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Idioms with the Component "Day & Night" for Identifying Cultural Codes in English, Russian and Mongolian Language Views of the World

Batsuren Renchin[1] and Oyunsuren Tsend[2]

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

Keywords: language and culture, idioms, language view of the world, phraseological view of the world, cultural codes, day, night.

The theoretical question of the trinity "man-language-culture" is the main subject of the linguoculturological study of the phraseological picture of the world. It follows that the main element of any ethno-specific culture is the image of a person, where he appears not only as the owner of the language, but also as a potential carrier of national culture, a cognizing subject. The image of a person is forever imprinted in phraseological units, so the study of this material is of great interest for cultural linguistics.

In connection with the turn of linguistic research into the channel of anthropocentrism, questions of the study of universal and ethnospecific features inherent in national linguistic pictures of the world occupy an important place in modern linguistics. This issue is closely examined in the linguistic and cultural approach, from the standpoint of which this article research was carried out. In

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modern linguistics, along with the study of language as a means of communication and cognition, a new trend has acquired particular relevance - the consideration of language as a set of cultural codes that human consciousness operates with when displaying and representing the language view of the world. Phraseology in this sense, according to the unanimous opinion of linguists, is the most cultured layer of vocabulary that captures the cultural experience of various ethnic groups, a naive and everyday vision of a picture of the world, in which both general, universal principles of organization of reality by the human consciousness are presented, as well as patterns preferred by one or another national-cultural consciousness (Spiridonova, Batsuren, 2019). Reflected by the human consciousness, anthropocentric in nature, and reflected by the language, objective reality in the phraseological foundation of a particular language is subjected to secondary interpretation. As a result, a whole system of images is fixed in the linguistic consciousness that represents the worldview of a particular ethnic group.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Cultural codes, which are universal in their essence, come from the most ancient archetypal representations of a person. At the same time, it should be noted that they capture the national way of seeing the world, which determines and shapes the national character. V.V. Krasnikh introduced quite an accurate, in our opinion, definition, which qualifies the

culture code as a grid, which "culture throws on the world around, divides it, categorizes, structures and evaluates it" (Krasnikh, 2002, p. 232).

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

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

Methodology

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

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

For the concepts of the "language" of culture, embodied in the language means, language idioms are the most transparent as they contain characteristic traits of the worldview, reflexively correlated with this "language" and displayed in a figurative base of idioms" (Telia, 1999, p.9). In this article, we will consider similarities and differences in the images included in the phraselogical units with the component "**day & night**" in English, "**день & ночь**" Russian and "**өдөр & шөнө**" in Mongolian language.

Discussion

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

The 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. Temporal+qualitative:
   Eng: (as) clear as day; (as) plain as day; (one's) lucky day; as naked as the day (one) was born; open day; plain

as a day; the evil day; dead of night; the night is young;

Rus: до сего дня (*still, till now, until today*); критические дни (*critical days*); горячие деньки (*hot days, many worries*); ночь нежна (*tender night*);

Mon: шөнийн нам гүм (dead hours);

2. <u>Temporal+active</u>:

Eng: (one) could go (on) all day; brighten up (the) day; carry the day; carry/win the day; catch of the day; dying day; face the day; make one's day; seize the day; because you touch yourself at night; fly-by-night; keep (one) up at night; make a night of it;

Rus: кончать свои дни (end your days - *live out your life*); дни сочтены (*the days are numbered*); на ночь глядя (looking at the night - *late evening, early night*);

Mon: өдрөө хүлээх (waiting one's day - *the time of death is near*);

3. <u>Temporal+natural</u>:

Eng: a field day; a rainy day; hump day; the still of the night;

Rus: на закате дней (at the end of days - *in old age*) ; полярный день (polar day - *period when the sun does not set for a long time in the North*); полярная ночь (polar night - *part of the year above the Arctic Circle during which the sun does not rise*);

Mon: өдрийн од шиг (like a day star – *very rare*);

4. <u>Temporal+active+temporal</u>:

Eng: (it's) time to call it a day; (it's) time to call it a night; keep (something) for a rainy day; know the time of day; live from day to day; not to give someone the time of the day; time to call it a night;

Rus: жить сегодняшним днём (live for today - *be limited to this*); искать

вчерашний день (look for yesterday - *hope to return the lost*); день на день не приходится (day to day does not fall - *this way, that way);*

Mon: өдөр алдаж шөнө гэгчээр (as day turns into night).

Cultural codes similar in two languages:

1. <u>Temporal</u>:

Eng: by day; day off; day out; from this day on; a night out; at night;

Rus: на днях (the other day);

2. <u>Temporal+anthropic</u>:

Eng: (one's) day in court; day of doom; day person; market day; poets day; a night person; creature of the night; girls' night out; lady of the night; like a thief in the night;

Rus: Валентинов день (Valetine's day); День дурака / день смеха (1 апреля) (April Fool's Day / April Fool's Day (April 1); Юрьев день (St. George's Day - *the day when peasants could move to another landowner*); злоба дня (the spite of the day- *of interest to all*); Варфоломеевская ночь (St. Bartholomew's Night - *massive and unbridled brutal beating of defenseless people*); Вальпургиева ночь (Walpurgis Night - *a wild, noisy gathering of people*);

3. <u>Temporal+color</u>:

Eng: a black day; (as) black as night;

Rus: чёрный день (hard period of life); на чёрный день (in reserve); Rus: чернее ночи (someone is very gloomy, gloomy);

4. <u>Temporal+temporal</u>:

Eng: a year and a day; at the end of the day; day after day; day and age; day and night; day by day; day in and day out; day to day; forever and a day;

it's early days; the light of day; be (like) night and day; night after night; nighy night; the morning after the night before; the watches of the night; **Rus:** изо дня в день (daily); день и ночь (all time); дни и ночи напролет (days and nights through); день-деньской (all day); день в день (from the beginning to the end); ни днем ни ночью (no rest); со дня на день (soon); завтрашний день (near future); сегодняшний день (the present); вчерашний день (obsolete); день за днём (gradually, uniformly); день ото дня (change gradually); (расти) не по дням, а по часам (fast); дни и ночи (all the time, all the time, continuously); ночь-ночью (night-at night - *about a person in a bad mood, with a gloomy look*); ни днём ни ночью (neither day nor night - *never*);

5. Temporal+zoomorphic:
   Eng: day lark; a night owl; hen night; the night's (only) a pup;
   Rus: день сурка (groundhog day - *monotonous weekdays*);

6. Temporal+religious:
   Eng: day of reckoning;
   Rus: постный день (fast day - *requiring religious fasting*); день ангела (Angel Day - *name day*);

7. Temporal+active+anthropic:
   Eng: give (someone) the sele of the day;
   Rus: день здоровья (health day - *group trip to nature in Soviet times*);

8. Temporal+qualitative+religious:
   Eng: a cold day in Hell; just another day in paradise;
   Rus: ясно как божий день (clear as daylight - *quite clear*);

9. Temporal+qualitative+anthropic:
   Eng: just another day at the office;

Rus: минувших дней очарованье (bygone days charm)

10. Temporal+qualitative+numerical:
    Eng: one fine day;
    Rus: в один прекрасный день (one fine day - *one day*);

11. Temporal+color+anthropic:
    Eng: a red letter day;
    Rus: красный день календаря (red day of the calendar - *day off*;); грабёж среди бела дня (robbery in broad daylight);

12. Temporal+gastronomic:
    Eng: an apple a day;
    Rus: день варенья (jam day);

13. Temporal+temporal+qualitative:
    Eng: (as) different as night and day; a cold day in July; dawn of a new day; in the cold light of day; **Mon:** өдөр шөнө шиг ялгаатай (*to be poles apart*);

Cultural codes existing only in one of three languages:

In English:

1. Temporal+active+numerical: **Eng:** a one-night stand;
2. Temporal+artifact: **Eng:** (one's) day on a plate; a night on the tiles; be like ships in the night;
3. Temporal+constructive: **Eng:** night on the town; night out on the town;
4. Temporal+spatial: **Eng:** far into the night;
5. Temporal+temporal+zoomorphic: **Eng:** dog day afternoon;
6. Temporal+qualitative+spatial: **Eng:** (as) happy as the day is long;(as) honest as the day is long; merry as the day is long;
7. Temporal+qualitative+artifact: **Eng:** night of the long knives;

8. Temporal+active+qualitative: **Eng:** (one's) good deed for the day; go quietly into the night

9. Temporal+active+zoomorphic: **Eng:** day the eagle flies

10. Temporal+qualitative+somatic: **Eng:** a bad hair day

11. Temporal+numerical+anthropic: **Eng:** a one-day wonder; a seven-day wonder; nine day wonder

12. Temporal+temporal+numerical: **Eng:** all day and every day; one day at a time

13. Temporal+numerical+spatial: **Eng:** all day long; all night long

14. Temporal+numerical+anthropic: **Eng:** all in a day's work

15. Temporal+numerical+zoomorphic: **Eng:** three dog night

16. Temporal+spatial+ religious: **Eng:** a Sabbath day's journey

17. Temporal+active+numerical+natural: **Eng**: first see the light of day

18. Temporal+temporal+numerical+numerical: **Eng**: four seasons in one day

19. Temporal+qualitative+artifact+spatial: **Eng:** a day late and a dollar short

20. Temporal+active+active+qualitative: **Eng:** live to fight another day

21. Temporal+active+qualitative+anthropic: **Eng**: put in a hard day at work

22. Temporal+temporal+ temporal+numerical: **Eng**: all hours (of the day and night)

23. Temporal+natural+color+anthropic+ anthropic: **Eng**: red sky at night, sailor's delight; red sky at night, shepherd's delight

24. Temporal+numerical+zoomorphic+temporal+qualitative+zoomorphic: **Eng**: one day chicken and the next day feathers.

In Russian:

1. Temporal+numerical: **Rus:** не день и не два (not a day or two - *long time*); третьего дня (third day - *the day before yesterday*); остаток дней (remaining days);

2. Temporal+active+natural: **Rus:** днём с огнём (не сыскать) (a day with fire (not found));

3. Temporal+numerical+religious: **Rus:** каждый божий день (every single day - *daily*);

4. Temporal+qualitative+spatial: **Rus**: день открытых дверей (open Day);

5. Temporal+active+qualitative+natural: **Rus:** наводить тень на ясный день (cast a shadow on a clear day - *make things unclear*);

6. Temporal+temporal+temporal+temporal: **Rus:** днем раньше - днем позже (a day earlier - a day later - *about this day*);

7. Temporal+qualitative+gastronomic+religious: **Rus**: дорого яичко ко Христову дню (expensive testicle for Christ's day - *better what is given on time*);

8. Temporal+artifact+anthropic+anthropic: **Rus**: грош цена в базарный день (a penny price on a market day - *worth nothing*);

9. Temporal+color+ qualitative+natural: **Rus:** чем ночь темней, тем ярче звезды (the darker the night, the brighter the stars)

In Mongolian:

1. Temporal+anthropic+natural: **Mon:** шөнө дөлөөр шүлэг нойрноор (poem in the middle of the night with sleep - *in the still of night);*

2. <u>Temporal+temporal+numerical</u>:
   Mon: өдөр шөнө хоер шиг (*like day and night)*;

3. <u>Temporal+active+gastronomic</u>: **Mon**: өдөр ойчсон мах авдаггүй (not to take meat that was dropped during the day - *what's lost is lost)*;

4. <u>Temporal+temporal +color+qualitative</u>: **Mon**: өдөр өдрийн өнгө ондоо (*everyday's color is different*);

5. <u>Temporal+temporal +natural+floral</u>: **Mon**: өдрийн од шиг өвлийн цэцэг шиг (like a day star, like a winter flower - *very rare)*

6. <u>Temporal+ temporal+active+anthropic+anthropic</u>: **Mon**: өдрийн бодол, шөнийн зүүд болох (become thoughts of the day and dreams of the night - *cherish a thought*).

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

English:	*Russian:*	*Mongolian:*
temporal	temporal	emporal
qualitative	qualitative	qualitative
active	active	active
natural	natural	natural
anthropic	anthropic	anthropic
color	color	color
numerical	numerical	numerical
gastronomic	gastronomic	gastronomic
zoomorphic	zoomorphic	-
religious	religious	-
artifact	artifact	-
spatial	spatial	-
constructive	-	-
-	-	floral

Conclusion

On the grounds of our analysis of the correlation of the somatic idioms with the components '**day'** and '**night'** and the codes of culture, we can make the following conclusions:

Universal codes of the culture for the appropriate three language worldviews include four common set out of the 56 sets of cultural codes: *temporal+qualitative, temporal+active, temporal+natural and temporal+active+temporal* codes. For Russian and English languages, 12 sets of cultural codes are common: *temporal, temporal+anthropic, temporal+color, temporal+temporal, temporal+zoomorphic, temporal+religious, temporal+gastronomic, temporal+active+anthropic, temporal+qualitative+religious, temporal+qualitative+anthropic, temporal+qualitative+numerical, temporal+color+anthropic codes.*

As for English and Mongolian languages, only *temporal+temporal+qualitative* set of cultural codes is common. The presence of common sets of cultural codes indicates a single "cultivated" worldview of the three nations.

Along with these similarities, there are also some differences in the world outlook presented in each language. Some of the codes of culture are present only in one of the compared languages: in English 24 sets of codes are unique: *temporal+active+numerical, temporal+artifact, temporal+constructive, temporal+gastronomic, temporal+spatial, temporal+temporal+zoomorphic, temporal+qualitative+spatial, temporal+qualitative+artifact, temporal+active+qualitative, temporal+active+zoomorphic, temporal+qualitative+somatic, temporal+numerical+anthropic, temporal+temporal+numerical, temporal+numerical+spatial, temporal+numerical+anthropic,*

temporal+numerical+zoomorphic, temporal+spatial+religious,temporal+active +numerical+natural,temporal+temporal+numerical+numerical,temporal+qualitative+artifact+spatial,temporal+active+active+qualitative,temporal+active+qualitative+anthropic,temporal+temporal+temporal+numerical,temporal+natural+color+anthropic+anthropic,temporal+numerical+zoomorphic+temporal +qualitative+zoomorphic codes.

There are 9 unique codes in Russian language as following: *temporal+numerical, temporal+active+natural,temporal+numerical+religious,temporal+qualitative+spatial,temporal+active+qualitative+natural,temporal +temporal+temporal+temporal,temporal+qualitative+gastronomic+religious,temporal+artifact+anthropic+anthropic, temporal+color+ qualitative+natural* codes.

And we can see 6 unique codes in Mongolian such as: *temporal +anthropic +natural,temporal+temporal+numerical,temporal+active+gastronomic,temporal+temporal+color+qualitative,temporal+temporal+natural+floral,temporal+temporal+active+anthropic+anthropic codes*. In English language, *a floral* cultural code is absent; in Russian language *a constructive and floral codes* are not found. In Mongolian language – *religious, zoomorphic artifact, spatial and constructive codes* are absent.

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

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

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

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On the Structure of Mongolian and English Embedded Clauses and Case Licensing

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Abstract: This article discusses distributional varieties of subjects and its case licensing in Mongolian embedded clauses from semantic and syntactic perspectives. Firstly, we will emphasise case licensing in Mongolian. Then, we will focus on subject to object -raising in Mongolian. Based on some pieces of evidence, we propose syntactic approach related to case licensing on embedded subjects in Mongolian. Also, we display whether Mongolian bears authentic instances of subject to object-raising. Lastly, the article proposes that interrelations between syntax and semantics of embedded subjects require topic structure in Mongolian under certain morpho-syntactic conditions.

Keywords: case licensing, embedded clause, subject to object-raising, complementiser, matrix verb, focus phrase, exceptional case-marked subject

(1) a &b are logically equivalent in English.

(1) a. I believe that Mary is intelligent.

b. I believe Mary to be intelligent.

Postal (1977) argues that sentences like (1b) involve raising-to-object (hereafter RTO). Chomsky (1970, 1981, 1998), on the other hand, claims that they are derived by Exceptional Case-Marking (ECM) process under S'-deletion or IP-complementation.

(1) I believe him to be a smart.

According to Chomsky (1981) "him'" is in the embedded clause is licensed accusative case from the matrix verb through exceptional case-marking. He claims that object moves to the higher clause as shown in (2) and (3).

(2) The DA proved [the two men to have been at the scene of the crime] during each other's trial.

(3) The DA proved [no one to have been at the scene] during any of the trials. Chomsky (1981)

The antecedent *two-man* c-commands the reciprocal *each other* in (2) and *no one* c-commands *any* in (3). Based on this evidence, he argues that ECM object does not exist within the embedded clause, instead within a higher position. On the other hand, Lasnik (1999) suggests that object stays in-situ, and object raising in English may be optional in accordance with the following fact.

(4) a. * who was [a picture of t] selected?

b. Who did you select [a picture of t]?

cf. Lasnik (1999)

Movement of *who* out of the subject is ungrammatical as shown in (4a), whereas movement of *who* is grammatical in (4b). Lasnik (2001) observed that movement out of

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the subject is not allowed since the subject is raised from spec of VP to Spec of AgrsP. *Who* out of the object in (4b) shows that the object stays in situ. Due to lack of the case marker, it is difficult to demonstrate the optional raising of the object in English. Contrary to English, Mongolian has overt-case markers to mark both the raised and in-situ. The raised object is marked by accusative case marker. It means that object raising in Mongolian is optional like object raising in English.

Previous analysis

Linguists mention genitive subject of the embedded clauses in Mongolian in their comparative research in the following ways; …

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

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

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

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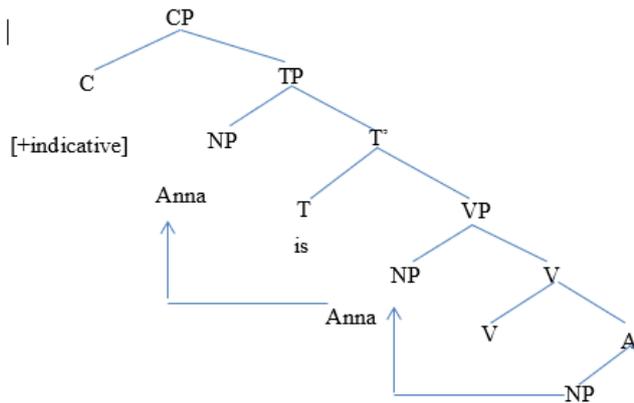
Case licensing

One of the complicated structures to explain within the framework of universal grammar is multiple case-licensing on embedded subject in Mongolian. The following is an example of Mongolian.

