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

Batsuren Renchin¹ and Oyunsuren Tsend²

Abstract: The subject for the consideration in the article is idioms with the component “man” 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 “man” 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, man.

In recent years, linguists, teaching practitioners and methodologists strive to reveal and substantiate theoretical issues more deeply and clearly contacting related and different system languages, their interaction and mutual influence. Such studies are of great importance in studying stages of development of the history of thinking of different peoples and related issues of culture formation, since as a result of any comparison several languages, both universal and distinctive features are clearly distinguished properties.

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,

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The relationship between the idioms and certain culture codes is kept subconsciously in the collective memory of the nation. As V.N. Telia notes, that culture codes are those realities that are already endowed with a cultural meaning and which are the initial material for the cultural interpretation of the image of phraseology. Codes

of culture are thematically united on the basis of the properties and actions of man himself, faunal, floral and other worlds, the objective world (natural or man-made "things"), natural-landscape or spiritual-religious worlds. Signs of realities correlated with culture codes, identified in the image of phraseology, are their functions, size, boundaries, shape, color, etc. Culture codes usually perform the role of symbols, standards, stereotypes in the "language" of culture and act as signs of the "language" of culture (BFSRL, 2006).

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

Methodology

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

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

For the concepts of the "language" of culture, embodied in the language means, language idioms are the most transparent as they contain characteristic traits of the worldview, reflexively correlated with this "language" and displayed in a figurative base of idioms" (Telia, 1999, p.9). In this article, we will consider similarities and differences in the images included in the idioms with the component "man" in English, "человек,

люди" Russian and "хүн" in Mongolian languages.

The man is one of the most common words in phraseological units. This word has become a component of quite a large number of phraseological units, in the meaning of which the archetype "man = man" is clearly visible. The word "man" in the cultural tradition is identified with a person and is a kind of original point of reference in the coordinate system.

Discussion

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

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

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

Cultural codes similar in English, Mongolian and Russian languages:

1. Anthropic+qualitative:

Eng: [a broken man](#); [a marked man](#); [a new man](#); [be your own man](#); feel like a new man; funny man;

Rus: большой человек (big man (boss - "big shot"); лихие люди (dashing people- robbers); [бывшие люди](#) (former people - *people who have lost their social status*); лишние люди (superfluous people - *socially unpopular people*); темные люди (dark people - *ignorant, uneducated people*); как добрые люди (*like kind people*); сверх-человек (super-man - *future man*);

- Mon:** хүний дээд (human supreme – *one is pure gold*);
2. Anthropic+ anthropic:
Eng: [a ladies' man](#); [a man among men](#); [a man of letters](#); [a man of the people](#); [a man of the world](#); [boss man](#); family man; [man of leisure](#); man of war; [renaissance man](#); [self-made man](#);
Rus: род человеческий; род людской (*human race*); человеческий фактор (human factor (*the influence of people on the operation of equipment and production*)); душа компании (the soul of the company - *the person who enlivens communication*); [Казанская сирота](#) (Kazan orphan - *a person pretending to be unhappy*);
Mon: хүний үнэргүй (with no human scent – *a broken reed*);
3. Anthropic+somatic:
Eng: [a man after \(one's\) own heart](#); [a man of my kidney](#); [breast man](#); face man; [headache man](#); leg man; muscleman;
Rus: желчный человек (bile person - *a dissatisfied person with everything*); язвительный человек (a caustic person (*prone to barbs*));
Mon: хүний амаар (by human mouth – *under someone's thumb*)
- Cultural codes similar in two languages:**
1. Anthropic+natural:
Eng: a gem of a person; iron man; man in the moon;
Rus: царь природы (king of nature - *man*); золотой человек (*golden man useful, good person*);
2. Anthropic+artifact:
Eng: [a hatchet man](#); [have a man by the balls](#); [man of the cloth](#); [medallion man](#); stick man;
Rus: ума палата (chamber of mind – *smart person*)
3. Anthropic+active:
Eng: [a man/woman/person of action](#);
Rus: ничто человеческое мне не чуждо (*nothing human is alien to me*)
4. Anthropic+religious:
Eng: devil of a man; [man of God](#);
Rus: божий человек (*god's man*); грешный человек (*sinful man - weak man*);
5. Anthropic+numerical:
Eng: [each man for himself](#);
Rus: всё (не) как у людей (*everything is (not) like with people*);
6. Anthropic+zoomorphic:
Eng: [are you a man or a mouse?](#);
Rus: рабочая лошадка (workhorse - *a person who is given a lot of work*); [козел отпущения](#) (scapegoat - *a person who is blamed for someone else*); лиса Патрикеевна (fox Patrikeevna - *cunning woman*); заблудшая овечка (lost sheep - *a woman prone to sin*); заячья душа (hare soul - *cowardly man*);
7. Anthropic+ anthropic+numerical:
Eng: [a man of few words](#); [every man to his taste](#); [nine tailors make a man](#); [no man can serve two masters](#); [one-man band](#); [one-man show](#);
Rus: все мы люди, все мы человеки (*we are all human, we are all men*)
8. Anthropic+ anthropic+ qualitative:
Eng: [a wise man of Gotham](#); [blind man's holiday](#); man's best friend;
Rus: человек с большой буквы (*a man with a capital letter*)
9. Anthropic+somatic+numerical:
Rus: мастер на все руки (Jack of all trades - *skillful person*); хүн толгойтой болгон (*every human head – all the world and his wife*)
10. Anthropic+ anthropic+active:
Rus: потерять человеческий облик (*lose human appearance*);
Mon: хүн дүрсээ алдах (*loss of human image - to get naughty, unruly*);

хүн рүү угаадас цацах (throwing sewage at someone – *muckraking*); хүний нэр барих (to catch a person's name – *drop someone's name*); хүний санаанд оромгүй (unexpected for one's mind – *above one's head*)

11. Anthropic+anthropic+zoomorphic:

Rus: человек человеку волк (*man is a wolf to man*);

Mon: хүн хүндээ чоно (*man is a wolf to man*).

12. Anthropic+active:

Rus: человек вышел (a person came out - *about having achieved a good position in society*); выйти (выбиться, выводить и т.д.) в люди (*go out (break out, bring out, etc.) into people*); сделать человеком (*make a man*); ходить по людям (*walk around people - beg*);

Mon: хүнд өгөх (to give to the one – *marry off*);

Cultural codes existing only in one of three languages:

In English:

1. Anthropic+temporal: [\(the\) man of the moment](#); [\(the\) man/woman of the hour](#);
2. Anthropic+qualitative+temporal: [a dirty old man](#);
3. Anthropic+qualitative+active+floral: [a drowning man will clutch at a straw](#); [a straw to a drowning man](#);
4. Anthropic+color: [man of color](#); white man;
5. Anthropic+floral: [a man of straw](#);
6. Anthropic+gastronomic: [candy man](#);
7. Anthropic+constructive: [a/the man about town](#); [man in the street](#);
8. Anthropic+natural+numerical: [a man for all seasons](#);
9. Anthropic+active+zoomorphic: [see a man about a horse](#); [see a man about a dog](#);

10. Anthropic+anthropic+religious: [god's gift to man](#);

11. Anthropic+somatic+artifact: [rag-and-bone man](#);

12. Anthropic+anthropic+color: [white man's disease](#); white man's burden;

13. Anthropic+gastronomic+gastronomic: [butter-and-egg man](#);

14. Anthropic+qualitative+artifact: [dead men's shoes](#); [little man in the boat](#); [low man on the ladder](#); [play the ball and not the man](#);

15. Anthropic+qualitative+somatic: your right-hand man; strong-arm man;

16. Anthropic+qualitative+gastronomic: [the thinking man's/women's crumpe](#);

17. Anthropic+qualitative+temporal: [good time man](#); [old man winter](#);

18. Anthropic+gastronomic+qualitative+artifact: [crumbs from the rich man's table](#);

19. Anthropic+zoomorphic+active: [be \(of\) no use to man or beast](#); give a man a fish; [go to see a man about a dog](#);

20. Anthropic+numerical+anthropic+numerical: [once a man, twice a child](#);

21. Anthropic+active+somatic+numerical+anthropic: [be busier than a one-legged man in a butt-kicking contest](#);

22. Anthropic+numerical+qualitative+anthropic+numerical+qualitative: [one small step for man, one giant leap for mankind](#).

In Russian:

1. Anthropic+special: человек на своем месте (*man in his place*);
2. Active+zoomorphic: [стреляный воробей](#) (shot sparrow - *experienced man*); мухи не обидит (wouldn't hurt a fly - *harmless person*);
3. Color+zoomorphic: серая мышь (gray mouse - *inconspicuous person*);

4. Active+natural: ВИТАТЬ В облаках (head in the clouds - *romantic person*);
5. Floral+religious: божий одуванчик (god's dandelion- *another harmless person*);
6. Somatic+somatic: язык без костей (tongue without bones talkative person);
7. Somatic+qualitative: мокрая курица (wet chicken - *pathetic, weak-willed person*);
8. Anthropic+qualitative+numerical: прекрасная половина рода человеческого (*The beautiful half of the human race (women)*);
9. Somatic+numerical+special: семи пядей во лбу (Seven spans in the forehead - *smart man*);
10. Anthropic+qualitative+numerical+active: не хлебом единым жив человек (*Man does not live by bread alone*);
11. Anthropic+anthropic+anthropic+anthropic+anthropic: человек человеку друг, товарищ и брат (*Man is man's friend, comrade and brother*).

In Mongolian:

1. Anthropic+active+constructive: Мон. ЯKM: хүн алж хүрээ талах (killing people – *to wreak havos*);
2. Anthropic+active+qualitative: Мон. ЯKM: хүний мууд дурлах (love of human evil – *crow over*);
3. Anthropic+anthropic+artifact+artifact: Мон. ЯKM: хүн ахтай дээл захтай (a man has a brother, a coat has a collar – *there are leaders and led*);
4. Anthropic+somatic+qualitative: Мон. ЯKM: хүний нүүр халуун (a person's face is hot – *to spare embarrassment*);
5. Anthropic+anthropic+zoomorphic+zoomorphic:

- Мон. ЯKM: хүн нэрээ тогос өдөө (a man cares about his name, a peacock- about his feathers – *hold one's own*);
6. Anthropic+somatic+qualitative+active: Мон. ЯKM: хүний юманд хүйтэн гар дүрэх (to dip a cold hand in others' things – *have greasy fingers*);
7. Anthropic+zoomorphic+somatic+somatic: Мон. ЯKM: хүн хэлээрээ, мал хөлөөрөө (people with their tongues and animals with their feet – *soft fire makes sweet malt*);
8. Anthropic+zoomorphic+zoomorphic+active: Мон. ЯKM: хүн болох багаасаа хүлэг болох унаганаасаа (from an infant to an adult, from a foal to a horse – *the child is father of the man*); хүний нохой идэхээр өөрийн нохой идэх (better to be eaten by your own dog than by the other's one – *charity begins at home*);
9. Anthropic+anthropic+color+somatic: Мон. ЯKM: хүний хүү хүрэн бөөртэй (a human son has brown kidneys – *a leopard cannot change his spots*);
10. Anthropic+numerical+somatic+numerical+somatic+active: Мон. ЯKM: хүний долоон булчирхай, найман найлзуурхайг тоочих (count smb's seven glands and eight salivary glands – *to describe smb warts and all*);
11. Anthropic+color+zoomorphic+color+qualitative: Мон. ЯKM: хүний эрэн дотроо могойн эрэн гаднаа (A man's are hidden inside and a snake's spots are seen outside – *beauty is but skin deep*).

