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CONTENTS

A STUDY OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS' MOTIVATION TOWARD LEARNING ENGLISH AND FACTORS AFFECTING DEMOTIVATION

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Abstract: *Motivation is one of the most important factors affecting students learning English successfully. The current study aimed to discover undergraduate students' motivation orientation. Moreover, it has purpose to find out the difference between motivation level among students from various majors and factors affecting English learning motivation of students at National University of Mongolia, Erdenet School. The researchers employed mixed methods of quantitative and qualitative analysis to calculate the data collected by 33-item questionnaire from 159 undergraduate students and focus group interviews among 14 students majoring in language and education and 16 students from finance and economics areas at NUM, Erdenet School in 2019-2020 academic year. The findings showed the participants had high instrumental and integrative orientations towards English learning. Furthermore, the students majoring the finance and economics had higher motivation levels as opposed to those students majoring in language and education, due to language demand in finance and economic fields. The students were demotivated by external factors including teachers' and peer-learners' attitude, and internal factors to learn English as a foreign language. Mongolian students have high need of esteem, which is considered one important factor affecting their motivation towards learning English.*

Keywords: English learning motivation, demotivation, instrumental orientation, integrative orientation, undergraduate students, motivating and demotivating factors

1. Introduction

Study of English in Mongolia, a developing country, is emerging for several reasons. After its democratic revolution in the 1990s, Mongolia shifted its foreign language teaching attention from Russian to English, since its foreign relationships with western countries started to widen. English has been taught in secondary schools since the 1992-1993 academic year. Starting from the 5th grade of elementary school, students choose between Russian and English to study and continue studying for about 6 years (Mongolian Ministry of Education, 1995). The English Language Department at the National University of Mongolia (NUM) began university level English in 1956 (Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, 2009). Back then, the study of English was strictly confined to the select few students for NUM's interpreter class, and qualified teachers of the language numbered less than a dozen (Namsrai, 2004). Since 1992, higher education institutions of Mongolia started to offer General English for non-English majoring students. The Erdenet School is a branch of NUM. Several changes in the policy of teaching foreign language have been made and implemented in secondary schools and tertiary levels in Mongolia. The Mongolian Ministry of Education, Culture and Science (2014) developed the Core program for all levels of secondary education, including English in 2014. For higher education institutions, the aforementioned ministry set the requirement for undergraduate students to complete and pass upper-intermediate English when graduating with a bachelor's degree (Mongolian Ministry of Education, 2014). At the university level, undergraduate students have to take 6 required credit hours of English language courses to achieve upper-intermediate English (Mongolian Ministry of Education, 2014). The demand for employees with fluent English or advanced level of English in the job market has been increasing in Mongolia. Due to the policy and practical requirements, undergraduate students are under pressure to meet the social demand of learning English in Mongolia. Many factors may impact these students to learn English, most important of which is motivation.

2. Literature Review

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The term motivation, since the definition of Lambert and Gardner (1967), appeared in psychology to determine living beings' behavior. Ilyin (2000) explained that motivation definitions can be identified in two different ways. First, it is a combination or complex structure of different factors and motives. Second, it is defined to be not a static but a dynamic process, mechanism. Concept motivation connects motives with needs. It is a factor, mechanism and process that motivates people based on satisfying needs (Vilyunas, 1990). Dörneyi and Ushioda (2011) have defined motivation for being responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity, and how hard they are going to pursue it.

Scholars agree that motivation is among the most important factors that affect whether students achieve their goals. Hekhauzen (2003) defined motivation as an action and mechanism that is the basis for a goal, then stimulation comes from the goal, then action stems. Motivation toward second or foreign language learning can be an essential force for students at higher education institutions to meet their goals. Without sufficient motivation, individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals (Guilloteaux & Dörneyi, 2008). Schumann's neurobiological model (1986) has marked motivation as one of the important variables in affective factors for second language acquisition. Motivation involves the attitude and affective states that influence the degree of effort that learners make to learn a foreign/second language, or L2 (Ellis, 2013). During the lengthy and often tedious process of mastering an L2, the learner's enthusiasm, commitment and persistence are key determinants of success or failure (Hadfield & Dörneyi, 2013). Oxford and Shearin (1994) mentioned that motivation is highly essential for L2 learning, and it is important to recognize the students' motivation. Harmer (2007, p. 20) emphasized the importance of student motivation to learn English, "A variety of factors can create a desire to learn. Some students have a practical reason for their study. This desire to achieve some goal is the bedrock of motivation and, if it is strong enough, it provokes a decision to act."

Instrumental motivation

Ellis (2013) listed types of motivations and defined instrumental motivation to be major force determining success in L2 learning for a functional reason – to pass an exam, to get a better job, or to get a place at university. Gardner (2001) defined that instrumental orientation focuses on a more practical purpose of learning the target language that would serve for the person.

Integrative motivation

On the other hand, integrative motivation is desire to learn L2 in order to integrate with people who use the target language (Ellis, 2013). Gardner (2007) explained that integrative motivation can been observed when a person is motivated to learn another language both because of a genuine interest in communicating L2 with members of the other language and to adapt to the community where those people live. Sedova (2010) drew a conclusion that integrative and instrumental motivations are special motivations and are central for other motivations. Integrative motivations is wide, social and inner motivation and includes emotion and identification whereas instrumental motivation is external, pragmatic and language educational.

Motivation and learning languages

Scholars worldwide such as Mineeva and Lyashenko (2018) and Kotov (2003) have studied university students' motivations toward learning English as a foreign language and motivation types and factors affecting motivation, which indicate that learning a foreign language and the motivation of learning the language is an urgent and big issue. For instance, Mineeva and Lyashenko (2018) conducted a study from 62 students from different fields of study, which demonstrated that instrumental orientation was higher than integrative orientation, and students implied they study the language for practical purposes such as further career promotion, and finding reputable positions. Kotov (2003) found that students have instrumentally oriented motivation and they have a high need for communicating with their peer groups and goals they are determined and interested to achieve on their own. Moreover, they are educated and independent and wish for successful communication. Students have less interest in having authority, a mean to reach goal, and requirements. Furthermore, they are ready to sacrifice for something they consider significant, and they appreciate rationality and innovation.

Factors affecting motivation toward sustainable learning are course material content, course design and organization, group structures, evaluation, and teaching methods (Ilyin, 2000). Based on their general motivation (professional, cognitive, pragmatic, social and individual fame), students possess their own aptitude toward certain courses (Ilyin, 2012). This is specified by the following parameters:

- Whether the course/lesson is significant for professional paths
- If it is the essential part in the knowledge area of interest

- Quality of teaching methodology (satisfaction with the course)
- If any difficulty exists to understand the content by oneself
- Communication with the teacher of the course

According to Pechnikov and Mukhina (1996), students' motivation is more "professional" and "personal fame" oriented and the significance of "pragmatic" and "cognitive" motivation is rather low (Wang, 2012). In one of Dörneyi's (2001) studies, he listed factors affecting motivation as teachers, reduced self-confidence, inadequate school facilities, negative attitudes toward L2, the compulsory nature of L2, interference of another language, negative attitudes towards the L2 community, attitudes of group members, and the coursebook.

Demotivation

Zanyuk (2001) found that demotivation can occur from provocation, leading to uncomfortable feelings and bringing a sense of punishment when a person tries to take action.

Demotivation concerns various negative influences that cancel out existing motivation (Dörneyi, 2001). Dub and Krusyan (2012) defined the situation of students' complete loss in learning as amotivation or when students' expectations do not come true because of some reason, whereas demotivation is a decrease in motivation due to external factors, and later demotivation might change into amotivation. There are some sanctions that create demotivation, including punishment with words (blaming, criticizing etc.), materialistic sanctions (fines, reduction of special licenses or bonuses etc.), isolation from society (ignoring, denying, rejecting of acceptance to a group, exclusion from the society), loss of rights and freedoms, and physical punishment (Zanyuk, 2001). Dread, weakness, vapidity, and self-doubt are demotivation factors (Mehrmann, 2007).

Two main types of factors affect demotivation toward foreign language learning (Dub & Krusyan, 2012):

- Internal factors, such as personal attitudes toward the foreign language, failure experiences, unsuccessfulness, and loss of self-confidence; and
- External factors, such as school environment, and teacher factors relating to personal character.

Chambers (1993) expressed that teachers could be among the most demotivating for students who are learning English (Komlosi-Ferdinand, 2020). Tsiganenko (2014) categorized and listed demotivating factors on students' learning processes as follows:

1. Individual: personal factors such as cognitive ability, temperament, characteristics, interest, health condition (low level of preparedness to study, ability, disorganized and laziness, health condition, tiredness)
2. Social factors: regarding future positions , low future income
3. Organizational factors: inappropriate and poor course organization and teaching methodology, lack of modern technology and advancement usage, as well as their inconvenience.
4. Human interaction factors: personal life and family problems, relationship and communication failure with teachers, unpleasant communication with classmates , opportunities to spend more time with friends
5. Material factors: dormitory condition, family material issues , wish for financial independence and job,
6. Incorrect choice of profession
7. Hobby, internet dependence

Scholars (Ali & Pathan, 2017) named demotivating factors for students as grammar-based teaching, classroom environment, effect of low test scores, teachers' behavior, course contents and teaching materials, lack of self-confidence and interest. Kikuchi and Sakai (2009) listed course books, inadequate school facilities, test scores, non-communicative methods, and teachers' competence and teaching styles to be their demotivating factor questionnaire variables for 112 learners of English at the university level in Japan. Moreover, Jung (2011) concluded that external factors that demotivate students more affect students when they study English, in his study of Korean college students.

3. Research Questions

The researchers investigate the following questions:

1. What motivation is dominant among undergraduate students at the Erdenet School, instrumental or integrative?

2. Is there a difference in motivation towards English learning at the Erdenet School between the students majoring in language and education (Group A) and the students majoring in finance and economics (Group B)?
3. What are motivating and demotivating factors affect students' motivation to learn English, as a foreign language?

4. Methodology

4.1 Research sample

In this study, *n*=159 students studying language, education, finance and economics at the National University of Mongolia (NUM), Erdenet School participated the 33 item-questionnaire about their motivation towards English learning in the first term of 2019-2020 academic year. All students took the required 6 credit-hour English classes as General English throughout their freshman years at the Erdenet School.

Table 1. Distribution of participant by gender

	Frequency	Percent
Female	134	84.3
Male	25	15.7
Total	159	100.0

Table 2. Participant distribution by program year

Level of program	Frequency	Percent
I	12	7.5
II	50	31.4
III	52	32.7
IV	45	28.3
Total n	159	100.0

Along with the questionnaire, two focus group interviews were conducted among 14 students studying language and education programs and 16 students from the finance and economics programs. Students participated in the focus group interviews based on their interest bases. The interviews were conducted within two weeks after the questionnaire.

4.2 Research instrument

We employed two instruments, questionnaire (*n*=159) and two focus group interviews (*n*=14 – group A, *n*=16 – group B), to collect data. The 33-item questionnaire, aiming to reveal the motivation type among undergraduate students at the university, was adapted from Gardner AMTB (2004) and translated into Mongolian by the researchers and edited by Mongolian language and literature instructor. The questionnaire consisted of two parts to collect data. The first part included 4 questions about participants' age, gender, major, and year, whereas the second part contained 33 items of seven subscales: interest in foreign languages (5 items), motivational intensity (5 items), English teacher evaluation (5 items), attitudes toward learning English (5 items), integrative orientation (4 items), desire to learn English (5 items), and instrumental orientation (4 items). Since authors all considered subscales from the original questionnaire would not fit for students of tertiary level and eliminated them (Gardner, 2004). The items were randomized in order and each item was rated by a Likert 6-point scale, where 1 stands for strongly disagree, whereas strongly agree means 6.

The focus group interviews were conducted in Mongolian, the mother tongue of the participants, according to following questions developed to assess motivating and demotivating factors:

1. What is the significance of English?
2. Why are you studying English?
3. What are your internal and external demotivating factors toward learning English?
4. What outcomes do you expect after learning English?

5. Do you believe the attitudes from other people would change if you learned English well?

The first two questions were developed as warm-up items to reveal the importance of English and the reason for studying English for students. The third item organized to find out the factors affecting students' motivation toward English. Moreover, the fourth and fifth questions were designed to learn what students' expectations and other people's attitude when English is acquired perfectly by the participants.

4.3 Data collection procedure

Researchers used Google Forms to collect questionnaire data. The link for the virtual questionnaire was sent to corresponding departments' assistant teachers, and students were asked to visit computer laboratories to complete the questionnaire. The researchers explained the aim of the questionnaire to the participants. The department assistant teachers along with the researchers observed the survey procedure in case there might occur content and technical problems. Survey completion took each student 10-15 minutes.

Two focus group interviews were separately conducted on different days, one week apart from each other. The rooms and seats for participants were prepared in advance, and seating was arranged in a circular shape (Krueger & Casey, 2015). Each interview lasted about 50-60 minutes. Two Mongolian researchers worked as a moderator and an assistant moderator throughout the interviews. At the beginning of each interview the moderator mentioned the goal of the focus group interview and explained that the participants were welcome and more appreciated if they provided honest and detailed answers to the questions and give their responses in turns. The assistant moderator took notes and audio-recorded the interviews.

4.4 Data analysis

The quantitative data was analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics (v.23) program to calculate the means and standard deviation. The study questionnaire scales indicated Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.954, which we interpret the reliability is rather high.

The Cronbach's alpha shows that all subscales have more than 0.8, which means they have good internal reliability such as α for interest in foreign language is 0.864; motivational intensity, 0.831; English teacher evaluation, 0.927; attitude toward learning English, integrative orientation, 0.853; desire to learn English, 0.902; and instrumental orientation, 0.863.

Abridged transcript analysis (Krueger & Casey, 2015) was made after each focus group interview and reports of focus group interviews were written.

5. Results

5.1 Descriptive analysis findings

Authors aimed to find out if the students at the Erdenet School have instrumental or integrative motivation towards learning English as a foreign language, using the modified questionnaire.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of the questionnaire

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Interest in foreign languages	159	5.00	1.00	6.00	**4.94**	0.08
Motivational Intensity	159	4.80	1.20	6.00	**4.30**	0.08
English teacher evaluation	159	5.00	1.00	6.00	**4.02**	0.11
Attitudes toward Learning English	159	5.00	1.00	6.00	**4.68**	0.09
Integrative orientation	159	5.00	1.00	6.00	**4.85**	0.08
Desire to Learn English	159	5.00	1.00	6.00	**4.94**	0.08
Instrumental orientation	159	5.00	1.00	6.00	**4.93**	0.08

From Table 3 means for subscales calculated as high, where instrumental orientation (4.93) and integrative orientation (4.85) are high, and the difference between these two orientations is 0.08. The rated scales are interest in foreign languages (4.94) and desire to learn English (4.94). English teacher evaluation is rated the lowest among other scales as 4.02, and the second lowest is motivational intensity (4.30). The scale attitudes toward learning English is rated 4.68.

Whether a difference exists between students of group A and students of group B, the following comparison has been calculated. The results show that instrumental orientation of students from group A is 4.72, which is high, whereas instrumental orientation of students from group B is rated higher (5.02). The difference between these two variables is 0.30. Integrative orientation was rated by two groups of students with difference of 0.21. From the table we can see that desire to learn English is rated the highest and the instrumental orientation is evaluated the second highest by students from group B. The lowest rated scale by the students from group B is English teacher evaluation (3.99).

Table 4. Mean data of groups A and B

	Mean	
	Group A	Group B
Interest in foreign languages	5.01	4.91
Motivational Intensity	4.31	4.29
English teacher evaluation	4.10	3.99
Attitudes toward Learning English	4.61	4.71
Integrative orientation	4.70	4.91
Desire to Learn English	4.70	5.04
Instrumental orientation	4.72	5.02

5.2 Focus group interview findings

The findings from the focus group interviews will be discussed in order of the interviews took place. We recorded the students' answers and then included all the answers as much as possible. We analyzed responses and included those where students agreed most, as demonstrating trends.

5.2.1 Focus group interview – Group A

The first focus group interview was conducted among 14 participants. For the first question about significance of English, students responded it's been one of the important languages and cited these uses in their response: travelling, getting further information on any topic, broadening one's knowledge, earning scholarships and socializing.

For the second question, one of the comments by participants on reasons for learning English was that there is a bachelor's degree requirement of acquiring English. Furthermore, students are learning English to get score on standard English tests, to go abroad, to translate terms related to their majors, to understand lecture in English, and to fulfill their interests and future goals. One student, for example, noted both professional and personal benefits, saying, "I am learning English not only because of the requirement at the university, but mainly because I want to watch movies in English and understand them." One also mentioned, "I expect to work as a tour guide during the summertime because Mongolia has been a popular tourist destination, especially in my hometown in Khuvsgul."

Many participants were dreamers. They commented on their expectations when English is acquired. "After I learn English perfectly, everything will be changed—for examples, career, personal development." Another hoped, "Personally, I will be a better and open-minded person." Another claimed, "I am sure to be a social figure that will contribute to the development of my country." Similarly, one said, "I will be a role model for other people." Another added, "I will have an opportunity to lead others."

Participants answered that other people's attitudes would change, and they would be respected and accepted more in their future positions and in the society, if they learnt English in advanced level. One looked at this as a language exchange, saying, "I can influence others because through learning English, I will also learn their culture and comforts." Another hoped, "I will be invited, and other people will ask me for advice."

On the demotivational side, participants added some internal factors such as attitude, desire to English, laziness, initiative, and lack of learning techniques. Many participants agreed on internal factors being the main negative force, demotivating them when learning English. One summarized this as, "I think anyone can learn English if they have great desire and motivation, even though the teacher's not teaching well enough or the classroom environment is not comfortable."

Students provided replies on external and internal factors demotivating them to learn English. For external factors they named school and classroom environment, teacher's attitude and motivation,

coursebook supply, limited internet access, and other students' attitude. One student guessed why sometimes teachers seemed demotivated, saying, "Sometimes teachers are not motivated to teach us. I think it's because of their salary." Furthermore, regarding other students' attitudes, one said, "When I read sentences loudly in English some students make fun of my pronunciation."

5.2.2 Focus group interview – Group B

The second focus group interview was conducted among 16 students. The participants evaluated the significance of English rather high. One identified, "Because of globalization, English is being the main instrument for services, information, technology, and culture." More simply, another said, "English is a bridge." As a student, another noted, "Professional textbooks are usually in English." But beyond school, another felt, "English will be required in my future position." Others said likewise.

When the second question "Why are you studying English?" was asked, students commented that their main reasons for learning English were that English will be required in the future, and due to the bachelor's degree requirement. Students added several reasons. One had the personal reason, "I am learning English to fulfill my interest." An outlier also noted, "I am learning English because it was easier for me. I have studied English in my secondary school."

Like our first group, participants in our second have expectations of higher social status and they would keep up with development if they have learnt English. One said, "I will be evaluated more highly than a person who does not know English." Another felt, "People will admire me more because when people are good at English and know the culture, their lifestyles change." On that note, another said, "I will be respected more because I know English and can get more information."

Students added that when English is learnt, other people's attitudes toward the participants would change such that home and work surroundings will be better. One said, "I will be self-confident and be able to express myself in more emotional way because English is very expressive language." Others added about other communities. "I will be a model of Mongolia when I travel or work abroad," said one. Likewise, another said, "I will be able to travel alone and communicate with people from English speaking countries. I can learn their culture."

Regarding factors demotivating students when they learn English, students named external factors as the most significant, including other students' attitudes, teachers' teaching methodology and attitude and their school and classroom environments. One student felt disappointed, saying, "We are not allowed to choose English teachers." Another said, "Multilevel English classes are the demotivating factors for me." Similarly, one said, "When some students try to learn English and practice English during the classes, others tend to ignore. Due to this situation I feel demotivated." Students also noted internal factors, but they considered these less important. They included personal attitudes, courage to learn English and loss of self-confidence.

6. Discussion

The first question aimed to investigate undergraduate students' motivation towards learning English at NUM, Erdenet School. The data indicated that both instrumental and integrative orientation is high and there is no significant difference between those two motivation types. Identifying relationships among questionnaire data, equal level of instrumental and integrative orientation from students and particular comments during focus group interview can be interpreted that the students are not only learning English because they want to get better job, earn higher scores in standard tests (Sedova, 2010), and pass or meet certain requirements developed by Mongolian government agencies, but also they learn English to communicate with people from English (Gardner, 2007) speaking countries and learning from their culture. The scale – interest in foreign language, which was rated the highest, shows that Mongolian students understand necessity of learning foreign language and the scale revealing students desire to learn English indicates students have great interest and strong reasons to learn English as a foreign language.

Furthermore, to answer the second question of the current study, an analysis was made on data to explore difference between motivational level of students majoring in language and education (group A) and students studying finance and economics confirms that students from finance and economics fields (group B) have higher instrumental and integrative motivation towards learning English.

Group A students have high interest in foreign languages but they showed lower rate of desire to learn English. We interpret this result is due to the situation where knowledge of foreign language is less required qualifications for job applicants in language and education areas in Mongolia.

Group B students had high rate of desire to learn English. We interpret these findings can be related to supply and demand of majors at labor market in Mongolia. In Mongolia, competition between graduates seeking positions in finance and economics is higher than that of language and education in Mongolia. Therefore, students from group B showed higher rate of motivation and desire to learn English since a foreign language, specifically English, is a basic requirement for job applicants in finance and economics areas.

The final question focused on identifying motivating and mainly demotivating factors affecting the undergraduate students' motivation towards English learning. The study findings show that the participants have favorable attitudes towards learning English, but their motivational intensity is slightly lower than other scales, which shows there are certain demotivating factors affecting them. English teacher evaluation in the questionnaire is evaluated high but it is the lowest rated scale among other questionnaire scales. Participants of two focus groups responded that teacher's attitude is one of the demotivating factors affecting them to learn English whereas certain number of students believe strong desire to learn English will motivate them more rather than teacher's negative attitude. One of the demotivating factors mentioned by students are human interaction (Tsiganenko, 2014) including English teachers' and other students' attitudes. This result ties well with previous studies. Due to teachers' and other students' attitude, motivation level of learning English decrease and it causes internal factors such as loss of self-confidence, dissatisfaction in English classes (Cohen, 2004; Dub & Krusyan, 2012; Komlosi-Ferdinand, 2020). One significant finding the students demonstrated is that they have specific reason for learning English. Because many Mongolians associate their self-esteem with how their community perceives them, we associate students' beliefs, that they will be respected, appreciated and evaluated as more by society if they have learnt English well, as related to self-esteem and belonging needs (Maslow, 1943).

7. Conclusion

This study investigated undergraduate students' motivation types, whether differences in their motivations existed according to their majors, and what motivating and demotivating factors affected their attitudes toward learning English at NUM, Erdenet School. While results showed that undergraduate students regardless of major had both high instrumental and integrative orientation towards learning English, significant differences emerged between motivation levels of students from different majors, according to practical requirements in Mongolia's labor market. Remarkably, students majoring in finance and economics, competitive fields, desired to learn English more than students majoring to teach English.

Demotivating factors affecting undergraduates were related to social interactions, namely teachers' and other students' attitudes. Internal factors demotivating students to learn English derived from external factors. Mongolian undergraduates have a high need for self-esteem and social status, which they feel mastery of English will help them attain.

This study is limited by its small samples of just undergraduates from NUM, Erdenet School. Additionally, only students majoring in language, education, finance and economics participated, as those were the only majors offered at this campus. Further studies may explore students' motivations at other institutions, examine graduate student populations and work with students of other majors. The authors recommend investigating why this difference in motivation levels exists between students from different majors, perhaps by examining overarching social circumstances leading to students' life situations.

Pedagogically, the authors advise instructors carefully consider the attitudes they bring to their classrooms, especially in Mongolia, where students seem more inclined to attribute outside factors to personal demotivation over themselves. Likewise, instructors may benefit from cultivating encouraging classroom environments where students may feel more comfortable making mistakes in front of their peers. By leveraging students' hopes to learn and master English for social benefit, instructors may be able to help students feel simple mistakes are only minor setbacks compared to future mastery.

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MONGOLIAN PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' VIEWS ON TEACHING ENGLISH COMMUNICATIVELY

Daariimaa Marav[1]

***Abstract**: Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has been considered as important for an effective language teaching approach, the aim of which is to provide learners with the mastery of vocabulary and communication skills in the target language. As the appropriateness of the CLT in different educational and sociocultural contexts needs to be investigated, this paper discusses the views of ten pre-service English teachers who completed their 12-week teaching practicum in the secondary schools in Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia about the communicative approach to teaching English. The findings indicate that English teachers should use context-based teaching methodology, adapting CLT for the Mongolian context, and the materials from different sources with different perspectives to promote effective language teaching.*

Keywords: Communicative Language Teaching, Mongolia, context based teaching, adapting textbooks.

Introduction

In Mongolia, English language education has become very popular since 1990 when Mongolia moved from a socialist system to a democracy. As English has been used as a *lingua franca* for intercultural communication and the most popular language on the internet in today's age of globalisation, the effectiveness of English language teaching needs to be constantly questioned and discussed by Mongolian English teachers. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), one of the main language teaching approaches, is mostly recommended for developing English learners' communicative competence (Larsen-Freeman, 2000) and its characteristics by Brown (1994) show that the activities in the language classroom involve real communication and the language used is meaningful to the learners. Thus, the paper aims to explore the views of Mongolian pre-service teachers on the communicative approach to teaching English and the factors affecting the practices of teaching English communicatively in public schools in Ulaanbaatar.

In this paper, some features of CLT and its implementation in the Asian context have been briefly reviewed. The notion of EIL in English language education has been introduced to show that the meaning and implementation of CLT differs from one socio-cultural context to another. In addition, the perceptions of communicative approach in the Mongolian public school education setting by ten Mongolian pre-service English teachers are discussed.

Features of CLT

A communicative approach to language teaching and learning, according to Larsen-Freeman (2000, p. 121), "makes communicative competence the goal of language teaching and acknowledges the interdependence of language and communication". Clearly, communicative competence underpins the formation of CLT. The notion of communicative competence is discussed by many researchers, including Bachman (1990), Canale and Swain (1980) and Savignon (1983). According to them, communicative competence consists of four interdependent components: grammatical competence (the knowledge of linguistic aspects such as phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and lexicology); socio-linguistic competence (appropriateness of utterances

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with regard to meaning and form in certain socio-cultural contexts of communication); discourse competence (the mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve cohesion and coherence of a spoken and written text in a variety of genres); and strategic competence (the mastery of both verbal and non-verbal communication strategies used to improve the effectiveness of communication. Furthermore, Brown (1994) provides a list of sixteen micro-skills that are necessary for effective oral communication:

1. Produce chunks of language of different lengths;
2. Orally produce differences among the English phonemes and allophonic variants;
3. Produce English stress patterns, words in stressed and unstressed positions, rhythmic structure, and intonational contours;
4. Produce reduced forms of words and phrases;
5. Use an adequate number of lexical units (words) in order to accomplish pragmatic purposes;
6. Produce fluent speech at different rates of delivery;
7. Monitor your own oral production and use various strategic devices – pauses, fillers, self-corrections, backtracking – to enhance the clarity of the message;
8. Use grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs, etc.), systems (e.g. tense, agreement, pluralisation), word order, patterns, rules, and elliptical forms;
9. Produce speech in natural constituents – in appropriate phrases, pause groups, breath groups, and sentence constituents;
10. Express a particular meaning in different grammatical forms;
11. Use cohesive devices in spoken discourse;
12. Appropriately accomplish communicative functions according to situations, participants, and goals;
13. Use appropriate registers, implicature, pragmatic conventions, and other socio-linguistic features in face-to-face conversations;
14. Convey links and connections between events and communicate such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalisation, exemplification;
15. Use facial features, kinesics, 'body language', and other non-verbal cues along with verbal language in order to convey meanings; and
16. Develop and use a battery of speaking strategies, such as emphasising key words, rephrasing, providing a context for interpreting the meaning of words, appealing for help, and accurately assessing how well your interlocutor is understanding you (Brown, 1994, pp. 257-258).

In addition, if the ultimate goal of the language learners is to communicate freely in the target language, then teaching and learning activities should be designed to develop their communicative competence. Brown (2007, p. 241) defines CLT as composed of four interrelated characteristics:

1. Classroom goals are focused on all of the components of communicative competence and not restricted to grammatical or linguistic competence.
2. Language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes. Organisational language forms are not the central focus but rather aspects of language that enable the learner to accomplish those purposes.
3. Fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques. At times fluency may have to take on more importance than accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use.
4. In the communicative classroom, students ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts.

Clearly, the main features of CLT include communicative classroom activities, learner-centredness, authentic teaching materials, teachers as facilitators and fluency above accuracy.

Larsen-Freeman (2000) further states that the most obvious characteristics of CLT is that almost everything that is done is done with a communicative intent (p. 129). Brown (1994, pp. 70-71) describes the characteristics of CLT as following:

Table 1. Approaches and methods – an Overview

Theory of language	Theory of learning	Objectives	Syllabus	Activity types	Learner roles	Teacher roles	Roles of materials
Language is a system for the expression of meaning: primary-function interaction and communication.	Activities involving real communication; carrying out meaningful tasks; and using language which is meaningful to the learner.	Objectives will reflect the needs of the learner; they will include functional skills as well as linguistic objectives.	Will include some/all of the following: structures, functions, notions, themes, tasks. Ordering will be guided by learner needs.	Engage learners in communica-tion, involve processes such as information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction.	Learner as negotiator, interactor giving as well as taking.	Facilitator of the communication process, participants' tasks, and texts; needs analyst, counsellor, process manager.	Primary role in promoting communicative language use; task-based materials; authentic.

The above-mentioned characteristics of CLT show that the activities in the language classroom will involve real communication and the language used is meaningful to the learners. They imply that analysis of students' needs is also the basis for adopting CLT. Overall, the abovementioned characteristics and criteria for implementing CLT effectively should be authentic in a specific context of language education.

