MONGOLIAN JOURNAL OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND CULTURE STUDIES

ISSN 2410-1389

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ISSN 2410-1389

CONTENTS

CODES OF CULTURE IN ENGLISH, RUSSIAN AND MONGOLIAN LANGUAGES (ON THE MATERIALS OF IDIOMS WITH THE COMPONENT "WIND")

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Abstract: *The subject for consideration in the article is idioms with the component "wind" in English, Russian and Mongolian language views of the world. The inter-language comparison of the idioms shows the correlation of idioms with cultural codes in these language views of the world, based on which the coding of cultural components in idiomatic funds of the studied languages is carried out.*

Keywords: language and culture, idioms, language view of the world, cultural codes, wind.

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, 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 linguistic 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 was conducted by using the linguo-cultural approach to the study of the phraseological source 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 was 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 idioms with the component "**wind**" in English, "**вода**" Russian and "**ус**" in Mongolian languages. The word "**wind**" 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 on the basis of our analysis the coding of cultural components in idiomatic funds of languages learnt is carried out.

The analysis was conducted on the basis of 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. Natural +active: ***Eng.:*** *as the wind blows, be blowing in the wind, be spitting in the wind, be*
   whistling in the wind, beat the wind, bend in the wind, blow with the wind, break wind, broken
   wind, go like the wind, go, run, etc. like the wind, piss in the wind, piss in(to) the wind, put the
   wind up, run like the wind, sail against the wind, sail before the wind, sail close to the wind,
   sail near the wind, raise the wind, spitting in the wind, whistle (something) down the wind
   Rus.; *пустить / развеять по ветру*- letting / dispelling in the wind, *(выбрасывать /*
   выкидывать) на ветер - (throwing / throwing out) into the wind, *прокатиться с ветерком*-
   sweep with the wind, *без ветра качает / качается от ветра*- shakes / swings from the wind
   without wind, *ветром шатает* - wobbles with the wind, *словно ветром сдуло* - as if blown
   by the wind, *каким ветром занесло* - how the wind blew, *ветер странствий*- wind of
   wanderings, *ветром надуло*- wind blew, ***Mon:*** *салхи оруулах /*to air/, *салхин доогуур нь*
   *гарамгүй /*not to pass under its wind/;
2. Natural +natural +active: ***Eng.:*** *cast stones against the wind*, ***Rus.;*** *догоняй ветра в поле*
   (catch up with the wind in the field), *ищи (свищи) ветра в поле (*look for the wind in the
   field)*, **Mon:** салхи борооны явдал /*a matter of wind and rain/.

Cultural codes similar in two languages:

1. Natural: ***Eng.:*** *before the wind, in the wind, near the wind, off the wind, wind down wind*
   in, wind into, wind off, wind through, wind up, ***Rus.;***по ветру (downwind);
2. Natural +numerical: ***Eng.:*** *a second wind, **Rus.;**на семи ветрах* - on the seven winds;
3. Natural +anthropic: ***Eng.:*** *a wind of change **Rus.;** ветер перемен (a wind of change)*;
4. Natural +floral: ***Eng.:*** *a straw in the wind, **Rus.;**роза ветров (a rose of a wind)*;

5. Natural +somatic: **Eng.:** *eye of the wind,* **Rus.;** *ветер в голове (гуляет)*- wind in the head

 (walking), *ветерком (в голове)*- breeze (in the head);   *;*
6. Natural +active +anthropic: **Eng.:** *throw caution to the winds, throw discretion to the wind(s)*

 Rus.; *бросать на ветер (деньги и т.п.)*- throw to the wind (money, etc.), *бросать слова на*

 ветер - throw words to the wind*;*
7. Natural +active +artifact: **Eng.:** *knock the wind out of sails, take the wind out of (one's) sails,*

 Rus.; *ветер в карманах (гуляет)*- wind in your pockets (walks), *приводить к ветру (судно)*- lead to the wind (ship), *сражаться с ветряными мельницами*- fight with wind turbines mills*; одежда, подбитая ветром* - clothes, lined with wind*;*
8. Natural +artifact*:* **Eng.:** *bag of wind, a capful of wind, candle in the wind,* **Mon:** *салхин дэвүүр шиг* /as a windy fan/, *салхин хурд мэт* / like a windy wheel/.

Cultural codes existing only in one of three languages:

In English:

1. Natural +natural: **Eng.:** *between wind and water*
2. Natural + numerical +artifact: **Eng.:** *both sheets in the wind, four sheets in the wind four sheets to the wind, get a/(one's) second wind, three sheets in the wind, two sheets to the wind;*
3. Natural +active + numerical: **Eng.:** *be scattered to the four winds;*
4. Natural +active+ floral: **Eng.:** *throw straws against the wind.*

 In Russian:

1. Natural +qualitative: **Rus.;** *быстрее ветра, унесенные ветром*- faster wind blown by the wind;
2. Natural +natural +active: **Rus.;** *жить куда ветер дует* - live where the wind blows*;*
3. Natural +active +somatic: **Rus.;** *ветер свистит в ушах*- he wind whistles in the ears*, держать нос по ветру* - keep your nose in the wind*;*
4. Natural +active +qualitative: **Rus.;** *иной ветер подул*- another wind blew, *пожелать попутного ветра* - to wish a fair wind;
5. Natural +active +spatial: **Rus.;** *откуда ветер дует* - from where the wind blows*;*
6. Natural +active +zoomorphic +active: **Rus.;** *собака лает, ветер носит*- the dog barks, the wind wears;
7. Natural +natural + numerical: **Rus.;** *один, как ветер в поле*- one like the wind in the field.

In Mongolian:

1. Natural +natural +natural +natural +active: **Mon:** *салхи сар, үүл борооны явдал* /a matter of the wind, the moon, the clouds and rain/.
Results of the analysis of cultural codes and correlation of cultural codes can be represented as follows:

English cultural codes:	Russian codes:	Mongolian codes:
natural	natural	natural
active	active	active
somatic	somatic	-
artifact	artifact	artifact
anthropic	anthropic	-
floral	floral	-
numerical	numerical	-
-	zoomorphic	-
-	qualitative	-

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

Universal codes of the culture for the appropriate three language worldviews include 2 common sets out of the 22 sets of cultural codes: *natural +active and natural +natural +active* codes. For the Russian and English languages, 7 sets of cultural codes are common: *natural, natural +numeral, natural +anthropic, natural +floral, natural +somatic, natural +active +anthropic, natural +active +artifact codes*. For the Mongolian and English languages, 1 set of cultural codes is common: *natural +artifact* 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 *qualitative, floral, zoomorphic, numerical, anthropic and somatic codes* are absent; in English – *qualitative and zoomorphic* codes are absent. Some of the codes of culture are present only in one of the compared languages: in English language, 4 sets of codes are unique: *natural+natural, natural +numeral +artifact, natural +active +numeral and natural +active+ floral codes*. We can see *natural +natural +natural +natural +active code* only in Mongolian language. 7 sets of codes such as *natural +qualitative, natural +natural +active, natural +active +somatic, natural +active +qualitative, natural +active +spatial, natural +active +zoomorphic +active and natural +natural + numerical* codes are noticed only in Russian language.

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. 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.

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RED COLOR METAPHORS IN ENGLISH AND MONGOLIAN

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Abstract

*Several attempts have been made to study conceptual metaphors of different colors in various languages such as English, Chinese, German, Russian and Mongolian. These studies of metaphors have been conducted from different viewpoints. Cognitive linguists argue that metaphors are based on the human thought and action. Therefore, I assume that there could be several similar metaphors in different languages. This study is an initial comparative study on conceptual metaphors of **red color** in English and Mongolian. My study aims to observe the similarities and differences in the conceptualization of **red color** metaphors in both languages. In addition, I am trying to prove that there must be some culture/language-specific metaphors. I have found that there are more similarities than differences between the metaphorical expressions in English and Mongolian. A comparative study of red color metaphors may be extremely useful to overcome misunderstanding and recognize cross-cultural communication in both languages. There is still much to explore the relationship of the various degrees of this field, and study on color terms deserves more attention.*

Keywords: color metaphors, red color metaphors, color terms, conceptual metaphors, Mongolian, cross-cultural communication, culture/language-specific and etc.

Introduction

Metaphor and metonymy are various kinds of procedures. In 1980, Lakoff and Johnson stated that the culture and metaphor are coherent with each other from the primary values.[1] The Earth is the only home for the human beings, even though we speak in many different languages. People have seen the Sun, the Moon and they have observed the nature around them, including mountains, forests, plants, living creatures and other objects. Every country and culture have their own knowledge of unique concepts of colors. Because of their understanding of colors and its symbolism, traditions that they cherish differ. This leads to different culture, traditions, religion and different views of the universe. Many researchers who studied different languages, and meanings agree that *black, white, red, blue, green, and yellow* are the key colors of their cultures. Metaphors have a relatively long history. According to some linguists, one of the most complicated issues related to speaking, which is the mental expression of humans, is the research on metaphors in the color lexicon. Therefore, this study focuses on the conceptual metaphors of the red color in both, English and Mongolian, within a specific context.

In both languages, there are countless metaphorical expressions of colors such as in *blue stocking, red Devil, white hot, black guard, red carpet, green thumb, green as a gooseberry, red China* and etc,. Counting on their logical backgrounds, each color has various

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[1] Lakoff, G. and Johnson M. (2003). *Metaphors we live by*. London: The University of Chicago press.

metaphorical meaning in every language. For instance, some Mongolian phrases or metaphors are based on Western influence. Also, Mongolian borrowed some metaphors from other languages to create a unique Mongolian metaphor, for example, *shar sonin* (yellow journalism), *tsagaan Oros* (White Russian), *ulaan Oros* (red Russian), *ulaan khivs* (red carpet) and *ulaan bulan* (red corner). A Mongolian Scientist, Dulam (2000), mentioned in his work that the coordination of color and culture existed because color symbolism stands in cultural color, life style, different views of the universe, social relations, philosophy and the tradition of religion. [2]Therefore, this study includes numerous similar color metaphors and a few different color metaphors in English and Mongolian. In this paper, I will handle *red* color metaphors.

Materials and methods

The present study is an initial comparative study on conceptual metaphors including the red color in English and Mongolian. It is also a quite new study on color terms from a cognitive perspective. Since there is a lack of sufficient and systematic research on color terms in Mongolian, I hope that this research may be a valuable tool in the investigation of the subject. Additionally, I pay attention on the cultural basis of color metaphors in English and Mongolian, which are completely unrelated languages. Therefore, this study will be of help to understand the relationship among cognition, culture and language itself in the two languages. Since I tried to show a systematic comparative study on color terms in two languages, I collected the data not only from the Mongolian National Corpus and Mongolian etymology dictionaries, but also from different sources, such as previous studies on color terms, dictionaries and online sources. Afterwards, I selected red color metaphors in Mongolian. Finally, I found similar metaphors from English dictionaries and other different sources such as articles, research papers, and analyzed the data. There are a number of basic color terms, which can be exemplified by English and Mongolian linguistic materials. Some color terms imply different metaphoric senses in these two languages.

Results

A number of researchers have discussed the topic of metaphors from different points of view, comparing English with their own languages. For example, Lan and MacGregor (2009) did a comparative study on eight basic color words in English with reference to Hong Kong and the United Kingdom.[3] They compared *black, green, white, red, blue, yellow, brown and grey*. All eight words for colors had literal and metaphorical meanings. There appeared qualitative and quantities differences. Also, Rasekh and Ghafel (2011) compared basic color metaphors in English and Persian. They found that green is associated with 'envy', 'illness', 'youth', yellow is associated with 'illness', 'fright', white is associated with 'wisdom', black is

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[2] Dulam, S. (2000; 2007). *Mongolian symbolism of color and directions.* Ulaanbaatar: Mongolia: National University of Mongolian Press.

[3] Lan, L. and MacGregor, L. 2009. Colour Metaphors in Business Discourse, Language for Professional Communication: Research, Practice & Training. Asia-Pacific LSP and Professional Communication Association.

associated with 'bad', 'evil-saying', and red is associated with 'wrong doing', 'shame', 'embarrassment', and 'anger'.[4]

I reveal that English and Mongolian seem to have same understanding on basic color metaphors. Furthermore, a comparative study of red color metaphors may be essential to overcome misunderstanding and recognize cross-cultural communication in both languages.

Metaphors are commonly based on the universal example and socio-cultural experiences. According to Kövecses (2002: 76), the cognitive linguistic analysis shows that the range of source domains relies on human factors.[5] There exist experiential bases of conceptual metaphors. Moreover, there are a few common categories of similarities, such as correlations in experience, perceived structural similarities and perceived structural similarities introduced by basic metaphors and source being the root of the target. These two languages share numerous universal conceptual metaphors including the red color. The reason for having the same metaphors may be related to the similar image and physical feelings, support on the general physiological system of human.

We have completely different histories, cultures, religions, experience, backgrounds and lifestyles. All of these differences head to form different conceptual metaphors of the red color in these completely diverse languages.

The Oxford dictionary, the Merriam-Webster Dictionary and www.dictionary.com indicate that 'red' can be an adjective with eight different meanings, a noun with ten different meanings and one verb with one meaning. *Red* is defined as the color situated at the end of the spectrum, next to orange and opposite to violet. It is also the color of blood, fire, and rubies. These definitions often involve bloodshed or violence. In English, there are some non-metaphorical expressions with *red* in the following examples:

(1)   a. her *red* lips

        b. the sky was turning *red* outside

        c. a glass of red wine

        d. *their work is marked in red by the teacher* (https://en.oxforddictionaries.com).

In Mongolian, there are the similar meanings of *ulaan* (red) in the following examples:

(2)   a. *Chamd nadtai **ulaan** nuureeree uulzakh tsag bii baikh.*

        lit. 'you me with red face meet time have hope'

          ' I hope that you have a time to meet with me face to face'

        b. ***ulaan** darsnii tolbo arilgakh arga*

        lit. 'red wine spot remove method'

          'a method to remove a red wine spot'

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[4] Rasekh, A. E. and Ghafel, B. 2011. Basic Colors and Their Metaphorical Expressions in English and Persian: Lakoff's Conceptual Metaphor Theory in Focus. 1st International Conference on Foreign Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, Sarajevo.
[5] Kövecses, Z. (2002: 2010). Metaphor: A Practical Introduction. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

c. ***Ulaan** tsergiin kheden baildagchiig bariv.*

lit. 'red army's some soldiers arrested'

'Some soldiers of the red army were arrested'

d. ***ulaan** nelii boltol zodoldokh*

lit. 'red spread become fight'

'fight till blood shows, till red spreads' (https://www.mongoltoli.mn).

From the examples in English and Mongolian described above, it is evident that the primary meanings of ***red*** are similar in both languages. Kövecses (2010) mentions that there exist some conceptual metaphors in different languages. He suggests three possibilities, namely, different languages have the same conceptual metaphors accidentally, one language borrows the metaphors from another and there are some universal metaphors to appear in these languages.[6] As mentioned earlier, English and Mongolian have completely different histories, cultures, religions, experience, backgrounds and lifestyles, even though there exist the same color conceptual metaphors in these two languages.

There, *red* is associated with various metaphorical meanings such as 'hospitality', 'danger', 'deficit', 'wrongdoing', 'angry', 'shameful', 'valueless' and so on. In the two languages, ***red*** is also considered in the following way:

1) HOSPITALITY IS RED

A red carpet is put down to walk to show special treatment or hospitality and it is also used in ceremonial and official occasions. Also, there is an expression roll out the red carpet, which means to greet a person with great respect and give them a big, warm welcome.

1.1.   a. We'll have to get out the red carpet for the President's visit.

b. When Barack Obama came to visit our school, we rolled out the red carpet for him

(http://www.thefreedictionary.com).

Ulaan khivs (red carpet) is another example, which comes from Western culture. In Mongolian, this metaphor started to be employed only after the 1990 Democratic revolution.

1.2.   a. *Gegeen muza naadam **ulaan** khivsnii yosloloor ekhellee.*

lit. 'holy muse festival red carpet treatment with started'

'The Holy Muse festival started with the red-carpet ceremony /special treatment or hospitality/'

b. *Negdliin **ulaan** buland pig duuren khun baijee.*

lit. 'District in red corner crowd people were'

'there was a crowd in the district red corner /special meeting place/' (https://www.mongoltoli.mn).

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[6] Kövecses, Z. (2002: 2010). Metaphor: A Practical Introduction. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

It is significant in the cross-cultural communication to understand the importance of colors. In both languages, hospitality is associated with red.

2) ENDANGERED IS RED

The color red is an exceedingly noticeable color which can be rapidly spotted. In fact, it may inspire individuals to settle on fast choices. The Red Data Book is the state record built up for archiving uncommon and imperiled types of creatures, plants and organisms and in addition some nearby sub-species that exist inside the domain of the state or nation. That book gives focal data to studies on uncommon and jeopardized species and their propensities.

2.1.   a. Red data book

b. Red List is set up on precise criteria to evaluate the extinction risk of thousands of species and subspecies (https://en.oxforddictionaries.com).

Some Mongolian metaphors are based on an influence of Western culture as in the following examples:

2.2.   a. ***ulaan*** *nom shinchlegden khevlegdlee*

lit. 'red book renew published'

'the endangered species list was published anew'

b. *uls turd* ***ulaan*** *shugam tatval*

lit. 'politics in red line draw'

'listed in as an endangered' (http://www.web-corpora.net/MongolianCorpus/search/).

'Endangered' is understood in terms of red in both languages.

3) DEFICIT IS RED

The meaning of in the red is 'in debt' or losing money. In English, in the red means losing money, no money, or overdrawing your account at the bank. On the contrary, there is also phrase in the black, which means the business is run profitably.

3.1.   a. the company was £4 million in the red (http://www.idioms.thefreedictionary.com).

b. moving the health authority out of the red will be a huge challenge (https://en.oxforddictionaries.com).

Mongolians understand 'poor' or 'deficit' in terms of red. ***Ulaan*** *nutsgen* (red bare) means without any clothes and extremely poor. Also, it refers to the mountain without any plants or trees.

3.2.   a. *khorvoogin zovlongiin* ***ulaan*** *nutsgen unen*

lit. 'life grief red bare truth'

'poor – nothing to eat and wear' (http://www.web-corpora.net/MongolianCorpus/search/).

b. *udmaaraa* ***ulaan*** *guilgachin yvaa*

lit. 'red beggar'

'poor; beggar' (https://www.orloo.info).

In both languages, 'deficit' is associated with red and it means owing money or being in debt.

4) DANGEROUS IS RED

Red color usually means risk or crisis; stop signs and stop lights additionally utilize the color red to caution the threats. Blazing red lights mean risk or crisis, for discontinue signs and lights utilize the color red to signal drivers about the threats of the convergence. A red alert is a cautionary sign of danger.

4.1.   a. Kabul has gone on red alert over swine flu — though the disease is not much in

evidence (https://en.oxforddictionaries.com).

b. The animal's refusal to eat red – flagged the keeper that something was wrong (https://en.oxforddictionaries.com).

In (4.1.a), *red alert* is a condition of readiness to handle an emergency situation. The term 'warning' could mean either a strict banner utilized for flagging or, as a metaphor, an indication of some specific issue requiring consideration. Since 1602, a red flag was the banner utilized by military powers to show that they were getting ready for the fight. In 1777, a red flag was a banner cautioning of the flood as Philip Thicknesse mentioned in his Year's Journey.[7] (4.1.b), a red flag is a sign of danger or a problem.

Interestingly, dangerous/extreme natural phenomena such as blizzard or sandstorms are understood in terms of red, as in the following examples:

4.2.   a. *khayaa bituu **ulaan** shoroo tavij bailaa*

lit. 'sometimes stuffy red dust was'

'dangerous natural phenomena such as blizzard or sandstorm'

b. tsas boroogui ulaan shuurga

lit. 'snow, rain no red blizzard'

'dangerous storm' (http://www.web-corpora.net/MongolianCorpus/search/)

In English and Mongolian, 'dangerous' is understood in terms of red.

5) WRONGDOING IS RED

In English, *red* is associated with blood, which also implies violence, war and cruelty. In old times, to be taken *red-handed* meant to be caught in the act. It meant 'having clear evidence of guilt' and 'caught in the act of wrongdoing or crime':

5.1.   The culprits, who were caught red-handed by police, caused £20,000 damage (https://en.oxforddictionaries.com).

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[7] 1777 Philip Thicknesse, Year's Journey I. iii. 23 There is a red flag hoisted gradually higher and higher, as the water flows into the harbour [at Calais]

The red revenge, the *red battle* is a cruel battle in which a lot of lives have been lost. In Mongolian, the color red is also associated with crime or wrongdoing such as burglary or robbery as in the following examples:

5.2.   a. **Ulaan** *deeremchintei khalz tulakh*

lit. 'red robber meet face to face'

'one, who robs people not only at night, but also at day without fear'

b. **ulaan** *tonuulchin ikhtei yum bish biz*

lit. 'red burglar a lot does not'

'one who burgles houses'

c. **urt** *tsagaanii ulaan luivarchin*

lit. 'long white's red cheater'

'one   who   cheats   people   without   fear'(http://www.web-corpora.net/MongolianCorpus/search/).

These metaphors are based on metonymy. In both languages, it means to catch someone doing something wrong or illegal. So, 'wrongdoing' is understood in terms of red in English and Mongolian.

   6) ANGRY IS RED
This metaphor is based on metonymy. When people get angry, they have a physical reaction – their faces turn red. It is a universal phenomenon, when being angry, sored expresses feelings of anger. *Seeing red* means being full of anger, for example:

6.1.   They are reading things like this and seeing red (https://en.oxforddictionaries.com).

In Mongolian, *ulaan galzuu* (red crazy) means a person, who is in real anger.

6.2.   a. *nukhruu khardaad* **ulaan** *galzuu baina*

lit. 'husband suspect red crazy be'

'who is in real anger'

b. **ulaan** *galzuu doloon sogtuu*

lit. 'red crazy, seven drunkers'

'very angry; cruel' (http://www.web-corpora.net/MongolianCorpus/search/).

In both English and Mongolian, red color is related to anger.

   7) SHAMEFUL IS RED
This metaphor also comes from metonymy. The physiological response to several feelings increases the blood pressure, so the human face turns red. The speaker is flushed due to emotional or physical causes such as embarrassment, inebriation and anger as in an English example (7.1.):

7.1.   I was completely red-faced when the teacher made me speak in front of the whole class. (https://en.oxforddictionaries.com).

In Mongolian, ***ulaan*** *nuuren deer* (red on face) means to say shameful or embarrassing things into the face.

7.2.   a. ***ulaan*** *nuureeree tulgarakh*

      lit. 'red face to face meet'

'meeting after shameful or embarrassing things'

      b. ***ulaan*** *nuuren deer ni muulakh*

      lit. 'red face on disparage'

'say shameful or embarrassing things into the face' (https://www.mongoltoli.mn).

In both languages, 'shame' is understood in terms of red. As in the above-mentioned examples, red is related to shame and embarrassment. It shows that there exist similar metaphors in both languages.

8) VALUELESS IS RED
Based on the idea that nothing is worth less than a penny, the phrase not worth one red cent has been normally used ever since the early 18th century to describe something completely valueless.

8.1.   Some of the people don't deserve a single red cent (https://en.oxforddictionaries.com).

Mongolians understand 'valueless' in terms of red. They say ***ulaan*** *mungunii unegui* (red money valueless) of a thing, which is costless and valueless.

8.2.   a. ***Ulaan*** *mungunii unegui*

      lit. 'red money valueless'

'valueless, costless'

      b. *khalaasandaa sokhor* ***ulaan*** *zoosgui*

      lit. 'poket in blind red penniless'

'without a single coin in the pocket' (https://www.mongoltoli.mn).

Thus, 'valueless' is understood in terms of red in English and Mongolian.

In English, happiness is understood in terms of red as in the following examples:

9) HAPPY IS RED
A *red letter day* is a particularly significant day or a day to celebrate. It refers to holidays such as Christmas and other special days. From the 18th century, people started to highlight a festival in red on a calendar. A highlighted day signifies a special, happy or important day that people will forever remember. However, there is no counterpart in Mongolia.

9.1.   a. Saturday, June 28, is set to be a sporting red-letter day for the district.

b. By a window behind the principal was a table full of trophies and blue and red ribbons (https://en.oxforddictionaries.com).

10) GREEDY IS RED

In Mongolian, **ulaan** *nudtei* (red eyed) means a selfish desire to have more of something such as money, property or even position. It is another example of metaphor, which is derived from metonymy. In Mongolian, 'greedy' is understood in terms of red, but it does not exist in English, as in the following examples:

10.1.   a. **ulaan** *nudtei khun yum*

lit. 'red eyed man is'

'one, who likes money more than anything and does whatever to earn money'

b. *mungu tsagaan, nud* **ulaan**

lit. 'silver white, eye red is'

'greedy'   (http://www.web-corpora.net/MongolianCorpus/search/).

11) COURAGEOUS IS RED
'Courageous' is understood in terms of red in English. Red-blooded means a brave person, who has the big courage as in the following example:

11.1. He   was   attracted   to   her,   as   any   red-blooded   male   would   be (http://www.idioms.thefreedictionary.com).

Discussion

I point out that English and Mongolian seem to share a number of similar metaphors including the red color. The major target [of what? Of whom?] is revealing the concept of red color metaphors in completely different cultures. In the two languages, red is mostly linked with 'hospitality', 'endangered', 'deficit', 'dangerous', 'wrongdoing', 'angry', 'shameful', 'valueless'. However, this study included more similar conceptual metaphors of basic colors and a few different color metaphors in English and Mongolian (THERE WERE NO MORE METAPHORS, EXCPT. VERY PUNCTUAL AND ISOLATED EXAMPLES ABOUT GREEN, BLACK, ETC.).