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

English cultural codes:	Russian codes:	Mongolian codes:
anthropic	anthropic	anthropic
active	active	active
somatic	somatic	somatic
natural	natural	-
artifact	artifact	artifact
religious	religious	-
numerical	numerical	numerical
zoomorphic	zoomorphic	zoomorphic
qualitative	qualitative	-
color	color	color
floral	floral	-
gastronomic	-	-
temporal	-	-
-	spatial	-
constructive	-	constructive

Conclusion

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

Universal codes of the culture for the appropriate three language worldviews include 3 common set out of the 59 sets of cultural codes: *anthropic+qualitative*, *anthropic+anthropic* and *anthropic+somatic* codes. For Russian and English languages, 8 sets of cultural codes are common: *anthropic+natural*, *anthropic+artifact*, *anthropic+active*, *anthropic+religious*, *anthropic+numerical*, *anthropic+zoomorphic*, *anthropic+anthropic+numerical*, *anthropic+anthropic+qualitative* codes. As for Russian and Mongolian languages, there are 4 common sets such as *anthropic+somatic+numerical*, *anthropic+anthropic+active*, *anthropic+anthropic+zoomorphic* and *anthropic+active* sets of cultural codes are 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 22 sets of codes are unique: *anthropic+temporal*, *anthropic+qualitative+temporal*, *anthropic+color*, *anthropic+floral*, *anthropic+gastronomic*, *anthropic+constructive*, *anthropic+natural+numerical*, *anthropic+active+zoomorphic*, *anthropic+anthropic+* *religious*, *anthropic+somatic+artifact*, *anthropic+anthropic+color*, *anthropic+gastronomic+gastronomic*, *anthropic+qualitative+artifact*, *anthropic+qualitative+somatic*, *anthropic+qualitative+gastronomic*, *anthropic+qualitative+temporal*, *anthropic+gastronomic+qualitative+artifact*, *anthropic+zoomorphic+active*, *anthropic+numerical+anthropic+numerical*, *anthropic+active+somatic+numerical+anthropic*, *anthropic+numerical+qualitative+anthropic+numerical+qualitative* codes.

There are 11 unique codes in Russian language as following: *anthropic+special*, *active+zoomorphic*, *color+zoomorphic*, *active+natural*, *floral+religious*, *somatic+somatic*, *somatic+qualitative*, *anthropic+qualitative+numerical*, *somatic+numerical+special*, *anthropic+qualitative+numerical+active*, *anthropic+anthropic+anthropic+anthropic* codes.

And we can see 11 unique codes in Mongolian such as: *anthropic+active+constructive*, *anthropic+active+qualitative*, *anthropic+anthropic+artifact+artifact*, *anthropic+somatic+qualitative*, *anthropic+anthropic+zoomorphic+zoomorphic*, *anthropic+somatic+qualitative+active*, *anthropic+zoomorphic+somatic+somatic*, *anthropic+zoomorphic+zoomorphic+active*, *anthropic+anthropic+color+somatic*,

anthropic+numerical+ somatic+numerical+ somatic+ active, anthropic+color+zoomorphic+color+qualitative codes.

In English language a *spatial* cultural code is absent; in Russian language a *constructive, temporal and gastronomic codes* are not found. In Mongolian language – *religious, qualitative, temporal, floral, gastronomic and spatial 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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A Phonological Exploration of Elision Patterns in British English and Mongolian

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Abstract: Individuals across all languages often encounter the challenge of recognizing various words or phrases in their reduced forms daily, particularly during the swift or casual communication process. This phenomenon, characterized by the reduction or contraction of sounds and occasional omission of entire lexical units, aligns with the foundational principle of linguistic economy. Consequently, this research aims to investigate the complex phenomenon of speech sound omission, or elision, specifically focusing on native speakers of Standard British English and the Ulaanbaatar Speech of Mongolia—a recognized form of contemporary Standard Mongolian. It underscores the dynamic nature of phonology in spoken language. The primary objective of this study is to shed light on the nuanced mechanisms involved in the simplification of spoken language through the deliberate exclusion of specific sounds. Through a comparative analysis between English and Mongolian, this research seeks to explore commonalities and divergences in the patterns of sound elision. This modest approach ensures a careful examination of the processes contributing to speech sound omission, providing insights into the comparative phonological dynamics within the unique linguistic contexts of each language.

Keywords: elision, reduction, lenition, weakening, dropping, English, Mongolian

Human language is a combination of form and content, where sounds and letters serve as the medium for expressing meaning. However, understanding the meaning becomes challenging for some when sounds are spoken rapidly, a phenomenon often caused by linguistic reductions, especially in spoken language. For instance, when the question ‘What are you going to do?’ is spoken slowly or written down, foreign

learners may have little trouble comprehending it. However, at natural speed, as in /'wɒtʃə 'gʌnə du:/, the question can become an incomprehensible stream of sounds, a phenomenon termed the ‘acoustic blur’ by Gillian Brown (1990) in the context of natural spoken English. To keep pace with informal spoken English, it is crucial to discern word boundaries within the stream of sounds.

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Linguistic reductions are intrinsic to natural English and involve the phenomenon of losing sounds in words or phrases during speech. Although prevalent in spoken English, these reductions, collectively referred to as 'reduced forms' by James Dean Brown and Ann Hilferty (2001), encompass processes such as contraction, elision, assimilation, and reduction. While distinct from each other, these forms share a common outcome—the creation of a reduced form. Contractions, elisions, and word stress are among the basic forms of reductions, each contributing to the simplification of speech.

Elision, a notable aspect of linguistic reduction, emerges as a distinctive mechanism for simplifying speech, occurring both in individual words and inter-word connections. Described by Finch (2000) as a frequent phenomenon in casual speech, elision is particularly observed at the boundaries between words. Clark and Yallop (1990) offer a nuanced perspective, defining elision as the deliberate omission of certain segments or syllables, highlighting its role as a form of articulatory economy—specifically, the intentional omission of vowels or consonants.

This study aims to unravel the intricacies of elision, focusing on how spoken language simplifies through the deliberate exclusion of certain sounds. The primary objective is to explore elision patterns in both British English and the Ulaanbaatar Speech of Mongolian—a recognized form of contemporary Standard Mongolian. Through a comparative analysis, the research aims to unveil commonalities and divergences in the patterns of sound elision, providing insights

into the phonological dynamics within each unique linguistic context.

Methodologically, the research will conduct a comprehensive analysis of existing literature on elision in English and Mongolian. Additionally, speech samples from native speakers of both languages will be collected and analyzed to identify patterns and variations in elision. Phonetic and phonological analyses will be conducted to discern the underlying reasons behind the omission of specific sounds within each linguistic context. In pursuit of this objective, a bilingual approach is adopted, drawing upon language resources meticulously selected for each respective context. Specifically, the Cambridge Dictionary, accessed online, is employed as the linguistic reference for English, while the Orthographic Dictionary (2018) is utilized as the authoritative source for Mongolian.

From a phonological perspective, the pronunciation of 'Ulaanbaatar' encompasses 10 short vowels, 10 long vowels, 10 short diphthong vowels, and 10 long diphthong vowels (Urtnasan et al., 2022, pp. 31-32). In contrast, English features 7 short vowels, 5 long vowels, 8 diphthongs, and 5 triphthongs (Roach, 2009, pp. 13-19). English phonology exhibits the /ʃ/ sound through various combinations such as 's+h' as in 'shift,' '-tion/-sion' as in 'education/tension,' 's+u' as in 'sugar,' '-sure' as in 'assure and pressure,' and 'c+h' as in 'chef and champagne.' These combinations involve different sequences of letters. Conversely, in the Mongolian language, the /ʃ/ sound is represented by a single letter, namely 'ш' /sh/. Similarly, the /tʃ/ sound in English (e.g., c+h as in 'choice' and '-ture' as in 'picture') is expressed through

the combination of letters. In Mongolian, however, it is denoted by a single letter, namely 'ч' /ch/.

Historical elision refers to the omission of consonants in some words from clusters forever in speech though the matching letters still occur in the spelling (Collins & Mees, 2013, p. 123); for example, know /nəʊ/, comb /kəʊm/, whistle /wɪs.l /, wrong /rɒŋ/, knight /naɪt/ and listen /lɪs.ən/etc. Mongolian also exhibits instances of historical elision, representing a focal point in diachronic linguistics—an area exploring how the present form of a language may mirror elisions from the past. These linguistic phenomena, initially optional, have evolved over time into obligatory elisions. Abundant examples of such elisions can be identified in Mongolian, particularly at the level of collocations. Notable instances include 'өнөө өдөр – өнөөдөр,' 'нөгөө өдөр – нөгөөдөр,' 'маргааш өдөр – маргаадар,' 'дур үгүй – дургүй,' 'тав үгүй – тавгүй,' 'авч ирэх – авчрах,' 'хаа очив – хаачив,' 'цэвэрлээд орхиороорой – цэвэрлээдхээрэй,' 'бор алаг – борлог,' and 'хар алаг - харлаг.' Initially separate, independent semantic words, in rapid speech, the second word becomes connected to the preceding one, resulting in the elision of one of its segments and altering its pronunciation. Following these historical elisions, the impacted words are now commonly utilized in spoken language as a single phonetic entity with a unified meaning. Additionally, the phenomenon of elision is evident in numerous instances where suffixes are appended to form new words and inflectional affixes are added to convey grammatical meaning. For instance, the application of

suffixes such as /-vтар, -khan, -msэг/ to words ending in /ŋ/ sounds, as seen in *улаан* (red) + *втар* /vтар/ resulting in *улаавтар* (reddish), *нарийн* (thin) + *хан* /khan/ yielding *нарийвтар* (like thin or thinner), and *хүүхэн* (girl, lady, woman) + *мсэг* /mseг/ forming *хүүхэмсэг* (girlish or fond of women). In these instances, the vowel of the suffix harmonizes with the base word, and /ŋ/ undergoes elision, giving rise to a newly formed word. But in this work, we consider contemporary elision which includes the elision of vowels, consonants, and a whole syllable.

We believe that the research on elision in English and Mongolian offers multifaceted contributions to linguistic studies. Firstly, the comparative analysis of elision patterns in these two languages provides valuable insights into both shared characteristics and language-specific nuances, enriching the field of comparative linguistics. Secondly, the study delves into the intricate phonological dynamics of elision, enhancing our understanding of how sound omission functions in diverse linguistic contexts. Thirdly, the findings have practical applications in language teaching and learning, aiding educators in designing effective curricula and pronunciation training programs.

Literature Review

Acknowledged as a universal linguistic phenomenon, elision is not confined to a specific language but is a feature common to all. Its prevalence is particularly notable in rapid colloquial speech, where native speakers employ elision

strategically to enhance language economy, facilitating more fluent and effortless communication. In clarifying the essence of this phonological process, Crystal (2008) succinctly defines elision as the ‘omission of sounds in connected speech’ (p.158). This encapsulation aligns with Underhill's (1998) emphasis on elision as ‘a natural outcome of speech organs cutting corners in connected speech, particularly at word boundaries.’ This inherent tendency for elision becomes pronounced in rapid connected speech, serving the overarching purpose of simplifying sound pronunciation. Collins and Mees (2013) further contribute to our understanding of elision, highlighting its increased frequency in unstressed syllables, rapid tempos, and informal registers. They also recognized elision as a universal linguistic phenomenon, that extends beyond specific languages and is prevalent in rapid colloquial speech, where native speakers strategically utilize elision for enhanced language economy, promoting fluent communication.

Moreover, Harmon and Holman (1999) state that the terms ‘elision’ and ‘deletion’ are also employed more specifically to describe instances where two words are merged by omitting a final sound. Jones (1984) further nuances this by defining elision as the dropping of a sound that either once existed or still exists in precise speech. Additionally, Hudson (2000) broadens the scope by referring to elision as the deletion or loss of phonemes, emphasizing the universality of this linguistic phenomenon whereas Roach (2009) states, ‘The nature of elision may be stated quite simply: under certain circumstances sounds disappear. One

might express this in more technical language by saying that in certain circumstances a phoneme may be realized as zero, or have zero realization or be deleted’ (p.113).

Mongolian linguist M. Bazarragchaa explains this phenomenon in the Mongolian colloquial language from the perspective of accurate pronunciation and phonetics. Additionally, B. Ya. Vladimirtsov, a Russian Mongolian scientist, explored this subject to some extent. According to Batkhishig Sangidorj (2022), elision is identified as the phenomenon wherein one or more vowels, consonants, or syllables are either reduced or omitted in the process of articulation. This occurs when the sounds or syllables lose their distinctive characteristics during speech, ceasing to contribute to the differentiation of meaning. Furthermore, they elaborate on the weakening of sounds, distinguishing two types: excessively weakened and sharply pronounced sounds, and reduced sounds; in the case of vowel sound weakening, the outcome is reduction, while for consonant sound weakening, the consequences involve lenition and dropping. In a broad sense, all of the phenomena, including reduction, weakening, lenition, and dropping, fall under the category of lenition.