Research on CLT in Asian EFL contexts

Much debate has focused on the appropriateness of CLT for Asian learners and the challenges of implementing it in an Asian context (Ellis, 1994; Hu, 2002; Li, 2001; Sakui, 2004). Most of the researchers have identified problems of implementing CLT within specific contexts, but all ultimately support an adapted version which takes into account local conditions. This debate needs to be related to the fact that English is no longer viewed as a foreign or second language but as a global or international language. McKay (2002, p. 132) defines international English as the language that can be used "both in a local sense between speakers of diverse cultures and languages within one country and in a global sense between speakers of different countries". Kramsch and Sullivan (1996) assert that "appropriate pedagogy should prepare learners to be both global and local speakers of English and to feel at home in both international and national cultures". Bax (2003) argues that CLT has neglected a key aspect of language teaching – the context in which it takes place. Therefore, he suggests that context will be the very first thing to be taken into account before any methodological and language system decisions are taken. The above researchers emphasise the importance of taking into account "contextual factors in the particular classroom, with those particular students, in that particular country or culture" (Bax, 2003).

A number of researchers in Asian EFL contexts report problems which are relevant to Mongolia. Not all problems relate to CLT in a direct way. Problems include the role of grammar, lack of trained teachers, teachers' lack of proficiency in English, expectations of the roles of the teacher and of the students, large classes, and so on as follows. For example, Hu (2002) reports that CLT has failed to have the expected impact on English Language Teaching (ELT) because of the conflict between the assumptions underlying CLT and the Chinese culture of learning. Chinese teachers and students view grammar as the most important element in foreign language learning and believe that teachers should dominate the classroom (Hu, 2002). Another researcher, Yu (2001), reports additional obstacles in the Chinese context such as lack of teachers who are properly trained in CLT and students not being accustomed to interactive classroom activities. In South Korea, according to Li (2001), teachers preferred grammar based examinations and lacked confidence

in their own English while the students showed resistance to class participation. Furthermore, Li (2001) states that students have become accustomed to traditional teacher-centred teaching in their schooling and this makes it difficult to get them to participate in class activities. Similarly, pedagogical practices in Vietnam focusing mainly on grammar, exams that do not measure learners' abilities to use meaningful language in social situations and teachers' insufficient contact with students in large classes make CLT difficult to adopt in that context (Ellis, 1994). In Japan, factors such as misunderstanding of CLT by teachers, grammar-oriented exams, time constraints for teachers, rigid curriculum schedules and reliance on textbooks that focus on grammatical features also cause problems in implementing CLT (Sakui, 2004). These studies reveal the importance and diversity of contexts in adopting CLT and suggest adapting it to meet language learners' needs in these contexts.

Therefore, in order to apply CLT, curriculum developers in Mongolia should consider essential features related to communication rather than simply replacing grammar with functions, and they should think about teaching methods that are more appropriate to the Mongolian context. As McKay (2002, p. 129) suggests, local educators "are in the best position to understand what their students need to know, and to encourage them to learn and use English to fully participate in our growing global community".

Notion of EIL in EFL context as central to ELT

Research on world Englishes informs us that many interactions in English today take place among non-native speakers of English (Crystal, 1997; McKay, 2003). Therefore, it is important to consider the notion of EIL in teaching English. This is also one of the reasons that interpretation and implementation of CLT differ from one context to another. Thus, there is a need for English language teachers to recognise the importance of EIL and avoid imposing particular native speaker norms since 'English is no longer viewed as the property of its native speakers' (Alptekin, 2002). To be able to communicate with native speakers and master a language to a native-like level are no longer the goals of English teaching. Kramsch and Sullivan (1996, p. 199) state that "native-speaker practices do not apply across multiple contexts of use". Alptekin (2002) asserts that it is time for English language teaching to consider the implications of the international status of English in terms of appropriate pedagogies and instructional materials that will help learners become successful bilingual and intercultural individuals, who are able to function well in both local and international settings (p. 63). This implies that communicative language teaching and learning should be adapted to the needs of particular learners in particular contexts.

McKay (2002) recommends that teachers of EIL should think globally and act locally. Furthermore, she stresses that given the diversity of local cultures of learning, pedagogical particularisation is needed since it is unrealistic to imagine that one method, such as CLT, will meet the needs of all learners. Rather, McKay (2003) suggests that local teachers must be given the right and the responsibility to employ methods that are culturally sensitive and productive in their students' learning of English. Thus, bilingual teachers play an important role in developing an appropriate EIL pedagogy.

Methodology

The study was conducted in a qualitative manner which "places emphasis on understanding through looking closely at people's words, actions and records" (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994, p. 17). Moreover, qualitative research helps to gain insight into people's feelings, in-depth understanding and beliefs about the meaningful nature of the phenomena (Gay, 1996). Thus, a qualitative research approach was suitable for the study which

involved ten pre-service English teachers, who completed their 12-week teaching practicum at seven different secondary schools in Ulaanbaatar. They were interviewed through a focus group interview in May, 2019 and were asked to share their views on CLT uses in the secondary schools in Ulaanbaatar. As Kamberelis and Dimitriadis (2005) argue, a focus group has the advantage of making the invisible visible by digging out information that is difficult to reach during individual interviews. The reason is that a focus group can promote synergy among the participants. In a focus group, participants can consider their points of views in the context of the views of others by sharing their ideas, perceptions and stories (Patton, 2002). In addition, participants can learn from each other during focus groups or group interviews. In the focus group, the students were invited to discuss their experiences with CLT, their perceptions of the approach and their views of English language education at the schools where they completed the teaching practicum. It is noteworthy here that the outcomes of this study can not be generalised to other schools in Mongolia. The interview was recorded and transcribed. In addition, the data were analysed using inductive and interpretive methods. Inductive analysis means "discovering patterns, themes and categories in one's data" (Patton, 2002, p. 453). Thus, the main issues arising from the data were sorted out and categorised.

Findings and Discussion

According to all of the participants, traditional approach of grammar translation method is widely used in English teaching at the secondary schools and tends to be teacher-centred, while the communicative approach is used relatively less. As Brown (1994) points out, the grammar translation method is popular, because it requires few specialised skills on the part of teachers and tests of grammar rules and translations are easy to construct and score. The fundamental purpose of learning a foreign language using the grammar-translation method is the ability to read literature written in the target language but this does not address how to actually use the language (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Therefore, teaching only using the grammar-translation method does not meet Mongolian learners' needs since they need to develop their communicative skills in an age of globalisation. Moreover, the young people nowadays need to develop their communicative competence to increase their opportunities for future employment and study. For instance, in order to study abroad students are required to take international English Language proficiency tests such as TOEFL and IELTS. In addition, if their English language proficiency meets the requirements of the employers they will find a job more easily. In fact, Breen and Candlin (2001, p. 12) state that communicative abilities are manifested in communicative performance through a set of the four macro skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) which are the meeting point between underlying communicative competence – interpretation, expression, and negotiation – and observable communicative performance. Integration and development of these four skills within the curriculum, therefore, meets the students' needs. To meet this goal, teachers of English in Mongolia need to think about the pedagogical practices and the teaching materials used to support the teaching process.

The participants also made the following comments: teachers rarely use additional materials other than the textbook; teachers do not use interesting activities and discussions; classes are boring; and classes are teacher-centred. Eight out of ten participants were dissatisfied with the teaching methods used in some secondary schools. Six student-teachers even said that the teachers at some schools need to improve their teaching methodology. This suggests it would be a suitable time for teachers of English in the particular contexts to review their teaching methods. The strategies for maintaining quality teaching (Richards, 2001) could be used by English teachers in secondary schools in Mongolia. These strategies are related to reflective teaching in which "teachers and students collect data about teaching, examine their attitudes, beliefs, assumptions, and teaching practices, and use the information obtained as a basis for critical reflection about teaching" (Richards and Lockhart, 1994, p. 1). Therefore, teachers should constantly develop not only their English proficiency but also their knowledge of pedagogy by using the above strategies as outlined by Richards (2001).

Most of the pre-service teachers mentioned that teachers mostly do not consider what their students want to learn and do not get feedback from students on their teaching methods. This also shows that there is a lack of collaboration between teachers and students in the language classroom which is needed as it plays an important role in language teaching and learning. The role of teachers as facilitators in CLT might be unacceptable for some teachers in Mongolia. This is because, as Hu (2002) had found out that adopting CLT was resisted by some Chinese teachers because "CLT is firmly opposed to teacher dominance in the classroom and advocates a more equal relationship between teacher and student" (p. 95). However, learner-centred teaching does not mean "handing over rights and power to learners in a unilateral way and devaluing the teacher" (Nunan, 1999, p. 12). Rather, it means "educating learners so that they can gradually assume greater responsibility for their own learning" (Nunan, 1999, p. 12).

The pre-service teachers also claimed that some secondary school English teachers encountered problems with their speaking. This seems to indicate that methods to teaching English may not be based on a communicative ground, or that communicative language teaching has not been successfully applied in the context of the secondary school in Mongolia. Plus, due to their lack of English proficiency, the teachers might have been heavily dependent on English textbooks and even using Mongolian language all the time instead of the target language during their teaching. Therefore, upgrading the quality of English teachers is now becoming a major issue in the Mongolian education sector. Since the students' primary need is to be able to communicate in an international arena, teaching methods such as CLT and notions of teaching EIL should be considered in teaching English. Moreover, as indicated by the participants, who are aware of their English needs in the future, these methods should focus more on facilitating the productive skills. To this end, more writing and speaking in a variety of genres were suggested. Besides this, English teachers need to identify their students' needs, analyse the curriculum and make some innovations. The curriculum in this context has to be a comprehensive document which focuses not only on teaching methods but also on determining the needs of learners, developing aims or objectives to address those needs, determining an appropriate syllabus, course structure, and materials, and carrying out an evaluation of the language program that results from these processes (Richards, 2001, p. 2).

The participants stated that most of the teachers they observed during their practicum were dependent on the coursebooks. Though there are many advantages of using textbooks, in order to promote effective learning for their students in Mongolia, Mongolian English teachers should not depend heavily on a single book, considering the potential disadvantages of this, such as "a possible lack of variety in teaching procedures, a reduced range of response to individual student needs and problems, a possible lack of spontaneity and a sharply reduced level of creativity in teaching technique and language use" (Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 10). Therefore, teachers should create more balanced classes choosing materials from other resources and supplementing the coursebooks with a variety of materials. For example, English teachers can include more CLT based activities that are appropriate in the Mongolian context and the materials in international English, instead of using just British and American English as well.

The data showed the challenges in implementing CLT in other Asian countries (Ellis 1994; Hu 2002; Li 2001; Sakui 2004) are also relevant for Mongolian English teachers. For example, class size, grammar based examinations, some teachers' lack of English proficiency, traditional views of language teaching as a process of delivering knowledge on language rather than communicative skills, and heavy dependence on imported commercial textbooks. Therefore, teachers need to adapt CLT to the Mongolian context after identifying their students' needs and doing a situation analysis. As Alptekin (2002) has suggested, Mongolian English teachers should consider English as a means of international and intercultural communication in both non-native and native speaker settings and use appropriate teaching methods for the Mongolian context.

Finally, there is a need to carry out a more comprehensive study, in which participants could be selected from a broader range of stakeholders such as employers, ELT policy makers in Mongolia, in addition to students, teachers and alumni and so a broader situation analysis could be conducted. Moreover, the conclusions of this study are not static, but rather they are changeable over time and place. Since the learners are the main focus of the teaching and learning process, their needs and the needs of their future employers should be explored and investigated to design an optimal English language teaching curriculum. Based on these needs, appropriate teaching methods and materials which are the main factors in effective language education can be employed.

Conclusion

The data showed that the communicative approach is used relatively less at the secondary schools. It remains to be seen which teaching method is most suitable for Mongolian students and the Mongolian context. To select the most appropriate approach or to decide what strategies should fit a specific classroom situation, it is necessary for Mongolian English teachers to learn more about their students' needs. For the universities and teacher trainers in Mongolia, upgrading the quality of graduates is now becoming a major issue. This is because graduates include future English teachers and people who will use English in their jobs and while there are exceptions, in general, students' English competency is not good. To prepare good quality English teachers and effective students for the labour market in Mongolia or abroad, English language education in Mongolia should focus not only on grammar but also other language skills that they can use in their future jobs and academic study. If learners are to learn, then they have to do the learning for themselves (Nunan, 1999) and they will be more motivated if they learn what they want and need to.

Clearly, English teachers should combine traditional language teaching methods with communicative language teaching to achieve the goal of the curriculum which is integrating the four skills – reading, writing, speaking and listening - in students' learning. The difficulties with the introduction of the communicative approach in other Asian countries (Li, 2001) is one Mongolian English teachers are also encountering. Many factors interfere with the adoption of CLT, such as class size, grammar based examinations, some teachers' lack of English proficiency, traditional attitudes towards language teaching, lack of authentic materials, and the students' expectations towards the teaching and learning processes because they have previously been taught in a traditional way. However, after identifying students' needs and analysing curriculum and language teaching situations CLT can be adapted for the Mongolian context.

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TEACHER ASSESSMENT LITERACY

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Abstract: *Assessment plays a significant role in teaching language and in language educators' daily work as well. In our view, teachers' knowledge and preparation in assessment is lacking especially in EFL contexts. The study of Troudi, Coombe, and AI-Hamly (2009) in the United Arab Emirates and Kuwait confirmed "teachers often felt marginalized in the area of assessment because of their perceived lack of knowledge about the subject" (Coombe et al, 2012, p 22). Language teachers in the National University of Mongolia are constantly engaged in designing different types of assessments and in some way, we encounter ~~with~~ certain difficulties related to our knowledge of assessment literacy. This paper examines a concept of assessment especially the first area of assessment literacy, which is a teacher's assessment knowledge and challenges related to assessment literacy. It also examines the strategies and the techniques that should be used in assessing the comprehension of four skills with reference to EFL classrooms. Thus, teachers can implement the appropriate techniques and utilize the assessment results to modify their classroom instruction, which entails the enhancement of their students' learning abilities.*

Key words: assessment literacy, achievement, task, validity, reliability, technique, comprehension, scoring

Introduction

Formal testing historically began about 1,500 years ago in China. Over the centuries, the test gradually became more and more standardized in its approach. In Europe, testing came in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries in the founded universities. Modern English language testing begins in the early of the twentieth century with crucial innovations.

We know that assessment is an integral part of the teaching–learning process. Assessing or testing is one of the most demanding, complex, and crucial tasks that teachers are engaged in regularly. We as language teachers spend a certain percent of our professional time engaged in testing and assessment. To complete our task we do have basically two options: to adopt a test, which was developed by testing specialists, or develop a test by ourselves based on our experiences. In terms of adopting the first option, its practical application is widespread in the classroom; however, teachers have to recognize different purposes and types of assessment, and use them accordingly. Most teachers here adopt the tests written by specialists who are in overseas. In some ways, we feel that those tests are not touch with the realities of our classroom due to the differences of environment and background of instruction such as ESL and EFL settings. When it comes to test design, we as language teachers in National University of Mongolia face this task regularly when administering the placement tests, mid-term tests, finals, and so on. It is more challenging and time-consuming task for most teachers. It especially requires us to have a higher level of assessment literacy, which helps students obtain higher levels of academic achievement. In terms of foreign language teachers, assessing means not only checking whether their students acquire the required language skills, but also making sure their instruction meets their students' needs. Hence, we need to be able to recognize multiple purposes and types of assessment and utilize them properly.

The Importance of Assessment Literacy for Teachers

Assessment literacy is defined as an understanding of the principles of sound assessment. Having assessment literacy means "knowing appropriate testing practices, acquiring a wide range of assessment techniques and utilizing tests that accurately assess higher order concepts" (Hoyt, 2005, as cited in Rodger,

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2001). How do our audiences view the assessment? According to Coombe, Troudi, and Al-Hamly, "for the typical EF/SL student, assessment is generally seen as something done to them by their teachers" (Coombe et ai, 2012, p. 20). Also, most students seem to feel anxious and worried most about the assessment result, which might impact on their grade. In our view, teachers should encourage them to see the assessment as assistance or an opportunity, which detects their weaknesses that need to be developed or improved upon for them to succeed. In terms of teachers' view on assessment, some researchers stated that teachers often experience feelings similar to those felt by their students. This feeling might be related to their proficiency of assessment literacy or their lack of experience in developing tests because most teachers in our country receive little training in assessment. Developing assessment literacy would allow language teachers to view assessment as a central teaching function in our classrooms since assessment literacy allows us to understand what assessment methods to use, to communicate assessment results in effective ways, and to understand how to use assessment to maximize student motivation and learning.

Types of Assessment

Choosing the right type of assessment dramatically affects students' lives because the choice is used to make important decisions such as what level of language they will learn, what they need to focus on, if they will pass the course or not, and so on. Distinguishing between two families of assessment purposes, which are standardized and classroom and the differences of three common language assessment types such as selected-response, productive-response, and personal-response is a key issue for teachers, who need to choose the right types of assessment.

The standardized assessment's purpose is to measure the following: aptitude, proficiency, and placement. Aptitude assessment is very general and is usually intended to decide who will benefit most from language instruction. As instructors in a university setting, we rarely use this type of assessment and most teachers have less experience administering it. Hughes writes that proficiency tests are designed to measure people's ability in a language, regardless of any training they may have had in that language. This assessment is designed to decide who would be admitted to a particular institution and it is intended for administrative purposes. One example of proficiency assessment could be the entrance test for applicants who are applying admission to university after their high school graduation. In terms of placement assessment, it is designed to measure the language abilities of students to decide who should study at which levels. We administer the placement test once a year for the students who, are enrolled in our university and a certain number of teachers are appointed to design and administer this assessment.

Diagnostic information, progress, and achievement are the purposes of classroom assessments in which teachers are constantly engaged by adopting, adjusting, designing, and administering them. Diagnostic assessment is administered at the beginning of a course to give information to both students and teachers regarding how much the students already know or can do. In the middle of the course, we administer the progress tests to measure our students' progress and provide information to both students and teachers about how they are doing in the course and where they should focus more. In mid-term, we usually adopt the test which is provided with textbook as a supplementary for teachers, but in some cases, we adjust them to make them fit with our classroom setting or we design the tests by ourselves, which is a bit challenging and time consuming for us. Doing this, however, encourages us to improve our assessment literacy by designing a well-constructed assessment. The last type of assessment is an achievement test, which is administered at the end of a course for evaluating how much students have accomplished, with the intent of grading students. In our experience, at the end of every fall and spring semester, a group of teachers is appointed to design the final tests or achievement tests assessing three skills: reading, writing, and oral communication. We spend a certain amount of time and effort designing proper tests to assess learners' language skills; however, this process always entails issues due to the lack of knowledge regarding the assessment literacy.

Assessment types	Appropriate for assessing	Example items	Corresponding classroom activities
Selected-response	knowledge (vocabulary, grammar, sound contrasts, etc. or receptive skills of listening and reading)	true-false, multiple-choice. Matching, etc.	explicit learning of receptive grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation knowledge exercise; all kinds of listening or reading activities in isolation, etc.
Productive-response	productive skills of speaking and writing or their interactions with other skills, or task performance	fill-in, short-answer, task-performance, etc.	productive knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation exercise; pair work, group work, role plays; speaking and writing performance tasks of all kinds, etc.
Personal-response	all for skills simultaneously, or higher-order thinking skills, or for motivating students to speak or write	Self-/peer-assessments, portfolios, conferences, etc.	all of the activities immediately above, plus introspection and reflection activities, individualized instruction, project work, etc.

Figure 1. Relationships between assessment types and corresponding classroom activities (Coombe et al, 2012, p 135)

Validity in Language Assessment

There are crucial key features of effective classroom assessment that we have to be aware of in order to assess properly learners' language skills. All types of assessments such as reading ability, fluency in speaking, control of grammar, and ability of speaking must be valid if they are to measure accurately what they are intended to measure. The validity is the most significant concern in language testing. Akbari (2012) writes that "in the traditional view, validity is defined as the simple question of whether a test measures what it is supposed to measure" (Coombe et al. p. 30). This means that any assessment must be clear about what ability it is measuring and must really measure it. For instance, let's assume that a reading test is designed to measure if test takers get the main idea of the reading passage, but instead it measures the meaning of vocabulary; it can not be a valid test. In order to be valid, it needs to include some tasks to check if learners get the main idea of the passage.

In Harrison's view, there are different types of validity, which are face validity, content validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity. The first member of content validity involves any validity strategies that relate to content of the test. As Hughes says, the content validity "constitutes a representative sample of the language skills, structures, etc. with which it is meant to be concerned" (2003, p. 26). In terms of writing test, for example, if the students are giving a quotation from movie as a writing prompt for the very first time when they arrive at the test, and have not been previously exposed to the quotation by having any discussion about this movie or topic prior to the testing day the test could have a weak content validity. On the other hand, in the case of reading test, the teachers are advised to not use the materials that were exposed to students before, but it is ok to adopt a similar text on the testing. This could be a content validity test.

Another member of validity family is construct validity, which is directly related to the area of second and foreign language testing. A test is considered valid when it measures accurately what it is intended to measure. According to Hughes, "in recent years the term *construct validity* has been increasingly used to refer to the general, overarching notion of validity" because of creating "language testing in order to measure such essentially theoretical construct of reading ability, fluency in speaking, control of grammar, and so on" (2003, p.26). Also, it "asks whether a test truly represents the theoretical construct" (Brown, 2004, as cited in Hedgcock & Ferris, 2009, p. 330). In reading assessment, choosing any model of readings, such as top-down, bottom-up, or integrative can be considered to be the construct validity. We determined that bottom-up approach is a mostly appropriate for lower level students. Bottom-up instruction focuses on spelling, alphabetic decoding, word recognition, and syntactic processing. A top-down approach will more appropriate for intermediate and upper intermediate level of students due to its focus on "skimming an entire passage for gist comprehension and identifying main ideas and supporting details" (Coombe et al. 2013, p. 212). As for interactive model, it is "the pedagogical practice of teaching stages of reading" (Coombe et al. 2013, p 212) such as pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading. Another example could be an achievement test, which is covering the Past Simple and Past Progressive as a grammar test. It includes the gap-filling section, which not only checks grammatical knowledge, but also provides language in context to make it more communicative. Assessment addresses the threat to construct validity because the test is based on the skills it aims at measuring (Akbari, 2012); it answers the question what it means to know a language, because this item not only measures students' knowledge of Past Simple and Progressive, but also their ability to use them in context.

Face validity is also a member of validity family on which language teachers should focus. According to Akbari's description, face validity "refers to the physical appearance of the test" (Coombe et al. 2012, p. 31). The test should offer adequate instructions, such as a length of time to complete the task; it should provide students with space to write down their name and date of the test; each task should stay fully on the same page; and the whole reading assessment should be written in formal format because fancy would be hard for some students to interpret it. However, according to Hughes (2003), "a test is said to have face validity if it looks as if it measures what it is supposed to measure" (p. 33) as well. An instance of this would be the writing assessment–previously mentioned, since the test is intended to measure students' writing proficiency in college level and it could require the candidates to write.

The last member of validity family is a criterion-related validity, which "is a statistical concept whereby a newly designed test's results are correlated with already established tests of the same skill or domain to see the degree of correlation between test takers' scores." (Coombe et al. 2012, p. 31). For instance, if a teacher was trying to develop a grammar test, he/she might decide to administer his/her new test and a reputable proficiency test or criterion test to the same group of candidates and then, calculate the degree of correlation between those two tests. If the results of two tests show that a new grammar test correlates more with the reputable test, that would indicate the teacher-made test is as valid as the reputable test. The criterion test can be a well-established standardized test such as IELTS or TOEFL. The criterion-related validity of an assessment is usually based on its concurrent and predictive accuracy. (I'm not sure I understand this last sentence.) The purpose of concurrent validity is to investigate the relationship between the newly developed test and the criterion test, which are administered at the same time to a group of test takers. If the new test shows a strong and positive correlation with the criterion test, it indicates concurrent validity. In contrast, predict validity refers to how accurately a test score predicts performance on the criterion measure at some future point in time (Weir as cited in Gochev, 2013). In other words, there is a time gap between the administration of the newly developed test and criterion test. For instance, a test to evaluate students' academic aptitude might be administrated at the beginning of the semester, and then the second administration might not happen until the end of the semester. If the students' grade point average has strong positive correlation, it indicates a high degree of predictive validity for the new test.

Reliability in Language Assessment

Another important consideration in language testing is reliability. How can we tell if our assessment is reliable or not? Coombe defines that reliability as the extent to which an assessment, taken by same group of examinees, produces consistent scores over several different administrations. Let us assume that 30 students in your class take a 20-item test at 9 am on Tuesday morning and then they will be given exactly the same test at 9 am on the following day under precisely the same condition as the previous day. If the test results on both days are similar, the test would be considered perfectly reliable. Of course, we do not expect each student will get exactly same score on those tests. Many factors influence test score reliability including examinees' differing mental and physical conditions to the administration, ~~to~~ the number of items in the test, the number examinees, scoring procedures, and so forth.

Validity in Scoring

The most vital consideration for teachers is a scoring which is the last subject for assessment improvement. For a test is to have validity, the way in which the answers are scored must be valid. As a test developer, we have to decide how we are going to score an item and assign the relative weighting of each part when we develop tasks. If the scoring of the responses of the reading test which calls for short written responses takes into account spelling and grammar, then it threats the validity in scoring. Teachers, for example, sometimes do not employ a scoring rubric because they intend to assign scores based on their impression. In our view, impression scoring is unreliable because it is too broad and candidates cannot really benefit from it. The teachers should have applied a holistic scale, which is more appropriate for achievement test because it gives a single score to "evaluate different aspects of performance separately" (Coombe et al 2012, p.221). Raters on this scale might not spend as much time as those on an analytic scale; candidates might not benefit from this scale as a result of receiving less detailed feedback from teacher. On the other hand, if it is a final achievement writing test, very few students will refer to feedback on their testing result.

Direct and Indirect Test Items

We need to distinguish between two categories that most test items fall into: direct and indirect test items. Direct test items ask the student to perform precisely the skill. If we want to know how well our students can write essays, our test item asks them to write an essay. Direct testing items are often integrative, which means that the student has to apply several skills at once. Presentations, for example, could be considered as integrative direct testing items since it involves the writing of speech, the reading or memorizing of the speech except for speaking. Indirect test items measure a students' knowledge about a subject. According to Hughes, "Indirect testing attempts to measure the abilities that underlie the skills in which we are interested" (Hughes, 2003, p. 18). In other words, the test assesses knowledge without authentic application. The common examples of indirect test items are multiple choice questions, cloze items, paraphrasing, and sentence re-ordering. Cloze items give the candidates a paragraph or sentence with one or more blanks in it, and they have to complete the sentence. The fact that more than one answer is acceptable causes confusion when marking the test.

Assembling the Assessment

Time

Genesee and Upshur state that students complaining about not having enough time to complete tests is a natural reaction from students who believe that a little more time will allow them to get a few more questions correct (1996). In fact, second language tests give too much time students, so students tend to treat the test items as puzzles rather than authentic language use. So how much time should test developer allocate for a test? We should consider whether the language skill that we are testing occur with or without time

constraints. For instance, if we are conversing with students or having group discussion we should not be overly strict for our time allocations. Another consideration relates to the level of proficiency of the learners. "In general, the standards of performance for advanced learners should approximate those of native speakers, including the ability to use language fluently in a variety of authentic situations" (Genesee & Upshur, 1996, p. 198).

Test Instructions

The test instructions absolutely need to tell the students what they are supposed to do in test. We are not testing how the test takers understand the instructions, so the test instructions should be clear and meaningful to students. In order to make it much clear or understandable, each test items' instructions can be accompanied by the examples. Also, the students should be provided with general instructions to lead them to the tasks ahead. Genesee and Upshur (1996) made a list of some items to be included in general instructions:

- Goal of the test: Is it for grades? Is it progressive test? or something else?
- Number of parts or items included in the test
- Weighting of test- is it to contribute to the final grades
- Time required for the test
- Special test conditions which are not allowed for the test (using dictionary, not using cellphone, one student for one desk)
- What the teacher will look for when scoring; especially in essay writing (marks will be awarded on fluency, ideas, structures, or spelling)

Layout and Format

The goal of layout and format is to help students demonstrate their ability to meet the instructional objectives. Layout and format should be directed to removing distractions. The main problems in layout and format on teacher-made tests are crowding, ordering blocks of items and ordering items. The tests in a crowded page let students "skip lines in reading, omit questions, write over things they haven't yet read, and so on" (Genesee & Upshur, 1996, p. 203). Thus, crowding directly effects the efficiency of test takers. When we administer final achievement tests at the end of each semester, hundreds of students as a whole university have to take it simultaneously, which requires our language center to pay for that amount of paper and to copy that number of paper sheets. In that case, the size, layout and format of our teacher-made tests are modified into crowded page to save the paper and copy expenses.

Taking the test should not put any pressure on our students' performance. The order of items in test plays a key role in students' performance, so we should consider effectively which should come first? second? last? Staring the block with the easiest tasks or items "gives students confidence that they can perform tasks of this type, gives them practice with some easy tasks, and helps settle them down" (Genesee & Upshur, 1996, p. 205). Ordering the remaining items in the block entails a different consideration. Facility ordering means continuing to order items based on your estimate of how well students will perform. It provides students opportunity to begin with the items they could do best on. Random ordering, on the other hand, creates the problem " that students tend to become discouraged after encountering a series of items they cannot perform" (Genesee & Upshur, 1996, p. 205). Following the easy items by more challenging ones allow students to keep engaged and alert until the end.

Practical Application

Assessing writing

Writing instructions is a major aspect of literacy testing. Good writing performance is crucial in students' academic life because it indicates that students can communicate and display their knowledge in multiple disciplines. As the role of writing is becoming important, we need to enhance the ways of assessing writing proficiency in the language learning process. As EFL teachers, we always found more difficulties in assessment of our students' writing than in other assessments. Even as an ESL learner, writing especially academic writing is still the most challenging part of language skills for both L1 and L2. The very first consideration in writing assessment is defining the construct. To do that, we should ask ourselves, are we focusing on the students' control of the building blocks of the language, or are we focusing on their rhetorical abilities such as the ability to formulate and support a strong argument or to write in a specific style? (Coombe et al. 2012, p. 219). In our academic writing context, we focus more on precision of language structures rather than accurate use of specific grammatical and lexical forms, depending on the proficiency level of students who are in intermediate and upper intermediate classes.

In terms of classroom assessment, teachers might employ the idea of portfolio assessment as an achievement test. Portfolio is another common form of alternative assessment and is most frequently associated with written language. What is portfolio? In according to Winch et al (2001), portfolio is "a systematic collection of students' work that is analyzed to show progress over the period of time with regard to specific instructional goals" (as cited in Suwaed, 2018, p.146). The students submit a collection of their essays or papers that have been revised based on teacher and peer feedback and then, they will be evaluated by teacher as an achievement test.

