Hebaish, 2012; Pajares& Miller, 1994; Zimmerman &Kitsantas, 2005) because they pay more attention in class, get along better with their peers and have a more focused and inquisitive attitude (Miller, 2015). On the contrary, students with low self-confidence will most probably have negative feelings such as fear of failure, fear of humiliation, feeling inadequate and be anxious during the course delivery as well as towards the lecturer. They may refrain from speaking and actively participate in the classroom activities (Tuncel, 2015).Conversely, students with low confidence will most probably have negative feelings like fear of failure, being inadequate, fear of humiliation, and anxiety towards the lecturer and course during the class, and refrain from speaking and participating in classroom activities (Tuncel, 2015). Studies by Briggs (2014) and Tuncel (2015) confirmed a positive effect of self-confidence on students' achievements.

Many medical students feel less confident when speaking in front of large groups or in front of whole class. Presentations can be stressful and many students do not enjoy them and feel nervous when asked to present. To overcome these challenges, medical students need to be prepared. The following are four key elements to improving presentation skills among students suggested by Arumugam Muthusamy (2019)

1. English proficiency level: Students should be aware that enhancing their presentation skills will also improve their competency in communication as well as their proficiency in English. Being proficient in English is important because most jobs advertised require a good knowledge of English, and employers prefer their staff to be proficient in the language and be able write competently.

2. Create innovative ideas: Good presentation skills also help one come up with better ideas, find up-to-date information and develop creative thinking. It is common to see students using slides or other sources while presenting, making them feel comfortable in front of an audience. Presentation skills help create innovative ideas when students come up with creative and interesting slides to illustrate their talk. Active involvement in classroom presentations further prepares students for interviews, conferences, forums, workshops and debates.

3. Body language: Body language can be another effective communication tool. In order to attract the audience, the appropriate body language is important in every presentation. Students need to learn suitable skills and effective strategies to ensure the presentation is successful. Gestures and facial expressions help to communicate the students' feeling and emotions during their presentations.

4. Be well organised: In order to prevent mistakes and technical errors, students must prepare well for a presentation with a proper outline and structure, as well as a good vocabulary and practising pronunciation and intonation.

Student presentation feedback is very import. To develop and refine their presentation skills, students need practise and appropriate feedback on their performances. Presenters and listeners can benefit from feedback given immediately after a presentation. There are various ways of providing feedback on student presentations. Lecturers as well as students (peer feedback) may provide feedback. It can be delivered in written or oral form, on site or electronically at a later time (via e-mail).

Research suggests that more feedback may not automatically result in better student learning. (Hattie, John, Mark Gan, and Cameron Brooks.2017) Our lecturers of the Department of Foreign languages use Presentation feedback form to evaluate their student's performance. Also, we ask our students to evaluate their peers.

Department of Foreign Languages, School of Biomedicine, MNUMS

Student's Presentation Feedback form

Student's name and class _____

Lecturer's name _____

Topic _____

Date _____

Scale: 5= excellent, 4= good, 3- satisfactory, 2= needs improvement, 1=poor

Presentation skills					
1. Loudness of voice	5	4	3	2	1
2. Time management	5	4	3	2	1
3. PPT design	5	4	3	2	1
4. Confidence	5	4	3	2	1
5. Body language	5	4	3	2	1
6. Eye contact	5	4	3	2	1
Material					
1. Knowledge of topic	5	4	3	2	1
2. Organization	5	4	3	2	1
3. Content	5	4	3	2	1
4. Ability to answer questions	5	4	3	2	1
Language					
1. Pronunciation	5	4	3	2	1
2. Grammar	5	4	3	2	1
3. Fluency	5	4	3	2	1
4. Signaling words and phrases	5	4	3	2	1
5. Academic vocabulary	5	4	3	2	1

Comments:

Figure 1. Student's presentation feedback form

Department of Foreign Languages, School of Biomedicine, MNUMS

Oral Presentation Peer Feedback form

Your name and class _____

Name of presenter _____

Topic _____

Date _____

Scale: 5= excellent, 4= good, 3- satisfactory, 2= needs improvement, 1=poor

Presentation skills						
1. Loudness and speed	5	4	3	2	1	
2. Time management	5	4	3	2	1	
3. PPT design	5	4	3	2	1	
4. Confidence	5	4	3	2	1	
Material						
1. Facts presented were accurate	5	4	3	2	1	
2. The presenter answered questions well	5	4	3	2	1	
Language						
1. Pronunciation	5	4	3	2	1	
2. New words I have learnt	5	4	3	2	1	
3. Fluency	5	4	3	2	1	

Something I liked about the presentation:

Figure 2. Presentation peer feedback form

We conducted a survey among the first-year students of MNUMS. A total of 212 students, who came from different provinces of Mongolia were involved in our research. 78,6% were female and 21,4 % were male students. Our questionnaire consists of10 statements.
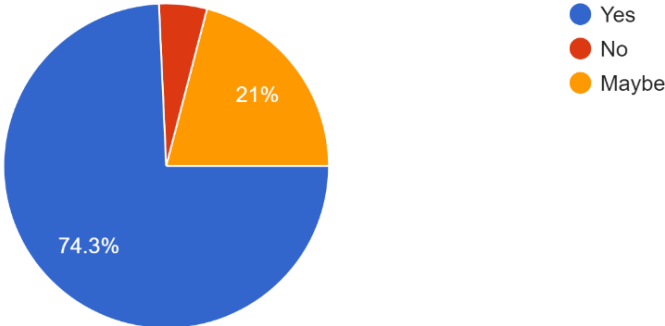

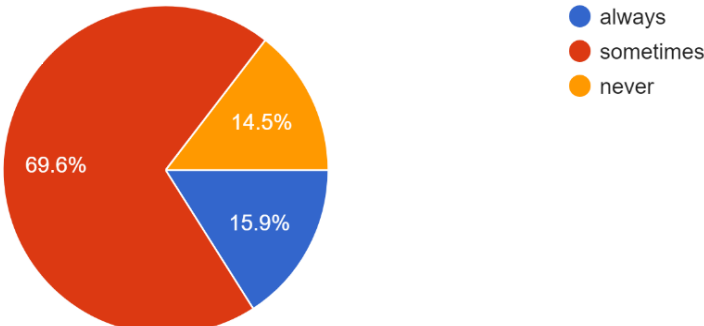Figure 3. Students' opinion on presentation class