In English, 'happiness' is understood in terms of red as in the metaphor '*happy is red*'. For example, red letter day is a particularly significant day or a day to celebrate. It refers to holidays such as Christmas and other special days. From the 18th century, people started to highlight a festival in red on a calendar. A highlighted day signifies a special, happy or important day that people will forever remember, but there is no counterpart in Mongolian.

In Mongolian, *ulaan nudtei* (red eyed) means a selfish desire to have more of something such as money, property or even position. It is another example of metaphor derived from metonymy. In Mongolian, greediness is understood in terms of red, but it does not exist in English, as in the metaphor '*greedy is red*' (e.g., *ulaan nudteikhun yum* (lit. red eyed man is); and *mungu tsagaan, nud ulaan* (lit. money white, eye red is)). 'Courageous' is understood in

terms of red in English. Red-blooded means a brave person, who has the big courage as in the metaphor '*courageous is red*'.

In conclusion, in English and Mongolian, we can find more similar examples of red color metaphors due to the universal cognitive capabilities, cognitive processes, and way of thinking and experiences. Robertson (1981) states that culture is a set of products of human beings.[8] Moreover, Huang (2011: 99) mentions that language has a crucial role and it is an inseparable part of culture. Culture and language reflect each other.[9] People can understand different terms and idioms without having a specific cultural background. There are many metaphor explanations; here we can mention Kövecses (2010), "in addition to objective, pre-existing similarity – conceptual metaphors are based on a variety of human experience, including correlations in experience, various kinds of non-objective similarity, biological and cultural roots shared by the two concepts, and possibly others".[10]

Here in this paper, I compared conceptual metaphors of *red color* metaphors in English and Mongolian and provided and analysis. The main purpose of this study was to analyze conceptual metaphors of red color by showing evidence from Mongolian in comparison with English. Moreover, it should be noticed that this study mainly focuses on the language use and its association with the given cultures. We have found that there are more similarities than differences between the metaphorical expressions in the two languages. This systematic comparative analysis of conceptual metaphors of red color in English and Mongolian contributes importantly to the major claims of the contemporary metaphor theory. Even though English and Mongolian belong to very different language families representing totally different sedentary and nomadic cultures, they share some conceptual metaphors for particular colors with each other.

The data in our study has shown that construction of metaphorical expressions of colors in English and Mongolian are grounded in reality as well as in cultural believes. However, symbolism, may also have a role to play. In addition, the findings of this study showed that metaphorical expressions of colors, besides their universality, are also culturally-oriented. We have completely different history, cultures, religions, experience, backgrounds and lifestyles. For these reasons, there exist some different color metaphors in English and Mongolian. All of these differences head to form different conceptual metaphors of the six basic colors in these completely diverse languages. There is still a lot to accomplishing this field, and study on color terms deserves more attention.

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NEW LANGUAGE-NEW EMOTIONS? THE ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE WHILE LEARNING FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN MONGOLIA

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Abstract

English language learning in culturally isolated monolingual regions has very specific challenges. As foreign language learning does not necessarily happen with integrative motivation, thus not having a target culture to be taken as an example for cultural elements and thought-processing role model may challenge learners of the language. Nevertheless, a non-culture specific foreign language related emotional intelligence is needed in order to convey thoughts and attitudes properly. Twenty-three Mongolian university level English language learners were asked about their motivation to learn English and its relatedness to emotional intelligence. The results indicate that Mongolian students learn mostly grammar and have very limited access to foreigners to practice their skills. Although most Mongolian learners never heard of emotional intelligence, they displayed substantial adaptability and extreme flexibility about the nature of their motivation in order to communicate successfully and/or to adapt to varying circumstances. Moderate body-language mirroring was suggested as a first step to create a natural and relaxed atmosphere while interacting with individuals with different cultures, detecting the most convenient paths to display emotional intelligence.

Keywords: *emotional intelligence, motivation, ESL, Mongolia, body-language mirroring*

Introduction

"The intuitive mind is a sacred gift and the rational mind is a faithful servant. We have created a society that honors the servant and has forgotten the gift." Albert Einstein, quoted in Sparrow and Knight (2006, 199).

The present paper attempts to investigate the relevance of teaching foreign-language specific emotional intelligence among Mongolian learners of English language at the university level. There is an existing concern in most foreign language learning institutions regarding the amount of cultural and psychological content of the curricula. Nowadays, motivation to learn English is not necessarily of integrative nature. Individuals all around the world learn the English language not exclusively to immigrate to English-speaking countries, but to attend business meetings, using English for further studies and research, or simply as a communication tool while travelling or socializing on the Internet. English has become a language of communication among different communities worldwide. Therefore, cultural sensitivity and intercultural communication skills are ever harder to adapt given the immense cultural variety of its speakers (Mahboob, 2018). Moreover, the peril of teaching English from integrative perspective may seriously bias learning success. Individuals may perceive a direct threat to their socio-cultural identity if presented with unnecessary and forced integrative elements during language acquisition or the selected culture taught does not coincide with the one targeted by the learners (Wimolmas, 2012). Nevertheless, a specific form of intercultural intelligence is required in order to avoid misunderstandings based on the individuals' culture-shaped communication style (Sparrow & Knight, 2006). As emotional intelligence has a very

strong cultural component, learners often experience difficulty while trying to communicate in the foreign language yet using culture-specific elements of emotional intelligence of their own culture backgrounds (Brown 2007; Huynh, Oakes & Grossman, 2018; Dewaele, Petrides & Furnham, 2008).

Language teaching in Mongolia

Mongolia can be considered one of the most physically and culturally isolated countries in the world. While Mongolia is located between two giants, Russia and China, the capital Ulaanbaatar is a rather isolated capital surrounded by the Gobi Desert. The two closest big cities are Ulan-Ude (600 km from Ulaanbaatar) in Russia and Beijing (1170 km from Ulaanbaatar) in China. These distances are significant, meaning that Mongolian people have rather limited contact with foreign cultures and languages. Moreover, there are very few foreigners in Mongolia, most of them being executives, workers of the mining industry (isolated in the smaller villages or mining camps) and international teachers working and living near the international schools, mostly located on the richest part of the city. English language learners in Mongolia very rarely have the opportunity to talk to these individuals in order to observe foreign (language related) behaviours and communication styles. In Mongolia, language teaching and learning mostly focuses on grammar acquisition, writing exercises and memorizing rules. Nevertheless, once a certain level of fluency is obtained, students heavily rely on the emotional and cultural structure of their own language, causing a myriad of misunderstandings in real life conversations. As politeness, courtesy words and intercultural awareness and sensitivity has culture-specific definitions in Mongolian language and culture, learners of English often face difficulties while trying to express their wishes, needs and emotions in the target language.

In fact, a key component in learning a new language should be related to develop the ability to correctly transmit thoughts and to understand the other party's intended message correctly as well (Zarezadeh, 2013; Spirovska-Tevdovska, 2017). This practice, however, may cause considerable distress among people from different cultures if a language-specific emotional intelligence is not developed along the language acquisition process. To deal with this phenomenon might require a tremendous effort in certain civilizations, as behaviours and emotions attached to them may be considered of a completely different nature in other languages (Ghanadi & Ketabi, 2014). Therefore, the advantages of teaching new components of emotional intelligence alongside the usual foreign language learning strategies may enhance students' motivation, psychological well-being and self confidence in the learning process, as well as to become increasingly competent in a variety of multicultural-social setting (Montgomery, McCrimmon, Climie, & Ward, 2018; Brackett, Mayer & Warner, 2004).

Review of emotional intelligence in education

Emotional intelligence was first defined by Salovey and Mayer (1990), yet widely popularized by Daniel Goleman in several books and articles (2001 & 2006). Brackett *et al.* (2004) define emotional intelligence as the capability to recognize, comprehend and conscientiously express emotions, to employ emotions as a thought-facilitating tool and to use it for emotional development a maturation. Gershon and Pellitteri (2018) link the proper development of emotional intelligence and educational success from very early ages, as emotional comprehension and emotional control and mastery are indispensable for the individual's growth, educational accommodation and productivity. Similarly, Cefai and Cooper (2009) point out that, besides acquiring the necessary academic competences at school, young people need proper emotional education in order to be able to function as self-

determining, socially wise and responsible individuals. According to them, the parallel development of academic and socio-emotional competence is strongly symbiotic nurturing and completing the learners' full intellectual and emotional development. Moreover, this educational perspective has benefits in the wider societal scale, such as derived by individuals with broadened and enhanced tolerance, cooperation, cohesion and resilience. Allowing learners to reveal and analyse their own thoughts and opinions empowers them to comprehend their own thinking and learning processes and to gain insight on how to regulate and improve them. Thus, a critical examination of the emotional conditions, behaviours and their influence on the individual's environment promotes the development of positive coping and fostering strategies in learning environments (Cefai & Cooper, 2009; Cefai, 2008).

Devis-Rozental (2018) reinforces this idea by stating that investigating paths to assist learners in developing and nurturing socio-emotional intelligence increases success in educational domains. In fact, Lucas and Claxton (2010) argues that intelligences of any type can be acquired. They isolate eight intelligence-related factors:

- Compositeness: heterogeneity among the components required to be intelligent
- Expandability: intelligence can be increased
- Practicality: individuals may apply for different purposes in different situations)
- Intuitiveness: recognizing, analysing and applying concepts previously (voluntarily or involuntarily) learned in new situations
- Distribution: intelligences may be used to serve different purposes
- Social: empowering individuals to learn from a variety of social events, behaviours and circumstances
- Strategic: deliberately applying conscious actions in order to arrive to the desired results
- Ethical: using the ability to consider the moral implications and possible of certain actions

Therefore, if intelligence can be cultivated and enriched, there is an urging responsibility for educators to teach concepts, strategies and autonomy to acquire and maintain such skills. Teachers should understand, validate and guide learners' emotional development throughout the learning process, while helping them to analyse the correlations between metacognition and emotions and to develop intrinsic motivation and emotional resilience (Cefai, 2008; Baklashova, Galishnikova & Khafizova, 2016; Hast, 2014). Moreover, educational programmes and professionals need to consider the correct adaptation of their methodology and material to the linguistic and socio-cultural background of the learners (Cefai & Cavioni, 2014), while displaying empathy and emotional self-awareness themselves (Boyatzis, 2006; Vesely-Maillefer & Saklofske, 2018; Philipsen, Tondeur, Pynoo, Vanslambrouck & Zhu, 2019). Nevertheless, as foreign-language learning rarely occurs in a vacuum, and the ultimate goal is developing proper communication skills, the application of emotional intelligence in group dynamics or social settings needs to be considered (Parker, Taylor, Keefer & Summerfeld, 2018).

In order to direct and organize successful and productive group interaction, the role of emotions in each group needs to be comprehended. Individuals may display and act on different emotions while being alone as opposed to function in group settings. While emotional intelligence is an individual resource and interactions produce immense variety of emotional reactions in emerging situations, the ability of the individual and the group to master emotions may have direct effect on the outcome's success. Thus, group emotional intelligence may be described as the capacity of developing appropriate strategies to direct

emotional processes as to stimulate and promote confidence, while maintaining identity, value and effectiveness (Jordan & Askhanasy, 2006; Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Elfenbein, 2006). Emotional intelligence also encompasses social responsibility, which is in increasing demand nowadays as illustrated by the comments of a rabbi following a presentation on emotional intelligence: "*Cognitive intelligence is amoral. Anyone can have a high IQ; it's a matter of luck. Murderers, criminals and Nazis could have all had high IQs. But by their deeds, they could not have had high EQs. Thus, EQ involves morality. I like that*" (Stein & Book, 2006).

Intercultural communication competence

Increasing migration and the expanding global mindset that individuals are encouraged to accommodate both in their working and private life requires very specific communications skills. The concept of intercultural communication competence is offered to resolve this complex phenomenon. Sándorová (2016) defines intercultural communicative competence as the capability to interconnect with individuals from different countries in a foreign language, this competence hypothetically includes the explicit knowledge of cultural elements and the consciousness of established values of that culture and language. However, this statement lacks to consider an important factor, namely, that individuals learning English as a foreign language with no integrative purposes may be reluctant to amass culture related information while their communication-target may be originated from a variety of backgrounds. Moreover, comprehension of complex intercultural factors and the skills to intelligently and successfully navigate between their domains is not a natural skill but has to be acquired via conscious and effortful instruction (Liu, Volčič & Gallois, 2015).

Motivation

Brown (2007) states, that from a behaviouristic perspective, motivation is the prediction and expectation of a reward and that individuals acts consistently to achieve further compensation based on previous experiences of reward for behaviour. Accurately applying the dynamics of the individual's learning stages is a key characteristic in nurturing to success the individual's motivation. However, as individuals vary in personality, cultural background, goals and attitudes, motivation may differ in definition, nature and beliefs (Parker, Taylor, Keefer & Summerfeldt, 2018; Oz, Demirezen & Pourfeiz, 2015). Dörnyei, Csizér & Németh (2006) collect two dimensions of motivation:

- *Integrative motivation*: The learner's goal to learn a foreign language is ultimately to become part of a foreign culture via acquiring the target language spoken by the individuals constituting that group
- *Instrumental motivation*: Engaging in language learning urged by external forces, such as a reward offered, parental request/pressure or as a specific requirement from the employer
- Deci and Ryan (1985) approach motivation from a different perspective:
- *Intrinsic motivation*: The individual's internal inspiration, stimulus and impetus that act as a driving force to achieve a goal
- *Extrinsic motivation*: As opposed to intrinsic factors, the individual's incentive is driven by external forces, like compulsory demands from various domains

McClelland (1987) adds a motivational dimension that seems to decode the attitudes of top-achiever individuals:

- *Achievement motivation:* Learners do not have integrative motives nor are required to learn a foreign language. The apparent reason behind their endurance and grit is to be

'better' than the rest, securing the first place for themselves in a real or self-challenge competition

In fact, it is not necessary to isolate and focus on only one type of motivation in foreign language learning. Motivations may coincide, overlap or even fluctuate in intensity over time (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998). Brown (2007) draws attention to the importance of *ambiguity tolerance*, stating that the more an individual displays cognitive flexibility to accept and tolerate believes, social and language structures differing from his/her own, the easier becomes to develop and use appropriate behavioural and communication skills in a foreign language (Stein & Book, 2006). Therefore, identifying learners' motivation will enable educators (or the learners themselves) to develop relevant foreign language related emotional intelligence strategies, while giving a direction in incorporating emotions to facilitate thought (Fiori & Vesely-Maillefer 2018; McKee, 2018).

The present study attempts to investigate four questions based on Mongolian learners' perceptions and practices on English language acquisition, the nature of their motivation and the implementation of emotional-intelligence related elements in communicating in a foreign language.

The first one, *'Do English L2 learners perceive English to be a simple communication facilitating code or are they conscious about the psychological-emotional complexity of interacting in a foreign language?'*, attempts to decipher learners' viewpoints on whether the English language can be used as a simple tool detached from its cultural and international context and diversity in expressing politeness and emotions. The determination of this factor may help to develop better communication strategies where both parties' needs are met without abandoning their cultural identities yet transmitting the intended message.

The second item directs attention on whether 'Students receive training on the socio-cultural-behavioural aspects of foreign language use'. Analysing the current English language teaching scenario in Mongolia may unveil strategies (or the lack of them) which place foreign language learning and use in a proper context. This may emphasise the importance of learners not to rely exclusively on grammar acquisition, but on the comprehension of unwritten behavioural codes and appropriate ways to express concepts proper to every language.

The third research question, 'Are English learners conscious about the concept of emotional intelligence and its language and culture related variances?', may allow picturing factors that enhance and/or prevent learners to develop communication skills and appropriate behaviours. In fact, this is of key importance in order to avoid misunderstandings in verbal, emotional and body-language expressions that may lead to failure in a variety of areas such as business, studies or interpersonal relationships.

Finally, analysing the question *'Does learning English have necessarily integrative components?'* may impact on educational policies forcing English learners to become familiar with a specific English-speaking country's culture. Considering individuals' varying needs in this field may allow designing a variety of goal/profession-oriented teaching strategies, while not overwhelming learners with details irrelevant for their purposes.

Methodology

Semi-structured interviews prepared by the researcher were selected as a tool in order to conduct a survey among 23 adult Mongolian English language learners, three male and 21 female students. This proportion reflects the rate of local students enrolled foreign language

learning in the National University of Mongolia. All participants were Mongolian nationals, actively studying English at university level aged between 20 and 45 years. Moreover, some individuals were multilingual, speaking three or more languages, which was considered particularly beneficial for the research in order to perceive how emotional intelligence may be used in multicultural settings. All participants were informed about the nature of this study, their anonymity and their right to withdraw anytime as their involvement happened on a voluntary basis. Although the interviews were conducted in English, the participants had an interpreter as well in case of having difficulties. The ultimate design of the interview comprised ten questions, to which narrative analysis was applied.

Non-probability purpose sampling was used to select the participants meeting the criteria of having been studying English at university level at least three years with the intention to use it extensively on a daily basis. The interviews occurred in diverse locations during February 2019 in Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia.

Results

Mongolian English language students expressed their views without hesitation. Seventy-eight percent of the learners were absolutely convinced of the hypothesis that people of all nations display similar behaviours and act very similarly in social and cultural situations, while the rest strongly believed the opposite (Question 1). In concordance with these views, 61 percent of them believed that there was no reason to change their Mongolian-culture based communication style while talking to foreigners in English (Question 2). This behaviour contrasted the statements of 52 percent of the participants who acknowledged that speakers of other languages may display considerably different comportment from that of the Mongolians (Question 3). Moreover, 62 percent perceived that foreigners often display unexpected behaviours (Question 4). However, according to only nine percent of the learners, it was realistic to move and settle in another country speaking only English (they did not mean English speaking countries), while the great majority dismissed this behaviour on the long term (Question 5). Fifty-seven percent of the learners declared to be learning English only as a tool for further studies, work or international communication (Question 6), while 30 percent had clearly integrative motivation, eventually hoping to move to English speaking countries. However, about 30 percent of the participants stated, that the aim of their learning included both instrumental and integrative motivation, according to the opportunities which may be available (Question 7). Finally, all except one student (with a background at an international university) declared that they had received instruction exclusively on English grammar, but never about the psychological and cultural aspects of language learning (Question 8). See Table I.

Discussion

The answers gathered during the interviews show considerable disagreement among the learners. Apparently, well-established opinions were expressed without displaying neutral attitudes in general, while a great amount of tolerance towards culture-related aspects of learning English was exhibited.

English language – a culturally and psychologically complex phenomenon

This section aims to answer the first research question, namely '*Do English L2 learners perceive English to be a simple communication facilitating code, or they are conscious about the psychological-emotional complexity of interacting in a foreign language?*'. Mongolian

learners expressed beliefs in having considerable and observable differences between speakers of different languages. Moreover, they also noticed that culture greatly defined individuals' forms of expressions and behaviours. They confessed not understanding foreign people's behaviour completely and all the time. As one student expressed, '*I think different culture and language let people experience different emotions and behaviour in the same situation. Since the special features of each language influence the way of thinking and feelings of the language-using group (or cultural group), people with different cultural backgrounds possibly feel and behave in a different way*'. However, it is important to mention that much of the information they had access to was available from the Internet, particularly following famous people on social media. Therefore, interaction with foreign people was mostly one sided and executed online, while real communication was very rarely (if ever) experienced, which somewhat biases their perception on this matter. This was also supported by the fact, that only two out of 23 students had travelled to any English-speaking country. They confessed that this supposed an intensive cultural shock and that, although already knowing English, they had had immense difficulties to decipher foreign individuals' thinking process and communicational-behavioural strategies. Yet, unanimously all students declared that '*foreigners have the right to behave as they want to, and we Mongolians do not get offended because we understand their circumstances*'. Although this statement is very generous, it somewhat lacks reality, since most students confessed to have met foreigners only '*very few times in their lives and they did not engage in conversation with them*'. Therefore, most learners had never experienced the possibility to practice their knowledge and to explore foreign language related emotional intelligence in action. Nevertheless, many of the participants sensed the importance of modifying their communication style with speakers of different languages. As a matter of fact, most of them stated that they would be prone to change their behaviour and communication approach in order to be more easily understood. As a multilingual student stated, '*I feel I have to say more straightforward things when I speak with English speakers. Besides, I try more to keep my eye contact with the speaker than when I speak with Koreans or Mongolians*'. Finally, the overall responses to the first research question reflected a very practical approach, most of them declaring that while learning English, the language was simply a dry code (beyond their ability to change this situation), yet they were open and eager to experience and learn the psychological and emotional depths of English, since a language was considered a 'living organism'.

Learning the social, cultural and thought-processing aspects of English language in Mongolia

The second research question aimed to investigate whether '*Students receive training on the socio-cultural-behavioural aspects of foreign language use*'. Unfortunately, only one student has received a '*very minimal training*' on the social and cultural aspects of the English language. The rest of the learners, being in their third year of BA or second year of MA apparently had never received such instruction at all. As explained by them, the Mongolian education system prefers to emphasize the correct use of grammar with the overabundance of written exercises and a limited number of oral assignments such as presentations. The rationality behind this is not wasting valuable time, since allegedly once learners acquire a perfect command of English grammar, they will have time to learn additional cultural elements, and language-related values and forms of expressions.

English learners' consciousness on of emotional intelligence and its language and culture related implications

The third research question sought to unveil whether '*English learners are conscious about the concept of emotional intelligence and its language and culture related variances*'. Emotional intelligence, as a term was completely unknown to the learners. Upon explanation offered, they acknowledged the importance of foreigners understanding Mongolian cultural values expressed through language and behaviour. In addition, they declared planning to do the same if moving abroad. At least half of the participants stated, that displaying inappropriate behaviours with speakers of other languages is sign of lack of intelligence. Thus, the concept emotional intelligence emerged as not completely unknown, at least in the subconscious level. However, as mentioned by them, most '*Mongolians rarely meet foreigners and inter-cultural communication is often stigmatised either by fear or contempt towards the surrounding cultures*'. Therefore, a conscious effort is needed to understand and to learn about the depth of how emotional intelligence may conquer such obstacles. Nevertheless, a thought-provoking dilemma was pointed out by the participants. Their concern was logical and practical, enquiring about further possibilities on how to develop foreign language related emotional intelligence without formal instruction while being culturally isolated to a great extent. This disquietude seemed well founded. Nowadays, English is learned in a considerable number of mono-cultural countries facing similar obstacles. Often speakers from other countries assume that a reasonably good knowledge of English grammar is automatically accompanied by foreign language related emotional intelligence, polished communication skills and accurate thoughts processing. However, this not always being the case, communication success may, at times, be seriously biased.

Learning English for integration?

The fourth research question intended to reveal whether '*learning English has necessarily integrative components*'. Most learners did not proclaim to learn English with the purpose of moving to and settling down in an English-speaking country. Nevertheless, although much of Mongolia's population already resides in the capital or in larger towns, the nomadic mentality has still a very strong prevalence among locals. Many declared that '*I am learning English because I like it, because I may/will need it for my work, but if I decide to move to another country, I will just learn its culture*'. Another participant stated, '*I do not really care about whether I am taught cultural elements, or behavioural content of English, the important thing is to learn it*'. Also, many learners stated that it was very much possible not to learn a specific culture attached to the English language in case you were not exposed to that culture continually but using English in a variety of settings with different individuals (e.g. businessman). However, they consider unimaginable for an individual to behave the same way after spending a considerable amount of time in a host country (e.g. students). Finally, most learners perceived English as a simple tool of communication, without much importance on polishing their communication skills at this moment of their lives. Nevertheless, learners again and again expressed their serious intentions to get adapted to new situations as soon as they may be exposed to them, either in the form of adjust to a new society or to modify their communication strategies in multicultural or multilingual circles (Zarafshan & Ardeshiri, 2012).

Conclusion

Emotional intelligence emerged as a completely new concept for Mongolian learners of English. The participants however, acknowledged its importance and exhibited wish to learn more about it and practice it. In fact, based on the opinions expressed, it seems that Mongolian students' natural tolerance and intention to adapt to their surroundings in a variety of circumstances presents an excellent fundament to construct solid foreign language related

emotional intelligence. Thus, the results suggest that their natural inclinations may be easily activated by the appropriate strategies and high levels of emotional intelligence may be achieved. Opinions on the nature of their motivation to learn languages were very flexible, most of the learners admitting that their initial motivation may easily evolve into another or multiple number of diverse motivations. This adapting motivation operation, in turn, apparently stimulated them to develop the necessary communication skills and emotional intelligence related to English language (Di Fabio & Kenny 2011). Therefore, it seems that in the case of Mongolian learners, the accumulative effects of motivation were positively related to developing and/or nurturing emotional intelligence (Abraham, 2004; Di Fabio & Blustein, 2010).