There is a study titled 'A Comparative Phonological Study of Elision in Standard British English and Central Kurdish' by Khalid Ali Abdullah (2021). In this work, he endeavored to determine which phonemes are elided in both languages, classifying them according to basic types of elision, including consonant, vowel, and syllable elisions. Leveraging the instances of English elision gathered by him, we expand the cases with additional examples, supplementing them

from our perspective, and recompile them in this work. These diverse perspectives collectively enrich our understanding of elision, encompassing intentional omission, historical aspects, and the universal nature of sound deletion. Such insights pave the way for a comprehensive exploration of elision in both English and Mongolian, providing a robust foundation for the present study.

Comparative Analysis: Elision Patterns in English and Mongolian

Sometimes vowel elision and syllable elision are considered as related concepts since vowels are indeed a crucial component of syllables, but they refer to different linguistic phenomena. Vowel elision, also known as vowel deletion or vowel reduction, occurs when a vowel sound is omitted or pronounced with less prominence in a word. This can happen for various reasons, including in casual speech, rapid speech, or as part of certain phonological processes. Syllable elision involves the omission or deletion of an entire syllable from a word. This can occur for reasons such as simplification, ease of pronunciation, or in a connected speech where some sounds are dropped to facilitate smoother and faster communication. Although vowels are a core component of syllables, the difference lies in the scope of the omission. In vowel elision, it's specifically the vowel sound that is omitted or reduced, whereas in syllable elision, the entire syllable, which may include consonants as well, is omitted. In some cases, the elision of a vowel can result in the elision of an entire unstressed syllable. However, it's important to note that not all

syllable elision involves the deletion of vowels. Consonant clusters can also be affected.

Vowel Elision

Vowels are sounds produced without any air restriction of the airflow (Finch, 2000, p. 73). In English, the schwa /ə/ is the most frequent vowel sound, often found in weak and unstressed syllables (Roach, 2000, p. 82). The elision of a vowel is associated with a weak and unstressed syllable in English. Meanwhile, in the Mongolian language, vowel elision is intricately connected to vowel reduction. According to Urtnasan Davaajav et al. (2022), 'A reduced vowel is one that differs from the full vowel at any point in the word or is pronounced less distinctly due to the weakening of the speech organs. This phenomenon reflects a common feature where vowels, once clearly pronounced with distinct tones in the past, gradually undergo reduced pronunciation over the course of language development. Specifically, the reduced vowel consistently maintains its position within the word. This linguistic phenomenon is termed vowel reduction' (p. 45). Notably, scholars like E. Flemming (2005) have concentrated on the occurrence of fewer vowel phonemes in non-stressed syllables, classifying it as phonological vowel reduction. Sh. Luvsanvandan (1967) pointed out that the reduced vowel in Mongolian has retained the tone of its unreduced counterpart to some extent. The reduced vowels include /ĩ, ě, ă, õ, ö̃, ŭ, ũ, ə, ʌ/. On a similar note, J.O. Svantesson et al. (2005) articulated, 'In our usual notation of Halh words, we will write

out the epenthetic vowels as schwas (ə), however, so that we write e.g. *xamər* for [xamər] хамар ‘nose’, *pəʒər* for [pəʒər] болор ‘crystal’, *aʃəʒ* for [aʃəʒ] ажил ‘work’, and *atʰəʒ* for [atʰəʒ] адил ‘like’; the phonological representations of these words are /xamr/, /pəʒr/, /aʃʒ/, /atʰʒ/, which means they proposed to note the reduced vowels as schwa /ə/’ (p.23). The Mongolian IPA notation differs slightly from the English IPA notation. In this context, we will employ the Mongolian IPA for Mongolian words and the English IPA for English words when transcribing example words.

There is a phenomenon to elide the initial vowel. Lass (1984) states that the process of eliding initial vowels is referred to as aphaeresis which is the elision of a sound at the beginning of a word (generally of an unstressed vowel). Gimson (1970) says that schwa /ə/ is elided when followed by a continuant and preceded by a word-final consonant (‘compensation for the loss of /ə/ frequently being made by the syllabicity of the continuant’). For example:

- *not alone* /nɒt ələʊn/ - /nɒt
ləʊn/

- *get another* /get əˈnʌðə(ɪ)/ -
/get ˈnʌðə(ɪ)/

In the Mongolian language, there are examples of this phenomenon, which have evolved from a historical phonological perspective. For instance:

- *зэр үрүү* /ker uru:/ (to home)
- /ker lu:/

- *уул уруу* /o:ɫ oro:/ (to
mountain) – /o:ɫ ro:/

- *авч ирэх* /aʃtʰ irəɣ/ (to
bring) – /aʃtʰrəx/

On the other hand, when a word-initial schwa /ə/ is preceded by a vowel sound in English, it may coalesce with the preceding vowel:

- *try again* /traɪ əgeɪn/ - /traɪ
geɪn/

There is a similar case in Mongolian as well, and here is an example of this phenomenon:

- *өнөө өдөр* /ənə: ətər/
(today) – өнөөдөр /ənə:tər/

- *нөгөө өдөр* /nəkə: ətər/ (the
day after tomorrow) – нөгөөдөр
/nəkə:tər/

- *хаа очив* /χa: ɔtʰəw/ (where
have you been) – хаачив /χa:tʰəw/

Lass (1984) names a phonological process of vowel elision between consonants as syncope. Hudson (2000) affirms that in English casual speech, the unstressed schwa /ə/ or /ɪ/ is elided in the middle of words when the preceding vowel is stressed as in:

- *secretary* /ˈsek.rə.tə.ri/ -
/ˈsek.rə.ti/

- *dictionary* /ˈdɪkʃənəri/ -
/ˈdɪkʃən.ri/ or /ˈdɪkʃən.ri/

- *victory* /ˈvɪktəri/ - /ˈvɪkti/

- *easily* /ˈi:zɪ.li/ - /ˈi:zli/

- *finally* /ˈfaɪ.nə.li/ - /ˈfam.li/

Examining the English examples mentioned above, it is observed that the vowel is elided when a fortis is followed by a sonorant or a sequence of sonorants. In contrast, in the Mongolian language (Batkhisig, 2022), the occurrence of an aspirated consonant after a sonorant results in the loss of the vowel, leading to the formation of a consonant cluster as in:

- *зэнэрт* /kenət^h/ (suddenly) - /keŋt^h/
- *ханам* /χant^h/ (have or with walls) - /χaŋt^h/
- *хоноц* /χonts^h/ (lodger) - /χoŋts^h/

Moreover, Gimson (1970) points out that the elision of /ɪ/ found in English is less common than /ə/:

- *Geography* /dʒɪ.ɒɡ.rə.fi/ - /dʒɒ.grə.fi/
- *Geometry* /dʒɪ.ɒm.ə.tri/ - /dʒɒ.mə.tri/

According to Gimson (1970) and Roach (2000) the elision of /ə/ occurs in unstressed syllables of polysyllabic words, particularly before or after a stressed syllable, and after one of the plosives, /p, t, k/. In the following words /ə/ is elided, and there will be an aspiration of the release of air in the articulation of the preceding plosive.

- *today* /tə'deɪ/ - /t^h'deɪ/

- *potato* /pə'teɪtəʊ/ - /p^h'teɪtəʊ/
- *tomato* /tə'ma:təʊ/ - /t^h'ma:təʊ/
- *perhaps* / pə'hæps / - /p^h'hæps/

These English examples pertain to the aspiration of plosives /p, t, k/ in polysyllabic words, whereas the complete deletion of vowels in the Mongolian language is associated with aspiration. As noted by Batkhisig (2022: 157) in the devoicing section of her work, the aspirated /t^h/, /tʃ^h/, and /tʂ^h/ consonants in Mongolian result in the devoicing and weakening of both vowels and consonants within the same word during pronunciation. Consequently, when adding a suffix starting with the aspirated /t^h/ or /tʃ^h/ consonant, the preceding environment undergoes devoicing, and the reduced vowel may not be pronounced. Moreover, aspirated plosives and affricates are articulated immediately after sonorant fricatives such as x and s. For instance, 'dæcm', meaning salty, is pronounced as [təf^hs^ht^h], and 'dapsu' meaning winemaker, as [tars^htʃ^h].

In the context of a comparative phonological study conducted by Khalid Ali Abdullah in 2021 titled 'A Comparative Phonological Study of Elision in Standard British English and Central Kurdish,' it is noted that in disyllabic words, the elision of /ə/ is prevalent when it is followed by /l/, /n/ or /r/. In such cases, /l/, /n/ or /r/ becomes syllabic. The number of syllables will remain the

same, but the syllable boundary shifts (Abdullah, 2021, as cited in Roach, 2000, pp. 86–90, 142).

- *Cattle* /kæt.əl/ - /kæt.l/
- *Bottle* /bɒt.əl/ - /bɒt.l/
- *Trouble* /trʌb.əl/ - /trʌb.l/
- *Tunnel* /tʌn.əl/ - /tʌn.l/
- *Pedal* /ped.əl/ - /ped.l/
- *Tonight* /tə.nait/ - /tɪ.nait/
- *Threaten* /θret.ən/ - /θret.ɪ/
- *Seven* /sev.ən/ - /sev.ɪ/
- *Correct* /kə.rekt/ - /kɪ.ekt/
- *Hungary* /hʌŋg.ər.i/ - /hʌŋg.ɪ/

It is interesting to note that in English, the vowel tends to be lost when a syllable with a sonorant follows a fortis consonant. However, upon examining the Mongolian consonant cluster system, as discussed by Batkhishig (2022), the pattern is precisely the opposite in terms of the consonant's position within the word. Specifically:

- a. Cluster of sonorant + fricative: /aɪʃ/, /ers/, /owʃ/, /ɔŋʃ/;
- b. Cluster of sonorant + aspirated consonant: /aɪtʰ/, /əmtʃʰ/, /ɔntsʰ/, /jantʰ.qər/;
- c. Cluster of fricative + aspirated consonant: /naɸtʃʰ/, /i.təʃtʰ/;
- d. Sonorant + plosive consonant cluster: /jamp/ etc. (Batkhishig, 2022, pp.155-156).

The observed contrasting pattern may be linked to the position of the initial cluster in English words, given its

inflectional nature, and the position of the final cluster in Mongolian words, characteristic of its agglutinating structure.