In our setting, for instance, students, taking upper-intermediate level class, are instructed how to write five types of essays; how many essays will be evaluated by the end of the semester depends on teacher's preference. The students write all five types of essays, receive feedback from the both peers and teacher, and are given time to revise them during the whole class meetings. Students are also allowed to visit their teacher in his/her office hour to get help on their writing. At the end of the semester, students are asked to select the best three essays from the five essays they wrote by negotiating with their teacher, and the three selected essays are placed with their first draft and second revisions in their portfolio, along with one timed written essay. This type of assessment will incorporate multiple corrections from teacher and peer and student's revisions to produce near-perfect essays. Having the portfolio assessment entails the following advantages for the students.

- Giving students the time to edit or revise their papers or essays prior to the evaluation
- Giving students the opportunity to choose the essay or paper to be included in portfolio
- Demonstrating what students have achieved
- Measuring students' improvement
- Giving students the opportunity to reflect and do self-assessment
- Showing student's progress on writing
- Checking exact writing ability of student by the limited written essay

Assessing Reading

During their academic life, students encounter massive reading items in different disciplines outside of their English language class. For that reason, the improvement of students' reading comprehension is important and especially the language teacher plays a significant role as an assistant or supporter for his/her students. As we mentioned earlier, assessment is as important as instruction. Before discussing assessment, let us mention briefly the pedagogical practice of teaching stages of reading. The pre-reading stage allows students to activate their background knowledge, and during this stage, they practice strategies of skimming or scanning to find particular information and to become familiar with the reading text. Paying more attention to the detail and larger structure is a stage of reading. In post-reading, students complete the comprehension questions and analyze what they read. Most assessment, therefore, tends to focus on last two stages. We as teachers in Foreign Language Center of NUM are responsible for designing the final achievement tests, including all skills for all level of academic English at the end of both fall and spring semesters. Our designed tests mostly apply the techniques of multiple choice questions, selecting one out of

a number of alternatives, answering true or false questions, and deciding whether the given statements are true or false based on the text. To measure students' comprehension of texts, we should use or switch different types of techniques: yes-no questions, true or false questions, matching, WH questions, open-ended questions, multiple choice questions, and gapped texts, in our final test. To improve the quality of designing test, we can take into account the followings;

- Selecting appropriate texts in length and readability
- Choosing the text that has a familiar topic and interesting one but making sure the texts are not overexciting and disturbing the candidates
- Developing the questions in the order of the text and making the level of questions less difficult than the text
- Restricting the number of unfamiliar words in the text by 5-10 percent
- Measuring the reading comprehension without highlighting grammar or spelling
- Emphasizing reading strategies

Assessing Listening

It is generally believed that many students spend less time actively developing their listening skills. Flowerdew and Miller state~~s~~, "However, research in the past thirty years or so has demonstrated that good listening skills are fundamental to the development of the other language skills and the ability to develop good listening tests is important for the backwash effect this has on teaching" (Coombe et al, 2012, p. 225). The three approaches to the testing listening are

- discrete-point approach
- integrative approach
- communicative approach

The discrete-point approach focuses on testing the separate parts of the language; for instance, segmental phonemes, grammatical structure, and lexis. The tests that are used with this approach can be mostly administered to the lower level of proficiency learners. The integrative approach tests more than one language item at a time. The core techniques employed with this approach are gap-filling exercises, dictation, translation and so on. Flowerdew and Miller criticize this type of test because it does not move much above the sentence level. It rarely tests the language within a wider context (Coombe et al, 2012). Listening and understanding are tested in a wide range of contexts with a communicative approach. In other words, a test using this approach allows learners to be able do something with their comprehended information and then apply it to a wider communicative ways. Teachers who are developing tests (proficiency, achievement, placement, and so on) should choose the appropriate approach with their student's proficiency of language and course levels. In terms of testing upper-intermediate level of students, we see the selection of testing with last approach is more appropriate than other two approaches. During the process of designing the test, we encounter with a number of puzzles. One of them is the length and speed of speech for the listening text to select. The length might be expressed in seconds or minutes, and the speed of speech might be expressed as words per minute (wpm) or syllables per second (sps). Here is "the average speeds for samples of British English" which is determined by (Tauroza & Allison, 1990 as cited in Hughes, 2003, p. 162):

	wpm	sps
Radio monologues	160	4.17
Conversations	210	4.33
Interviews	190	4.17
Lectures to non-native speakers	140	3.17

Another issue for public secondary schools and universities in developing countries is how to test listening skill. The teacher has little or no access to technology available like language laboratories or high-quality sound-systems. Administrating test effectively reduces the possibility of external factors affecting the candidates' performance. Hence, according to Flowerdew and Miller, we should consider the following questions before preparing listening assessment:

- What approach to testing will be taken?
- What type of test is being developed?
- What technology is available or required?
- How many learners will take the test?
- How will the learners take the test?- whole group listens together, or in language lab with earphones?
- Can physical factors, which might affect performance (e.g., closing windows, too small classroom for the number of students)?

(Coombe et al, 2012, p. 228).

Assessing Speaking

The objective of teaching spoken language is the development of students' comprehension and their production as well. Besides, learning to speak English fluently is becoming one of the major aims for people, especially for the youths all over the world. Tests of spoken language ability are considered the most challenging to develop and administer in the process of teaching language. Hence, designing test should be concentrated on the test taker's comprehension and production of spoken language. There are basically three test formats, and each format has own techniques. Format 1 is the interview – it is a very common and traditional one, which has some useful techniques including questions and requests for information, pictures, role-play, interpreting, and the prepared monologue. Format 2 is interaction with fellow candidates; discussion and role-play are considered as the possible techniques of this format. The advantage of having candidates interacting is eliciting "language that is appropriate to exchange between equals, which may well be called for in the test specifications." (Hunghes, 2003, p. 121). Moreover, we can take an advantage of assessing two candidates at the once because it might take less time comparing with assessment one-to-one interview. Our class size is mostly bigger (one class has approximately 25-30 students) than the usual ones. Format 3 is responses to audio-or video- recordings: all candidates with the same computer-generated or audio- or video-recorded stimuli respond into a microphone (Hughes, 2003). Although a larger number of students can be tested at the same time, this method still requires technological available like a language laboratory which is not always accessible for teachers and students in developing countries. In terms of a final achievement test, we do not usually design a speaking test to assess the students' oral production due to the limited conditions such as the lack of technical resource, classroom capacity, size of the classes, and so on. We, therefore, select the appropriate spoken test format and technique for our classroom assessment.

Conclusion

Assessment is intended to enhance the process of both teaching and learning by giving huge opportunities for students to investigate their weakness and to help them achieve their goal. The assessment's aim can be completed by linking the assessment results to classroom instruction and by giving constructive activities that meet to learners' needs. Working as a teacher in a university has multiple tasks, and one of them is to assess the students in many ways. Completing this task allows us to adopt a test, which was developed by specialist or to develop a test by ourselves based on our experience and knowledge. The second option, to develop a test of our own, is usually a more challenging and complex task for most teachers. Developing a well- designed test requires us to be a more experienced and more knowledgeable teacher in this area. This paper attempted to share the issues that language teachers encounter or make while we are developing tests due to the lack of knowledge about assessment. To avoid those problems, we believe that teachers firstly need to know what the assessment literacy is. Secondly, we need to identify the types of assessments and their goals. Thirdly, we need to know what are the requirements to develop those different

types of tests and to know each language skill has own feature in testing. Indeed, assessing is a complex process that requires teachers to spend sufficient time to be well-organized test developers so as to help students enhance their language abilities.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND TECHNOLOGY INTEGRATION IN EFL CLASSROOMS

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Abstract: *In today's modern educational environment, the use of technology has become a significant area of study relating to various aspects of teaching and learning. Teachers in the workforce today often find themselves in a scenario of having to incorporate more technologically efficient methods of teaching to meet the demands of students' learning in a technological environment. However, some argue that teachers tend to use technologies ineffectively in their classrooms because of some influential factors that include external and internal factors. Nowadays, internal factors relating especially to teachers' beliefs attract more attention and more research work. Although there are many studies on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and technology integration, they show different findings that are both consistent and inconsistent between teachers' beliefs and their practices of technology integration. Thus, this study investigates the relationship between the English language teachers' beliefs and technology integration in an EFL context, and explores an appropriate professional development program for the English language teachers in this context which can help improve their teaching through technology integration. A quantitative research was carried out at the National University of Mongolia (NUM) to investigate the English language teachers' beliefs regarding technology integration and their classroom practices. Forty-six English language teachers out of sixty-five at NUM participated in this research. The result of the study shows that it is useful for improving technology integration at NUM as well as in other educational institutions across Mongolia.*

Key words: Technology integration, teachers' beliefs, EFL, constructivist learning approach, professional development.

Introduction

Technology or Information and Communication Technology (ICT) is an inseparable part of our everyday life. People use technologies for everything ranging from every day communication to activities in professional fields throughout the world. As Jhurree (2005) argues today, ICT is the driving force behind competition in the global economy for every single country including both developed and developing countries. ICT is integrated in every field, including economy, society, politics and education (Jhurree, 2005). When ICT is integrated in education properly, it can lead to educational reforms within a particular context. Moreover, properly integrated ICT develops students' problem solving and decision-making skills by creating a constructivist learning environment (Jhurree, 2005).

A constructivist learning approach is a learner-centred classroom practice where high-level tasks are used which enable learners to think critically and solve problems (Becker, 1994; Becker & Riel, 1999 as cited in Ertmer, 2005). Decision-making and problem solving skills are highly-required skills in the twenty first century (Larson & Miller, 2011). Hence, proper integration of ICT in education can lead to many changes not only in students' learning achievements but also in whole educational sectors. Educational sectors are

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fundamental for the further development of a country where the education of future generations is formed. Therefore, in order to prepare our well-educated generations for the digital competitive world, it is vital to integrate ICT properly into educational systems. Miller (2015) argues that most universities of the twenty first century ask students to incorporate varieties of technologies including computers, the internet and webpages into their learning methods.

Technology was introduced to Mongolia quite late. According to Sambuu (2006), ICT was introduced to the Mongolian secondary school curriculum in 1988 and to the tertiary level curriculum in 1982. Since then, the Mongolian Ministry of Education has implemented many national policies and programs in relation to ICT integration including E-Mongolia National Program 2005 and ICT Vision-2010 (Sambuu, 2006). With regards to these ICT-related policies and programs, the use of technology has increased in educational sectors, particularly in classroom practices. Along with this increased use of technology in education, the number of students who learn English has increased dramatically in Mongolia. According to Cohen (2005), English has spread in Mongolia since 1990, and in 1996 English became a mandatory subject in all secondary and university curricula by the policy of the Mongolian Ministry of Education. An important survey shows that majority of the students at the National University of Mongolia chose English in order to find better jobs and create opportunities to study or live abroad (Cohen, 2005). English is taught as a foreign language and, from the researcher's teaching experience, the main language teaching method is the Grammar-Translation method in Mongolia.

The National University of Mongolia (NUM) is chosen as a target institution of this research. NUM is the Mongolia's oldest, biggest and most highly recommended public university which is located in the capital city of Mongolia. NUM has two language departments, the Department of British and American Studies (DBAS) and the Foreign Language Centre (FLC). The teachers at the DBAS teach subjects such as syntax, lexicology, and stylistics to the English major students. The teachers at the FLC teach six credit subjects such as academic and professional Englishes to the non-English major students. All non- major students are required to complete upper-intermediate level of English. Hence, the number of students who learn English at NUM is very high. Since NUM is the biggest public university in Mongolia, more well-qualified teachers are likely to work there and more modern technological facilities are provided as well. Therefore, this university can be a good representative to show how technology is integrated in the English language classrooms, especially in urban areas in Mongolia.

Research Problem

Although English has become a compulsory subject at all educational levels in Mongolia as mentioned above and more technological facilities are being used in the classrooms, there are not any noticeable improvements in students' English language performances. According to the EF English Proficiency Index (2019), Mongolia ranks eighty-eighth (with very low proficiency) out of one hundred countries. Although language teachers use technologies in their classrooms, it is more likely that they do not use technologies effectively enough to enhance students' knowledge and skills. According to Ertmer and Ottenbreit-Leftwich (2010), even though the classroom use of technology has increased dramatically, teachers tend to use it less effectively. In order to integrate technology effectively teachers need to create more constructive learning among students (Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010). As discussed above, a constructive approach develops students' twenty first century skills such as critical thinking and problem solving skills through high-level tasks. However, teachers use more low-level tasks under teacher-directed practices while using technology in their classrooms (Chen, 2008; Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010; Judson, 2006; Liu, 2011). Therefore, creating more constructive learning, which focuses on learner-centeredness and high-level tasks, in the English language classrooms becomes vital not only for improving the effectiveness of technology integration but also the students' language knowledge and skills in this modern world.

Research Aim

There are many studies on the influential factors related to technology integration in classroom practices including Aydin (2013), Park & Son (2009) and Reza (2014) in different EFL contexts. Although there can be varieties of influential factors in technology integration including student-related, and teacher-related factors as previous studies propose, this study focuses on the teacher-related issue, especially teachers' beliefs regarding technology integration in the language classrooms. Teachers are the only persons who make decisions in the classroom (Ertmer, 2005). In other words, teachers decide what technology to use and how to use it in their teaching practices. Therefore, teachers' beliefs play an important role in technology integration in classroom practices.

Literature Review

1. Technology Integration in Education

Due to technological advancement, education has undergone revolutionary changes (Mishra, Koehlar, & Kereluik, 2009). In relation to these changes, teachers have had increasing responsibilities relating to how best to integrate technologies effectively in their teaching (Mishra et al., 2009). According to Dockstader (1999), technology integration enables students to use computers meaningfully in a specific content area. Mishra et al (2009) argue that 'educational technology is the study and practice of facilitating learning and improving performance by creating, using and managing technological processes and resources' (p.48). Thus, technology integration needs to be meaningful without focusing solely on computer skills. When technology is integrated effectively, it has many benefits: it motivates students, promotes students' communicative competence, widens students' knowledge about the Western culture, enhances teaching efficiency, provides more interactions among students and teachers, and creates more authentic environments in the classroom (Pun, 2013; Shyamlee & Phil, 2012). Thus, effective technology integration in the classroom is an essential component in student formation and learning today.

Although there are many benefits when technology is integrated into classroom practices, there are still some challenges and issues with regards to its classroom implementations. The literature investigates a number of influential factors that relate to technology integration in any context. Some of these are more contextual and include insufficient technical and instructional equipment, lack of support from the authorities and administrations, and lack of time. These can be classified under the broad category of external factors. (Aydin, 2013; ChanLin, Hong, Jeou-Shyan, Chang, & Hui-Chuan, 2006; Ismail, Almekhlafi, & Al-Mekhlafy, 2010; Lee, 2000; Park & Son, 2009; Reza, 2014). For instance, the research done on twelve Korean in-service teachers of EFL secondary school (Park & Son, 2009) shows that although the teachers have positive attitudes toward the use of technology, they are confronted by many difficulties, including limited time, insufficient computer facilities at school and lack of administrative support. However, as technology is advancing and developing more rapidly, these external or context-related issues are more likely to be solved in many places; even if these external factors are not fully resolved, they are more feasible to be solved (Ertmer, 2005; Kim et al., 2013).

As such, more studies tend to focus on factors that are more teacher-related such as teachers' limited computer knowledge and skills, teachers' low self-confidence and teachers' beliefs and attitudes toward technology integration in the classroom (Aydin, 2013; ChanLin et al., 2006; Hew & Brush, 2007; Ismail et al., 2010; Lee, 2000; Park & Son, 2009; Reza, 2014). These have been classified under the broad category of internal factors. Ertmer (2005) highlights the importance of teachers' beliefs in effective technology

integration because the only person who makes decisions in the classroom is the teacher as it was mentioned before. Therefore, identifying teachers' beliefs constitutes a fundamental step towards engaging the issue of effective technology integration in classroom practices (Ertmer, 2005).

2. Teachers' Beliefs

No clear definition exists on the general concept of 'beliefs' and there is a conceptual confusion regarding teachers' beliefs and knowledge (Ertmer, 2005). Beliefs are more personal and based on evaluation and judgement while knowledge is more objective and factual (Pajares, 1992). According to Pajares (1992), 'beliefs are far more influential than knowledge in determining how individuals organise and define tasks and problems and are stronger predictors of behaviour' (p. 311). Hence, teachers' beliefs influence their perceptions and judgements which, in turn, affect their classroom behaviours (Pajares, 1992). Pajares' argument shows that there is a close relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices.

3. The Relationship between Teachers' Beliefs and Technology Integration

There are many studies on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and technology integration (including Chen, 2008; Ertmer et al., 2012; Judson, 2006; Kim et al., 2013; Liu, 2011). These studies show both consistency and inconsistency between teachers' beliefs and technology integration. For instance, Chen (2008), Judson (2006), and Liu (2011) argue that there is inconsistency between teachers' beliefs and technology integration. According to these studies, although all teachers believed themselves to be constructivists who have had learner-centred practices, their real classroom practices are more teacher-centred. However, the studies by Ertmer et al (2012) and Kim et al (2013) suggest a different finding which shows consistency between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. Thus, these different results require further studies and clarifications on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and technology integration. These different results can be discussed in terms of the way we identify teachers' real beliefs. Kagan, 1992, Kane et al., 2002, and Nespor, 1987 (as cited in Ertmer, 2005) highlight the importance of using inference in articulating one's beliefs accurately based on what one says and does. If researchers use a variety of mixed methods, they might identify teachers' beliefs more accurately. However, although a variety of mixed methods can be helpful, they cannot cover everything. For instance, Chen (2008) and Judson (2006) used mixed methods such as survey, interview, and observation (quantitative and qualitative), and found that there is inconsistency between teachers' beliefs and technology integration. However, Liu (2011) who used only a quantitative method (questionnaire and survey) also shows that there is inconsistency between teachers' beliefs and technology integration. Therefore, it is not so simple to conclude that we can identify teachers' beliefs accurately based only on the nature of research methods.

4. Changing Teachers' Beliefs

If teachers' beliefs are crucial to technology integration, it is important to change teachers' beliefs in order to align teachers' beliefs to technology integration after identifying teachers' beliefs accurately. Ertmer (2005) argues that when a researcher has a deeper understanding on the nature of belief systems, it may help him/her identify teachers' beliefs accurately and make appropriate changes to them regarding their classroom behaviours. According to Ertmer (2005), some beliefs are hard to change as they are more personal, while others are more flexible since they are less personal. Most importantly, beliefs are formed through experiences so it seems logical to suggest that they can be changed through experiences too (Ertmer, 2005). Hence, Ertmer (2005) suggests having a professional development program for teachers, based on different experiential practices, in order to change their beliefs. Kim et al (2013) recommend a professional development program which can help to change teachers' beliefs about effective ways of teaching which can lead to changes in technology integration, while positively influencing teachers' general beliefs about knowledge and learning. Moreover, many other researchers suggest carrying out professional development

programs in relation to the change of teachers' beliefs regarding their effective technology integration (Aydin, 2013; ChanLin et al., 2006; Chen, 2008; Ertmer et al, 2012; Judson, 2006; Ismail et al, 2010; Park & Son, 2009; Reza, 2014). However, there are no unified or accepted professional development programs for changing language teachers' beliefs regarding their technology integration. Therefore, it becomes vital to investigate the relationship between teachers' beliefs and technology integration and then find an appropriate professional development program for the English language teachers at NUM.

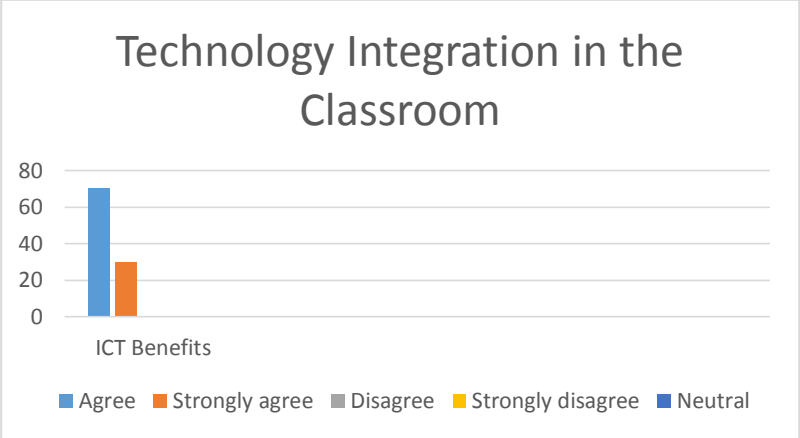
Research method

In this study, the researchers tried to investigate whether there is a relationship between the English language teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices with regards to their technology integration at NUM. As discussed above, Kagan, 1992, Kane et al., 2002, and Nespor, 1987 (cited in Ertmer, 2005) emphasize the importance of making an inference based on what teachers answer in order to articulate their beliefs accurately. Therefore, this study uses a quantitative method as a questionnaire which can help the researchers explore what the relationship between teachers' beliefs and ICT. In the survey, forty-six English teachers were questioned. The participants were chosen in terms of their different age groups, years of teaching experience and specialised teaching subjects from two English language departments.

Findings

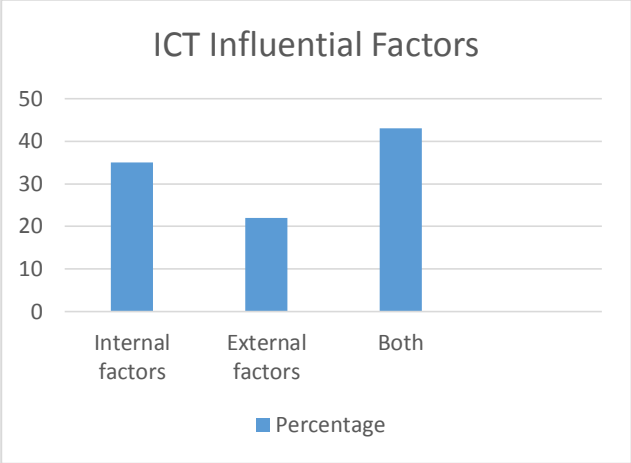
A quantitative research was carried out at NUM to investigate the English language teachers' beliefs regarding technology integration and their classroom practices. Selected forty-six English language teachers of NUM participated in this questionnaire. The questionnaire consists of fifteen multiple choice questions. These questions are divided into three main sections: the first one covers the benefits of technology integration in the classroom and its frequency of use; the second one focuses on the influential factors of ICT including internal and external ones; and the last part relates to the teachers' beliefs regarding ICT in the language classroom. The main results of these three parts are shown in the following tables with their more detailed analyses.

Table 1.



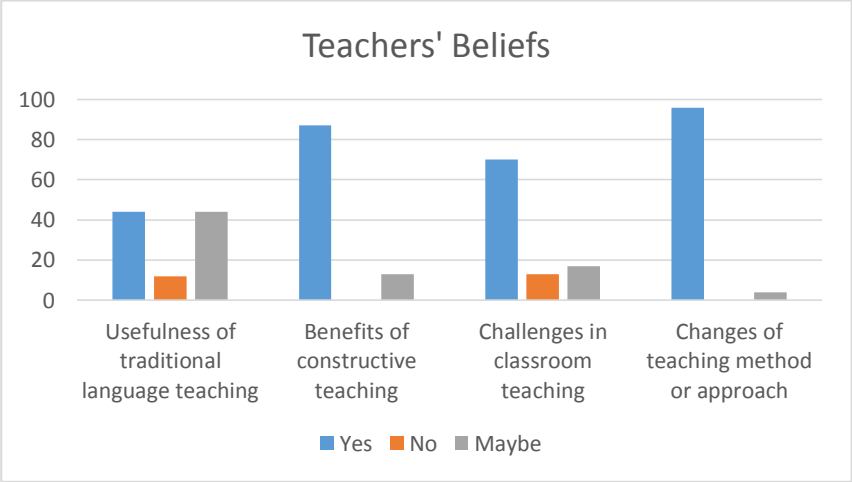
According to the data analysis, 100 percent of the participants agreed that using technologies in the language classroom is beneficial. However, as it was shown, most participants (60 percent) use technologies in their classrooms sometimes. Commonly used ICT tool at NUM is shown to be *Microsoft Office Power Point* (61 percent) followed by *Internet* which is 30 percent.

Table 2.



For the influential factors, teachers face some difficulties caused by both internal and external ones while they are using technologies in their classroom. For internal factors, the most influential one is reported as teachers' limited computer knowledge and skills (68 percent) and 32 percent as teachers' beliefs and attitudes. Insufficient technical and instructional equipment has the highest percent (71) for external factors. Lack of authority support and time shared the rest (19 and 10).

Table 3.



Data analysis shows that 70 percent of the participants use both teacher-centred and learner-centred approaches while 26 percent perceive themselves as learner-centred and only 4 percent as teacher-centred. Although more participants consider themselves to be constructive teachers, 88 percent of them tend to use more teacher-centred activities in their classroom. Small number of teachers are shown to be teacher-centred, yet 44 percent see the teacher-centred teaching method (grammar-translation method) as beneficial. However, learner-centred approach (constructive approach) got the highest percent (87) in terms of its usefulness. As it was shown above, even if high number of participants believe themselves as more constructive teachers, two-thirds (70 percent) reported that they are still facing challenges with their teaching method or approach in their classroom. Finally, almost all participants (96 percent) agreed that changing their ways of teaching method or approach is essential.

Discussion

The result of this study shows there is inconsistency between the English language teachers' beliefs and technology integration same as many previous literature findings on different EFL contexts. In this context, this inconsistency can especially be explained with regards to its language teaching method (Grammar Translation) because as Ertmer (2005) argues, teachers' beliefs are influenced by a long term teaching method or approach in any context. Therefore, changing teachers' beliefs becomes essential in this context to create more constructive environment for technology integration. If it is true that belief systems are formed through experience, we can change teachers' beliefs through experiences too (Ertmer, 2005). To do so, Posner et al (1982, as cited in Ertmer, 2005) highlight the importance of introducing new beliefs which can challenge teachers' existing beliefs and make them dissatisfied with their old beliefs. It means that teachers need to see the benefits of the new beliefs and make judgements on their existing beliefs. Therefore, in order to change the language teachers' beliefs regarding effective technology integration, which aims at creating constructive practices, carrying out a professional development program with some specific strategies can potentially be helpful. These strategies need to be more appropriate and practical within a specific context. In this context, strategies need to focus especially on showing some improvements on students' performances on tests and exams since, from the researcher's teaching experience, it is the main goal of language teaching and learning in this context. A professional development program model developed by Guskey (1989) and Guskey (2002) might be appropriate in this context. According to Guskey (2002), the ultimate aim of this professional development program is to make changes in teachers' classroom practices, teachers' attitudes and beliefs, and students' learning outcomes. The model by Guskey (1989) and Guskey (2002) offers the following framework: initial development training – change in teachers' classroom practices – change in student learning outcomes – change in teachers' attitudes and beliefs. In this model, Guskey emphasizes a change in students' learning outcomes. According to him, when teachers see some changes or improvements in their students' learning outcomes after introducing and implementing a new approach or practice in their classrooms, they become committed to that new approach or practice.

This argument was also developed by Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich (2010). According to Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich (2010), if teachers see that a new practice meets students' needs and improves their learning outcomes, they have a greater tendency to use that practice. In the context of our study, the focus of language teaching and learning is on students' exam achievements. Thus, this model might be very helpful for changing the language teachers' beliefs in this context because what this model offers meets what language teachers and students want in this context. With regards to the implementation of this model, Guskey (1989) and Guskey (2002) propose three principles:

1. Changing any process is gradual and difficult for teachers and it requires much effort and time. This process includes *Experimentation, Adaptation and Collaboration* paces (Guskey, 1989; Guskey, 2002). Dwyer, Ringstaff, & Sandholtz (1991) give more detailed stages such as *Entry, Adoption, Adaptation, Appropriation and Invention* regarding technology integration. Although these authors name these stages differently, their features are quite similar.
2. Teachers need to get feedback on their students' progress regularly. Students' progress can include students' scores on tests and exams, their attendance and involvement, and behaviours (Guskey, 1989; Guskey, 2002). As it was discussed earlier, when teachers see achievements in their students' learning outcomes they become more committed to that new approach. This, I think, is fundamental in this process, especially in this context (NUM).
3. Continual support is important. Teachers need a variety of supports during all stages of the changing process (Dwyer et al, 1991; Guskey, 1989; Guskey, 2002). For instance, teachers need some directions and guidance while experiencing and adopting a new practice (technology in this case) from their colleagues or administrators. During collaborative work, teachers can share their ideas with others when problems arise (Richardson, 1998).

This professional development program model and its implementation are suitable and practical for this contextual study because the language teachers at NUM do not have opportunities to attend long-term reflective professional development programs with continual follow up supports. Most importantly, implementing this model in this context might be a driving force behind accelerating technology integration as it can lead to the changes in the teachers' beliefs as constructivists since teachers have opportunities to get regular feedback on their students' learning outcomes.

Conclusion

In conclusion, along with the increased use of technologies in various fields, including business, communication and trading, technological use has also dramatically increased across educational sectors as well as within classroom practices. Although teachers use technologies in their classrooms, previous studies show that there is a tendency that teachers use them ineffectively in their classrooms. This study also supports the idea that technology has been ineffectively used. The result of the study can particularly be explained in relation to the traditional way of language teaching in this context which has been dominant for a long time. According to Nespor (1987) and Rokeach (1968) as cited in Ertmer (2005) and as discussed before, belief systems are formed through experience. Therefore, this traditional way of language teaching might have contributed in forming language teachers' belief systems and it might still be an influence in their teaching practices and behaviours today. Thus, the language teachers at NUM tend to implement more teacher-directed classroom practices because of their belief systems even though they are familiar with constructivist and learner-centred approaches. If the traditional way of language teaching truly forms the language teachers' beliefs and influences their classroom practices, it then becomes vital that changes be made to teachers' beliefs in relation to technology integration, where possible.