(5) [Dolgor ø /iin /iig nom unshsan-iig]
bi har-san
Dolgor nom/gen/acc book read –acc I see-pst
'I saw that Dolgor read a book'.

What makes this construction so complicated is that the embedded subject in Mongolian receives nominative case ø (null marked), genitive case (iin) and accusative case (iig) alternatively whereas English counterpart receives only nominative case. According to case theory by Chomsky (1981), Nominative case is licensed by [+tense] and [+tense] licenses nominative case to the right one. In the three levels X-bar theory, the nominative case is assigned Spec-N by T:

(6) Anna is generous.

"Anna" in (6) is raised from AP to the subject position. Firstly, *"Anna "* is not a complement of V or any other head. It cannot receive case in its position. It must move to a case-marked position. NP is created in the subject position and the features of *"Anna "* are copied to it. According to the case theory, the nominative case is assigned to *"Anna"* by [+tense]. The original position, the trace of NP, is not case-marked and is assigned NULL as shown in (6).

```
        CP
   C         TP
[+indicative]  NP      T'
          Anna    T        VP
                  is    NP      V
                     Anna    V      A
                              NP
```

In relation to nominative case licensing in English, mentioned above the case theory agrees with nominative case licensing of embedded subject in English. As for Mongolian, embedded subject appears on alternative cases such as nominative, accusative and genitive. Let us consider (7) again in detail:

(7) a.[Bold ø   nom   unsh-san]-iig bi har-san

Bol-nom book   read-pst -acc I see-pst

 b. [Bol-iin nom unsh-san]-iig bi har-san.

Bol-gen book read-pst -acc I   see-pst

 c.[Bol-iig   nom unsh-san]-iig bi har-san.

Bold-acc book read-pst -acc I see-pst
'I saw that Bold read a book.'

As shown in (7a), the case licensing of the embedded subject corresponds to the English counterpart in (7c). As for (7b), the subject with genitive case marker "*iin*" behaves like nominative subject in (7a), and functions as an argument of the embedded clause "*Bold-iin nom unsh-sa"n*. Likewise, the embedded subject with accusative case marker in (7c) behaves like subject and functions as an argument.

On the other hand, the verbal inflection "*san* "functions as a past tense inflection of matrix clause in   Mongolian as shown in (8).

(8) Bi ø   nom   unsh-san.
I-nom book read-pst
'I read a book.'

Consequently, it is complicated to assume that the embedded clause in (8) is infinite. Also, this kind of embedded verb co-occurs with adverbs of time as shown in (9).

(9) Bi [Bold-iin   uchigdur huduu   yav-san]-iig   sons-son
Bold-gen   yesterday   countryside go
pst   –acc   hear-Past.
'I heard that yesterday Bold went to the countryside.'

Next, complication against the case theory occurs with the verb like "*yav*" (go) which is inflected into past inflection "*san*". In this respect, the verb phrase "*huduu yavsan* 'went to the countryside' in (9) is like English verb phrase "*doing her homework*" in (10a) in that it constitutes a verb phrase. On the other hand, the embedded clause "*Bold-iin huduu yav-san* "with past inflectional verb" *yav-san* "in Mongolian behaves like a noun phrase in its distribution, and in showing genitive case on the subject as in shown in (10b).

(10) a.   ….. doing her homework
     b.   Anna's doing….

It means that the gerundive (10a) "*doing her homework* "constitutes a VP. "*Ing*" is a verbal affix.   Any verb can appear in the gerundive construction. On the other hand, as shown in (10b), the subject of the gerundive-*Anna's*   behaves like the subject of a noun phrase (possessor) not the subject of sentence. This is most evident in the fact it receives genitive case, not nominative case in English. The problem is how genitive and accusative cases are licensed on embedded subjects and function as an argument within the embedded clauses in Mongolian. The goal of the present work is to analyse the puzzle of the genitive and accusative subject construction, and more generally, to defend subordinate clauses in Mongolian have one more structure CP+XP+TP+VP in comparison with canonical clause like CP+TP+VP of English-type languages.

Structural case vs. inherent case

Case is relation between an argument and its syntactic surroundings under the structural relationship of sisterhood and locality relationship. This relation which plays a crucial role in the definition of case assignment is called Government.

(11) A governs B if and only if:
    a. A is a head
    b. A m-commands B
    c. A and B are adjacent. cf. Chomsky (1981)

Under the government, it requires case assigner to become adjacent to the NP that receives the case. This condition on case licensing is exemplified by the following examples in English.

(12) a. I believe very deeply that she is genius.
    b. * I will very deeply believe her to be genius.

In (12a) the adverb "*deeply*" may intervene the verb and CP because the CP" that *she is genius*" does not receive Case. (12b), which is ungrammatical, is ruled out in that it violates additional condition (11c) for structural case licensing. Now let us consider whether the adjacency condition applies to case licensing in Mongolian.

(13) a. Dulma ter nom-iig nomiin san-d ugsun.
Dulma-nom the book-acc library-dat give-pst
'*Dulma gave to the library the book'.
Intended: 'Dulma gave the book to the library'.
b. Dulma Bat-tai unuudur uulz-san.
Dulma-nom Bat-com today meet-pst
*Dulma met today Bat'.
Intended; 'Dulma met Bat today'

In (13a) a place adverb intervenes between the object and the verb. The object is assigned accusative case. In (13b) a time adverb intervenes between the object and the adverb. Also, the object receives Accusative case. Thus, the adjacency condition on accusative case licensing does not work in Mongolian.

Chomsky (1981) divides cases into two major classes; structural and inherent. The term "the structural case" is based on the following common properties of nominative and accusative cases. They are marked in terms of the structural relation between case assigners and case assignee. Nominative and accusative cases are both defined at surface structure (SS).

(14) Structural case licensing appears in the following way:
    a.[xp X……YP]
    b. [xp YP ……X]
    c. X[zp YP …. Z]

YPs can be assigned structural case by the head X based on the satisfaction of structural case assignment. In (14a), accusative case may be licensed to YP by X. In (14b), YP is licensed nominative case by X. In (14c) structural case may be licensed to YP not by X but in terms of theta–marking. This kind of case marking is called subject to object-raising. On the other hand, case that is defined at deep structure (DS) and involves a thematic relation between the case assigner and the case assignee is called inherent case. Genitive and oblique cases are widely assumed typical types of inherent case. Also, Chomsky (1981) maintained that categorical features are closely related to the definition of structural and inherent case licensing. In other words, it can be said that Chomsky's 'definition of case licensing is based on the categorical feature. For

example, categories of [+N][1] are inherent case assigner, whereas categories of [-N] are not. In accordance with this definition, N(oun) and A(djective) which are [+N] categories, are inherent case assigners on whereas V and P which are [-N] categories are not.

Subject to object-raising in Mongolian

Limited number of verbs in Mongolian display the same effects of Object-Raising behaviour observed with the *believe* class of verbs in English, where the subject of lower clause receives accusative Case from the higher verb. The difference is that the object raising verbs in Mongolian select tensed clause. In the Mongolian embedded subject can either stay in –situ and get a nominative case or raise to the higher clause and get an accusative case as shown in (15).

(15) a.   Bi [Bold-iig untsan] gej bodson.
     I [Bold-acc sleep-pst/COMP think-pst
     'I   think   that   Bold   slept'.
     b. Bi [Bold   untsan] gej bodson
     I [Bold-nom sleep-pst COMP think-pst
     'I think that Bold slept'.

As shown in (15) a certain verb like "*bodoh*"(think) in Mongolian takes a clausal complementizer, *"gej"* and the subject of the embedded clause can be marked with only accusative and whereas a class of verbs like" *medeh"* (know) takes   adnominal affix "*gedeg"* and the subject of the embedded clause can be marked with either nominative, accusative or genitive case with little semantic difference. Subject to object-raising in Mongolian seems to be dependent upon the properties of the matrix verb.

Consider the following examples in English and Mongolian.

(16)   V matrix [NP to VP embedded]
(17) a. She expected [me to teach English].
     b. She expected [that I would teach English].

In (18a) NP "*me"* gets case from outside the embedded infinitival clause and the case relationship crosses a TP boundary. In (18b) nominative case is licensed to NP due to presence of complementizer.

Let us look at at the Mongolian counterpart.

(19) [Namaig angli hel zaana]   gej   ter
     bod-son
     [I-acc   English teach FUT] COM   he
     expect-pst
     'He expects that I will teach English'.

Chomsky (2008) argues that phase head transmits its features to its complement. Thus, COMP transmits its [f] edge feature (EF) to T, thus only T is possible to license nominative Case. Namely, the COMP transmits its [f]-features to the embedded T in (19), and the nominative case on the embedded subject is assigned by T. This feature transmission does not appear in the Mongolian version. Consequently, we propose that the accusative case of the embedded subject is assigned by matrix V, which inherits feature from the matrix V.   In other words, accusative case in the embedded subject with overt complementizer "*gej"* is obligatory raising in Mongolian as presented in (19). One of the pieces of evidence for subject to object-raising in English is that raised NPs can be passivized.

(20) a. John believed him to be a genius.
     b. She was believed to be a genius.

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[1]Chomsky (1981) claimed that lexical categories are composed of feature complexes of [+N] [-N], [+V] [-V].

According to this feature complex, we can define basic lexical categories as follows.

N=[+N], [-V]   A=[+N], [+V]

V=[-N], [+V]   P=[-N] [-V]

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

(21) a. Bi ene hulgaichiig barigdsan gej medsen.

I this thief-acc catch –PASS/COM know-pst

'I knew that this thief was caught.'

b. Ene hulgaich- barigdsan gej medegdsen

This thief catch-PASS/COM know – PASS/pst

Int; 'This thief was known to have been caught.'

(22) [TP… [VP SUBJ V' [CP t subj…] Hiraiwa (2000)

In this section, adopting optional raising analysis of Hiraiwa (2000) we attempt to show some pieces of evidence against the subject to object raising analysis in Mongolian:

(23) Adverbial clauses:

Bi Dulmag yavahiin umnu utasdsan
I Dulma-acc go-FUT before call-pst
'I called before Dulma went'.

In (23), the postposition "*umnu*" (before) selects accusative case on its complement "*Dulma yavah* "(Dulma went) and the postposition and its complement are an adverbial modifier. Raising out of the adverbial modifier "*Dulmaag yavahiin umnu*" (Before Dulma went) is blocked by (24).

(24) Adjunct Island Constraint

Nothing may be moved out of a clausal adjunct (Lasnik 1999).

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

(25) a. Dulma margaash Boldiig yavsaniig medeh bolno.

Dulma tomorrow Bold-acc go-pst/acc know/ will –FUT

'Tomorrow, Dulma will know that Bold left'.

b.*Dulma Boldiig margaash yavsaniig medeh bolno

Dulma Tuya-acc tomorrow go-pst/acc know / will-FUT

Int; 'tomorrow, Dulma will know that Tuya left'.

In (25a) the adverb *margaash* (tomorrow) is modifying the matrix verb. However, that matrix adverb cannot appear after the accusative embedded subject *Dulma-g* as shown by (25b).

Evidence against subject-to-object raising comes from the fact that accusative embedded subjects lack direct object property. The embedded subject in Mongolian can occur in the genitive case as shown in (26a). In other words, the subject of embedded object clause can be nominative (unmarked), accusative and genitive with little semantic difference. The matrix subject may occur in different positions.

(26) a. Bi Ene hulgaich-iin bari-gd- saniig medsen

I this thief-gen catch –PASS-pst/acc know-pst

'I know that this thief was caught'.

b. Bi ene hulgaich-iig barigdsaniig medsen
I this thief-acc catch –PASS-pst know-pst
'I know that this thief was caught'.

c. ene hulgaich barigdsaniig bi medsen
this thief –acc catch –PASS-pst I know-pst
'I know that this thief was caught'.

Based on all pieces of evidence against subject-to-object analysis, new proposal will be offered related to cases on embedded subjects. According to Chomsky's (1998) implementation of Agree, I attempt to propose that accusative case on the embedded subject is licensed by the matrix *v* through Agree.

According to this analysis, the accusative subject needs not to lift to the matrix clause for its case to be assigned.

Information structure and specificity

Cross - linguistically, information structure can be realized through a wide variety of linguistic phenomena. In English information structure is defined by pitch, intonation, and clefts whereas in Mongolian it can be expressed by anaphora, topic marking affixes, specialized discourse particle and scrambling. In this section, we claim that genitive case marked subject indicates specificity and topicalization (see Rizzi 1997) under certain morpho-syntactic conditions, rather than indicating just a contrast to the subject. Specifically, if the information is specific, the subject is genitive case-marked and if the information is generic, the subject is not genitive case- marked.

(27) a.Bold-iin huugiin saihan duuldagiigee.
Bold-GEN son-GEN well sing
(exclamation "ee")
Int: Wow, it is a wonderful song that Bold's son sang!
b. Ene huugiin saihan duuldagiig ee
This son-GEN well sing
Int: "Wow, it is a wonderful song that this son sang!"
c. Huugiin saihan duuldagiig ee*
Son-GEN well sing *
Int: Wow, it is a wonderful song that the son sang!

(27a) and (27b) are grammatical in that the genitive case marked subject coexists with the pronominal "*Bold*" and the determiner 'ene' (this) whereas (27c) is ungrammatical because of not containing the determiners like "*Ene*" ("this" in English). Furthermore, it is observed that it is ungrammatical if the nominative case marked subject coexists with the exclamation suffix as shown below (27a) whereas it is grammatical if the nominative case-marked subject does not coexist with the exclamation suffix in (27b).

(28) a. Huu saihan duuldagiig ee*
Son-NOM well sing*
Huu saihan duuldag
Son-NOM well sing - PRESENT SIMPLE

The following evidence shows us that genitive case is related to topicalization in that topic marker "*min*" in (28) coexists with the genitive case marked subject and it does not coexist with the accusative and nominative case marked subject.

(29) [Aav*/ iin/ iig/* min hiisen] emeeliig chi harav uu?
[Aav-NOM*/-GEN/ACC* –TOP make-PAST] emeel-ACC you see-PAST-QUESTION
"Did you see the saddle that my father made?"

Also, evidence in support of this claim comes from the following sentences.

(30) a. [Udur bur nuguu huuhdiin uilah] chimee
Everyday child -GEN cry-h noise
The noise which (certain) child cries (makes?) everyday
b.[Udur bur nuguu huuhed uilah] chimee
Everyday child -NOM cry-h noise
The noise which (uncertain) a child cries everyday
c. [Udur bur nuguu huuhdiig uilah] chimee*
Everyday child -ACC cry-h noise
The noise which (certain) child cries everyday

Note that the choice of the genitive, accusative and nominative case-marked subject leads to specific and nonspecific information respectively as shown in (30a.b.c). In the light of this (30a.b.c), let us look at the following subjects, which are substituted by pronouns.

(31) [Udur bur tuunii uilah] chimee

Every day she-GEN cry-h noise

The noise which (certain) he cries everyday

D. Tserenpil (2005) considers "min" in Mongolian as a Case-bound particles which expresses topic meaning.

(32) a. [Udur bur ter uilah] chimee*

Everyday child -NOM cry-h noise

The noise which (uncertain) he cries everyday

b. [Udur bur tuuniig uilah] chimee*

Every day he -ACC cry-h noise

The noise which (certain) child cries everyday

As shown in (32a.b.c) only (32a) is grammatical whereas (32.b) and (32.c) are unavailable because of the replaced pronoun "ter" (he/she). It means that pronoun is always assumed to be known to the addressees as illustrated below:

(33) Definiteness Scale Personal pronoun> proper pronoun> definite NP>indefinite NP (Kornfilt 2005). Having looked at this evidence that a genitive case marked subject refers to definiteness and specificity in Modern Mongolian, we now turn to look at a rather different kind of operation.

Optionality in case marking in relative clauses

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

(33) a. Japanese: 山田が/の買った]本

Yamada-GEN/NOM buy-PAST book

"The book that Yamada bought" CP (Banno:2013)

TP C[+N] [Nom/Gen,Adnom]

b. Mongolian: [Dulmaagiin hiisen] hool

Dulmaa-

NOM*/GEN do-PAST] food

"The food that Dulma cooked"

In the above-mentioned environments, the subject that is usually marked by the nominative case marking can appear in the genitive case marking. In contrast, in the Mongolian relative clause, there is no optionality and only the genitive case marking is possible as shown in (b). The case marking optionality within the complement clauses in Modern Mongolian is reversal of the optionality in Japanese complement clauses. In Japanese complement clauses allow only nominative subject whereas in Mongolian complement clauses triple case alternation (nominative, accusative and genitive) is possible.

(34) Japanese:

a. [CP anata-ga /*no uti-de tabemono-o tukuru to] kiita.

you NOM/*GEN home-at food-ACC cook C] heard.

"(I) heard that you will cook food at home"

(35) Mongolian

a. [Dulma hool hii-sen-iig] bi medsen

[Dulma-NOM food cook-ACC] I know

'I know that Dulma cooked at home'

b. [Dulma-giin hool hii-sen-iig] bi medsen

[Dulma-GEN food cook-ACC] I know

'I know that Dulma cooked at home'

c. [Dulma-g hool hii-sen-iig] bi medsen

[Dulma-ACC food cook-AND-ACC] I know

'I know that Dulma cooked food at home'

Except for the difference on the subject case markers, the patterns of verbal predicate within the complement clauses are identical as shown in (35a.b.c). This evidence leads us to conclude that subordinate clauses with the genitive case marked subject is C-licensing in Modern Mongolian. For our present purposes, however, nominative case marked subject as shown in (35.a), accusative case marked subject as illustrated in (35.c) are not immediately relevant, since they can be combined with ECM, DOM.

Conclusion

In conclusion, based on these analyses of multi-layered functional category, we claim that the head of CP is defined by features, like [+/- N (ominal), [+/-(M)odality] in Mongolian. The feature N represents the nominal status of CP's, whereas the feature M represents the modality on certain complementizers. Then, embedded clauses in Mongolian have one more structure in comparison with canonical structure in English. More specifically, embedded clauses with genitive case marked subject are focus phrases(?) related to its semantic and syntactic evidence in Mongolian. Also, we demonstrated that parameters characterize the grammars of individual languages such as English and Mongolian based on the differences of case licensing of embedded subject in two languages. Specifically, we propose that embedded clause in Mongolian has one more structure in comparison with the canonical clause structure CP+TP+VP of English adopting the analysis of split projection by Rizzi (1997). Canonical structures of embedded clauses in English and Mongolian:

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

Secondly, we propose there are two types of raising analysis in accordance with accusative subject construction:

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

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

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Digital literacy studies: The implications of theoretical concepts

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Abstract: The paper outlines the concepts of multimodality and digital literacies which are proved useful in the investigation of the literacy practices associated with and mediated by digital technologies. In addition, a number of critical perspectives related to digital inequality have been discussed. Digital literacy has been attributed to a variety of distinctive characteristics, such as critical thinking, the ability to master multiple discourses, and reflection of people's identities, facilitating learning and social participation, according to the research works studied as part of this implication.