In other instances of reduced vowel elision in the Mongolian language:

If the reduced vowel that differentiates nasal front /n/ from velar back /ŋ/ is followed by a plosive or fricative sound such as /tʰ, s, ʃ, tsʰ, tʃ, tʃʰ/, the reduced vowel is omitted and pronounced as a velar nasal /ŋ/:

- *ханатлаа* /χанətʰla:/ (satisfyingly) – /χantʰla:/
- *хонож* /χɔnɔʃ/ (staying over) – /χɔŋʃ/
- *манаж* /tʰanəʃ/ (shear, trim, shorten) – /tʰaŋʃ/
- *унаж тусаад* /onəʃ tʰosa:t/ (fell) – /oŋʃ tʰosa:t/
- *ханаж цаддаггүй* /χанəʃ tsʰattakkui/ (insatiable) – /χaŋʃ tsʰatatkui/
- *онош* /ɔnəʃ/ (diagnosis) – /ɔŋʃ/
- *саначих* /sanəʃtʰəχ/ (remember) – /saŋʃtʰəχ/
- *үнэ цэнэ* /un tsʰen/ (value) – /uŋtsʰen/
- *үнэтэй* /untʰe:/ (expensive) – /uŋtʰe:/
- *унасхий* /onəski:/ (do fall) – /oŋski:/
- *богинос* /pəkəns/ (shorten) – /pəkɪŋs/
- *уналга* /onlaqə/ (horse, means of transportation) – /oŋlaq/

When a long vowel follows a non-initial syllable with a reduced vowel, the reduced vowel is not pronounced:

- *хэлэхийн* /xeləxi:ŋ/ (to say)
– /xelxi:ŋ/
- *очих уу* /ɔŋʰəχ o:/ (shall we go/visit?) – /ɔŋʰχo:/
- *ирсэн үү* /irsən u:/ (have come/arrived?) – /irsnu:/
- *төлөөөр* /tʰəlɔwə:r/ (by the state/mode) – /tʰəlɔwə:r/
- *Төмөрийн* /tʰəməri:ŋ/ (Tumur's) – /tʰəmri:ŋ/
- *төмөрлөгийн* /tʰəmərɫəki:ŋ/ (metallurgic) – /tʰəmərɫki:ŋ/

According to Batkhisig (2022), 'In Mongolian speech flow, the addition of a suffix beginning with a long vowel to a word ending with a short vowel results in the lenition of the final short vowel, which is because short vowels and long vowels cannot be pronounced for an extended duration.' She illustrates this with the following examples:

- *хулгана* [χɔɫkən] (mouse)
- *хулганын* [χɔɫəvni:ŋ] (of the mouse)
- *бөднө* [pətən] (quail)
- *бөднөөр* [pətənə:r] (by the quail)
- *самар* [samar] (nut)
- *самраас* [samra:s] (of/from the nut)
- *хаалга* [χa:ləq] (door)
- *хаалгаас* [χa:lɛa:s] (from the door) (p.148)

In specific cases, when a /ɬ/ suffix, used to form a verb and followed by a reduced vowel,

is succeeded by a coordinating /tʃ/ affix, the reduced vowel situated between /ɬ/ and /tʃ/ is not pronounced. Furthermore, if the word comprises three syllables and the base of the word is a two-syllable term ending with /k/, then the reduced vowel of the second syllable is also elided during pronunciation. However, before the cluster /tʃ/, the reduced vowel is indeed pronounced. Stated differently, a new reduced vowel is inserted between the two syllables whose reduced vowels are concurrently elided.

- *хэрэглэж* /xerəkɫəʃ/ (using)
- /xerkəɫʃ/
- *үзэглэж* /utsəkɫəʃ/ (writing/signing) - /utsəkɫəʃ/
- *бөглөж* /pəkɫəʃ/ (filling) - /pəkɫəʃ/
- *үзүцэглэж* /tʰɛtsʰəkɫəʃ/ (blossoming) - /tʰɛtsʰəkɫəʃ/
- *зэвсэглэж* /tsewskəɫʃ/ (arming) - /tsewskəɫʃ/
- *уувшиглэж* /ʃiwʃəkɫəʃ/ (disgracing/shaming) - /ʃiwʃəkɫəʃ/
- *бүжиглэж* /puʃkəkɫəʃ/ (dancing) - /puʃkəkɫəʃ/

The directive case affix 'уруу' (to/towards) is pronounced after any word, dropping the first vowel. This pronunciation is consistent with the vowel harmony principles inherent in the Mongolian language. In this context, the affix, which has dropped its initial vowel, undergoes a dissimilation process. When pronounced in conjunction with a prefix after a word ending in /r/, it transforms into /-lu:/. Conversely, when articulated following a word ending in /l/, it takes the form of /-ru:/. However, in other cases, the choice between pronouncing the affix as /-lu:/ or /-ru:/ remains optional.

- байр уруу /pæ:r oro:/ (to the apartment) – /pæ:rlo:/
- морь уруу /mœr oro:/ (to the horse) – /mœrlo:/
- уул уруу /o:ɫ oro:/ (to the mountain) – /o:ɫro:/
- гол уруу /qɔɫ oro:/ (to the river) – /qɔɫro:/
- эгч уруу /ektʃ^h oro:/ (to sister) – /ektʃ^hru:/ or /ektʃ^hu:/
- аав уруу /a:w oro:/ (to dad) – /a:wro:/ or /a:wlo:/
- ээж уруу /e:ʃ oro:/ (to mom) – /e:ʃru:/ or /e:ʃu:/

Additionally, Mongolian discourse particles such as 'юм' /jəm/, 'шүү' /ʃu:/, 'дээ' /te:/, 'бэ?' /pə/, and 'вэ?' /wə/ are written separately from the preceding main word. However, during pronunciation, they contract and blend with the previous word, leading to the elision of their short and long vowels. For example

- уулзсан шүү дээ /o:ɫsən ʃu:te:/ (met) – /o:ɫsənʃt/
- явсан юм /jawsən jəm/ (went) – /jawsə:m/
- хэн бэ? /xen pə/ (who?) – /xenp/
- юу вэ? /jo wə/ (what?) – /jow/

Consonant elision

Consonant sounds refer to the sounds produced when the airflow is obstructed at some point in the mouth, throat, or larynx (Matthews, 2007, p. 74). These sounds typically cluster in the margins of syllables, forming what is known as the onset and coda.

Carr (2013, p. 60) notes that, in the historical development of languages, consonants in the coda position tend to undergo loss of articulation more frequently than onset consonants. According to Roach (2000, pp. 142–143), the elision of consonants in English is most common when a speaker aims to simplify a complex consonant cluster. For instance, 'acts' becomes /æks/ rather than /ækts/, and 'scripts' transforms into /skrips/ instead of /skripts/. In English, the fortis, which may pose difficulties due to increased tension in speech organs, is often elided to ensure a smooth speech flow. In contrast, Mongolian employs a system that weakens the consonants before and after the fortis. For instance, transformations like 'сонсогдох' /sɔŋsɔktɔχ/ ('to be heard) – 'сонстох' /sɔŋstɔχ/, 'автагдах' /awt^haktɔχ/ (to be influenced/absorbed) – 'автах' /awt^hax/, 'сурчихсан' /sortʃ^həχsən/ (have learned) – 'суцан' /sortʃ^hən/, and 'авчихсан' /awtʃ^həχsən/ (have taken) – 'авцан' /awtʃ^hən/demonstrate this linguistic phenomenon.

Elision of Alveolar Plosives /t/ and /d/ in English and Mongolian

The phonemes /t/ and /d/ are classified as alveolar plosive sounds, with /t/ being voiceless or fortis and /d/ being voiced or lenis. In terms of IPA, there is a discrepancy in the transliteration of a particular sound between English and Mongolian. This difference in transcription highlights variations in the representation of phonemic elements across languages. One of them is that the English alveolar /t/ aligns with the Mongolian aspirated /t^h/, while the English

alveolar /d/ corresponds to the Mongolian non-aspirated /t/. According to Roach (2009), these phonemes can be found in initial, medial, and final positions within English words (p.26). In English, /t/ and /d/ are recognized as the most frequently elided consonants (Finch, 2000:46). The following situations represent the most common instances in which the phonemes /t/ and /d/ undergo elision:

According to Yule (2006), the elision of /t/ in consonant clusters primarily occurs in the coda position. Additionally, when /t/ or /d/ is situated between two consonants, elision is observed (Gimson, 1970). Also, Roach (2009) points out that "in clusters of three plosives or two plosives plus a fricative, the middle plosive may disappear" (p.114). For example:

- *hands* /hændz/ – /hænz/
- *handsome* /'hænd.səm/ – /'hæn.səm/
- *grandmother* /'grænd,mʌðə(r)/ – /'græŋ,mʌðə(r)/
- *mostly* /'məʊstli/ – /'məʊsli/
- *you and me* /ju: ənd mi:/ – /ju: ən mi:/
- *next please* /nekst pli:z/ – /neks pli:z/
- *the next day* /ðə 'nekst 'deɪ/ – /ðə 'neks 'deɪ/
- *the last car* /ðə 'la:st 'kɑ:/ – /ðə 'la:s 'kɑ:/
- *last chance* /la:st tʃɑ:ns/ – /la:s tʃɑ:ns/
- *acts* /æktz/ – /æks/
- *aspects* /æspekts/ – /æspeks/

- *friendship* /'frendʃɪp/ – /'frenʃɪp/
- *you must not* /ju: mʌst nɒt rʌn/ – /ju: mʌs nɒt rʌn/
- *hand that to me* /hænd ðæt tə mi:/ – /hæn ðæt tə mi:/
- *past tense* /pɑ:st 'tens/ – /pɑ:s 'tens/
- *left luggage* /left 'lʌɡɪdʒ/ – /lef 'lʌɡɪdʒ/
- *kept quiet* /kept 'kwai.ət/ – /kep 'kwai.ət/
- *tasteless* /teɪstləs/ – /teɪsləs/
- *hold the dog* /'həʊld ðə 'dɒg/ – /'həʊl ðə 'dɒg/
- *send Frank a card* /send 'fræŋk ə 'kɑ:d/ – /sen 'fræŋk ə 'kɑ:d/
- *old man* /əʊld mæn/ – /əʊl mæn/

If a word ends with a cluster of affricates such as /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ or plosives like /b/, /g/, /p/, and /k/ followed by /d/ or /t/, the final alveolar stop will be deleted when the subsequent word starts with a consonant:

- *looked back* /lʊkt bæk/ – /lʊk bæk/
- *fetched me* /fetʃt mi/ – /fetʃ mi/
- *changed colour* /tʃeɪndʒd kʌlə/ – /tʃeɪndʒ kʌlə/
- *helped me* /helpt mi/ – /help mi/
- *liked jam* /laɪkt dʒæm/ – /laɪk dʒæm/
- *they robbed the bank* /ðeɪ rɒbd ðə bæŋk/ – /ðeɪ rɒb ðə bæŋk/
- *begged one* /begd wʌn/ – /beg wʌn/ (Gimson, 1970, p. 298)

As seen above, the elision of /t/ and /d/ can result in the neutralization of the distinction between past tense and present tense. It's essential to note, however, that Gimson (1970) and Collins and Mees (2013) claim that /t/ or /d/ is not elided before the initial /h/. Moreover, we observe that such elision does not occur when the following word starts with a vowel:

- *changed each plan* /tʃeɪndʒd itʃ plæn/
- *liked orange juice* /laɪkt 'ɔrɪndʒ dʒus/
- *helped us* /helpt əs/
- *looked every island* /lʊkt 'evri 'aɪlənd/
- *rushed home* /rʌʃt həʊm/
- *bald head* /bɔ:ld hed/
- *smoked herring* /sməʊkt herɪŋ/
- *kept hold* /kept həʊld/
- *worked hard* /wɜ:kt hɑ:d/
- *reached home* /ri:tʃt həʊm/
- *gift horse* /gɪft hɔ:s/

However, an intriguing observation we made is that words with a final cluster /-nt/, /-nd/, and /-st/ sometimes exhibit a pronunciation where the /t/ and /d/ sounds are elided, even when followed by /h/ or a vowel sound. For example:

- *component of this recipe* /kəm'pəʊnənt əv ðɪs 'resɪpi/ – /kəmpəʊnən əv ðɪs 'resɪpi/

- *student exhibits* /stju:dənt ɪg'zɪbɪt/ – /stju:dən ɪg'zɪbɪt/
- *the point is obvious* /ðə pɔɪnt ɪz/ – /ðə pɔɪn ɪz/
- *depend on* /dɪ'pend ɒn/ – /dɪ'pen ɒn/
- *attend all meetings* /ə'tend ɔ:l mi:.tɪŋz/ – /ə'ten ɔ:l mi:.tɪŋz/
- *understand our plan* /ʌndəstænd əʊər plæn/ – /ʌndərstæn əʊər plæn/
- *understand how to do* /ʌndəstænd haʊ tə du/ – /ʌndəstæn haʊ tə du/
- *go round a different way* /gəʊ raʊnd ə 'dɪfrənt weɪ/ – /gəʊ raʊn ə 'dɪfrənt weɪ/
- *meet round here* /mi:t raʊnd hɪə/ – /mi:t raʊn hɪə/
- *contrast in her painting* /kɒntrɑ:st ɪn hɜ: peɪntɪŋ/ – /kɒntrɑ:s ɪn hɜ: peɪntɪŋ/
- *must answer* /mʌst 'ænsə/ – /mʌs 'ænsə/
- *you must help* /ju: mʌst help/ – /ju: mʌs help/
- *next August* /nekst 'ɔ:gəst/ – /neks 'ɔ:gəst/
- *last evening* /lə:st 'i:vɪnɪŋ/ – /lə:s 'i:vɪnɪŋ/

Moreover, there is an elision of /t/ in negative /-nt/, particularly in disyllables, before the following consonant and sometimes before a vowel:

- *You mustn't lose it.* /ju: mʌsənt lu:z ɪt/ – /ju: mʌsən lu:z ɪt/
- *Doesn't she know?* /dʌzənt ʃɪ nəʊ/? – /dʌzən ʃɪ nəʊ/?