Figure 4. Students feeling, especially nervousness when they present before class
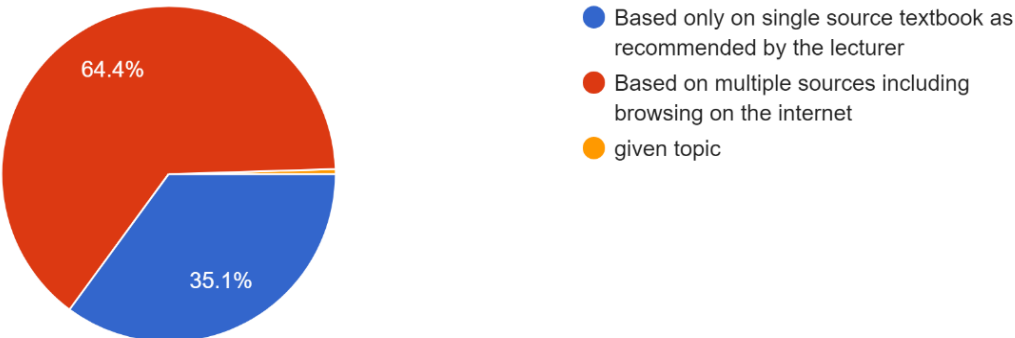

Figure 5. How students prepare the topic for presentation
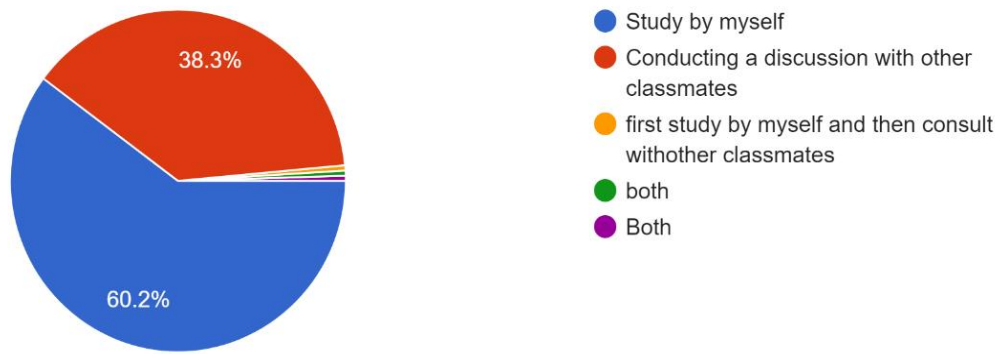
Figure 6. How students learn to understand the topic content
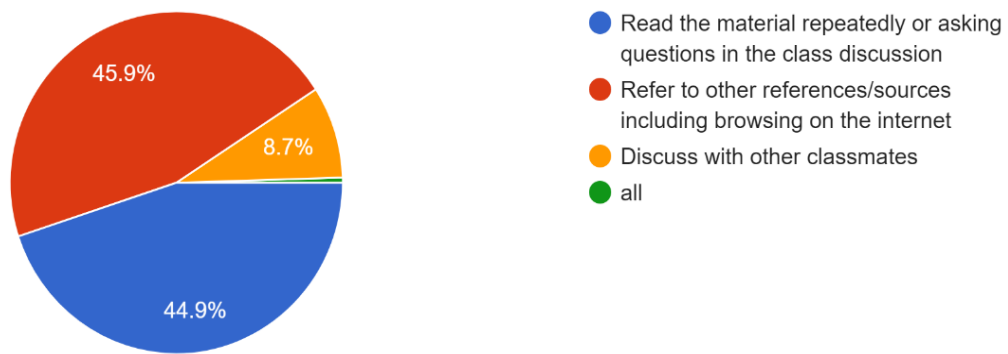
Figure 7. How students overcome difficulties to understand the topic

Figure 8. Power point contribution to their learning

Additionally, in our questionnaire we included following questions:

1) "What did you find to be most engaging or valuable in the process of preparing and giving a presentation to the class?"

2) "What were the greatest challenges for you in preparing and giving your presentation?" Students gave us different responses.

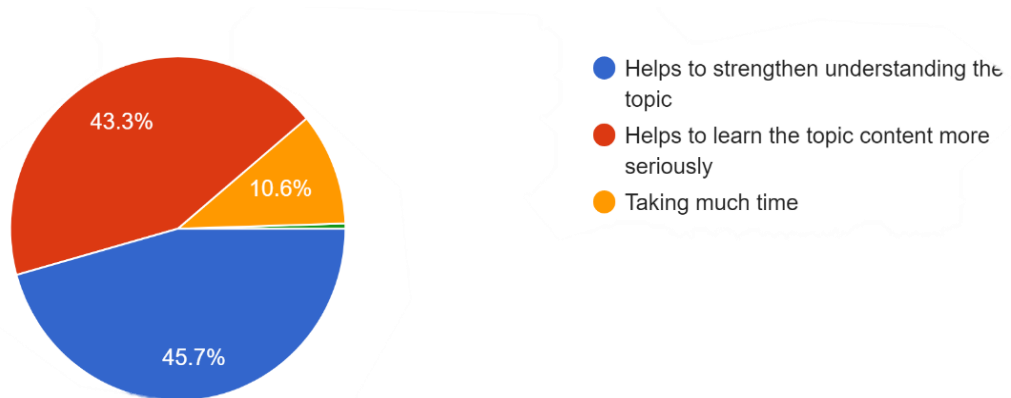| Students answers for a question: "What did you find to be most engaging or valuable in the process of preparing and giving a presentation to the class?"	Percentage of students' response
Presentation helped me to improve speaking and writing skills	76%
Have learnt many things from classmates	66%
Presenting before classmates was interesting	57%
Presentation helped to improve pronunciation	81%
Have learnt many academic vocabulary	62%
Improved self confidence	85%

Table 1. Students' answers for the Question 1

Students answers for a question: "What were the greatest challenges for you in preparing and giving your presentation?"	Percentage of students' response
I was nervous and forgot what I had prepared.	36%
It was difficult for me because of my not very good speaking skill.	30%
Was difficult to overcome shyness	23%
Poor knowledge of academic vocabulary	37%

Table 2. Students' answers for the Question 2

Also students made the following interesting comments:
a) Some presentation topics are too difficult to present.
b) They feel more confident after presenting.
c) While preparing for the PPT they learn numerous new findings.
d) Presentations help them to expand their knowledge of academic vocabulary.
e) They correct their misunderstanding during the research of their topic.