In order to change teachers' beliefs, introducing them to a new approach and enabling them to practice that new approach in their classrooms are important steps to take (Posner et al., 1982, as cited in Ertmer, 2005). In other words, as discussed above, if beliefs are formed through experience, it can also be changed through experience too (Ertmer, 2005). Carrying out a long-term and reflective professional development program can potentially help change teachers' beliefs as previous literature has suggested (Aydin, 2013; ChanLin et al., 2006; Chen, 2008; Ertmer, 2005; Ertmer et al, 2012; Ismail et al, 2010; Judson, 2006; Kim et al, 2013; Park et al, 2009; Reza, 2014). However, finding an appropriate professional development program for the English language teachers at NUM becomes the next important step. Since the English language teachers at NUM, and across educational institutions in Mongolia, aim at improving students' performances on tests and exams, the professional development program in this context needs to consider this focus carefully. In other words, when the professional development program offers the language teachers at NUM the opportunity to see the benefits of the newly introduced approach in their students' test performances, that program can be more appropriate and effective in this context. The model developed by Guskey (1989) and Guskey (2002) seems more suitable and effective in this context because the fundamental premise of this model is to provide teachers with their students' regular feedback which will enable them to see their students' improvements during the implementation of the new approach. When the teachers see how their students are improving under the new approach, they might be more committed to that approach which then might lead to changes in their beliefs toward the benefits of technology integration.

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DEVELOPING ESL STUDENTS' AUTONOMOUS LEARNING THROUGH EDMODO

Bolormaa Shinjee[1]

Abstrac: *Technology has been extensively exploited to facilitate teaching and learning activities. One of the technology types generated by the Internet to promote classroom activities is Edmodo, which is a free educational learning platform used to allow teachers to construct and cope with an online classroom that allows students to connect and work with their peers and teachers anywhere and anytime. This paper aims at exploring students' insights into the teacher's use of Edmodo in English teaching and its contribution to the development of autonomous learning skills. The 64 students majoring in International Relations at the National University of Mongolia were recruited to participate in this study and the research data obtained through questionnaires in Mongolian language. The findings indicate that the students perceive Edmodo as a great, and user-friendly social learning network that enables them to develop their language skills and their autonomous learning by practicing the language outside the classroom without any direct interventions.*

Keywords: independent learning skill, Edmodo, English instructions, learning applications.

1. Introduction

Mongolia is situated in Central Asia which is thousands of miles away from the nearest English-speaking country, despite this English has become a favored foreign language. In recent years, the expansion of bilateral and multilateral relations of Mongolia with other nations and the extended interest towards today's growing technology and science throughout the world, learning English language as a foreign language has found greater importance. In response, there has been an increase in the number of language institutes to meet the growing demand for English. English emerged as the new lingua franca in Mongolia by the end of the 1980s after the collapse of the Soviet Union. In less than 20 years it has become an indispensable part of the Mongolian society and its spread changed the education system and interpersonal communication. English is spreading to Mongolia through electronic media: English-Mongolian websites, mobile phones with bilingual text messaging, public and private television packages with English language news, sport and movie channels, and radio stations which transmit Voice of America and the BBC. Since the democracy in Mongolia in 1990, English language education has started to play an important role in the Educational System of Mongolia. Undoubtedly, English has become one of the priority fields of the Mongolian Education System (Namsrai, 2001). However, teaching English in Mongolia, where English is the foreign language for Mongolian students is relatively challenging as the students have limited access to practice the language. The use of web-based learning technologies has increased dramatically over the past decade providing new opportunities and ways for students to interact with the teachers virtually using computer-mediated communication technologies. Over the past two decades, as educational technology advanced in sophistication and effectiveness, decision-makers at selective residential schools merely tinkered with digital learning (Arum & Stevens, 2020). The emergence of it also encourages teachers, and educational institutions to use technology for teaching goals. With the increasing role of new technologies and computer-based communication as ubiquitous tools in our daily lives, learning can no longer be restricted to the traditional classroom anymore. Bentley et al. (2012) stated that online learning is an important learning method that connects students and teachers to have a learning process without attending classes. In recent years,

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innovative tools, such as social networks, training applications, online discussion boards, smartphones and podcasts play important roles in learning experience due to its flexibility and accessibility to an unlimited resource such as texts, images, links, audios, and videos. Nowlan (2008) emphasized that the increased use of the Internet and computers in the learning environment around the world.

What is Edmodo?

Edmodo is a social networking tool that provides a secure space for teachers and students to connect, collaborate, and learn. It is relatively new to both Mongolian educators and students as this section provides the definition and its functions as well as the research studies about this social media as a learning tool. One of the technology types generated by the Internet to advance classroom activities is Edmodo, which developed by O'Hara and Borg in 2008 by offering a free social network for educators and has been used by 81 million teachers and students across over 220.000 schools all over the world (Scott, 2012) and (Wan, 2014). Edmodo is considered to be more user-friendly than other education applications by educators and it attracts many researchers' interests due to its massive use across the globe in all levels of education (Warawudhi, 2017). According to some studies, incorporating Edmodo into classroom practices enables both students' engagement and mindful learning (Balasubramanian, V, & Fukey, 2014). Edmodo - a microblogging platform- was used as an online learning platform that is viewed as Facebook of schools by some teachers (Lu & Churchill, 2013). Using Edmodo, students and teachers can communicate with each other by exchanging perspectives, challenges, and helpful ideas. It is a safe environment and a teacher can assign and grade students' work on Edmodo; students can get help from the entire class on Edmodo. There is no bullying or inappropriate content because the teacher monitors the posts by everyone on Edmodo. Also, parents can join the class to bring a level of transparency which is difficult to achieve without technology (Cauley, 2012). Many educators and students are attracted to Edmodo capacities due to its features including flexibilities, resources, and library storage (Scott, 2012).

The capacities of Edmodo are as the following:

1. *User friendly*-it is easy and simple to sign in and there are accounts for teachers, co-teachers, students, and even for parents.
2. *Mobile Access*-Everyone can use it anywhere anytime by the use of computers or mobile devices.
3. *Peer Connections*-It encourages the interaction between teacher-student, teacher-teacher, and student-student.
4. *Classroom Management*-It is available to post homework and quizzes, assign homework and organize small groups and offer other unlimited resources.
5. *Cost Savings*-It is a free service. Edmodo has been promoted to be used as the learning tool by many researchers and educators since 2008 (Scott, 2012).

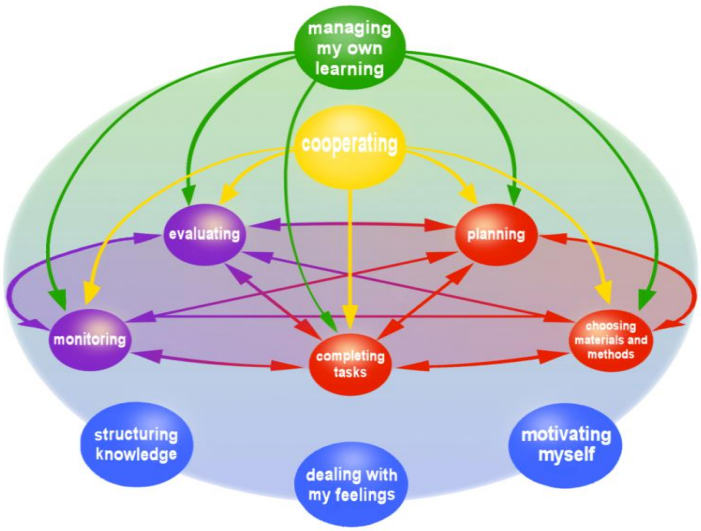
Blended Learning and Learners' Autonomy

The term "blended learning" has become increasingly common in all levels of education and its definition is indefinite. However, blended learning can be defined as a combination of e-learning and classroom teaching (Steffens & Reiss, 2010), the integration of traditional face-to-face teaching methods with authentic online learning activities. The term independent learning can be understood "working with increasingly less structured teaching materials and with less reliance on traditional kinds of tutor's supports" (Moore, 1984). One of the reasons to create a blended learning environment is encouraging students to develop effective independent learning skills particularly in higher education (Wong, 2013). Recent years utilizing blended learning has become increasingly common not only in higher education also in all level of education. Independent learning is not a new concept and it is a pivotal learning strategy not only in higher education, but also for the development of foreign language competencies. It has a broad meaning since there is not any universal agreement (Broad, 2006). The most accepted definition was defined by Moore (1984) as: "working with increasingly less structured teaching materials and with less reliance on traditional kinds of

tutor support" (p. 27). By encouraging students to have their own preferences in the classrooms and in the teaching materials we provide for them, we enable them to make their own decisions about and take control of their own learning. Even though there are many definitions of learner autonomy, the common concept of learner-centeredness and learner autonomy in language education is "used in at least five different ways: 1. for situations in which learners study entirel3-y on their own 2. for a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning 3. for an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education 4. for the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning 5. for the right of learners to determine the direction of their learning" (Benson & Voller, 1997, p. 1-2).

Several studies have been conducted exploring the use of Edmodo as a learning platform and its positive impacts on students' learning success, intrinsic motivation, communication, and English language competencies, but research on students' perceptions of English teacher's use of Edmodo at Mongolian higher education settings has not been explored. Independent learning skills or student autonomy can be defined as learner's freedom to choose and plan their learning process and awareness of the course content and flexibility of time and venues to study (Tassinari, 2012). Moreover, Tassinari (2012) developed a dynamic model for assessing learner independent learning skills (autonomy) in foreign language learning including language skills and strategies. The details of a dynamic model of learner autonomy by Tassinari in Figure 1. It is evident from the model that learners' autonomy is both structurally and functionally dynamic because there are direct links between the components of the model but without any fixed avenues as learners can make their own decisions due to their individual needs and objectives (as shown by the arrows in Figure 1).

Figure 1. The dynamic model of learner autonomy by Tassinari (2010, p.203) adopted from Tassinari (2012, p. 29).



Tassinari (2010, p. 24) described a dynamic model of learner autonomy "a tool designed to support the self-assessment and evaluation of learning competencies and to help both learners and advisors to focus on relevant aspects of the learning process". Each component of the dynamic model involves a set of descriptors that give specific statements of students' language competencies, skills and learning behaviors. They are formulated as 'can-do' statements and they are distinguished in macro-descriptors (general descriptions of self-evaluation process) and micro-descriptors (more detailed descriptions of learners' skills, behaviors, and attitudes) and thus assess their learning more precisely. Together, the descriptors (118 in total, with 33 macro-descriptors and 85 micro-descriptors) "constitute a checklist which covers the main areas of autonomous language learning" (Tassinari, 2010, p.30).

This study adopted the 15 micro and macro descriptors for attitudes, skills and learning behaviors of the dynamic model of learner autonomy.

Purpose of the study

The study aims to find out whether adopting Edmodo as a learning tool for the English class develops students' language skills and encourage students' independent learning skills; whether the students favor using Edmodo's features.

The questions addressed in this study are as follows:

1. What are the students' perceptions of using Edmodo?
2. Do students favor Edmodo's features?
3. Do students think that Edmodo improves their English language skills?
4. How does using Edmodo contribute to the students' independent learning skills?

2. Methodology

Subjects

This research adopted a descriptive percentage method. The researcher is interested in providing out-of-class activities via Edmodo to enhance students' comprehension and engagement in the diplomatic translation class. The study research employed a descriptive qualitative approach with a case study method. It involved 64 students of the School of International Relations and Public Administration, National University of Mongolia, majoring in international relations. They were all third-year students and between 19-22 years old which means they are most likely computer literate born in the late 90s or early 2000s.

Instruments

The questionnaires were designed in Mongolian language and distributed to the students at the end of semester 1 of the academic year 2019/2020 via email. The questionnaires with a Four-Likert scale were administered to obtain students' perceptions of their learning with Edmodo and its contribution to their independent learning skills. The questionnaire is divided into three parts: Part One consists of the statements asking students' perceptions of Edmodo features attempting to evaluate students' attitude towards the characteristics of Edmodo; and Part Two contains five close-ended questions with five questions to investigate the students' attitude towards the contribution of Edmodo to their English language competencies; Part Three has 15 questions to find out whether Edmodo encourages students' independent learning skills or not. Tassinari's (2010) dynamic framework of learner autonomy was considered and adopted in constructing the questions of the questionnaire.

Data Collection

The orientation of the Edmodo application was conducted in the first week of the semester. Then the students were divided into 2 groups and 6 sub-groups to do online activities, group online board discussions and group presentations. The teaching materials, quizzes and assignments were uploaded on Edmodo classes and students contacted the teacher extensively during the semester and did 2 group assignments online. There were other online activities e.g. doing polls, sharing files, recommending weekend readings and interesting podcasts. At the end of the academic year, the students were given the questionnaires in Mongolian language via email.

3. Findings And Discussions

This study employed a descriptive qualitative approach and emphasized the students' perspectives of the teacher's use of Edmodo and assessed how it contributed to their independent learning skills.

The result through the analysis supports that the students' positive perception of using Edmodo is mainly towards resources, support and communication such as forum, discussions and also for online activities.

The questionnaire employed a Four-Likert scale and the first two parts of the questionnaire had 5 questions each as part three had 15 questions and the result is shown in the below sections.

3.1 Part One: Students' Perceptions of Edmodo Features.

Five questions were asked to collect information about the technical components of Edmodo. The finding suggests that majority (85%) of the students strongly agree and agreed (10%) that they have been familiar with using Edmodo; the 70% students find the access to teacher's posts on Edmodo is easy whereas a few students (5%) of the students disagree; in terms of submitting assignments on Edmodo, the majority (68%) of the students strongly agree that is straightforward while 7% and 3% of the students quite agree and disagree with the statement. The 65% of the students strongly agree and 30% of students agree that the communication with their peers and the teacher is simple, whereas only a few students (5%) find it or simple. The highest percentage of the students (89%) of the students are happy to use Edmodo mobile applications on their smartphones. Overall, most of the students' responses were positive in using Edmodo and its features. The detailed result is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. *Students' Perceptions of Edmodo Features (translated from Mongolian)*

No.	Questions	Strongly Agree	Agree	Quite Agree	Disagree
		percentage	percentage	percentage	percentage
1	I am familiar with Edmodo features	85%	10%	5%	0%
2	It is easy to access to sources posted by the teacher on Edmodo	70%	17%	8%	5%
3	It is straightforward to submit assignments on Edmodo	68%	22%	7%	3%
4	Communicating with the teacher and the peer students on Edmodo is simple	65%	30%	5%	0%
5	I am comfortable to use Edmodo on my smartphone	89%	11%	0%	0%

3.2 Part Two: Students' Perceptions of the Edmodo to Enhance English Learning

It can be seen from Table 2 that the majority (64%-87%) of the students' responses were positive towards the students' perceptions of contributions of Edmodo to their language learning process. The highest percentage of the students strongly agreed that Edmodo triggered them to do more readings in English, whereas only 2%

of the students disagree that Edmodo improves their English language competencies. Moreover, when asked about the use of Edmodo increases students' motivation to learn English, 64% strongly agreed and 23% agreed, while the highest negative 3% of the students disagreed with the statement. It is evident from table 2 that the majority (83% strongly agreed, 15% agreed) of the students encounter new words on Edmodo which makes them check their meanings on dictionaries.

Table 2. *Students' Perceptions of the Edmodo to Enhance English Learning (translated from Mongolian)*

No.	Questions	Strongly Agree	Agree	Quite Agree	Disagree
		percentage	percentage	percentage	percentage
1	Edmodo improve Students' English language ability	72%	14%	12%	2%
2	Edmodo increases Students motivation to learn English	64%	23%	10%	3%
3	Edmodo encourages Students to communicate in English with peer students and teacher via Edmodo messages	78%	16%	6%	0%
4	Edmodo enables me to do more reading in English	87%	13%	0%	0%
5	Edmodo urges me to check the meanings of unknown words in English	83%	15%	2%	0%

3.3 Part Three: Students' perspectives of Contributions of Edmodo to Students' Independent Learning Skills

According to Table 3 below, the students' perceptions of Edmodo to students' independent learning skills were positive and the majority (60%-82%) of the students strongly agreed and agreed that using Edmodo assisted them to develop autonomy and offered them various opportunities to practice their English language learning process. It is shown by 0%-19% of the students quite agreed and disagreed with statements 1-15.

Based on the results presented in Table 3, it can be inferred that students felt positive about the contributions of Edmodo to students self-evaluating their learning, managing their studies, some organizational skills and planning skills. Edmodo offers a great deal of flexibility regarding when and where to do their assignments and it is easily accessed on their smartphones and other devices on their hands.

It is evident from the questionnaire results below the use of Edmodo allows students to be independent learners as they were provided with opportunities to explore more learning resources as they were connected to the internet. Also, submitting their assignments on Edmodo before its due date encouraged them to be more responsible for their learning process and plan their learning including when, where and how to work on their assignments.

Table 3*. Students' Perceptions of Contributions of Edmodo to Students' Independent Learning Skills*

No	Questions	Strongly Agree	Agree	Quite Agree	Disagree

		(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)
1	Edmodo allows me to assess my language competencies.	76%	11%	12%	1%
2	Edmodo assists me to find out my own needs.	81%	10%	6%	3%
3	Edmodo encourages me to set my learning goals.	65%	9%	19%	7%
4	Edmodo enables me to plan and set a time to do my assignment.	87%	6%	7%	0%
5	Edmodo reminds me of my pre-set learning goals.	60%	21%	10%	9%
6	Edmodo introduces me to a variety of learning resources.	80%	9%	11%	0%
7	Edmodo enables me to try different learning strategies.	70%	17%	11%	2%
8	Edmodo helps me to manage my learning skills.	72%	10%	14%	4%
9	Edmodo helps me to learn more about my strengths and weaknesses.	68%	20%	8%	4%
10	Edmodo allows me to contact a teacher anytime anywhere so that I can improve my English skills.	78%	9%	13%	0%
11	Edmodo allows me to work with my peers anytime anywhere	81%	7%	12%	0%
12	Edmodo improves my punctuality skill	78%	8%	14%	0%
13	Edmodo classes enable me to organize my study schedule	80%	9%	11%	0%
14	Edmodo enables me to compare my language skills with my peers and learn from them	82%	5%	13%	0%
15	Edmodo helps me to keep track of the class	77%	12%	11%	0%

Referring to the framework for developing student independent learning skills by Tassinari (2012), this study selected 15 descriptors. Based on the result presented in Table 3, it can be seen that students' attitude towards the use of Edmodo was positive and students agree that Edmodo helped them to strengthen their autonomous learning by selecting the resource (materials uploaded by the teacher and other students), submitting their assignments any time before the deadline; choosing their study time at their convenience, etc.

On the whole, students favored the use of Edmodo and it seemed to contribute to student's autonomous learning. This is supported by Nowlan (2008), Bentley et al (2012), Steffens & Reiss (2010) that the use of technology, and the Internet encouraged students' independent skills outside of the classroom. Edmodo's various features allow students to plan what, how, and when to learn which are central to students learning (Nunan, 1999), which implies that the teacher's support plays an important role in promoting students' independent learning skills. Moreover, Edmodo enables teachers to post assignments, which could be done outside the classrooms and not only students can manage their learning as well as their own time, but also the teachers can choose their convenient time to provide the students with individual comments and feedback.

Limitations

The findings of this study are based solely on a structured survey with close-ended questions to find out the general perceptions of using Edmodo and its contribution to students' independent learning skills. It should have extended into follow-up interviews to gain an in-depth understanding of the central phenomenon through the description. Due to the time constraints and needs of the present study, only 15 descriptors out of

33 macro- descriptors and 85 micro-descriptors of the dynamic model of learner autonomy by Tassinari (2012) are adopted in the current study.

4. Conclusion

This study filled some knowledge gaps in the largely unexplored Edmodo territory as a learning platform among students at the National University of Mongolia. Edmodo as a learning platform that has some distinct advantage over the traditional classroom environment. The research confirms previous findings on the use of Edmodo to promote students' independent learning skills effectively. The blended learning approach can be used extensively in higher education programs particularly in foreign language teaching courses for the following reasons:

a) managing a class with mixed levels of language competencies
b) offering a great deal of flexibility of time and venue
c) extending teaching beyond the traditional classroom environment.

In addition to that, it could be concluded that the use of Edmodo or other online education applications can be seen as a learning and teaching tool to facilitate ESL classes to develop the students' independent learning skills and English language competencies. The capacities of Edmodo enable teachers to update information anywhere anytime and the teacher could also provide room for a discussion that allows students to respond and interact with peers. Some students acknowledged that learning English with the support of technology such as laptops, smartphones, personal computers, the Internet, and other learning applications seemed interesting and something new. Students could use the program as well as they are encouraged to get engaged to the lessons outside the classroom by doing quizzes and making discussions with student-student or student-teacher for their assignments such as group presentations, online board discussions. The use of Edmodo encourages students' motivation and engagement in out-of-classroom activities which stimulate the student's autonomy and independent learning skills. Also, Edmodo facilitated the students to plan, act, and evaluate their learning process and it helped them to have an organized and structured overview of the course curriculums and activities. However, there are minor problems like lacking gadgets or limited Internet access which could simply be solved by borrowing from others and finding places with unlimited Internet access. Assuming continuous growth of the social network, Edmodo can be used as a learning tool for out-of-classroom activities for ESL classes. It can be concluded from the literature review and the result of the actual study that, more research on how different learning and teaching technologies could promote students' independent learning skills should be conducted in the future. It is suggested for further study in the digital 21st-century classroom that there should be a study on other new technology to be used among English educators and students.

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THE ASPECTUAL SYSTEM OF ENGLISH FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF THE TWO-COMPONENT THEORY OF ASPECT

*Bolor Buyandelger**

Abstract: *This paper analyzed the English aspectual system within the framework of Smith's (1997) Two-component theory of aspect, which views aspectual meaning as a composite of two independent but interacting components, namely, viewpoint aspect and situation type aspect. The former refers to the speaker's temporal perspective on a particular situation, whereas the latter refers to the internal temporal constituency of a situation. The analysis revealed that the perfective viewpoint interacts with all situation types in English, but its interpretation varies with situation type. The progressive is the main imperfective viewpoint in English; it is available neutrally only for non-stative sentences. There is also a resultative imperfective, which appears with verb constellations of the position and location classes. The five major situation types are covert categories in English; the distinction between states and non-states is strongly grammaticalized.*

Key words: aspect; viewpoint; situation types; perfective; imperfective; English aspectual system

1. Introduction

In modern aspectology, there are two major approaches to the study of aspect, each with its own research focus and justification: the Western approach, rooted in the philosophy of action emanating from Aristotle, and the Eastern approach in which grammatical aspect in Slavic languages occupies the central role. Specifically, the former bases its analyses on the so-called Aristotelian aspect (the conceptual origin of lexical, or situation aspect), while the latter bases its typologies on the study of viewpoint aspect, using the binary morphological opposition between perfective and imperfective aspects. In recent times, aspectologists have opted for a combined approach, which is basically the Two-component theory of aspect (hereafter abbreviated as 'TCTA' for convenience), originally proposed by the late American linguist Carlota S.Smith (1991/97).[1] The central thesis of the TCTA is that the aspectual meaning of a sentence results from the interaction between two independent components, namely, Situation type aspect (hereafter referred to as 'situation aspect' for convenience) and Viewpoint aspect. These two components respectively correspond to what are traditionally referred to as 'lexical aspect/*Aktionsart*' and 'grammatical aspect'. As such, the TCTA may be regarded as a compromise between the Western and Eastern traditions in aspectological research. Underlying the TCTA is the Chomskyan Universal Grammar (UG) approach. Accordingly, the theory assumes that situation aspect and viewpoint aspect are both universal categories, in the sense that they come equipped from birth with a set of language-particular constraints called 'UG' and represent the basic cognitive ability of humans to conceive and categorize real- world situation entities.

Since its introduction, the TCTA has garnered widespread acceptance in linguistic community, and has been widely applied to the investigation of aspectual systems of different languages. In this paper, we will first examine the English aspectual system from the perspective of the TCTA. It is hoped that the results of the analysis will shed some light on the nature of English aspect.

2. Defining aspect

In spite of an inexhaustible stream of aspectological research, the notion of aspect is still plagued with problems ranging from definitional discrepancies to conceptual confusions. As a consequence, the notion is

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[1] The TCTA was introduced in the 1st edition of Smith's monograph *The Parameter of Aspect* (1991). My references are to the 1997 edition because it was revised and enlarged to include further developments of the theory, including a fresh look at the phenomenon of situation type shift and an updated treatment of temporal location within the framework of Hans Kamp's Discourse Representation Theory (DRS).

not easily amenable to delimitation. Regarding the definition of aspect, a quotation from R.K.S.Macaulay provides a healthy note of caution. In a critique of Friedrich's 1974 treatise on aspect in Homeric Greek, Macaulay (1978) likens the study of aspect to *selva oscura* full of "obstacles, pitfalls, and mazes which have trapped most of those ventured into this much explored but poorly mapped territory" (p.416f). It is possible for curious readers to get some idea of the complex nature of the discussion by simply going through a thicket of definitions of aspect. As Holisky (1981) says, the term 'aspect' perhaps has "as many definitions as there are linguists who have used it" (p.121), and it is getting impossible to keep up with multitudinous definitional and conceptual problems raised in theoretical debates when one is analyzing aspect. As a result, it has become customary for almost any analysis of aspect—whether broadly theoretical or just an analysis in a particular language—to call for a clear definition of aspect right at the outset.

When it comes to defining aspect, three different approaches come into the picture. The first approach, referred to as 'viewpoint approach' here, is related to, and stems, from the origin of the term. Aspect in its modern sense emerged in English in the middle of the 19th century, and it fully became part of the Western grammatical thought only at the end of that century, as Binnick (1991) concludes in his tome. However, it was already the focus of discussion among the Stoics over two thousand years ago, including Aristotle (384-322BC) who first drew an ontological distinction between the conclusive *kinêsis* (lit. "movements") and the inconclusive *energéia* ("actualities") in two of his philosophical works, namely *Metaphysics* 1048b, 18-36 and *Nicomachean Ethics* 1074.[1] About four hundred years later, an ancient Roman scholar Marcus Terentius Varro (116BC-27BC) was already writing about the Latin *Perfectus-Imperfectus* distinction of verbs. The term 'aspect' originates from the Classical Greek word *eidos* meaning "shape/kind", which was introduced by Greek grammarians to denote the formal distinction between "prototype" and "derived" lexical verbs in Greek. It was in this sense that the term was taken over by grammarians of Slavic languages in the 17th century. Its Russian gloss—*vid* (lit. "view/vision"), which first appeared in an early 17th-century work by Meletiy Smetritskiy, was thus used in reference to the morphological privative oppositions in Old Slavic Church between (and later in Russian, too) simple imperfective verbs and their derived perfective correlates (e.g. the Russian *pisati* (imperfective) vs. *napisati* (perfective) both corresponding to the English verb *write*) in Franz Miklošič's *Vergleichende Grammatik der Slavischen Sprachen* of 1852 ("comparative grammar of Slavic languages") (Binnick, 1991, pp.139-140).[2] These two types of aspects were first observed by the Prague Scholar Benedikt von Nudožer in the 17th century as belonging to grammatical aspect. The English term 'aspect' is borrowed from the French word *aspect*, a loanword translated from the Russian word *vid* by the French linguist C.P.Reiff in 1828. This is wholly appropriate, for *vid* is etymologically cognate with the words *view* and *vision*, while the etymological root of *aspect* is the Latin *spect-*, meaning "to view" (Binnick, 1991, p.136). This indicates that earlier grammarians considered aspect *perspectival*, i.e. aspect is concerned with how the speaker *views* a particular situation. A popular definition representative of this line of approach was first given by Holt (1943) in French from a semantic perspective: "[…] *les manières diverses de concevoir l'écoulement du procès même*" ("different ways of conceiving the flow of the process itself") (p.6). Later Comrie (1976) joined Holt in defining aspect as "different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation[3]" (p.3). Comrie's definition nicely captures the intuitive essence of the viewpoint approach. In principle, all viewpoint approaches underscore this basic insight, which is the speaker's perspective, or viewpoint.

The characterization of aspect as a matter of *viewing* finds expression in a vast number of contributions in linguistics (e.g. Yang, 1995; Smith, 1997; Xiao & McEnery, 2004; Declerck, 2007), even though it has been challenged, notably by Klein, Li & Hendriks (2000) for being "highly intuitive and

[1] In these two works, Aristotle contrasts actions which are complete in themselves (*energéia*) such as *being happy* and *thinking*, and actions which are inherently incomplete and directed towards an end (*kinêsis*) such as *singing a song* or *learning a poem*. In contemporary linguistics, this distinction roughly corresponds to the telic vs. atelic distinction of verbs and situation types.

[2] 'perfective' and 'imperfective' are loan translations of the Russian native terms *sovershenny vid* (lit. "completed view") and *nesovershenny vid* (lit. "uncompleted view"), respectively. Since, historically, aspect has been largely modeled on Slavic languages in which virtually any verb may have either perfective or imperfective stems, the literal translations must be kept in mind because it gives some insight into the nature of aspect.