Learners displayed concern that, due to the lack of opportunities to interact with foreigners in order to practice communication strategies and to develop emotional intelligence related to English, their lack of practice may hinder them from growing in their knowledge. One possible solution may be *body language mirroring*. A similar strategy was described as *intuitive social awareness* by Tipper, Signorini and Grafton (2015). A study conducted by them on how the body language constructs meaning from expressive movements in the brain revealed a very important link between action representation and language (Tipper, Signorini & Grafton, 2015). Barkai (1990) argues that '*non-verbal behavior is extremely important in determining the nature of communication and the relationship between the communicators*'. Nevertheless, he warns that attempting to read someone's body language may be a very imprecise science (Barkai, 1990). This may be a particularly unsafe practice when the communication partner's cultural and/or ethnic background is not fully known, as different cultures express emotions, politeness and wishes in non-identical fashion. However, mirroring body language to a certain extent may provoke a feeling of familiarity and naturalness, which, in turn may create a relaxed atmosphere and a common scenario for establishing meaningful communication. Moreover, mirroring body language may enable individuals to receive the other person's emotional state and may build a mind to mind connection between them (Goleman, 2006; Pavlova & Kornilova, 2013). Nevertheless, it is important to display respectful body language mirroring in all situations, avoiding to exhibit behaviours that would suggest being impolite of directly making fun of the communication partners (Goleman, 2006).

Moreover, the Mongolian universities should enable the learners to interact with foreigners in the form or lectures, clubs and workshops (Mihic & Novak, 2018; Pishghadam, 2009). This would provide an excellent opportunity to witness real-life scenarios, communication strategies and the occasion to observe a variety of expressions of emotions that may be culture and language related. Moreover, courses on emotional intelligence may enhance learners' positive attitudes towards other cultures and their speakers, and reduce significantly negative perceptions and bias (Márquez, Martin & Brackett, 2006; Carmeli, 2003).

The limitations of this study

The limitations of this study are not to be overlooked. The low number of participants inhibits to generalize the findings, although Mongolia being a rather isolated community may not confirm a diversity of opinions on foreign language learning and emotional intelligence. Further investigation in other remote parts of the country may serve to establish similarities or differences with the data obtained in the capital city. Therefore, the findings of this study are not generalizable to other monolingual communities or countries. It would be beneficial to conduct similar studies in equally isolated monolingual communities in order to compare the outcome. Finally, the theory of body language mirroring in multi-cultural scenarios where

speakers are from different backgrounds, is another point in which further exploration is needed.

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Appendix

1) Do you think people from different cultures feel and behave the same, separated only by the language?

2) While speaking English to foreigners, do you feel you have to change your behaviour or the way you express yourself?

3) Do you think speakers of other languages behave different from Mongolians?

4) Do foreigners in Mongolia display unexpected behaviours? In your opinion, is this related to intelligence?

5) Can someone live in a foreign county speaking in English without getting adapted to its culture?

6) I need English only for my studies/work/leisure.

7) I am learning English with integrative purposes.

8) Besides learning English grammar, have you been taught about the different cultural and thought processes of English speakers?

Table I. *Attitudes towards the social-psychological-emotional content of English language learning*

		Yes	Depends on the situation	No
1	Do you think people from different cultures feel and behave the same, separated only by the language?	78	-	22
2	While speaking English to foreigners, do you feel you have to change your behaviour or the way you express yourself?	39	-	61
3	Do you think speakers of other languages behave different from Mongolians?	52	-	48
4	Do foreigners in Mongolia display unexpected behaviours? In your opinion, is this related to intelligence?	62	-	39
5	Can someone live in a foreign county speaking in English without getting adapted to its culture?	9	91	
6	I need English only for my studies and/or work.	57		43
7	I am learning English with integrative purposes.	30	30	40
8	Besides learning English grammar, have you been taught about the different cultural and thought processes of English speakers?	4		96

TEACHING READING AND WRITING AS INTEGRATED SKILLS

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Abstract: *This article deals with fundamental questions and importance of reading and writing in the process of learning and teaching English as a foreign language. Further it suggested some practical implications and applications of learning and teaching reading and writing as integrated skills for not only classroom setting but also outside classroom.*

Effective reading and writing are two of the major factors of building fundament and learning English as foreign language. The importance of reading and writing has increased substantially in the last decades, because of social and technological advancements. Teaching reading and writing, however, still step lag behind in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), where speaking skills are priority (eg: in Mongolia). This is probably due to misunderstanding and lack of both practical and theoretical knowledge about CLT. In this article I tried to look at some theoretical issues on reading and writing and the way to teach them for adults, integrating these two skills.

Reading is a process of constructing meaning from written text and it is a complex, multi-dimensional, pursuit containing large number of sub-component processes, such as macro-process, micro-process, top-down ,bottom-up process and so on. There are two distinctive features about reading – process of reading and result of that process, product. Process is the interaction between reader and text, to say in other word, the process of looking at print, deciphering marks, understanding the meaning, thinking the relationship between what he reads and what he knows (Alderson, 2000). Bottom-up process is recognizing of printed word and graphic stimuli, decodes them to sound, and decodes the meanings while top-down process is that what reader brings to the text and the reading is driven by meaning.

 In addition, important terms as automaticity, affect, autonomy, and socio-cultural awareness have huge role in understanding and teaching reading. Automaticity , is fluent reading and word recognition whereas affect is any factors influencing the motivation for reading. Autonomy is reading a topic chosen according to readers' interest rather than imposition and socio-cultural awareness refers to readers' subjective attitude towards reading (Bamford & Da, 1998).

As for reading, in this article, I will investigate two approaches: Extensive and Intensive reading out of four approaches. Extensive reading is one of the key columns of building language skills. It provides comprehensible input in language learning. Krashen (1982), says extensive reading can be useful if certain pre-conditions are met including adequate exposure to language, interesting materials, relaxed tension-free learning environment. It improves learner' general language knowledge about the topic the reader chooses. According to Paran

(1996), it increases automaticity of word recognition, decoding of symbols on printed page (bottom-up process). Also extensive reading helps to increase vocabulary knowledge leading to better writing. If the students are encouraged to do extensive reading at home, where there is no tension, the brain acquires input than time-limited environment. It is reflected in Krashen's work; when the affective filter is lowered, where students are relaxed, the comprehensible input contribute much more effectively(cited in Harper, 2001). Despite the above mentioned elements, it not only improves the readers' motivation to read but also strengthens the confidence of learners, which is extremely important, to deal with bigger and more academic research papers in further. Another no less important point is the more read the books, the more get acquainted with the structure of the text, identify genres and style of the books and possess the ability to predict general content of the book.

Day and Bamford (2002) described some unique features about extensive reading as follows: students select read as much as possible on their own oriented by teacher, who is model reader. Reading is rewarding and for pleasure to get general information and understanding. Reading materials can be graded or not graded, abridged or not, authentic such as magazine, newspaper, web pages that related to both second and first language culture. Teachers should provide not too long or difficult texts or books, without having wide range of extended vocabulary and complicated sentence structure.

What students will gain some advantages by extensive reading are most importantly forming positive attitude and habit towards reading, gain confidence and motivation. It increases readers' vocabulary, reading comprehension skills, general language skills and preparation for further studies.

Disadvantages of this reading approach come from mainly from teachers, administrators and parents and peer groups rather than readers and reading. For example, some teachers think extensive reading as useless, some spend too much time on extensive reading rather than teaching, it is costly for mass copy and parents may find it useless.

The other type of reading, which is intensive reading, plays active role in acquiring reading skills. Long and Richard (1987) say it is a detailed in -class analysis, led by teacher, of vocabulary and grammar points in a short passage. Usually it is classroom based, where students are intensely involved looking inside the text , focusing their attention to the linguistic and semantic details, structure, grammar , discourse markers and key vocabulary. Munby (1979) suggests four categories of questions that may be used in intensive reading, such as Plain sense, implication, relationship of thoughts and projective. These terms, in general, can be understood understanding factual exact meaning, noticing nuance or figurative language, correlation between sentences and paragraphs and integrating knowledge from texts with own ones. Reading materials selected by teacher, should be graded, abridged, containing various styles of written texts.

Advantages of intensive reading are: it lays fundament for studying structure, vocabulary. Idioms, proverb, and realia. Moreover, it offers complex comprehension check for students allowing them know weak or strong side of the reading.

However, it has some drawbacks; it offers insufficient practice of reading as a result of time limitation and small texts. Because teachers hand out same reading materials, students cannot choose texts or topics according to their interest and skills, which may cause less

motivation. Also, reading exercises are done in intense and against the clock atmosphere, it increases the affective filter of students (Harper, 2001).

Writing is "set of visible or tactile signs used represent units of language in systematic way " (Coulmas, 1999, p. 560 cited in Cook and Basseti, 2005). Throughout the history human have developed two types of writing: full writing and limited writing. The attitude towards literacy is changing with the fastest developing society, lifestyle and the increasing requirements set by employers (Gibbons, 2002).

Thus, teaching foreign language writing also has seen some modifications, especially in era of globalization, in which multi-nationals got closer. Different nations pursue different writing style, depending on their unique cultures and social situations. For example, good writing in English is different from good writing in other languages. This is not only grammatical difference but also the way writers organize and express their ideas. English writing is direct, stating the ideas in a straightforward and forceful manner, judged by degree of subordination, rather than coordinating order like Arabian or Persian writing (Hogue, 2003). Arabian writing follows parallel style and the important ideas are often repeated. In Asian style writing, topic is viewed in different angles and analyses indirectly. The core points lies in " a word behind a word". Spanish paragraph may begin and end on the same topic, but the writer often takes the reader to the interesting side trip that is not directly relevant to the main point. This style contradicts one of the important rules of English writing- the rule of paragraph unity.   So, apart from style, the effective writers in English need to pay their attention to planning, drafting, organizing, editing and revising from first draft to final product. On the other hand, less effective writers focuses their attention to the mechanics, i.e. spelling, punctuation, abbreviations and capital letters without having a plan at whole text level (Gibbons, 2002).

Furthermore, teaching, learning and understanding the genre approach in writing is one of the vivid expressions of obtaining authentic writing skills. Gibbons stated that :
> Every genre has a number of characteristics that make different from other genres:
> a genre has a specific purpose; a particular overall structure; specific linguistic
> features; and is a shared by members of culture. Most important, members of the
> culture recognize it as genre(even though they probably do not use the term).

Once the specific purpose is set, the other genre specific rules will follow the formality. For example, if you are going to take IELTS exam, you have to follow and write essays according to the standard IELTS writing genre; obey the certain style, use certain commonly used vocabulary, discourse markers, fairly good reasoning and analyzing.

There are two types of writing: free writing and process writing. In free writing, learners write in a class for over period of time for their interested topic. It is time limited individual action in which students write any topic that comes to their mind. Teacher gives feedback for each individual students, pointing the weak and strong part of writing.

Process writing begins with pre-writing activities, in which learners work together in groups to generate particular topic. This includes brainstorming, lists, timeline and own experience. Each group member then work individually to compose first draft, concentrating on getting new ideas, without working about grammar mistakes. After students work to set goal of the writing and then planning sequencing revising activities will follow.

The idea of integrating reading and writing become increasingly popular in the last few years. But the changing curriculum into such conception lacked research and knowledge (eric). The constructive theorist Louise Rosenblatt introduced revolutionary approach to literature called reader response. In earl 1990s several researchers described how construction of meaning occurs through reading and writing linkages:

Pearson and Tierneu proposed "composing model of reading" in which readers construct meaning by maintaining an ongoing dialogue within themselves about the text and its purpose, just as writers compose to convey meaning. During reading major activities of planning, composing, editing and monitoring occur repetitively, recursively and simultaneously in a process similar to the model described by Flower and Haues(1981) in their cognitive theory of writing.

More recent research by Bartholomae and Petrovsku suggests that to maximize the benefits of reading and writing connection, students must believe that they have the authority to generate ideas and direct reading and writing strategies for their own purposes.

In terms of practical implication of teaching reading and writing, first teachers have to think of goal of reading activities (intensive). The goals can be directed to understand and notice the way how logical arguments presented in the text, rhetorical pattern of the text, emotional, symbolic or social attitudes and purpose of the author and linguistic aspects of the texts. Besides, we need to bear in our minds following elements we want to reach: developing rapid reading practice, interpreting the by using word attack skills, text attack skills and non-text information.

Before choosing and handing out of the materials, I think teachers need to conduct needs analysis, because as mentioned above, students do not have choice of material, according to their interest. If we conduct needs analysis, somehow we can avoid danger of causing less motivation of the students. Text materials are usually very short, not exceeding more than five hundred words in length.. Teachers choose and provide text, considering the degree of difficulty of readers and the text containing certain type of genre, linguistic aspects such as tenses, vocabulary, idioms and proverbs that the teacher wants to cover in their teaching. Intensive reading activities may include looking at main ideas versus details, making inferences, looking at the order of information and how it affect the message, noticing and identifying connecting words and discourse markers. Not only noticing and identifying these aspects, teachers should direct the students into the application of such elements. This can be achieved through writing and group discussion. I think it is useful to do any piece of writing in accordance with the text studied in the classroom. After reading and analyzing the text, students write composition on their own following the exact style of writing.

The role of teachers should include selection of suitable texts, deciding specific task and activities to develop skills. Also we should orientate and explain the tasks before, during and after reading. Teacher allows and prepares students to on their own and encourages students through prompts, without giving answers. One of the most important things for teachers is giving feedback to group as a whole or to certain individual students. This is one kind of doing mini research and conducting survey that require analytical skills, exploring weak sides of students and their causes, the way to solve, considering both whole class atmosphere and individual students behavior and character.

The teaching of extensive reading also demands much work from teachers than usually teachers think. It starts from giving advice and orientation to the students within the

framework of course. Although it is free for students to choose the topics of their interests, teachers have to retain the control over their selection. Students may choose too scientific, difficult, complicated, uninteresting, too long books which can lead to further lack of motivation and interest. On the other hand, for non-native speaker teachers it is difficult to give feedback to vast range, and unknown areas where teachers themselves lack sufficient vocabulary and understanding the topic. In general, the topic should be both simple and authentic. Moreover, it is useful if topic is from both source culture and target culture. McKay(2003) states that :

> Traditionally, many English language textbooks have used target culture topics. Frequently ELT textbooks use such content because textbooks are often published in Inner circle countries ands because some ELT educators believe such information will be motivating to English language learners. Whereas it is possible that target cultural content is motivating to some students, it is also quiet possible that such content may be largely l irrelevant, uninteresting, or even confusing for students.

Authentic materials would be newspapers, magazines, current bestseller books that attract learners in both target and source culture. Internet and web pages are also authentic and simple because written styles of the internet devoted to mainly to international readers and most importantly, everybody enjoys taking trip through internet.

It is also possible teachers select the topic or book. When choosing the topic teachers need to aware of that style should include repetition new vocabulary should not occur at the same time with difficult structure. Annotated reading lists are available, suggesting books that can be read for pleasure and a minimum of frustration for new language learners. Materials should be at or below level than the intensive reading. Reading will be useful when combined with writing. For example, after reading the newspaper students may be asked to write newspaper article.

There are some certain duties teachers should participate in the extensive reading.
The teacher gives recommendations on reading materials, based on student's interests, guides appropriate levels of materials set specific goal for reading, explain the new vocabulary, and teachers themselves should be model reader. At the same time students aware of the responsibility for developing reading ability and improve the skills of skimming and scanning.

Writing is usually considered one the most difficult and boring study area of leaning English as foreign language. It takes lots of effort and time by either teachers or students to see progress. This is because writing classes mostly run in traditional Grammar-Translation methods, where students learn and practice unauthentic, over-difficult, needless, and uninteresting topics and way of teaching. Making the writing class into interactive class is extremely challenging. It requires real teaching skills, knowledge, experience and hard work from teacher to teach it interactive, interesting, lively, manner. So the teachers have to decide every single details when elaborating syllabus, lesson plan and even timetable. For example, if there is writing class on every Monday, students feel bored and fed up with Mondays.

In my opinion, process writing is one way to make writing to make interactive class. It includes both individual and group activity to reach the goal. But the teachers have think of time management, because classes are run in time limited condition. So, I think writing tasks should be left to as homework, where students have plenty of time to organize, plan, edit and revise the writing. However, students heave to be used to writing in tensioned, time limited

and under pressure. It helps them to think quickly, making decision on the spot, react and respond quickly to any pressurized atmosphere. These experiences can help them taking exams.

One of the best examples of integrating reading and writing in practice is writing annotated bibliography. It is very useful developing reading, writing skills, analyzing, overviewing, concluding, summarizing, and processing skills. Also it requires certain academic register of writing, learning to make references, expressing their ideas in limited words situation with very accurate every single word are carefully selected. It is a pre-requisite for writing further academic assignments and research.

Dictogloss is also useful activity for students developing listening and writing skills. It makes students to think quickly making analysis of the topic, process it quickly in their mind and write on the paper. It would be optimal that students exchange the writing with each other to find out different angle of viewing topics, variety of styles, new vocabulary after writing the task. Of course, if teacher provide model piece of writing, it would be effective. Then students discuss the outcome in group for further effective and better writing.

Peer group reviewing is another factor to make writing class interactive.

In peer response, students are given plenty of opportunities to brainstorm ideas in pairs or groups, to give feedback on each other's writing and to proofread and edit for each other. While increasingly more mainstream classroom teachers are encouraging students to write in collaboration, ESL/EFL writing instructors sometimes have reservations about its effectiveness due mainly to the concern that students lack cognitive sophistication and linguistic skills in judging writing and in revising and editing a piece of work.

I think that when peer-assisted writing activity is implemented in an ESL/EFL class, the teachers' intervention and direct feedback will help writers to overcome problems, such as grammatical errors in their writing, as well as to learn how to generate ideas for better content. Since writing is a complex problem-solving process, the teachers are recommended to intervene at points in the writing process that can most benefit the students. When the teacher evaluates, of this activity, the teacher meets with each pair and comments on the meaning, order, style, spelling, and punctuation of the writing.

In-class free writing is tension free, topics are chosen according to the students' interest. The teacher gives some orientation about sentence, whether it would be complex, compound, or simple sentences. After writing the sentences, students are asked to write their sentences on the blackboard (or whiteboard) for correction and revision.

Writing projects on number of social, economic and political controversial issues can be interesting and motivating way of writing. It encourages them study the detailed information, cause and effect, problem solving, developing collaborative activity and understanding various factor that influences their lives. Thus, it is very real life writing, because they feel it as member of society. For example, the topic how to increase the salary and social benefit? To write project on this issue students will look at political and economic factors and study it carefully. The first steps may be run in native language, but to express their ideas and write the project they will have to look at and read the topic in English.

The modern technology enables students to write authentic and real life writing in English. E-mail writing and chatting with both native or non-native speakers are very

effective way to write in target language. Nobody forces them to write in English, students automatically motivated learning to write themselves and learn from pen friend.

Although there is not much experience of teaching interactive writing class in Mongolia and a teacher as individual, I tried to suggest how writing interactive writing class should be run (adapted from . Hamp-Lyons and Heasley 1992).

Group-brainstorming on a given topic

(i.e. Students work cooperatively and write down all the ideas that come to mind in connection with a topic).
Whole class discussion of how a particular text might need adjustment according to the audience it is addressed to.

Collaborative writing

(i.e. Students work together to write a previously agreed text).
Whole class text construction and composing on the blackboard.

Writing workshop or in-class writing

Students consult each other and co-construct texts while the teacher moves around listening to their comments, providing feedback or answering questions on grammatical patterning, lexical items, the force or validity of an argument, the order of presentation of the information, organizational aspects, use of detail and so on. The teacher keeps track of their progress and works out a record of most frequent questions, doubts and inaccuracies for a future 'error analysis session'.

Group research on a text topic

Students divide the responsibility for different aspects of the information-gathering stage on a certain topic. They then pool their results and work together to plan a text, which may be collective or individual.

Peer-editing

Students exchange their first drafts of a text and point out changes which are needed to help the reader (e.g. better organization, paragraph divisions, sentence variety, vocabulary choice). They can also act as each other's editors spotting vocabulary repetitions, grammatical infelicities, spelling mistakes and so on.
Whole class examination of texts produced by other students (with names removed, photocopied or displayed on an overhead projector) for the purpose of analysis of specific aspects
(e.g. development of ideas, text structure, cohesion or grammar or adequacy to context).
Specification of an audience and purpose of a text by making the situation 'real'
(e.g. exchanging e-mail messages with other English-speaking students, sharing information about a topic another class is actually studying, producing a class newspaper to be read by family or friends, outlining the explanations of a game which will then really be played, among many other possibilities).

In this way, interactive writing becomes valuable, communicative and purposeful; at the same time, it enables the students to permanently challenge their current language practices and gain the experience. Making writing interactive requires imagination from teacher, but is rewarded by the creativity and enthusiasm that most students show reaction.

In conclusion, I have discussed some theoretical and practical issues of teaching reading and writing in classroom setting and outside classroom activity. Although I tried to do some research on methodology integrating writing and reading and making such teaching more interactive and authentic, I faced lack of theoretical, practical knowledge and experience, because this is relatively new teaching approach in my home country. Writing the assignment on this topic revealed my weak side of teaching and I understood that to teach writing and reading in interactive way, my university has to review the curriculum and syllabus.

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DEVELOPING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN EFL CONTEXT: THROUGH GROUP WORK

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Abstract

Communicative competence (CC) is the main skill of contemporary language learning and teaching. Thus, finding an effective and productive way of developing CC in language teaching and learning becomes vital in English Language Teaching (ELT). According to the previous research works, strategic competence is the key structure of CC which is improved through negotiation of meaning (interaction). Therefore, in order to improve students' CC, language teachers ought to create more interactive environment for their learners. This paper discusses the applicability of group work in the Mongolian context with regards to the improvement of CC, which were found to be effective in various contexts as it gives learners more opportunities to interact with each other as well as negotiate more meaning through the use of different conversational strategies.

Key words: Communicative competence, grammatical competence, strategic competence, negotiation of meaning, conversational strategies.

Introduction

Communicative competence is the skill of the 21st century in English language teaching and learning so it is becoming one of the main goals for English language teachers and learners in this modern world. In other words, language teachers are trying to find an appropriate way of language teaching which can facilitate communicative competence. However, in some contexts, especially in contexts where English is taught as a foreign language (EFL), learners are more likely to lack communicative competence because of some reasons including their previous language learning experience, exam-oriented curricula, a traditional way of language teaching, lacks of language use outside of the classroom. One prime example of EFL contexts is Mongolia, where English is taught as a foreign language in a traditional way of language teaching which aims at developing students' grammatical competence (GC). Furthermore, the Mongolian students do not have any use of English outside of the classroom as they do not need it in their everyday lives.

Therefore, Mongolian students always lack communicative competence and they cannot use English in their real-life communication even if they have learnt it for many years. This is the biggest issue for the language teachers in Mongolia even in the National University of Mongolia (NUM), the most famous and biggest university in Mongolia. Once the Mongolian language teachers are not able to change exam-oriented language curricula and a traditional language teaching method immediately throughout the university as well as throughout the educational sectors in Mongolia, they can start their steps towards the development of

communicative competence by changing their own teaching techniques in their classrooms. For instance, language teachers can use more interactive classroom activities. If language teachers use more interactive language learning classroom activities, it will give their students more opportunities to use language while doing the tasks in their classrooms. Once students have more access to a target language, it will help them to become more confident language users and communicators. Thus, the aim of this research is to highlight the importance of group work in developing communicative competence for the students of National University of Mongolia through negotiation of meaning.

Main Theories related to Communicative Competence

First of all, the language teachers in Mongolia should have good knowledge on CC in order to develop their learners' communicative competence by differentiating the peculiarities of CC from their traditional language teaching method. Richards (2006) describes CC as the ability to use a language in meaningful communication. According to Hymes (1972), a father of CC, it is the knowledge of language use. In other words, people should have an ability to know what, to whom, where, and how to say something (Hymes, 1972). According to Brown (2007a), in order to achieve CC, language learning should focus on not only language usage and accuracy but also language use and fluency within real world authentic communication. Therefore, CC can be acquired when language learners have more language use within real communication. However, English language teaching in Mongolia focuses only on the grammatical forms, and language teachers use a Grammar-Translation method in their classrooms. The main purpose of the language teaching at NUM is to prepare students for their final exams which focus on the grammatical forms and accuracy, so students are always asked to produce error-free sentences and always use rote learning techniques like repetition, drilling and so on. The only active participant in the classroom is their teacher who speaks all the time by explaining rules and giving instructions. The students are passive recipients of the knowledge delivered by their teachers. Therefore, students are not able to use a target language in their classroom. Moreover, students do not use it outside of the classroom since there is not any communicative environment, and necessity. With regards to all these above-mentioned issues, the Mongolian students always lack communicative competence even though their grammatical competence is high. Hence, developing language learners' CC is becoming a headache for all language teachers in Mongolia, even in NUM.

In order to develop CC, language teachers first need to know what CC is. Although the language teachers in Mongolia know the importance of developing CC in this modern world, they are more likely to misunderstand what CC exactly means, what it includes, and what it aims at. Therefore, it is vital for the Mongolian language teachers to fully understand what CC is. After they have gained enough knowledge about CC and understood what it is, they will be able to set their goals and design their classroom activities which aim at developing CC. Since the Mongolian language teachers have fixed language curricula and textbooks that they should use in their classrooms which cannot be changed, they can change their language teaching techniques within that fixed curriculum. To do so, language teachers ought to find the best way of teaching which can facilitate CC in their classrooms. As it was noted, CC and GC have totally different aims and purposes. In other words, the aim of CC is quite broader than the one of GC. The former one aims at developing students' language use and fluency in addition to usage and accuracy, while the latter one emphasizes the only usage/grammatical

rules and forms, and accuracy/error-free sentences. To make changes and improvements on their teaching techniques, language teachers at NUM need to have a deeper understanding on CC and its aim which is very different from their traditional method. To have a deeper knowledge on CC, language teachers ought to know what CC consists of in addition to its aim.