Findings

Based on our survey we found that the most of students (74,3%) like presentation- based learning. Nearly 70% of students felt nervousbefore presenting. The majority of students prepare for the presentation based on multiple sources including browsing on the Internet. In order to understand the content of topic about 50% of students learn by themselves and approximately 30 % of students prefer to conduct a discussionwith their classmates.

Students overcome difficulties found in understanding the topic in various ways. Almost 46% of students refer to other references and sources including browsing on the internet. On the other hand45% of students read the material repeatedly or asking questions in the class discussion. 8,7% of students discuss with other classmates.

Also we found that preparation of power point slides contributes to students learning. 45,7 % of students think that preparation of power point slides helps to strengthen understanding the topic. 43,3% of students consider that preparation of power point slides helps to learn the topic content more seriously. Only 10% of students suppose that preparation of power point slides takes much time. Our study confirmed that presentation helped to improve students' speaking and communication skills. Furthermore, while preparing they learnt numerous academic vocabulary.

Conclusion

Presentations are a great way to practise a wide range of skills specially speaking skill and to build the general confidence of your students. Our study showed that students with self-confidence, are more enthusiastic and persistent in their learning. We find that students who are good presenters are better communicators and they are able to structure and express their ideas clearly. We are able to conclude that, self-confidence leads to a more positive outcome in the learning process. Also, our presentation feedback forms are useful for lecturers and students. A presentation is a great way for students to share with others what they have learned.

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AN EXTENSIVE READING APPROACH
AT THE SCHOOL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES,
NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MONGOLIA

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Abstract: *The best way to improve our knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among its speakers. The next best way is to read extensively in it (Nuttal, 1982). Extensive reading is pointed as important and beneficial in recent literature. Extensive reading provides contextualized clues for better reading comprehension (Krashen, 1982), and substantial linguistic input (Bell, 1998) needed for language development. The correlation between extensive reading and specific linguistic skills have been found in various studies by many researchers. Reading choices, writing skills and oral communication improvement, and development in other language aspects all included. We tried to describe the nature of extensive reading, the reasons why extensive reading is important, and how is the best practice of extensive reading in EFL classroom in brief and suggested some useful.*

Keywords: *extensive reading*, *foreign language teaching and learning, language skills, language learning strategies' classification*

Introduction

In this paper we shall firstly give a short overview on reading, then focus on the benefits of extensive reading in a foreign language. Thirdly, we will think of ways to implement extensive reading in English into the 'School of Foreign Languages and Culture'

A brief overview on reading and on reading in EFL

'Reading is private. It is a mental, or cognitive, process which involves a reader in trying to follow and respond to a message from a writer who is distant in space and time' (Davies 1995:3). Interactive models describe reading acts as interactions between 'bottom-up' and 'top-down' processing (Eskey 1988). This definition and the models of reading are appropriate for reading in the first language, as well as for reading in a foreign language. But reading in a foreign language is different from reading in the first language because of what the reader brings to the reading process. Very often, the foreign language learner has the advantage of being a skilled processor, meaning that he has developed the necessary reading skills when learning to read in the first language, but lacks linguistic competence in the foreign language (Carrell 1988). We, teachers at the School of Foreign Languages divide reading into two categories. When we read intensively we read to achieve a clear aim, e.g. to gain a specific piece of information, whereas when we read extensive, we enjoy ourselves by reading a wide range of materials for pleasure. Although there is a lot of evidence that extensive reading promotes foreign language learning immensely, it is rejected by many language learners (Kim and Krashen 1997). Therefore, teachers should not only teach intensive reading, but emphasise extensive reading in their classes as well.

The case for and against extensive reading

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The benefits of extensive reading

The relevant literature shows that reading in a foreign language has a strong influence on successful language learning. Results of research on reading in the foreign language classroom might give clear evidence that reading is important for all language learning, and profound emphasis on reading programs in the foreign language classroom is well justified. Teachers understand reading as an extremely helpful activity for all language learners and consider it to be of high educational value (Gee, 1999). Krashen summarises the research done on 'Free Voluntary Reading' in different countries and continents. He points out, that 'Free Voluntary Reading' 'results in better reading comprehension, writing style, vocabulary, spelling and grammatical development'(1993:12).

Eskey and Grabe conclude after considering strategies and skills for reading such as 'top-down processing', 'bottom-up processing' and the 'interactive reading model', that the necessary skills and strategies can only be developed by reading over time. 'Classroom work can point the way but cannot substitute for the act itself: people learn to read by reading, not by doing exercises' (1988:228).

Extensive reading and language learning coexist in a 'symbiotic relationship' (Devine, 1988:268). Elley (1984) and Cooper (1984), conclude that even low-level students benefit from extensive reading and should be exposed to rich linguistic data. Reading promotes language competence and higher language competence leads to a higher reading ability.

Day and Bamford state that extensive reading plays an important role in becoming fluent in second language reading. The most important components on which fluency in foreign language reading depends are 'a large sight vocabulary; a wide general vocabulary; and knowledge of the target language, the world and the text types' (1998:16). The development of all these components is supported by extensive reading. Furthermore, Day and Bamford add to this cognitive view, that an extensive reading approach can help to change the language learners' attitudes towards reading in the foreign language and has the potential to motivate students to read in the foreign language. They emphasise the role of motivation and attitudes towards reading as crucial variables in a student's decision to read in the foreign language.