[3] The term 'situation' here covers all sorts of entities codified by language, including *states* that things are in (e.g. *President Trump is exhausted just three days into his first trip abroad as President*.) and *events* that happen (e.g. *Hailey baked her favorite rhubarb pie*.), with the former also subsuming *generic situations*, which denote kinds or properties (e.g. *The giraffe has the longest tail of any land mammal.*) and *habitual situations*, which make generalizations over patterns (e.g. *Hailey was often in love*.). The linguistic denotation of a situation is the sentence, the maximal unit in syntax.

metaphorical in nature" (p.730). These scholars argue that situations, i.e. states and events, are abstract entities and cannot be *seen* at all. However, this argument is not convincing because *viewing* does not merely mean *seeing* but rather *mode of thinking* (Xiao & McEnery, 2004, p.16). Aspect defined as viewpoint has an element of subjectivity because a choice between aspectual viewpoints often rests on the speaker: s/he is free to choose the linguistic form of a viewpoint aspect that best manifests his or her conception of the situation s/he observes.[1] As such, aspect is speaker-based (Smith, 1986). Another view of aspect, which saw the viewpoint approach as only a partial and narrowly construed characterization of aspect, came to light in the 1920s. Linguists began to see that the verb also has temporal properties inherent in its lexical meaning that form a mode of categorization which is known as 'lexical aspect', an observation dating back to Aristotle. As such, the verb may assume a certain role in determining the aspectual viewpoint of a sentence, and so the notion of aspect was reinterpreted, giving more consideration to the various temporal properties such as intensity, diminutivity, iterativity, inchoativity, or punctuality that the verb displays as part of its lexical semantics.[2] This sense of aspect is actually what the widely mentioned German word *Aktionsart* (lit. type/mode of action"; pl. *Aktionsarten*) potentially covers. When *Aktionsart* was first introduced by Karl Brugmann in 1885 to describe the kind of action indicated objectively by a verb, it was intended for the whole domain of aspect. However, the term was delimited against aspect as a grammatical category only in Sigurd Agrell's 1908 account of Polish tenses. Agrell's main point was that aspect simply notes that an action is fulfilled, while *Aktionsart* tells how it is carried out, aspect thus cuts cross *Aktionsarten*. For instance, the imperfective is admissible with punctual *Aktionsart*, thus showing that one needs two dimensions to deal with the whole domain of phenomena. In fact, until the 1920s, most treated aspect or *Aktionsart* interchangeably as something to do with the temporal properties of the verb.[3] However, Agrell and the proponents of his theories, including Hermann (1927), Porzig (1927), and Bache (1982), were an exception to this pattern and made a proper distinction between aspect and *Aktionsart* as follows:

Aspect involves a way of viewing a situation and is considered to be a property of the verbal form. It is all about the speaker's subjective linguistic representation of a given situation but not about the actual situation in the real world. It is encoded overtly by grammatical morphemes; hence the label 'grammatical aspect'. *Aktionsart* on the other hand is a description of the temporal composition of a situation described by the verb. It reflects the objective facts embedded in an actual situation and focuses on something external to the speaker. It is manifested covertly through the inherent lexical meaning of the verb (e.g. *eat*), by verbal particles (e.g. *eat up*; *eat through*), or by derivational affixes that produce new lexemes such as the Russian perfectivizing affixes, viz. *za-* ("inceptive"), *do-* ("terminative"), *-nu-* ("semelfactive"), *po-* ("durative"), and so forth.[4] Therefore, *Aktionsart* is purely a lexical category.

In most English publications, the term 'aspect' is used for both kinds of phenomena, even though some scholars (e.g. Bache, 1982) still insist on terminological clarification. However, it is theoretically important to make a clear-cut conceptual division between aspect and *Aktionsart* for two reasons. For one, most differences between these two notions are actually not differences in the grammatical form but are inherent in semantics because *Aktionsart* centers on the verbal meaning as opposed to the grammatical meaning of the verbal form. Secondly, the two differ with regard to subjectivity and objectivity (although not entirely so). While aspect depends to a considerable extent on the subjective perception of the speaker, *Aktionsart* in contrast has to do with the objective nature of the situation itself as indicated by lexis and context. We accordingly refer to this line of approach, which insists on the categorial and conceptual division between aspect and *Aktionsart*, as a "two-component" approach.

Although the two-component approach acknowledges the larger categorial distinction of grammatical

[1] The element of subjectivity in the aspectual domain is also discussed by Jakobson (1971), Comrie (1976), Lyons (1977), Bache (1982), Smith (1983, 1986, 1997), and Dahl (1985), among others.

[2] Note that the verb's lexical meaning and its temporal properties are not to be equated: a verb with the same lexical content may have different temporal properties.

[3] The word *Zeitart* introduced by Georg Curtius (1846) had been used before *Aktionsart* to refer to different types of meaning expressed by the present and aorist verbal stems in Greek such as that of durative vs. punctual actions, and it was not clearly separated from aspect until Agrell proposed the aspect vs. *Aktionsart* division. It eventually fell into disuse.

[4] Scholars initially treated *Aktionsart* in two different approaches: a logical/philosophical one where aktionsarten were taken to be abstract temporal properties characterizing all situations, and a morphologically oriented one that defined aktionsarten in terms of derivational morphology, ignoring the question of how the simplex, nonderived items would fit into an overall schema of temporal constituency. Since derivational morphological studies done mostly by aspectologists of Slavic languages like Russian or Czech are no longer prevalent, the second approach does not enjoy much following today.

vs. lexical means of linguistic expression (i.e. aspect *sensu stricto* vs. *Aktionsart*), it sees the semantic nature of the two as quite different. However, as scholars came to accept the aspect vs. *Aktionsart* distinction in the 1930s, it became customary to articulate this distinction more clearly as grammatical vs. lexical. Nevertheless, the semantically-oriented distinction was instantly picked up and further enhanced by others. The distinction is set forth in clearest terms by Bache (1982) who, in his critical essay on Comrie (1976) and Lyons's (1977) approach to this issue, maintains that *Aktionsart* is a matter of lexical semantics, and the discussion of inherent semantics should not interfere with grammar. Unlike Bache, Comrie and Lyons fall into the camp of linguists who view aspect and *Aktionsart* as the same phenomenon operating in the same semantic plane, the only difference between them being a matter of individual lexicalization and grammaticalization processes. Both scholars do stress that there is a need to distinguish what languages *encode grammatically* from what they *communicate lexically*. They also mention that the terms 'aspect' and '*Aktionsart*' were suggested by earlier scholars to label these differences. But both of them dispose of the term '*Aktionsart*' altogether after the initial mention and start using the term 'aspect' to embrace the semantic properties from both categories. This accords with the Western practice of using 'aspect' for both grammatical aspect and Vendler's (1967) verbal classes (which others would call '*Aktionsarten*'). Even for those properties that are signaled lexically, Comrie (1976) speaks of "inherent aspectual properties" (p.41). Therefore, as Hopper (1982) points out, "Comrie sensibly eschews the distinction altogether" (p.5), because "it is not always clear where the borderline between aspect and *Aktionsart* is to be drawn" (ibid.). Hopper himself adheres to the two-component approach. Based on Comrie's equivocation, Lyons (1977) replaces the term '*Aktionsart*' with 'aspectual character' to refer to all kinds of aspectual distinctions that are not grammaticalized. That is to say, Lyons melds grammatical aspect and *Aktionsart* into one general domain of aspect. This is reflected his approach to stativity. Lyons (1977) says that stativity "is lexicalized, rather than grammaticalized, in English: it is part of the aspectual character of particular verbs" (pp.707-708). And yet, at the same time, he includes stativity in three of the six possible aspectual distinctions that are grammaticalized in particular languages, viz. stative vs. non-stative, dynamic vs. nondynamic, and stative vs. dynamic. In principle, using the same term for things belonging to different categories is acceptable, albeit not practical, provided that you know what you are talking about. Unfortunately, this is not the case here. Employing the term such as 'stative' for both aspect and *Aktionsart* is somewhat incongruous and could lead to the failure to acknowledge the most basic property for any aspectual system: the interaction between grammatical forms and lexical semantics. Interacting with the works of Lyons and Comrie, Bache (1982) feels that the latter two scholars have amalgamated two different categories which ought to be kept separate and remarks that "a strict distinction between aspect and *Aktionsart* must be insisted on… and that failure to recognize the necessity of this distinction is responsible for some bewildering confusion on the part of both Comrie and Lyons" (p.59). What Bache wants is the recognition that certain properties of verbal meaning formerly referred to as '*Aktionsarten*' (e.g. durative, punctual, iterative, inceptive) are of an entirely different order to other properties labeled 'aspects'. In other words, he favors the two-component approach formulated earlier by Porzig (1927) and Hermann (1927), albeit in a more sophisticated version. Bache himself regards aspect as an abstract "metalinguistic category,"[1] which can be instantiated in the grammar of individual languages, since he presupposes that all languages operate within the framework of UG. Bache (1982) then proceeds to characterize aspect as "the situation focus with which a situation is represented" (p.70), and *Aktionsart* as the "procedural characteristics (i.e. 'phasal structure', 'time extension', and 'manner of development')" (ibid.), ascribed to a given situation denoted by a verbal phrase (VP). Although the exact nature of aspect and *Aktionsart* as well as the relationship between the two continues to be a matter of contentious debate, the two-component approach has nevertheless been utilized by many scholars who, while not necessarily using the labels 'aspect' and '*Aktionsart*', maintain a proper distinction between the two types of aspect. The distinction is apparent in the opposition of "outer aspectuality vs. inner aspectuality" (Verkuyl, 1972, 1989), "aspectual form vs. aspectual class" (Dowty, 1979), "temporal aspect vs. inherent aspect" (Carlson, 1981), "aspect vs. verb-type" (Mourelatos, 1981), "morphological aspect vs. *Aktionsart*" (Zhang, 1995), "aspect vs. type of state of affairs" (Dik, 1997), "aspect vs. eventuality class" (Filip, 1999), "grammatical aspect vs. lexical aspect" (Olsen, 1997), "grammatical aspect vs. eventuality description/aspectual class" (de Swart, 2000), "aspect1 vs. aspect2" (Sasse, 2002), "aspect vs. actionality" (Tatevosov, 2002), and "grammatical aspect vs. ontological aspect" (Declerck, 2007), *inter alia*. These scholars have made explicit the limitations of the one-component approach, claiming that it does not allow a

[1] By "metalinguistic category" Bache (1982) refers to a generally applicable, crosslinguistic "super" category of idealized nature which comprises an index of specific meanings of a potentially universal, linguistically relevant concept.

proper treatment of the subtle semantic nuances that arise through an interaction of lexical characteristics of the verb (or VP/predicate) on the one hand, and the semantics of viewpoint morphemes on the other. On the other hand, the two-component approach has enjoyed widespread acceptance aspectology. Therefore, in my analysis of the English aspectual system, we will adopt the Two- component Theory of Aspect, which is widely regarded as the best version of the two-component approach to aspect.

3. Theoretical framework: Two-component Theory of Aspect (TCTA)

In the TCTA, aspect is regarded as "the semantic domain of the temporal structure of situations and their presentation" (Smith, 1997, p.1). In the TCTA, both (grammatical) aspect and *Aktionsart* are crucial because, aspect, by definition, is made up of these two components. Although Smith identifies both aspect and *Aktionsart* with the same rubric "aspect" in her definition, she actually draws a clear distinction between these two notions and considers them as two independent but equally important categories of aspect. In this respect, Smith is in essential agreement with Bache (1982) and his predecessors. However, she discards the terms 'aspect' and '*Aktionsart*', and replaces them with new terms: 'viewpoint aspect' and 'situation type aspect'. Viewpoint and situation type are independent, but they interact systematically in sentences to provide aspectual information. In other words, the aspectual meaning of a sentence consists in the viewpoint and situation type of that sentence. In the following subsections, we will present the essentials of the two components of aspect.

3.1 Viewpoint aspect

Put simply, viewpoint aspect is an operation that imposes the speaker's perspective on the internal temporal composition of a situation. The function of viewpoint aspect is to make visible all or part of a situation, "like the lens of a camera" (Smith, 1997, p.61), without obscuring the essential properties of the situation type. What is in focus has a special status, which Smith calls "visibility" (Smith 1997, p.62). Only visible information is available in the discourse for conceptual and truth-conditional interpretation, entailments, and inferences. The speaker's viewpoint can span an entire situation with the initial and final endpoints (perfective), or it can span only a portion of that situation (imperfective). Specifically, the perfective[1] spans the single point of punctual evens and the initial and final endpoints of durative events. It means that the perfective provides a *holistic, summarizing,* or *bounded* view on the situation denoted by the sentence[11], whereas the imperfective communicates only the internal phases of a situation, without any regard for the situation's completeness, thus the addressee "gets only a partial view" of the situation.[2] Figures 1 and 2 illustrate the default temporal schemata of the perfective and imperfective viewpoints, respectively. The slashes indicate the visible span of a situation.[3]

Figure 1. Default temporal for the perfective viewpoint

[1] The perfective is not to be confused with the notions 'conclusive aspect' (Dahl, 1985) or 'completive' (Bybee et al.,1994). The latter two refer to the mostly derivational Slavonic 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*.

[2] Every attempt has been made in the literature to characterize what underlies the perfective vs. imperfective opposition. Most of these attempts have aimed at finding a requisite "invariant meaning"—*Gesamtbedeutung* (lit. "general meaning"), or the defining semantic property of the perfective[2], 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. Many candidates for the invariant meaning of the perfective have been proposed in the literature. The notable ones include "duration" (Friedrich, 1974), "completion" (Hopper, 1982), "totality" (Comrie, 1976), and "boundedness" (as synonymous with telicity) (Dahl, 1985), and "endpoints" (Smith, 1997).

[3] According to Smith (1997), this schema does not apply to stative situations because endpoints, or changes into and out of a state, are not included in the idealized situation types of states. Nor does the abstract schema include Perfectives with a span greater than that of the situation schema focuses: the schema specifies only the endpoints of a situation. Perfectives with additional properties are marked in relation to unmarked Perfectives.

I……////////……F

Figure 2. Default temporal for the imperfective viewpoint

It follows that the underlying characterization of the perfective vs. imperfective opposition in our aspectual framework concerns the inclusion or non-inclusion of endpoints, i.e. boundedness of a situation. Due to its bounded nature, the perfective can be construed as complete and "closed informationally" (Smith 1997, p.66), while the imperfective is unbounded and open informationally, inviting additional inferences about beginning and end brought out by linguistic context that gives open or closed interpretations. Since the imperfective focuses only a part of a situation, it is reasonable to assume that the situation referred to must have internal phases on which to impose an internal. If there are no internal phases, it is impossible to keep the initial and final endpoints apart. Note that perfectivity and imperfectivity are not objective properties of situations, and so one and the same situation can be presented from either viewpoint. The visible part of the situation constitutes the viewpoint's invariant semantic meaning. The semantic meaning of a viewpoint is consistent for the language in which it appears and conveys conventional implicature, i.e. it is linguistically indicated and cannot be cancelled (even though pragmatic implicature may be canceled). However, it can be augmented or supplemented by pragmatic meanings which are dependent on conversational context and conventions of use. Viewpoint aspect is not categorical, that is to say, it rests on the speaker's choice[1]. This is largely motivated by the fact that viewpoint morphemes are interchangeable, if the context permits it, and the differences in interpretation that result from using different viewpoint morphemes does not always have consequences for the truth condition of a sentence (Dahl, 1981; Smith, 1983; Depraetere, 1995).[2] Thus, one should expect some freedom in this area. However, aspectual choice is not totally arbitrary because when the use of a given viewpoint is obligatory in a language, the freedom of viewpoint choices may be restricted by grammatical rules, pragmatic conventions, the truth condition, and the temporal properties of the situation talked about. As Bache (1982, p.67) says, viewpoint aspect is objectively determined by various factors, and a fully free aspectual choice is possible only with regard to a limited range of situations. Therefore, subjectivity in viewpoint choice must not be overemphasized.[3]

Aspectual viewpoints are indicated overtly by morphosyntactic devices: either synthetically by inflectional morphemes or analytically by periphrases; they can also be expressed by verbal particles or phonetically-zero verbal forms. The exact form of realization is decided by the grammar of an individual language. There is no privileged semantic correspondence between a particular situation type and a particular viewpoint. For example, consider the situation [walk a high wire over the Grand Canyon] in (1), which can be expressed either in the perfective viewpoint, as in (1a), or in the imperfective viewpoint, as in (1b).

(1) a. Nik Wallenda walked a high wire over the Grand Canyon. (perfective)
b. Nik Wallenda is walking a high wire over the Grand Canyon. (imperfective)

According to Smith (1997), situation type information is not visible without aspectual viewpoint, suggesting that viewpoint aspect may be conveyed without viewpoint morphemes. Thus, she additionally proposes a third viewpoint type called 'neutral viewpoint', which arises in sentences with no overt realization of viewpoint aspect. Specifically, such sentences are aspectually vague in that they are neither perfective nor imperfective, and "more flexible than either viewpoint in that they allow both open and closed readings" (Smith, 1997, p.78), "though the context often indicates the favored interpretation" (ibid.). Smith

[1] The choice of situation aspect categories works in some degree similarly to the use of viewpoint categories. The same situation, for example, [run], can have many different linguistic representations: it can be represented as an activity as in *Justin was running for a long time*, as an event as in *Justin ran into the building*, or even as a state as in *Peter was in the state of running.* On the issues related to the speaker's choice of aspect, see Smith (1986).

[2] As Comrie (1976, pp.3-4) points out, although the speaker's subjective view of a situation, if included in the semantic representation, sometimes leads to differences in truth conditions, it is often possible for the speaker to speak of the same actual situation from different viewpoints without any contradiction. Hopper (1982, p.16) argues to the same effect: the same situation can be depicted differently, depending on how it fits into the overall discourse structure. However, as Depraetere (1995, p.10) says, we should bear in mind that "the changes effected by a particular property often result in the sentence referring to a different extralinguistic reality."

[3] See Bache's 1982 essay for the unattainability of 'pure subjectivity' or 'pure objectivity' with regards to aspect.

suggests that, instead of being analyzed as lacking a viewpoint, they should be analyzed as having the neutral viewpoint—a positive semantic value on a par with the perfective and the imperfective. The TCTA argues for the existence of the neutral viewpoint because this way the theory allows for an extension and application to such varied languages as German, Icelandic, and Navajo, which lack viewpoint morphology altogether, or to languages like Mandarin Chinese, in which viewpoint morphemes are syntactically optional. Thus, the neutral viewpoint is not restricted to aspectually neutral tenses in languages that otherwise have viewpoint aspect, such as the future vs. the past in French.[1]

3.2 Situation aspect

Situation aspect is concerned with the temporal structure of a situation. It is conveyed lexically through the interaction between the properties of the verb and its subcategorized arguments—the verb constellation, with additional contributions from adjuncts. Situation aspect classifies a sentence as denoting a situation of particular type according to a cluster of temporal properties that are ascribed to the internal structure of the situation. These features include Dynamicity (with the contrasting values of dynamic vs. stative), Durativity (durative vs. punctual), and Telicity (telic vs. atelic). The valid combinations of these properties will result in five different situation types. Table 1 below shows that Smith's systematization of situation types is basically the well-known Vendler's (1967) classification of verbs, but the original inventory is expanded by a fifth category, namely that of semelfactives.[2] The symbols 'E' and 'R' indicate a single-phase event and a resultant phase following the final endpoint of a situation, respectively.

Situation types	Temporal schema	Dynamicity	Durativity	Telicity
STATES	(I)_____(F)	stative	durative	-
ACTIVITIES	I..... FArb	dynamic	durative	atelic
ACCOMPLISHMENTS	I.....FInt(R)	dynamic	durative	telic
ACHIEVEMENTS	.....E(R)……	dynamic	punctual	telic
SEMELFACTIVES	E	dynamic	punctual	atelic

Table 1. Situation types and their temporal properties

The most far-reaching property for distinguishing situation types is dynamicity, which bifurcates situation types into the two global classes of states and events (alias 'non-states'), with the latter subsuming all kinds of inherently dynamic situations, viz. activities, accomplishments, achievements and semelfactives. Dynamicity has a close association with the property of agency: dynamic events often have an agent as source of energy and intentionality. States do not have volitional agents, at least not directly. Consequently, linguistic forms which reflect agency appear with dynamic events but not with states.

Durativity has been largely disregarded as a linguistically inessential property by some scholars. For instance, Verkuyl (1989) denies the linguistic validity of duration and does away with achievements altogether, saying "[…] the length of a time unit involved in an event does not qualify as a meaning element that distinguishes certain verb from others" (p.58). Klein (1994) claims that time is not discrete but dense and

[1] The example, based on which Smith argues for the existence of the neutral viewpoint, is *Jean chantera quand Marie entrera dans le bureau* (Smith, 1997, p.78). The example is taken from French whose future tense, the *Futur*, conveys no viewpoint information. The example has two different interpretations: on the one hand, it can mean that Jean will start singing when Marie enters the office (closed interpretation), and on the other hand, it can also mean that Jean will already be singing when Marie enters (open interpretation). Such an ambiguity does not arise in the case of the perfective or the imperfective, which serves as evidence for the assumption of a third viewpoint.

[2] Semelfactives were considered a special atelic subclass of achievements by Vendler (1967). Dowty (1979), similarly to Vendler, does not distinguish semelfactive verbs as an aspectual class different from achievements, and in many cases, from that of activities. Semelfactives were first identified as a fifth verbal class in Comrie (1976:42), and were brought to much prominence by Smith (1997). They are otherwise called 'points' (Moens, 1987) or 'split-second events' (Xiao & McEnery, 2004).

is composed of intervals, so there are no instants in time. Perhaps, the reason is that situations conceptualized as punctual would differ in the actual amount of time that they involve, if measured by instruments of sufficient delicacy. But durativity is conceptually determined, hence duration is relative and can be of any specified temporal length. In the TCTA, durativity is one of the key aspectual properties of situations because it is linguistically salient and may be grammaticalized in many languages. It is also an important criterion that keeps activities and accomplishments apart from semelfactives and achievements. Durative situations are conceptualized as having internal phases, whereas punctual situations are conceptualized as taking place in an instant with no internal phases. Durativity may be explicitly indicated by lexical verbs (e.g. *continue*; *keep*) or by durational adverbials (e.g. *for an hour*; *all day*).

Telicity has to do with the speaker's conceptualization that certain types of situations have an intrinsic final endpoint (represented as 'F_{Int}' in Table 1).The intrinsic final endpoint is the natural (or intended) point of completion which is necessary for a situation realized and beyond which the situation cannot continue (Depraetere, 1995); it often (but not always) involves a certain goal, outcome, or result that can be identified in space. Put another way, once the intrinsic final endpoint is reached, a change of state occurs, and the situation attains a consequential resultant state associated with the event, in other words, the situation is complete. For instance, the situation *Justin is playing a Mozart concerto on the violin* has an intrinsic final endpoint (a concerto implies a natural completion), which is the point at which the playing of the relevant concerto ends. (The situation is understood to progress through the concerto, and the situation ends when the concerto is finished.). Not all situations have an intrinsic final endpoint, though. Some situations have an arbitrary final endpoint ('F_{Arb}'), which is the point of termination at which the situation can end at any stage without being finished or completed. For instance, the situation *Hailey ran all day in the park* has an arbitrary final endpoint because running all day in the park can be terminated arbitrarily at any moment without attaining any result or outcome. Situations with an intrinsic final endpoint are said to be 'telic', whereas a situation with an arbitrary final endpoint are said to be 'atelic'.

Inspired by Henk J.Verkuyl's (1972) trailblazing Theory of Aspectual Composition, Smith recognizes the aspectual relevance of nominal phrase (NP) and prepositional phrase (PP) arguments to the telicity of the sentence and elaborates compositional rules to account for their interaction with the verb. The compositional rules are originally introduced using English data, but Smith says that the rules are language-specific and require some modifications for languages like Russian where the verb may have greater complexity. Smith's rules interpret the situation type of a sentence by composing the aspectual feature values of its lexical constituents. Smith suggests that the nominal the features of NP, namely [count] and [mass] determine whether a NP is quantized or not. Note that [count] also includes definite nouns and proper names, and [mass] also includes indefinite bare plurals. The features of PPs [locative] and [directional] are also informative and necessary. The compositional rules compose the values of the lexical morphemes, taking the mentioned properties into account and thus gradually arrive at a composite value for the constellation. Smith (1997, p.55) provides the following schemata (2-3) to illustrate the composite aspectual value derived from the interaction of the verb with its NP or PP arguments. The notation 'Con' stands for constellation.

(2) a. The child walks the dog. NP[count] + V[atelic] + NP[count] Con[atelic]
b. The child walks to school. NP[count] + V[atelic] + PP[directional] Con[telic]

(3) a. The child builds a house. NP[count] + V[telic] + NP[count] Con[telic]
b. The child builds houses. NP[count] + V[telic] + PP[mass] Con[atelic]

It follows that an atelic verb like *walk* with a count NP argument will produce an atelic constellation as in (2a), while the same verb with a directional PP argument will produce a telic constellation as in (2b). With an intrinsically telic verb like *build*, count NP argument will form a telic constellation as in (3a), while a mass NP will form an atelic constellation (3b).

According to the TCTA, there is no one-to-one correspondence between situation types and constellations because the same constellation may be associated with more than one situation type, depending on the non-verbal material in the context. This variation is due to the range of aspectual choice available to the speaker. In choices that deviates from the standard presentation, the speaker uses derived situation types. They are shifted by rule from the basic-level situation types through a mechanism known as '(aspectual) coercion' (see Moens, 1987; de Swart, 2000). No additional situation types are needed to account for coercion: derived situation types fall into the same classes as the basic situation types. Shifts in situation type are caused by the aspectual incompatibility of the basic constellation and the material outside

of it such as the temporal adverbial and are predictable.[1] If there is a clash in value between a basic constellation and a form external to it, the value of the external form overrides that of the basic constellation. This pattern is called the Principle of External Override (Smith, 1997, p.53). Derived situation types can be taken as marked situation types with shifted aspectual interpretation since they do not represent the basic-level categorization of constellations.[2] The principle of external override can be sketched as a coercion rule. The input to the rule is the constellation with a basic situation type value. The output of the rule is the derived verb constellation with the value of the external property. The rule can be illustrated with a specific example in English—see (4).

(4) I wrote a letter for an hour.
S[VCon[c[+Telic]] + Adv [-Telic]] → DVCon [c[+Activity]]

The rule above can be read as: the verb constellation (VCon) is already interpreted by a basic-level compositional rule as telic. The rule interprets the combination of the adverbial and constellation, with the output an atelic derived constellation (DCon). The rule shifts the telic constellation, an accomplishment, to an atelic derived constellation, an activity. The feature value of the time-span adverbial overrides that of the basic constellation. The principle of external override holds for many derived situation types.

This concludes the presentation of the TCTA, which will be adopted as the theoretical framework for the analysis of the English aspectual system in the following section.

4. Aspectual viewpoints in English

In English, viewpoint aspect is indicated by the presence or absence of the verbal auxiliary on the main verb. The perfective viewpoint is signalled by a phonetically-zero morpheme, or the simple form of the main verb, whereas the imperfective viewpoint is signalled with the auxiliary *be+ing*.[3] See (1), repeated below as (5).

(5) a. Nik Wallenda walked a high wire over the Grand Canyon. (perfective)

b. Nik Wallenda is walking a high wire over the Grand Canyon. (imperfective)

This analysis of English is based on distribution: there is a consistent, obligatory contrast between the auxiliary *be+ing* and the simple form with a zero morpheme. Since all verbs have one of these forms, all verbs in English have a viewpoint morpheme. This is the basis for the claim that the English system has perfective and imperfective, but not the neutral, viewpoint. The neutral viewpoint arises when a language has optional viewpoint morphemes, as does Mandarin Chinese.

The perfective viewpoint

The English perfective seems to be compatible with all situation types, as the following examples show:

(6) a. Damian walked by the river. (Activity)

[1] This must be distinguished from morphological derivation involving verbal affixes.

[2] The distinction between marked vs. unmarked categories is due Prague School now fashionable notion of 'markedness'. According to Jakobson (1971), markedness is the state of standing out as unusual or difficult in comparison to a more common or regular form. When two forms stand in binary opposition, one of them is regarded as more "normal" and therefore unmarked, while the other one is felt to be less normal or "irregular" and so overtly marked.

[3] de Swart (2000) argues that the English Simple Past tense lacks viewpoint aspect information and conveys only temporal information. Smith (1997, p.67) disputes this, arguing that it is the invariant meaning of the Simple Past that conveys perfectivity. She substantiates this by combining clauses in the Simple Past with clauses incompatible with a closed interpretation. This test indicates whether perfectivity is conveyed by the Simple Past. If in a sentence, an informationally open clause added to a Simple Past clause results in a contradiction, this suggests that the perfective is conveyed by the Simple Past. If the conjunctions are not contradictory, then the perfective is conveyed by the context. This shows that the closed readings are not based on context.

b. Charles built a doghouse for his kids last year. (Accomplishment)
c. The doctor patted on my shoulder. (Semelfactive)
d. Tenzing Norgay reached the top of Mount Everest on May 29, 1953. (Achievement)
e.His children owned an expensive residential property in London. (State)

With dynamic situations, the perfective viewpoint conveys completion or termination according to type of situation, as in (6a-d). Thus, sentences in the perfective viewpoint are incompatible with clauses asserting continuation and incompletion, as can be seen in (7a-d).

(7) a. #Damian strolled along the beach and he is still strolling.[1]
b. #Charles built a doghouse for his kids and he may still be building it.
c. #The doctor patted on my shoulder and he is still patting on my shoulder.
d. #Tenzing Norgay reached the top of Mount Everest on May 29, 1953 and he didn't finish reaching the top.

The ill-formedness of (7a-b) follows from the fact that the completion or termination meaning component in the first clause cannot be cancelled by applying the type of conjunction illustrated in the examples above. The contradiction is indicative of the fact that the closed interpretation of the first clause in each sentence is not a pragmatic inference but it is due to the semantics, that is to say, it does seem to be the case that the viewpoint aspect of the sentence contributes semantic information.

In contrast, states may be either open or closed in the perfective viewpoint, depending on context, as in (6e). This is because states in English do not conceptualize endpoints in their temporal schema, because the endpoints involve change of state; as such, they are flexible in interpretation. On one reading, the sentence in (6e) conveys an open interpretation: the state has not ended and can be taken as continuing into the present. On another reading, the state has ended. (6e), for instance, can be felicitously conjoined with an assertion that the state continues and that it no longer obtains, as (8a-b) illustrate.

(8) a. His children owned an expensive residential property in London, and I'm told they still own it.

b. His children owned an expensive residential property in London, but they no longer own it.

It follows from the analysis above that the central meaning of the English perfective viewpoint is realized differently for each situation type. To be specific, the central meaning is interpreted according to the endpoint properties of the situation in question. Since different situation types have different endpoint properties, the central meaning varies with situation type. If the situation type includes endpoints, they are included in the "perfective" viewpoint of that situation type, e.g. accomplishments are presented as completed. If the situation type does not include endpoints, the situation in its entirety does not include them either, e.g. a state may not still obtain. An alpha rule would be appropriate here: if a situation type *x* has *y* endpoint properties, the perfective viewpoint linguistically presents the situation with *y* endpoint properties (Smith, 1986, p.104).

The imperfective viewpoint

The TCTA recognizes two variants of the imperfective viewpoint, namely general imperfective and progressive (Smith, 1997). While the former applies to situation types which have internal phases (e.g. the French *Imparfait*), the latter is restricted to dynamic situations whose idealized types include endpoints. In this analysis, we assume that the English imperfective viewpoint has only one variant: progressive. The English progressive is syntactically compatible with dynamic situations but not with stative ones, as the following examples show.