As mentioned above, generally-speaking, CC aims at preparing students for real life communication. However, it consists of some other competencies. In order to develop CC, we, language teachers should know about these components, their peculiarities and relationships. There are some studies conducted on the components of CC. Canale and Swain (1980) first developed their own model for CC components which was then elaborated several times by other experts. Canale and Swain (1980) suggested three constituents of CC including grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence which includes sociocultural rules of use and discourse rules, and strategic competence. In 1983, Canale made a little change on this previous model and suggested four competencies adding discourse competence as an independent one. Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) presented their model with five competencies where actional competency was added and some other names in the previous models were changed. The authors used linguistic competence for grammatical competence, and sociocultural for sociolinguistic. Bachman and Palmer (as cited in Celce-Murcia et al., 1995) designed more detailed model whose basic structure was similar to the one by Celce-Murcia et al. The main difference between these two models was that Bachman and Palmer modelled strategic competence as a separate component of CC. Although the numbers and names of suggested models for CC components have been little changed by those scholars, their main peculiarities have been kept without any big changes. The components of CC except for the strategic competence will not be explained and discussed in detail here as this work aims to show the importance of strategic competence in the development of CC based on the literature findings. According to Brown (2007b), strategic competence enables us to communicate successfully with the help of appropriate language use. In other words, strategic competence helps language learners to overcome any difficulties found in their language use and communication (Brown, 2007b). Therefore, developing strategic competence is vital for developing CC. In other words, strategic competence is the basic component of CC which can intensify the development of CC. Thus, language teachers should pay more attention to the development of strategic competence in order to develop learners' CC.

Strategic competence can be developed with the help of meaning negotiating strategies (Celce-Murcia et al., 1995). Meaning negotiating or negotiation of meaning occurs while people are interacting with each other which means that people use different conversational strategies in order to understand each other. When it comes to talk about negotiation of meaning, it is directly related to the use of different conversational strategies. Depending on how successfully these conversational strategies are used, the degree of negotiation of meaning increases which then leads to the development of strategic competence that enhances CC. Thus, the main process of the development of CC is based on the degree of negotiation of meaning which will be increased with the help of conversational strategies. To increase learners' negotiation of meaning, teachers need to give them more opportunities to use these conversational strategies in their classrooms. These conversational strategies include clarification requests, comprehension checks, and confirmation requests (Nunan, 1999). Clarification requests are used when a listener wants more explanation from a speaker on

what was said, comprehension checks are used when a speaker wants to make sure whether a listener has understood what was said or not, and confirmation requests are used when a listener wants to make sure of their own understanding. When learners learn how to use those strategies, they will feel more confident and comfortable when they are using a language in their real-life communication.

Regarding the development of language learners' strategic competence, the above discussed conversational strategies should be taught, aiming at the increase of meaning negotiation among learners. To do so, teachers need to give their learners more opportunities to use their target language in their classroom. As it was highlighted, language learners in Mongolia do not have any opportunity to use a target language in their classroom because of a teacher-centred language teaching tradition. Hence, the language teachers in Mongolia, should give their learners more chances to talk in their classrooms in order to improve their CC as it is enhanced and improved through negotiation of meaning. Moreover, teachers should enable their learners to work together and have more interaction and communication. When learners work together, they will be able to use a target language in their classroom as well as they will have more negotiation of meaning through conversational strategies and have more modified interaction. Interaction is modified or fixed with the help of negotiation of meaning. In other words, when students work together and interact with each other, they get information from each other, negotiate meanings in order to understand that information, and then produce their own information once they have successfully understood each other. Krashen (1987) developed a theoretical argument in relation to this process. According to Krashen's theory, when input/information is one step further from the learner's present competence level, students will have more interaction and negotiate meaning in order to understand that information. Once students comprehend that information it will become intake or knowledge. It means that when students work together, they will be able to learn from each other by exchanging new information which will lead to new knowledge. During teacher-centred activities, negotiation of meaning decreases because teachers repeatedly ask known questions from their students. Swain (as cited in Long & Porter, 1985) argued that the only input is not enough for insuring learners' comprehensibility and understanding, but learners should produce their own information. Judging from Swain' s argument, it can be said that in order to produce their own information, students will need to have more negotiation of meaning and modified interaction which will lead to more comprehensibility, and knowledge by creating more active communication among the students. As Swain proposed, comprehensible output is as important as comprehensible input for learners' successful interaction and language learning. Thus, teachers need to create more interactive environment in the classroom where students are able to talk to each other by sharing their knowledge and gaining new knowledge in an authentic context. When they talk, students will be able to listen to each other and negotiate meaning using different conversational strategies in order to understand each other and produce their own talk all of which will then increase their communicative competence. Once this process becomes successful, it will help learners to use their target language in real life communication without any difficulties and anxieties. If they have some trouble during their real-life communication (every language learner faces difficulties when they are using new language in real communication), they will be able to overcome those issues easily by using their acquired conversational strategies. In other words, students will become

strategically competent. When students become strategically competent, it means they have already gained CC.

The Use of Group Work for the Development of Communicative Competence in Different Contexts

One of the best solutions for the development of CC in EFL context then can be a group work which can encourage students negotiate meaning. During group work, more than two students work together to complete a given task. Group can be big or small depending on the context. However, types of group work will not be detailed here as this paper emphasizes the general importance of group work in developing CC. Group work is found to be a very effective classroom organisation for interactive activities as it increases the amount of negotiation of meaning where students will be able to use different conversational strategies to understand each other and communicate successfully. There will not be any big issues for the Mongolian university language teachers to use group work activities in their classrooms. As the classes are quite big, using group work will be more appropriate and useful in this context. It is definite that teachers and students will have some difficulties while applying group work activities as they are not used to this type of learning and it is quite new for them. However, it can be the best starting step of improving the students' CC. There are some research works which illustrate the effectiveness of group work in different contexts. For instance, Long & Porter (1985) demonstrated the pedagogical and psycho-linguistic advantages of group work in ESL context. According to them, group work enables learners talk more within more natural environment. It also gives learners more opportunities to work on their own by choosing their own preferred materials and topics, it creates more relaxing and supportive atmosphere as students are working together. All these advantages increase learners' motivation (Long & Porter, 1985). Long & Porter (1985) claimed that when the students worked in small groups/pairs, they had more meaning negotiation to comprehend the input, most importantly, when non-native and non-native speakers talked to each other, they used more conversational strategies and their negotiation of meaning was enhanced. As Long and Porter highlighted, negotiation of meaning was higher within small group works/pair works when non-native speakers with different proficiency levels from different first language backgrounds interact with each other. Doughty and Pica (1986) who showed similar results within ESL context. According to their findings, when non-native speakers work in groups/pairs, they had more meaning negotiation as they were getting more input and producing more output. The authors also found that when students worked on the tasks which required them to exchange information with each other within their groups, it enhanced the effectiveness of group work by increasing negotiation of meaning. According these two works, group work is found to be very beneficial for increasing negotiation of meaning among the students in ESL context.

There is another study by McDonough (2004) who showed the effectiveness of group work in EFL context, in Thailand. According to McDonough, learners found pair and small group activities useful for their oral communication skills. Moreover, the study showed that students who participated in group activities actively and had more negative feedbacks from their peers showed more improvement because they had more negotiation of meaning and produced more modified output. Thus, group work can be effective in not only ESL context but also

EFL context. However, its effectiveness fully depends on how classroom teachers organise the activities within their contexts. Teachers should make context analysis beforehand, and then should pay more attention to how to organise the class into groups and which tasks to use and so on. There is another interesting study on group work which was done among the Chinese students who were studying at the university in the USA (ESL context). Xue (2013) found that, the students' attitudes towards group work were negative which was explained in relation to their limited English proficiency in speaking and listening, as well as to their different pedagogical traditions. However, within a year, their attitudes changed and became positive as they could see the benefits of group work in the development of their various skills as well as in the improvement of CC. It shows that using new type of activity (group work for EFL students) will take much time for both teachers and students to get used to it due to many influential factors. Therefore, language teachers, especially teachers in EFL contexts need to make much effort to apply different organisational interactive activities/group works in their classrooms which will take much time too. They cannot just start using it without fully recognising its pros and cons, and suitability.

Conclusion

In order to develop CC for the Mongolian students, the language teachers at NUM need to have a good understanding of CC including its aim, and its constituents by identifying their peculiarities and relationships. Once they have learnt what CC is, they will understand the importance of strategic competence which is the main component part of CC development as well as the most appropriate and urgent component of CC to be practiced and learnt in EFL context, Mongolia. With the help of strategic competence, language learners will be able to overcome any difficulties found in their communication. Hence, teachers need to design their classroom activities aiming at the development of strategic competence in order to improve CC. As the literature claims, strategic competence is developed through negotiation of meaning with the help of different conversational strategies among students' interaction. Therefore, language teachers at NUM should encourage learners' negotiation of meaning or interaction in the classroom. In other words, conversational strategies should be taught in the classroom. Although, there was not enough literature which demonstrate the usefulness of group work in the development of CC in EFL contexts, this paper highly recommends using group work in the language classroom as it gives learners more opportunities to interact with each other as well as negotiate more meaning by using different conversational strategies. Group work can be used in any classroom, especially, this paper finds it more appropriate and effective for big classes in Mongolia. Therefore, language teachers in NUM need to apply group work classroom organisations in their classes as it is very beneficial to the development of CC and is applicable in their context. However, language teachers should be mindful of how to organise the class into groups and what type of tasks to use within the groups depending on their situations in order to make language teaching and learning more effective as well as to develop CC efficiently.

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SHARING EXPERIENCE OF TEACHING DESCRIPTIVE WRITING

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Abstract

Writing in English as a foreign language (EFL) seems to be an experience to funk which requires hard labor for many students not only in Mongolia, but also in other non – English speaking countries. However, it is the teacher's responsibility to prepare learners for meeting the demands of academic writing at university in spite of the fact that they experience considerable difficulties in teaching the lower level learners to write in English. This paper discusses some difficulties which pre-intermediate level students face in the class of academic writing, and shares one method used in my classes to build up my students' background knowledge for academic writing achievements and few techniques to teach descriptive writing which is usually among the first assignments students must complete in writing classes.

Keywords: descriptive writing, paragraph, grammar, translation, sensory details, descriptive expression, figurative language, vivid words

Introduction

Descriptive, narrative, expository and argumentative writings are the four most common types of writing (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). Among them, descriptive writing may be defined as the most rudimentary form. At first glance, it appears simple for an academic discourse, but it is "fundamental and the best way to lay the foundation of the writer's craft" (Meyers, 2009, p.245). Meyers (2009) also mentions that all types of writing encompass some elements of descriptive writing that cause a reader to see, think, feel, and react.

In the National University of Mongolia, descriptive writing is one of the types of writing that should be taught according to the curriculum of Academic English class which is compulsory for all the students who are studying at the university, except the ones majoring in English. One of the first assignments students must complete in Academic writing class is to write a descriptive paragraph. Students are told to describe themselves, one of their classmates or best friends, their learning style, a person of importance, a special object, something they have learned and other various kinds of topics. Most students, especially learners of English as a foreign language (EFL), have difficulty beginning the assignment. In 2018, I was teaching a pre-intermediate-level English class to two groups of first-year students at the National University of Mongolia. After observing my students' struggles with writing a descriptive paragraph and even with writing a mistake-free single sentence, I searched for techniques to be implemented in class.

Problems

It became clear to me what my students' weaknesses were in writing in English and what they knew or did not know about writing after completing their first assignment to describe themselves as a high school student according to the content of the book *"College Writing 1"*. When reading their writings, almost 99 percent of them just wrote their names, ages, who they

lived with, where they lived and studied, who were their friends and what subjects they liked. Unfortunately, they just used simple sentences, practically all of which were full of mistakes including grammar, vocabulary, spelling, punctuation and sentence structure. In two groups, interestingly, there were not any students who tried to write complex compound sentence, except one student. It can be said that all of them were incapable of using various clauses and even basic grammar. Moreover, it was also evident that they had no understanding to write a paragraph which must be in fixed format and have certain characteristics, such as topic sentence, one to three main points, supporting details and a concluding sentence to the end. It was a big challenge for me to teach them how to produce a good descriptive and well-developed paragraph.

Methodology

The teaching of writing, and the teaching of developmental and ESL/EFL writing in particular, has historically given priority to the sentence, often in theory and almost always in practice. In other words, the sentence is viewed as the *de facto* unit of written discourse, the basic element of written communication. It naturally follows then that the sentence should be taught first (Hinkel 2012; Mayville 2012). The idea is that a certain degree of sentence-level mastery must be attained before the teacher, student, and class move on to the next, secondary unit of written discourse, the paragraph. The essay itself can be taught, if it is taught at all, only after first sentence-level and then paragraph-level mastery is achieved. The result is a stage-by-stage, sequential, essentially horizontal teaching and learning process that parallels traditional approaches to ESL/EFL grammar instruction (Thornbury 1999; Azar and Hagen 2009; Hewings 2013). Therefore, it is true that such a sentence-based strategy can eventually produce effective writing. However, this sentence-based strategy will almost inevitably, automatically, create a "grammar-first" teaching approach, an approach that in turn leads to a "grammar is writing" and "writing is grammar" teaching philosophy (Gugin 2014).

I knew that it would be wrong to expect my students to master English grammar, and unlikely that the students in one class would all be at the same level of grammatical control before starting to write a paragraph. However, due to the fact that insufficient background knowledge is a big barrier, I had to give them systematic knowledge of grammar and sentence structure along with the tightly scheduled program which comprises considerable amounts of materials to cover in one semester. It means that there was not enough time to spend on teaching every grammar in detail and making them sufficiently practice on it. Therefore, I decided to use a method of translating sentences from English to Mongolian and vice versa after giving them precise basic grammar knowledge including verb tenses, conditionals and some types of clauses in a short time. I hoped that it would give them an essential sentence-level clear understanding and self-confidence to write in English and help them to lay a foundation to express their thoughts in error free written form. I used to give them three different English and three different Mongolian sentences in a chart to make them:
- find subject and predicate of the sentences
- know the types and uses of clauses and verb tenses
- enrich their vocabulary and translate the sentences in both directions.

The following chart is an example of what my students regularly did as an extra homework in order to practice on the grammar and sentence structure.

Underline the subject and double-underline the predicate of the sentences	Identify the verb tense and voice	How many clauses are there?	Translation
<u>The internet</u> really <u><u>makes</u></u> a student's life much easier since there is no barrier to get the information.	Active.Vc – Present simple	1. Main clause 2. Clause of reason: – Why? - since there is no barrier to get the information	Мэдээлэл олж авахад ямар ч саад байхгүй учраас <u>интернет</u> оюутны амьдралыг үнэхээр илүү <u><u>амар болгож өгдөг</u></u>.
<u>I</u> <u><u>am not</u></u> like those people who can sit down for hours and read one book because I feel sleepy.	Active.Vc – Present simple	1. Main clause 2. Adjective clause: - What people? - who can sit down for hours and read one book 3. Clause of reason: - Why? - because I feel sleepy	<u>Би</u> олон цагаар сууж чаддаг, ном уншдаг хүмүүс шиг <u><u>биш</u></u>, яагаад гэвэл миний нойр хүрээд байдаг.
<u>Gas emission</u> from factories <u>and exhaust fumes</u> from vehicles <u><u>lead</u></u> to global warming, which may have a devastating effect on the planet in the future.	Active.Vc – Present simple	1. Main clause 2. Relative clause which refers back to a whole clause	Үйлдвэрээс гарч буй <u>хий болон</u> машин тэрэгний <u>хорт утаа нь</u> дэлхийн дулааралд <u><u>хүргэдэг</u></u> бөгөөд энэ нь ирээдүйд дэлхий дээр цочирдмоор үр дагаварыг бий болгож магадгүй.
Миний захисан <u>хоол</u> их <u><u>амттай байсан</u></u>.	Active.Vc – Past simple	1. Main clause 2. Adj. clause: – Which food? - that I ordered	The <u>food</u> (which/that) I ordered <u><u>was delicious</u></u>.
Амьдрахаар түрээслэж байгаа <u>байшин</u> маань <u><u>бүтэн тавилгатай</u></u>.	Active.Vc – Present simple	1. Main clause 2. Adj. clause: - Which house? - which we are going to rent	The <u>house</u> (which/that) we are going to rent to live in <u><u>is fully-furnished</u></u>.
Бидний өдөр бүр уудаг <u>Кока-кола нь</u> анх эмийн зориулалтаар <u><u>худалдаалагдаж байсан</u></u>.	Passive.Vc –past simple	1. Main clause 2. Adj. clause: - Which Coca Cola? - which we drink every day	<u>Coca Cola</u>, which we drink every day, <u><u>was first sold</u></u> as a medicine.

At first, my students were not able to find subject and predicate from the given English sentences and identify the verb tenses. In addition to this, they were very weak in translating

from Mongolian to English. However, they were very interested in working on this chart and always looked forward to know whether their translation was correct or had any mistakes. This was due to the fact that they were given an encouraging atmosphere where they could express their thoughts freely and discuss their writing without any fear. When discussing their translations of six different sentences on the blackboard at the beginning of class, the whole class were always active and attentive. While my explaining grammar, vocabulary and structure-related mistakes which are in common among them, all of them listened carefully, took notes and asked questions regarding to their versions or the things they were confused about. Most of them really liked this technique since gradual improvement and clear results were noticed. They even asked me to give them more sentences to work on, which was the evidence that it could fuel their motivation to learn more. On the 10th week of the semester, I gave them an exam, which was based on the same chart form above, to check their progress in their study and the exam results demonstrated that they had made appreciable advancements in the sentence level writing comparing to the beginning of the semester; particularly, for the first group which consists of 30 students, 7 of them got the grade "A", 14 of them received "B", 5 of them got "C" and the rest of them got "D" on the exam. For the second group, which consisted of 29 students, 8 of them received "A", 8 of them got "B", 9 of them got "C" and the rest of them got "D". This was a good result insofar as around 63 percent of the students passed their exam with good grades ("A" and "B").

Apart from this, so as to avoid "writing is grammar" teaching philosophy, I tried to give more emphasize on writing paragraphs rather than using grammar in single sentences. I mean that I gave grammar-related explanations while writing paragraphs whenever it was necessary. When writing descriptive paragraph, students tended to be confused about what to write and how to write it.

From readingrockets.org, we can find characteristics of a good descriptive writing, as follows:
    1. Good descriptive writing includes many vivid sensory details that paint a picture and appeals to all of the reader's senses of sight, hearing, touch, smell and taste when appropriate. Descriptive writing may also paint pictures of the feelings the person, place or thing invokes in the writer.
    2. Good descriptive writing often makes use of figurative language such as analogies, similes and metaphors to help paint the picture in the reader's mind.
    3. Good descriptive writing uses precise language. General adjectives, nouns, and passive verbs do not have a place in good descriptive writing. Use specific adjectives and nouns and strong action verbs to give life to the picture you are painting in the reader's mind.
    4. Good descriptive writing is organized. Some ways to organize descriptive writing include: chronological (time), spatial (location), and order of importance. When describing a person, you might begin with a physical description, followed by how that person thinks, feels and acts etc.

There are many descriptive writing strategies that teachers can use in their classes. However, among them, I chose Spencer's SFV Model (2005), which included above mentioned characteristics, as it provided detailed description of descriptive writing strategies for EFL learners. SFV is the acronym of Sensory details, Figurative language and Vivid words, aspects which are all essential in writing a good descriptive paragraphs and essays as stated above.

Figure 1 illustrates the SFV Model used in my class. This model comprises three processes which are free writing, whilst writing and post writing. In the free writing process, the techniques of brainstorming and mind mapping are introduced and whilst writing consists of the detailed description of the descriptive writing elements. The post writing involves the processes needed after writing is done such as revising and presenting the writing.

1. Free-writing	2. Whilst-writing	3. Post-writing
Brainstorming	Sensory Details	Revision
Mind Mapping	Figurative Language	Presentation
	Vivid Words	
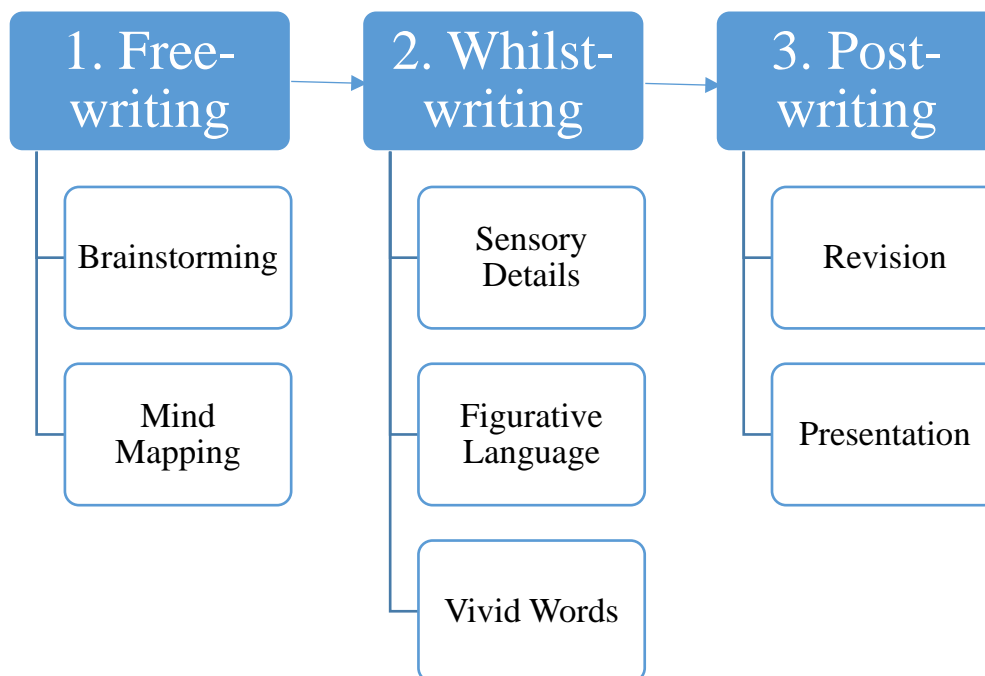
Figure 1. SFV Descriptive Writing Model (Spencer, 2005)

In College Writing series, first and second processes – free-writing and post-writing – and paragraph structure are introduced in detail while descriptive language is not touched at all. In this paper, therefore, I consider whilst-writing process.

Sensory details include the senses of sight, sound, taste, smell and touch. Sensory details allow the readers to see the real objects that are being described as if they can touch, see, hear, and smell them. Sensory details are important to create an intense, descriptive image that seems to bring the words on the page to life (Axelrod & Cooper, 2001). Wilhelm (2008) states that once students see something in their minds, they find it much easier to write about. In addition, visualization based on the five senses can engage students and improve writing skills. Following the suggestions outlined by Katherine Carter (2015) in her paper, I decided to select short stories that were especially colorful and tapped into the students' senses for reading with the purpose of giving them visualization. Reading a colorful short story or short poem before writing turns on thinking skills (Wilhelm 2008) and allows students to become interested in the topic. In this activity, students find descriptive expressions from a piece that speaks to their senses. Guiding students to visualize as they read gives them confidence; it also helps them learn to think as they write. Most of us already visualize as we read, but our students may need encouragement to do so (Dinkins 2007). Talking about their visualizations and personal memories allows students to discover and share what was meaningful to them from the text. Meanwhile, the text has become significant to them, as their background experiences have been activated (Carter 2015). I adopted Carter's technique of teaching descriptive writing through visualization and the five senses. But I skipped or changed some

steps of her technique. The following is a step-by-step description of the technique I used in my classes.

1. Choose short text that is particularly vivid and taps into the senses.
2. Write the chart (which consists of instructions, such as *List things that you see, hear, feel, smell and taste*) for visualizing the senses on the board and have students copy it.
3. Read the text chosen with your class. Have students highlight phrases that catch their attention based on their five senses. And make them share with a partner what they highlighted.
4. Direct students to the chart on the board. Give the class an example of a place you love. Describe the place with reference to your five senses. Then ask students to visualize a place they love and to take brief notes in the charts in their notebooks.
5. Have students discuss the notes in their charts with a partner. Then ask students to add details, thoughts, and emotions based on their conversations.
6. Ask students to find a new partner again, and describe their special place based on their notes. Following their second conversation, have them add more details to their charts.
7. Give students time to write a paragraph based on the notes they took.
8. Arrange the students in groups of three so they can read their paragraph aloud to other partners. Before students begin reading, tell them that listening partners will be expected to ask the reader questions and make comments on the piece. After students discuss the first student's piece, have them switch roles.
9. Have students revise what they wrote, basing revisions on their classmates' questions and comments. The final draft of the paragraph can be turned in during the following class.

Visualizing the pictures in their minds as they read, describing their personal experiences, and completing the chart gave students support to write. With their extended notes and details, they had the tools to write a descriptive paragraph.

Figurative language consists of similes, metaphor, hyperbole and personification, while vivid words are specific words which entail in descriptive writing (Spencer, 2005; Johannessen, 1995). Spencer (2005) stated that descriptive writing depended on details and colorful language to bring a subject to life. By describing a person, a place or an object with **vivid details**, a writer can create a descriptive scene in the readers' mind. In the same way, Johanessen (1995) suggested that teachers should familiarize students with these terms by providing plenty of vivid examples.