In summarising the relevant literature and the research, It can be said that at extensive reading in a foreign language has high outcomes not only from a linguistic, but from a psychological and educational point of view as well. Therefore, extensive reading should take place in the foreign language classroom more often than it does nowadays.

Why many teachers do not teach extensive reading

Although teachers know about the values of extensive reading in a foreign language, many do not implement extensive reading programs into their classes. Harmer (2001) and Day and Bamford (1998) see the following as various reasons for this:

o high costs for suitable reading material
o the workload to set up a program
o a too narrow time table
o a restrictive curriculum with a dominant reading skills approach and too much weight on accuracy
o the learners' low language level
o the learners' lack of willingness to read
o the different teacher role from the conventional one.

The above listed problem areas are not to be ignored and some of them cause real concern. Nevertheless, I strongly believe that most of these can be solved with reasonable effort. In the next section I will suggest some possible ways for teachers to do that.

Overcoming language barriers

Problems mentioned in the previous section can at least partially be solved. Well documented reading project reports, books and articles about extensive reading projects such as the 'E.P.E.R. Guide' (Hill 1992) provide guidelines and give excellent background knowledge on how to deal with the needs of students, teachers, the syllabuses and the funding bodies (Day and Bamford 1998, Nuttall 1996, Davies 1995, Hill 1992, Ellis and McRae 1991, Williams 1984).

Costs and resources: High costs are a serious problem, especially at the beginning of an extensive reading program. However setting up a library is an investment and with time the average costs per year will decline. Practical advice would be to start small and to put quality before quantity. Good books are not necessarily expensive. A small but well selected stock of books promises better success than a huge amount of unsuitable reading material. One book per student, plus an additional ten for variety is the absolute minimum to start a reading program. In the long run, the amount of books should be enhanced to a ten times bigger number than there are students in a course or program. Thus, the library will kept 'up to date' with relevant reading materials.

The workload for teachers to set up a reading program is very big indeed. The best way for coping with the problem is to gradually. The school needs to guide the teacher 'step by step' on how to install an extensive reading program, and where to pay special attention. In addition, they provide reading lists with pre-selected and graded reading materials, sometimes with comments. These help the teachers to save time and allow them to concentrate on other issues.

Reading material and learner level accordance: The discussion which reading material is appropriate for which student is not easy to answer. On one hand there are the proponents of authentic material. This is material, that was not written or adapted for language learners. The idea behind using authentic texts in reading programs is to prepare the learners to cope with language outside the classroom. This is done best by looking at 'real' language inside the classroom (Williams 1984). On the other hand there is the pedagogical need to manifest reading as a joyful and pleasurable activity. It is certainly not helpful to challenge the learners with too difficult texts. Harmer (2001) declares carelessly chosen authentic materials as extremely de-motivating for students because they do not understand it. Nuttall (1996) doubts that linguistically difficult texts are helpful in developing reading skills. She lists suitability of content, exploitability, readability, variety and presentation as equally or even more important criteria than authenticity when teachers pre-select material for the reading class. Lautamatti (cited in Davies 1984:184) suggests using simplified texts in the reading class as a ladder towards the next less simplified reader level and finally to reach authentic texts. This views correspond with Krashen's 'input hypothesis'. Students develop linguistically, when they are exposed to comprehensible input (Krashen 1985).

Syllabus and timetable: Too narrow timetables and restrictive syllabuses are further barriers a teacher has to   when he or she wants to introduce an extensive reading program in his or her classes. Day and Bamford (1998) believe, that time and space will be found by teachers and heads of schools, when the students' needs to become fluent and independent readers becomes an accepted goal. Furthermore, Krashen (1993) describes in his research overview that those who read extensively in a foreign language in and out of school achieve higher results in reading comprehension as well as in writing, vocabulary and grammatical development. These facts should convince every syllabus planner of the value of extensive reading and allow a change of priorities in a syllabus.

Lack of willingness and motivation: To persuade learners of the value of extensive reading is different from convincing their teachers, heads or parents. Factors determining the learners' attitudes towards reading in a foreign language are the socio cultural environment (family,

community, peers), the reading material and the individual characteristics (Aebersold and Field 1997). Of course, the teacher cannot change the students' socio-cultural environment and their previous experience as readers. However, the teacher can influence the present classroom situation by creating and supporting a reader-friendly and relaxed atmosphere, and by providing easy access to attractive and interesting material. I will discuss this in more detail in the section about my learners' attitudes and motivation.

Why involve my students in extensive reading?

At my school, School of Foreign Languages and Culture (SFLC)the students are 16 to 25 years old and are majoring in English. They receive various English instructions almost every day. During the four-year program the students are given between 120-130 credits of English instructions. However, they receive limited reading practice during their study at the university. In addition to the expected general benefits of an extensive reading program I have mentioned earlier, I see two more main reasons why an extensive reading approach is particularly justified and useful for my students.

Firstly, all my students are English majors and their future careers are likely to be in Language teaching, British and American Studies and their planned future studies are strongly related to these fields. In addition the literature relevant to these areas is published in English only. For my students, therefore, it is an absolute necessity to become fluent and independent English readers with highly skilled reading comprehension abilities. There is no doubt that extensive reading programs are the best strategy to achieve this.

Secondly, the students at the SFLC learn English in a non-English speaking environment and that can clearly not provide enough English language input. Because exposure to the target language is crucial for successful foreign language learning, a solution for this must be found. Here, an extensive reading approach can benefit by extending the English learning out of class, and by increasing the students' exposure to English at the same time. Nuttall brings this to the point when she states: 'The best way to improve your knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among its speakers. The next best way is to read extensively in it' (1996:128).

Despite the need to become fluent English readers, my students do not automatically want to read in English. In the next section, I will explain just why this is and will make some suggestions of how I can convince my learners to take part in reading programs.