- *Wouldn't he come?* /wʊdənt hi kʌm/ – /wʊdən hi kʌm/ (Gimson, 1970, p. 298)

Conversely, there is no elision of /t/, when final /nt/ or /lt/ is followed by a consonant, or they may be replaced by a glottal stop /ʔ/. For example:

- *spent time* /spent taim/ or /spenʔ taim/
 - *Walt Disney* /wɔ:lt dɪzni/ or /wɔ:lʔ dɪzni/
 - *I can't swim in salt water* /aɪ ka:nt swɪm ɪn sɔlt 'wɔ:tə/ – /aɪ ka:nʔ swɪm ɪn sɔlʔ 'wɔ:tə/

As for the last example, the elision of /t/ in 'can't' is influenced not only by phonological considerations but also by the potential for a change in meaning. Omitting the /t/ in 'can't' could lead to confusion, as it would result in the word 'can' which has the opposite meaning. In cases where elision might alter the meaning of a word or phrase, speakers tend to preserve the sound to maintain clarity and avoid ambiguity. This highlights the intricate interplay between phonological processes and semantic considerations in language.

In the phrase 'you and me', the phoneme /d/ is elided in 'and'. To Yule (2006, p. 49), when /d/ is preceded by nasal /n/ and followed by nasal /m/, /d/ is elided:

- *hand movement* /hænd mu:vmənt/ – /hæn mu:vmənt/
 - *second mile* /sekənd maɪl/ – /sekən maɪl/

- *you and me* /ju: ənd mi/ – /ju: ən mi/

Despite this, assimilation and elision may occur within the same phrase, as observed by Kuiper and Allan (1996), who highlight that the elision of a segment may create conditions for assimilation in English. For instance:

- *bind mounts* /baɪnd maʊnt/ elides to /baɪn maʊnt/ and further to /baɪn maʊnt/
 - *a kind man* /ə kaɪnd mən/ elides to /ə kaɪn mən/
 - *a hand bag* /ə hænd bæɡ/ elides to /ə hæn bæɡ/ and further to /ə hæm bæɡ/

It can be noted that the elision of /d/ brings /n/ and /d/ into adjacency. As a result, under the influence of /m/ or /b/, /n/ undergoes assimilation, changing into /m/, resulting in both sounds sharing the bilabial place of articulation. Additionally, the sequence of consonants /t+j/ and consonants /d+j/ typically retains /t/ and /d/, but during most instances of natural speech, reciprocal assimilation occurs, leading to /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ sounds. Examples include:

- *I've booked your flight* /aɪv bukt jɔ: flait/ – /aɪv buktʃ jɔ: flait/
 - *I told your husband* /aɪ təʊld jɔ: hʌzbənd / – /aɪ təʊldʒ jɔ: hʌzbənd/

When /t/ or /d/ in the final position of a word is clustered with /t/ or /d/ in the initial position of another word, the sequence of /tt/,

/td/, /dt/, or /dd/ is assimilated or shortened into a single sound, either /t/ or /d/, depending on the sound that follows:

- *We could try* /wi kəd trai/ – /wi kə trai/.
- *They should do it* /ðei fəd du: it/ – /ðei fə du: it/.
- *We ought to visit him* /'wi o:t tə 'vɪsɪt 'ɪm/ – /'wi o:tə 'vɪsɪt 'ɪm/
- *We want to leave* /wi 'wɒnt tə 'li:v/ – /wi 'wɒntə 'li:v/
- *They've got to go now* /peiv 'gɒt tə 'gəʊ naʊ/ – /peiv 'gɒtə 'gəʊ naʊ/
- *What do you want* /wɒt də ju: wɒnt/ – /wɒdə ju: wɒnt/

Likewise, in Mongolian, when the non-aspirated plosive /t/ is followed by the aspirated plosive /tʰ/, the /t/ sound is elided. For instance:

- *хойд мэл* /□œ:t tʰaɪ/ – /□œ:tʰaɪ/ (north side)
- *үрд мэл* /ort tʰaɪ/ – /ortʰaɪ/ (south side)
- *наад мэл* /na:t tʰaɪ/ – /na:tʰaɪ/ (this side)
- *дээд мэл* /te:t tʰaɪ/ – /te:tʰeɪ/ (the other side/beyond)
- *ард түмэн* /art tʰumen/ – /artʰumen/ (folk/nation/people)

In Mongolian, the elision of /t/ or /tʰ/ matches the English case in the preceding single case. In other words, the characteristics of /t/ and /tʰ/ in English are similar in Mongolian to some extent. In addition, we can see

the phonemic process related to /t/ and /tʰ/ in the Mongolian language in words that have incorrect orthography. In informal speech and writing, the correct word 'улсад' /oɪsat/ (meaning 'in the country') is spelled and pronounced incorrectly as /oɪstʰ/, and 'газардах' /qatsarta□/ (meaning 'to land') as /qatsartʰa□/, respectively.

Elision of Labiodental Fricative /v/ in English and /w/ in Mongolian

The phoneme /v/ is a voiced labiodental fricative. To Roach (2000) and Gimson (1970), the final /v/ is omitted when it is followed by a consonant. For example:

- *lots of them* /lɒts əv ðəm/ – /lɒts ə ðəm/
- *waste of money* /weɪst əv mʌni/ – /weɪst ə mʌni/
- *a cup of tea* /ə kʌp əv ti:/ – /ə kʌp ə ti:/

Collins and Mees (2013) and Crystal (2008) state /v/ in 'of' is omitted as it is followed by /ð/. Also, according to them, the elision of /v/ in 'of' is common whenever it is followed by the consonant /p/ or /f/. For example:

- *three of the websites* /θri: əv ðə websaɪts/ – /θri: ə ðə websaɪts/
- *one of the lads* /wʌn əv ðə lædz/ – /wʌn ə ðə lædz/
- *a piece of paper* /ə pi:s əv peɪpə/ – /ə pi:s ə peɪpə/
- *as a matter of fact* /əz ə mætə əv fækt/ – /əz ə mætə ə fækt/

Moreover, Khalid (2021) noted in his comparative study that in rapid speech /v/ is sometimes elided before /m/ in the verb ‘give’, ‘have’, and ‘leave’:

- *Give me a chance* /gɪv mi ə tʃɑːns/ – /gɪ mi ə tʃɑːns/

- *Do you have my number?*
/duː ju hæv maɪ nʌmbə/ – /duː ju hæ maɪ nʌmbə/

- *Leave me alone.* /liːv mi ə ləʊn/ – /liː mi ə 'ləʊn/

When examining these instances of the English labiodental fricative /v/ being elided, a consistent phenomenon is observed, often related to the sound at the end of the word. The removal of the final sound or sounds from a word is known as apocope, a phenomenon typically encountered in fast-paced communication. Therefore, any case where the final sound is omitted falls under the category of apocope.

In IPA terms, the English fricative /v/ aligns with the Mongolian fricative /w/. In Ulaanbaatar speech, the elision of the final /w/ is not as noticeable. However, a systematic phenomenon exists where the final /-n/ consonant is dropped. For instance, ‘наран’ /narān/ (sun) and мөсөн’ /mösön/ (ice) in A.M. become /nar/ and /mös/ in M.M. However, such pronunciation variations are more prominent in the Oirad or Buriad dialects of the Mongolian language.

On the other hand, the Mongolian fricative ‘ɶ’/w/ tends to occur before aspirated /t^h/ and /tʃ^h/ consonants, where it becomes weak and voiceless. Examples include:

- *дэвтэр* /teft^hɛr/ (notebook)

- *навтгар* /naft^hqər/ (stunt)

- *хавтгай* /xaft^hqæː/ (kind of flat or plain)

- *хавтас* /xaft^həs/ (folder)

Additionally, in spoken language, the dropping of weakened /w/ before fortis is observed. For example:

- *авчир* /aftʃ^hɛr/ (bring) elides further to /atʃ^hɛr/

- *авчрах* /aftʃ^hrə□/ (bring) elides further to /atʃ^hrə□/

Elision of Velar Plosive /k/ in English and unaspirated plosives /k, q/ in Mongolian

In IPA terms, the English velar plosive /k/ aligns with the Mongolian aspirated plosive /k^h/, and /g/ aligns with /k/ and /q/.

/k/ is a voiceless velar plosive sound. To Collins and Mees (2013, p. 127) and Gimson (1970, p. 298), /k/ is elided in the middle of a cluster of three consonant sounds when it is preceded by /s/ and followed by /t/.

- *masked gunman* /maːskt ɡʌnmən/ – /maːst ɡʌnmən/ and further to /maːs ɡʌnmən/

- *They asked us* /ðei aːskt əs/ – /ðei aːst əs/

- *risked prison* /rɪskt prɪsən/ – /rɪst prɪsən/

In the Mongolian language, the /k/ sound in the accusative case affixes '-ийг/-ыг' /i:k/ is elided when followed by the general possessive particle 'нь' /n/:

- шүүсийг нь /ʃu:si:k n/ (sauce, juice, meat) – /ʃu:si:n /
- амтыг нь /amtʰi:k n/ (the taste) – /amtʰi:n /
- явахыг нь /jawχi:k n/ (to go) – /jawχi:n /
- ирэхийг нь /irəxi:k n/ (to come) – /irəxi:n /

Another phenomenon in this case is the elision of one of the /k/ sounds when /k/ + /k/ becomes a single /k/ sound. Similarly, when /x/ + /k/ occurs, the assimilation of /x/ and /k/ results in an aspirated /kʰ/ sound. This is another interesting form of elision in Mongolian. For instance:

- болдоггүй /pɔltəkkuɪ/ (impossible) – /pɔltkuɪ ~ pɔltku:/
- явдаггүй /jawtakkuɪ/ (do not go) – /jawtkuɪ ~ jawtku:/
- мэдэхгүй /medəχkuɪ/ (do not know) – /metkʰuɪ ~ metkʰu:/
- ирэхгүй /irəχkuɪ/ (do not come) – /irkʰuɪ ~ irkʰu:/

Apart from this, in Mongolian, the /k/ consonant undergoes a process of weakening to /x/ or /χ/, a phenomenon considered as lenition by Batkhishig (2022). She explains that the voiced plosive following an aspirated consonant is dissimilated and transforms into an unvoiced fricative.

This process can be illustrated with the following examples:

- бататгал /patʰətqɑl/ (verification) – /patʰət□ɑl/
- удиртгал /otərtʰqɑl/ (introduction) – /otərt□ɑl/
- нийтгэл /ni:tʰkəl/ (braid, twist or community) – /ni:tχəl/
- дуртамгал /tortʰətʰqɑl/ (memoir) – /tortʰət□ɑl/ (p.141)

In the examples provided, when the unaspirated plosive 'r' /q/ is pronounced after the aspirated fortis plosive, the aspirated 'r' /tʰ/ becomes unaspirated, and the plosive consonant transforms into a fricative. A similar process occurs when the fricative 'c' /s/ is followed by the plosive 'r' /k/. This occurs due to the properties of aspirated consonants, as noted by A. M. Carlson, who mentioned that 'aspirated plosives and aspirated affricates can be post-aspirated at the beginning of a word, preaspirated in the middle or at the end of a word, and the Mongolian consonant 's' /s/ is post-aspirated' (2005, p. 206). Aspirated consonants, with their characteristics of devoicing and weakening their surroundings, lead to assimilation, dissimilation, and vowel reduction. For example:

- урсгал /orsʰ- + qɑl = ors□əl/ (stream, flow)
- дурсгал /torsʰ- + qɑl = tors□əl/ (memorial)
- амьсгал /æmsʰ- + qɑl = æms□əl/ etc. (breath)

Elision of Velar /h/ in English and Mongolian

To Gimson (1970, p. 238), in English, it is possible to elide /t/ when it is preceded by /ɔ:/ which has a resonance similar to that of /t/

- *always* /ɔ:ɫweɪz/ – /ɔ:weɪz/
- *alright* /ɔ:ɫraɪt/ – /ɔ:raɪt/
- *although* /ɔ:ɫpəʊ/ – /ɔ:ðəʊ/
- *already* /ɔ:ɫredi/ – /ɔ:redi/

In Mongolian, the elision of consonants /t/ and /r/ is a common occurrence. For instance:

- *ярууц* /jaɪʃək/ (trouble, nuisance) – /jaʃək/
- *бялуурах* /paɪtsʰrəʊ/ (crush, smash) – /paɪtsʰrəʊ/

In spoken Mongolian, one of two consecutive identical consonants, such as 'tt' /t/, is elided for the sake of economy, which is a phenomenon known as haplology. As noted by Batkhisig (2022), this involves dropping one of the consecutive consonant phonemes with the same pronunciation, frequently observed at morphemic boundaries that involve the /t/ consonant.