Keywords: multimodality, literacy, digital inequality, communication practices

The paper aims to briefly review the concepts of multimodality, digital literacies and digital inequality that are associated with digital strand of Literacy Studies. With the focus of Literacy Studies shifting to the changing and emerging literacy practices mediated by digital technologies, new perspectives on understanding multiple forms of texts have been required. In response, researchers use multiple theoretical and methodological perspectives and disciplines since "no one theory is adequate to engage the richness, complexity, variety and novelty inherent in the literacy and learning practices associated with the use of new media" (Snyder, 2007, p. 404). For example, multimodality has become an important aspect of communication practices in the digital world (Carrington, 2005; Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006; Pahl & Rowsell, 2006b).

Multimodality

To help explain the literacy practices associated with the use of digital technologies which involve different modalities including graphs, images, speech, hypertext, sound, and video, Kress (2000, 2003) has developed a theory of multimodality. According to Kress (2000), all texts are multimodal because they are based on some elements of linguistic, visual or spatial design that involve different modes of meaning and representation. In a multimodal approach, meanings are made and received not only linguistically but also through a variety of modes and "to be literate means recognising how different modalities are combined in

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complex ways to create meaning" (Snyder & Bulfin, 2008, p. 809). In the context of technologies, where these different modes are presented on screen, "the theoretical change is from linguistics to semiotics" (Kress, 2003, pp. 35-36). The screen becomes a site for multimodal texts to be created and interpreted, where their meanings are distributed across modes. The affordances of the materials used in creating texts also impact on the meaning of a text (Kress, 2003). For example, using search engines efficiently in doing assignments affords university students the possibility of academic success. Further, Kress (2003) explains that meaning is made through articulation and interpretation: "Meaning is the result of (semiotic) work, whether as *articulation* in the outwardly made sign, as in writing, or as *interpretation* in the inwardly made sign, as in reading" (p. 37).

Though the theory of multimodality is useful to understand literacy practices with technologies, Street (2000) cautions against focusing only on the channel or mode of communication in a study as there is a risk of failing to take into account the social contexts of technology uses and falling into channel or technology determinism. Likewise, Moje (2009) argues that studying individuals engaged with multiple modalities in combination with other dimensions of their experiences and contexts, such as social contexts, their identities and positions as citizens in a global world, and the power of their literacies, makes the studies more comprehensive. Kress and Street (2006) have called for bringing together multimodality with Literacy Studies as the two theories complement each other. While multimodality focuses on studying semiotic modes and the ways they are used in communication, Literacy Studies focuses on the underlying social contexts of reading and writing. These theories are used in combination in a number of studies

including some of those reported in Pahl and Rowsell's (2006b) edited book *Travel notes from the new literacy studies.*

In addition, as Literacy Studies has been critiqued by some researchers for focusing only on the local and not involving broader social processes, such as globalisation, the relationship between the local and the global is appreciated and bridged by combining multimodality with Literacy Studies (Pahl & Rowsell, 2006a). For example, Brandt and Clinton (2002) argue about "the limits of the local" in Literacy Studies: "In truth, if reading and writing are means by which people reach – and are reached by – other contexts, then more is going on locally than just local practice" (p. 338). They argue that by examining the material dimensions of literacy where literacy is viewed as objects or technologies which "travel, integrate and endure" across contexts, local practices can be transcontextualised (p. 338). Similarly, Blackburn and Clark (2007), Collins and Blot (2003), Lewis, Enciso and Moje (2007), Luke (2004) and Prinsloo and Baynham (2008) contend that studies of local literacies need to consider the impact of global contexts and literacies and extend their theoretical lens with other theories including multimodality to explore not only the social and ideological consequences of literacy but also the material consequences. For instance, Luke (2004) argues:

> the issue on the table is not simply whether literacy has autonomous or ideological effects, but how those ideological effects actually are used and deployed to shape capital, social relations and forms of identity, access to material and discourse resources – that is, to paraphrase Bourdieu (1993), how literate practices have convertible exchange value as forms of capital … a finer grained multilevel of analysis [is required] of which kinds of textual practice count, for whom, where,

and in what contexts, but also in relation to the availability of other kinds of capital: economic, social, ecological, libidinal and otherwise. That is, ethnographies can tell us how literacy counts, how it is made to count – but they can do so only in combinations with other multi-levelled social scientific analyses of the availability, local use and control of other semiotic and material resources and social relations. (p. 333)

Luke advocates combining Literacy Studies with the theories of multimodality and social theories to investigate and analyse the various consequences of literacy for people's everyday lives by examining the system of exchange underlying literacy practice where different types of resources are attached to particular meanings or values as part of social practice. This approach also helps to explore which literacy practices are dominant or vernacular or marginalised and who gains access to those literacy practices. Ultimately, this approach helps to explain the power relationships in those literacy practices.

In addition to previous studies, there has been a focus on impacts of multimodality in asynchronous and synchronous online communication. A study (Cai et al., 2022) of online communication modes on learner experience reveals that multimodal communication impacts students' interaction and participation in online synchronous classes and it creates more sense of belonging which was a critical concern during the distant online classes during Covid-19. They highlighted the necessity of building an environment that brings students feel together so they can communicate in multiple modes, for instance, by sending feedback and questions through chat during the class running in video conferencing.

Moreover, the technologies and sign-systems used when using technology have an impact on the meaning generated, and which modal the learners choose depends on their affordances and restrictions (Schnaider et al., 2020). A new form of meaning is created by the learners' decisions that incorporate various characteristics from the original information by using functional properties and combining them with semiotic properties. Thus, it is important to understand whether certain functional properties can be paired with certain semiotic properties and how they relate to meaning created in a specific context.

Digital literacy and literacies

'Digital' literacy, also labelled as new, technological, electronic, information, techno and silicon, refers to the capacity to make meanings within networked computer resources (Snyder, 2007; Snyder & Bulfin, 2008). Paul Gilster (1997) defines digital literacy as "the ability to understand and use information in multiple formats from a wide range of sources when it is presented via computer" (p. 1). It includes at the very least four key literacies: searching the internet, navigating hypertext, evaluating information content and knowledge assembly (Gilster, 1997). He argues that the concept of digital literacy extends the traditional understanding of literacy and is much broader than computer literacy because digital literacy is about "mastering ideas not keystrokes" (ibid., p. 1). Although over two decades old, Gilster's concept is important because it emphasises critical thinking and judging information in the digital world as the core of digital literacy.

Extending Gilster's ideas, Bawden (2008, pp. 29-30) defines four components of digital literacy: underpinnings (literacy *per se* and computer skills), background knowledge (the ways in which information is created and communicated and forms of information resources), central competencies (reading and

understanding digital and non-digital formats, creating, communicating and evaluating information, knowledge assembly, etc) and attitudes and perspectives (independent learning and sensible conduct in digital environments). In a similar way, Martin (2008) proposes explaining digital literacy as:

> the awareness, attitude and ability of individuals to appropriately use digital tools and facilities to identify, access, manage, integrate, evaluate, analyze and synthesize digital resources, construct new knowledge, create media expressions, and communicate with others, in the context of specific life situations, in order to enable constructive social action; and to reflect upon this process. (p. 167)

Importantly, Martin (2008) attributes digital literacy to people's identity. Digital literacy then comprises a variety of sub-literacies, such as computer, information, media and communication literacy: it reflects people's identities and facilitates their learning and social participation.

Based on Gee's (1996) work, Lankshear and Knobel (2008) expand the notion of digital literacy to digital literacies by considering being digitally literate as mastering multiple Discourses, that is, ways of being in the world. As digital literacy is "shorthand for the myriad social practices and conceptions of engaging in meaning making mediated by texts that are produced, received, distributed, exchanged, etc." (Lankshear & Knobel, 2008, p. 5), the ways people engage in practices with digital technologies must be understood as digital literacies, not as a singular literacy. In particular, online practices, such as blogging, video gaming, text messaging, online social networking, photoshopping, and so on, involve multiple literacies and different ways of meaning making (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011). In the context of higher education, Lea and Jones (2011) also suggest using digital

'literacies' in the plural as it enables researchers to view literacy as engagement in a variety of contextualised social and cultural practices around texts instead of only focusing on written products by students. In this respect, it is more sensible to refer to digital literacies as social practices because they are varied and shaped by social contexts and power structures.

Barton and Lee (2012), for instance, extend and redefine the notion of vernacular literacies (Barton & Hamilton, 1998) in the context of Web 2.0 after examining the literacy practices associated with Flickr. Barton and Lee (2012, pp. 295-297) argue that vernacular literacy practices on Web 2.0 are self-generated or voluntary; they are a source of creativity, invention and originality leading to sharing knowledge and support online; they are learned informally and change regularly, and are valued on Web 2.0. Originally, vernacular practices were less valued than dominant practices (Barton & Hamilton, 1998). However, in the context of Web 2.0 vernacular literacy practices are valued and not local anymore as people write publicly – from leaving comments to running their own blogs. Importantly, Barton and Lee (2012) conclude that "the distinctions between dominant and vernacular and between global and local become blurred as the vernacular becomes more important, and there is more interaction between the local and the global" (p. 297). Both the global and the local are manifested in digital literacy practices on the internet such as social networking, blogging and tweeting as "there is a thread of networks and practices that cuts across cultures, sites, communities of practice, and identities in practice that can be traced" (Pahl & Rowsell, 2012, pp. 103-104). Hence, identity is central to individuals' engagement with digital technologies.

Everyday digital literacy practices are closely connected with identity, "the filter through which we present ourselves to the

world" (Pahl & Rowsell, 2012, p. 119). Gee (1996) and Collins and Blot (2003) emphasise that people occupy multiple identities, not a singular identity. In the digital world, particularly by participating in "affinity spaces" (Gee, 2004, p. 67), people develop and enact their identities while they are engaged in "personal goal-directed pursuits" (Lankshear & Knobel, 2011, p. 83) with different online communities. As people's identities are reflected in their multimodal texts in online worlds, identities are seen as 'sedimented' in them and in the practices (Rowsell & Pahl, 2007). Thus researchers such as Alvermann et al. (2012), Merchant (2005), Rowsell and Pahl (2007), and Thomas (2007) have examined how digital literacy practices are informed by the notion of identities. Identities are thus viewed as embedded in digital literacy practices and can be traced in texts created in digital worlds.

Digital worlds increasingly attract many researchers and Tinmaz et al (2022) reviewed contemporary studies in the area of digital literacy and categorized the theme into four major themes such as digital literacy, digital competencies, digital skills and thinking. They described digital literacy as "the human proficiencies to live, learn and work in the current digital society" (p.5) named it as the major concern. The umbrella themes categorized in this paper encompass a number of concepts related to digital or internet skills, disparities in digital literacies furthered by digital inequalities triggered by digitalization needs.

Digital inequality

Generally, digital inequality is seen as a subset of social inequality (Burbules & Callister, 2000; Castells, 2000; Hargittai, 2008; Selwyn, 2004; Selwyn & Facer, 2010; van Dijk, 2005; Warschauer, 2003; Warschauer & Matuchniak, 2010). As new technologies have

become important for educational opportunities and for participation in the social, economic, political and cultural life of society, social exclusion from this realm will mean severely limited life chances of many sorts (Burbules & Callister, 2000, p. 19). Not to be socially included means "to lack access to important and powerful discourses; to be positioned as deficit; to be blocked from effective participation in the political and economic processes of the mainstream culture around you; and often, as a consequence to be spatially marginalized" (Carrington, 2007, p. 103). As digital literacy has become an important skill in the 21st century for personal development and social participation, in this respect, it has become an attribute of students in higher education and can even define their 'marketability' in the labour market (Selwyn, Marriott & Marriott, 2000). If there isn't facility with digital literacies, a barrier to employment after graduation, to learning informally using online sources or to social inclusion may emerge.

According to Warschauer (2003), in modern society, the ability to access, adapt and create knowledge using digital technologies is critical to social inclusion. Based on his research, Warschauer (2003) identifies four sets of resources (physical, digital, human, social) which contribute to using digital technologies effectively and constitute a framework which promotes technology use for social inclusion. In other words, if used well, these resources can promote social development and inclusion. If handled poorly, they can "serve as a vicious cycle of underdevelopment and exclusion" (Warschauer, 2003, p. 48). Warschauer (2003) explains that physical resources refer to access to information and communication technologies, such as computers and the internet. Digital resources refer to meaningful content or materials online in multiple languages. Human resources concern the affordances of digital technologies such as

multiple literacies and personal resources including knowledge and networks. Social resources refer to the community, institutional and societal structures that support access to digital technologies and the ways these structures promote social capital accumulation through technology uses. These resources are intertwined and dependent on each other and the absence of access to these resources contributes to digital inequality.

In a similar way to Warschauer (2003), other researchers also see digital inequality as a subset of social inequality. Snyder, Angus and Sutherland-Smith (2004) concluded from their study that material access to computers and the internet does not guarantee full access to their affordances. Instead, these researchers argue that the quality of access is influenced by a variety of resources such as personal dispositions towards technology use, social networks, knowledge and skills and sociocultural contexts. For instance, accessing online information and resources from a home computer is not necessarily the same as accessing the same materials in an internet café or public library (Selwyn, 2004). Even having identical physical access to digital technologies does not mean having equality in accessing technologies. In a discussion of the issues of access and credibility in relation to social inclusion, Burbules and Callister (2000) argue:

> Access issues include who can use the Internet, who can afford a computer, who can get an online connection, who knows how to operate the software, and so on. Issues of credibility include who can make sense of what they find on the Internet, who can judge what is and is not worthwhile, and who can gain credibility and visibility as an information provider. (p. 19)

As Burbules and Callister explain, access is necessary but not sufficient as a condition for the appropriate use of digital technologies in the communication of knowledge. Even people who have computers and online connections may not necessarily use the internet effectively and may not be able to sort out which information and ideas are worthwhile.

Digital literacy can be either empowering or stultifying since people use the internet for everything from constructing knowledge creatively to receiving multimedia glitz passively (Warschauer, 1999). This means that the internet "creates an opportunity and a problem: the opportunity of having information from millions of sources and points of view, and the problem of having information from millions of sources and points of view" (Burbules & Callister, 2000, p.71). For instance, in order to take advantage of opportunities offered by the internet, students are in urgent need of learning how to make good decisions about what they read. This requires one crucial aspect of critical literacy. Students can become critical users by learning strategies such as seeking relevant websites that collect and cross-reference resources, reflecting critically, cross-checking information through multiple sources and judging credibility (Burbules & Callister, 2000). As Burbules and others argue, critical 'reading' (it's also viewing, etc) of the internet should be encouraged, which includes discussing misinformation (false, out of date, incomplete in a misleading way), malinformation ("bad" information, e.g. sexual images, dangerous or damaging information, political views from militant groups), messed-up information (poorly organised and presented, not usable) and mostly useless information (useless Web pages) (Burbules & Callister, 2000). Similarly, Goodfellow and Lea (2007, p. 92) emphasise the importance of 'information literacy', which includes evaluating, navigating, manipulating and presenting information sources and consuming information critically. It means that if students acquire information literacy skills

they will know how to access and manage information efficiently as students but will also be able to do this in their future careers. It is clear that to become 'multi-literate' students need to learn productively in a global society.

People with limited access to digital literacy practices can experience the deepening of existing inequality and further marginalisation. For instance, the predominance of English in digital worlds can affect the digital literacy practices of non-English speaking users (Warschauer, 2003). In the Mongolian context, for example, students with no English can be excluded from using online resources for their studies as the availability of online content in their native language is much more limited than in English. By contrast, students proficient in English can facilitate their learning or improve their English informally by participating in various social practices on the internet with English speaking peers. As Barton, Ivanic, Appleby, Hodge and Tusting (2007) point out, learning involves social interaction and participation because engaging in any social practice means learning in the broad sense. This aligns with Rogoff's insight: "Humans develop through their changing participation in the sociocultural activities of their communities" (2003, p. 11). Through social participation or collaboration on the internet students can learn from each other informally.

As Lea and Street (1998) argue, students need to adapt to new ways of knowing by understanding, interpreting and organising knowledge. They achieve this through engaging with academic literacy practices, that is, reading and writing within their disciplines. In other words, students need to engage with textually mediated practices independently online and offline. For higher education students, electronic and print literacies intermingle as part of a set of academic literacies, though there are important distinctions between those literacies (Warschauer, 1999). As such, this population's digital literacy practices are worth researching because in the context of Mongolia, for instance, such studies can inform policy makers and teachers about the actual uses of technologies by students which can then be reflected in policy and curriculum to enhance their learning and prepare them for future careers.

A report on a qualitative assessment of digital access and skills of vulnerable groups in Mongolia (UNDP, 2021) claims that younger generations have more advanced digital skills than older generations and women tend to benefit more from social networking engagement. However, they tend to suffer more from cyber-attacks and inaccurate information than males do. The inequality of digital skills and access should be continually studied in the future.

University students' digital literacy practices

In fact, it is impossible to generalise about university students' technology use. There is a need for detailed studies about their internet use to inform the effective integration of the internet into university education. Importantly, some researchers such as Kennedy et al. (2008) and Margaryan and Littlejohn (2008) suggest that it is impossible to generalise about the students as technologically-fluent 'digital natives', following Prensky (2001) who argues that students born between the late 1980s and the mid-1990s are the first generation of digital natives who have grown up surrounded by and using digital technologies. Moreover, Bennett and Maton (2010), Lea and Jones (2011) and Selwyn (2008) have called for more in-depth qualitative research to be carried out with students to understand how digital technologies fit into their everyday lives, the nature of the contexts and practices with technology and how

meanings are made through their engagement with digital technologies. Both Selwyn (2008) and Wilber (2008) acknowledge that in-depth and empirical studies of university or college students' everyday uses of the internet are limited compared with the fine-grained studies in school contexts.

After reviewing a number of studies about students' literacy practices, Ivanic (2009) found that most of the studies focused on the linguistic aspects of literacy practices for academic purposes, such as the features of the students' texts. By not focusing only on academic literacy practices, she and her colleagues (Ivanic et al, 2009) examined students' everyday literacy practices associated with their own personal purposes (vernacular) and also course demands in their universities in the UK. They found that the practices of many students were "purposeful, collaborative, learned through participation, reflective of their values and identities, agentic, multimodal, using multimedia, and generative" (ibid., p. 180). They concluded that students' everyday literacy practices are abundant and diverse, and that vernacular literacy practices can become resources for students' academic studies. This and another study in the context of higher education by Lea and Jones (2011) highlight the importance of applying sociocultural perspectives of literacy within the field of Literacy Studies to studying new literacy practices in higher education.