> ➤ <u>Similes</u> are expressions involving the comparison of one thing with another thing of a different kind, used to make a description more emphatic or vivid by using the words "like" or "as", such as "*Her beauty is like Cinderella's*", "*Her face is as round as a plate*", "*Her smile is like an angel*" and "*as brave as a lion*" etc.
> ➤ <u>Metaphors</u> are also expressions in which a word or phrase is applied to an object or action to which it is not literally applicable. It is similar to simile, but it does not use the words "like" or "as". For example, "*Anny is a flower in my class*". The word "flower" exresses her beauty. "*Bayaraa is a lion in his campus*", which means Bayaraa is a brave man in his campus.
> ➤ <u>Personification</u> is to give a human quality or characteristic to something that is not human, for instance, "*Her pen dances on her notebook*". The word

"*dance*" refers to human characteristic, and the word "*pen*" is considered a live object.

➢ <u>Hyperbole</u> is a way of speaking or writing that makes someone or something sound bigger, better and more than they are. It is used to exaggerate, emphasize something and add humor or gain attention. For instance, "*There are millions of people in the mall on Saturday*", "*He has got tons of money*" or "*He was so hungry that he could eat a horse*" etc.

➢ <u>A vivid word</u> is a specific modifier, for example, in the sentence "*the price of the ring is very high*", the word "*ring*" is not vivid enough, so to make it become more vivid, we have to modify the word "*ring*" into "*the gold diamond ring*" because it vividly elaborates in greater detail the attributes of the ring.

All of the explanations above can be applied in teaching descriptive writing, and it will make student descriptive writing more interesting and lively.

Results

As a result of the approaches above mentioned, the two key outcomes were observed. The first one is that background knowledge and competence were much firmed; and the other one is that techniques of writing a good descriptive paragraph was obtained. The below are the results in detail:

- Students' awareness of English grammar and sentence structure improved and learned to write complex compound sentences correctly or with fewer mistakes.
- They learned to identify the subject and predicate in a long complicated sentence and explain the connection between the words, phrases and clauses in a sentence.
- Students were able to write descriptive paragraph using figurative language, and consequently their creativity developed.
- The fear of making mistakes in their writing reduced and enthusiasm, interest to write and participation increased.
- Their vocabulary enriched with new vivid words and various descriptive expressions.

Conclusion

To conclude, from my experience in teaching English to different levels of students I have found that an insufficient background knowledge, which is the main reason of not being confident and extinguishing the fire of desire to learn, is a chronic cause of low achievement. Therefore, elimination of fear and anxiety of making mistakes, diffidence and negative attitude towards the learning is the key of motivating the students to learn more. Thereto, teachers should discover the approaches which suit both the teacher and the students. Teaching basic grammar and sentence structure in the form of translation in both directions is fruitful as lower level students get a quick awareness of structure and peculiarities of the two languages by comparing and contrasting them. This approach helped me to rescue most of my students - the lower achievers and boost the academic writing performance of all the students to some extent.

Moreover, it is worth mentioning that other scholars and teachers who introduce or promote different approaches to the teaching of academic writing. Spencer's SFV Model can be used as a tool to enhance EFL teachers' strategies to teach descriptive writing as it can give students a broad knowledge and understanding of writing descriptive discourse. Most importantly, it helps to revive learner's creativity and improve their writing. When using this model, it is advisable to combine Carter's technique of teaching descriptive writing through

visualization and the five senses with your own methodology since once students see something in their minds, they have a much easier time writing about it.

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ISSUES IN THE TUVAN LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

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Abstract: The tuvans live in Mongolia, in Russia and in China and speak both the Mongolian and Tuvan languages. Today the Tuvan children and youths are not being taught their native language - the Tuvan language. The Article 8 of the Constitution of Mongolia ensures that ethnic minorities can use their own language to speak and communicate. For ethnic minorities to use their own language can be very important, since it protects their identity and culture. The government of Mongolia should pay attention and take measures to preserve its culture and prevent the Tuvan language from becoming extinct.

Keywords: Tsaatan, Uigar-Urianhai, Turkic, Tuvan language, linguistic right

The Tuvan language belongs to the Northern or Siberian branch of the Turkic language family. The Tuvans are a Turkic ethnic group living in Mongolia, Russia and China. In China and Mongolia (Nyambuu, 1992: 126). Tuvans are national minorities. Because of their past settlement in various territories, the Tuvans have had to live in mixed communities with other ethnic groups, assimilating into the host population as a result. Tuvans in Mongolia inhabit different aimags. The largest population of Tuvans in Mongolia are the *Tsengel Tuvans*, Tsengel Sum of Bayan-Ulgii Aimag and Khovd Aimag (Mongush, 2003:163). The Dukha live in Khövsgöl Aimag. According to the 2002 national census, there are 3800 Tuvans in Mongolia. Tuvans are mainly descendants of nomadic groups of Turkified Mongols and speak a Turkic language. Dozens of books and articles have been published regarding the history, tradition, and the origin of the Tuvan language and relations among the Tuvan, Mongolian and Turkic languages.

The research aims to consider the threat of extinction to the Tuvan language - the native language of Mongolian Tuvans, and the ways to preserve the language.

First of all, it is worth noting that there exist different terms for the "Tuvan language" which is confusing. Different terms for the Tuvan language are as follows: The Tuvan language of Tsengel tuvans, Tsaatan /Reindeer people's/ language, Tsaatan urianhai language, Uigar tsaatan language, Uigar urianhai language and Dukh language. During the socialist regime, fieldworks that were conducted by the Science Academy of Language and Literature played an important role in Tuvan studies. As a result, the tuvan language of the reindeer people – minority group in Huvsgul - is termed as "Uigar-urianhai language".

Since 1972, professor L. Bold has been studying and doing research work regarding Uigar-urianhai language, published many books and articles, and earned Doctor of Science on the theme "The Mongolian language's historical links to the Sayan Turkic language" in 1996. As the research carried out by Professor L. Bold demonstrates, literature, folk songs, fairy tales and epics have not been studied well, except the shamanism of the Reindeer people in Huvsgul (Bold, L, 1975:136). Although not many scholars studied the minority ethnic group – Tuvans, there are many valuable works, which contribute significantly to Tuvan studies.

The articles regarding the structure of Tuvan verse and semasiology of the Tuvan language published by Professor Ts. Shagdarsuren are highly appreciated. After working on Tuvan shamanism and ethnography, professor S. Dulam published the article "Analysis on shamanism and ethnography of Uigar-Tsaatan – reindeer people" (S. Dulam, 1995: 105), containing tuvan shaman's callings, clothes, symbolism, rituals and differences from other ethnic groups.

As for linguistics, Dr. Kh. Gansukh did fieldwork in Tsengel sum, Bayan-Ulgii province, and got Doctoral degree in linguistics in 2009 on the theme "The features of Tsengel Tuvans language" (Kh. Gansukh, 2009), including features of morphology, syntax, grammar, and the specific type of local dialect and some elements from Turkic language. Also, Dr. B. Bayarsaikhan studied the terms in the Tuvan language that related to husbandry of the tuvans in Tsengel sum (B. Bayarsaikhan, 2009). Collecting and classifying these terms is very significant to Tuvan studies, because the terms in Tuvan that related to husbandry are almost forgotten and in danger of disappearing. Scholar G. Zolbayar who lives in Bayan-Ulgii province conducted a survey on folk literature of Tsengel tuvans, then published 2 series of books "Altan Dagsha" (G. Zolbayar, 1998) and "Mungun Dagsha" (G. Zolbayar, 2013).

Let us consider the question. How will a minority language survive in globalization? To keep their culture, tradition, language and lifestyle, one should practice them in everyday use. For Reindeer people in Huvsgul province, their lives are like a show in summer time because many travelers bother the community, so the reindeer people cannot continue their lives in the proper way. Therefore, they are forced to adapt the ways of life and in some ways, they are in danger of losing their nomadic lifestyle because of external factors. For Tsengel tuvans, they are migrating to urban areas because of unemployment. So a smaller number of people who left in the areas tend not to practice traditional customs, therefore their customs, such as wedding, burial, making felt, sheep shearing, etc. die out.

Many of the people in Tsengel sum are Kazaks, everyone speaks Kazak and every activity is held in the Kazak language, so it is difficult for Tuvans to preserve their culture, tradition and language. Therefore, it is time for the government of Mongolia to take measures to protect these people's unique culture and language. Also, it is important for the Tuvans to pass down their traditions and language to their next generation.

One way to preserve a language is to teach, speak and use it every day. All Tuva children study at the local school in Mongolian for most of the year. While children may understand spoken Tuvan, they usually communicate with their parents and siblings in Mongolian. They are bilingual, speaking both Tuvan and Mongolian.

Tuva children study in schools, where classes are held in Mongolian. To teach the Tuvan language in Mongolia varies from place to place, because of approaches of the local authorities to the issue. The Tuvan school in Tsengel soum, Bayan Ulgii province has been teaching the Tuvan language and literature classes in Tuvan from the first grade, whereas The Tuva Foundation established a ger-summer training program in Khovd province in 2013, with the help of TIKA, Implementation Organization of Turkish Government. In 2005, the Mongolian government adopted a 'Tuva Language Study Programme' aimed at supporting the efforts to preserve their cultural heritage. In 2013, The Center for Circumpolar Studies collaborates with Oyunbadam, a native Tuvan speaker who is also a trained teacher, in her efforts to establish a language program in the traditional summer camps in the taiga, where

the nomadic reindeer herders gather in extended family groups for the brief summer period. The language program will encourage rich and meaningful use of the native language within an authentic cultural setting and assist in transmission of culturally relevant information from elders to the younger generation. Their culture is an important source for the study of ethnic variations and language.

Conclusion:

The Tuvans live in Mongolia, in Tuva Republic in Russia and at Lake Kanas in the northwestern part of Xinjiang in China. In Mongolia, they live in Tsengel sum, Bayan-Ulgii province, Jargalant and Buyant, Hovd province and Tsagaan Nuur sum, Huvsgul province and they speak both the Mongolian and Tuvan languages. Many foreign researchers have studied the unique lifestyle of Tsaatan nomads and Tuvan shamanism. In the next fifty years, it is estimated that 3500 languages will go extinct. Tuvan, which is spoken by much smaller numbers of speakers in China, Mongolia and Russian Federation, is one of these threatened languages. When a language goes extinct, the tradition and lifestyle of the people are lost. Therefore, the government of Mongolia should pay attention and take measures to preserve and inherit the unique culture, language and lifestyle of the Tuvans.

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THEORETICAL INSIGHTS ON BILINGUALISM VS MULTILINGUALISM AND THE REFLECTION ON BILINGUAL/MULTI-LINGUAL KAZAKH ESL TEACHERS IN MONGOLIA BASED ON AN INDIVIDUAL CASE STUDY

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ABSTRACT

Taking its root from a wide range of theoretical and practical perspectives, the concept of Bilingualism and Multilingualism has been complex to precisely define. The in-depth analysis from the cross-disciplinary literature review on differences and similarities has been provided from theoretical perspectives. Multi-dimensional approach of ethnography including the socio-economic and cultural factors as coupled with individual reflection and observatory experience have been taken into account to illustrate the concept and a "multilingual" identity as based on an individual case study representing ethnic Kazak minority ESL teachers in Mongolia.

KEY WORDS: English as a Second Language, Bilingualism, Multilingualism, Diversity, Identity, Ethnicity, Kazakh minority group, sociolinguistics and ethnography.

Literature review

The terms as *Bilingualism* and *Multilingualism* studied in the linguistic field often reveal their complexity for definition given their origination from a wide range of theoretical and practical perspectives.

Firstly, the difference of bilingualism and multilingualism relies on the number of languages used or spoken by an individual. For the term *Bilingualism*, it is broadly defined that "an individual can speak and understand two languages" (MacLeod, Fabiano-Smith, Boegner-Pagé, & Fontolliet, 2013, p. 132). Similarly, Cenoz (2013b) argues that "some learners are bilinguals who actively use their two languages in everyday life" (p.78). A bilingual speaker may be exposed to both languages during early childhood, or might have learned a second language later in life at school (Cenoz, 2013b; MacLeod et al., 2013). However, the differences between bilingualism and multilingualism are not always clear. For instance, *Bilingualism* is commonly used to refer to two languages but may involve more languages (Cook & Bassetti, 2011, as cited in Cenoz, 2013a). Like bilingualism, *Multilingualism* refers two or more languages (Aronin & Singleton, 2008, as cited in Cenoz, 2013a). The use of "a number of languages, "two or more languages"" used to define the both terms by these researchers seems to be confusing and vague. Thus, there is not a clear distinction between bilingualism and multilingualism. Likewise, Cenoz (2013a) describes that "multilinguals can be speakers of a minority indigenous language (e.g., Navajo in the United States, Maori in New Zealand, or Welsh in the United Kingdom) who need to learn the dominant state language" (p.3,4). Immigrants as a clear example can be multilinguals speaking their first language, and the language(s) of their host countries. In other cases, speakers learn languages since languages are considered to spread internationally and open a door plenty of economic and social opportunities. Although the definition of *bilingualism* and

multilingualism has been a controversial issue, I support researchers studying on tri-lingualism and third language acquisition. They define **"the term *bilingual* for users of two languages and *multilingual* for three or more"** (De Groot, 2011, as cited in Cenoz, 2013a, p.7). Sometimes, third language acquisition is used as a synonym for *multilingualism*, but multilingualism is a more general term. Third language acquisition can be seen as a specific aspect of multilingualism. Bilingualism or tri-lingualism are examples of multilingualism (Cenoz, 2013a).

In spite of the differences, bilingualism and multilingualism share certain similarities. One of the similarities of these terms is that bilingualism and multilingualism are individual and societal phenomena (Cenoz, 2013a). In this reflective article, I use multilingualism as a generic term including bilingualism. First of all, regarding to an individual phenomenon, multilingualism is taken into account as the abilities of individuals, or the use of languages in society, the proficiency level in different languages and code-switching (Cenoz, 2013a; Yim & Bialystok, 2012). "Code-switching is the most distinctive behaviour of the bilingual speaker" (LiWei &Wu, 2009, as cited in Cenoz, 2013b, p.80). Nonetheless, Myers-Scotton (1993, as cited in Yim & Bialystok, 2012) claim that "code-switching is driven by both linguistic and social factors" (p.873). Obviously, "individual and societal multilingualism are not completely separated" (Cenoz, 2013a, p. 6). Individual living in a multilingual society is believed to be able to speak and understand more than one language (Cenoz, 2013a). There are several factors that make a contribution to the visibility of multilingualism, such as globalization, input, language status, family language use, transnational mobility of the population, community support including schooling, and the spread of new technologies (Cenoz, 2013a; Pearson, 2007). Of those, the roles of parental input and siblings affecting the language environment in bilingual families are discussed thoroughly by some researchers (e.g. De Houwer, 2007; MacLeod et al., 2013; Obied, 2009; Quiroz, Snow, & Zhao, 2010). Family members make the language choices of bilingual children in 'everyday social practices' (Obied, 2009). De Houwer (2007) reports that the differences parental language input patterns used in a bilingual home related to differences in the use of children's minority language. For example, it is likely to be lower frequency of input for the minority language if both parents often use the majority language. Besides, older siblings might play a role as the mediator of both languages at home, and support the emerging bi-literacy of the younger sibling (Obied, 2009).

Research method

Given the research gap on this topic, the primary methodological framework relies on the literature review to orient on theoretical perspectives and insights. The cross-disciplinary literature has been reviewed to explore the history, socio-cultural dimensions and more on. An identity approach as coupled with a case study to second language learning has been employed, so that a set of inquiry and analysis have been used to build the concept of identity for bilingual/multilingual ESL teachers of Kazakh ethnicity in Bayan-Ulgei aimag, Mongolia. The ethnic background of ESL Kazakh teachers has been complemented with ethnographic observation and individual life experience to respond to a research topic.

Discussion

a/ Socio-linguistic profile on bilingual/multilingual ethnic Kazakh ESL teachers in Mongolia

Being sandwiched between two powerful nations, PRC and the Russian Federation, Mongolia has unique socio-cultural features and profiles including the second largest ethnic

minority group -Kazakh. For time immemorial the northern steppe and semi-desert areas of Central Asia have been a site of migrations and settlement of many different ethnic groups. The historical background claims that Kazakhs settled in the mountainous region of western Mongolia between the 1860s and the 1940s after fleeing internal conflict in Kazakhstan between 1860s and 1940s (Werner & Barcus, 2015). Despite their small population size and compared to Kazakhstan as the country of ethnic origin, Mongolia's Kazakhs have amazingly maintained their distinct culture, religion, customs, identity, values and most importantly the language. Still, Kazakh serves as the language of instruction on all rural schools and several Kazakh-language schools are available in Ulgei, the centre of province. Thus, local community speak Kazakh as their mother tongue language and Mongolian as an official language. With the globalization, English language education has become the integral part of the bilingual education given its socio-economic benefits, particular case would be taken on Aisholpan, the first trained female eagle-hunter in twelve generations of her family and currently a renowned global icon at the age of 13 for her commitment to maintain the ancient culture of the minority group. As a result, Bayan-Ulgei, the country's only Muslim and Kazakh-majority province in the far west of Mongolia has seen the boom of international tourists who would like to witness the unique and remote culture. The extended commercial relations with Russian Federation through the border area can complement their Russian language competence to a larger extent.

b/ Reflection on bilingual/multilingual ethnic Kazakh ESL teachers in Mongolia: case study on self-analysis

The ethnic Kazakh ESL teachers in Mongolia can be regarded as "multilinguals" given their abilities to use several linguistic systems (including Kazakh, Mongolian, Russian and English) in everyday life. For this purpose, local teachers can employ several cultural contexts in order to present themselves with several identities such as a strict parent with the preference of minority language at home, an employee demonstrating stronger English proficiency at work place and an ethnic group representative willing to maintain their cultural identity and more on. Code-switching, therefore, is the major tool and an evidence through which the concept of bilingualism/multiculturalism is expressed. Breitborde (2009) emphasized the "role that social relationships play in patterning the use of particular linguistic codes. Much recent productive social anthropological scholarship on bilingual code switching is part of a tradition that treats the social system and social relationships only as 'background information', the main concern being the personal calculations of individuals in their language- use decisions". Numerous other identities with different roles and social factors such as informal communication with Russian traders and guiding services for international travellers in English could be expressed through their choice of language in real domains. In this regard, the geographical location has enabled an advantage for the local community, in particular the ESL teachers to diversify their household income source generation to utilize all their linguistic sources. Therefore, this view can fully be supported by the definition of Cook (1992) for multilingualism as *multi-competence* providing evidence of how multilinguals differ with a distinct of mind (e.g. VOT, word associations, cognitive flexibility) from *mono-competence*.

Having represented the Kazakh ESL teachers with my identical background in English language teaching practice, I would like to take a particular example of my childhood as a clear illustration on their multilingualism. The stronger preference of minority language of

my parents in daily conversation had strong influence towards my native language development in my pre-school years. The language choice for daily life within the family environment and with my siblings either in Mongolian or Kazakh had often forcefully been made by my parents. Actually, such strict approach could be justified by Diaz's affirmation that "growing up with two languages is indeed, an asset to children's intellectual development" (as cited in Cook, 1992, p 563). The code switching triggered by this —or which may itself trigger the redefinitions termed *situational* (or sometimes *role) switching.* The communication in Kazakh with my siblings after school largely contributed to practice indoors. This can strongly be in agreement with Obied (2009) that the role of siblings is crucial as they serve as a mediator of both languages at home. Siblings shift the balance of languages at home and build bridges to language acquisition. Nonetheless, I always wondered, even in some cases I felt some frustrations why the language functioning should have been limited indoors only to Kazakh. In terms of my Kazakh language fluency, it is developed at the level of oracy and receptive skills. That means I have always been restricted to the productive use of the language in real domains due to my poor language skills, the thirst of resources and inaccessibility to media exposures in minority language. Thus, the frequent code-switching between Kazakh and Mongolian has often been witnessed in mid-speech. From the practice of Kazakh community, currently I have fully realized how much rigorous efforts like my parents have contributed to the restoration as well as the maintenance of unique cultural identity and language in order to proudly declare oneself as "Kazakh" for generations.

Moreover, Byers-Heinlein (2012)'s observation reveals that children are capable to acquire a language of their environment and furthermore this capacity is extended not only to monolingual but also to bilingual acquisition. However, this cannot be contradicted with the argument by Grosjean that the poorly developed first language skills have negative impact due to the exposure to the second language (as cited in Al-Amri, 2013, p. 5). Even though my frequent code-switching in my speaking of Kazakh annoy some of my friends or elders from the minority group, I feel convenient or take an advantage from being as a multilingual as far as I deliver my messages successfully for efficient communication. This can clearly be illustrated how the difference of living environment either amongst the mainstream social groups or local ethnic community brings distinct impact. The exposure of outdoor social domains, in particular the schooling environment of the mainstream society powerfully enabled me to open up myself to a greater extent in a majority language meaning that both my receptive and productive skills in Mongolian as a bilingual was keeping pace with monolingual peers while the native or first language was lagging behind. This could partially be supported by the study on how children's receptive vocabulary development is influenced by the exposure to the majority and minority language (Macleod, Smith, Boegner-Page & Fontolliet, 2013).

Russian as the first foreign language during the Soviet times was formerly the only compulsory foreign language subject at secondary education. The imagination of overseas experiences for many local Kazakh teachers were developed through mass media such as Russian TV channels. Out of my curiosity on what age could be the most appropriate in order to develop necessary competence level in a foreign language, the study on the multi-competence of early and late beginners of foreign language and the interaction of achievement in their L1 and L2 (Djigunovic, 2010) is central to the literature review here. The findings of the study have favoured my own assumptions that unless there is a longer exposure to L2

regardless of what age to start the foreign language acquisition, the competence level in their two languages would fail in development to allow productive interactions. In addition to this point, Cook corroborates that these two systems are not developed as separately, instead they build a new knowledge, "a kind of language super system" (as cited in Djigunovic, 2010, p. 306). Due to the emergence of socio-economic reform in Mongolia, the Russian language was over-shadowed by the pre-eminence of English as an international language within two decades establishing its rule of communication and criteria at the labour market. The need for the capacity development to steer one's way and communicate in diverse linguistic and cultural worlds is becoming increasingly important (as cited in O'Neill, 2013, p 387). To this extent, local Kazakh ESL teachers have had strong inspiration of developing higher proficiency in English and the boost of local tourism has complemented their multilingual experience further. This can be witnessed from the increasing number of applications for overseas education opportunities and the recognition of their ethnic Kazakh identity in response to globalization (excerpted from my personal conversation with a local English teacher who is currently in Melbourne, Australia for master's study in Educational Leadership).

Conclusion

In sum, there are many debates on the definition of bilingualism and multilingualism; I assert that both terms share the characteristics of being an individual and societal phenomenon. Briefly, ***multilingualism is an individual/social phenomenon in which multilinguals use more than two languages in their daily life***. Plus, it demonstrates how the linguistic choices in given domains effectively present one's "identity of multilingual" as clearly illustrated on my personal case study given my representation of Kazakh ethnic minority group in Mongolia. With regards to the limited research efforts on Kazakh minority ESL teachers of Mongolia, in particular their identity and language aspects my personal case study as an English teacher with a decade over experience has been the main reason to build up my research frame. The analysis further supports how it could enable an individual to assist in maintaining one's minority language in such globally inter-connected diverse cultures. This frame of study and research endeavour will furthermore be extended from comparative analysis approach.

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EUPHEMISMS IN AMERICAN AND MONGOLIAN OBITUARIES

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Abstract

This study aims to analyse obituaries in American and Mongolian newspapers in regard to structure, content, and death euphemisms, and to explore cultural values and changes across two cultures. Twenty obituaries were selected for analysis from The New York Times (American) and the Daily News (Mongolian) due to their national rankings and popularity. Results of the study show interesting cultural and linguistic insights and some changes. Despite some similarities, content and language of the obituaries in two cultures depict dramatic differences including heavy emphasis on family devotion, community involvement, personal interests and hobbies in American culture with dominant euphemisms that conceptualized death as a journey and joyful life whereas career devotion, prestige, and endeavours in Mongolian culture with euphemisms that conceptualized death as a loss and a rest. Due to the underlying differences in the nature of obituaries in both cultures, it is suggested that obituary in the US serves more as a formal medium of announcing someone's death while Mongolian obituary serves more as a platform to pay tribute and express condolence on behalf of the people of the country.

Introduction

Every society has taboos that people avoid to bring up in public because they cause discomfort, embarrassment, trauma, and many other negative feelings both for a speaker and a listener. Death is taboo in both American and Mongolian cultures, and people use euphemisms for many cultural and religious reasons such as believing if we use other words than death the healing process after losing a loved one becomes more bearable. Even though it has been claimed that death euphemisms are frequently used in America, and there are many death euphemisms new and old, there is little known what kind of death euphemisms are more dominantly used and why in these days. Obituaries in newspapers in America have a long history and are believed to be a grounding base to provide rich cultural insights into death and related language. Thus, this study aims to analyse obituaries in American and Mongolian newspapers in regard to how they are constructed, how they are written, and to explore cultural values and changes across two cultures.

Literature review

Euphemisms came into existence centuries ago to meet the need to replace harsh, impolite, vulgar, or blunt language and/or to somehow make forbidden topics discussable (Gustaffson, 2007). Its primary social function has long been to make bad language sound polite and sweet and coexists with a growing social function to deceive people and conceal the true essence of talk usually in politics, business, and environmental field (Gladney & Rittenberg, 2005 as cited in Gustaffson, 2007). Euphemisms have been called as euphemistic expressions, metaphors, idioms, idiomatic expressions, figurative expressions with no clear cut. It is assumed that perhaps it is due to the fact that majority of English euphemisms are metaphors or have figurative meanings.