- *ажиллах* /aʃjɔɪlɔɪ/ – /aʃjɔɪ/
- *тугаллах* /tuɣalɔɪ/ – /tuɣalɔɪ/
- *хичээллэх* /xɪtʃe:ɪlɔɪ/ – /xɪtʃe:ɪlɔɪ/
- *өгүүлэг* /oɣu:ɪɬək/ – /oɣu:ɪɬək/
- *эмээллэн* /eme:ɪɬeŋ/ – /eme:ɪɬeŋ/ (p. 147)

Elision of Glottal Fricative /h/ in English and Mongolian

In terms of the IPA, English utilizes the glottal fricative /h/, while Mongolian employs the velar fricative /x/ and uvular fricative /χ/.

/h/ is a voiceless glottal fricative sound. In the weak forms of function words /h/ is elided in English. Especially, this sound is usually omitted from the beginning of high-frequency function words. For example:

- *I think he will have told her.*
/aɪ θɪŋk i wɪl əv təʊld ə:/
(Collins & Mees, 2013, p. 22, 127; Gimson, 1970, p.297)
- *I haven't seen her today*
/aɪ 'ævənt si:n ə: tə'deɪ/
- *tell him* /telɪm/
- *come here* /kʌmiə/

In the Mongolian language, when the affixes /-tʃʰix/ and /-tʃʰix/ are followed by the affixes such as /-a:tʃʰ/, /-a:sæ/, /-w/, /-a:t/, or /-a:/, and then /-x/ or /-χ/ consonant sounds (if preceded by a reduced vowel, then together with a vowel) are elided:

- *авчхаач* /aʃtʃʰa:ɬʰ/ (do take) – /aʃtʃʰa:ɬʰ/
- *сурчхаасай* /sɔɾtʃʰa:sæ:/ (wish he could learn) – /sɔɾtʃʰa:sæ:/
- *зүйчхэв* /kɔɪtʃʰəw/ (have run) – /kɔɪtʃʰəw/
- *бодчихоод* /pɔtʃʰəχɔ:t/ (after having thought) – /pɔtʃʰəχɔ:t/
- *авчихлаа* /awtʃʰɪla:/ (have taken) – /awtʃʰɪla:/

Urtnasan Davaajav et al. (2022) explained that the presence of the aspirated /tʰ/ consonant within the morpheme structure weakens the surrounding fricative phoneme, resulting in a variant of the morpheme. They provided the following example:

- авчихсан /aʋtʰʰəχsän/ (have taken)
≠ /aʋtʰəŋ/
- явчихсан /jaʋtʰʰəχsän/ (have gone)
≠ /jaʋtʰəŋ/
- гарчихлаа /qartʰʰəχla:/ (have
quitted)≠ /qartʰla:/ (p. 148)

They considered the phenomenon of /tʰəχ/ + /s/ resulting in the sound /tʰ/ to be coalescence. In phonetics and historical linguistics, coalescence is a sound change where two or more segments with distinctive features merge into a single segment. This can occur both in consonants and vowels. For instance, a word like ‘educate’ may exhibit coalescence, resulting in pronunciations like /'edjʊkeɪt/ or /'edzʊkeɪt/. Coalescence can also occur between word boundaries, as seen in the phrase ‘got ya’ /'gɒt jə/ being pronounced like ‘gotcha’ /'gɒtʃə/. Most cases of coalescence lead to allophonic variation, although some sequences of segments may result in completely distinct phonemes.

Elision of Dental Fricatives /θ/ and /ð/ in English

The phonemes /θ/ and /ð/ in English are dental fricative sounds. /θ/ is voiceless, but /ð/ is voiced.

In some ordinal numbers, /θ/ is not elided; however, there is a possibility of eliding the preceding consonant, as demonstrated in the following examples:

- *fifth* /fɪθ/ – /fɪθ/
 - *twelfth* /twelfθ/ – /twelfθ/
- (Collins & Mees, 2013, p. 127)

The elision of /θ/ and /ð/ are common when they are followed by /s/ or /z/ sound. For example:

- *tenths* /tenθs/ – /tenz/
- *clothes* /kləʊðz/ – /kləʊz/
- *months* /mʌnθs/ – /mʌns/
- *sixths* /sɪksθs/ – /sɪks/

Denham and Lobeck (2013, p. 117) state that when there are two or three fricative sounds in a coda, one or two of them are often elided. For instance, in the word ‘sixths’ /sɪksθs/, where the phonemes /s/, /θ/, and /s/ are fricative sounds in a coda, both /s/ and /θ/ can be elided together, resulting in the pronunciation /sɪks/. Similarly, in the word ‘fifths’ /fɪfθs/, where the phonemes /f/, /θ/, and /s/ are fricative sounds in a coda, the phoneme /θ/ can be elided, leading to the pronunciation /fɪfs/, or the phoneme /f/ can be elided, making the word /fɪθs/ in rapid speech. Moreover, it is possible to elide the two fricative sounds /f/ and /θ/ together, rendering the word as /fis/. Mongolian lacks these particular sounds. The absence

of these dental fricatives in Mongolian contributes to the distinct phonetic differences between the two languages.

Elision of Bilabial Unaspirated Plosive /p/ in Mongolian

In terms of IPA, English uses the symbol /b/ to represent the bilabial voiced plosive sound, while Mongolian uses /p/ for the same phonetic sound.

It's evident that the /p/ sound in the helping word with the root 'бай-' /pai-/ (meaning 'to be') in Mongolian is elided when pronounced in conjunction with a preceding verb that ends in /ʃ/ or /ʃʰ/:

- *харж бай* /χartʃ pæ:/ (keep watching) – /χartʃæ:/
- *очиж байна* /otʃʰəʃ pæ:n/ (coming) – /otʃʰʃi:n/
- *хийж байсан* /xi:ʃ pæ:səŋ/ (was doing) – /xi:ʃe:səŋ/
- *сурч байсан* /sortʃʰ pæ:səŋ/ (was learning) – /sortʃʰæ:səŋ/
- *өгч байжээ* /økʃʰ pæ:ʃe:/ (gave) – /økʃʰe:ʃe:/

Batkishig (2022) examines this phenomenon, along with the cases of vowel elision in discourse particles, and argues that there are various examples where sentences undergo contraction in informal speech, a phenomenon that can be classified as enclisis. She provides the following examples:

- *юу зэх вэ* /ju: kex wə/ – /ju:xəw/
- *явж байна* /jaʃʃ pæ:n/ – /jaʃʃi:n/
- *хийж байна* /xi:ʃ pæ:n/ – /xi:ʃi:n/
- *байх юм* /pæ:□ jəm/ – /pæ:□i:ŋ/
- *яах юм* /ja:□ jəm/ – /ja:□i:ŋ/
- *байдаг юм* /pæ:təʃ jəm/ – /pæ:ti:ŋ/
- *байсан шүү дээ* /pæ:sən ʃu: te:/ – /pæ:səŋʃt/
- *байгаа юм биш үү* /pæ:ka: jum piʃu:/ – /pæ:ka:m piʃu:/ (p.148-149)

In essence, these processes reflect the same economy observed in the assimilation of the aforementioned English examples. However, a distinctive feature is that Mongolian, being an agglutinative language, primarily leads to the formation of blended verbs at the end of sentences.

Syllable-level elision in English and Mongolian

- An entire syllable may be dropped when there is a separated consonant, (Gimson, 1970, p. 238; Crystal, 2008, p. 247). It is noticeable that unstressed syllables, particularly those preceding or following a stressed syllable, can be completely elided, especially when the omitted syllable contains a consonant that is reiterated in the subsequent syllable.

- *particularly* /pə.tik.ju.lə.li/ – /pə.tik.ju.li/ (the syllable /lə/ is elided)

- *probably* /prɒ.bə.bli/ – /prɒ.bli/ (the syllable /bə/ is elided)

- *February* /feb.ru.ər.i/ – /feb.ər.i/ (the syllable /ru/ is elided)

- *literary* /lit.ər.ər.i/ – /lit.ər.i/ (the syllable /ər/ is elided)

- *because* /bi'kɒz/ – /kɒz/ (the syllable /bi/ is elided)

- *library* /lai.brər.i/ – /lai.bri/ (the second syllable /rə/ is elided and the number of syllables is reduced from three to two).

- In Mongolian, examples of syllable elision can be observed in words like the following.

- *баярлалаа* /pajərɫələ:/ (thanks) – /pajərɫa:/ (the syllable /lə/ is elided)

- *эмнэлэг* /ɛmnələk/ (hospital) – /ɛmlək/ (the syllable /nə/ is elided)

- *домнолго* /tɔmnələq/ (curing using folk medicine) – /tɔmləq/ (/nə/ is elided)

- *зүрийчихдэг* /kuri:ʃhəxtək/ (hide sth) – /kuri:ʃhətək/ (the syllable /əx/ is elided)

- *наачихлаа* /na:ʃhəɣɫa:/ (have stucked/glued) – /na:ʃhɫa:/ (the syllable /əɣ/ is elided)

- *өгөх* /əkəx/ (give) – /əx/ (the syllable /kə/ is elided)

- *байгаа биз* /pæ:ʁa: pits/ (a phrase that imparts a predictive meaning) – /pæ:ʁa:ts/ (the syllable /pi/ is elided)

- *нэгэнтээ* /neɣəntɛ:/ (already/once) – /nektʰe:/ (the syllable /ən/ is elided)

Looking at these examples in the Mongolian language, the elided syllable shares a similar pronunciation with the neighboring sound or is formed close to their place of articulation.

- In many English words with more than two syllables, it's common for one syllable, typically the weakest one (often a schwa sound), to be completely dropped. Elided pronunciations of syllables have become fixed or accepted as the norm in today's English. For example:

- *comfortable* /kʌmf.tə.bəl/ instead of /kʌm.fə.tə.bəl/

- *temperature* /tem.prə.tʃə/ instead of /tem.pə.rə.tʃə/

- *different* /dɪf.rənt/ instead of /dɪfərənt/

- *camera* /kæm.rə/ instead of /kæməərə/

- *chocolate* /tʃɒk.lət/ instead of /tʃɒ.kə.lət/

- *vegetable* /vedʒ.tə.bəl/ instead of /ve.dʒə.tə.bəl/

- *interesting* /ɪn.tres.tɪŋ/ instead of /ɪn.tə.res.tɪŋ/

This phenomenon is also observed in Mongolian. For example:

- *замбаргазүй* /tsamp.ra:.kui/ (messy) instead of /tsam.pə.ra:.kui/

Discussion

Comparing the phonological processes of English and Mongolian is important for language instruction and promotes comparisons with other languages. Numerous difficulties related to English language elision have been addressed and introduced into instructional approaches. Explaining from the perspective of phonological theory enhances the systematic nature, comprehensibility, and theoretical foundation of teaching methods. In the context of the Mongolian language, this approach is invaluable for second language learning and contributes to parallel research by expanding theoretical and methodological concepts through illustrative examples. Hence, to understand and teach other languages, there is a necessity to broaden the scope of comparative phonological studies.