Another issue raised by some researchers associated with students' uses of the internet is when "clicking replaces thinking" (Brabazon, 2007, p. 16) in higher education. Brabazon (2007) cautions educators about students' ignorance of critical thinking in assessing online information which can lead to plagiarism as they "googl[e] their way through a degree" (p. 49). Though Google provides students with opportunities to find out about various topics and to learn, Brabazon (2007) warns that Google facilitates laziness, poor scholarship and compliant thinking. Furthermore, she argues that Google helps people find information while education helps them to build knowledge. Bleazby (2012) also argues that the internet can make critical thinking seem redundant since all information and opinions appear equally valuable and reliable. In fact, the issue of plagiarism was actually raised by the students who participated in Lea and Jones's study (2011) investigating students' digital literacy practices. Though the students were concerned about plagiarism they did not have a broad understanding of the consequences of plagiarism. The studies show that though the internet facilitates students' learning this can also bring about problems associated with its use in the field of education which cannot be ignored. One example can be the emerging use of ChatGPT, a free language processing tool with the fastest-growing popularity that attracted over a hundred million users within the first two months after its launch (Hu, 2023). The tool gives students and researchers the opportunity to brainstorm the idea and create a text resource with a single click. However, that tool alarms educators about their students' awareness of academic integrity. The suggestion is that students should be encouraged to use the internet critically and intelligently.

Conclusion

Both Literacy Studies and multimodality theories provide useful theoretical concepts to study practices mediated by digital technologies. There is no single theory that can engage all the characteristics of new media. All the information in digital space is delivered in multiple modes and the meaning is created and perceived by its users in and across multiple modes. Digital literacy has been attributed to a variety of distinctive characteristics, such as critical thinking, the

ability to master multiple discourses, and reflection of people's identities, facilitating learning and social participation, according to the research works studied as part of this implication. The researchers and theorists suggest that digital literacy and digital inequality are not only concerned about unequal access to electronic devices, network coverage, or the availability of information in their own language but also the various levels of ability to critically assess information credibility

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Professional Development Programs' Impact on Tertiary Level English Language Teachers and Teacher Educators' Practice

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Abstract: Teacher development is the development of the education system. There is still an urgent need for the government to focus on the development of the lecturers and teachers working in teacher training schools and to develop them in a phased and reasonable manner. When organizing teacher development programs and activities, it is effective to organize them according to the needs and preferences of teachers. In this study, the researchers interviewed English language teachers in public and private universities, and the teachers participated in the study voluntarily. Twenty-four English lecturers at universities including two public universities (NUM, MSUE) and one private university (University of Humanities) were interviewed in the study the purpose of which is to find out how they feel about the results of teacher development programs. Although the respondents have a positive attitude towards teacher development programs, they are interested in further self-development. Also, when organizing teacher development programs, it is considered appropriate to take into consideration what skills teachers need to develop and acquire new ones. Considering that teachers are fully capable of defining their own needs and requirements as adults, it is appropriate to increase their participation in teacher development programs.

Keywords: professional development, tertiary level teachers, teacher educators, adult learning theory, the impact of professional development programs, teaching practice

Educating children is educating the country and furthering the world. Once, Dr. Qian Tang, who is Assistant Director-General for Education, UNESCO, said that "Education is the path to sustainability—o poverty alleviation, better health, environmental protection, and gender equality" (Unesco, 2015). There might be very few who disagree with the fact that one of the defining factors of the development of the country is the quality of education, and this quality is tightly related to the quality and professionalism of teachers.

As the demand for qualified education increases, the demand for qualified teachers rises. According to (UNESCO, UNESCO recommendation concerning the status of teachers , 1966), the word *"teacher"* covers all those persons in schools who are responsible for the education of pupils. In addition, teachers are builders who construct a knowledge society (Hargreaves. A., & Lo. L.,, 2000). Thus, they are people who have a direct effect on the student's learning achievement and learning enthusiasm. However, the roles of

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educators have been broadening. Sun stated that

> In a world defined by rapid change and development, where young people must be life-long learners, much is expected and demanded of teachers. The role of teachers is changing in the way that teachers no longer simply transfer information to students, but rather have become facilitators of student learning and creators of productive classroom environments. To support teachers in their changing roles and to enhance their rights and status, there is a need for consistent support for them in the form of sound policy-making practice. The need is increasingly gaining the recognition that is so richly deserves. (Sun, 2010)

There is no doubt that we also want these changes for the teachers' teachers, in other words, for teacher educators who educate all teachers. If the teacher's role is significant, the teacher educator's role is more significant. In this rapidly changing world, the changes occur in the interests of children as well. Therefore, teachers face the necessity to change themselves to make changes in their students. As Talbert & McLaughlin cited in (Hargreaves. A., & Lo. L.,, 2000) *said,* "teachers must therefore be able to build a special kind of professionalism- a new professionalism where they can learn to teach in ways that they were not taught themselves. However, changing by themselves is not easy, thus teachers' professional development should direct toward it somehow. Therefore, teachers should be able to realize the altering interests of their students, and according to these interests; they should be able to develop their teaching.

Conceptualization of professional development of teachers and teacher educators

It is obvious that teachers should be well-educated, professional, and *able* to

transform their knowledge into practice for the benefit of their students' growth since educating others is a quite demanding and responsible task. Teachers have great expectations to educate and create skilled, flexible, and talented children from stakeholders such as parents, school leaders, and policymakers and generally by society. To implement this *difficult* and responsible task, teachers should be educated and prepared appropriately during their pre-service education first. During student teachers' pre-service education, teacher educators play a significant role. (Lunenberg, M. L., Dengerink, J., & Korthagen, F., 2014) have defined *a teacher educator* as "one who teaches within a teacher education program and instructs and supervises (future) teachers in their professional development" *also including* those who work in teacher education institutions and schools and who oversee teaching, mentoring, and coaching future, novice, and experienced teachers (p. 5). Later, *they* added that teacher educators are not only teachers of teachers, but they are curriculum developers, and researchers too. In addition, teacher educators are not only practitioners who teach prospective teachers but also researchers who engage in research for further development. (Cochran-Smith, M., & Zeichner, K., 2005) highlighted that the obligations of teacher educators are *to* assist student teachers in learning to teach, engage in research work especially studying their own practice, and apply and implement policies related to teacher education. *They* argued as follows:

> One of the most important aspects of this life has been recognizing that to forward the larger enterprise of teacher education, teacher educators must work simultaneously on several projects. The first is helping prospective teachers begin the life-long process of learning to teach. The second is taking our own professional work as educators

as a research site and learning by systematically investigating our own practice and interpretive frameworks in ways that are critical, rigorous, and intended to generate both local knowledge and knowledge that is useful in more public spheres. And the third is analyzing and interrogating all policies that have an impact on teacher education from many different lenses, including political lenses and those related to social *(p. 220)*.

Further (Cochran-Smith, M., & Zeichner, K., 2005) asserted that the above-mentioned works take place *mostly* in communities *which* include student teachers, experienced teachers, and teacher educators through which all of them were learning.

Teacher educators as professionals have their own identities. In this vein, (Swennen, A., & van der Klink, M. (Eds), 2009) mentioned that the identities of teacher educators are built during their involvement in the communities of practice*,* and their identity has a great impact on these communities. Furthermore, Lave and Wenger (1991) cited in (Swennen, A., & van der Klink, M. (Eds), 2009) posit that professional learning is thus, the development of one's identity. Furthermore, (Swennen, A., & van der Klink, M. (Eds), 2009) reviewing *twenty-five* articles, revealed four sub-identities of teacher educators: teacher educators as school teachers, teacher educators as teachers in higher education, teacher educators as researchers, and teacher educators as teachers of teachers (or second-order teachers).

At a time when the education sector is the leading sector, the professional development of teachers and teacher educators and providing teachers with the opportunities to be professionally developed constantly are crucial for the development of individuals and the further prosperity of Mongolia. Offering and providing high-quality professional development programs is *crucial* to the improvement of teacher educators' teaching

practice and *to* the achievement of student teachers' learning.

Professional development and specifically continuing professional development (CPD*)* has been defined differently by different authors and researchers on the concept. However, we agree with Rose and Reynolds (2005) who recognize that the definition stated by (Day, 2013) *is* more encompassing of all behaviors which are intended to effect change in the classroom. Rose and Reynolds (2005*)* quote (Day, 2013) as defining CPD as

> Consisting of all-natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group, or school, which contribute, through these, to the quality of education in the classroom. It is the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew, and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purpose of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills, and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning, and practice with children, young people, and colleagues throughout each phase of their teaching lives. (p.219)

On their part, (Swennen, A., & van der Klink, M. (Eds), 2009) stated the following about professional development:

> We view professional development in general as the development of a professional identity. The development of a professional identity as a teacher educator will for the larger part take place while working as a teacher educator and by interacting with colleagues, student teachers, and others involved. It may also take place in more formal settings such as those created for the professional development of beginning teacher educators (formal induction settings) and experienced teacher educators, like undertaking a master's course, doing a Ph.D. course, or attending courses, workshops, and other more structured professional development activities. (p.134)

Lastly, specific to teacher professional development, Borko (2007) cited in (Desimone, 2009) described and defined professional learning of teachers *this way:*

> For teachers, learning occurs in many different aspects of practice, including their classrooms, their school communities, and professional development courses or workshops. It can occur in a brief hallway conversation with a colleague, or after school when counseling a troubled child. To understand teacher learning, we must study it within these multiple contexts, considering both the individual teacher-learners and the social systems in which they are participants. (p. 4)

Continuing professional development has been identified as one of the main key components of the profession including in-service training and upgrading, which not only affects the skills and knowledge that teachers bring to the classroom, but also affects the social status of the profession, the motivation and decision to become a teacher in the first place (UNESCO, Teacher support and motivation framework for Africa: emerging patterns, 2017). In addition, (Meke, 2013) observes that CPD programs bring change in teachers by improving their skills and knowledge, hence improving their effectiveness with students. The changes are mostly reflected in improved learning outcomes for students. In Mongolia recognizing the importance of CPD in improving teacher quality and *thereby* students' performance, the Ministry of Education established several structures to facilitate the delivery of CPD programs for teachers in the country.

There may be several ways for teacher educators to develop themselves*;* however, teachers' professional development is the most promising one. As we have noted earlier, different researchers have already suggested variable definitions of PD and discussed the significance of teachers' professional development activities. (Guskey, 2010) stated that "high-quality professional development is a central component in nearly every modern proposal for improving education" (p. 381). While professional development programs can have different contents and designs, they share the common goal*,* which is to change and improve the professional practices, beliefs, attitudes, and understanding of educators. (Guskey, 2010) Further *writes* that "professional development programs are systemic efforts to bring about change in the classroom practices of teachers, in their attitudes and beliefs, and in the learning outcomes of students" (p. 381). However, the effectiveness of these programs is crucial; therefore, the teacher professional development programs should have a substantial positive impact on teachers' practices, attitudes and beliefs, and their students' learning achievements. The professional development and training should be directed towards achieving certain demands that teachers have*,* and the most important thing is quality and open access (Ичинхорлоо, 2013). These programs should help teachers to be effectively developed, changed, and improved, and then their students' performance and achievement in the classroom will be improved at the same time. Considering all these issues, teacher education and teacher educators' professional development should be discussed. A few scholars have conducted studies on teacher educators' professional development programs and revealed the reasons why teacher educators should attend such programs.

Teaching English as a Foreign Language and EFL Teacher Education in Mongolia

The Democratic Revolution had a paramount impact not only on the country's

economy but also on the nation's entire educational structure, specifically, the nation's foreign language teaching policy. Even though the Russian language served them for many years, Mongolians had to realize that the necessity of English was significant. Whilst the English language started to become popular, the need for a new language teaching policy emerged in the education system in Mongolia and it had profound consequences for the entire educational structure of Mongolia (Cohen, 2004).

The government started to have relations with other nations, *including* developed and rapidly developing western and eastern countries. Multinational governments and non-government organizations entered Mongolia and made a number of changes in the education system. Connecting and communicating with the outside world, necessitated that Mongolia should develop, improve or spend more on the education system. Mongolia is included among countries where the English language is studied to intensify the development of the country and to use as a tool to communicate with other nations in this globalized world (Мөнхбаяр, 2016).

In Mongolian educational settings, there are some dilemmas and setbacks in English teacher education. First, there are no policy documents *that define* EFL teacher education and general English teaching *or set* the special standards for EFL teacher educators*;* credit hours for English learning are not adequate enough*;* and the necessities and demands of learners and society are not reflected in the curriculum of English (Мөнхбаяр, 2016). There is a standard of foreign language education in Mongolia*; however,* it covers only secondary school foreign language teaching. Unfortunately, there are no standards for EFL teaching in higher education institutions*, or* for EFL

teacher educators, which might be the reason for the weakness of EFL teaching quality in Mongolia (Мөнхбаяр, 2016). These issues are coordinated by the university and college administration. Developing English as a Foreign Language (EFL), *delete comma* teacher education and professionalism has been one of the priorities of the country's education system since the English language *became* the bridge to connect the country with the rest of the world. With globalization, enthusiasm to learn English has been growing among not only young people but middle-aged and even older people. The number of people who desire to learn English has been increasing day by day*,* and the study of the English language grew tremendously at all school levels, and the English language was included in the compulsory secondary and high school curriculum. In order to adapt to the new situation*, the* government of Mongolia began to take some measures immediately. As the Russian language was the premier foreign language taught in secondary schools and universities across the nation, and English was rarely studied, the demand for teaching staff who *could* teach the English language *increased* at all school levels.

As of 2003, there were 634 English teachers working in state secondary schools, 64 teaching in state college or university departments, and approximately another 50 working in private secondary schools and universities (Ministry of Education, Culture and Science of Mongolia, 2003). In addition, other measures *required* that teachers *at* all school levels *be* retrained and included in special in-service training or programs every *five* years. Teachers who have been successful are sent to native-speaking countries to share the experience or to be trained every year. There is one experienced tutor or trainer for every *ten* young novice teachers in secondary and high-level schools. Moreover, the

government offers more salaries to graduates who are willing to work in rural remote areas. Free accommodation and some social welfare are offered to them.

While EFL teachers who work in secondary schools have received more attention, the quality and professional development of EFL teacher educators who teach and prepare future English language teachers have been still critical in Mongolia. As aforementioned, there are no common standards for teacher educators *or* EFL teacher educators. Analyzing the main documents related to the professional development of teachers and teacher education *leads to* the following conclusion. First, there are no standards for teacher educators, and for EFL teacher educators as well in Mongolia. Second, most documents and policies related to teacher professional development are focused on secondary school teachers. Third, some of these documents and policies are still at the implementation level*; however,* the process is going slowly. Then, there is still no integrated system to evaluate and monitor the knowledge and skills of teachers.

The professional development of teacher educators, *who are* involved in foreign and local professional development programs and training which meet international standards and requirements*, is* crucial in Mongolian educational settings to educate their student teachers with high-quality education and prepare knowledgeable, skillful, and ethical teachers. According to the Higher Education Development Policy 2021, teacher educators can get one-year academic leave every six working years to develop professionally and advance their academic degree, but the starting date of the implementation is not clear so far (Мөнхбаяр, 2016). (Мөнхбаяр, 2016) further stated that there is no integrated policy *or* programs on the professional development of tertiary-level

teachers and teacher educators at the national level. This demonstrates that there is no legal *requirement* to be developed professionally for higher education institutions teachers and teacher educators as well.

The purpose of the study

The purpose of *this* study is to examine how teachers who teach English as a Foreign Language and teacher educators who teach student teachers in teacher education institutions perceive the impact of the professional development programs in which they take part.

Theoretical framework

To begin with, *reaching your goal* means *starting* with a clear understanding of your destination. It means knowing where you are going so that you better understand where you are now and that the steps you take are always in the right direction (Stephen R. Covey, 1989).

This study employs adult learning theory to understand the perceptions of teacher educators about professional development, its content or design, *its* effectiveness and impact, and their experiences toward their professional development. The above-mentioned theory is *suitable for* this study since this theory will help us understand why teacher educators as adult learners should be engaged in professional development programs, how they transform their acquired knowledge in the classroom practice and what changes professional development programs can bring to teacher educators' professional life.

Adult learning theory

The adult learning theory developed by (Knowles D. R., 1983) can be applied in designing effective professional development

since the teachers and educators are adult learners. According to (Knowles D. R., 1983) and his adult learning theory, teaching adults is much different than teaching children since the experience which adults gained through their lifetime and career becomes the important base for their learning. (Knowles M. S., 1980) introduced the term 'andragogy' *to differentiate* adult learning from pedagogy. Moreover, (Knowles M. S., 1980) claimed that adults are already aware of their needs, concerns, and interests that would *shape* their requirements. (Knowles M. S., 1980) developed six assumptions of adult learning theory, and a professional development plan can be shaped based on these assumptions. These assumptions include:

1. The Self —*this* concept is about *learners'* ability to choose what they want to learn and how they want to learn.

2. Experience—as people mature, they assemble a certain amount of experience that will be beneficial for their own learning.

3. Readiness—if adults feel something is useful for their daily life, they are ready to learn that.

4. Problem-oriented learning—adults are ready to be engaged in learning if they see the information is useful for solving emerging problems.

5. Internal motivation—adults are driven by their internal motivation than external motivation.

6. The need to know—*once adults realize* that they *need* to learn, it will be easy to teach them.

The theory is relevant to this study as teachers and teacher educators already possess their own way of learning. In this regard, teacher educators' professional development programs need to be in line with these assumptions to ensure effective learning for teacher educators. Teacher educators are involved in professional development programs due to different reasons such as upgrading professional skills, increasing pedagogical and technological knowledge, and promotion. Adult learning theory *tells us* that adult learners come to the training environment full of experiences to share and they already know the reasons why they should learn. Thus, teacher educators should be involved in the designing and planning of their professional development programs. That is, no one knows what they need better than teacher educators themselves since they were also student teachers once.

As (Taylor, 2013) states, learning covers acquiring knowledge, skills, and attitude, and learning theories should ideally be accounted for in learning in these three domains. Furthermore, (Taylor, 2013) explained that adult learning programs should have features with self-motivation and self-directedness, more authority to the learner, as well as learning by discovery. In planning and implementing any professional development programs, teacher educators' needs and interests should be considered.