Proliferation of death euphemisms in American society dates back to early days with a peak in Victorian times. Thus it's not surprising that English is rich in death euphemisms. To give an idea of the number and variety of ways in which English-speaking people have been able to suggest without naming death, dying, and burial, Pound (1936) collected around 400 death euphemisms from the 19th to 20th century mostly from oral sources, sermons, conversations, and occasionally from newspapers and books. Unsurprisingly, with heavy religious influence and over-sentimentalization of the Victorian era, the majority of the euphemisms found were highly poetic and sentimental metaphors which conceptualize death as sleep and rest, and departure, setting out and return. Findings from Fernandez (2006) also support the claim; apart from the most common metaphors conceptualized death as journey, found in the Victorian obituaries, the second most common were those, which conceptualized death as a loss.

It has been often claimed that death euphemisms are still prevalent in modern American society. However, some studies (Durkin, 2003; Gustaffson, 2007; Kidd, 2011; Hojati, 2010; Hume& Bressers, 2009) suggested that America is becoming less and less death-resistant society, thus death euphemisms are less frequently used. A study (Gustafsson, 2007) which compared the frequency of common euphemisms including *pass away, fade away, perish, deceased, demise, the departed* and direct word *die* in books and radios across British and American English, *die* was found to be more commonly used than any euphemisms analyzed and found equally common in both American and British radios, but more frequent in American books than British ones. This result was further supported by Kidd (2011) who suggested that modern Americans have become more or less comfortable dealing with death and dying at least linguistically when 226 instances of direct mentioning of *die* were found after 228 instances of *pass away* in 700 modern obituaries. Among the euphemisms related to economy, poverty, disability, sex, and military in media analyzed by Hojati (2010), death euphemisms was the least used. This possible change that Americans are becoming more acceptable of death in modern American society especially among youth could be attributed to the massive exposure of death and dying in popular culture such as print media, music, television as argued by Durkin (2003).

Associated with showing tribute to the deceased, sharing the grief for the living ones, and letting people in community know, public announcement of someone's death through newspapers has been deeply engrained in American culture. Regardless of status, newspapers have published obituaries usually written by staff (both paid and unpaid) and death notices (paid) for long time. Despite the similar goal to announce death, obituary and death notices have always been like "distant cousins" (McDonald, as cited in Kidd, 2011 p. 16). Only obituaries written by journalists and staff about elites whose lives and death matter in public sphere are regarded as news while death notices usually written by family and associates of the deceased are seen as a source of income for print media industry (Kidd, 2011; McNeill, 2005 as cited in Hess, 2015).

Local newspapers particularly play such important roles in death announcement and they are seen as important to the community as getting real news. From the following interview extracts by Hess (2015), it is clear that local papers serve as a formal means to legitimize someone's death as well as a platform for ritual practices: "You just don't think about it. It's just what you do. You put a notice in the local paper… Everyone does… especially if it's a death" (35-year old female reader); "…even though I don't read the paper, I would put a death notice if a family member dies. People who are close to you, they are going

to find out anyway, because you will call them but people outside your immediate social circle – the newspaper is the way you let them know" (58-year-old female non-reader).

Since obituaries and death notices in American newspapers are an integral part of their culture and a grounding base for death euphemisms, a good number of studies, most of which are cross-cultural comparative and historical studies, have analyzed them in regards to the discourse, content, and death-denying language. According to Hume and Bressers (2009) who analyzed more than 8000 obituaries from 1818-1930, form and content of newspaper obituaries have been remarkably consistent for generations revolving around the four main framing categories: name and occupation of the deceased, cause of death, personal attributes of the deceased, and funeral arrangements. In spite of the consistent framing, changing cultural values have resulted in some changes in content. There has been an increase in number of obituaries for female deceased associated with growing public roles of women from almost exclusive obituaries for white elite men though the underrepresented images of the poor, the disabled, African Americans, children in obituaries still remain much unchanged. Obituaries in that timeframe were found to be heavily affected by religion and over-sentimentalization, thus the majority of the euphemisms were characterized as overly poetic, connotative, and emotional (Fernandez, 2006; Hume & Bressers, 2009).

Following in their footsteps, Kidd (2011) examined more closely how the basic four framing and other important components have been represented in the 21st century analyzing 700 obituaries from dominant newspapers in 13 states. The changes in the basic four framing in this study from the early days of obituaries were observed in mentioning of name and occupation, cause of death, and personal attributes; Besides the direct mentioning of the deceased's name all the time, names of certain relatives of the deceased and his/her role in family life (father/son of…) were found in 97% of the obituaries. The fact that 22% (both specific and unspecific) of the total obituaries mentioned a cause of death these days, most of which were with unspecific expressions including short illness, lengthy illness, old age, decline in health, or natural causes, shows a significant change in modern obituaries. Description of family love and values in family roles with the personal attributes as good husband or father, beloved wife, devoted mother in the 19th and 20th century obituaries has dramatically increased in modern obituaries with top five adjectives - *beloved, loving, loyal, devoted, and dear*. One interesting point to note is valued personality traits of honesty, industry, generosity, kindness, and religious piety in the 19th and 20th centuries were found relatively common in modern day obituaries with adjectives *good-natured, optimistic, dedicated, committed, brave, and hard-working* together what qualities being *funny, happy, witty, and beautiful,* traits were not valued and presented in earlier obituaries. More than 500 mentions in the present-day obituaries were about all kinds of interests, recreational pursuits and hobbies of the deceased also indicates more frequent inclusion of life stories of the deceased. Linguistically, euphemisms found in the 21st century obituaries had some commonalities with the earlier obituaries in the sense that dominant euphemisms were still associated with euphemisms that conceptualize death as a journey. However, a significant difference would be a growing use of direct word *die,* which suggests some change in acceptance and dealing with death in modern American society.

Method

To answer the research question of this study "What are similarities and differences between obituaries in American and Mongolian newspapers in terms of structure, content, and euphemism, and how they have been affected by cultural values of each country?", 20

obituaries were selected for analysis. The New York Times (American) and the Daily News (Mongolian) were selected because of their top ranking and popularity. Depending on newspapers, some newspapers in America differentiate obituaries (written by newspaper staff) and death notices (paid announcements) and some do not and publish them all as obituaries. The New York Times publishes obituaries, which are very lengthy, staff-written news, and paid death notices in various sizes under Deaths section. Following other studies (e.g., Kidd, 2011; Hume, 2009), obituary was defined in this study as paid death announcements that include short biography of the deceased and funeral arrangements. For this reason, death notices in the New York Times were selected and referred as obituaries. This differentiation did not pose a problem for obituaries in Mongolian newspapers as they are unpaid and written by newspaper staff and it is very uncommon for Mongolians to put a death notice in newspapers.

Results and discussion

The findings from the 20 sample obituaries in American and Mongolian newspapers were compared in terms of discourse, content, and euphemism.

In regard to the discourse, US obituaries begin with announcement of death (facts), followed by short biography, and end with funeral arrangements, all written as one text regardless of their length. Whereas, Mongolian lengthy obituaries are written like a 5-paragraph essay, which has a headline, announcement of death, early life and education, career, accomplishments and awards, a conclusion, and a closing remark. In both cultures, obituaries vary in size, but tend to be rather short if the socioeconomic status of the family of the deceased is low to afford a high cost of the print (in the US) and if they are written by the deceased' colleagues and associates who may not know much about personal life of the deceased.

In terms of the content, obituaries show dramatic differences with little to share. In the death announcement section of the obituaries, only commonality was found when almost every single US obituary mentions the exact date of someone's death while 60% of the Mongolian obituaries do so. One significant dissimilarity is the popularity of mentioning the deceased's age in American culture with 60% of direct mention and 40% providing some sort of information such as date of birth or year of birth and death, whereas only 30% in Mongolian obituaries include it. The finding is in line with Kidd's (2011) where the age of death was almost exclusively mentioned in obituaries, with 48% supplementary information on birth date or year. The reason why it is not so frequent in Mongolian obituaries could be associated with the fact that the date of birth or age of the deceased's may not have been publicly accessible or known or intentionally avoided as many people (especially women) superstitiously believe that telling exact age to someone shortens their lifetime. Another major difference is very frequent inclusion of cause of death in Mongolian obituaries (80%) but not so high in American obituaries (30%). This finding is again similar to Kidd's (2011) who found 22% inclusion in 700 obituaries. It is also clear that both cultures in general favor a brief and unspecific cause of death such as "cancer", "Alzheimer's", "sudden death", "prolonged illness" and so on. It could be so because death is taboo and there could be many different reasons of death (accident, murder, shooting, alcoholism, drug, and so on.) that the society does not approve much. It is interesting to note that in both cultures, at times medical causes of death such as cancer or Alzheimer's tend to be revealed more descriptively "…passed away after a valiant battle against cancer" or "…after a 15 year bout with Alzheimer's." I assume it is so because some deceases are incurable or extremely hard to get over, and that the fact the deceased did indeed fight against the terrible illness is heroic that

makes it worth mentioning in obituaries. Another piece of information that is completely missing in Mongolian obituaries, but with 50% appearance in American obituaries is the place of death. However, this could also be declining in American obituaries if we look at a big picture - 24% of the instances in 700 obituaries (Kidd, 2011).

How the deceased is addressed in obituaries reveals very interesting cultural values. It is very typical in American obituaries to address the deceased as "a beloved husband/wife/grandfather/son…" to show family devotion and love and their roles in family while Mongolian obituaries address them always by their title and/or occupation followed by first name and last name. In relation to family, the list of family and extended family members' names as well as the names of the predeceased of the deceased in American obituaries (90%) is something we do not see in Mongolian obituaries at all. There is no way of knowing in Mongolian obituaries about the family life of the deceased. It is not even mentioned if the deceased is married or not, which occurs often in American obituaries even with a deliberate mention of the long-lasting marriage (40%). It together suggests that American culture values family relationship and love, and Americans want to remember the deceased as who they were rather than what they did. It could also relate to the primary purpose of obituaries in newspapers – a formal medium of communication. Perhaps family members' names in the obituaries allow people outside family circle read it and join the funeral services. On the contrary, the absence of family life details in Mongolian obituaries can be attributed to several factors. First, it is a clear indication of what Mongolians value most in people: prestige and 'good name' over family devotion. Traditionally, from a very young age, Mongolians have been taught to live well and die with a "good name", meaning that ruining your name and bringing a shame on family is the worst thing that can ever happen to your life. Thus, it is not surprising that the obituaries place heavy emphasis on the deceased's career and endeavours to show them to the public what a great role model/or an honoured citizen they were. Second, obituaries are very exclusive for VIPs, celebrities, and prominent figures in Mongolia. Thus addressing those important, well-known people by titles in obituaries is one way to pay tribute and take pride in them. Third, since obituaries are mostly written by newspaper staff and journalists, they lack insider perspective and do not very well know how devoted father/mother/husband…the deceased was. Even if in reality, we have heard unpleasant personal qualities or family life of the deceased, journalists would not include a tiny bit of it because the deceased must be remembered for "good things" only because they are VIPs. It again strongly indicates how prestige and an image of a "good person" are prioritized over family in Mongolian culture.

Another significant cultural value comes from the biography of the deceased. Two features found in common in both cultures include equal mentioning of the deceased' place of birth (50%), which I believe is there to illustrate a beginning of life cycle in both cultures, and mentioning of higher education (30-40%), which indicates both societies see the pursuit of higher education more important than high schools. Referring to the parents' names of the deceased seems common (50%) in the US and finding no trace of it in Mongolian obituaries was somewhat surprising. However, not mentioning names of the predeceased could relate to the fact that saying the name of a person after they die is often forbidden. Two striking differences are observed as well: employment and community involvement. The former is addressed in very details especially in Mongolian obituaries describing all the important jobs/positions the deceased had along with their significant accomplishment and contributions. The emphasis is further placed heavily on awards detailing when and what the deceased was awarded for. On the other hand, American obituaries (60%) describe much

about the community involvement of the deceased besides a short description of employment, highlighting memberships, affiliations, philanthropic activities, and volunteering. This trend was also highlighted in Kidd's (2011) study: very common inclusion of community involvement particularly 47% of church memberships and other religious affiliations but not much involvement in political activities or affiliations. Together, this clearly shows involvement and contribution to the community is an integral part of American culture and it is something they take pride in. On the contrary, it is not culturally valued in Mongolia.

The last point to make with respect to the content relates to the concluding part - funeral arrangements. Seventy percent of the American obituaries are concluded with information on date and venue of the funeral service and preference of flowers and donations. It is attributed to the purpose of the obituaries in newspapers, which is to let people know of the funeral event. However, owing to the nature of very different funeral rituals and religious belief, Mongolian obituaries do not have this information at all. In Mongolia where death is still very strict taboo, and families and relatives mourn and grieve for long, people in general are uncomfortable with huge gathering. Thus there is no immediate need to let other people than family, relatives, and colleagues know.

With regard to the use of euphemisms in obituaries, both cultures dominantly use euphemisms, but to my surprise, not many. It is also found that each culture uses differently conceptualized death euphemisms. 'Pass away' is the dominant euphemism (60-80%) in both cultures, and the prevalent use of this euphemism was also found in Kidd's (2011) study of 700 modern obituaries and Holder's (2008 as cited in Jaekova, 2010) finding of common euphemisms today. It is surprising that 'pass away', whose origin dates back to the 14th century (Kidd, 2011), is still in common use today. Unlike Mongolian obituaries with no direct mention of *die* and any other means to avoid *die,* 20% of the American obituaries directly mention die and another 20% did not mention the death at all. It could indicate the change in American culture that it is becoming more acceptable of death in public at least linguistically (Kidd, 2011). In previous studies, death euphemisms used in obituaries were typically analyzed according to Lakoff's Conceptual Theory (Kidd, 2011) which conceptualized death as a journey, death as a joyful life, death as a rest, death as a reward, death as the end, and death as a loss. Under this theory, it's assumed that American obituaries these days tend to use euphemisms conceptualizing death as a journey and joyful life rather than a loss, which was the second most common euphemism in the 19th and 20th century obituaries, while Mongolian obituaries seem to be still using euphemisms conceptualized as a journey (pass away, go to God/heaven), death as a loss "…saddened by the great loss" (30%), and death as a rest "rest in peace/Earth" (20%). It all could suggest that Americans these days seem to see death as natural process human beings go through more from positive perspective whereas Mongolians seem to have accepted death as inevitable yet mournful.

Conclusion and Implications

Results from the sample obituaries in American and Mongolian newspapers show interesting cultural and linguistic insights and some changes in American obituaries during the past two centuries. Significant changes observed in American obituaries include a transition from career-focused to more family-focused and community-centered obituaries and from overtly sentimental, poetic euphemistic metaphors to more universal metaphors that conceptualized death as a journey and joyful life. Despite some similarities, content and language of the obituaries in two cultures depict dramatic differences including heavy

emphasis on family devotion, community involvement, personal interests and hobbies in American culture with dominant euphemisms that conceptualized death from positive perspectives versus career devotion, prestige, significant contributions with a wider range of euphemisms that conceptualized death as a journey, a loss, and a rest. Due to the underlying differences in the nature of obituaries in both cultures, one serves more as a formal medium of announcing someone's death whereas the other serves more as a platform to pay tribute and express condolence on behalf of the people of the country. It might be good for future researchers to look at obituaries in both national and local newspapers and see if the changes observed in previous studies are truly generalizable or different as majority of the previous studies looked at obituaries at national newspapers. It could also be useful to provide better understanding on what is really going on if future researchers analyze obituaries written by family and obituaries written by associates/colleagues of the deceased respectively as well as obituaries written for woman or man as the addressee, addresser, gender, and context affect our choice of language, style, or dialect (Holmes, 2008). It may also be interesting to research death-denying language or euphemisms in other types of media such as news bulletins and articles/news that involve death, tragedy and compare how this linguistic feature is presented and what seems to mostly affect that change.

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THE CURRENT STATUS OF TEACHING ACADEMIC ENGLISH FOR ESL LEARNERS

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Introduction

This article discusses the background of Academic English learners in National University of Mongolia (NUM). An overview of the country's English language planning policy and governmental English language projects since 1990 will be provided. Also, it includes the ways on improving Academic English education for students who first enter to NUM and how they are well prepared for learning it. Finally, the article shows the surveys of learning Academic English from the English for Academic Success series such as College Reading-1, College Oral Communication-1, and, College Writing-1.

Key words: placement test, Academic English, reading, writing, oral communication, education, vocabulary, secondary school

I.   Academic English Learners' General Background Knowledge

As English was rarely studied in Mongolia previously, teachers were virtually non-existent when English began to spread throughout the country after the democratic revolution. Before 1990, the study of English was strictly confined to the select few students in the National University of Mongolia's (NUM's) interpreter class, and qualified teachers of the language numbered less than a dozen. The Education Ministry therefore concluded that in order to overcome the pressing lack of English teachers, a large-scale program to retain former Russian teachers needed to be undertaken.   According to Khamsi and Stolpe, "The National Policy on Teaching Foreign Languages of 1995 officially stated that students entering fifth grade of a public state school had the choice to study English or Russian" [2, p.28-29]. Students were then required to study their chosen language for six years for a total of 655 hours (National Policy on Teaching Foreign Languages, 2). As soon as the policy was implemented, students overwhelmingly chose to study English, thereby forcing the government to increase the number of English teachers at the secondary level, and increase the number of English teachers at the secondary level, and increase the percentage of English classes as compared to Russian to almost two to one. The number of English students further burgeoned as a result, according to parents across the country; English became the most important subject for students to master. Now Foreign Language Center (FLC) of NUM has been teaching Academic English since 2013. Academic English is highly encouraged as part of students' studies.

The FLC of NUM use Placement Test in Academic English to check the academic skill levels of entering students. Then the university can place each student in classes at the right level. The placement test measure the skills students have already learned in high school, so taking it doesn't require much preparation. When a student gets a score of above 70, the student will study the right level class (Upper-intermediate and Intermediate level) based on his or her test result. If a student gets score of below 70 the student will study Pre-intermediate or Elementary levels of Academic English.

About 70 percent of students who are going to study Academic English in NUM are for Pre-Intermediate and Elementary levels. And the rest of them are for Intermediate and Upper-Intermediate levels. The problem is most of them are not well prepared for learning Academic English. Thus, many students are taking lower-level Academic English classes. Is it because of their secondary school English education? Many of NUM entrants are from rural areas. Rural secondary schools lack English teachers and in some remote areas there are even no English classes on account of this problem. Some good teachers in rural secondary schools have moved in to urban secondary schools with high wages and they also want to improve their English education. In Ulaanbaatar or other cities like Darkhan and Erdenet there are a lot of private secondary schools. That means there are a lot of good English teachers and native English-speaking teachers so that students are well prepared or be ready for learning Academic English. Private secondary school students study English intensively for enough hours per week in a pleasant and comfortable environment, and it is possible that they are involved in any English clubs within their school.

Figure 1. Graphics through years on levels of Academic English learners in the first semester
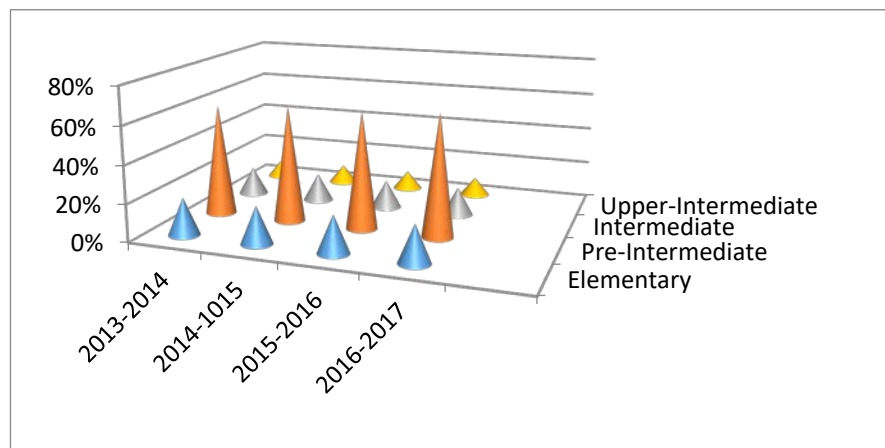
II.   **Getting ready for university? What do English Language Learners need to know?**

Dr. Frances Contreras suggests that, "Teachers have to tell students that they can achieve and they can overcome language barriers, and then help them start thinking about and preparing for college very early" [4, people.uwplatt.edu.com.2012]. Being hopeful and bringing a positive message goes a long way. The most important thing is to believe that students can achieve, and try to reinforce what is possible instead of what isn't.

For improving students' Academic English background we need the following approaches:

- English must be highly encouraged as part of students' secondary school studies
- For secondary school students, they need to be prepared for learning Academic English
- Secondary school students must learn skills through English. This helps students to better understand lectures, participate in seminars and tutorials, and research and write academic reports and essays.

- Teachers focus on developing vocabulary in these key knowledge areas, and on providing students with the functional language they will need to engage successfully with university-level study. There is a strong focus on the grammar required in academic English, helping students to understand and produce appropriate language in this difficult area.
- Secondary school students' courses teach English with 4 skills required. (listening, speaking, writing and reading) – **For oral communication and listening class**, students could listen and take notes from mini academic lectures for their listening activities and they need role-playing for speaking. **For writing class**, students need to be effective writers. Prewriting technique produces raw, often unusable material, but helps writers overcome blocks of apathy and self-criticism. Also, they can make outline before writing and its helps them to organize what they are going to write. **For reading class**, it is important to get students ready to read. If teachers don't prepare them for what they will find between the pages, their comprehension will decrease and their stress will increase. But as important as it is to do activities before reading, it is also important to do follow-up activities with their students. Follow activities give students a chance to check comprehension, review important, and extend their reading activities.
- Students must learn to succeed in academic exams such has TOEFL and IELTS.
- The most important is that students need to learn how to speak, write, and understand academic English more confidently.

According to an internet article, Susan Lafond explains that, "Academic English and Skills for secondary school students offers training in the key skills needed for students to study abroad and to achieve success in university level study in English" [1, adlit.org, 2008].

### III.   The Survey on Learning Academic English

For NUM students, from our Foreign Language Center (FLC) we are now using English for Academic Success series for teaching Academic English. The FLC of NUM has been using these college series since 2013. We consider that these series are really helpful for the students' Academic English education. When we taught General English to students, it was not really effective to them. But when we started teaching Academic English, they are really interested in studying it. It has three-level classes including from Pre-Intermediate to Upper-Intermediate. Each level has Listening and Speaking, Reading and Vocabulary, and Writing and Grammar sessions that complement each other through parallel topics and features.

Here we conducted a survey among some of the students in NUM who are studying the course Academic English-1 which includes College Reading 1, College Writing 1, and Oral Communication 1.

College Reading 1 focuses on the development of reading skills and general background knowledge necessary for university study. The reading books are dedicated to meeting the academic needs of ESL student by teaching them how to handle reading demands and expectations of freshmen-level classes. Because of the importance of academic vocabulary in both written and spoken forms, the Reading strand features attention to high-frequency academic words found across disciplines.

We have surveyed 80 first-year students who are learning College Reading-1 with their ability to understand the main idea and supporting details of the context and the ability to complete the tasks related to the reading selections and with the teaching skills from the instructors.

Figure 2. How do you think of the Reading book 1?
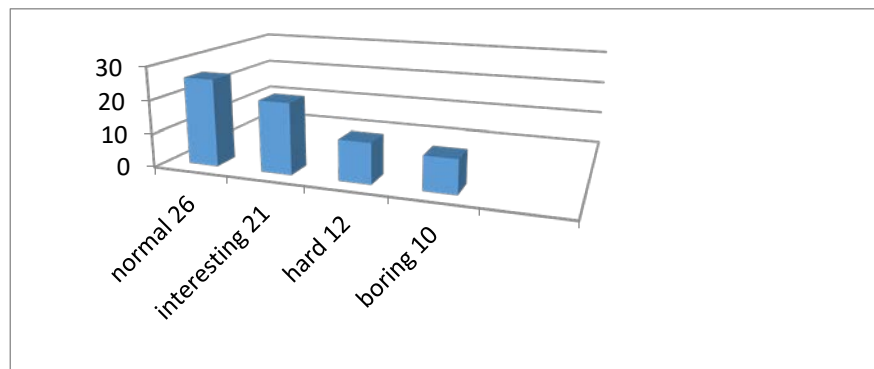
**Figure 3. What is the difficult aspect of reading a passage in English?**
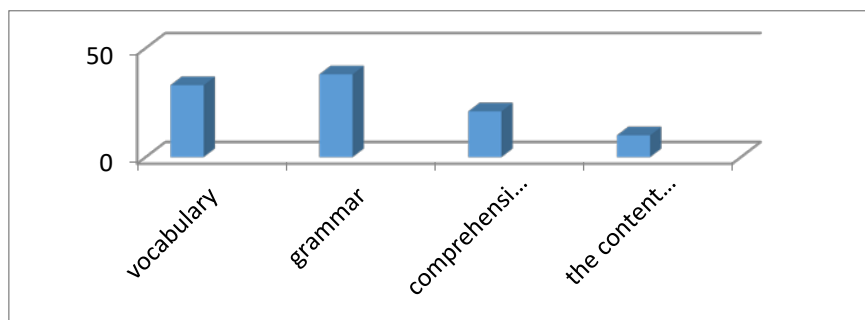
These charts show that students likely to use the reading and speaking skills more of four main ones. They think that the textbook they use for academic purpose is not that hard but admissive and interesting. Also, they define their purpose to develop their knowledge obtaining the information from the variety of disciplines. They use dictionaries to look up the unfamiliar words memorizing them and they prefer to translate the passages into their mother language after reading to the other methods to understand. In the survey, they answered that they will achieve their ambition by reading various reading selections improving their vocabulary in order to increase their reading skill. The learners have considered that vocabulary and grammar are the main difficulties when reading passages in English.