Conclusion

To conclude, the comparative analysis of elision patterns in English and Mongolian reveals intriguing linguistic phenomena associated with vowel, consonant, and syllable elision in both languages. Here are the key findings and conclusions:

Vowel Elision Patterns:

In English, vowel elision is often associated with weak and unstressed syllables, with the schwa /ə/ being a frequently elided vowel. Mongolian exhibits vowel elision in the form of vowel reduction, where reduced vowels consistently maintain their positions within words, reflecting a common linguistic

phenomenon termed vowel reduction. The phonological processes of vowel elision in English and Mongolian differ. English often elides vowels in unstressed syllables, particularly before or after stressed syllables, and this elision is influenced by the surrounding sounds, such as continuants. In Mongolian, the elision of vowels is intricately connected to aspiration and the reduction of vowel phonemes. Mongolian displays elision in the pronunciation of directive case affixes and discourse particles, where initial vowels are dropped, and the affixes blend with the preceding word.

Consonant Elision Patterns:

In the examination of consonant elision in both English and Mongolian, various patterns and phenomena have been identified, showcasing the intricate interplay between linguistic factors and contextual influences. The elision of alveolar plosives, particularly /t/ and /d/, manifests in distinct patterns in English and Mongolian. In English, the elision of /t/ and /d/ is observed in specific phonetic environments, such as in consonant clusters, resulting in changes to the pronunciation of words and potentially leading to the neutralization of tense distinctions. Mongolian exhibits a similar elision pattern in specific cases, such as in the transformation of words like ‘сонсогдох’ to ‘сонстох,’ demonstrating consonant weakening. The elision of labiodental fricatives, like /v/ in English, is influenced by contextual factors such as the presence of certain consonants or specific word structures. Similarly, in Mongolian, the elision of ‘в’/w/ is noticeable, especially before aspirated consonants. This process

highlights the adaptability of languages in response to their phonetic contexts. The elision of velar plosives, particularly /k/ in English, and its alignment with unaspirated plosives /k, q/ in Mongolian, showcases patterns of assimilation and shortening within specific phonetic clusters. In both languages, elision occurs in certain phonetic environments, leading to changes in pronunciation and contributing to the overall fluidity of speech. The elision of velar /h/ in English, particularly after certain vowels, contributes to the phenomenon of apocope. In Mongolian, a similar process is observed, with the elision of consecutive identical consonants for economy, termed haplogy. The elision of glottal fricative /h/ in English, especially in weak forms of function words, highlights the role of contextual influences on phonological variations. In Mongolian, the absence of a glottal fricative is compensated by the use of velar and uvular fricatives, showcasing language-specific adaptations in response to phonetic demands. In summary, consonant elision in both English and Mongolian serves as a dynamic linguistic phenomenon, influenced by phonetic, morphological, and contextual factors.

Syllable-Level Elision Patterns:

Both English and Mongolian exhibit syllable-level elision as a linguistic phenomenon. In English, the elision often occurs in unstressed syllables, particularly when they precede or follow a stressed syllable. This tendency is manifested in various words where entire syllables, especially those containing reiterated consonants, are dropped. In Mongolian, examples of syllable elision were

provided, showing instances where a syllable, typically sharing a similar pronunciation with neighboring sounds, is omitted. Furthermore, the commonality of syllable elision in both languages is evident in multisyllabic words. In English, weak syllables, often featuring schwa sounds, are commonly elided, leading to fixed or accepted pronunciations. Similarly, Mongolian exhibits parallel instances where elided syllables share phonetic characteristics with neighboring sounds.

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Bourdieu's Concept of Capital in Studying Students' Digital Technology Practices

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Abstract: Bourdieu's theory of practice has been applied to investigate and understand the ways in which digital technologies have been used in people's lives. Thus, this paper presents and explains Bourdieu's concept of capital as a constituent of the social practices related to using digital technologies. The different forms of capital (economic, cultural, social and symbolic) are intertwined and can facilitate the accumulation of each other. University students' digital literacy practices can reflect their cultural and social capital resources and contribute to their accumulation of other types of capital. By using the notion of capital in the studies about students' digital technology practices researchers can reveal how students come into learning with different degrees of access to a range of resources – social and cultural capital – and educational and social inequalities amongst them which were embedded in their everyday practices shaped by their complex educational histories, identities and present circumstances. The range of studies suggests that there is a need for further research investigating the relationships between the use of digital technologies, particularly the internet and capital, in a variety of contexts.

Keywords: Bourdieu's concept of capital, economic capital, cultural capital, social capital, symbolic capital, technology use.

Bourdieu's theory of practice has been applied to investigate and understand the ways in which digital technologies have been used in people's lives as "technologies do not have an existence independent of social practice, they cannot be studied in isolation from society or from one another" (Sterne, 2003, p. 385). Thus, this paper presents and explains Bourdieu's concept of capital as a constituent of the social practices related to using digital technologies.

Pierre Bourdieu (1977, 1984, 1986, 1988, 1990), French sociologist and philosopher, explains education's relationship with social opportunities and status in language that is often associated with economics. His central notion of 'capital' is a prime example of this. The concept of capital is used to describe the resources that people have access to, attribute value to and mobilise during a social practice to maintain and enhance their social positions. In this sense, capital represents power (Swartz, 1997). Bourdieu (1986) defines

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capital as “accumulated labour” which “in its objectified or embodied forms, takes time to accumulate and which, as a potential capacity to produce profits and to reproduce itself in identical or expanded form, contains a tendency to persist in its being” (p. 241). Capital then exists in material and nonmaterial forms and is accumulated over time. Capital is reproduced in its original form and transformed to other forms. These forms of capital are manifested:

as economic capital, which is immediately and directly convertible into money and may be institutionalized in the form of property rights; as cultural capital, which is convertible, on certain conditions, into economic capital and may be institutionalized in the form of educational qualifications; and as social capital, made up of social obligations (‘connections’), which is convertible, in certain conditions, into economic capital and may be institutionalized in the form of a title of nobility. (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 243)

Bourdieu proposes that economic capital is the basis of other types of capital and the other types of capital are transformed into economic capital. In addition to economic, cultural and social capital, there is another form of capital – symbolic – which concerns the value and recognition accorded to other forms of capital. The symbolic values are attached to different forms of capital during social practice.

The concept of capital is explained by Bourdieu in relation to the more sociological concepts of habitus and field. Capital is the energy that drives the development of a field (Moore, 2008). Fields allow one form of capital to be converted to another depending on the structure of the field, the capital at play and individual habitus (Bourdieu, 1991). The relationship between these concepts provides the key for understanding a practice (Grenfell, 2011). In other words, their relationship can help to understand and interpret

the digital literacy practices found in the field of everyday leisure. Grenfell and James (1998) explain the link between habitus, field and capital:

Capital exists in ever changing configurations in relation to the fields which generate it, and, the values of its three forms are constantly being renegotiated in implicit and explicit ways. Capital attracts capital, but, as in the case of education, we do not enter fields with equal amounts, or identical configurations, of capital. Some have inherited wealth, cultural distinctions from up-bringing and family connections. Some individuals, therefore, already possess quantities of relevant capital bestowed on them in the process of habitus formation, which makes them better players than others in certain field games. (p. 21)

The value of capital is then dependent on a field; in other words, the capital valued within one field can be of no or limited value within another. Unequal distribution of capital in the fields form and shape habitus and determine social position within the fields. That is why capital can become stakes in struggles within a field (Bourdieu, 1993). For instance, English language proficiency and computer literacy represent forms of cultural capital and power not only for university students in Mongolia but also in most sectors in Mongolian society and they contribute significantly to the determination of people’s position in a field and to their social and cultural status. They get access to these forms of capital through both formal (studying at schools or universities, taking courses, etc.) and informal (learning from their friends, through trial and error, via the internet, etc.) channels. People who possess these two forms of cultural capital can be employed by large companies and can earn more money – economic capital – than those who do not. In this case, their cultural capital is converted

into economic capital, exemplifying how one form of capital converts into another form of capital at the level of social practice.

Economic capital

According to Bourdieu (1986), economic capital is monetary wealth. This form of capital can be transmitted since it is material. Economic capital and investment of time are required to acquire other types of capital (Bourdieu, 1986). Further, Bourdieu (1986) maintains that economic capital is the root of other types of capital and that other types of capital are disguised forms of economic capital. This means that other forms of capital are ultimately convertible into economic capital (LiPuma, 1993). Hence, there is “a strong link between the ‘having’ of money and the acquisition of cultural, social and symbolic capital” (Johnson, 2009, p. 60). To take an example, parents invest in their children’s education so that the children can gain access to well-paid or desirable jobs in the labour market. In this case, the parents’ “investment involves the conversion of economic capital into cultural capital” (Swartz, 1997, p. 77).

Economic capital is the most obvious form of capital which underlies technology-related inequalities among people as it is necessary to purchase and access technologies. People’s income level is closely related to their level of internet use (Chen, Boase & Wellman, 2002; Warschauer, 2003; Wessels, 2010). Using technologies most often involves negotiating the costs. Based on their income level people make decisions about whether to buy technologies or not, which brands to buy and whether to have an internet connection at home or not. In his study about Australian adolescents’ uses of mobile phones, Taylor (2011) claims that a base requirement for engaging with mobile literacy practices is accessing and managing economic capital. The same requirement is applicable to engaging in literacy practices on the internet in Mongolia.

In addition, economic capital refers to the economic capacity which underlies students’ computer and internet uses. In Mongolia, the cost

of an internet connection influences whether or not students have internet access at home or on their mobile devices. Acquiring new technologies and training in how to use them requires economic capital. This means that it is unlikely that students will acquire expertise in using technologies – cultural capital – without economic capital. However, having access is not simply about the availability of computers or connections to the internet, it’s also about knowing how to use them. As Bourdieu’s (1986, 1997) own writing about capital suggests, to possess the machines students need only economic capital; to appropriate and use them in accordance with their specific purposes they must have access to embodied cultural capital – habitus. This claim cannot be understood without an explanation of the notion of cultural capital.

Cultural capital

Bourdieu (1986) initially devised cultural capital as a theoretical hypothesis to explain the unequal academic achievement of children from different social classes. Cultural capital is defined as “a form of value associated with culturally authorised tastes, consumption patterns, attributes, skills, and awards” (Webb et al, 2002, p. x). Cultural capital is knowledge, qualifications or the product of education and an academic degree or certificate. It exists in three forms: embodied, objectified and institutional (Bourdieu, 1986). ‘Embodied cultural capital’ refers to knowledge, skills and practices related to habitus. The investment of time is required to acquire this form of capital. It cannot be transmitted easily by gift, purchase or exchange (Bourdieu, 1986). This form of cultural capital can actually become a type of habitus. A form of embodied cultural capital is linguistic capital (Bourdieu, 1991) which comprises various language practices valued within a field. Embodied cultural capital is needed to appropriate and use ‘objectified cultural capital’ which refers to cultural goods, books, technological devices and material objects which can be transmitted. This form of cultural capital is then closely linked to forms of economic capital.

However, as Marsh (2006) reminds us, “Bourdieu (1986) made it clear that there is no simple correlation between economic and cultural capital” (p. 170). In particular, embodied cultural capital cannot be bought “if one does not have a habitus attuned to the value system” (Taylor, 2011, p. 112). For this reason, forms of cultural capital, especially those associated with taste, cannot be bought (Johnson, 2009). ‘Institutional capital’ refers to academic qualifications and professional certificates. This form of cultural capital develops and is based on people’s embodied cultural capital and it can be converted to economic capital if the people are employed in the labour market. Ultimately, students can raise their status as “cultural capital amounts to an irreducible amalgamation of the two [status and skills]” (Lareau & Weininger, 2004, p. 120). Though academic qualifications tend to buy good jobs with good salaries, sometimes they can become devalued because of qualification inflation (Grenfell & James, 1998). This is an example of capital configurations in a field. In fact, “capital exists in ever changing configurations in relation to the fields which generate it, and, the values of its three forms are constantly being renegotiated in implicit and explicit ways” (Grenfell & James, 1998, p. 21). Depending on the changes within society and also within individual fields, all types of capital are revalued or reconfigured.