The adult learning theory can be appropriate for this study for the following reasons: teacher should be part of the designing team for their professional development, it can lead to a deeper understanding of the ways to design effective professional development activities for teacher educators, teacher educators have a wealth of knowledge and experiences that may be effective for work-related activities, and *finally*, teacher educators as adults are already aware of the importance of the professional development programs, *as they are* one of the responsibilities teacher educators have.

This research explored how EFL teachers and teacher educators perceive the professional development programs, how the professional development is experienced and interpreted, *how it is* filtered through their previous experiences, beliefs, and assumptions

about their work, and how these interpretations are then translated into the actual behavior. In this study, qualitative data were collected.

Data analysis and findings

In this qualitative study in which in-depth interviews were conducted, the interviews allowed the researcher to gain deeper understanding of how professional development impacts teacher educators' teaching practice, and what problems they still have in real practice. The qualitative study approach also values in-depth interviews with the participants of the study (Creswell, Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach (2nd Ed.)., 2003). Qualitative researchers need to describe their past experiences with the research problems, participants, or settings that help the reader understand the connection between the researcher and the study, and should include statements about any potential bias which may cause the researcher to lean toward certain themes or research problems (Greenbank, 2003). The qualitative data was collected through follow-up interviews, which were done with *twenty-four* teacher educators who took part voluntarily. The interviews were conducted with twenty-four EFL teacher educators and interview guideline was available in both Mongolian and English language. Thirteen EFL teacher educators responded in the Mongolian language.

Drawing from the procedures proposed by Miles et al. (2014) the thematic data analysis began with transcribing the interview data, which was on a digital recorder, into interview scripts. To ensure that the data is clear and ready to analyze, as proposed by (Miles, M.B., Huberman, A.M. and Saldana, J., 2014), *the* researchers refined the transcribed texts and converted the field notes into expanded write-ups before the analysis

process began. (Maxwell, 2005) explains that this tries to bring order to the volumes of data generated during the data collection process.

Second, the researchers coded the data manually using words and short phrases from the participants' own language with codes assigned to data chunks with similar patterns. This helped us to, as (Miles, M.B., Huberman, A.M. and Saldana, J., 2014) puts it, "assemble data which went together and to condense the bulk data into readily analyzable data" (p. 79). A few codes were generated from the different data and across the different groups of respondents.

We then read through the scripts and field notes looking for commonalities among different sources of data and different respondents. To identify similarities and differences in the data, the processes involved reading through each of the respondents' data and comparing each respondent in each category of participants. This assisted us in generating a small number of categories by clustering similar codes together. We also made sure that we did revise the codes where possible as encouraged by (Miles, M.B., Huberman, A.M. and Saldana, J., 2014) before moving on to the next stage of developing themes of the study.

The next step involved the development of themes by looking through the interrelations, connections, and patterns among the categories and subcategories generated in the previous steps. Thus, with reference to the research questions guiding the study, summaries were grouped into a small number of themes which were then used to explain the assertions and propositions generated by the data. The generation of themes is an important prerequisite *to a close* analysis of different cases to come up with main categories (Miles, M.B., Huberman, A.M. and Saldana, J., 2014).

Research question: How do you perceive the impact of professional development activities on the practice?

The results from the interview*s* indicated that professional development had a positive impact on the teaching practice of EFL teacher educators from some perspectives. The comments on *the impact* teacher educators believe that professional development has on their practice are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. EFL teacher educators' perceptions of the impact of PD on teaching practice

- To improve teacher educators' competencies
- To change attitudes and beliefs toward the professional development
- To be more reflective on my practice
- To learn new ideas, and different teaching approaches and improve content knowledge.
- To share acquired knowledge with prospective teachers.
- To change the perspective of teachers' learning

EFL teacher educators' perceptions of the impact of PD on teaching practice

The participants who studied abroad for long-term *study in* master's or Ph.D. *programs* reported that the professional development had positive impacts on their teaching practice through improving teacher educators' competencies and skills. What follows is one example of the comments made by one EFL teacher:

The last professional development program I attended was the 45-day training course which was held in New York, USA. In that training, I obtained some necessary knowledge related to the subject The American Studies which I teach. I also think that the *master's program at Monash University which I attended was one of the biggest and most significant chances to develop myself professionally and academically. Last year, I had a chance to attend the Asian TEFL conference which was held in Indonesia. Those experiences I would like to mention are the best professional development experience (TE-3)*

Another respondent emphasized the importance of professional development by noting that her attitude and beliefs toward professional development have changed since she realized the essence of professional development. EFL teacher educator 7 asserted that

The association of EFL teachers organizes an annual workshop for EFL teachers and I attend every year. We share experiences about new trends of EFL teaching and learning, and methodologies to use in our daily teaching practice. This training is open for EFL teachers at all school levels, and it was very beneficial to acquire much knowledge through the program. Annually attending this training, I feel that professional development is the most appropriate way to develop myself in the professional learning community (TE-7)

Moreover, some respondents indicated that professional development was effective and allowed EFL teacher educators to be reflective in their practice. The following response is clear evidence of this view:

I always try to effectively put the knowledge and skills I acquired into practice immediately to make my professional development effective enough. If the courses are well designed and well organized, the effectiveness of the courses will be satisfying. I try to reflect it on my lesson planning process and try to integrate the knowledge and skills

into the strategies I use in the classroom (TE-8)

In addition to this, one respondent claimed that the impacts of the professional could be covert*; however,* in the long run, it might be overt. The following is the exact answer of the teacher educator 1:

I find professional development courses useful when I can use the things I've learned in my teaching and research work. Even if it is not very useful immediately, it could have a long-term impact on my career. Also, when it could be applied in my teaching directly or indirectly, I do not try to assess it quantitatively (TE-1)

This participant further expressed her views as follows:

Generally, if the course has some short-term or long-term impact on my teaching or professional development, I find them useful. Basically, when the participants take part in planning or designing the PD course, it also addresses individual issues, and includes some follow-up actions, they could be considered successful. Another aspect is how often someone attends a PD course. It should be on regular basis like once a month (TE-1)

Additionally, as some participants' responses indicated, the professional development of EFL teacher educators provided opportunities to become more confident as EFL teacher educators:

Professional programs help me to feel more confident. Whenever I attend such courses, I learn something new, and it makes me feel that I am developing. Whenever I can see the changes even small occurring in my competencies, skills, and quality, I can enjoy my self-confidence as a teacher educator (TE-9)

Another feature of professional development that EFL teacher educators perceive as a positive impact is that of learning new ideas and different approaches to teaching

and expanding their content knowledge. TE-2 argued that

In my teaching practice, I try to use all new methods and skills acquired in professional development programs. I try to reflect experienced mentors' teaching styles in my own practice. I always remember one phrase "Teachers teach as they taught" (TE-2)

In addition, one participant also shared her views regarding new ideas and content knowledge obtained in professional development*:*

As an individual teacher educator, I use the skills acquired from the professional development courses, for example, I read a lot of materials for a short time. I also try to share my experience and knowledge with my students. Through the professional development programs I attended, I acquired critical reading skills, so I want my students to learn to read and think critically and reflect on it in their learning process. Next, is that professional development programs regarding TEFL were one of the most beneficial courses for me. It was about how to teach English to people from other countries where English is the second language. I could acquire much knowledge about new language teaching theories (TE-5)

To be able to share the new ideas, knowledge, and methods acquired with prospective teachers who are taught by teacher educators is the privilege of a professional development program as well. One of the EFL teacher educators *commented on* the value of professional development as it helps her to gain something new and share it with her student teachers*:*

After completing the program, I came back to my country, to my university, and to my students to contribute and apply what I learned. One of the examples is that when I came back, I wrote one curriculum which was

about the learner's autonomy, and how students become independent learners. I am writing a small handout about students' autonomy and next semester I am going to implement that curriculum in practice with my students (TE-4)

Another EFL teacher educator also suggested that sharing the obtained knowledge with future teachers is vital and one of the purposes of professional development is embedded in it*:*

I just suggest my student teachers read more literature to learn a foreign language. My student teachers tend to be reluctant to read literature. As I majored in English literature during my Ph.D. course in Turkey, I learned that reading literature helps us to become proficient in English (TE-1)

Supporting this view, another EFL teacher educator emphasized that *in addition to* acquired content knowledge, she could obtain significant skills as she is told to work with students from different backgrounds*:*

Studying in Turkey, I got some ideas about how difficult is to work with students from diverse backgrounds for teachers and as I observed, teachers should excel in teaching and working with varied students. We have students from different ethnic groups, we should understand their features related to their culture, language etc. (TE-6)

In addition, all the participants perceive that the professional development of EFL teacher educators should have a positive impact on student teachers who are taught by teacher educators. One of the participants described as follows:

I usually assess the effectiveness of my students' learning growth. I usually assess the effectiveness of my professional development for the following indicators (achievement, interest, emotional well-being, attendance, drop-outs, etc.) Students started to be interested in the class more. According to their

interests and attitude to the class, their performance and achievement changed (TE-8)

The results from the interviews with EFL teacher educators also indicate that their motivation and commitment towards improving their classroom teaching practices play a significant role in their perception *of* professional development programs. When teacher educators were asked about the factors that were encouraging for professional development, all participants answered that teacher educators' own encouragement and motivation to be developed *affects them more* than institutional support. One teacher educator noted that

A professional development course can give teachers enthusiasm and motivate teacher educators to develop their knowledge and skills more. This is what I realize about the importance of professional development, but there is little support from the school. Sometimes I suppose that I need to develop myself. (TE-8)

In her response to the same question, TE-2 explained

Teachers who are participating in such programs must be motivated and inspired to be professionally developed at the school. The school should call its staff to be developed, but leaders are usually silent. I really want to develop myself. (TE-2)

The results also show that encouragement to participate in professional development was influenced by their own needs and inspiration, as the following interview illustrates:

I really need to be more professionally developed. I want to be a better educator and for it, I need professional development (TE-9)

I think that if we must wish to improve ourselves, why should we wait for professional development programs, we can develop ourselves personally (TE-3)

Summary of findings and conclusion

The theory, which is guiding this study, the adult learning theory, recognizes that teaching adults is much different than teaching children, since the experience adults gained through their lifetime and career become the important base for their learning. Not only does the theory recognize the importance of recognizing the need to be cautious when dealing with adults, but it also appreciates that as (Knowles M. S., 1980) noted, adults are already aware of their needs, concerns, and interests that would meet their requirements. Recognizing that EFL teacher educators are adults with vast experience in teaching, *this* study recognizes the four dimensions of professional development—perceived effectiveness; EFL teacher educators' professional development preferences and interest; and *the* perceived impact of the professional development—as important in defining EFL teacher educators' perception towards professional development.

The results are consistent with many studies which have looked at professional development the world over which have recognized the significance of considering the participants' needs if the PDP is to be effective. For instance, in his study, (Lee, 2015) asserted that "…to develop an effective PDP, the project goals must respond to the potential project participants' needs and expectations of a program. Taken together, the program participants should be considered as partners throughout the process—planning their own learning experiences, implementing practices, providing feedback, and evaluating the program." Furthermore, (Guskey, 2010) argues that "high-quality professional development is a central component in nearly every modern proposal for improving education" (p. 381). Thus, while professional development programs can have different contents and designs, they share *a* common goal, which is to change and improve the professional practices, beliefs, attitudes, and understanding of educators. This, as the result of this study shows, can be achieved if the EFL teacher educators *understand that* effectiveness; professional development preferences; professional development interests; and perceived impact of the professional development program impact strongly correlate with the PDP being planned or implemented.

Recommendations

The study makes the following recommendations based on the study findings and policy and practical implications discussed above:

- The Ministry of Education and the Higher Education Institutions should institute professional development policies to guide professional activities in all higher education institutions in Mongolia. This will ensure proper planning by different higher education institutions toward professional development.
- Higher Education Institutions should provide a budget allocation for professional development in their budget. This will ensure that the institutions provide the necessary support for their staff when they ask for it.
- Higher education institutions should motivate teachers and teacher educators towards participating in professional activities by ensuring that their timetable is flexible enough to create space for them to attend professional development activities.

Planners and implementers of professional development activities should involve the teacher educators themselves at different planning and implementation levels of professional planning.

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Correlation Analysis of Student Assessment and Teacher Evaluation in Academic English Classes

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Abstract: "Student evaluation of teachers" and "teacher evaluation of students" are two important instruments that foster the improvement of educational quality at higher education institutions. Both are usually questioned for their validity, objectivity and reliability. "Assessment is the process of providing credible evidence of resources, implementation actions, and outcomes undertaken for the purpose of improving the effectiveness of instruction, programs, and services in higher education" (Banta & Palomba, 2015, p.2). The purpose of the study is to explore relationships between "student evaluation of teachers" and "teacher evaluation of students" based on evaluation practices of selected courses at the National University of Mongolia. We collected samples from the office of Academic Affairs and the Center for Foreign Languages from two academic years from 2019 through 2021. Using the data, we applied correlation analysis and examined the relationships between the two variables. The results will be discussed in this article.

Keywords: student assessment, teacher evaluation, correlation, Academic English

The purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between "Student evaluation of teachers" and "teacher evaluation of students" based on our research into selected course evaluations at the National University of Mongolia. Moreover, this study would also try to identify whether there is a correlation between the two variables, which will add more knowledge to our existing theories about student and teacher evaluations. This study has a number of significances as follows:

- It helps us to understand the relationship, especially the correlation, between the two variables;
- We can identify significant measurements for both assessments;
- It can help us to review our assessment for better evaluation;

Research Questions:

In trying to understand the relationship between the two assessments - student evaluation of teachers and teacher evaluation of students, and to identify a possible correlation, we investigated answers to the major questions that follow:

- Can Student Evaluation of Teaching (SETs) be a reliable tool to assess teaching effectiveness?
- If yes, why? And if not, for what reasons?

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- What are the recent practices regarding the learning and teaching evaluations?
- Is there a relationship between student evaluation of teachers and teacher evaluation of students in the case of Academic English courses?
- Is there any correlation between the two variables? If yes, what does it denote? If not, what does it mean?

Background

What is assessment?

"Assessment is the process of providing credible evidence of resources, implementation actions, and outcomes undertaken for the purpose of improving the effectiveness of instruction, programs, and services in higher education" (Banta & Palomba, 2015, p.2).

Relationship between student evaluation of teaching and teacher evaluation of students

The two types of evaluation specifically, the 'student evaluation of teachers' and 'teacher evaluation of students' are generalized practices in almost every educational institution around the world. They are indeed separate evaluations with different objectives and variables but they become interrelated when teachers want better evaluation from students for employment, tenure and promotion, whereas students want better grades from teachers for better ranking, and higher GPA. This causes much controversy around the relationship between the two evaluations and raises questions about their validity.

Relationship between student assessment and teacher evaluation is one of the important issues of education as it:

- represents the effects of teacher performance on student achievement (Milanowski, 2004, Daniel, 2017)
- helps instructional improvement, program and course evaluations, and promotion and tenure decisions (Davis 2009, Davidovitch, 2011)

What is SET? Why Yes and why No to SET?

Student Evaluations of Teaching (SETs) have long been used in educational institutions for two main purposes: firstly, to provide teachers with student feedback on their teaching effectiveness so that they could know about the strengths and weaknesses of their teaching practices and make necessary improvements as required, and secondly, to come up with information on teachers' teaching competence so that the educational authorities could make decisions about teachers' tenure, promotion and pay rises based on the gathered data. Pioneer developers of SETs including Herman Remmers and Edwin Guthrie asserted that they cannot be used as an accurate measure of teaching effectiveness as they are merely a reflection of how students perceived the teaching, which is likely to be biased (Guthrie, 1953; Stroebe, 2020). On the other hand, as SETs increased student engagement and teacher responses, educational authorities quickly saw the SETs as a main source of information and/or evidence for teacher evaluation in cases where decisions about a measure of teacher's merit was necessary (Hooke, 2021). Consequently, the popularity of SETs for this very purpose increased from only 29% of colleges in 1973 to 68% in 1983, to 86% in 1993 (Seldin, 1998) and to 94% in 2010 (Miller & Seldin, 2014).

Although the use of SETs for identification of weaknesses and strengths of teaching practice and making necessary improvements is justifiable, its utilization for

measuring teacher performance and merit remains controversial. As mentioned above, both a student and a teacher need better evaluation from one another. As Sander and Krautmann (1999) and many others claimed, lenient-grading teachers give higher grades to students in exchange for better evaluation for their performance. Generally, many students choose to study a course with teachers who are known for assigning less coursework and giving generous grades, and in turn reward the teachers with good evaluation in SETs, which will eventually altogether result in incentives for poor performing teachers and low rating for strictly-grading teachers (Stroebe, 2020). Decrease in teaching quality, unfair assessment, and grade inflation are the serious consequences of this interrelation.

On the contrary, Centra (2003), Pascale (1979) and many others argued that a thorough control of all variables in SETs can prevent teacher evaluation and student grades from being affected by one another. Therefore, despite the fact that SETs are an unreliable source of information for assessment of teaching effectiveness for they are influenced by many factors unrelated to the assessment of teaching quality, and that they may lead to

negative consequences such as poor teaching quality, unfair assessment between teachers and grade inflation, education providers have still been using SETs as a primary instrument to assess teaching performance and making efforts on their reforms by focusing on elaboration of more appropriate assessment criteria. An example of this includes the Standards based teacher evaluation system (Milanowski, 2004) modeled on the Framework for Teaching developed by Danielson (1996) (Figure.1).

Student evaluation of teachers (SET):

Standards Based Teacher Evaluation System (Milanowski.A, et.al, 2004), modeled on the Framework for Teaching by Danielson (1996);

✓ Intended to apply to all grade levels and subjects.
✓ Attempts to describe the full range of teacher performance, from beginner to expert.

It defines four teacher performance domains each of which has one or more elements, totaling in 68 elements.