College Writing 1 prepares ESL students for academic written work, particularly in the first two years of study. Many ESL students have learned English mostly through their ears; others have studied English primarily with their eyes. Each group has unique written-language problems. The writing textbooks of the course prepare students for the range of writing tasks assigned in college courses, and the solid scaffolding of skills focus on "college culture" as well as on academic writing. Students develop their writing skills by learning to write an academic paragraph following the several steps. We surveyed some of first-year students with their ability to write academic paragraphs and the teaching skills from the instructors.

Figure 4. How are you interested in working with the writing textbooks?
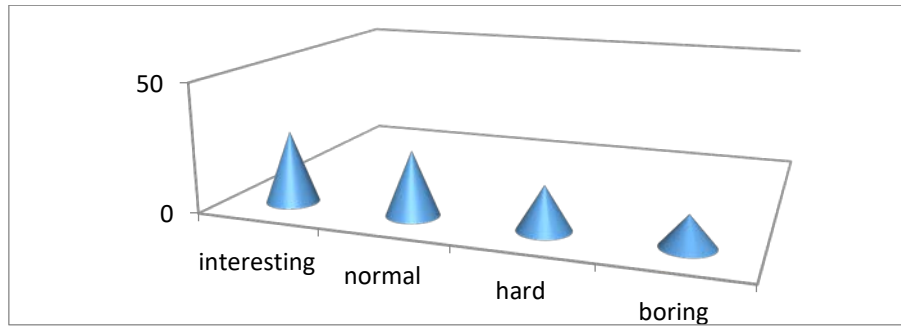
**Figure 5. Which responding technique to your writing do you like more from your instructor?**
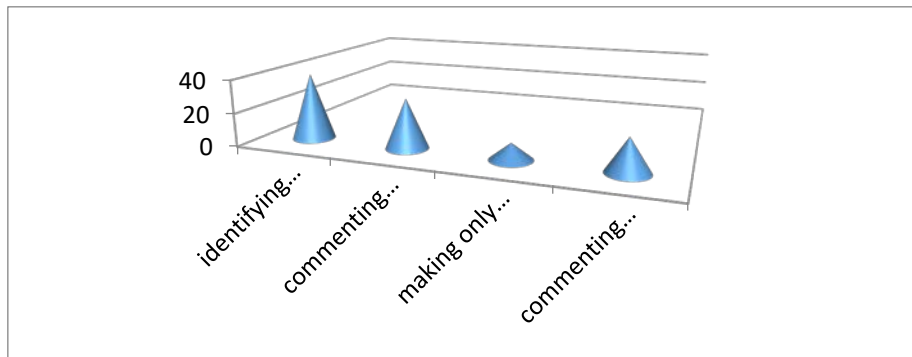
The charts above show that students want to be good at grammar and organization for writing any academic paragraph. They want to become effective writers. Teachers must provide grammar instruction that guides students in their attempts to identify and correct problems in sentence structure and usage. For example, a teacher who sees that many students are writing sentences containing misplaced modifiers can present a mini lesson on this concept, using examples from student writing. The teachers can have edit students their own and one another's drafts for this problem.

Of the three skills, students are really interested in oral communication course named Oral Communication 1 most. The course focuses on meeting academic needs of students by teaching them how to handle the spoken English used by instructors and students in college classrooms, the books provide engaging activities to practice both academic listening and academic speaking. Students learn to participate effectively in a variety of academic situations, including discussions, lectures, student study groups, and office meetings with their college instructors. Because of the importance of academic vocabulary in the spoken English of the classroom, the course teaches the students techniques for learning and using new academic vocabulary both to recognize the words when they hear them and to use the words in their won spoken English.

Finally, we conducted a survey according to the course Oral Communication 1 among the first-year students.

Figure 6. Of the following skills, which one are you required to improve?
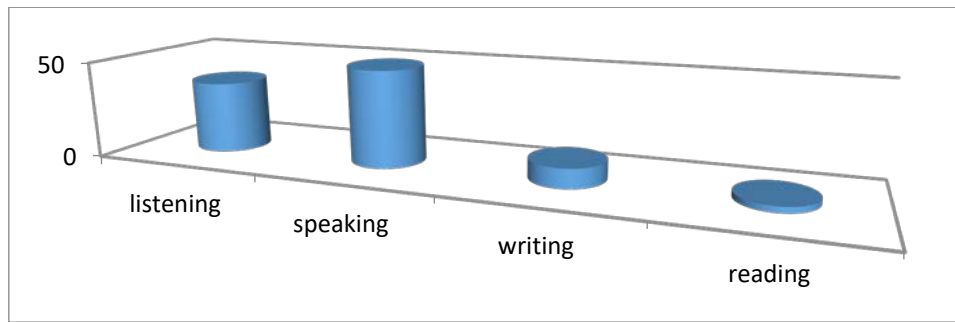
It is clear that the students desire to speak English well (87%) observing from the chart. Why they consider this skill as important is that they face oral communication difficulties when they speak English. Thus, we conducted the following survey:

Figure 7. What is your speaking ability?
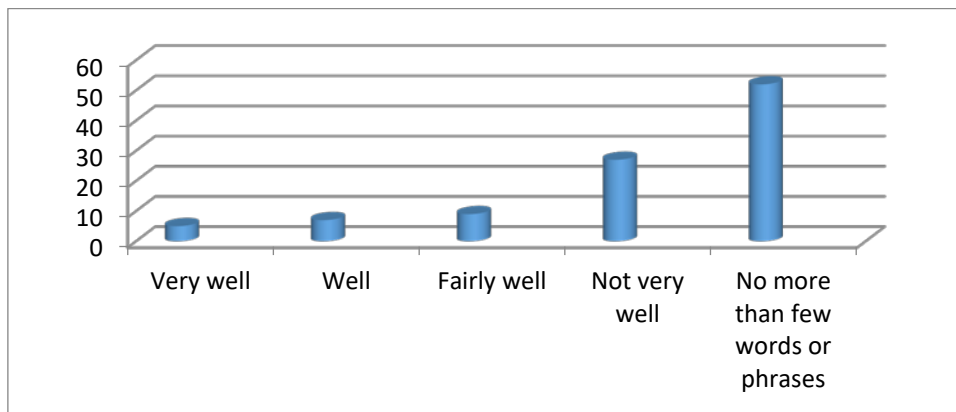
According the survey, 39 percent of the students or 21 percent of them are very well for speaking, and the rest of them or 79 percent of them are not very well.

Also, we surveyed them with their ability to listen the lectures according to the chapter topics. Listening activity is playing an important role of this course. Readings, charts, and tables engage students in the content and prepare them to listen and take notes from lectures. Note-taking strategies such as recognizing signal words for different patterns of organization, using symbols and abbreviations, and working with content vocabulary prepare students to listen and take notes from academic lectures and classroom communication.

Figure 8. Listening ability
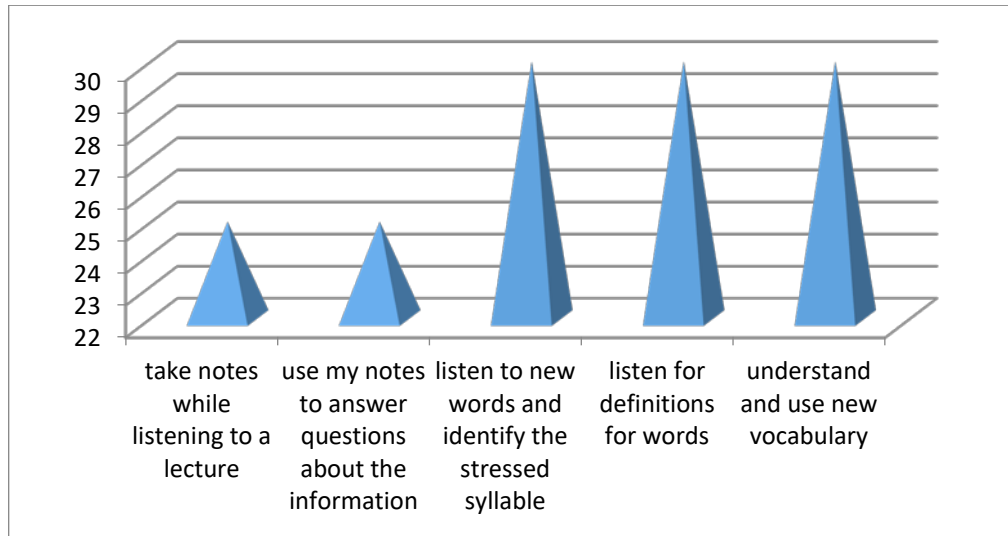
The charts show students need to practice more for speaking. But they participate in listening activity quite well. The preparation for the listening academic lecture is effective to them because the course focuses on listening activities more. Thus, we need to focus on students' speaking skill in order to increase their spoken English, meeting with them face to face, talking about each lecture and giving them advice for outside the normal school timetable. Using this technique, it is possible that we could analyze the students' speaking skill improvement after each lecture. We hope there would be certain improvement for speaking skill of the student due to the painstaking effort from a teacher and a student.

Conclusion

To conclude, secondary school students' English education must be encouraged to prepare for learning Academic English when they enter to NUM. Teachers in secondary school must look for the method that is most beneficial for all their students for teaching English through skills required. The content of the English course books used in secondary schools must have the tasks which will develop students' 4 main skills and it is required that these schools must have good learning environment. But for university students who are now learning academic English, they are interested in Academic Series they use. They must focus on more on grammar for writing and on speaking for oral communication. According to the surveys, we need to reinforce the succession of English learning between secondary schools and universities.

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IMPLEMENTING PROCESS WRITING METHOD TO IMPROVE STUDENT WRITING

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Abstract

This paper comes out of concerns about teaching English writing to Mongolian university students. We have started teaching academic writing at the university since 2011, but almost 98 percent freshmen are not able to write a paragraph through several writing process, even they have never heard about the writing process and an academic paragraph standard. Because high school English teachers have been using traditional writing method in the class which just always ask students to write a freewriting without interactive activity and writing process. Therefore, we need to educate our students with an academic writing approach which is called Process Writing in order to make effective, autonomous and master writer. Firstly, this study provides brief introduction of the Heald-Taylor's Process Writing approach and secondly, compares with the Traditional writing method to highlight the effectiveness of following the process writing in academic world. Thirdly, this paper provides the result of student feeling survey of the experiment and the findings of pro test results.

Key words: description, process writing, traditional method, comparisons, peer review,

Introduction

"I like cooking, dogs, and kids," is not the same as "I like cooking dogs and kids."(Oxford comma)

Writing skill and knowledge is very special and powerful which can change the whole world and has been a major communication tool without speaking. Writing is more creative work than other language skills and requires complex ability from the learner which can reveal the ability and potential resources. Therefore, teaching writing is a challenging task. Also, learning the process of writing is a difficult skill for students to develop and learn, especially in EFL context, where exposure to English is limited to a few hours per week. Students, learning English writing as a second or foreign language, struggle with many structural issues including selecting proper words, using correct grammar, generating ideas, and developing ideas about specific topics. More importantly, they have trouble developing functional language skills, such as proper natural language use in different social contexts and using language in creative ways. These functional language use problems are worsened because writing teachers tend to focus largely on teaching grammar, and proper language structure, and typically see students as passive writers. These factors tend to hamper students from improving their classroom interaction and keep them from developing more active learning in writing. Due to this gap between students' needs and teachers' instructional methodology, the issue becomes how teachers can help students express themselves freely and fluently to be more autonomous writers, and how teachers can help students become more successful writers of academic and workplace texts. Therefore, we suggested Process writing method which functions the basic step to write all genres of writing. If students receives the knowledge of process writing and have a habit of using this method, they can write a coherent

and comprehensive academic paragraph. Furthermore, students can develop their writing skill on their own.

This paper attempts to provide a brief description about Process writing method and a comparison with Traditional method which is still being used in high school. Finally, there will be the result of the experiment and student survey. If students have an ability to write an academic paragraph through the systematic writing process, teachers can investigate and integrate more strategies and methods in writing class afterwards.

Methodology and methods

The subjects: The study was conducted among upper- intermediate writing class first course 120 students of NUM. Students are divided into two groups: a control (1st group) group and a study (2nd group) group.

A descriptive qualitative research method was used in this study. The study was extended for a semester (1 hour a week).

<div align="center">Definition of Process Writing Method</div>

Heald-Taylor describes her method in the following way: "Process Writing" is an approach which encourages ESL youngsters to communicate their own written messages while simultaneously developing their literacy skills in speaking and reading rather than delaying involvement in the writing process, as advocated in the past, until students have perfected their abilities in handwriting, reading, phonetics, spelling, grammar, and punctuation. In Process Writing the communication of the message is paramount and therefore the developing, but inaccurate, attempts at handwriting, spelling, and grammar are accepted, know that within the process of regular writing opportunities students will gain control of these sub-skills (Heald-Taylor, 1994). These skills are further developed in individual and small group conference interviews."

Components of Process Writing:

1. Prewriting
2. Drafting/Writing
3. Revising
4. Proofreading
5. Publishing

In a process writing classroom, students write daily on a variety of topics and for a variety of purposes. In addition to compositions, students write journal entries, personal stories, brainstorms, free writing, and double entry notebooks. Writing becomes a natural extension of what students do. They are writing all the time. It is just as the part of daily practices. In a process-writing classroom, students can significantly improve, no matter what their ability. Once ELLs understand the process and trust that their teacher will accept and approve of their writing, their ability improves dramatically.

The teacher first focuses on ideas. Students' first drafts are likely to have many syntactical and grammatical errors, yet accepting the language a student uses is very important. All students should feel positive about writing.

During the revising and editing phases of the writing process, students will have time to focus on improving their sentence structure and grammar. Individual teacher conferences are also a time to work on syntactical issues. The goal is for students to gradually learn to edit and revise their own writing in order to become independent writers.

Views of writing

- Traditional classrooms take a learning a learning view in which writing must be taught directly (Freeman, 2004).

- Process Writing Classrooms take the acquisition view, that writing is a reflection of the language competence an individual has acquired. Teachers from both points of view teach writing, but their instruction differs in a number of ways.

Process Writing Instruction Compared with Traditional Writing Instruction

Goals

- Traditional Classroom-- learn how to produce good pieces of writing.

- Process Writing Classroom--produce good writing while acquiring knowledge of the writing process.

Methods

- Traditional Classroom--Begin with the parts and build up to writing a whole text.

- Process Writing Classroom-- Begin with a message and develop the skills needed to produce the message.

Role of the teacher

- Traditional Classroom--Teacher directly instructs students in how to form letters, then words, then how to combine words into sentences, and then sentences into paragraphs

- Process Writing Classroom--Teacher creates conditions for authentic written responses and then helps students express themselves in writing

Approach to correctness

- Traditional Classroom--Writing product must be conventional from the beginning. The teacher corrects each piece of writing.

- Process Writing Classroom--Writing moves naturally from invention to convention. Classmates and others, including the teacher, respond to drafts.

Implementing process writing in an academic English writing class

From the teaching experience, we have found that neither a pure traditional nor a pure process writing approach is ideal in an intensive English language setting for university bound students. In an Academic English, attention to form is paramount; however, focusing primarily on form by using the cookie-cutter traditional approach is patronizing to adult learners who have ideas of their own and need to learn to express them effectively in English. Process writing, on the other hand, allows learners to focus on ideas, form, and rhetoric, but has its own drawbacks.

Generally, we did not instruct the control group with Process writing technique and students were just writing freewriting assignments at home without any pre activity and information from the teacher's side. But in study group, we explained the method and did many pre activities in pair and in group work before writing. We conducted the following stages in our experiment process in the study group:

- In the **preparation** stage, a sample text about the given topic was presented. The students were grouped and were tasked to read the sample text and analyze its features using a set of key questions. These questions will lead them to the awareness of the text structure and will serve as their guide in writing.
- In the **joint construction** stage, the teacher introduced the graphic organizer that will help the students organize their ideas. There is a student to student and student to teacher interaction in this stage. The works were submitted for editing and evaluation of the teacher.
- In the **independent construction** stage, the students were given a topic to write about independently. Then self-checklists were given to each of them as a guide to writing.
- In the **evaluation** stage, the students rate their work using a rubric. After revising, the output will then be subjected to peer evaluation and teacher evaluation.
- The posting of the best outputs in the bulletin and in the class face book page comprise the **publishing.**

These stages were all connected and went through the above mentioned five components of process writing.

Result and findings

After the one term trial, we collected data from the students how they felt the process writing method. See the table №1

Which method was effective on your writing?
traditional method 30%
0%
0%
Process writing method 70%
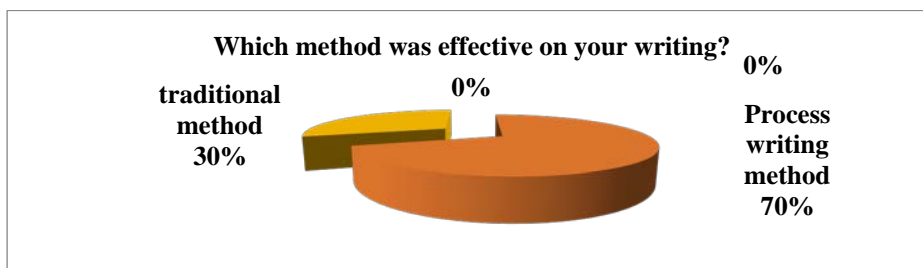
Based from the survey, it might be effective to use both methods with ratio of 30 :70 (traditional: process) in the class.

In a sixteen-week intensive English language program at the NUM, there is simply not enough time for students to do pre-writing, write five or more drafts, and have six 5-10 minute writing conferences, numerous mini grammar lessons, revise the paper, proofread it, write a final copy, and then share their composition. It is vital for instructors to be aware of learners' strengths and weaknesses in order to decide which parts of the writing process will be most beneficial at which points in a writing course.

On peer editing situation, we found that some students did not feel comfortable giving constructive criticism to a classmate. Therefore, we would like to mention three good idea for peer review:

1. First, read the piece of writing and compliment the author;

2. Next, read it again and give some suggestions;

3. Finally, read the writing a third time and make corrections in spelling, grammar and punctuation.

Finally, we gave post- test from both study and control group by asking them to write a paragraph within 30 minutes. The result is scored from100%.
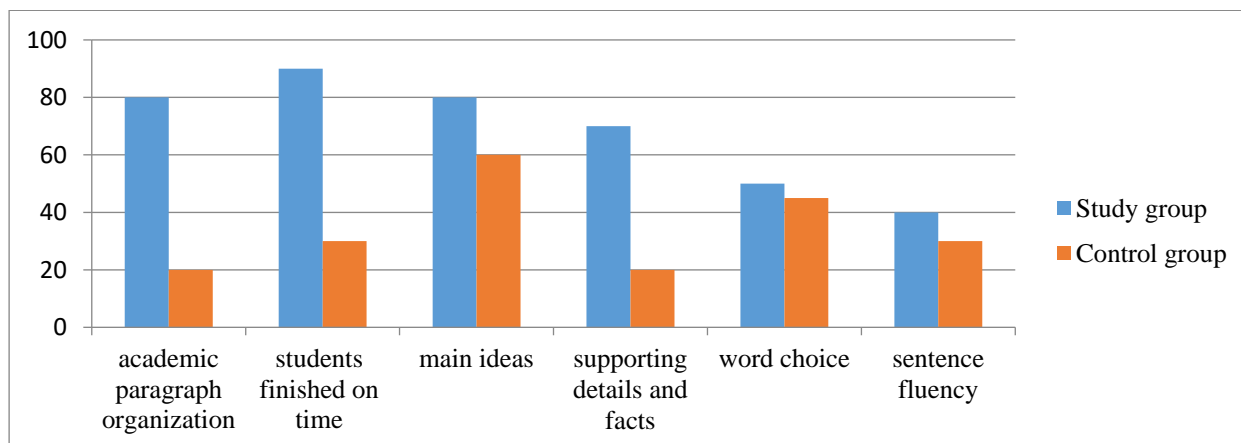
Discussion

Based from the findings in the study, the following discussions can be drawn;

1) It is possible to educate the students to follow the academic paragraph standard (graphic organizer or form - based writing) enough within one term.

2) Control group students could not handed in papers on time might depends on without having process writing techniques. The result highlighted the importance of the process writing technique saves the time

3) By using graphic organizers, it makes easy to indicate the main idea and does not go to a wrong way.

4) By discussing and working on additional information or source, it gives more chance to extend paragraph with abundant source.

5) Unfortunately, both groups word choice and sentence fluency result shows bad point. We observed that it might require quite a long time to eliminate this issue.

Conclusion

There has been observed one vital issue in the academic English writing class in Mongolian universities. Most of freshmen have no knowledge about the paragraph academic form and even how to create a coherent paragraph through the process writing. Therefore, this paper attempted to investigate the Process writing method with the Traditional method. Based from the findings in the study, the following conclusion can be drawn; the process writing lessons provided opportunities for the students to acquire an understanding of the purpose and structure of the expository writing through the processes of rewriting, drafting, revising, and editing, and to have them use that knowledge to compose a text, both as a group and individually. Also, the lessons improved the students' performances in writing expository

texts and specifically their performance in the skills of organization, sentence fluency, and voice. The result of the survey reveals that Process writing method might be beneficial and valuable to create an effective academic paragraph. The Process Writing method is an approach that has helped me to develop many students into wonderful writers in fact.

Learning to write like learning to do many things requires practice and time.

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LEARNING VOCABULARY THROUGH READING

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Abstract

Improving and developing vocabulary has always been one of the main challenges of teaching English as foreign language classes. This study investigates the possibilities of acquiring vocabulary based on context without looking up a dictionary during an academic reading class. We conducted a survey among sixty-five non-major first year students at National University of Commerce and Business. The data were collected through a questionnaire. The results showed that enabling students to understand meaning with the help of context clues is an effective approach not only to expand vocabulary but also increase reading comprehension.

Key words: Vocabulary, pre-test, post-test, context, meaning

Introduction

Many people believe that knowing a word means knowing its meaning. However, Cook (2001, p. 61) states that "a word is more than its meaning". Thornbury (2002, p.13) states that without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed. Stahl (1999, p. 15) suggests that there are four levels of word knowledge: (1) word that one never saw, (2) word that one has heard of but does not know what it means, (3) word that one recognizes in context and can explain that it has something to do with, (4) word one knows.

Learning vocabulary plays an important role in foreign language learning. According to Sarani and Kafipour (2008), although vocabulary learning is important in a foreign language learning, they found that EFL students have insufficient skills and learning strategy in vocabulary. Students would not be able to understand and recognize the whole text even if they might know the meaning of every single word if they only concentrate on the meaning of a single word not contextual meaning of the word. In general, the lack of ability to use strategy in vocabulary learning has affected students' success in foreign language learning (Laufer, 2003).

In an EFL context, where opportunities for practising English in daily life may be more limited, one of the main sources of new vocabulary is reading of English texts. Reading plays a key role in increasing learners' vocabulary, and that is according to comparisons of large corpora which showed that written texts are richer in lexis than spoken ones (Horst, 2005). It has been suggested that two activities (vocabulary learning and reading) occurring simultaneously create a 'pedagogically efficient' approach (Huckin & Coady, 1999), which could help learners achieve autonomy, motivation and pleasure to learn, while also providing them with vocabulary in context (Thornbury, 2002). We have chosen this paper for various reasons. Firstly, vocabulary is a key component in learning a new language and enriching vocabulary knowledge helps develop language skills. Secondly, learning vocabulary through reading seems to be a helpful strategy especially for EFL learners. Reading appears to be an

important source to developing learner's vocabulary. Therefore, this study aims to explore a range of issues in teaching and learning vocabulary through reading. There are many different ways to teach vocabulary and below are several principles for teaching words.

Guessing words from context is the most frequent way to discover the meaning of new words. According to Kruse (1979), Gairns and Redman (1986) to learn words in context is an effective vocabulary strategy. A word used in different contexts may have different meaning, thus, simply learning the definitions of a word without examples of where and when the word occurs will not help learners to fully understand its meaning. Context clues are hints which are found around the unfamiliar words or phrases in form or words or phrases in sentence or paragraph. There are the ways to acquire vocabulary in context based approach:

- **Drawing inferences** can be used in the reading process. The prior knowledge we have is organized interrelated patterns. These patterns are constructed from our previous experiences and guide us as to what we might expect to encounter in a new context (Nunan 1991).
- **Grammatical knowledge** helps the learners guess the meaning of words. A word can be classified as grammatical item or as a vocabulary item. Students can derive words meanings by using morphological features like prefixes, suffixes and root. For example: undeniable – un (not), deni – (deny) able – (ability)
- Sometimes the writer **defines the meaning** of the word right in the text. For example, *A micrometer is an instrument used with a telescope or microscope for measuring minute distance.*
- Identifying the **referents of pronouns** may provide a clue to the meaning of an unfamiliar word. For example, *Malnutrition gave him the shallowest of chests and thinnest of limbs. It stunted his growth.* In this sentence, the effect of malnutrition is obvious. Students will be able to guess what malnutrition could have done to growth. (Ying, 2001)
- **Synonyms and antonyms** can also help to find the meaning of new words in the same sentence. For example, *We had never seen such a large cave: it was simply enormous.* Obviously, the unknown word is a synonym for *large*. *To be pretty and not plain, affluent and not poor, represents status in certain social groups.* In this sentence, we can see that *pretty* and *plain* are opposites. When we see the next pair of words in a parallel construction, we can guess that *affluent* is the opposite of *poor*, therefore it means rich.
- The writer may give an **alternative** of an unfamiliar word to make the meaning known. For example, *Insomnia, or the inability to sleep is sometimes caused by stress. Insomnia* is unfamiliar to some readers, but the writer explains the meaning by giving more familiar term.
- Often the writer **restates** the meaning or gives enough explanations for the meaning to be clear. For example, *X ray therapy, that is, treatment by use of X ray, often stops the growth of a tumour.* The phrase *that is* signals clarification of a previously used word.
- Readers can also guess the meaning of the unknown words from **comparisons and contrasts.** For example, *The ancient mammoth, like other elephants, is huge.* This sentence indicates similarity and clearly states that the ancient mammoth is a type of elephant.