(9) a. Damian is walking by the river. (Activity)
b. Charles was building a doghouse for his kids last year. (Accomplishment)
c. The doctor is patting on my shoulder. (Semelfactive)

[1] We use an asterisk '*' to indicate an ungrammatical sentence, the symbol '#' to indicate a semantically ill-formed sentence, and the sign '?' to indicate a marginally acceptable or, a semantically or syntactically questionable sentence.

d. Tenzing Norgay was reaching the top of Mount Everest. (Achievement)

e. *His children is owning an expensive residential property in London. (State)

Since the imperfective is crucially concerned with a situation's medial part, it is reasonable to assume that the situation must have internal phases on which to impose an internal view. If there are no internal phases, it is impossible to keep the initial and final endpoints apart. This requirement predicts that punctual situations are not compatible with the imperfective unless they are interpreted to express repetitions of punctual events (i.e. iterative reading), as is clear from the ungrammaticality of (10a-b). The ungrammaticality is idiosyncratic, and is due to the nature of particular achievements.

(10) a. *Henry is noticing a long lost friend.

b. *Suzanne was finding her lost ring in an unexpected place.

But in effect, the prediction is not borne out: the imperfective is often available for achievements, because it is possible for the imperfective to focus on the phases that are not part of the situation itself, such as the preliminary, detachable phases, as in (11a-b), or the resultant phases of a telic event following its final endpoint of a change of state[1], as in (11c-d).

(11) a. The plane was landing when the storm started.
(Achievement)
b. Sunday Silence is winning the Kentucky Derby.
(Achievement)
c. Your socks were lying on the floor.
(Achievement)
d. The trophy was sitting on the corner.
(Achievement)

Note that sentences in the latter case are semantically stative[2], even though they are morphologically indistinguishable from the progressive viewpoint. They are also different from constellations which lexically denote the resultant state of a telic event (e.g. *Justin licked his plate clean. Hailey cried the handkerchief wet.).*The preliminary and resultative imperfectives apparently do not conform to the universal principle since their focus falls outside the situation schema. As such, they can be considered marked imperfectives. Their temporal schema for the preliminary and resultative imperfectives is given in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Temporal schema for the marked imperfective

5. Situation types in English

In what follows, we will set out the situation types available in English, discuss their temporal and linguistic properties, distinguish between their basic and derived cases, and offer linguistic diagnostics for each of them.

States are static and consist of an undifferentiated period, and so are considered homogeneous—without shift or variation, they have no internal phases, no perceivable inner dynamics, and involve no change or development. We do not assign any telicity value to states because states do not have endpoints: changes into and out of a state are events in their own right and not part of the state.[3] Thus, in Table 1 above,

[1] In English, the resultative imperfective mainly appears with constellations of position and location (Smith, 1997, p.173).

[2] This can be shown by syntactic tests. For instance the pseudo-cleft *do* requires a non-stative, thus the construction is ungrammatical with resultatives, e.g. **What your socks were doing was lying on the floor*.

[3] Xiao & McEnery (2004, p.84) argue that states may have a final temporal endpoint when they are delimited by devices such as temporal adverbials at the sentential level, e.g. *He was chairman from '81 to '85*. *They were silent for a while.* However, Smith's endpoint here refers to spatial endpoints.

the endpoints of states are within parentheses to show that they are not obtained in the state itself. The temporal schema of states also reflects that the state holds consistently during the entire interval, since states may be judged as true at any moment within that interval, i.e. they evince the subinterval property. To exemplify, if *Justin owns a Rolls-Royce for a week*, there is no moment throughout this interval during which he did not own that Rolls-Royce. States have both concrete and abstract attributes of all kinds, viz. possession, location, belief, dispositions, routines, habits, etc. Prototypical states include [believe in astrology], [know the answer], [be in Shanghai], [own a farm], and [remain]. States are also characterized as non-quantized/cumulative because they behave like non-count NPs due to their abstract quality. This is why cardinal numerals do not with stative constellation, as in (12).

(12) *Hailey knew Spanish three times.

More evidence for the mass properties of states is provided by nominalizations of stative verbs like *hatred*, *love*, or *knowledge*, which are non-count and do not allow the indefinite article or cardinal numerals. These nominalizations will perfectly collocate with mass quantifiers such as *much* or *little*, as in (13).

(13) There is too much hatred in the world.

We consider generic and habitual states as classes of derived states. Derived states are more abstract than basic states because they do not express any specific situation. They are derived by coercion from constellations of all types which express specific states or events at the basic level of categorization, but they do not share the same truth conditions with their basic constellations. Generic states ascribe a property to a class or a kind, as in (14a), while habitual states make a pattern of situations, a generalization or regularity, as in (14b).

(14) a. Beavers build dams. (generic state)

b. I go to the gym twice a week. (habitual state)

Due to their non-dynamic properties, stative constellations fail the non-stativity tests, developed by Dowty (1979): (i) They normally do not occur in imperatives (e.g. **Know Spanish!*)[1]; (ii) They are ill-formed with agent-oriented adverbs such as *willingly*, *carefully*, or *deliberately* because the maintenance of states are usually uncontrollable by will (e.g.**Hailey deliberately knew Spanish.*)[2] ; (iii) They are ungrammatical with indirect durative adverbials, e.g. *slowly* or *quickly*, because such adverbs imply dynamism (e.g. **Hailey slowly knew Spanish.*); (iv) They are ill-formed with the verbs associated with agency like *force* or *persuade* because only an event that is controllable can be persuaded or commanded (e.g. **Hailey was persuaded to know Spanish.*); (v) They do not generally appear with the progressive viewpoint or any other item that implies progressivity (e.g. **Hailey is knowing Spanish.*);[3] (vi) They do not occur in pseudo-cleft constructions with the pro-verb *do* because *do* is associated with control and agency (e.g. **What Hailey did was know Spanish.*)[4]; (vii) They do not naturally presuppose temporal and spatial coordinates (e.g. **When and where does Hailey know Spanish?*). Besides, stative constellations are felicitous with temporal locating adverbials (e.g. *The baby was asleep at noon.*) and time-span adverbials (e.g. *Hailey was sick for four months.*)

Activities are durative events that hold at an interval as a single process, since they consist of a concatenation of subevents. They are either unlimited in principle such as [wait], [push a cart], [run along the beach], [ponder], or with numerous internal phases such as [eat strawberries], [write reports], and [read

[1] A state can be coerced into an achievement reading in contextually situation imperatives, e.g. *Know the answer by tomorrow, or there will be big trouble.*

[2] When will is required for its maintenance, a situation is taken as an activity rather than a state. Hence the difference between *Hailey was nasty* and *Hailey was being nasty.*

[3] This is not the case for e.g. the Mongolian progressive viewpoint, which is rendered by the imperfective converb of the main verb with the proper tense form of the copular auxiliary *bai-*, is normally compatible with stative situations, as in *Bi medej baina* ("I know").

[4] In other constructions, the pro-verb *do* collocates with stative constellations. For example, in verb-ellipsis construction such as *Hailey knew Spanish and so did Justin*, the verb *do* is a pro-verb for the state [know Spanish].

books]. Constellations with degree verbs that indicate the gradual change of a property such as *widen*, *age*, or *sink* also represent activities. As with states, activities are non-quantized, or cumulative. The only property that differentiates activities from states is that they are dynamic—their maintenance requires a constant energy, while their final endpoint is arbitrary: they terminate or stop at any moment in time when the source of agency ceases. The temporal schema of activities indicates that termination does not follow from the structure of the event. Rather, it merely provides a temporal boundary for the activity. The arbitrary endpoint of activities is bounded in time, either explicitly or implicitly. Explicit bounds are indicated by temporal adverbials such as *from 2 to 4*, *for an hour*, or *till midday*. Explicitly bounded activities are similar to telic events in having specific endpoints, but they are also unlike telic events because no change of state is assumed (e.g. *Justin strolls in the park for an hour every day*.). Implicit bounds are signaled by the perfective viewpoint morpheme (e.g. *Justin strolled in the park all morning*.). Thus, sentences with the perfective viewpoint are always (temporally) bounded, while sentences with the imperfective viewpoint present activities as ongoing and unbounded (e.g. *Justin is strolling the park*.).

We consider Smith (1997) calls 'multi-event activities' a class of derived activities. Such activities have an unbroken concatenation of subevents with an arbitrary endpoint, as exemplified by (15). The subevents may consist of all event types. Multi-event activity sentences often have time-span adverbials which trigger the interpretive shift from a single event to a multiple event as well as from a telic event to an atelic event. They do not share the same truth conditions with their basic-level constellations.

(15) a. The light flashed continuously. (multi-event activity)
b. The firecracker exploded for 5 minutes. (multi-event activity)
c. Hailey clicked her pen throughout the lecture. (multi-event activity)

Sentences of (15) should be isolated from sentences whose constellations include mass noun objects such as *I drew cats* or *Hailey eats strawberries.* Such sentences denote basic activities with a non-quantized internal structure due to the bare plural object (i.e. *cats*; *berries*) rather than a concatenation of subevents.

Constellations with super-lexical verbs such as *begin*, *continue*, or *keep on*, as in (16a), or with punctual adverbials, as in (15b), also belong to the class of derived activities.

(16) a. Justin kept on running.

Due to their dynamic nature, activity constellations pass Dowty's non-stativity tests introduced above. Besides, activity constellations enforce an inceptive reading with temporal locating adverbials, as in (17a), and an ingressive interpretation with time-frame adverbials, as in (17b). They are somewhat anomalous with completion verbs or expressions, as in (17c-d).

(17) a. Justin pushed the cart at noon. (activity)
b. Justin pushed the cart in an hour. (activity)
c. ?Justin finished pushing the cart. (activity)
d. ?It took Justin an hour to push the cart. (activity)

Accomplishments have a bipartite structure that involves a process and a change of state, or outcome. For instance, the accomplishment event [build a barn] includes the process of building a barn and its completion. The entailment relation between the process and outcome of an accomplishment is conceptually "non-detachable", which means that if the final endpoint of an accomplishment has been reached, it follows that the process has necessarily occurred. The non-detachability of accomplishments differentiate them from activities. The truth of an accomplishment perfective sentence entails the corresponding imperfective sentence (e.g. *Hailey crossed the street.* → *Hailey was crossing the street*.) The opposite entailment does not hold, however, i.e. *Hailey was crossing the street* does not entail *Hailey crossed the street* (Hailey may be hit by a car and killed).

One of the specific distributional characteristics of accomplishment constellations is that they must include at least one count direct object NP argument that spatially delimits the event, as in (18a) because this is what ensures them to be telic; otherwise, the constellation is an activity, as in (18b).

(18) a. Justin painted a triptych. (accomplishment)
b. Justin painted triptychs. (activity)

Due to their dynamic nature, accomplishment constellations pass Dowty's non-stativity tests. It is well-known that accomplishment constellations are natural with time-frame adverbials (e.g. *Justin painted the barn in six hours*.) Németh (2011) and others claim that accomplishment constellations cannot be modified with time-span adverbials. This is not true, as (19a) below shows. This can be accounted for only by acknowledging the presence of successive phases in their temporal composition. For us, sentences like the one in (19a) below can be interpreted as derived activities since there is no intention of reaching the goal. Note that not all accomplishments can be pushed to this atelic reading, as the unacceptability of (19b) shows. Accomplishments occur comfortably with time-span adverbials only if there is a plural direct object that allows an iterative interpretation, as in (19c), or if the duratives pertain to the resultant state rather than the event itself, as in (19d).[1]

(19) a. ?Justin painted the barn for six hours.
b. *Justin built a barn for years.
c. Justin built barns for years.
d. Justin painted the barn red for six hours.

Accomplishments do not take place (actually are not true or false) *at* a time. Nevertheless, we might come across sentences where there is a constellation typical of a durative accomplishment in the presence of a temporal locating adverbial such as *at noon*, as in (20a). Such sentences present entry into the process phases of an accomplishment, i.e. inception. Super-lexical verbs like *begin*, *stop*, or *finish*, which focus one endpoint of an event, also yield an inceptive reading with an accomplishment constellation, as in (20b). Such inceptive sentences represent the class of derived accomplishments.

(20) a. Justin and Hailey walked to school at noon. (derived accomplishment)
b. Justin and Hailey began to walk to school. (derived accomplishment)

Achievements are single-phase, telic events with no internal structure. Smith (1997, p.30) points out that achievement schema may or may not include preliminary phases that lead to the occurrence of the events themselves. The preliminary phases represent gradual preparations or perceptible attempts leading up to the event with a concomitant loss of the entailment of completion; they may be required for some achievements, but the achievements themselves do not refer to them. *Justin was dying for months* is a case in point: before dying one generally has a mortal illness or moribund episode. (Note that expressions that appear to be synonymous with *die* do not share this property, e.g. **He is popping off/kicking the bucket/passing away*.) In this case, the preliminary phases enable the event to take place, but they are not part of the actual event; as such, they are conceptually disconnected from the event, and in contrast to states, there is no whole-part entailment. The presupposition of preliminary phases accounts for the ability of some achievement constellations to take the imperfective viewpoint, even though the latter is a linguistic correlate of duration (Smith, 1997). Achievement constellations pass Dowty's non-stativity tests.

The pattern of compatibility with forms of completion and duration distinguishes achievements from the other situation types. Achievement constellations with time-frame adverbials generate an ingressive reading: the event occurs at the end of the interval specified by the time-frame adverbial, as in (21a-b). With indirect duratives, they acquire an inceptive reading, indicating the rate at which the event was reached, as in (21c).

(21) a. Justin noticed the painting in a few minutes. (achievement)
b. The bomb exploded in 3 seconds. (achievement)
c. They slowly reached the top. (achievement)

Achievement constellations are generally odd with time-span adverbials, as in (22a). However, they

[1] Actually in some languages, time-span adverbials may create ambiguity with some accomplishment constellations as in *The judge jailed Justin for two years* in English. On one interpretation, the act of jailing Justin lasted repeatedly for two years; on the second interpretation, Justin was sentenced to two years in prison. In the first interpretation, the durational adverbial refers to the process, while in the second, it refers to the resultant state.

are good with time-span adverbials when the adverbials refer to the resultant state rather than the event *per se* as in (22b). Such sentences may also yield a derived activity reading, as in (22c). In this case, the event has a series of achievements as internal phases.

(22) a.?Justin noticed the painting for a few minutes.
b. Justin borrowed the book for an hour.
c. The firecracker exploded for 3 minutes.

Unlike accomplishments, achievements are either semantically anomalous or ungrammatical with super-lexical completion verbs such as *finish*, as in (23a-b), and *stop*, as in (23c-d). This is because completion verbs only refer to a non-detachable process and outcome.[1]

(23) a. #Justin finished breaking the glass.
b. *There finished erupting a terrible argument.
c. *They stopped reaching the top.
d. *There stopped erupting a terrible argument.

Semelfactives are single-phase events that seem so instantaneous that they involve virtually no time[2], semelfactives are intrinsically bounded and do not bring about an explicit change of state. Typical semelfactives are mostly bodily events or actions such as [flash], [blink], [flap a wing], and [slam the door]. Semelfactives have neither preliminary nor resultant phases, and this is reflected in their inability to be employed as an adjectival modifier expressing a resultant state (e.g.**the flashed light*; **a coughed person*). Unlike achievements, semelfactives do not require a plural subject for an iterative interpretation, e.g. *the bell is ringing* (semelfactive) vs. **the firecracker is popping* (cf. *the firecrackers are popping*) (achievement).

The distribution of Semelfactive constellations is quite restricted. They rule out progressive forms, time-span adverbials, or any other durative expressions since the latter forms presuppose internal phases. Sentences that include such combinations are acceptable only in cases where they are subject to a reinterpretation in which the situation type shifts to a derived activity. Thus, according to the TCTA, sentences containing the combinations of semelfactive constellations with the progressive viewpoint, as in (24a) or with time-span adverbials, as in (24b) are in principle multiple-event activities consisting of a series of iterated semelfactive events because semelfactives have a natural place as the minimal event types of activities. In these cases, the reinterpretation is pragmatically driven by the incompatibility of the constellation and the adverbial.

(24) a. Justin was scratching his leg.
(multi-event activity)
b. Justin winked furiously for several minutes. (multi-event activity)

When semelfactive constellations appear with time-frame adverbials, the latter only indicates the interval which elapses before the event occurs, as illustrated by (25).

(25) Hailey coughed in five minutes.

It is obvious that the adverbial *in five minutes* does not refer the situation time, but it relates its occurrence to some preceding process (the event of coughing occurred five minutes later than a contextually given situation or time point). If we look carefully, this interpretation also characterizes durative activities and achievements as in (26) below. In these sentences, the time-frame adverbial yields an ingressive interpretation, i.e. they indicate an interval at the end of which the event occurs.

(26) a. Justin walked in five minutes.

[1] Dowty (1979) points out that some achievements are acceptable as complements of super-lexical verbs such as *stop* and *finish* if there is a "well-defined procedure" associated with the achievement. For example, a librarian might say to her assistant: *Have you finished finding those books?* or *Why have you stopped finding those books?*

[2] In reality, though, semelfactives may involve a discernible period of time. When a person coughs, or a bird flaps a wing, the events take some fraction of a second to occur.

b. The bomb exploded in five minutes.

Indirect duratives in the context of semelfactives do not refer to the progression of the semelfactive event as such but rather to the phases preliminary to the event, as in (27). The interpretation of the sentence is ingressive, i.e. *Justin was slow to knock at the door*.

(27) Justin slowly knocked on the door.

In the presence of a temporal locating adverbial, semelfactives are interpreted as occurring only once, as in (28). This is an indication of their instantaneousness.

(28) At noon, Justin coughed.

There are no derived semelfactives in English.

6. Conclusion

In this paper, we analyzed the English aspectual system from the perspective of the Two-component theory of aspect put forward by Smith (1997). The results of the analysis lead us to the following conclusions: The English aspectual system offers consistent, syntactically obligatory choice of viewpoints in all tenses. The perfective viewpoint, which is indicated by the so-called zero morpheme on the main verb, is available for all situation types and is therefore the dominant viewpoint in the language. The semantic reading of the perfective varies with situation type. The perfective presents events as closed and states as open. The progressive is the main imperfective viewpoint in English; it is available neutrally only for non-stative sentences in the language and is realized by the familiar auxiliary *be+ing*. There is also a limited resultative imperfective, which appears with verb constellations of the position and location classes. The five major situation types are all covert categories in English; the distinction between states and non-states is strongly grammaticalized.

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

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Abstract: *The subject for consideration in the article is somatic idioms with the component "**finger**" 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 "finger" 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.

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.

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 a collective cultural experience.

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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: 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 [BFSRL2006].

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Cultural codes similar in English, Mongolian and Russian languages:

1. Somatic +active:

   Eng: *(one's) fingers itch; burn one's fingers; cross (one's) fingers; have a finger itches to; fork the fingers; get (one's) finger out; get (one's) fingers burned; give somebody the finger; have (someone) turned round (one's) (little) finger; have (someone) twisted around (one's) (little) finger;*

have (someone) wound round (one's) finger; have (someone) wrapped around (one's) (little) finger; lay a finger on somebody; let something slip through your fingers; lift a finger; point the finger at (one); pull (one's) finger out; slip through fingers; snap (one's) fingers;
Rus: *указующий перст* (what indicates, tells how to act, directs one's action); *показывать пальцем на* (openly, publicly condemn, censure anyone or anything); *тыкать пальцем* (openly, publicly condemn, censure anyone or anything); *пальцем не шевельнёт* (will not make the slightest effort to accomplish anything; won't do anything); *только пальцем поведёт* (will do anything effortlessly, easily); *стоит пальцем шевельнуть* (it's worth making a little effort to implement, to do something); *обвести вокруг пальца* (trick cheating); *окрутить вокруг пальца* (cleverly, cunningly deceive, hold someone); *мизинца не стоит* (about a man worthless compared to anyone); *по пальцам можно пересчитать* (very little); *уплыть между пальцами* (quietly and quickly spend, splurge); *пальчики оближешь* (about something delicious); *высасывать из пальца* (to assert anything without any reason); *смотреть сквозь пальцы* (ignore anything; intentionally ignore); *пальцем не тронуть* (do not beat, do not punish; do no harm);
Mng: *хуруу хумсаа нуух* (*to hide one's fingers and nails*- to conceal ones' intentions and deeds); *хуруу дүрэх* (to dip one's finger – to make advantage of, to seize upon, to partake); *хуруу нэмэх* (*to add one's finger* – to help in person at work).

Cultural codes similar in two languages:

1. Somatic +somatic +numerical: **Eng:** *be all fingers and thumbs;* **Mng:** *хуруу дарахаар цөөн* (very few);
2. Somatic +artifact: **Eng:** *catch (one) with (one's) fingers in the till; have a/(one's) finger on the button;* **Rus:** *пальцы веером* (about a person, more often- about a successful businessman associated with criminal structures);
3. Somatic +anthropic: **Eng:** *the finger of blame; the finger of responsibility; the finger of suspicion;* **Rus:** *мужичок с ноготок; Объяснять на пальцах* (explain sth simple, affordable to smb);
4. Somatic +qualitative: **Eng:** *have itchy fingers; have sticky fingers; long finger*; **Rus:** *с младых ногтей (*from childhood*);*
5. Somatic +active +numerical: **Eng:** *put two fingers up at* (someone or something); *stick two fingers up at*; **Rus:** *знать как свои пять пальцев* (know very well thoroughly);
6. Somatic +active +somatic: **Eng:** *run (one's) fingers through (one's) hair; wear (one's) fingers to the bone; work (one's) fingers to the bone*; **Rus:** *палец о палец не ударит* (will do nothing at all, remaining indifferent in any business); *палец в рот не клади* (cunning, clever; on his mind; able to take advantage of another oversight);
7. Somatic +active +natural: **Rus:** *попасть пальцем в небо* (to answer inappropriately, to explain sth absurbly, stupidly); **Mng:** *хурууган нүдэнд хийчих шахах* (*nearly to put fingers in someone's eye* – to scold and reproach); *хуруу хумсаа тайрах* (*to cut one's fingers and nails* – to reduce one's consumption /eating, drinking and wearing clothes).

Cultural codes existing only in one of three languages:
In English:

1. Somatic: **Eng**: *finger as;*
2. Somatic +color: **Eng:** *green fingers;*
3. Somatic+ somatic: **Eng**: *(one's) finger on the pulse;*
4. Somatic +numerical: **Eng**: *all thumbs;*
5. Somatic +numerical +anthropic: **Eng**: *a three-finger salute;*
6. Somatic +numerical +gastronomic: **Eng:** *finger in every pie; have finger in too many pies;*
7. Somatic +active +constructive: **Eng:** *put (one's) finger in the dyke;*
8. Somatic +active +qualitative: **Eng:** *put (something) on the long finger; twist around little*
9. *finger;*
10. Somatic+active+numerical+somatic: **Eng:** *be able to count (someone or something) on the*
11. *fingers of one hand.*

In Mongolian:

1. Somatic +active +anthropic: **Mng:** *хумсаа чамласан хүүхэд шиг* (frustrated and sad);
2. Somatic +somatic +qualitative: **Mng:** *хуруу хумс урттай* (*with long fingers and nails*- a thief).

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

English cultural codes:	*Russian codes:*	*Mongolian codes:*
somatic	somatic	somatic
active	active	active
anthropic	anthropic	anthropic
numerical	numerical	numerical
qualitative	qualitative	qualitative
artifact	artifact	-
-	natural	natural
color	-	-
gastronomic	-	-
constructive	-	-

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

Universal codes of the culture for the appropriate three language worldviews include one common set out of the 19 sets of cultural codes: *somatic+active* code. For the Russian and English languages, five sets of cultural codes are common: *somatic+artifact, somatic+anthropic, somatic+qualitative, natural +floral, somatic+active +numerical, somatic +active +somatic codes*. For the Mongolian and English languages, two set of cultural codes are common: *somatic+ somatic+numerical* and *somatic +active +natural* code. 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. In the Mongolian language *artifact, color, gastronomic and constructive codes* are absent; in English – *natural* code is absent; in Russian *color, gastronomic and constructive codes* are absent. Some of the codes of culture are present only in one of the compared languages: in English 9 sets of codes are unique: *somatic, somatic+color, somatic+ somatic, somatic+numerical, somatic+numerical+anthropic, somatic+numerical+gastronomic, somatic+active+constructive, somatic+active+qualitative, somatic+active+numerical+somatic codes.* We can see *somatic+active+anthropic* and *somatic+somatic+qualitative* codes only in Mongolian.

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

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

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

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ON THE DISTRIBUTION OF GENITIVE SUBJECT CONSTRUCTIONS IN ALTAIC LANGUAGES

Dashdavaa Vanchinsuren[1]
Tumengerel Purev[2]

Abstract: *In some Altaic languages, subjects are generally marked genitive in certain environments. Dagur (cf.Hale 2002; Martin 1961), Japanese (Bedell 1971; Hiraiwa 2000; Miyagawa 2011), Turkish (Kornfilt and Whitman 2012) Polynesian languages (Herd 2015), Slavic languages (Franks 2005; Robinson 2013). This paper presents peculiarities of the genitive case marked subject in Altaic languages. First, we argue that subordinate clauses with genitive case-marked subjects in Modern Mongolian are CP. Second, we provide an explanation for certain conditions of the genitive subject construction Altaic languages.*

Keywords: case assignment, genitive case-marked subject, complementizer

1.Introduction

Some Altaic languages such as Japanese, Turkish, Mongolian and Korean allow a genitive subject in certain environments.

Dagur (1) [mini au -sen] mery -miny sain.

[1sGen buy-PERF] horse-1sGen good

'The horse I bought is good.' (Hale 2002: 109)

Japanese (2) [watasi-no katta] uma-wa ii.

[I-Gen bought] horse-Top good

'The horse I bought is good.'

Turkish (3) [ben-im al-dığ -ım] at iyi-dir

[I-Gen buy-Factive Nominalizer-1.SG horse good-is

'The horse I bought is good.' (Jaklin Kornfilt.)

Hawaiian (4) Kāna mea i makemake ai i ia wā…

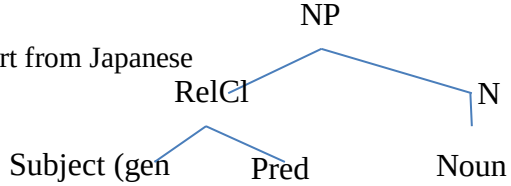
3ps.GEN thing T/A want RESPRN at that time

'The thing that he wanted at that time…' (Hawkins 2000:133) .

There are various theoretical issues with relative clauses with genitive case marked subject.

5.

Apart from Japanese



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and Turkish and Uyghur, Mongolian is perhaps one of the languages with the genitive case- marked subject in embedded clauses even though there isn't enough research within the scope of the Universal Grammar.

In Mongolian, genitive subject appears in the relative clauses expressions illustrated in (6) and (7).

Complex NP:

(6). [Min-ii unshsan] nom chuhal

[I-gen read-pst] book important is

'The book I read is important.'

(7). Verb Complement:

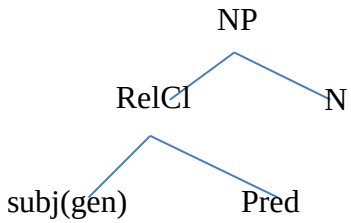
Bi [Bayar-iin yavsn] /iig medsengui

I-nom [Bayat-gen leave]-nominalizer, acc know-NEG-pst.Prog

' I didn't know that Bayar left'.

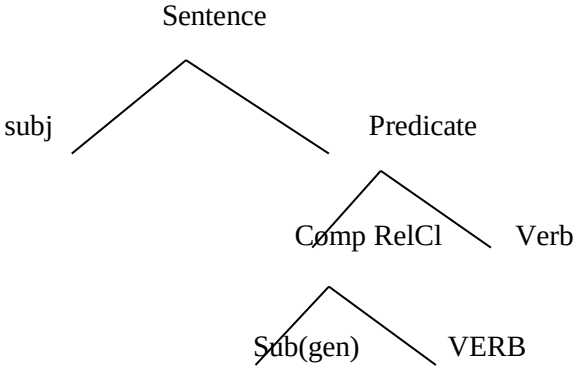
The relative clause (6) has the structure (8) below;

(8).



The structure of (7) is for (9):

(9)



As shown in (6), the subject of the relative clause is licensed by the Genitive marker and the relative clause is necessarily embedded inside NP. In (7), the dependent clause with the genitive subject functions as a complement of a verb.

2. Genitive Subject Construction in Mongolian

The purpose of this chapter is to show the (in)compatibility of the Mongolian Language with theories and conditions of UG in that I investigate Genitive Subject 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 a relative clause?
- Is it possible that most of the relative clauses with the genitive subject are nominalized?

Previous researches: 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.

(10) [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:

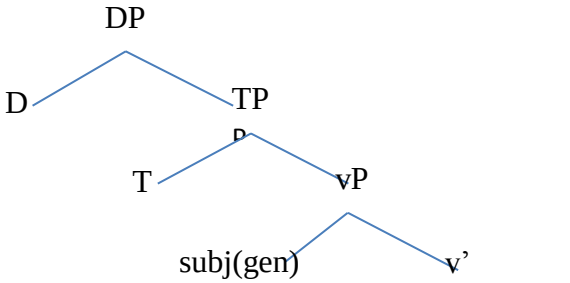
- D-licensing: Genitive is licensed by a clause-external D head.

- 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))

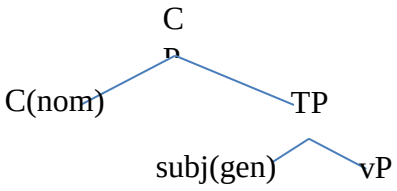
(11)



Next let's consider the C-licensing Hypothesis

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.

(12).



We argue that genitive subject can occur even if there is no nominal head in Mongolian.

(13).

a. Comparative:

Bi [Dulma-giin unshsan-aas] olon nomiig unshsan.

I [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-sanCOMP-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.

3. Genitive Subject Constructions in Other Languages

3.1 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.

(14) 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

(15) a. John no hon
John's book

b. *John ga hon

In contrast to (14a) and (15b), *ga/no* conversion is possible in (16) below, which is a relative clause.