✓ Planning and preparation,
✓ The classroom environment (classroom management),
✓ Instruction
✓ Professional responsibilities

Four performance designations:

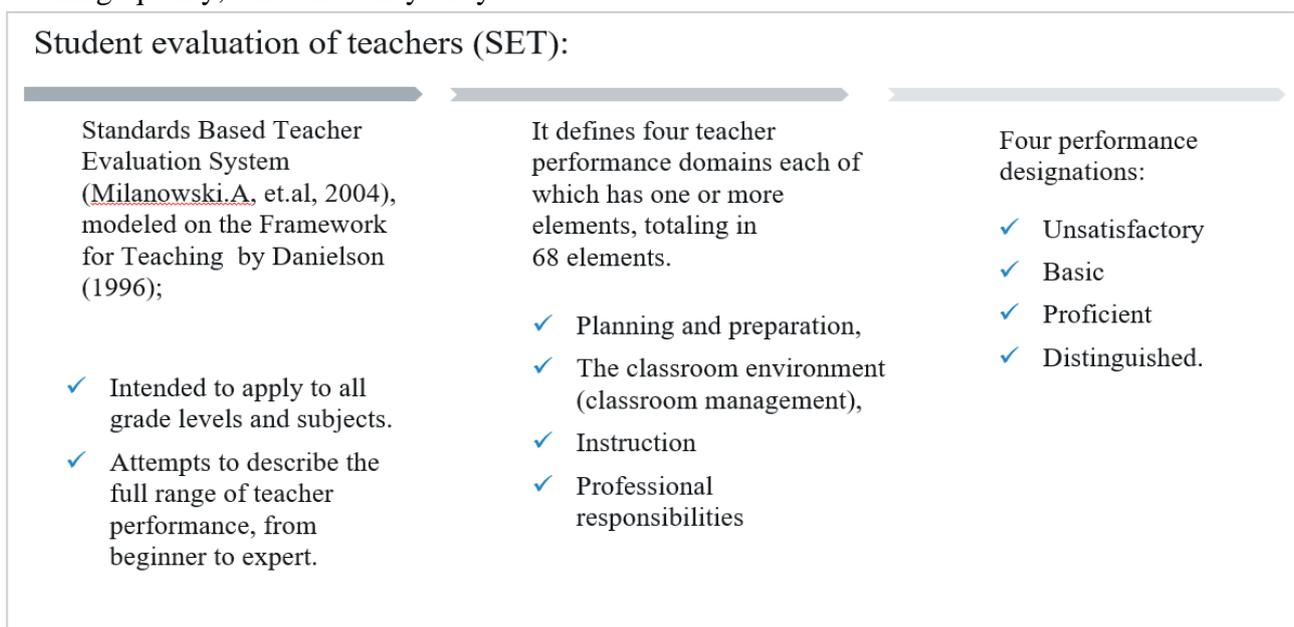✓ Unsatisfactory
✓ Basic
✓ Proficient
✓ Distinguished.

Figure 1. Student evaluation of teachers (SET)

The development of these models was based on the idea that a reference standard to what is considered as "effective teaching" must be elaborated beforehand to be able to measure teaching effectiveness. This is to say that a comprehensive compilation of desired professional profiles with listed teacher competences and responsibilities needs to be in place for fair and valid evaluation of teaching. The Standards based teacher evaluation system is designed to assess four major domains of teaching practice: Planning and preparation, the classroom environment, instruction and professional responsibilities. Each of the four domains has a number of teaching components with several elements in each. Separate behavioral descriptions are included in each element on a four-level rubric: Unsatisfactory Basic Proficient and Distinguished (Figure.2).

Elements	Level of performance			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Directions and procedures	Teacher directions and procedures are confusing to students.	Teacher directions and procedures are clarified after initial student confusion or are excessively detailed.	Teacher directions and procedures are clear to students and contain an appropriate level of detail.	Teacher directions and procedures are clear to students and anticipate possible student misunderstanding.
Oral and written language	Teacher's spoken language is inaudible, or written language is illegible. Spoken or written language may contain grammar and syntax errors. Vocabulary may be inappropriate, vague, or used incorrectly, leaving students confused.	Teacher's spoken language is audible, and written language is legible. Both are used correctly. Vocabulary is correct, but limited or is not appropriate to students' ages or background.	Teacher's spoken and written language is clear and correct. Vocabulary is appropriate to students' age and interests.	Teacher's spoken and written language is correct and expressive, with well-chosen vocabulary that enriches the lesson.

Figure 2. Example rubric from framework for Teaching. Domain 3. Instructions

Use of SETs today

Education providers around the world have elaborated their own SETs, mostly based on the Standards based teacher evaluation system, with carefully elaborated variables that suit to their needs and are increasingly making efforts on limiting the influences of factors that are unrelated to teaching competence but related to individual students such as academic level, gender, age, subject interest and likeability of a teacher etc. In addition, some are updating the SETs on a regular basis for improved relevance, validity and accountability and making sure that variables in SETS are interpreted by students exactly as the administrators intended. Some institutions are going successful while others are still struggling for improvement.

In most practices, SETs are sets of questions elaborated within the four major domains suggested by the Standards based teacher evaluation system and are accomplished by students at the end of each semester through a computerized registration platform designated by the education provider. The results of the SETs are often accessible by teachers on the platform at varying times and to differing extent depending on the school policy which are usually before or after final grades are recorded in the system, and at the beginning of the successive semester.

Despite its known flaws and potential negative consequences discussed by scholars and researchers for over half a century now, SETs remain a primary tool for evaluation of teacher performance at many educational institutions around the globe as they have a great deal of validity as long as they are carefully elaborated, regularly reviewed and constantly checked for possible influences of unrelated assessment factors listed below but not limited to:

a. Consider individual student factors unrelated to assessment of teaching performance such as a student's academic level, gender, age, subject interest and likeability of a teacher etc., when elaborating questions, or interpreting results.
b. Students have limited ability to evaluate instructors' teaching expertise and competence based on observation and perception. The objectives of students (grades) are most of the time different from those of administrators (student learning).
c. Questions in SETs may be differently interpreted by students than intended by administrators.
d. The validity of anonymous evaluations is questionable when students are put under conditions such as absence of duty to truthfulness, a right for enlistment for the succeeding semester granted only after a SET accomplishment, or SET accomplishment (especially time-consuming ones) required in the last week of a semester or during an exam session.

Use of SETs in major universities of Mongolia

Although the validity of SETs has been challenged because of their numerous flaws and negative consequences, SETs remain the main instrument or source of information used as basing grounds in decisions related to teacher employment, promotion and tenure. Today they are in place in almost every higher education institution around the globe (Richardson, 2005; Zabaleta, 2007; Huybers, 2014). Mongolia is no exception when it comes to the use of SETs in higher education. Five major universities of Mongolia namely the National University of Mongolia,

Mongolian National University of Education, the National University of Medical Sciences, Mongolian University of Science and Technology and Mongolian University of Life Sciences have their own SETs in utilization. Generally speaking, SETs are being used in most universities of Mongolia for both main purposes but to different levels of extent: (i) to provide teachers with student feedback on their teaching effectiveness so that they could know about the strengths and weaknesses of their teaching practices and make necessary improvements as required, and (ii) to use as an information source for decisions regarding teacher employment, accreditation and promotion. For some universities, the SET results are not accessible by teachers but only by faculty heads or administrators for the first purpose only, which is to use the data for improvement of the course or curriculum. For others, the results are used only for the second purpose, which is to use them as an information source for decisions regarding

teacher tenure, accreditation and promotion. The SETs in these universities are accomplished by either all students as compulsory or by some randomly picked students through computerized registration forms containing sets of questions categorized in two or three domains and students are required to accomplish the SETs either at the end of a semester or at the end of the academic year, usually during exam sessions. The SET questions are annually revised in two universities whereas for the other three universities, they remain unchanged for years. (Figure 3).

Universities	Assessment categories	Timeline	Sample size	Means	Highlights
National University of Mongolia	• Teacher performance • Curriculum • School Environment	At the end of every semester after student assessments are completed	100%	Online questionnaire	Questions remain same
Mongolian University of Science and Technology	• Curriculum • Teacher performance	At the end of every semester after student assessments are completed	60-80%	Online questionnaire	Questions change every year
	• School Environment	at the end of every academic year			
National University of Medical Sciences	• Curriculum	Every semester	100%	Online questionnaire	Questions change depending on previous evaluation
	• Teacher performance / only for attestation purposes/	Varies Every 1-5 years depending on teacher experience, title etc.,	100%	Online questionnaire	

Figure 3. SET overview in the major universities of Mongolia

Regarding the National University of Mongolia, the SET is made up of a set of questions under one general category: Teacher performance (17 questions). In addition, the questionnaire includes non-teaching related questions regarding Learning environment (4 questions) and Course assessment (6 questions). If we analyze all 17 teacher performance questions across the four main domains of the Standards based teacher evaluation system, we find the questions extremely imbalanced: 7 questions under domain 1 (Planning and preparation), 2 questions under domain 2 (Classroom environment/atmosphere), 6 questions under domain 3 (Instruction), 1 question under domain 4 (Professional responsibility) and 1 question about future intention which is out of the scope.

Some questions repeatedly appeared in different wording. Additional parts of the SET questionnaire, specifically the Learning (physical) environment (4 questions) and Course assessment (6 questions) included questions which normally occur under Teacher performance criteria according to the Standards based teacher evaluation system (Figure 4).

№	Teacher performance	Domains
1	Teaches lessons in logically systematic, easily understandable, and interesting way	1
2	Uses class time fully and effectively	1
3	Demonstrates excellent methodology to increase student engagement	3
4	Delivers lessons in a way that allows student to take sufficient notes	3
5	Uses support materials and technology while teaching	3
6	Never misses classes or arrives late	1
7	Delivers lesson in full alignment with the course curriculum (SiSi)	1
8	Uses E-teaching techniques and tools; makes lessons and course contents available online and ensures they are accessible by students	3
9	Uses student assessment techniques that ensure realistic assessment of student skills and knowledge	1
10	The progress and final exams taken by the teacher have effects of developing, teaching and disciplining students	3
11	Grades provided by the teacher accurately evaluates student skills and knowledge	1
12	Regularly consults students during office hours.; pays attention on helping students build skills on self-expressing and independent learning skills.	4
13	Helps students in drawing independent thinking assumptions and logical conclusions	3
14	Assigns tasks in line with the course objective, content and level	1
15	Communicates with students in a respectful, polite manner; creates a learning environment that encourages self-expression free of hesitation.	2
16	Serves as an example to students in terms of personal conduct and discipline	2
17	Likeliness to choose this teacher in the next semester for a different course	-

Figure 4. The SET questions referring to relevant domains of the standards-based teacher evaluation system

Research methods

This study uses data from 46 cases from Fall 2020 and 45 cases from Fall 2019 totaling 91 cases for data analysis. We also chose Academic English Courses level 2 which is an intermediate level, and level 3 which is an upper intermediate level. These classes are commonly selected courses among students as mandatory courses to complete their undergraduate study at the university. We used student grades for each case and teacher's evaluation to see if there is an association between them. We also looked at their correlation coefficients to understand the extent of the associations. For our analysis, we used SPSS 23.

There are two sets of data: one is teacher evaluation, and the other is student's grades. Teacher evaluation questionnaire consists of a teacher evaluation score, a learning environment score, and a lesson score ranging from 0 to 3. Student assessments consisted of alphabetical grades including A through F

grades. A, B, C, D grades were divided into letter grade and minus letter grade.

We used Spearman Rho's test for our analysis. Spearman Rho's test is a non-parametric alternative for Pearson's correlation when there is a violation of normal distribution in the data. We first looked at the data and found the data for both student assessment and teacher's evaluation are not normally distributed, and it was highly skewed to on or the other values. Moreover, the scatter plot indicated a non-linear relationship.

Results

The descriptive statistics are shown below. There are 91 teacher evaluation total scores with mean value 2.6031. The teacher evaluation score is estimated to be 2.6130; learning environment is 2.5600; and lesson is 2.6060. Figure 5 presents descriptive statistics. We also ran reliability for our data. Cronbach Alpha score is estimated to be .635 which is within the range of acceptable or moderate indication of reliability.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Teacher's evaluation	91	1.75	2.93	237.78	2.6130	0.18438
Learning environment	91	2.16	2.90	232.96	2.5600	0.15020
Lesson	91	2.18	2.92	237.15	2.6060	0.13795
Total score	91	1.94	2.91	236.88	2.6031	0.15630
A	91	0	387	4409	48.45	76.341
A-	91	0	192	5782	63.54	47.462
B	91	0	112	3712	40.79	26.744
B-	91	0	198	3706	40.73	31.187
C	91	0	55	1274	14.00	12.478
C-	91	0	68	1041	11.44	11.852
D	91	0	18	276	3.03	3.851
D-	91	0	18	202	2.22	3.389
F	91	0	0	0	0.00	0.000
Valid N (listwise)	91					

Figure 5. Descriptive statistics

After this, we started to examine teacher evaluation and assessed the relationships among three scores: teacher evaluation score, learning environment score, and a lesson score. The teacher evaluation score was highly associated with lesson score at r.=.809, p=01. the relationship is found to be statistically significant. Teacher evaluation score was related moderately with learning environment r.=.502 and it was also statistically significant p=.01. Moreover, lesson score and learning environment are correlated statistically significantly at r=.606 p=.01. These correlations are all positive and significant. The total score was also examined for correlation for our further analysis. Teacher evaluation score was at r=.971 p=.01 statistically significant; learning environment was also positively related at r=.645 p=.01; and lessons score was positively related at r=.883 p=.01 with statistical significance.

Following the examination of teacher's evaluation, we started to test our hypothesis. We asked if there is a relationship between the students' grades and the teacher evaluation by the students in case of Academic English course. We found that there is no statistically significant relationship between teacher's evaluation and students' grades r=.-088 with p=.405. This indicates that student's grades are not related to the teacher's evaluation. In other words, student's grades do not reflect teacher's grade and vice versa.

We also ran a correlation analysis to see how each grade is related to the measurement of the teacher's evaluation. It was found that there is a positive significant correlation between teacher's evaluation and grade A at r=.250 and p=.05 and grade A- at r=.302 and p=.01. Even though the correlation coefficients are shown to be weak for both grades, there is still an indication of significant positive relationship between the grades A, A- and teacher's evaluation. This indicates that overall teacher's evaluation can be reflected in the grades A and A-. On the contrary, there is a negative significant, yet weak correlation was found between teacher's evaluation and the grade B- r.= -.226 p.=. 05 and C- r.= -.211. We found there is no significant relationship among other grades and teacher overall evaluation component. Nor learning environment, neither lesson scores are not related with any of the grades. When we look at the total teacher evaluation score, we can see only the grade A- is significantly related with the total teacher's score (Figure 6).

		Teacher's evaluation	Learning environment	Lesson	Total score	A	A-	B	B-	C	C-	D	D-
Teacher's evaluation	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.502**	.809**	.971**	.250*	.302**	0.122	-.226*	-0.118	-.211*	-0.142	-0.108
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.017	0.004	0.250	0.032	0.267	0.045	0.180	0.307
Learning environment	Correlation Coefficient	.502**	1.000	.606**	.645**	0.102	0.187	0.018	-0.198	-0.014	-0.065	-0.097	-0.005
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.335	0.075	0.869	0.060	0.894	0.539	0.362	0.964
Lesson	Correlation Coefficient	.809**	.606**	1.000	.883**	0.001	0.202	0.025	-0.186	-0.095	-0.113	-0.083	-0.052
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.996	0.055	0.811	0.077	0.368	0.286	0.432	0.626
Total score	Correlation Coefficient	.971**	.645**	.883**	1.000	0.202	.285**	0.093	-.247*	-0.106	-0.180	-0.139	-0.073
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.054	0.006	0.382	0.018	0.317	0.087	0.189	0.491
A	Correlation Coefficient	.250*	0.102	0.001	0.202	1.000	.622**	.265*	-0.054	-0.102	-.251*	-0.101	-0.027
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.017	0.335	0.996	0.054		0.000	0.011	0.613	0.336	0.016	0.341	0.802
A-	Correlation Coefficient	.302**	0.187	0.202	.285**	.622**	1.000	.414**	0.086	-0.087	-.242*	-0.110	-0.010
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.004	0.075	0.055	0.006	0.000		0.000	0.417	0.412	0.021	0.300	0.925
B	Correlation Coefficient	0.122	0.018	0.025	0.093	.265*	.414**	1.000	.219*	.350**	-0.074	0.155	0.110
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.250	0.869	0.811	0.382	0.011	0.000		0.037	0.001	0.487	0.141	0.301
B-	Correlation Coefficient	-.226*	-0.198	-0.186	-.247*	-0.054	0.086	.219*	1.000	.391**	.537**	.380**	.278**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.032	0.060	0.077	0.018	0.613	0.417	0.037		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.008
C	Correlation Coefficient	-0.118	-0.014	-0.095	-0.106	-0.102	-0.087	.350**	.391**	1.000	.431**	.487**	0.200
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.267	0.894	0.368	0.317	0.336	0.412	0.001	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.058
C-	Correlation Coefficient	-.211*	-0.065	-0.113	-0.180	-.251*	-.242*	-0.074	.537**	.431**	1.000	.407**	.371**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.045	0.539	0.286	0.087	0.016	0.021	0.487	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000
D	Correlation Coefficient	-0.142	-0.097	-0.083	-0.139	-0.101	-0.110	0.155	.380**	.487**	.407**	1.000	.525**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.180	0.362	0.432	0.189	0.341	0.300	0.141	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000
D-	Correlation Coefficient	-0.108	-0.005	-0.052	-0.073	-0.027	-0.010	0.110	.278**	0.200	.371**	.525**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.307	0.964	0.626	0.491	0.802	0.925	0.301	0.008	0.058	0.000	0.000	

Figure 6. Spearman Rho's correlation results

In summary, the scores for lessons and learning environment do not necessarily relate to the student's grades. Teacher evaluation score is significantly related to the grades of the students especially the grades A and A-. There can be a tendency that students tend to evaluate teacher with a consideration of his/her grading attitudes, especially with good grades. Moreover, A students to some extent may tend to give higher score evaluating their students. On the other hand, teacher's evaluation was found to be negatively related with the grades B- and C- indicating the higher the teacher's evaluation score the lower the student's grade.

When we look at the relative power of relationships, all coefficients were found to be weak. Weak relationships indicate not strong association that can be viewed as teacher's evaluation is little reflected in the student's grades.

Discussions

The results highlight the complex nature of the factors that contribute to the students gradings practices and teacher evaluation by the students. It suggests that we need to identify the variety of factors not

limited to the teacher evaluation, learning environment, lessons provided by the teacher to understand the relationships of teacher evaluation and students' assessment. Overall teacher evaluation score should be considered with care and caution as the component such as lessons, and learning environment do not seem to have much to do with the teacher performance in general. The validation can be seen from the reliability of the teacher evaluation score.