There are some recommending steps for guessing vocabularies from context by Thornbury (2002.p.148).

- Decide the part of speech of the unfamiliar words.
- Look clues in the word's immediate collocate.
- Look at the wider context including surrounding clauses and sentences especially if there are signal words such as but, however, and … that might give a clue as to how the new word is connected to its context.
- Make a guess as to the meaning of the word.
- See if the guess is confirmed.
- If everything fails consult a dictionary.

We conducted a questionnaire among 65 upper-intermediate level students who are studying academic reading at National University of Commerce and Business. They were divided into 2 groups and taught the same topic "The Body's Response to Stress-The General Adaptation Syndrome."

Question 1. Do the unfamiliar/new words make an English text difficult for you?
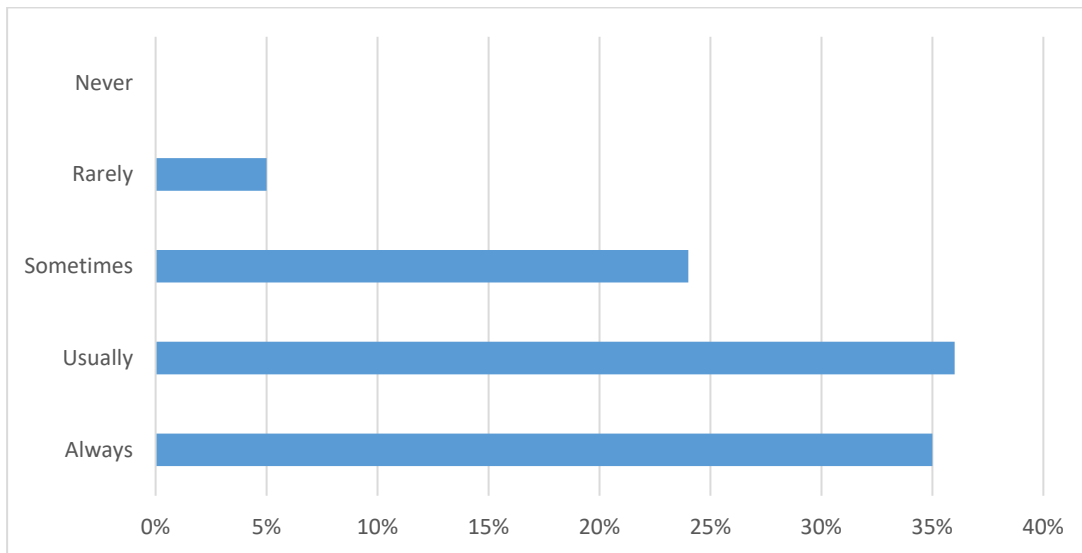
Question 2. Do you guess the meaning of words from their context in the text?
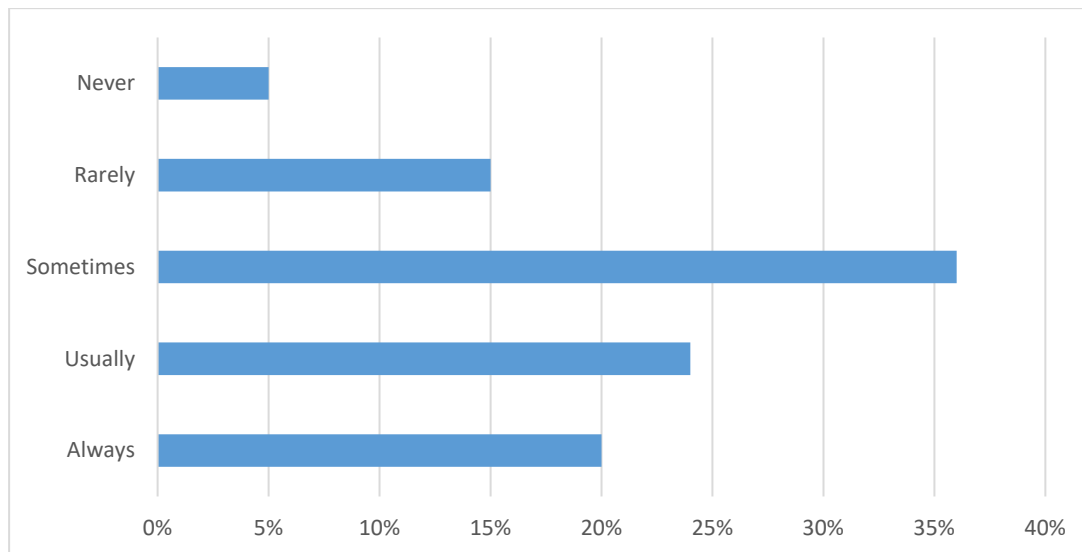
The analysis of question one and two shows that new words have always been a challenge for most students to understand the meaning of an academic reading and 20% of the students always try to guess the meaning of the new words from the context clues, 24% usually try to guess, whereas 15% rarely guess and 5% never made an attempt to do so.

But after teaching context clues 62% of the students could guess the meaning of the new vocabularies. At the beginning of the semester 94% of the students used dictionary to understand the word meaning but at the end of the semester it decreased by 43%. From the study we see that using dictionary may mean the reader spends double time reading.. Guessing the word from contextual clues and word recognition can help the students to understand the word meaning to comprehend the text. On the other hand guessing meaning from the context would speed up reading. At the beginning of the semester 19% of the students asked the words and text from others but at the end of the semester 6% of them asked from others.

Context based approach is very effective to improve students vocabulary and also has several advantages.

- The approach helped the students to learn new vocabulary.
- It makes students understand one important feature of vocabulary, namely, that context determines the meaning of words.
- Teaching students to infer meaning from context gives them a powerful help to comprehension and will speed up their reading.
- This approach gives the students to make intelligent, meaningful guesses. This will make the task much more active and challenging than direct explanation of words.
- It was useful to develop a holistic approach toward reading. Because the context of a new word may be drawn from a group of sentences, a paragraph, or even entire text, they learn to direct their attention to language units larger than the sentence while they are looking for context clues.

Conclusion

Students became sensitive to the signals for context clues step by step and they become skillful in identifying and using them to successfully infer meaning.

The findings in this study show that the students who were taught vocabulary by using context clues got higher score than the students who were not taught by using context clues. From the study we found out that the teachers need to choose context clue exercises and activities that match the proficiency level of the students. They need to remember that students need to know a great deal of vocabulary in order to effectively use context clues for any unknown words. Asking students to guess words from a context that contains too many unknown words is frustrating and disheartening. Students already know that they do not know enough vocabulary thus do not worsen the problem. Exercises that ask students to guess word meanings from context should be done in class so that the teacher can give immediate feedback. Reading can result in vocabulary improvement but on the other hand it must be accompanied with exercises or activities that focus student attention on the words.

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REFLEXIVE IN MONGOLIAN

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Abstract

The main purpose of the study is to illustrate reflexives in Mongolian on the scope of Binding theory. A debate has been raged for decades in theoretical syntax as to why a reflexive does not bind a pronoun. We propose in this study that a pronoun X is not bound to its antecedent Y if a less referential reflexive Z precedes the more referential pronoun X , to answer the question of why uuruu (self) does not bind ter (he, she)in structure where ter (he, she)is attached to uuruu(self). Particularly, we attempt to illustrate distributions of all types of clauses with reflexive uuruu and genitive case-marked subject on the scope of discourse.

Keywords: reflexive, Binding, genitive case-marked subject, agreement

1. Introduction

This paper presents an examination of the syntactic, and discourse properties of Mongolian reflexive which is commonly referred to as anaphors in syntactic theory. Anaphora is key research on the interface between syntax, semantics, and pragmatics in linguistics. The work intends to study the distribution of NP-anaphora, and its semantic representation in Mongolian in the broader context of Binding Theory. The theory is based on the argument structure which is defined as a relevance of lexical level and grammatical relations.

The outline of the paper is as follows. Section 1 and 2 presents an introduction and a brief discussion of the framework of Government-Binding. Section 3 examines the distribution of reflexive *uuruu* (self) in Mongolian on the scope of binding. Section 4 displays the structure of genitive case-marked noun phrases in Mongolian. Also, this section shows that reflexive *uuruu* which is marked with possessive and case is preceded by null pronominal. Finally, section 5 displays that genitive case marked subject and null pronominal subject with reflexive can state specificity and subject orientation. Section 5 intends to study the distribution of NP-anaphora, and its discourse representation in Mongolian in the broader context of BT. Finally, section 5 shows that genitive case marked subject and null pronominal subject with reflexive can state specificity and topicalization in Mongolian.

2. Binding Theory

Certain aspects of anaphora have been repeatedly claimed by Chomsky (1981, 1995). He proposes three indexing conditions in (2a), (2b) and (2c) which are aimed to rule out over generated interpretations unlike these in (1a) (1b) and (1c) are respectively.

(1a)   John2 hurt himself

(1b)   John2 hurt him 2

(1c)   John2 hurt Fred2

Conditions:

(2a) An anaphor must be bound in its governing category if it has one

(2b)   A pronominal NP must be free in its governing category if it has one

(2c)   A lexical NP must be free everywhere.

In sentence (1a), the reflexive *himself* is co-referential with the subject *John*. In sentence (1b), on the other hand, the pronoun *him* can't be co-referential with the subject *John*. And finally, in a sentence (1c), the proper name John doesn't co-refer with another noun phrase within the sentence. These kinds of distributional patterns come from the classification of noun phrases according to their values of features [+,- pronominal] and [+,- anaphoric].

(3a)   Anaphors [+ anaphoric,-pronominal]; himself, herself, each other, one another

(3b)   Pronominals [-anaphoric,+ pronominal];he ,she ,him ,her

(3c)   R-expression (lexical NP) [-anaphoric,-pronominal]: John, Mary

Chomsky introduced the new term "local domain" in connection with binding conditions. He considers that one constituent X can enter into a grammatical relation with another constituent Y only if Y is in the local c-command domain of X only if Y is c-commanded by X and Y is sufficiently close to X. Local domain is defined as the minimal clause (IP) which contains the bindee. Specifically, the local domain for the sentence below is embedded *that*-clause and binding properties of sentences such as the one below can be compatible with this definition.

Consider (4a),(4b) and (4c):

 (4a)   Mary$_i$ thinks that Tom$_j$ hit himself *i/j

 (4b)   Mary$_i$ thinks that Tom$_j$ saw him i/*j

 (4c)   He i thinks that Tom*i is a teacher

The anaphor himself is bound to its local domain –*that* clause in (4a), the pronoun *him* is free in its local domain and bound by antecedent outside *that* -clause in (4b)and finally the R-expression *Tom* is free in (4c).

 (5) Chomsky's (1995c: 41) typology of overt NPs

a. [+anaphor, −pronominal] reflexive/reciprocal

b. [−anaphor, +pronominal] pronoun

c. [+anaphor, +pronominal] –

d. [−anaphor, −pronominal] name

3. Reflexive in Mongolian

Frankly speaking, there is not enough research about Mongolian reflexive *uuruu* within the framework of universal theories like Government Binding and Minimalist Syntax. The

literature on Mongolian reflexives reports that *uur,/ uuruu*[11] is coreferential with a subject in order to focus and differentiate its antecedents. Sh. Luvsanvandan(1965), D. Tserenpil (2008). Reflexive *uuruu* can be translated *self* into English. Determined as anaphors so far*, uuruu* has been analyzed to correlate with antecedents within their local domains because of its anaphoric feature. As a result of a nominal agreement in Mongolian, *uuruu* receives a possessive suffix to agree with the number of its possessor as shown in (6).

(6) uur+ s+duu (Plural +possessive suffix)

2.1 Problems with the Binding of *uuruu* in Mongolian

Even though the recent definition of the locality Chomsky (1995) has been less restricted than the earlier definitions of local domain, the distribution of reflexives and reciprocal pronouns in Altaic languages and in several other languages such as Mongolian, *uuruu*, Japanese, *zibun*, Turkish ,*kendidi*, and Korean ,*caki* still have confounded the Binding Principles. These diverse features of reflexives cause different variations of Binding theory which are compatible with the specific language. (Kim, 1976), (Reinhart &Reuland, 1993) and (Hornstein,2006). In accordance with binding theory, *uuruu* in Mongolian is predicted to be co-referential with antecedents within their local domain. However, anaphor *uuruu* in Mongolian is possible to have an antecedent within and outside its local domain.

In Mongolian:

(7a) Dulma   Bold   uuriiguu   buruutgasan gev.

Dulmaa –NOM Bold-NOM **himself-ACC-POSS= Bold** blame-PAST said.

'Dulma said Bold blames himself'.

(7b) Dulmaa   Bold   uuriig   ni   buruutgasan gev.

Dulma–NOM Bold-NOM **herself-ACC   POSS=Dulma** blame-PAST said

*Dulma said Bold blames herself (=Dulma)

As mentioned (7a), the binding theory is satisfied in that it can be locally bound. On the other hand, (7b) is problematic as for binding theory (Condition) in that the matrix subject *Dulma* can   co-refer with the anaphor within the embedded clause.
Next, let's consider the following sentences which contain null argument and null topic.

(8a) A: Hen Bold-iig   shuumjilsen be?

Who Bold-ACC criticized?

'Who criticized Bold'?

B1: Ter uuruu   /[e] uuruu /*he

He self –NOM/ [e] self / *he-NOM   (Fragment)

(9a) B2: Bold uuruu   uuriiguu shuumjilsen .

(9б) B3: Bold self-POSS   self-ACC-POSS blame-PAST

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[11] Mongolian NP, *uuruu,* can be a so-called reflexive even though its distribution deviated from BT. The literature on Mongolian reflexives reports bare form of Mongolian reflexive pronoun is *uur* because of possessive suffix *uu*.

B3: * He [e] шүүмжилсэн   (null argument)

As we observed in (6,7&8) unlike English anaphor, the Mongolian reflexive uuruu admits both local binding and non-local binding and in (7&8). It reveals subject-orientation. According to the distributions of reflexive in Mongolian, Binding and Controlling theory can't reflect on all features of NPs and their semantic pragmatic binding in the natural languages.

4. Distribution of Genitive-Possessive NPs in Mongolian

NPs in Mongolian can be marked with genitive and possessive agreement as follows:

(9a).   [NP+genitive] +[NP+possessive]

(9b).   Nom-nii-hoo

    Book-GEN-1SG,POSS

(10).   Bold-iin eej ni

    Bold-GEN mother-3SG, POSS

    Bold's mother

As shown in (10) the first genitive case-marked NP *Boldiin* indicates the possessor and the second possessive marked NP *eej ni* indicates the possessed one. Similarly, the reflexive in Mongolian appear as the NPs in that they can be marked with genitive and possessive agreement.

(11) . uur-iin-huu
    Self-GEN-POSS

(12). Bold-iin   uur-iinh ni
    BOLD-GEN self-GEN-POSS

As illustrated in (13), *uur* is a bare form of the reflexive and *uur-uu can be* doubly-marked with possessive and case suffix in Mongolian. Bare form *uur* is compatible with the nominal agreement system that the language has a possessive phrase.

(13) Case and possessive-marked reflexive in Mongolia

Nominative case marker(-)	Possessive (uu)	uur+uu (self)
Genitive case marker (iin)	uu	uur-iin-huu
Accusative case marker(iig)	uu	uur-iig-uu
Dative (t)	uu	uur-t-uu
Commutative	tei	uur-tei-guu

(14a)   Dulmaa   uuruu   uur-iig-uu   zemlev.

    Dulma-NOM   self-poss   uur-ACC-POSS   blame-PAST

    'Dulma blamed herself'.

(14b) Dulmaa uu-iig-uu   zemlev.

Dulmaa self-ACC-POSS blame-PAST

Dulma blamed herself.

The reason why Mongolian reflexives exist differently in (14a) and (14b) could be connected to the semantic relations. Luvsanvandan(1965), E.Ravdan (2000). In our analysis, in Mongolian, monomorphemic reflexive *uuruu* displays a similar distribution to the null pronominal pro, rather than to its overt counterpart *ter* (he, she, it). This analysis led to the conclusion that *pro* is a null counterpart of reflexive *uuruu* rather than the overt pronoun, in that both *pro* and *uuruu* show anaphoric and pronominal distribution. Take a look and compare the following sentences.

(15) Ter i   PRO i   huuhduudiig   zemlev.

Ter /PRO=self GEN-POSS/   children-SG,POSS-ACC blame-PAST.

'She blamed her children'

(16) Ter uuriin   huuhduudiig   zemlev

Ter self-GEN children-ACC blame-PAST

'she blames her children '

(17) Uuruu uuriinhuu   huuhduudiig   zemlev

PRO –she self self-GEN,POSS children-ACC blame-PAST

As the examples above mentioned, pro and *uuruu* in the subject position show same distribution. In reference to the detailed discourse analysis, section 4 shows how the genitive case- marked subjects in Mongolian.

4.1 Long Distance Binding in Mongolian

As shown in section 1 reflexive in Mongolian can be in both in long distance binding and locality. In accordance with the long distance binding, Pica (1987) notices that long distance reflexives appear to share a number of characteristics across languages as shown in (18).

(18) Long-distance reflexives are monomorphemic

Long terms reflexives take subject antecedents

In many languages, their occurrence can be restricted to environments in which the antecedent and reflexive are found in specific[12]   domain. As mentioned in section 4(see example sentences), all claims are satisfied with reflexive in Mongolian. In accordance with our observation, the Mongolian sentences don't show ambiguity in meaning like other languages with long distance binding reflexives.

In Korean :

(19). Chulswu-kai Yongheej caki-luli/j   sileha-n-ta-ku malha-yss-ta.

Chulsu-TOP Yonghee self –ACC hate-COMP say-PAST Hyeran Lee (2004)

---

[12] Specific types of IPs such as infinitival of the subjunctive.

Chulsu said that Yonghee hates himself/herself

Korean sentence in (19) shows ambiguity in meaning: the anaphor can be bound the embedded subject or to the matrix subject while In Mongolian counterpart there is no ambiguity due to the reflexives with the possessive agreement.

In Mongolian:

(20a)   Boldi Dorjj uuriig ni i/*J uzen yaddag gej helsen.

      Bold Dorj self-3SG, POSS hate-COMP say-PAST

      Bold said that Dorj hates himself= Bold

(21b)   Boldi Dorjj uuriig-uu i*/J uzen yaddag gej helsen.

      Bold Dorj self-1SG,POSS hate-COMP say-PAST

      Bold said that Dorj hates himself= Dorj

Furthermore, the English-type languages don't allow free reflexives while it can exist in Mongolian. Take a look at the following example:

(22a)   Uuruu   tend   baisan uu?
    Self-NOM there   be ?
    Were you (self) there?

(22b)   uuruu heden nastai ve?
    Self   how   old-Question?
   "How old are you?

This kind of phenomenon, which exists in languages like Korean, Japanese and Chinese is explained by the derivational approach. Reuland (2001).

5. Reflexive in Mongolian from the Perspectives of Discourse

Cross-linguistically, information structure and discourse can be realized through a wide variety of linguistic mechanisms. In English information, a structure is expressed by pitch, intonation, and clefts whereas in Mongolian it can be expressed by anaphora, topic marking affixes, specialized discourse particle, and scrambling. As we shown in section 1.2 and 3, a syntactic theory does not interpret the variables of reflexive anaphor. Instead, reflexives are considered as functional meanings. It means that reflexives are functions that take two-place relations as an argument and return a property as shown in section 1and 2. 43eqw Keenan (1987) among others propose above-mentioned analysis along these lines.

In this section, we claim that the case-marked and possessive–marked reflexive indicates specificity and topicalization (*see* Rizzi 1997) under certain morpho-syntactic conditions, rather than indicating just a contrast to the argument role in the grammatical function.
Also, in order to emphasize specificity and topicalization in Mongolian, we attempt to show the distributions of the clauses with genitive case-marked subject and the clauses with reflexive on the scope of discourse analysis. Even within a family language, different varieties may distinguish them in connection with the discourse properties of long-distance reflexive. It

is clear that the role of discourse varies considerably from the language to language, form to form within some languages. In Mongolia, it seems there is no requirement that the antecedent satisfies logophoric or other discourse conditions. Particularly, discourse in Mongolian restricts the grammar. For instance, the antecedent for the reflexive *uuruu* must be intensified and described as a preference for the pronoun *tuuntei* over the long-distance reflexive *uuruu* in sentences like (23).

(23)   Dorjiigi tuuntei*i/j uurtei*i/j ni uulzahaar irehed   dulmaj yavchihsan baisan.
       Dorj she-ACC self-ACC to see came (at that time) Dulma   went out-Past
       *Dulma went out when Dorj came to see   her =self

Reuland (2000) says that free anaphors can only be used for elements that are of the highest accessibility in terms of discourse factors such as a center of consciousness and point of view. Take a look at the following examples.

(24a)   Uuruu   tend   baisan uu?
        Self-NOM   there   be ?
        Were you (self) there?

(24b)   uuruu heden nastai ve?
         Self how   old-Question?
        "How old are you?

As shown in (24a.b) subject positions are occupied by reflexive *uuruu*. Here, reflexive states the focus on the subject.

    According to our analysis case marked and possessive marked reflexive *uuruu* is highly accessible to the discourse factors. Adopting Reuland's analysis (2000), we claim that the case-marked and possessive–marked reflexive in Mongolian indicates specificity and topicalization on the scope of discourse factors, rather than indicating just a contrast to the argument role in the grammatical function.

    Furthermore, we claim that both genitive case-marked subject and the subjects which are modified by reflexive *uuruu* indicates the specificity and topicalization under certain morpho-syntactic conditions, rather than indicating just a contrast to the subject. In other words, if the information is specific, the subject is genitive case-marked and if the information is generic, the subject is not the genitive case- marked. Similarly, if the information is specific, the subject coexists with reflexive uuruu and if the information is generic, the subject does not coexist with reflexive *uuruu* as shown in (25).

   (25)   Huug-iin uuriinh ni saihan duuldagiig ee

          son-GEN self –GEN well   sing (exclamation "ee")

          Int: Wow, It is a wonderful song that Bold's son sang!

          Bold-iin huug**iin** saihan duuldagiig **ee.**

           Bold-GEN   son-GEN   well   sing (exclamation "ee")

           Int: Wow, It is a wonderful song that Bold's son sang!

   (26a) Ene huug**iin** saihan duuldagiig ee

          This son-GEN well sing

Int: "Wow, It is a wonderful song that this   son sang!"

(26b)   Huugiin   saihan duuldagiig ee*

Son-GEN   well sing *

Int: Wow, It is a wonderful song that the son sang!

As mentioned above the sentence in (25) is grammatical in that genitive case marked subject *huugiin* is topicalized by reflexive *uuriinh ni*. Also (26a) (26b) are grammatical in that the genitive case marked subject coexists with the pronominal *Bold* and the determiner *ene*(this)   whereas (26b) is ungrammatical because of not containing the determiners like *ene* (*this*-in English).

Also, it is observed that it is ungrammatical if nominative case marked subject coexists with exclamation suffix as shown below (27a) whereas it is grammatical nominative case-marked subject does not coexist with exclamation suffix in (27b).

(27a)   Huu saihan duuldagiig ee*

Son-NOM   well sing *

(27b)   Huu saihan duuldag

Son-NOM   well sing-PRESENT SIMPLE

In the same way, the following evidence shows us that reflexive *uuruu* is related to topicalization in that topic marker *min*[13] coexists with reflexive *uuruu* in the subject position.

(28) [uur iin/   min   hiisen]   emeeliig chi harav uu?

self-GEN TOP   make-PAST] emeel-ACC you see-PAST- QUESt

"Did you see the saddle that I=self made"

Above mentioned sentences show that reflexive pronouns are related to the subject orientation and information structure in several environments in Mongolian.

6. Conclusion

This paper presents peculiarities of reflexive anaphora in Mongolian. Mongolia is discourse oriented language while English is sentence oriented language. Based on this reason, we generally attempt to claim that there are the variety of properties which are incompatible to Binding Theory which does not include the requirements like subject orientation, the reflexive form is monomorphemic, long distance reflexives and blocking by subjects intervening between the reflexive and its antecedent in Mongolian. Specifically, we attempt to explain distributions of all types of clauses with reflexive *uuruu* and genitive case-marked subject on the scope of discourse. In accordance with our study, the fact that the clause with reflexive uuruu correlates with a specific reading of the overall clause.

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[13] D. Tserenpil (2005) considers "min" in MM as Case-bound particles which expresses topic meaning.

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