Making my students want to read

Number of our students do not read voluntarily whether in their first nor in a second language. If I ask my students why this is the case, they reply that they simply do not like reading or that they are not motivated to read. Thus, if I want my students to become extensive readers I must try to motivate them. Motivation is explained as an individual's state of arousal that leads to the decision to act in a particular way in order to reach a previously set goal, and to sustain this activity for a period of time. The individual can either be extrinsically motivated or intrinsically (Williams and Burden 1997). Expectancy of the outcome (success or failure) and perceived value of an activity are determining factors, when individuals choose particular activities. Looking at all that in terms of reading, students will not make the decision to read when they see no value in reading and when they feel unable to read successfully (Day and Bamford 1998). So my challenge as a reading teacher is to increase my non-reading students' motivation to read and to implement reading activities and tasks which are most likely to foster extrinsic motivation.

Increase my students' motivation

My students are 16 to 25 year-old young adults and predominantly female. Although they are widely interested in different topics, the main tendency of interests point towards divergent

fields. My students usually have easy access to English texts and enjoy reading texts in their mother tongue.   Although they are experienced readers in their first language with knowledge of a wide range of texts and a rich mental lexicon, as real beginners in learning English they lack knowledge of the linguistic structures and have very little 'automaticity' in recognizing vocabulary. According to Davies (1995), this can be very frustrating and, therefore, my students will tend to reject reading in English to avoid failure. The students' motivation and interest to take part in a reading program will only increase, when they truly believe in the high value of reading in the foreign language and when they feel confident that they can do it successfully. According to Day and Bamford (1998) this can be achieved by increasing the students' reading ability, providing appropriate reading material, fostering positive attitudes towards reading in the foreign language and creating a secure and friendly reading atmosphere.

Extensive reading material for my students

The reading materials which I pre-select for my students must be enjoyable for them. This means the books and texts must be appropriate in Nuttall's (1996) terms of 'readability' and 'suitability of content'. Firstly, she suggests to use short texts especially for beginners and early stage readers which allow them a quick experience of success. Secondly, the texts must be appealingly presented, they should look attractive, be well printed (bigger print for elementary level) and have coloured illustrations. Thirdly, a rich variety of texts is needed to suit the various readers' preferences and needs of content, language and intellectual maturity. Lastly, the texts should be linguistically easier than the actual course book used in the classroom. Nuttall summarises these criteria with the acronym 'SAVE', where S stands for Short, A stands for Appealing, V for Variety and E for Easy.
Several authors propose reading materials, which I will comment on corresponding to the 'SAVE' principle and in view of my readers' needs (Day and Bamford 1998, Krashen 1993, McRae 1991).

Non-authentic materials
Graded readers and adapted classic readers: Graded readers and adapted classic readers are very valuable for my students and are perfectly designed for building up an 'English department' in our school library. Although some may criticize the use of such series' because of the loss of quality through adaptation, it is more important to me that the students feel comfortable with the language level and the rich variety of topics these books will provide. In addition, these readers have been tested and been confirmed successful in extensive reading programs all over the world (Hill 1992). A further key advantage is the progress my students experience when they manage to get to the next higher reader level, which is particularly motivating.

Authentic materials
Children's books and picture books: Children's books and picture books are a fascinating source for extensive reading materials. If carefully selected, many picture books originally designed for children are very joyful even for my students. I would not necessarily put them into the school library, but save them for reading aloud in classes on special and planned occasions. Like 'story telling', 'reading aloud' is an excellent opportunity to expose my students to authentic and comprehensible English. Beginners benefit even more when a text is presented visually and read aloud at the same time (Amer 1997).

Comics and translations: Like other young people, most of my students are keen on comics in any language and there is no need at all to force them into comic reading. Some of the popular comics might considered quite narrow or even cross the borderline of what can be tolerated in a school environment. Nevertheless, the classic comic series' such as 'Asterix', 'Snoopy' and many others seem to be timeless and highly enjoyable. In addition, some of the famous series', I

have already mentioned two, are available in several languages and many of my students will have read them in their first language already. The comparison of these translated materials allows students to follow the stories very closely and successfully. My students experience English comics reading as a pleasurable activity and by doing this they receive a remarkable amount of linguistically appropriate language input. Krashen backs this up when he concludes: 'It [comic reading] can help readers not only develop the linguistic competence for harder reading but can also develop an interest in books' (1993:56).

Light reading and young adult literature: Young adult literature and light reading are criticised by some authors or at least not recommended for the English learner library for their lack of language level, style and content. Others see reading easier   as being similar to reading comics. I agree with this latter view and believe that light reading material can increase my students' desire to read and lure the students into the library. Although the reasons are different, publishers of light literature match Nuttall's 'SAVE' principles and create readable and suitable materials for my language learners. Of course, these books are not suitable for beginners, but students on an intermediate level can certainly cope with the language used in light reading and can choose from a wide range of topics and genres.

Newspapers and magazines: Newspapers, illustrated and specialised magazines are a further excellent source for authentic material. As my learners are non-native speakers, in reading English they will find it too difficult to read authentic newspapers and magazines. Nevertheless, it can be a real pleasure to skim through high quality magazines such as the 'National Geographic' or to skim particular sections of newspapers. By doing this the students pick up language and readers from all different levels can enjoy the perfect pictures and understand the accompanying little junks of text and headlines without too much difficulties. Furthermore, the students are able to read at remarkably higher levels when reading material from their specific professional field is presented The 'well-established schemata' will compensate for the lack of language competence (Davies 1995). Thus, specialized subject magazines can match the criteria of 'readability' and 'suitability' mentioned earlier. Therefore, high quality magazines will have a permanent and prominent place on my library's shelves.

My list of suitable extensive reading material for my students is certainly not complete. One may ask, why I have not made mention of the internet. It is probably the richest source for finding authentic texts, offers a fantastic choice, is highly accessible and easy to search. Thus, for many, including my students and myself, the web is quite simply the perfect source for all types of information and my students make regular and intensive use of it, sometimes for several hours a day. Therefore, I see no need to increase the time spent in front of a screen, which is the main reason why I do not recommend extensive reading from the world wide web. The sometimes-poor visual presentation of texts is yet another reason, although a lesser one. Extremely long texts are often of little reader friendliness and not attractive for the readers' eye. Finally, although my students like surfing the internet , they very quickly get bored staying on only one website and navigating for too long. Therefore, I suggest using the web for purposes other than the extensive reading class.