As previous studies suggest that lenient grading can be related to the teacher evaluation by the students. It was also found to be consistent in this study that there is a significant relationship between higher grades (A and A-) and teacher evaluation scores. However, the current study does not show the relationships of the lenient grading and teacher evaluation as we have to clarify the acts of lenient grading or its definition. The relationship was not as strong as we can make conclusion of the relationships of grading practices and the teacher evaluation. It can be also seen from the results of the negative relationship between the grades B- and C-, and higher teacher evaluation scores. Our results also lead us to reflect instructors should also improve the "measurement" or grading skills as we might be not "measuring" our students accurately to some extent. Thus, it is important to further understand the significant relationships between the two variables.

Besides the two above variables, the weak relationship between the variables in general show that students' assessment and teacher evaluation have different approaches for evaluation. That is, the two sets of data show some independence from each other. This may have been caused by the irrelevance with the variables when it comes to evaluation especially for the variables of lessons and learning environment. Hence, teacher evaluation by the students should be inclined

towards improving the teacher's teaching skills and knowledge, and help them to improve gradings skills as well.

Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to explore relationships between student assessment or student's grades and teacher evaluation or teacher's scores given by the students in case of Academic English course at one university in Mongolia. We used Spearman Rho's correlation to see of if there is a relationship between the two scores: teacher evaluation and student assessment. The result showed that there is no significant relationship between the two evaluations score. It was further confirmed with weak correlation coefficients but significant relationships between the two scores. No relationships also can indicate that both parties – students and teachers – "grade" in more independent manner. Here, we need further study with larger sample size and with parametric analysis.

We also found teacher assessment can be viewed to be reliable as the components and questionnaires seem to follow the standard questions provided elsewhere. The overall reliability score was just above average of acceptance coefficients shows that we should revise and update some questions or overall questionnaire and improve it in terms of its reliability and validity. It can help students to evaluate their teachers more objectively thereby improving teacher's quality at a university. Finally, we should mention that it was a study on one course, and we recommend to examine other type of courses such asl lectures and mixed courses, core courses and discipline specific courses.

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The role and use of mother tongue In English language teaching

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Abstract: In this article, we first discuss the importance and impact of mother tongue use in English language teaching and whether the constant application of the students' language of origin by teachers in classrooms affects students' learning ability negatively. Then we talk about differing views on the topic, as well as our assumption that why overuse of a mother tongue in TEFL classrooms is unfit and ineffective. Thirdly, we investigate the differences in learner performance and student satisfaction between Class A and Class B students with the experiment conducted teaching English grammar by applying two different approaches. Finally, we try to analyze the findings from our experiment and suggest that minimal use of the mother tongue by a teacher in the English classroom may bring the best learning outcome with the student motivation at its best.

Keywords: mother tongue uses, the doctrine of compromise, grammar translation method, learner performance, student satisfaction, target language instruction

There has been a constant evolution in the methods and techniques used in the process of teaching foreign languages over the years. It is increasingly important to understand the impact of using the students' language of origin (or mother tongue) when teaching, as well as how it affects their learning ability has become increasingly prominent. Recent articles and journals have highlighted the popular solution to the problem of the use of the mother tongue in foreign-language teaching is a doctrine of compromise from the teacher's side or mother-tongue-based multilingual education.

In the history of foreign language teaching, the Grammar-Translation method is considered the classical method. It originated in Germany in the 19th century and since then it has been widely used in the foreign language classroom worldwide. This method uses students' language of origin abundantly in the classroom. Scholars like J. F. Green (1970) and C. V. Taylor (1972) recommend occasional judicious use of the mother tongue in the classroom, putting the onus on the teacher to decide when and how to use it. Articles from the journal "Why Throw Out Translation?" by C.V Taylor (1972) state that the flawed component of using a student's mother tongue in order to teach English grammar is the "word to word" translation method. As such many support the role and use of the mother tongue in foreign language teaching.

However, for many years various new methods in foreign language teaching were developed and many studies to oppose the above views have been made to prove that less exposure to the target language decreases learner performance. A. Koucka (2007) in his

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thesis explains the reason a mother tongue is used very often in an English classroom and it is because of the temptation to facilitate the teacher's job at the expense of students.

We also witness that in English classrooms in Mongolian schools, the Mongolian language is excessively used in instructions, explanations, feedback, translations, and communications. Thus, drawing from our own experience, we believe that the "doctrine of compromise" teaching method is flawed and can be interpreted in many ways that are unfit. The doctrine of compromise appears to us to be vulnerable on the following grounds:

1. Whilst an older teacher with a fair amount of experience may feel sure of his ground and may be able to pick the right moment for judicious use of the mother tongue, his younger and less experienced counterpart may find such a decision difficult and he may even do more harm than good if his own attitude to the use of the mother tongue is seen by his pupils to be uncertain and inconsistent.

2. F. L. Billows (1961) writes of the importance of learning tensions and this cannot be overemphasized. It means that the process of learning another language is as important as the results. When taught by the "direct approach" (p. 28-29), students make more of an effort and spend time to understand the concept. F. L. Billows believes that the students may have to work hard to achieve their desired results but their satisfaction will be all the greater for it. He states that in one class the teacher should explain a word or phrase by the "direct method", however long and tortuous the explanation may seem and should observe his pupil's faces. The tension should be visible until the conquest is made; that is to say until the pupils feel they have mastered the item concerned. Beforehand, their faces may have shown impatience, even

frustration, but these are merely manifestations of the healthy learning tension which can be exploited to good effect by the teacher. Then, with a different class, the teacher should spoon-feed the students the meaning of the same item in the mother tongue. The same satisfied expression will certainly appear on the student's faces indeed the students will have a comfortable, reassuring feeling that they know the new item, particularly if they write it down with its mother tongue equivalent in their notebooks, but the learning tension surrounding that item has now gone, irretrievably. That magic moment when the teacher has the class keyed up to a high degree of receptiveness is lost-and it cannot be recaptured with the same class on the same item. Any further work done instantly on the item will seem superfluous to the pupils, for they now believe, mistakenly, that they have learned it. The teacher will find it difficult to sustain a practice drill on the item and so it will be shelved as dealt with, only to reappear all too soon as a remedial problem for them or, worse still, for a colleague to deal with again.

3. The principles of Atkinson focus on making use of L1 equivalents in eliciting language and in checking for comprehension. Teachers and students can both elicit language using questions like "How do you say "*nohoi*" (dog) in English?" According to Atkinson (1987), checking for comprehension is faster and more efficient than more 'inductive' checking techniques. However, is "faster" technically "better"?, especially in terms of learning another language, which in depth has a connection to understanding the roots of the language and the culture of the certain language (p. 243). Seibert (1930) also shares Atkinson's views and states that providing paired lists with L1 equivalents was the superior approach to teaching vocabulary in context. In certain cases, using students' mother tongue might be the 'superior'

approach at times, however, in some contexts it is not the case as it requires longer time and effort from the teacher's side for the student to completely understand the concept and not only adapt it to its own version.

4. If the mother tongue is used too frequently in the classroom, the students gradually may soon lose the will and interest to speak or listen intently to the intended language of teaching. Once you remove the student from the environment of the language, whether it's the teacher speaking or the students and peers themself, it removes the atmosphere of progression and will certainly waste rather than save time and is bound to hold up rather than aid progress.

5. According to Brown (2000), "There are no instant recipes. No quick and easy method is guaranteed to provide success. Every learner is unique. Every teacher is unique. Every learner-teacher relationship is unique, and every context is unique." If the students realize that during class time the teacher is willing to resort to mother-tongue explanations and speak mostly in their mother tongue, their initial attempt in the target language fails they may (with some justification) ask themselves why they should bother to make the effort to understand in the target language in the first place. In this case, the teacher has set a precedent and in return, students may be willing to exploit this fact to the full. Further on, the line can become blurry to the extent in the teacher is no longer able to draw the line.

Brown (2001) also makes another argument, stating that some teachers take an easier way out when teaching by using the student's mother tongue and in consequence, the notion of that becomes a usual practice, which in return, makes it more difficult for the student to have a proper setting in which they can learn properly.

6. The direct association of a target language word with an image, or of a phrase with a situation, may well be exclusive to the culture of the target language. For instance, some realia words like the Mongolian "*ger*", "*deel*", "*aarts*" and "*toono*" are untranslatable in some or all of their contexts. In other words, they practically demand teaching by the direct method, yet the pupil brought up on mother-tongue equivalents is going to demand satisfaction. In this case, how will the teacher be able to answer their question if not using the direct method?

R. J. H. Matthews-Břeský (1979) states that mental reference to the mother tongue is inevitable, that may be true to the students view of point but as teachers we must understand the consequences of constant reference to the mother tongue, whether mental or otherwise, can have grave results. If the pupil is allowed to develop this habit, making the all-important leap into the culture of the target language, and without this, the student can never really master the language. If a teacher is sufficiently adamant early in a course and if he/she takes the trouble, at the outset, to explain to the pupils just why there need to be certain limits to using their mother tongue in the classroom, there will come a time when it will cease of its own accord.

Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are to:
1. Examine and identify the academic differences in learning abilities between university students being taught using their mother tongue as an instruction language versus those who have been taught mostly by the English Language;
2. Assess how university students respond to being taught in their native

language versus being taught mostly in English;

Research hypotheses

1. There is a significant difference in the learning abilities of university students who were exposed to the instruction in their mother tongue and those who were not exposed to the instruction in their mother tongue.

2. There is a significant difference in the academic results of their learning abilities of university students between those who have been exposed to instruction in their mother tongue and those who have not.

Methodology

The study adopted a quantitative model using experimental data. The population of the case study consisted of university students from the National University of Mongolia.

The sample case of the study consisted of two classes, selected purposely on a basis that both classes include students who are in a similar category, share equivalent demographic characteristics, and have similar background knowledge of the English Language. Both classes contain students: whose age ranges from nineteen to twenty-one, both female and male, and who possess a similar level of English Language skill.

In order to measure the change in educational level of the students before and after the course with different teaching methods, a Pre-Test and a Post- Test were given to the university students before the course started and after the course ended. In order to get feedback on the teaching methods and find out students' satisfaction level, we also conducted a two-part survey at the end of the courses.

Procedure

The duration of the study/experiment continued for about 12 weeks. At the start of the experiment, we tested all 46 students from both courses. The Pre-Test test was the placement test which was comprised of a set of questions that were to identify students' English language level. During the course, the experimental class which is designated as Class A was taught and instructed both in the English Language as well as the students' mother tongue (which is the Mongolian Language), while the control group which is designated as Class B, was exposed and taught mainly in the English Language. At the end of the case study period, the students were given a Post-Test and a survey.

The Post-Test's goal is to understand and examine the differences in the learning outcomes from both classes and at which level they reside. As well as how efficiently the students in both classes have gained the course knowledge taught using one of both teaching methods. The test was compiled of True/False questions about the term meaning, multiple choice questions, and open-ended questions about grammar use. The following text boxes present examples of exam questions used on Pre-Test and Post-Test.

Complete the story. Use the verbs provided to form sentences with the simple present or the present progressive tense.

Every Sunday my family _____ to the zoo. My little sister _____
1. go   2. love
the lions. We _____ at the zoo right now, and it _____ a
3. be   4. be
beautiful day. We _____ the big cat show. The zookeeper _____
5. watch   6. feed
the lions. The lions always _____ excited at mealtime! They usually
7. get
_____ over the meat, and my sister _____ scared sometimes.
8. fight   9. get
But today she _____ afraid. Today she _____ and
10. feel, not   11. smile
_____ her hands. I _____ that she _____ to
12. clap   13. think   14. want
bring a lion home as a pet. Now she _____ out to the lions, "Here, kitty, kitty!"
15. call

Circle the correct answer.

1. My friend has two sons. ____ boys want bicycles for Christmas.
   a) A
   b) An
   c) The
   d) Ø (no article)

2. Do you want ____ ice cream cone from the store?
   a) a
   b) an
   c) the
   d) Ø (no article)

3. They picked out ____ puppy at the pet shop.
   a) a
   b) an
   c) the
   d) Ø (no article)

4. Mark bought ____ new jeans.
   a) a
   b) an
   c) the
   d) Ø (no article)

5. Did you see ____ full moon last nigh
   a) a
   b) an
   c) the
   d) Ø (no article)

The surveys compiled II parts, containing questions about the student's views on the teaching methods used in class and how effective the teaching methods were in the process of understanding the course materials. The first set of questions focused on the students' own opinions and perceptions of how effective the teaching methods and language use were in helping them understand the course materials. The second set of questions was targeted toward the student's understanding of English Grammar with the use of explanations and correlations used (Class A using the native language and Class B using mainly English).

Results

Research Hypothesis 1: There is a significant difference in the learning abilities of university students who were exposed to the instruction in their mother tongue and those who were not exposed to the instruction in their mother tongue.

In order to test this theory, a survey was handed out to 46 university students at the end of the course. For the first part of the survey, Class A students that were taught using their mother tongue generally voted that they had a better and easier time understanding the explanations of the English Grammar than Class B, who had voted they had a slightly harder time. As for the second part of the survey, the student's results revealed that Class B scored higher in the factual understanding of

the terms and grammar structure compared to Class A. From this outcome, we can deduce that although Class A thinks in their own perception that they have a better understanding due to linking what they have learned with their mother tongue, it is in fact more accurate to state that Class B (who had minimal to no assistance in the Mongolian Language) understood the English Grammar explanations of the terms and structure far better.

Aside from that, another aspect that should be highlighted from the survey was the fact that comparing the results from both classes, it showed that Class A students deviated from the original explanation of the terms and instead came up with their own adapted versions.

Research Hypothesis 2: There is a significant difference in the academic results of the learning abilities of university students between those who have been exposed to instruction in their mother tongue and those who have not. In order to test this hypothesis, a Post-Test was given out to the 46 university students at the end of the course. The individual and general score is shown in Table 1 and Table 2.

Table1. Pre-Test and Post-Test individual score list for Class A and Class B students

	Class A	Class B	Class A	Class B
1	91	95	95	98
2	95	93	94	97
3	94	90	97	95
4	92	87	93	93
5	89	85	92	90
6	86	82	89	93
7	85	81	86	92
8	87	86	85	88
9	89	85	87	86
10	80	75	89	85
11	82	74	80	87
12	72	72	82	89
13	75	70	86	80

14	79	79	76	82
15	71	76	78	89
16	70	75	72	76
17	65	65	75	78
18	68	60	79	75
19	61	62	71	72
20	60	67	70	78
21	45	35	65	65
22	58	49	62	52
23	55	57	55	58

Table 2. Pre-Test and Post-Test General score for Class A and Class B

Grade	Pre-Test (Class A)	Post-Test (Class A)	Pre-Test (Class B)	Post-Test (Class B)
A 90% - 100%	4	5	3	7
B 80% - 90%	7	8	6	8
C 70% - 80%	5	7	7	5
D 60% - 70%	4	2	4	1
F 0% - 60%	3	1	4	2

The scores were collated and analyzed using the t-test to establish the difference in the Class A and Class B participants before and after exposing them to the different experimental and environmental treatments. The results are presented in Table 3 and Table 4.

Table 3. t-value result of Class A

Class A	N	(X)	SD	SEM	t-value
Pre-Test	23	76.04	14.04	2.92	0.2261
Post-Test	23	80.57	10.72	2.24	

From Table 3, for the placement test/Pre-Test, the mean (X) for Class A was 76.04 while the mean (X) for the Post-Test was 80.57. The standard deviations for Class A were 14.04 (for Pre-Test) and 10.72 (for Post-Test) respectively. As for the confidence interval, the mean of the Pre-Test minus the Post-Test equals -4.52. The 95% confidence interval of this difference ranges from -11.94 to 2.90. The calculated t-value was 0.2261, meaning by conventional criteria, this difference is considered to be not statistically significant.

Table 4. t-value result of Class B

Class B	N	(X)	SD	SEM	t-value
Pre-Test	23	73.91	14.58	3.04	0.0348
Post-Test	23	82.52	12.10	2.52	

From Table 4, for the placement test/Pre-Test, the mean (X) for Class B was 73.91 while the mean (X) for the Post-Test was 82.52. The standard deviations for Class B were 14.58 (for Pre-Test) and 12.10 (for Post-Test) respectively. As for the confidence interval, the mean of the Pre-Test minus the Post-Test equals -8.61. The 95% confidence interval of this difference ranges from -16.57 to -0.64. The calculated t-value was 0.0348, meaning by conventional criteria, this difference is considered to be statistically significant.

Conclusion

From the results of the study / experiment, we believe that two of my hypotheses were proven to be accurate. The results from the survey have shown that although the students from Class A that have been taught mostly in their mother tongue have the impression of understanding the concepts and meaning of the classes better, in the result of their Post-Test they were not up to the standard in comparison to Class B, who showed significant difference represented by the t-value. As the class was mostly taught in

Mongolian, students also spoke their mother tongue to the teacher and peers, which affected the Post-Test score to some extent. we believe that although Class A understood the context of the class as well as Class B, the shortcomings of interpreting most of the content in their native tongue has therefore created a lack of perception that has affected their grade negatively.

Class B had a lower stance on the survey, though they had a higher rate of success as shown on the post-Test. As the class was mostly taught in English, the learning environment had become a predominantly English-speaking zone. It was compulsory for students to speak English and to interact with each other in English. We believe that this zone became a foundation for the students to learn and fully immerse themselves in the act of learning that language. The Post-Test results for Class B students who scored low at the beginning of the course showed an enormous leap compared to the students in Class A. The contrast between Pre-Test and Post-Test for both classes has shown that although Class B had scored lower than Class A in Pre-Test, through the environmental factors, they were able to score higher than Class A in the Post-Test (Class A with a t-value of 0.2261 and Class B with t-value of 0.0348). Therefore, we suggest that when a target language is used in the classroom, students' concentration on the lesson increases adding to the deepening of their understanding of the subject matter.

In conclusion, the results of the survey and Post-Test show that the class that was taught mostly in English had a better understanding and coherence in learning the "English Grammar" course. Therefore, we recommend minimal use of the mother tongue by a teacher in his/her instruction to attract students' interests and to help them get the best learning outcome.

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Teaching grammatical cases within distinct languages through sentence diagramming

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Abstract: Sentence diagramming exercise is one of the effective activities that can be used for low-intermediate level students at English language classroom to clearly understand the importance of sentence grammar, the noun case inflection that builds the coherent sentence and word formation role in a sentence. As a sentence diagram is a visual tool to help understand sentence structure, which reorganizes a sentence's words along interconnecting lines in order to demonstrate each word's function it helps to simplify complicated sentences by grouping words visually and to write coherently in the target language.