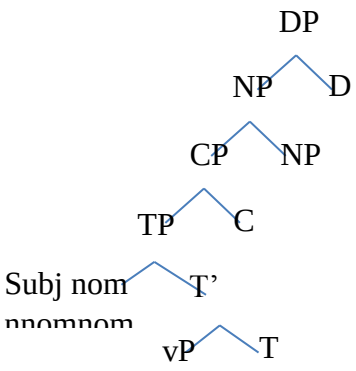
(16) a. [John ga kata] hon
'a book that John bought'

b. [John no kata]hon

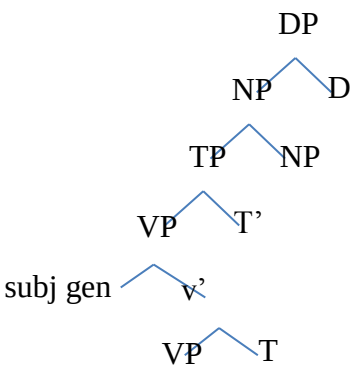
'a book that John bought'

The sentence in (16) 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 (17) shows nominative and genitive structures in the D- licensing approach of Miyagawa (2008).

(17) a. Nominative Structure



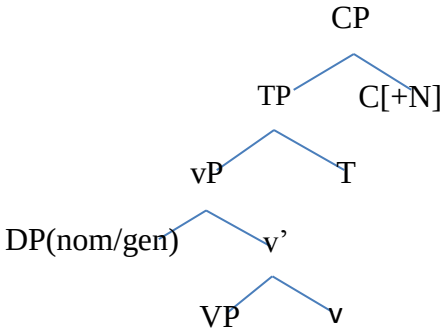
b. Genitive Structure



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 in (17) 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.

(18)



3.2 Genitive subject construction in Turkish

(19) 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'.

(20) 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)[1]

The sentence in (19) and (20) show us nominative- genitive alternation is not optional in Turkish in that nominative isn't allowed in (19), genitive is not allowed in (20) 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 (16),(19),and (20,) 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 (20), 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).

3.3 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 (23a) or on the verbal complex (21b) optionally with an overt COMP head-LIQ. (cf. Asarina and Hartman 2011)[2]

[1] For Turkish, the agreement begins at C whether the subject is genitive or nominative ; if the verb is nominalized, the nominal agreem

ent occurs while a verbal form requires a verbal agreement. Thus, C-licensing makes the genitive subject possible in Turkish.(Kornfilt 1984)

[2] Liq' is a categorically flexible derivational suffix that can be nominalizer.(cf. Alya Asarina2011)

Uyghur:

(21) 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)

(21a) shows that agreement with the genitive subject appears on the head noun, which is a property of D-licensing. (21b), on the other hand, shows that the agreement appears on COMP, which is property of C-licensing.

Azarina and Hartman (2011) claim that the genitive subject in Uyghur is uniformly licensed by D regardless of the placement of agreement either on a head noun (121a) or a verbal complex (121b).

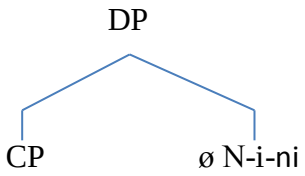
They assume the existence of a phonologically null N with D as a head noun when one does not explicitly appear, as shown in (22).

(22) Otgur [Ajgul-nung ket –ket –(liq)] –o N-i -ni di d-i.
Otgur Ajgul-gen leave-RAN-(LIQ) -3.POSS-acc say –Pst-3

'Otgur said that Ajgul left'.

As illustrated in (23). Azarina and Hartman (2011) propose that the genitive structure contains CP.

(23)



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.

3.4 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 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 (24).

Relative Clauses-agreement on noun:

(24) 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)

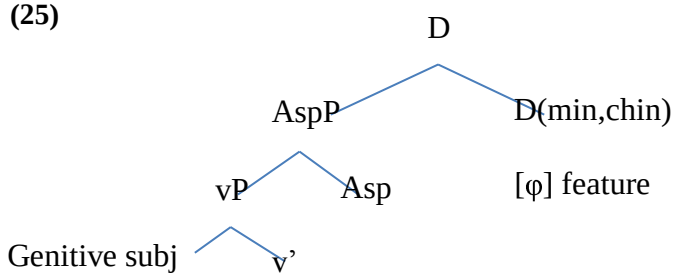
b. [Bold /iin/iig nom unshsan-iig] bi har-san

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 (125).

(25)



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 (25) is ungrammatical in standard Mongolian. Second, embedded verb carries agreement. The agreement is morphologically realized on the verb as shown in (26). In (26a) the subject *Dulma* of relative clause is singular and the verb inflection carries agreement (phi-feature). In contrast, (126b) the subject oyutn-uud (students) is plural and the verb has plural inflection, -*sgaa*.

(26) 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 (27), which has no head noun.

(27) 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'.

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. Genitive case marker on the subjects of embedded clause is assigned in terms of the feature transmission, as illustrated in (28) below.

4. 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:

(28) 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.

4.1 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.

(29) 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'.

(31) Mongolian:

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[1]

Dulma-gen home-at food cook-COMP/acc I know-pst

'I know that Dulma cooked food at home'.

[1] Sang-Taek Park (personal communication) raised an alternative structural analysis of *Dulmag-iin gertee hool hiiseniig medsen.* According to him, in this sentence, *"Dulma-iin gert-ee"* denotes the meaning *Dulma's house*. Then *Dulma-iin* does not function as a subject, instead it is a possessor of the *house.* However, we consider that it functions as an embedded subject of the clause due to possessive inflection *ee* of the NP *gertee*. In other words, this phrase can't occur its own and it is ungrammatical in that when possessor is marked with genitive case, the possesee has possessive inflection *ee.*

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 (31 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.

4.5 Ge[1] is a complementizer in Mongolian

Ge is an optional category: As shown in the examples below, ge in the complex NP in Mongolian appears optionally on the right of the embedded clause. Optional *–ge* on noun complement:

(30) [Bayariin yavsn] ge-deg barimt ni chuhal
[Bayar-gen leave]-(san)[2] (ge-deg) sign-3.poss important

'The sign that Bayar left is important'

Mongolian grammarians have analysed *ge* and its cognates as nominalizer of embedded clauses based on clausal complements of the sort illustrated in (133).

(31) Verb Complement:

Bi ø [Bayar-iin yavsn] ge-deg /iig medsengui

I nom [Bayar -gen leave]-ge-deg , acc know-NEG-pst.PROG

'I didn't know that Bayar left'

From the example like (33), the sign of the nominalizer analysis is understandable. That's why the embedded clause is nominal, as evidenced by possessor agreement and case marking it bears. It means that *ge* is the morpheme responsible for the nominal nature of the embedded clause.

Azarina and Hartman (2011) maintain that this kind of clauses in Uyghur (like 33) is embedded by a phonologically null head noun, which is the host of the possessor agreement and case marking.

In my opinion, this null head noun in Mongolian is the clue to argue that *ge* heads the clause and it functions as a sort of nominalized complementizer.

(32) Null noun analysis:

Bi ø [CP Bayar-iin yav -san ge-deg] øN-iig medsengui

I-nom[CP Bayar-gen leave SAN -COMP] øN acc (3.poss) know-NEG

'I didn't know that Bayar left'.

Obviously, it is difficult to distinguish the predictions of a nominalizer from the complementizer + null head noun hypothesis. Thus, in order to understand with ease, we can take the examples which contain an overt head noun.

(33) Bi [Bayar-iin yav-san ge-deg] barimt ni chuhal.

[1] Mongolian has a complementizer auxialary verb *ge*- very similar to Japanese *to iu*. "*Ge"*- literally means 'to say' and in converbal form *gež* precedes either a psych verb or a verb of saying.

I-nom[CP Bayar-gen leave-san COMP] fact (3.poss) important.

'The fact that Bayar left is important.'

We can observe that when the clausal complement is embedded by overt head noun, possessor agreement appears optionally on the head noun rather than on the *ge*-clause in (35).

Let's consider the following two properties of *ge* (hereafter nominalized complementizer) that colloborate its status as a complementizer. Many languages have null complementizer and allow complementizer drop. cf. Pesetsky and Torrego (2000).

Noun Complementizer and relative clause: We argue that the complementizer *ge* attends differently to the type of embedded clause in Mongolian due to its subordinate inflection and subcategorization of matrix verb.

(34) a. Bi [Dulma-g surguul-ruu yav-san] gej bod-son
I [Dulma-ac school-to go-pst] COMP think-PAST

'I thought that Dulma went to school'.

b. *Bi [Dulma-g surguul-ruu yav-san] ge-deg bod-son

I [Dulma-acc school-to go-pst] COMP think-pst

Int: I thought that Dulma went to school.

In (36a) the verb *bod* (think) subcategorizes complementizer *ge* which co-occurs with subordinate inflection *J* and the sentence is grammatical. Contrary, in (36b) the verb *bod* subgategorizes *ge* with subordinate inflection *dag* and it is ungrammatical.

Instead, the verb med (know) subcategorizes optionally *ge-deg* and *ge-j* and the *gedeg* is assigned accusative case by the matrix verb *medeh* like a noun as shown in (139).

(35) a. Bi [Dulma-g surguul-ruu yav-san] gedeg-iig med-sen
I [Dulma-acc school-to go-pst] ge-deg-acc think-pst

'I know that Dulma went to school'.

b. Bi [Dulma-g surguul-ruu yav-san] ge-j medsen

I [Dulma-acc school-to go-pst] ge-j– know-pst

'I know that Dulma went to school'.

The nominalized complementizer *ge-deg* can be termed as dependent and defective nominalized complementizer, since they can be expanded and focused noun phrase and embedded clause optionally.

This nominalized complementizer *ge-deg* can be the nominalizer of a clause in addition to other functional roles. The syntactic contexts for these grammatical roles can be formalized as in (38).

(36) If *ge* in the head position of an NP has no argument status in its complement clause and sentence, then it will undertake a certain grammatical role.

It means that the minimal semantic content of *ge-deg* is neutralized in contexts. A construction like (39) meets the condition in (138), where nominalized complementizer *ge-deg* bears no relation to an argument in the preceding clause and it functions as a clausal nominalizer, being devoid of meaning.

(37) Bold [Dulma udahgui yavna] gedeg-iig medsen
Bold Dulma-nom soon leave-fut] COMP/acc know

'Bold know that Dulma will leave soon.'

In general, it is assumed that nominalized complementizer *gedeg* occurs in the head position of the noun complement construction as a clausal nominalizer.

Summary

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 Mongolia 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.

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DEVELOPING MONGOLIAN STUDENTS' ENGLISH COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE THROUGH MOVIES

Odtsetseg Yadamsuren[1]

Abstract: *Acquiring good speaking skills is challenging, problematic, and sometimes frustrating for most non-native English students while it's universally true that speaking has left far behind other language skills and needs more research and studies. This paper starts with bringing the problem into the light and proposes use of films as a solution for the problem. Then it draws broader literature overview of using or not using movies in language classrooms, and finally suggests some important considerations for effective implementation of movies in the classroom.*

Keywords: communicative competence, movie, authenticity, real-life communication, cross-cultural competence

Introduction

Mongolian youth are enthusiastically trying to learn English as a second language in this globalized world, but most of them are struggling with a problem of not being able to become fluent speakers. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) whose primary goal is to provide opportunities for students in the classroom to engage in real-life communication in the target language was introduced in Mongolia a decade or two ago. To reach its goal to improve students' conversational competence, a number of major changes were made, including replacing old textbooks with new communicative-based textbooks, conducting teacher trainings to help teachers become effective users of this teaching approach, reforming English language curricula with the new approach and so on. Many teachers of English make a great effort, spending much valuable time and energy often fruitless searching for interesting supplementary teaching materials to increase students' participation and to enrich the teaching content. But our students' listening and speaking skills still lag behind the other language skills, and the main culprits in this problem are the following.

First, current English textbooks are richer in activities than the old ones, but they lack authentic conversations and tend to be monotonous. According to Carter and McCarthy, adequate evidence is available to point out a lack of correspondency between conversational data and textbooks (qtd. in Jaen and Bazanta 287). English language teaching textbooks use "artificial scripted dialogues based on someone's intuitions about what people are likely to say or in most cases drawn from written language" instead of illustrating patterns of real conversational features (Jaen and Bazanta 287). Seferoglu, an associate professor and doctor in the English Language Teaching in the Department of Foreign Language Education, Ankara also finds from her personal teaching experience that materials in printed form may be authentic, but they are not of use when it comes to develop learners' communicative competence (Seferoglu 1).

Second, the problem can relate to the common misunderstanding among teachers of English and some scholars that speaking cannot be taught, and it's gradually learned by students through drilling of oral tasks. Besides leading to limited and molded conversational patterns, this approach doesn't seem to suit for many Asian students including Mongolians who are apt to be shy, quiet, non-argumentative, introverted, and more importantly, students who lack self-confidence. Thus, they frequently show low participation in the interactive activities.

Most importantly, every non-native teacher of English probably faces a problem that English is not used authentically in the classroom; thus students don't have many natural chances to

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be exposed to the target language or use it in authentic interaction. According to Nolasco and Arthur, getting students conscious of how native speakers achieve conversational competence is the most essential and first concern in developing conservation (qtd. in Jaen and Bazanta 295). Then, how can we achieve this in our situation where there's a huge absence of native speakers? The problem, of course, isn't totally unsolvable. Although getting all students to be able to speak fluently in the target language is a great challenge for teachers, the problem is solvable through carefully planned lessons, close cooperation of teachers and students, and of course, teachers' skills, initiatives, and tireless efforts.

Authentic Movie can be a Key to the Problem

In order to develop speaking skills, listening skills must also be considered like two sides of a coin (Jaen and Bazanta 284). Our teachers of English often successfully manage to provide listening comprehension with the help of textbook CDs, and recordings and videos from Youtube, CNN, and BBC, but often fail to offer the context in understanding and interpreting oral interactions. The reason for this is the context is only experienced, not learned (Jaen and Bazanta 290). Therefore, one feasible and productive solution for promoting students' communicative competence by bringing them in real-life interaction and giving them plenty of opportunities to be exposed to the real language is the active use of films/movies in the ESL classroom.

This idea of using movies in the language classroom is not a novelty to non-native English teachers in some countries, as it is widely recognized and applied by a growing number of them. However, it is often an ignored and less known approach in Mongolia. Only small percentage of teachers of English in Mongolia use this approach due to its time-consuming preparation, while few others use it as a "fill of class time" when it comes to lack of course content or a "compensation for poor preparation" as Hobbs claims (qtd. in Clemens and Hamakawa 562). In this paper, I'm not proposing a brand new approach for how to use feature movies in the classroom. Instead, I'm trying to illustrate the most important stages that would be the basic and most helpful knowledge for our teachers for the effective implementation of movies in the classroom, and to demonstrate how likely they're feasible in Mongolian circumstance.

Literature review

Authentic language, cultural diversity, high motivation, and abundant tasks are all at once in a movie

It's absolutely true that movies bring the outside world and authentic language into the classroom by providing such an extended context, interesting content, rich visual imagery, and perfect combination of audio and visuals (Wang 180, Seferouglu 1, King 510, Canning-Wilson 3, Ishihara and Chi 31, Wood 5, Jaen and Basanta 289, Fujishima 58, Cady 28). They give opportunities for non-native English students who are hardly ever exposed to real-life interaction to see how native speakers with their different accents and dialects engage in real and everyday situation - what's called by Kramch and Andersen - 'the dream of every language teacher' (qtd in Jaen and Basanta 289). Acquiring the ways native speakers talk by imitating and repeating what they say (Lin 7) with correct pronunciation, intonation and stress is significant in getting involved in conversation. "All authentic and semiotic modalities in films such as gestures and body language, facial expressions, music, and other features play an important role in making students aware of the way the language interacts with other sign systems" (Jaen and Basanta 289). These modalities may be seen as minor factors by others, but they are such an invisible powerful tool to push students to actively use the language when they feel the difference in their conversation "just from being forced to include "umm" at the beginning of one of the sentences, or to stress one word a little differently, or to make a minor gesture at the right moment" (Cady 29). Further, from these points of view, Wood concludes the "immense potential range of subject, language, communicative situation, imagination that movies offer cannot be matched by any other raw communicative materials...." (Wood 9).

Another indisputable benefit of using movies in the classroom is the cross-cultural aspect. "In order to understand the language fully and use it fluently, learners need not only linguistic, pragmatic, discourse and strategic competence, but also socio-cultural and world knowledge, as some areas of language do reflect culture" (Wang 181). What makes movies distinctive from textbooks in terms of culture is that movie has a great power to depict different cultures in various ways, and to get students to see them visually and feel them. Altman, Burt, Stempleski, Donley and many others unarguably acknowledge that "film provides a focus for discussing language and culture simultaneously" (qtd. in Ishihari and Chi 31). It's backed up by the claim that "cultural aspects of the film such as customs and humor, or culturally specific use of language such as idioms always open the door for language and culture classroom discussion and enable students observe them and inductively learn functional use of language" (Ishihara and Chi 31). Finally, culture learning enables learners to do valuable comparison and contrast of the relationships between themselves and their own cultural beliefs, behaviors and meanings, as expressed in a foreign language (Wang 181). For example, Fijishima, associate professor at the Institute of Languages and Communication, in the new film approach experiment based on Furmanovsky's "Doubling Your Students' Exposure to English" popular article affirms that students often make cultural comparisons automatically. After watching a scene in "Pretty Woman" where the main character Edward takes Vivian to a formal business dinner, some students wondered if it was common for an American businessman to take his girlfriend or wife to a business meeting while it's very rare in Japan (Fujishima 63). Thus, movies activate and enrich the learners' background knowledge while stimulating the development of cultural awareness.

Students like learning language through the use of movies because their interests and motivation grow when language is experienced in a lively way. "The most intangible and most vital element of a language stimulus is the ability to affect its user", says Wood, who continues: "the sense of achievement gained from understanding even a short sense is important, especially in environments where the kind of English in use does not exist communicatively, and thus lacks spontaneity" (Wood 10). Learning English through movies is a greatly motivating and refreshing learning experience for students who need to take a break from the rote learning of long lists of English vocabulary and soporific drill practices. Their encounters with realistic situations and exposure to the living language provide a dimension that is missing in textbook-oriented teaching (King 510). Not only does film stimulate students' motivation in the classroom, but also encourages independent self-study outside the classroom (Massi & Wang 183).

Among the many other movie advantages including vocabulary enrichment, developing critical thinking, being cheap and user-friendly, the one we should not fail to mention is the idea that movie is an endless resource for fun and effective activities. A review of literature on the use of movies in English language reveals that movies are highly useful resources in the English classroom (Segerouglu 1). Instead of sitting at the computer for hours searching for fun activities regardless of their relevance to the lesson objectives, movie is a great material that can be exploited and recycled in numerous ways since its content and context is enormous. "Compared to almost anything else, whether textbook, a blackboard, posters, magazines and newspapers, 'realia' props, even invited speakers or a library, films are a fantastic resource for language in the classroom" (Cady 27). Movie's ability to be used limitlessly is further nicely concluded by Wood "With the total number of different words in a movie ranging anywhere from 5000 up to as many as 20000, only around 10% of them or less appear therefore to be communicatively essential...it suggests that there is a lot of scope left for activities, not necessary to the study of a movie as mere tape script, but vital to all the different kinds of spin off language activities that can be creatively generated by watching and reacting" must deserve a place here (Wood 6).

Objections of movie approach in the language classroom

One reason for not favoring movies in the ESL classroom by most teachers of English as a second or foreign language is the time and energy consuming preparation phase. Planning and viewing dozens of films and choosing the appropriate one, and designing different kinds of multitasks is definitely a daunting and demanding job. Although it seems that initial attempt to use movies in the classroom may be overwhelming for an instructor, there are many ways to overcome this temporary problem. For example, as King, author of several books in teaching, suggests, unlike old days, today's non-native teachers of English no longer need to worry about where to find a wide choice of movies and how to work on them in depth because the invaluably helpful websites and DVDs themselves make the works much easier. Websites including http://film-english.com, http://www.teachwithmovies.org, http://www.eslnotes.com, http://www.script-o-rama.com and many others provide teachers with abundant fresh ideas, full scripts from which you can figure out some troublesome words and phrases, "plot summary and definitions of colloquial vocabulary" (King 518). Some of them even tell which approach is suitable for which movie, and what kinds of tasks are more effective for which movie. Also spending time on preparation is a matter of learning techniques. Teachers may spend much time at their initial attempts, but after learning how to handle all these techniques, it becomes much easier. Also movie-based teaching materials are not single use only, but recyclable. Thus, it's reusable over and over again with different students in different classes like textbooks. These can definitely help teachers save time and with each successive attempt and increasing teaching experience, this problem can be solved. After all of this hard work, we should remember that there's always a reward for doing this and it's much merited.

Many non-native teachers oppose movies as an instructional medium in terms of its difficulty of language, non-standard, everyday language with an overload of slangs and idioms. It's true that authentic movies are made by native speakers and designed for them, but the density and complexity of the language varies a great deal according to the general characteristics of movie including, whether the movie is intended for general audiences, whether the story is complicated and how much of it is told visually, the amount of action, the period, the number of characters involved, their accents, whether the characters and situations are ordinary, and the number and importance of topical references (Cady 28). On the other hand, English is full of slangs and idioms, and from simple greetings to saying goodbye all use slangs and idioms. It's impossible to communicate with native English speakers, watch TV and movies, and communicate through popular websites without being bombarded with informal language. It's the way how native speakers actually talk. Wood suggests non-standard language is an acceptable part of content (Wood 20) while Kitao claims it as "a good balance between the language and action" (qtd. in Wood 16). In his article "Without Slang and Idioms, Students Are in the Dark," David Burke, an author of more than 21 books on slangs and idioms, claims that teaching informal language like idioms and slang is very often neglected by many non-native teachers, and teaching English without them is like teaching only one part of the language. "We do have a responsibility to familiarize non-native speakers with this type of language...This non-standard English has existed for years and will continue to exist," says Burke. Moreover, if time permits, there are some traditional and recently developed ways to make the language easier if it's needed. Some approaches are "pre-listening exercises and discussions, methods of presentation that separate the obstructions of context, from those of the language itself (such as viewing the scene silently), or that supply some or all of the language on paper, with or without explanation of crucial vocabulary and usage (Cady 30). Therefore, films which deliver this real, unavoidable language have to be given a definite place in the ESL classroom.

Another big objection to the use of movies as a proper instructional tool is made by researchers and some teachers who claim that movie does not improve students' listening comprehension, but a little their speaking skills. Both Canning-Wilson and Omaggio argue that there's virtually no empirical data to assure comprehension and practically "we know nothing about how students benefit from films and visuals." Although movie seems to hold students' interests, Canning-Wilson further claims, due to its "visual clues instead of the auditory components"

(Canning-Wilson 1-2). The same stance was taken by Katchen, who found out that students' listening comprehension wasn't improved in his study of using DVD films (Seferouglu 2).

Discussion and Suggestion

Overall literature review and much practical studies show that movies improve students' comprehension. Not only did Ishihara and Chi's classroom study on using authentic video in the beginner level ESL classroom verify the very positive effects of this approach on students' listening and speaking comprehension, but also Lin's study on using movies even with subtitles reveals the great positive impact on enhancing student's listening, which in brief suggests that visual clues don't hinder the listening comprehension (Lin 5). Wang, King, Jaen and many others also unanimously agree with it. One of the many other classroom studies that proved movie as an unbeatable source for developing both listening and speaking skills is Seferoglu's study on "Using Feature Films in Language Classroom." Her study was conducted among 29 freshmen students in the oral communication course who are being trained to be teachers of English. A questionnaire was used to collect data consisting of two sections: responses to seven open-ended questions and responses to a 12-item table. The procedure included the following tasks and activities: previewing activities, viewing the whole movie with English subtitles, viewing sheets, vocabulary and pronunciation notebooks, film response journals, collaborative group work, and role-play. Although it seems the movie wasn't particularly helpful in their grammar, writing, and understanding of the teaching profession, students unanimously agreed the movie was the most influential in improving their listening and speaking skills (see table 1). This study shows that the choice which language skills to develop very much depends on the course objectives.

Table 1 The extent to which students believed watching movies in English increased their awareness and helped them improve various competencies and skills.

	Mean	SA		A		N		D		SD	
Watching movies in English helped me to improve my:		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Awareness about cultural issues cross-cultural comparisons	1.7	9	31	18	62	2	7	-	-	-	-
Knowledge of how language is used in different contexts	1.4	17	59	11	38	1	3	-	-	-	-
Speaking skills and pronunciation	1.4	20	70	7	24	1	3	1	3	-	-
Listening skills	1.6	14	48	12	42	3	10	-	-	-	-
Fluency	2.1	9	31	10	34	8	28	2	7	-	-
Grammar	3.1	2	7	4	14	14	48	8	28	1	3
Vocabulary	1.9	6	21	18	62	5	17	-	-	-	-
Writing	3.2	2	7	1	3	15	52	9	31	2	7
Understanding of the teaching profession	3.3	1	3	8	28	5	17	11	38	4	14
Understanding and appreciation of life	2.2	4	14	17	58	6	21	2	7	-	-
Understanding and appreciation of the arts	2.4	3	10	15	52	8	28	3	10	-	-
Critical and creative thinking skills	2.1	9	31	11	38	5	17	3	10	1	3

Source: Seferoglu, Golge. "Using Feature Films in Language Classes." *Educational Studies* 34.1 (2008): 5. *Education Research Complete*. EBSCO. Web.

Key: SA: strongly agree; A: agree; N: neutral; D: disagree; SD: strongly disagree.

Entertaining, educating, and empowering of a good movie

After a failure of your movie class, you might ask yourself where you went wrong and why it didn't work well. Probably the concept of movie selection can be the answer. No matter how well you had prepared for the movie class, a wrong selection of movie is powerful enough to ruin your plan. According to Arcario, the highest priority for the selection of movie for the purpose of language learning must be given to comprehensibility (qtd. in King 514). Besides this, appropriateness of content and students' language proficiency level is another important factor. As King claims, a movie too beyond students' language level can cause deep frustration and "students may end up confused, depressed, and convinced they will never understand 'real English'" (King 514). Another essential consideration in the list of movie selection is students' interests and motivation. Teachers often worry about whether or not the chosen movie is interesting enough to hold students' attention during the viewing. One clue given by Canning-Wilson's survey result is that students strongly favor action or entertainment movies rather than language films or documentaries in the classroom (Canning-Wilson 2). The opinion is further reinforced by King's remark that "entertaining films are enjoyable and relevant to learners' appreciation of popular culture" (King 515). Learners' age and physical maturity, as well as gender also need to be concerned for the selection.

In addition to these important considerations, I believe that topic-content based movies are more likely to work successfully in ESL classroom in Mongolia. What I mean by this term is that it's better to choose a movie in the classroom based on a particular topic or theme of the particular unit in the textbook. Mongolian students learning English all desire to watch movies in the classroom and often show high enthusiasm for it. But they usually see this idea as an entertainment or "mind-refreshing leisure activity," thus watch the movie passively, rather than regarding it as a language learning tool. According to Proserpio and Giora, "optimal learning takes place when teaching and learning styles are in alignment" (Clemens and Hamakawa 562). Therefore topic-content based movie with teacher's designed additional tasks could help them see it as an integral part of the class and encourage their participation and motivation. Moreover it's beneficial in deepening the speaking topics by means of textbook and movie comparison, contrast, analysis, opinion exchange, and expectation, while giving room for students to apply topic-related new vocabulary of the textbook in their movie discussion.

Moreover, topic-content based movie in the classroom provides an opportunity for expanding curriculum to a teacher who is somehow reluctant to use it because of their fear that movie often derails the curriculum. This content-based movie is a particular advantage in our case, where the current ESL textbooks put our students in a relatively slow-paced and less loaded learning environment, which makes it possible to condense the syllabus and make room for movies. Doing this will increase students' performance.

Having decided on which movie to use, we need to turn our attention to the following important stage to decide whether to show a movie in whole or in segments. This is a very controversial issue among teachers of English and scholars. Canning-Wilson argues that no empirical evidence proves that students' listening comprehension is improved by viewing entire film (Canning-Wilson 4). But his/her argument is opposed bitterly by others "on the ground that showing chunks or sequences present a danger of diverting the focus from meaning and fluency and losing the wholeness of the film" (Golge). A decision on whole or partial movie is absolutely open to teachers, depending on their objectives. However, my suggestion is neither to show a film in 5 or 10 minute segments, as Mongolian students often feel irritated and show a strong aversion to it, nor to show a whole movie, as they are often distracted and feel sleepy, as well as often tend to forget much about the film until the next class. Instead of these two extreme approaches, my suggestion is to split the whole film into two segments; each is shown in average of 45-50 minutes during the two ninety-minute classes along with other pre- and post-viewing activities and homework.

Another approach suggested by King is that movies should be shown wholly in advanced level class, while in segments for less advanced class (King). What about Mongolian ESL classrooms, which mostly have mixed level students? One suggestion can be to follow a principle of starting with easier movies for the first couple of independent classes, and then gradually showing more challenging films. We may not have students watch, for example, an intermediate-level movie for the first time, even though most students in the class have a good level of English, because they need at least some time to adjust to the speed and tempo of speech of native speakers, and basic use of everyday language of the movie. Both advanced and less advanced students will take advantages of this principle, since it will help lower-level students to catch the gist and understand more in detail, and it won't be boring for advanced students either. As long as the movie is enjoyable, advanced students gradually become intrigued in the movie in spite of the easy language, and at the end of the film, those students leave much motivated and self-confident.

Should movies be shown with or without subtitles? This is also a controversial issue in terms of which of these two will benefit students more. Again the solution for this lies in the course objectives. Contrary to our understanding that movies should be shown without subtitles, ample research on this issue reveals that "learners' motivation, overall listening comprehension, vocabulary, oral fluency, and their comprehension ability" is improved by the positive and direct impact of subtitled movies in the classroom (King 516). As King concludes, movies without subtitles should better be shown in listening class as it surely advances listening skills (King 517). Although many researchers suggest using subtitled films more, it seems we can use both movies with or without subtitles interchangeably. Or in our case if we follow the "easy to hard" principle, we should use non-subtitled movies in our language classrooms. If some teachers still feel unsure that it may not help students' understanding because, King and others claim, "rapid pace of speech, overload of slang and idioms, unfamiliarity with the cultural background knowledge, culturally specific humor" are the main hindrances in watching non-subtitled movies (King 517), they can overcome these challenges with carefully prepared pre-reviewing tasks such as handing out difficult or main vocabulary of the movie, and some features and background information of the particular movie. There are many ways to solve this, and once it's handled, students will not only benefit excellent listening comprehension, but many others from non-subtitled movies too.