Reading ability

Good readers read unfamiliar texts with high speed and with adequate comprehension. They have become so by doing mainly one thing – reading. Good readers in a foreign language do exactly the same. Earlier in this assignment, I characterised my students as being good readers in their first language. The question now is, how they can become good readers in a foreign language. In my opinion, the most important thing is to prevent my students from sliding into the 'cycle of frustration' and guide them instead into the 'cycle of growth' (Nuttall 1996:127). Processing and

comprehension are private processes and as a teacher I cannot 'give' them to the learners, but I can promote them. This can be achieved by implementing a variety of strategies and techniques which make individual progress in processing and comprehension possible. In relation to extensive reading, this means that I have to survey and monitor every student's reading and provide individual support and guidance. The individual readers' abilities must be taken into consideration when choosing the right materials. Reading a lot of appropriate literature will automatically result in better reading ability.

Attitudes towards reading and the teacher's role

We become interested in things when we get involved in them. Consequently, my students' interests in books and reading will increase, when I involve them in reading books. Therefore, I have to bring the students and the books together. To do this I see three main possibilities. Firstly, I can involve my students in tasks during lessons, where contact with books and texts is unavoidable but cheerful. Examples for such activities can be found in resource books and books about teaching reading (Harmer 1998, 2001 Silberstein 1994, Williams 1984). Secondly, I can approach the issue rather rationally, where I discuss the pros and cons of extensive reading very openly and make my personal values and principles clear. The students appreciate this openness and are more likely to start into the adventure of reading when they see my goals and intentions. Thirdly, I can change my students' attitudes towards reading through my own personal example and actively take part in the program as a READING teacher rather than as a reading TEACHER. Nuttall makes the following comparison: 'Like an infectious disease (fortunately only in this respect), it cannot be caught from people who have not got it themselves' (1996:229). Moreover, my personal involvement will keep me in touch with my readers and provide opportunities to survey and monitor the program's different phases and aspects in and out of class.

Conclusion

The benefits of extensive reading in English as a foreign language and how to best implement it into my English language teaching environment were the main focuses of this assignment. In the near future, we will have the opportunity to build up an English department in our school library along with the English 'libraries' of the English Department together with the other English teachers at our school. The work on this paper will hopefully help me to widely spread Nuttall's 'extensive reading virus' and to turn our library into a 'place of infection'.

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DIFFERENTIATED INSTRUCTION
IN ENGLISH CLASSROOMS

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Abstract: *In this article we firstly discuss about the differentiated instruction theory and its benefits in teaching and learning processes. Then we talk about teachers' role and their initiative in the differentiated instruction. Thirdly we investigate the secondary school English language teaching staff for their understanding about the differentiated instruction and application practices of the theory in their classes and try to answer the question regarding the availability and necessity of the differentiated instruction in the typical English classroom at Mongolian secondary schools.*

Keywords: *differentiated instruction, teacher development, curriculum design, student performance, learner needs, learning styles,*

Introduction

Differentiated instruction means helping a student in need. It is a change of instruction, learning materials, content and assessment adapted to the learning needs of individual student. It is a fairly new teaching approach that provides teachers with tools for meeting students' diverse learning needs. Although differentiated instruction has gained a lot of attention in practice and research in the education sector in western countries, it is not widely known in Mongolian schools and educational environments.

One of the biggest advantages of differentiated learning for students is the variety of teaching methods. In lessons that use different instructions, individual students are encouraged and they become more motivated. Differentiated instruction focuses more on the clever alterations of student assignments. This is especially helpful for secondary school students, because various levels of tasks required is more important than the number and quality of tasks required determining a student's understanding and resilience. Adjusting the nature of the task is a more effective and proactive way to support the learning process. Although differentiated instruction has gained a lot of attention in practice, the research into the empirical evidence and its benefits for enhancing student achievement in secondary education is lacking and still needs more attention.

American educators such as Dr. Howard Gardner, Carol Ann Tomlinson suggested the differentiated instruction to students whose backgrounds are very different from each other. However, students in English classrooms at Mongolian schools are not as diverse. Students in our classes are from the same cultural background, speak the same language and think in the same language. In other words, differences among students in Mongolian classrooms are somewhat few and limited. Provided that, we assumed the needs of our students are far less diverse than the students with different cultural backgrounds, different language proficiency levels and different interests. Therefore, we tried to look into the question that "Is differentiated instruction beneficial when teaching English in a Mongolian classroom?" With this article, we try to explore teachers' opinions about the theory and practice of differentiated instruction in their classrooms, as well as get new insights into the knowledge and instructional decision making of the teachers involved in the survey.

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Literature review

Differentiated instruction is a popular topic in today's education. In order to sustain a fair education system, it is important to guarantee educational opportunities for students with different background characteristics, so meeting the learning needs of such students by offering different instruction is considered the best choice.

According to Tomlinson, differentiation is a teaching philosophy based on a deep respect for students, recognition of their differences, and a desire to help all students succeed. Such ideas imply that teachers actively change the curriculum, teaching methods, resources, learning activities, or student product needs to better meet the learning needs of students.

Numerous developments in education have increased the need for differentiated education. Experts and researchers are urging teachers to recognize diversity and change their guidelines to meet the multifaceted learning needs of students in their classrooms (Schleicher, 2016; UNESCO, 2017).

Educators suggest that differentiated instruction is necessary in all types of classes. Wilkinson and Penney determined that even in relatively homogeneous classrooms, there are significant differences between students who need attention. As Subban thinks, learners have different learning needs and the idea that one approach is not enough is gaining momentum. The use of the one-size-fits-all curriculum no longer meets the needs of the majority of learners (Forsten, Grant, & Hollas, 2002; McBride, 2004; McCoy & Ketterlin-Geller, 2004; Tomlinson, 2002; Tomlinson and Kalbfleisch, 1998).

Experts also emphasize that all students should have sufficient knowledge and skills to develop themselves (Rock et al., 2008; Schleicher, 2016) and to develop students' ability to improve equality and equality (UNESCO, 2017; Kyriakides et al.). others, 2018). The goal is for teachers to invest the most in narrowing the gap between high-achieving and low-achieving students and to support low-achieving students.