Keywords: cases, prepositions, sentence word order, diagramming the sentence structure

Inflectional cases or the noun cases associated with nouns in many languages involves case-category that encodes information about an element's grammatical role (subject, direct object, and so on). In modern English, this information is expressed largely through word order and the use of prepositions. In other words, case is a form of words of a noun which shows the relation of a noun to other words in a phrase or sentence. In English, grammatical cases as functional units play a vital role in the building of phrases and sentences and are expressed with the help of prepositions. They connect a noun or a pronoun to another word and show their relationships in a sentence. They are a kind of "small" word and cannot stand alone in the sentences. However, they often pose great problems in the identification of their relationships to other counterparts. Obviously, the Mongolian students who study English face the problems to substitute them as

Mongolian language employs postpositions or suffixes to express the cases and these preposition attachments are especially problematic in not only translation but also writing. Besides, as prepositions by themselves are semantically very ambiguous, certain number of them can be used for various inflections simultaneously expressing different meanings and the translation of these words poses challenge. This paper discusses how some of the grammatical cases and other problems referring to prepositions and sentence structures can be taught and solved by applying the controlled language techniques that have been practiced during the classes.

Exercises are extracted from a monolingual and small parallel bilingual sentence, where the usages, in particular some of the syntactic structures, vary a lot in many aspects. It is suggested that such ambiguities can be resolved by means of lexical information, such as sub categorizations,

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forming the right sentence according to the strongly fixed schemes and other additional translating exercises.

Forming the right sentence according to the strongly fixed schemes is one of the effective activities that can be used for low-intermediate level students at English language classroom to clearly understand the importance of word combination in a sentence and word formation role in a sentence and write coherently.

University teachers, who work with young adult learners, must conduct their lessons in a useful and enjoyable manner that corresponds to their students' age, individual differences, individual's own interest and need to learn them write better. As writing is a challenging activity, it can be quite hard to get the students to do it during the class. Particularly, for non-native students, studying English at the academic level, writing is just a burden on them. From my experience of teaching writing, I have noticed that even students know English grammar, an organization of the paragraph well, and have a good idea to write, they still lack capability to do it. That is because the word orders in a sentence are totally different as English and Mongolian are distinct languages that belong to different language families. According to O'Grady, "The world's languages can be grouped into a relatively small number of language families. There are a few inflectional affixes and cases in English, and it employs SVO word order. Altaic languages are usually agglutinating, often with several suffixes in the same word. They normally employ SOV word order and typically use postpositions rather than prepositions. Many Altaic languages have harmony, a phonological phenomenon in which all vowels of a word share certain features, such as (round) or (back)" No matter what language it is, words in a sentence are strictly arranged and attached to each other with the help of either inflectional affixes or prepositions. As all we know, the case clearly shows the word order and agreement in a sentence.

In an English sentence prepositions and personal pronouns play an important role, while in Mongolian case and other suffixes connect the words in a sentence. 8 cases of Mongolian language are expressed only by prepositions in the English language except possessive case. It's considered that there are only 2 cases in the English- nominative and possessive. Therefore, students find it difficult and always get confused to write what they think. They tend to write unclear sentences using just single words that are not attached to each other.

Ex: Bat wrote a poem in the club. In this sentence, the subject *Bat* precedes the verb and the direct object *a poem* follows, while the element expressing location *(the club)* is preceded by the preposition *on*.

In many languages, however, these distinctions are marked by inflectional affixes. (Certain suffixes or prepositions) The contrasts represented in the Mongolian case system are intermediate in complexity compared to English which has only two. Unlike their counterparts in Mongolian, English pronouns are one of the parts of speeches that can be the subject's case inflection. Simultaneously, English nouns and determiners (words such as they were inflected for case too. In modern English, however, the only remnant of this case system is the genitive suffix, used to mark possessors (the man's books, neither nouns nor determiners are inflected to distinguish grammatical relations such as subject and direct object.

a. the man in subject position: The man left. The man read the book.

b. the man in direct object position: A noise frightened the man.

However, pronouns exhibit a more elaborate set of contrasts, distinguishing a

nominative (1, they, he), an accusative (me, them, him), and a genitive (my, their, his).

Nominative: *He* left. (Intransitive verb)

He read the book. (Transitive verb)

Accusative: A noise frightened *him*.

Genitive: Sam took *his c*ar.

Since the same form of the pronoun is used for the subject of an intransitive verb and the subject of a transitive verb and since this form differs from the one used for direct objects, these contrasts follow the nominative-accusative pattern. (O'Grady, Dobrovolsky, & Aronoff, pp. 147-148)

From this point we can conclude that writing the coherent and longer sentences is the foremost hurdle that non-native, low-intermediate level students encounter and to overcome this,

Grammar cases in our 2 distinct languages are as follows:

NOMINATIVE- НЭРЛЭХ

The nominative case is the basic uninflected form of the noun.

ACCUSATIVE- ЗААХ –Г, ИЙГ –ЫГ

The accusative case marks the direct object of a verb and there are no inflections or prepositions in their English equivalent

GENITIVE- ХАРЬЯАЛАХ – Ы, ИЙ, ИЙН –ЫН; Н

The genitive case is used to show possession and is placed immediately after the first member of a genitive construction and can be translated by – 's, 'of ' 'noun +noun'

DATIVE-LOCATIVE-   ӨГӨХ ОРШИХ-Д; Т- АА4

The Dative-Locative case indicates the place or time at which something happens. Its meaning can be translated by the English prepositions 'to', 'at', 'on', 'in' etc.

ABLATIVE- ГАРАХ –ААС 4

The ablative case carries the meaning 'from' and shows separation away from an object. It is also used in comparisons and in this case translates as 'than'.

COMITATIVE- ХАМТРАХ –ТАЙ4

The commutative case denotes accompaniment. It is translated as 'with' or 'together with' and is used with animate beings.

INSTRUMENTAL – УЙЛДЭХ-ААР4

The instrumental case denotes means. It is translated as 'by', 'with' or 'through'.

DIRECTIVE CASE – ЧИГЛЭХ – РУУ2 –' ААД[4] The directive case indicates directions to the place. Its meaning can be translated by the English prepositions 'to' (ww.linguamongolia.com/case1.html, 2012)

In Mongolian, the endings of nouns are changed according to how they are used in a sentence; therefore, there are several different (case-) endings, absolute (nominative), accusative, genitive, locative, ablative, dative, instrumental. English is one of those languages in which nouns do not (in general) change their endings according to how they are used in a sentence. Instead, prepositions are employed to indicate how the nouns are connected to the rest of the sentence:

The roof of the house blew off – (genitive)

He lives in the house- (locative)

He beat me with a stick- (instrumental)

He gave a stick to the dog-(dative). But there is an exception that it is often had to be used prepositions in English where we don't use in Mongolian. For example, as D. Degmid has said, the suffix "s' (apostrophe "s") is really a genitive case ending; and where in Mongolian you use the accusative case for the object, we don't change the end of the word, but we don't use a preposition either: 'He beat the dog with a stick'. In Mongolian the 'dog' in that sentence would have the ending which would distinguish it from 'The dog ate his dinner', but as you see in English the word remains the same. (Different prepositions are followed by nouns with different case endings, which obviously do not apply in English). (Дэгмид.Б, 2003, pp. 31-32)

According to the above-mentioned classification, we will understand how problematic the grammar case inflections are in distinct languages and how flexible some prepositions are in English. (One preposition can be used as inflections for three different cases at the same time) To overcome certain difficulties, I use diagramming the sentence structure, and paraphrasing sentences exercises in my class. These are excellent methods proven to be useful not only for writing logical and coherent sentences but also recognizing the distinct feature of two languages.

Sentence diagramming is primary as the students need to have a good understanding of what a sentence is. Sentence diagramming is perhaps one of the oldest graphic organizers that people have in language usage. In 1847, a school principal named Stephen Watkins Clark developed a bubble-looking type of diagramming to help his students see connections among grammatical concepts. About 30 years later, Alonzo Reed and Brainerd Kellogg, professors at Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute, tweaked the concept and made diagramming hugely popular as a way for students to see the structure of a sentence.

According to Noam Chomsky, "Sentence diagram is interactive, allowing you to explore words, sentence grammar, parts of speech, additional word information and the syntax role, the word plays in a sentence". (Chomsky.N, 1957)   The researchers Reed and Kellogg first introduced the method of sentence diagramming in their book *Higher Lessons in* English, published in 1877, and W. S. Clark wrote about it in his book *A Practical Grammar: In Which Words, Phrases & Sentences are Classified According to Their Offices and Their Various Relationships to Each other.*

According to Clark, "Basically, there are 3 different types of sentence diagramming schemas:
1. Reed–Kellogg system
2. Constituency and dependency
3. Hybrid trees

1. Reed–Kellogg system

In the Reed–Kellogg system, the diagram of a simple sentence begins with a horizontal line called the *base*. The subject is written on the left, the predicate on the right, separated by a vertical bar which extends through the base. The predicate must contain a verb, and the verb requires other sentence elements to complete the predicate, permits them to do so, or precludes them from doing so. The verb and its object, when present, are separated by a line that ends at the baseline. If the object is a direct object, the line is vertical. If the object is a predicate noun or adjective, the line looks like a backslash, \, sloping toward the subject. Modifiers of the subject, predicate, or object dangle below the baseline: Modifiers,   including Adjectives (including articles) and adverbs are placed on slanted lines below the word they modify. Prepositional phrases are also placed beneath the word they modify; the preposition goes on a slanted line and the slanted line leads to a horizontal line on which the object of the preposition is placed. These basic diagramming conventions are augmented for other types of sentence structures, e.g. for coordination and subordinate clauses.

2. Constituency and dependency

The connections to modern principles for constructing parse trees are present in the Reed–Kellogg diagrams, although Reed and Kellogg understood such principles only implicitly. The principles are now regarded as the constituency relation of phrase structure grammars and the dependency relation

of dependency grammars. These two relations are illustrated here adjacent to each other for comparison: (D = Determiner, N = Noun, NP = Noun Phrase, S = Sentence, V = Verb, VP = Verb Phrase)

3.Hybrid trees

One can render Reed–Kellogg diagrams according to modern tree conventions. When one does so, the result is a hybrid dependency-constituency tree. A mixing of labeling conventions (i.e., category label vs. actual word) helps draw attention to the presence of both constituency and dependency. The S and VP in these trees mark the constituency relation and the words themselves mark the dependency relation." (Clark, 1847) From these 3 schemas, I prefer to use Reed–Kellogg system as Reed–Kellogg diagrams focus on both functions of words and their order in a sentence.

Therefore, to start diagramming the sentence, I introduced my students with the basics (general steps) of diagramming as follows:
There are four types of lines for sentence diagramming:

horizontal lines (——) to write subjects, verbs and objects
vertical lines (|) to separate subjects, verbs and objects
diagonal lines (/) to write modifiers, prepositions and articles
dotted vertical or diagonal lines (⋮) for conjunctions (O'Brien, 2012)

1.Drawing a horizontal line with a small vertical line through the middle.

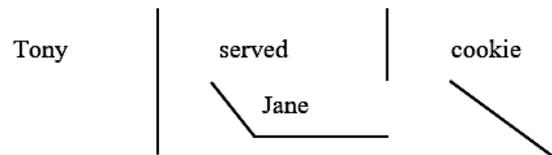| SUBJECT	VERB
Traffic	had stopped
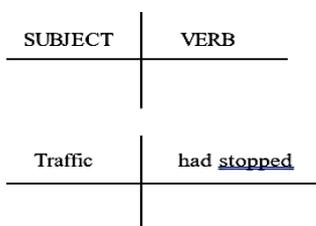
Helping verbs are paired with the action verb on the baseline.
2. Drawing another vertical line stopping at the horizontal line if there is a direct object. To the right of this line, write the direct object. Direct objects are separated from action verbs by a *vertical line* that does not pass through the baseline. Indirect objects require an additional line underneath the verb it follows.

SUBJECT	VERB	D.O.
	I.O.	
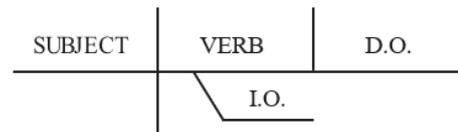
3. Placing indirect objects beneath the verb. In general, indirect objects could take a preposition and so are drawn with a diagonal line coming off of the word they modify.

Tony | served | cookie
Jane

4. Drawing a slash if there is a *predicate nominative* or *predicate adjective*. A predicate nominative is a noun, pronoun, or adjective that refers to the subject. The verb preceding the predicate nominative or adjective is usually a linking verb, such as the forms of *to be* (*is*, *are*, *was*, etc.) or sense words (*looks*, *smells*, *tastes*, etc.). To the right of the slash, write the predicate nominative or adjective. Predicate adjectives and predicate nominatives are separated from linking verbs by a *slanted line* that does not pass through the baseline.

SUBJECT	LINKING VERB	PRED. ADJ/NOM
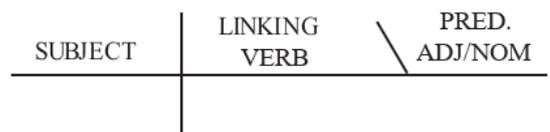
5. Placing adjectives, adverbs, articles, and possessives on diagonal lines below the words they modify. Adjectives and adverbs

connect to thewords they modify with a slanted line (O'Brien, Sentence Diagramming Reference Manual: How To Diagram Anything, 2012)
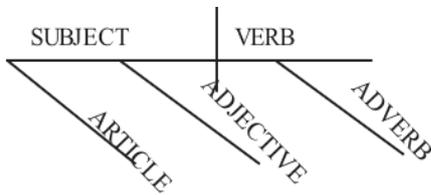
6. Begin prepositions like students do with adjectives: Draw a diagonal line down. The object of the preposition goes on a horizontal line coming off the preposition line. Prepositions connect to the word it modified a slanted line with the object of the preposition attached with a horizontal line.
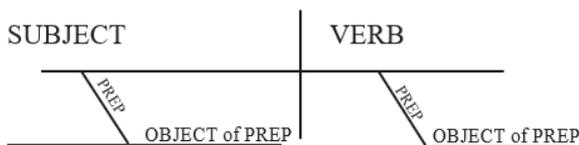
7. Determining how any conjunctions are being used. (Tesnière, 1959)

Obviously, by learning diagramming, I have more focused on diagramming the preposition or prepositional phrases as they are the core unit of expressing the case inflection in our 2 targeted languages.

In English, a preposition is a word or a set of words that indicates the location or some other relation (noun case) between a noun or a pronoun and other parts of the sentence. The basic rules of prepositions and their correct usage could be explained well at first like - *Preposition must have an object* – a preposition is not a preposition unless it goes with a related noun or a pronoun that is the object of the preposition. A preposition is always with an object – without an object, it is an adverb that never has an object. These kinds of preparation or ability took rather longer hours, but the results were rewarding.

The sentence diagramming is helpful for not only to understand the grammar, but also to distinguish the differences of sentence word order and affixes in 2 distinct languages like English and Mongolian. In this exercise, firstly, students analyze and diagram the ready sentence taken from the passage in the textbook. Then, I have the students make simple sentences according to the diagram, later make the diagram harder and ask them to write more complex sentences. Once students can handle the basic rules of diagramming, the next step is to move on to more advanced sentence diagramming. Though there are many of complex constructions in English grammar, here are a few with their own particular method when it comes to diagramming sentences. Ex: Noun clauses, noun phrases, and infinitive phrases are distinct ideas that are placed within another sentence and are represented as extensions from the main diagram base line. To do so, students should connect it to the main diagram with long vertical lines with triangular bases and draw a horizontal line on top of the pedestals and place them directly on the base line where a single noun would go. Students can also draw the noun clause or phrase as a separate sentence on the new horizontal line. When students are diagramming the linking verbs *like be, seem,* and *become,* they should be aware of that these words are followed by a predicate adjective or predicate noun that describes the subject, there are special rules for sentence diagrams Students will write the verb normally, followed by the predicate adjective/noun on the same line. Then, with a vertical line slanted to the left, they should separate the verb and predicate adjective/noun. Here the students should acknowledge that the line, like direct objects, does not intersect the base line. Imperative sentence or commands generally don't have written subjects because it's assumed the subject is whomever the speaker

is talking to. Therefore, when students are making a sentence diagram for an imperative sentence, they should simply put "(you)" in the subject place. With the help of sentence diagramming exercise, teacher provides the students with 5-6 simple sentences that have different ideas and will make them one or two complex sentences by combining ideas in the series, using relative clauses, participles, appositives and punctuation marks such as colon, semicolon and hyphen.

Next for the effective writing activity and making the coherent, complex sentence , students are asked to paraphrase the sentence that they preivuosely made. The same thoughts might be reworded in English. In this exercise students are given a sentence from the reading passage of the textbook and asked to write as many variations as they can.

Ex: That the Vikings discovered America is accepted by all but a few scholars.

1. It is accepted by all but a few scholars that….
2. All but a few scholars accept the fact that …….
3. The discovery of America by the Vikings is a fact accepted by …….

From various types of writing exercises, sentence diagramming is proven to be one of the most useful exercises for elementary, pre-intermediate or low-intermediate level university students as here we can concentrate   more on previously mentioned problems that students face, while the others (such as paraphrasing /rewording) can be performed at more advanced level class.

To prove the theory of Noam Chomsky and the efficiency of sentence diagramming exercise, I conducted the analysis on pre-intermediate level students' writing and speaking tasks. Totally 92 students were involved. At the beginning of fall semester, 71 students or 70,8 % were making grammar and word order mistakes due to the poor understanding of sentence structure, the morphology of target and native languages. Interistingly,78% (most of) of total grammar mistakes were recorded only on the wrong usage or lacking/missing the case inflection. In other words, it is quite understandable that students face the problems of employing the accurate preposition at a given case, as there all 8 noun cases in Mongolian language such as нэрлэх- nominative, харьяалах-gentive, өгөх орших-dative, заах-assusative, гарах-allative, үйлдэх-instrumentive, хамтрах- commitative, чиглэх-direvtive must be expressed mostly only by the prepositions in English. We all know that there are only **2** approved cases in English, nominative and possessive. But Mongolian is one of the Altaic languages (language family) that totally lacks the usage preposition and it was supposed to be problematic to make the understandable and coherent sentence in English.

By doing such exercises (sentence diagramming followed by rewording) in every class (as a pre-writing or post writing exercises), the students could achieve more than we expected. At the end of the semester, only 19% or 13 students showed bad results. From this, we can conclude that teaching sentence structure and doing sentence diagramming is really helpful for low-intermediate level students in an English language classroom to clearly understand the importance of sentence grammar and word formation role in a sentence.

As was mentioned above, sentence diagramming helps every student. No single strategy is perfect for every learner, but plenty of brain research has proven the efficacy of graphic organizers. And my own experiences as a teacher have led me to believe that most students can use that help.

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