The final stage of planning is designing plenty of pre- and post-viewing tasks. "To make the best use of feature movies for achieving whatever purpose, it's essential to set clear tasks so that students watch with a purpose...and not let them watch the movies passively as they might watch television" (Seferouglu 8). The range of different tasks and activities is limitless. The most popular tasks are sheets consisting of simple multiple choice questions to promote fluency, film response journals, role-playing, producing videos, round table discussion or debates on topics, or on particular plots and main characters, selection of the most crucial lines and their analysis, competition of new vocabulary, making a notebook of new vocabulary with pronunciation, short presentations and so on. Most importantly, any movie must not be shown without any supplementary tasks that are most significant in pushing students to watch movies purposefully and become responsible watchers, and to make movies a valuable learning tool.

Conclusion

Using feature movies may not be a fresh new idea in English language teaching in other countries, but for some countries like Mongolia the situation may be different. In our country, students have little chance to be exposed to real-life situations where native speakers are present with different accents, dialects, and informal language, and thus they face great challenges of not being able to become fluent speakers. Many solutions have been attempted with some success, but the problem still demands from us to do and try more. One solution for this can be to use authentic movies in the classroom.

Video can give students realistic models to imitate for role-play; can increase awareness of other cultures by teaching appropriateness and suitability; can strengthen audio/visual linguistic perceptions simultaneously; can widen the classroom repertoire and range of activities; can teach direct observation of the paralinguistic features found in association with the target language; can offer a visual reinforcement of the target language and can lower anxiety when practicing the skill of listening (Arthur qtd. in Canning-Wilson 3).

Of course, movies can't solve everything, but with the appropriate movie and with the appropriate approach, with appropriate abundant pre- and post-viewing tasks, it's sure that students will benefit a lot from them and both teachers and students will see it as a valuable and helpful teaching tool.

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IMPROVING STUDENTS' ENGLISH COMMUNICATION SKILLS THROUGH MOVIE CLUBS

Gombosuren. Enkhzul[1]

Abstract: *Developing students' English communication skills out of class has been important issue for English teachers when there are not enough English speaking situations in real life. One way to satisfy this need is having students watch movies as an extracurricular activity. Most young learners are growing up with technology and it is a part of their lifestyle. Using videos as an audio-visual material in English language learning classes offers great opportunity for teachers and at the same time for students because videos and movies can be rich resources to use. The current study aims to investigate how "Movie club" can affect improving students' English communication skills out of class.*

Keywords: Extracurricular activity, worksheet, video, participant, audio-visual material, rubric

Introduction

In Mongolia, English has been considered as an important second language (L2) since the Democratic revolution in 1990. However, while the need for English is increasing day by day, the real English teaching and learning situation is the converse: there has been a decrease in credit hours to study English at universities. Besides. students who are finishing secondary school and the ones enrolling to the universities do~~es~~ not have sufficient English knowledge to satisfying the degree.

As a result, English teachers at higher education institutions started focusing more on structure and reading and writing primarily to fulfill the objectives of the course and complete the content due to the shortened period of English course hours. Thus, there is a demand for us, the teachers, to fill the gap between the requirement and the real situation by teaching to improve the students' English skills through extracurricular activities, as students cannot find interaction in the target language out of class.

One way to meet this big challenge is organizing extracurricular activities, especially English movie club, and having students watch films in English to improve their communication skills. A lot of studies have been conducted on using movies in foreign language class, but not enough research was done on how movies can be used to improve students' skills out of class.

The objectives of this study are:

- To study the effectiveness of using films to develop the students' English skills out of class
- To reveal if the movies can be motivational materials as extracurricular activity

Literature

Teaching English as a second or foreign language, often referred as English lessons, can be fun and rewarding while at the same time presenting unique challenges in this modern and fast changing world. We teachers seek different and adequate methods to implement in our classes to produce visible outcomes from the students. Technology in language teaching is not new. Indeed, technology has been around in language teaching for decades. Tape recorders, language laboratories and video have been in use since the 1960s and 1970s, and are still used in classrooms around the world. (Gavin Dudeney, Nicky Hockly, 2012, p. 7)

Audio-visual method is one of the effective approaches we can use in our teaching. It is a method which refers to both sound and pictures, typically in the form of slides, video and recorded speech or music shown by the teacher to the students. This method was first developed by the team directed by Guberina and Rivene in France. Adaptation and revised versions of this method have been produced in America, the UK, and Canada afterwards.

Audio – visual aids can be divided into following 2 categories:

1. Simple visual aids like blackboard, bulletin board, funnel board, charts, graphs, posters
2. Advanced visual aids-like video, filmstrip, television~~s~~, etc.

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The use of audio-visual aids in education, usually in second language learning classes, has increased dramatically recent years. Thanks to development of technology and openness to the media world, we all are close to achieve one of our goals in teaching.

Many scholars agree the audio-visual materials in foreign language learning classes help not only teachers but also students in great ways. Nowadays, thanks to technology and speedy development, using audio-visual materials including videos or movies are very accessible in every English classes. There is the interest factor of seeing people in their natural habitat, a useful source of cultural information. (Wilson, 2016, p. 96)

Some teachers may debate the benefits of using these kind of materials, though many see the advantages of using videos in L2 classes. For instance, W. Rivers (1981) mentioned that "All audiovisual materials have positive contributions to language learning as long as they are used at the right time, in the right place. In language learning and teaching process, learners use' their eyes as well as their ears; but their eyes are basic in learning."

Penny Ur states that most of the discourse in TV dramas, interviews, most classroom exchanges we hear is quite informal, being both spontaneous and colloquial in character, and some of the skill the learner needs to develop are closely bound up with the peculiarities of spontaneous and colloquial speech. Brown (2005) writes, "It is important to understand and accept that students today are more drawn to film and television–it's a sign of the times-and we, as educators, need to show kids that these things can be educational as well as entertaining."

Furthermore, watching the speaker, in addition to listening, offers the option to notice potentially helpful cues known as kinesics: that is, body language, facial expressions, hand gestures, and other non-verbal cues that can facilitate interpretation of a message. (Vandergrift & M. C. Goh, 2012, p. 4)
According to Brown (2005) "It's important to understand and accept that students today are more drawn to film and television – it's a sign of the times – and we, as educators, need to show kids that these things can be educational as well as entertaining."

Moreover, Brown (2005) considered the importance of movies as follows: "The role of technology also provides ever-increasing opportunities for teachers to incorporate film, especially adaptations of books in the classroom. Videotapes and DVDs provide teachers with both accessibility and flexibility to use an entire film in the classroom or for teachers to identify and use excerpts from films, to pause and discuss, or to replay important sections."

The other advantages associated with using these media are that the material is frequently authentic, topical, filled with real world information, and, with television and video, there is a visual aspect. When we are able to see speakers, their context and body language is a huge advantage to students with short attention spans. For young learners, video, with its combination of color, action, engaging characters and story lines, is particularly appropriate. (Wilson, 2016, p. 49)

Also, movies can be authentic and contextual material for students because they provide real life language with native speakers in much more different situations than teachers and textbooks can offer in language classes. Video is an excellent source of authentic spoken language material; it is also attractive and motivating. It is flexible: you can start and stop it, run forward or back, 'freeze' frames in order to talk about them. (Ur, 1996, p. 191)

An alternative source of spoken data is to use authentic material from radio or TV. Apart from the more formally scripted spoken texts, such as news broadcasts and documentary voice-overs, there is a lot of unscripted data. The main problems with this media material are, on the one hand, availability–it's not easy to get hold of if one is teaching outside of the class–and, on the other, the level of "insider" cultural knowledge that is necessary to make sense of such texts. (Thornbury, 2012, p. 45)

Using videos and movies in language classes, especially in English classes, brings good results to the students' reproduction. Younger learners are growing up with technology, and it is a natural and integrated part of their lives. For these learner, the use of technology is a way to bring the outside world into the classroom. And some of these younger learners will in turn become teachers themselves. Technology is becoming increasingly mobile. It can be used not only in the classroom, lecture hall, computer room or self-access center, it can also be used at home, on the way to school and in Internet cafes. (Gavin Dudeney, Nicky Hockly, 2012, p. 8) So according to the modern technology, e-learning or online meetings are becoming popular. Teachers~~, we~~ can run online "Movie club" that students can attend from anywhere out of school.

In choosing the videos, it is very important to consider the level and interests of the students. If we make it too difficult or too easy, the students will not be motivated. If the content is irrelevant to the students' interests, it may fail to engage them. After choosing the video, there is a question how to use it. Four particular techniques are especially appropriate for language learners, and are often used with video footage:

1. **Play the video without sound:** students and teacher discuss what they see and what clues it gives them, and then they guess what the characters are actually saying.
2. **Play the audio without the picture:** while the students listen, they try to judge where the speakers are, what they look like, what's going on, etc.
3. **Freeze frame:** the teacher presses the pause button and asks the students what's going to happen next.
4. Divide **the class in half:** half the class face the screen. The other half sit with their backs to it. The "screen" half describe the visual images to the "wall" half. (Harmer, 2012, p. 144) Also Wilson (2016) suggested that video can also be controlled: pause the button allows teachers to divide the recording into usable pieces. The rewind button is also a lifesaver for the confused students.

Using movies in language learning classes has not only advantages but also disadvantages, because it requires a lot of preparation from the teacher and needs some facilities. Some scientists mentioned the negative sides of using films in language teaching.

A danger of video is that students may treat it rather as they treat watching television uncritically and lazily. There may well be occasions when it is entirely appropriate for them to watch video in a relaxed way, but more often we will want them to engage, not only with the content of what they are seeing, but also the language and other features. Video is rich than audio: speakers can be seen; their body movements give clues as to meaning; so do the clothes they wear, their location, etc. background information can be filled in visually. (Harmer, 2012, p. 144)

A large part of the negative attitudes teachers have towards technology is usually the result of a lack of confidence, a lack of facilities or a lack of training, resulting in an inability to see the benefit of using technologies in the classroom. Installation of advanced aids in class demands technical and mental readiness from the teacher. (Gavin Dudeney, Nicky Hockly, 2012, p. 9)

The solutions to these negative sides can be producing worksheets that students will work on while they are watching the films. This makes students pay more attention to the films instead of just watching uncritically and allows the teacher to check the comprehension. Also, several researchers suggested that films with subtitles are appropriate for language classes.

Research

"Movie Club," initiated by English teachers, has being organized as an extracurricular activity at The National University of Mongolia, Erdenet School since 2010. We did a research during two academic years. The aim of the study is assessing the improvement of students' English communication skills through "Movie Club" as an extracurricular activity.

Participants

~~H~~ere we are sharing the result of only the experiment group , which does not include a lot of volunteer participants.

- English teacher's 3a class–12 students as a controlled group
- English teacher's 3b class–13 students as an experiment group

The thirteen students of an experiment group attended "Movie club" once a week constantly for eleven weeks a semester, which means 22 times a year and 44 times during two academic years.. While they were attending movie lessons besides their academic work, controlled group students were just normally studying without attending "Move Club."

Videos

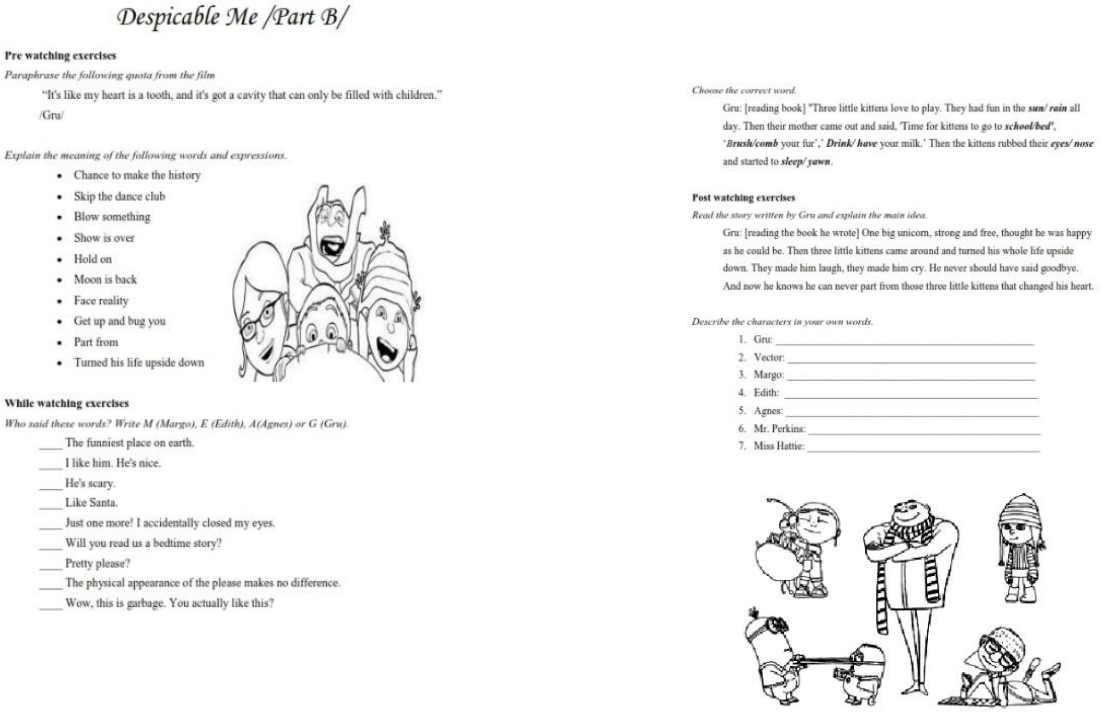
We showed them the following videos during two academic years.

- 4 short cartoons
- 2 documentaries
- 19 full length movies (dividing them into Part A and Part B) such as Princess Diary, Brave and Freaky Friday.

Materials/ Worksheets

For all movies and videos we prepared worksheets including:

- Pre-watching exercises (to prepare students for the movie, pre-teach important words and expressions, give ideas about the movie)
- While-watching exercises (to have students improve their language skills, set goals for students)
- Post-watching exercises (to check the students' understanding, correct the mistakes, have discussions about the movie).Those provide wide variety of exercises and activities including role-plays, games, grammar exercises, vocabulary exercises, idioms and expressions from the film.



Despicable Me /Part B/

Pre watching exercises

Paraphrase the following quota from the film

"It's like my heart is a tooth, and it's got a cavity that can only be filled with children."
/Gru/

Explain the meaning of the following words and expressions.

- Chance to make the history
- Skip the dance club
- Blow something
- Show is over
- Hold on
- Moon is back
- Face reality
- Get up and bug you
- Part from
- Turned his life upside down

While watching exercises

Who said these words? Write M (Margo), E (Edith), A(Agnes) or G (Gru).

___ The funniest place on earth.
___ I like him. He's nice.
___ He's scary.
___ Like Santa.
___ Just one more! I accidentally closed my eyes.
___ Will you read us a bedtime story?
___ Pretty please?
___ The physical appearance of the please makes no difference.
___ Wow, this is garbage. You actually like this?

Choose the correct word.

Gru: [reading book] "Three little kittens love to play. They had fun in the ***sun/ rain*** all day. Then their mother came out and said, 'Time for kittens to go to ***school/bed***', '***Brush/comb*** your fur',' ***Drink/ have*** your milk.' Then the kittens rubbed their ***eyes/ nose*** and started to ***sleep/ yawn***.

Post watching exercises

Read the story written by Gru and explain the main idea.

Gru: [reading the book he wrote] One big unicorn, strong and free, thought he was happy as he could be. Then three little kittens came around and turned his whole life upside down. They made him laugh, they made him cry. He never should have said goodbye. And now he knows he can never part from those three little kittens that changed his heart.

Describe the characters in your own words.

1. Gru: _____
2. Vector: _____
3. Margo: _____
4. Edith: _____
5. Agnes: _____
6. Mr. Perkins: _____
7. Miss Hattie: _____

We had the diagnostic pre-test at the beginning of the research, three progress tests during the research and the final test at the end. All the tests had been prepared with the same structure consisting of three sections.

- Section 1- Basic English test consisting of grammar and vocabulary /20 points/
- Section 2- Listening test /20 points/
- Section 3- Speaking, consisting of free talking with the teacher and answering 3 questions as detailed as possible. /20 points/
- Total 60/100 points.

We used a rubric consisting of the five characteristics below to evaluate the students' speaking skills.

1. Content
2. Fluency
3. Delivery
4. Grammar
5. Quality of Expression

Result

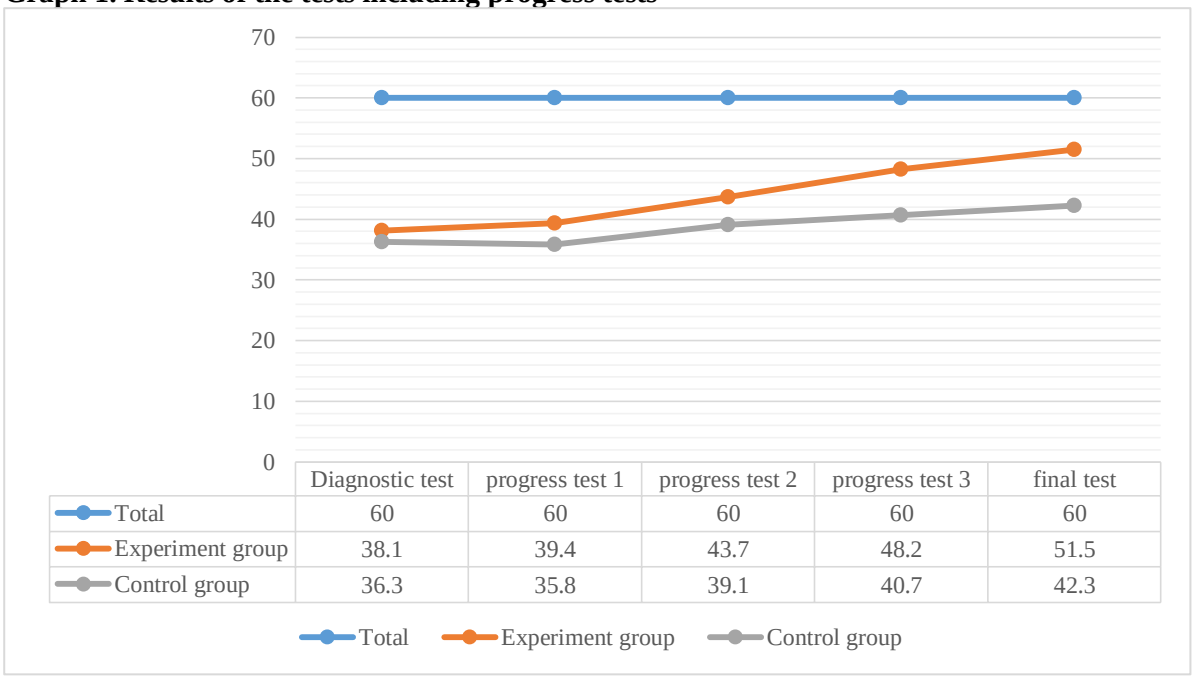
At the end of the 2-year-research we had ~~a~~ good results.

Table1. Result of the diagnostic pre-test and the final test

Sections	Diagnostic pre-test result /in average/		Final test result /in average/	
	Controlled group	Experiment group	Controlled group	Experiment group
Section 1	13.4	14.2	15.9	17.6
Section 2	10.7	11.1	12.8	18.2
Section 3	12.2	12.8	13.6	15.7
Total points	36.3ps	**38.1ps**	42.3ps	**51.5ps**
Average grade	60.5%	**63.5%**	70.5%	**85.8%**

While it is clear that their basic academic work influenced ~~on~~ their English skill positively, we can also see more progress on experiment group which attended "Movie Club" regularly. The average of the experiment group was 63.5% and went up to 85.8% by the end of the research. Result of the diagnostic pre-test and the final test is shown in sections. Watching movies requires more attention to listen and understand, so ~~that~~ there is a dramatic rise in their listening skill.

Graph 1. Results of the tests including progress tests



	Diagnostic test	progress test 1	progress test 2	progress test 3	final test
Total	60	60	60	60	60
Experiment group	38.1	39.4	43.7	48.2	51.5
Control group	36.3	35.8	39.1	40.7	42.3

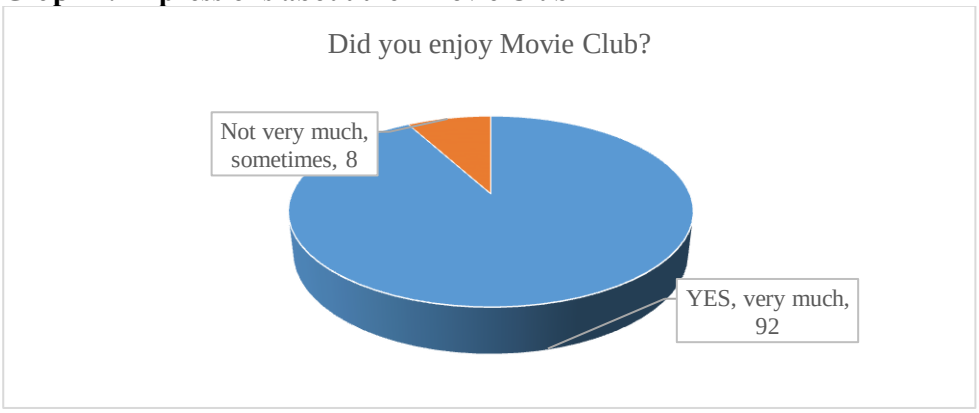
Here we can see that both groups started almost at the same level, but the experiment group students were progressing more steadily. Their average point was 38.1 at the beginning of the research and reached 51.5 at the final test. The constant participation in the "Movie Club" for four semesters has affected students' English skills positively. They are used to the timetable, films and worksheets.

Focus group interview

We interviewed the experiment group students about their impressions and the results of the "Movie Club" to find out how the club was effective.

1. Did you enjoy the Movie Club?

   Graph 2. Impressions about the "Movie Club"



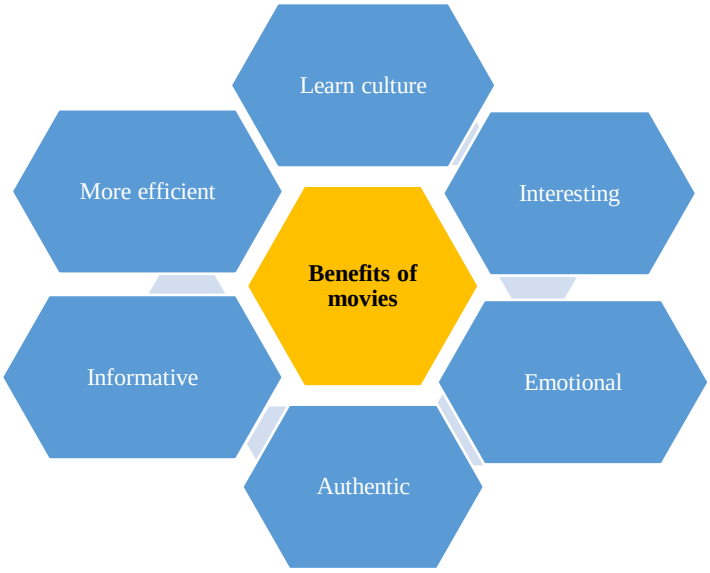
   92% of the participants answered they loved the "Movie Club." It shows films can be helpful tools to be used as an extracurricular activity to improve English skills.

2. What difficulties did you face?
   - Couldn't catch all information
   - Focusing on the video

- Too fast
- Taking notes

We need to analyze their troubles and teach the skills of taking notes, focusing on the main idea, guessing the meaning and other essential techniques.

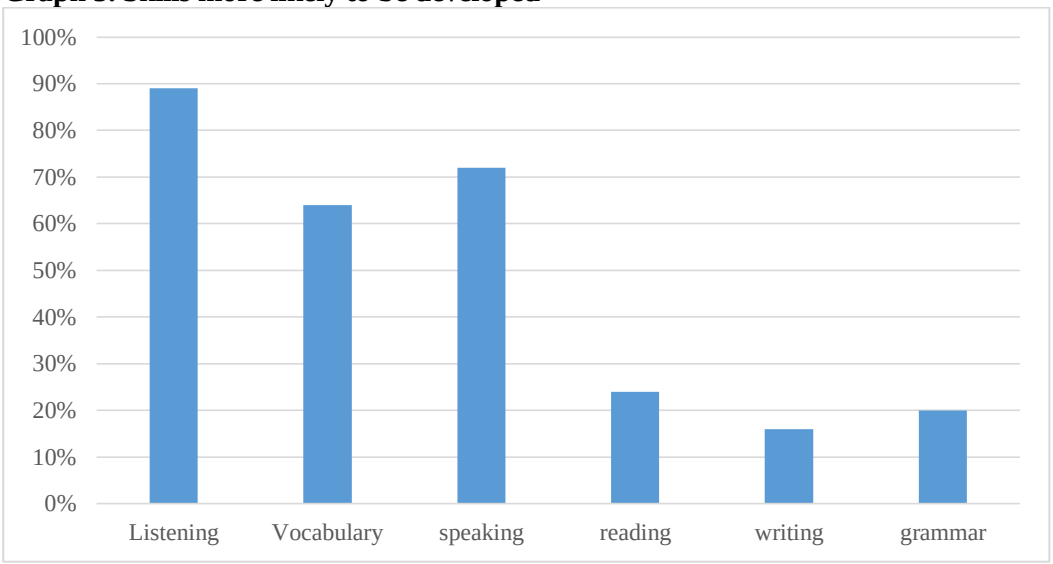
3. What are the benefits of watching short movies/videos during the lesson?
Students listed many advantages such as:
   - Videos bring reality in class. It's better than imagining in mind.
   - Movies are fun.



Students say that a lesson is a lesson, but a movie is fun because it doesn't bring much stress like lessons. Here we can see that everyone enjoys films. So doing something you enjoy while improving your English is a good solution.

4. What skill is more likely to be developed?

Graph 3. Skills more likely to be developed



Participants think that movie clubs help developing their listening, speaking and vocabulary more than writing or reading. After watching the videos, discussions were held among the students to improve their speaking.

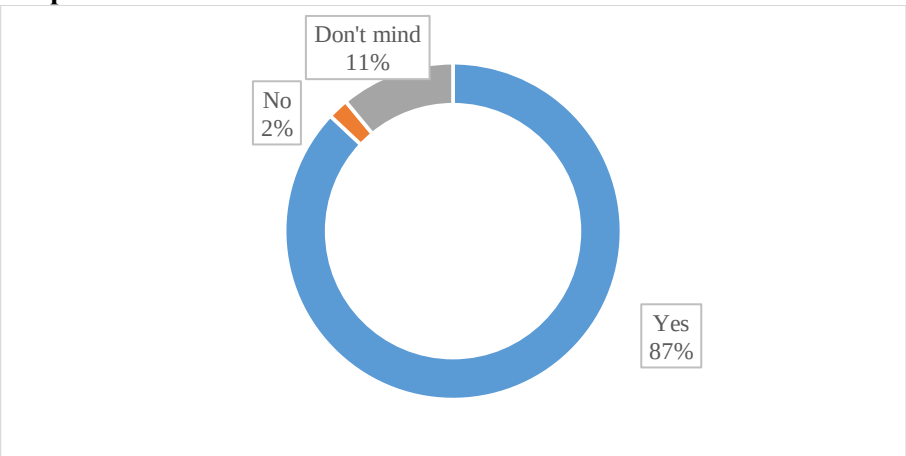
5. What changes do you see since you have involved in Movie Club?

Participants answered that besides improvement in their English. They experienced may other changes such as

- improved concentration
- improved memory
- brought a sense of community to a group
- Learn how they speak English
- Learn informal and slang words
- Learn to understand spoken language

6. Would you like to continue Movie Club?

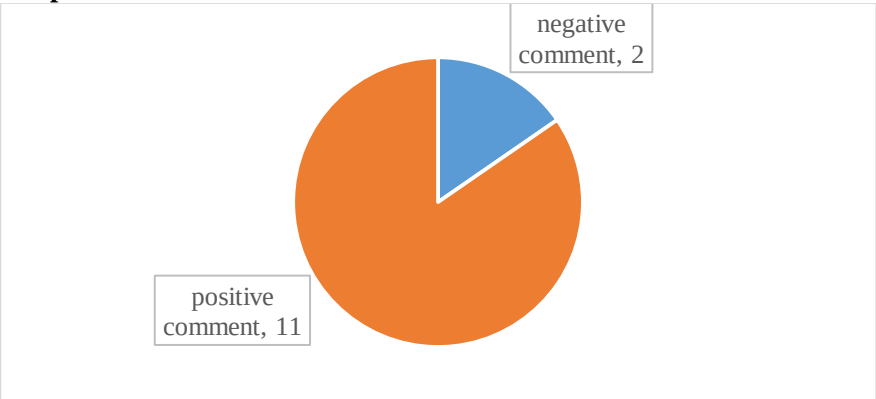
Graph 4. Intend to continue "Movie Club"



87% of the experiment group students answered definitely yes. Students certainly faced some difficulties but they enjoyed the "Movie Club" and they think it's effective and they would like to continue attending.

7. What comments do you want to leave for the "Movie Club?"

Graph 5. Comments of the students



There were two negative comments. One student said he feels like his English is not good enough to understand the films and fulfill the worksheets. Eleven students commented positively. First, it was difficult to understand the film but they are happy that they feel progress week by week. Furthermore, some students say that they just started attending "Movie Club" to get participation points. But when time passed they loved watching films in English.

Conclusion

In many English classes, learning and teaching grammar and improving students' reading and writing skills have been the main goals for teachers to achieve and students to acquire. In real life situations, many students find they lack-communication skills in different situations for many reasons.

There are plenty of audio-lingual materials which can be used in and out of the classroom. Today, multimedia and technology have high roles in our students' in the everyday life. Thus we, as teachers need to provide that necessity or demand in our teaching. However using audio-visual materials in English classes

definitely requires a lot of efforts and preparations. But it is undebatable that the result is good enough to attract students in an effective way to develop their foreign language learning.

A video is a very strong tool for language learning and teaching. If it is not possible to use long length movies as language resources during the academic hours, this problem can be solved through extracurricular activities. Therefore, English teachers can operate "Movie Club" to improve their students' speaking and listening skills and also other English skills as well.

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