Van Casteren and others think that the concept of differentiated instruction is quite well-known, though teachers find it difficult to grasp how differentiated instruction should be implemented in their classrooms. A recent study found that teachers across different countries infrequently adapt their instruction to student characteristics (Schleicher, 2016). Therefore more information about effective practices is needed.

For secondary education, evidence for the benefits of differentiated instruction is scarce (Coubergs et al., 2013). The most studies in secondary education focus on differentiation of students between classes by means of streaming or tracking (Slavin, 1990a & Schofield, 2010).

The differentiated instruction is one of many examples of classroom level curriculum development. Classroom level curriculum development is not only effective for teachers, but also for students as well. There are assumptions that the students benefit more from the differentiated instruction, since it is a big path for them to overcome their failure to remember the learned knowledge over time by strengthening their academic skills.

Differentiated instruction means addition to the core curriculum. In other words, course curriculum should be adjusted according to each learner's needs. The modern student population is getting increasingly diverse resulting in their learning pace and capacity. Diversity such as students with disabilities, students with language backgrounds other than English, students with imposing emotional difficulties and gifted student further influences teaching methods and teacher's choices in the classroom.

It is necessary to take into account the vast differences among students in a classroom, acknowledging each student's strengths while accommodating their limitations (Guild, 2001; Mulroy & Eddinger, 2003; Tomlinson, 2001c, 2002). Contemporary classrooms should accept and build on the basis that learners are all essentially different (Brighton, 2002; Fischer and Rose, 2001; Griggs, 1991; Guild, 2001; Tomlinson, 2002).

While educators understand that not all learners are the same, and that their needs are diverse, few teachers accommodate these differences in their classrooms (Gable, Hendrickson,

Tonelson, & Van Acker, 2000; Guild, 2001). Teachers need to know how to respond to the burgeoning diversity of contemporary classrooms (Fischer & Rose, 2001; Flem et al., 2000; McCoy and Ketterlin-Geller, 2004; Mulroy & Eddinger, 2003; Sizer, 1999; Tomlinson, 2001b, 2004a). The use of single-paced lessons delivered through a singular instructional approach disregards the different learning styles and interests present in all classrooms (Fischer & Rose, 2001; Forsten et al., 2002; Guild, 2001; Tomlinson & Kalbfleisch, 1998). According to Windy D. Turner, Oscar J. Solis, and Doris H. Kinkaid, most of the teachers surveyed believe that teachers who offer differentiated instruction brought "significant rewards".

However, differentiated instruction poses many challenges. Too many students in English classrooms, teachers not trained in differentiated instruction, less focus on lessons are just few examples. However, as English language teaching adapts to more technology and diversity due to needs, schools will begin to better manage the size of their language classrooms, and better equip their teachers to create a variety of innovative and active teaching methods and teachers will find that differentiated learning is essential for students' learning to reach their full potential.

Research method

In our research, we used both qualitative and quantitative methods to find an answer to the question "Should English teachers use the differentiated instruction more in English language classes at Mongolian schools?" by exploring teachers' opinions involved in the survey.

Qualitative

We interviewed five school English teachers to find out their knowledge and practice about differentiated instruction theory and curriculum design in general. All five participants have been teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) over ten years in Mongolia. They all have received their bachelor's degrees in Mongolia as English language teachers. There is no cultural and ethnic diversity among teachers. We have chosen these five teachers, as we believe they could represent the secondary school English language teachers since they have had many years of experience in the system. For the interview, we had a separate appointment with each of the interviewees. The single interview lasted 15 to 20 minutes each. There were 16 questions asked to find out the participant's knowledge about differentiated instruction and use of it in general. We analyzed the qualitative data which is the interview results and looked for emergent issues and the overall pattern in the practice and knowledge of the English teachers.

Quantitative

The targeted population in our research is 20 full time English teachers at various schools. We took a survey using a Likert scale questions. There were 8 questions about differentiated instruction and participants chose the best responses on the Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.

We used t-test to compare pre-survey and post-survey results of the same 20 teachers whom were asked to complete pre-survey questions and were assigned readings about differentiated instruction. We prepared reading materials in English on differentiated instruction, how to differentiate content, process, product and performance; and differentiation strategies for the classrooms. After the treatment they were asked to reflect and respond to their readings completing the Likert scale questions provided for the post-survey. We used the same Likert scale questions for pre and post surveys and Microsoft Excel to analyze the data looking for the differences and changes the introduction of the differentiated instruction may make.

Table 1

t test Q1

	pre	post
Mean	5	4.666667
Observations	3	3
t Stat	1	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.18695	
t Critical one-tail	2.131847	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.373901	
t Critical two-tail	2.776445	

Table 2

t test Q2

	pre	post
Mean	1.666667	3.333333
Observations	3	3
t Stat	-2.23607	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.044505	
t Critical one-tail	2.131847	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.089009	
t Critical two-tail	2.776445	

Table 3

t test Q3

	pre	post
Mean	1.333333	3
Observations	3	3
t Stat	-2.5	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.033383	
t Critical one-tail	2.131847	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.066767	
t Critical two-tail	2.776445	

Table 4

t test Q4

	pre	post
Mean	1.333333	2.666667
Observations	3	3
t Stat	-1.41421	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.1151	
t Critical one-tail	2.131847	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.2302	
t Critical two-tail	2.776445	

Table 5

t test 5

	pre	post
Mean	1.666667	2.666667
Observations	3	3
t Stat	-1.06066	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.174321	
t Critical one-tail	2.131847	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.348641	
t Critical two-tail	2.776445	

Table 6

t test Q6

	pre	post
Mean	1.333333	3
Observations	3	3
t Stat	-1.58114	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.094502	
t Critical one-tail	2.131847	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.189004	
t Critical two-tail	2.776445	

Table 7

t test Q7

	pre	post
Mean	2.333333	3.333333
Observations	3	3
t Stat	-1.34164	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.125408	
t Critical one-tail	2.131847	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.250815	
t Critical two-tail	2.776445	

Table 8

t test Q8

	pre	post
Mean	3.333333	3
Observations	3	3
t Stat	0.316228	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.383822	
t Critical one-tail	2.131847	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.767644	
t Critical two-tail	2.776445	

Results

Quantitative results: The results were analyzed by running a t-test for independent samples on Excel software. Results indicate that the mini experiment has resulted in slight change in the teachers views about differentiated instruction. All of the p-values are over 0.05 and it shows no significant difference between pre survey and post survey answers.

In the table 1, post survey mean is lower than the pre survey mean. That means teachers changed their views about considering student needs after the reading and tended not to consider it much. Though P value is 0.37 which means there is slight difference. Table 2 and Table 3 show that teachers' responses shifted from disagreement to agreement with the statement after the experiment. However, the differences for both tables are not significant. Table 4, Table 5 and Table 6 have similar results: pre survey means are lower than the post survey means, and P values are higher than 0.05. The results show that after the reading teachers favored differentiating the content, assessment and process and there are greater changes in their opinions towards differentiating.

Table 7 indicates that teachers were more neutral in answering the question. P value 0.25 also suggests that their answers have not changed much. It was interesting to learn from Table 8 that before the experiment, teachers thought that differentiating their instruction was easier. We inferred that the experiment did not lead to significant changes in views, but helped teachers look at the differentiated instruction more seriously.

Qualitative analysis

We interviewed five teachers who have been teaching English for over ten years. We inferred from the interview that all five teachers were not very interested in using differentiated instruction in their teaching due to their classroom sizes and immense requirement for preparation and dedication. They had adequate knowledge about differentiated instruction, however, they did not welcome the idea of differentiated instruction.

Analyzing their answers regarding their curriculum knowledge and professional development, it is revealed that teachers themselves tend to be reluctant to make inquiries into the new knowledge in the areas of curriculum development and the schools did not require teachers to be initiative in the curriculum design and updates.

About their preferences over a teacher centered via student centered instruction, three of them favored student centered approach which means they might be more open to the differentiated instruction. It seemed teachers lacked the experience of supporting different learning styles, and they did not pay much attention to responding student needs.

Discussion

With our study we sought an answer to a question "should English teachers use the differentiated instruction more in English language classes at Mongolian schools?" to find out if the theory is the good choice for our learners. We expected that the differentiated instruction theory might make changes in the thinking and attitude of teachers, but the findings from the quantitative research evidenced the very slight difference between pre survey and post survey outcomes.

We tried to conduct the research in the light of exploring the preferences of these participants and as well as what the curriculum development and faculty development actions are at the school.

The qualitative data of our study shows that although teachers do not lack new knowledge about new learning theories, they tend to ignore while the schools do not change its curriculum over many years and did not require teachers to be initiatives in curriculum area leading reluctance to change for growth.

The data collected from our quantitative research shows that the new knowledge about differentiated instruction did not make much differences meaning differentiated instruction is not supported wholly and most teachers see themselves as curriculum transmitters.

Discussion of Limitations

The results of both the quantitative and qualitative data are limited. Both questions used for the survey and interview were fewer and the number of participants were very few. Therefore, the findings are far too weak to draw any significant conclusions about the necessity of differentiated theory.

Validity

One aspect that may have affected the validity of the study was the participant's awareness of the research. The teachers were informed that they were participating in the mini experiment with reading assignments and therefore they would be pre and post surveyed for their views. This may have impacted their effort positively or negatively, and rendered the resulting data invalid.

Conclusion

Based on the findings from our research we concluded that the differentiated instruction may be applicable to our students for better performance, though the more in-depth research needs to be done to determine the availability, advantages and effectiveness of the differentiated instruction theory for the school English classes.

It is seen that the most teachers find incorporating differentiated instruction in their teaching more challenging due to its nature that requires a lot from teachers. The mini experiment has slightly changed the teachers' attitude towards differentiated instruction. However, there is evidence that teachers felt positive about their new knowledge and consider it important to differentiate. Moreover, teachers consider themselves as curriculum transmitters and felt negative about professional development of the school. This research is important as it addressed the teacher development issues and offered the new knowledge and suggested new instructional varieties to the participants.

Not all students are academically strong or self-studious to succeed in a traditional teacher-oriented class. Therefore, teachers who prefer traditional teaching methods will not be able to see promising performances of their students unless they opt to newer teaching approaches, so there will be trends and a lot of changes in the teaching methods and styles in the future. The goal of differentiation is to increase the performance of all students regardless of their starting point, so the differentiated instruction could be the best choice for a teacher to extend the knowledge and skills of every traditional and non-traditional student in his class.

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Interview questions

1. How can one teacher possibly manage a classroom and meet individual student needs?
2. How can a teacher maximize his/her role during whole class instruction, independent, and/or group work time?
3. How can the use of differentiated instruction improve student performance?
4. How can a teacher best differentiate instruction?
5. Do you actively diversify your teaching methods in your classroom?
6. Do you have adequate differentiated instruction knowledge?
7. Do you make inquiries into the latest literature in the area of differentiated instruction?
8. Does your school have teacher development training?
9. Does your school support professional development opportunities?
10. Are you familiar with different learning styles?
11. Which do you prefer: a teacher centered instruction or student-centered instruction?
12. Do you respond to learner needs?
13. How necessary do you think the differentiated instruction is?
14. Does your school allow differentiated instruction?
15. Is differentiated instruction included in the curriculum design in your school?
16. Would you include differentiated instruction in your teaching?

Survey questions

Please read the following question carefully. Please use each rating number only once. Circle your opinions on the differentiated instruction.
5 = Most Important; 1 = Least Important;   5 = Yes; 1 = No

Would you consider student needs and interests?
5   4   3   2   1

What do you think of the differentiated instruction?
5   4   3   2   1

Do you think it is necessary to differentiate your teaching?
5   4   3   2   1

Would differentiated instruction increase student performance?
5   4   3   2   1

Would you differentiate assessment?
5   4   3   2   1

Would you differentiate process?
5   4   3   2   1

Would you differentiate content?
5   4   3   2   1

Is it burdensome for a teacher to offer differentiation?
5   4   3   2   1