In addition, people’s family background can determine their cultural capital in a variety of fields, especially in the field of education. People’s family background refers to “the cultural capital of their parents, the ways of speaking in the family (e.g. vocabulary and pronunciation), the way of viewing the world and the family’s position in it, as well as the family’s political views” (North, Snyder & Bulfin, 2008, p. 898). This helps to explain how habitus is tightly linked to cultural capital. The cultural capital in people’s family habitus can become their cultural capital. People can realise their forms of capital unconsciously (habitus) and consciously (schooling). In fact, acquiring cultural capital through education enables

students to develop a new habitus or transform their habitus (Desmarchelier, 1999). Importantly, capital is behind every social activity.

In the context of technology use, cultural capital can refer not only to technological or digital literacies but also to attitudes, tastes and goals (Johnson, 2009). In this sense, technologies are embodied as particular dispositions or habitus. Drawing on their case studies of 25 Australian 15-year-olds, North et al. (2008) suggest that there is a strong link between digital tastes and class. In the study, digital tastes refer to the ways of using technologies according to their preferences. The study found that the young people’s practices and digital tastes differed according to their social background (parents’ level of education, occupation and geographic location), though they had the same levels of access to technologies and the same levels of knowledge about technologies. Cultural capital as a type of habitus which is reflective of social background shapes digital tastes and practices in using technologies.

Connections between cultural capital and digital technologies have been discussed in relation to the digital divide by researchers including Czerniewicz and Brown (2012), Robinson (2009), Selwyn (2004) and Warschauer (2003). They all argue that not only objectified cultural capital but also embodied cultural capital is essential to use technologies meaningfully and efficiently if the ultimate goal is to close or minimise digital inequalities. For example, Robinson claims that the “lack of adequate information-seeking skills disadvantages individuals in their educational and labor market careers” (2009, p. 505). She concludes that the participants’ lack of internet skills was linked to the time that they spent on the internet. In her study, the teens with high-quality internet access at home were more skilled in seeking information online than those with no or low quality access. Time investment in tandem with economic capital facilitates the development of computer or internet expertise as a form of cultural capital. Further, the success of many people’s

engagement with digital technologies is highly influenced by social capital – the networks of support including both online and offline friends (Selwyn, 2004) – which is the next concept to be discussed.

Social capital

Bourdieu explains social capital as “the aggregate of the actual or potential resources, which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalised relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition” (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 248). This means that social capital is accumulated in the form of relationships, networks, memberships and contacts. The network of relationships is “the product of investment strategies, individual or collective, consciously or unconsciously aimed at establishing or reproducing social relationships, which are directly usable in the short or long term” (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 249). The volume of people’s social capital depends on the size of the networks that can be effectively used and on the volume of other types of capital they possess but also by those with whom they are connected (Bourdieu, 1986). This means a person with power, monetary or symbolic, has a lot of social capital.

Drawing on Bourdieu’s notion of social capital, Warschauer (2003) discusses social relations in shaping access to technology. He argues that human capital (individual skills, knowledge, and attitudes) and physical capital (financial assets) cannot fully define the developmental resources available to people and societies. Following Bourdieu, Warschauer (2003) defines social capital “as the capacity of individuals to accrue benefits by dint of their personal relationships and memberships in particular social networks and structures” (p. 154). Thus, an important source of social capital is the personal relationships that people have within their family and community. These relations can help people to access and use digital technologies efficiently. The question then arises: what is the relationship between the internet and social capital? Warschauer (2003) explains that entering the

world of computing is quite complex since “it involves making decisions about whether to buy a computer, what kind of computer to buy, how to set it up, what kind of software to get, how to install it, how to obtain and set up Internet access, and then how to use the computer, the software, and the Internet” (p. 156). In the main, people get support and assistance from their social networks in these complex endeavours.

According to Huysman and Wulf (2004), the relationship between digital technologies and social capital is ambivalent. Some researchers (Ellison, Steinfield & Lampe, 2007; Valenzuela, Park & Kee, 2009) argue that electronic-based networks such as Facebook encourage the formation of social capital. However, it is still questionable whether the use of digital technologies influences social capital positively. In terms of social networking sites (SNS), for instance, division even within a single SNS exists in the levels of uses and interest group formation (Merchant, 2012). In addition, people tend to connect and socialise with those in their existing networks, in other words, with others like them from similar backgrounds (Ellison et al., 2007).

Even though digital technologies connect people, at the same time they contribute to depriving those who are not connected, which constitutes a digital divide. Quan-Haase and Wellman (2004) suggest that the internet affects social capital in three ways: the internet transforms, diminishes and supplements social capital. As mentioned above, thanks to the internet people can create more social networks and thus can change their social capital. However, use of the internet diminishes some forms of social capital because “as the number of activities performed on the Internet increases and the amount of time spent on these activities also increases, there is a risk of the Internet reducing time spent in face-to-face contact with family and friends” (Quan-Haase & Wellman, 2004, p. 121). Quan-Haase and Wellman argue that the internet “adds on to existing patterns of communication” (2004, p. 122) supplementing people’s lives by increasing electronic contacts to telephone and face-to-face

contacts and people continue their hobbies and political interests online.

Bourdieu's theory of social capital offers a lens through which to explain university students' literacy practices with digital technologies, particularly the internet, and the extent to which their English proficiency contributes to the accumulation and strengthening of their social networks. Through the internet, aided by their proficiency in English, students can create and maintain physical and virtual social relationships and networks. Through these networks, they can get information, support, knowledge and even new social contacts. In addition, as people mostly learn to use digital technologies through their networks there may be a symbiotic relationship between social capital and digital technologies: people accumulate social capital via digital technologies and social capital affects the uses of digital technologies.

Social capital is closely related or overlaps with symbolic capital. As Bourdieu (1986) states: "It goes without saying that social capital is so totally governed by the logic of knowledge and acknowledgment that it always functions as symbolic capital" (p. 257). In addition, capital is not capital unless it is acknowledged or valued in a certain field (Carrington & Luke, 1997). Thus, all the forms of capital discussed above must have symbolic capital which is the next notion to be considered.

Symbolic capital

When different forms of capital are recognised in a field, they result in accumulations of not only the particular capital but also of social prestige (Bourdieu, 1990). This social prestige, status or honour is referred to as 'symbolic capital'. All types of capital must have symbolic capital to be recognised as having legitimacy within a particular field. Symbolic capital is accrued from the successful use of the other types of capital (Bourdieu, 1990). Therefore, symbolic capital is "an overarching category for describing the 'uptake' of other forms of capital within specific social fields ... its realisation becomes a necessary condition for the deployment and

exchange of other forms of capital" (Carrington & Luke, 1997, p. 103). A degree from a university, for example, is not only a form of cultural capital but also a form of symbolic capital. However, if it is not valued in the labour market because of the oversupply of the graduates from universities or qualification inflation then it loses its power to guarantee jobs or to convert into economic capital.

Though symbolic capital is the nexus through which other forms of capital gain legitimacy and the necessary condition for their exchange, there is a complicated relationship between symbolic capital and other types of capital (Swartz, 1997; Moore, 2008). As Moore (2008) suggests, distinguishing between the different forms of capital can be difficult at the level of practice: "the broad distinction that Bourdieu develops is that between economic capital (or 'mercantile exchange') and symbolic capital, that includes sub-types such as cultural capital, linguistic capital, scientific and literary capital depending on the field in which they are located" (p. 103). The only clear distinction that can be made then is between economic and symbolic capital. In addition, Swartz (1997) points out that social and symbolic capital overlap extensively. Through the process of transubstantiation during a social practice, the capitals can become indistinct or overlapping.

Technology is caught up in power relations as it is deployed "for someone's profit or power or pleasure" (Schirato & Webb, 2003, p. 146). Power relations, a form of symbolic capital accumulation, exist in the values of different types of capital during their exchange. Symbolic capital contributes significantly to the (re)production of social advantage and disadvantage through its arbitrary and instrumental characters (Bourdieu, 1990). In terms of the uses of technologies, for example, different symbolic values can be attributed to different forms of capital which are exercised during digital literacy practices, depending not only on people's individual but also their collective habitus, as symbolic capital is "the

group's belief" (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 120). In this sense, there can be consistency in digital tastes amongst people from similar social backgrounds or socio-economic statuses as illuminated in the studies conducted by Hargittai and Walejko (2008) and North et al. (2008).

Conclusion

Finally, the different forms of capital are intertwined and can facilitate the accumulation of each other in the social practices related to using digital technologies. University students' digital literacy practices can reflect their cultural and social capital resources and contribute to their accumulation of other types of capital. It is noteworthy here that in the Mongolian context some of them are disadvantaged in their everyday digital literacy practices due to some long-standing divides between rural and urban areas as explored in Marav's (2016; 2020) studies. Moreover, the internet might be seen as constituting the nexus of students' capital-structured practices. For example, students' English proficiency as cultural capital can determine what practices to engage in on the internet. Some students can be networked more with their English-speaking peers to maintain or improve their English, while others cannot because of their lack of English skills or social networks. Not only cultural capital but also students' social and economic capital can influence their digital literacy practices. Therefore, by using the notion of capital in the studies about students' digital technology practices researchers can reveal how students come into learning with different degrees of access to a range of resources – social and cultural capital – and educational and social inequalities amongst them which were embedded in their everyday practices shaped by their complex educational histories, identities and present circumstances. The range of arguments suggests that there is a need for further research investigating the relationships between the use of digital technologies, particularly the internet and capital, in a variety of contexts.

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The effectiveness of teacher development programs for English teachers' skills

Lkhagvasuren Urgamal¹ and Dolgorsuren Dorj²

Abstract: Mongolia has undergone significant changes since transitioning to a market economy in 1990. These changes have affected various sectors, including the education system and the foreign language teaching policy. As English language learning gains popularity, the quality of teaching and the competence of teaching personnel have become crucial issues. To enhance the education system and its standards, English teachers must improve their professional skills and teaching methods. However, despite being a pressing issue, this problem is yet to be fully addressed. In order to enhance the quality of English teaching, it's important to recognize the necessity of professional development opportunities for English teachers. The success of such programs heavily relies on catering to the specific needs of teachers. This research study aims to identify the skills that English language teachers, who are involved in training future teachers at both public and private universities, would like to develop professionally. This will be achieved through conducting interviews. Additionally, this study aims to explore the attitudes of English teachers towards the effectiveness of teacher development programs offered by teacher training universities and colleges.

Keywords: PD challenges & needs, effectiveness of TDPs, English teacher preparation institutes

The rationale of the study

Teacher development programs have a significant impact on English teachers' skills, and they are considered essential for educational reforms. To ensure the quality of teacher preparation programs and the effectiveness of teacher educators, it is important to examine the issues related to them. According to the Tone study (Zeichner, 2006), a teacher's college is an institute that

has a suitable syllabus for training teachers. Another study (Mosha, 2004) emphasizes that a teacher's college should focus on training teachers by providing education, motivation, and opportunities for reflection about the teaching profession. While many teachers' colleges around the world offer certificates or diplomas in secondary education, in some places like Mongolia, teacher education institutes provide training up to degree level.

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Scholars agree that the prosperity of the education system greatly depends on the quality of teachers (Chong, S. & Ho, P., 2009). Studies have shown that the competence of teacher educators plays a vital role in the preparation of high-quality teachers (Kennedy, 2016). Teacher educators are responsible for teaching and guiding student teachers in the classroom, which makes their skills and abilities crucial in ensuring that student teachers receive appropriate and up-to-date teaching and learning skills (Nzima, 2016). The competencies of teacher educators are influenced by several factors, such as their academic qualifications, workplace environment, and working experience (Celik, 2011) (Dengerink, 2015). However, even with these factors in place, teacher educators need to continuously upgrade their skills and knowledge to keep up with the changes in the teaching profession. The aim of this professional development is to enable them to develop new skills and practices that will prepare highly qualified teachers for the country.

Purpose of the Study

Research has indicated that professional development programs are crucial to ensure that teacher educators perform optimally in their practice (Amos, 2014). In this study, the aim is to investigate the challenges and requirements of professional development for Mongolian teacher educators, as well as examine the impact of professional development programs on their practice.

Research questions

The perceptions of teacher educators regarding the effectiveness of their professional development initiatives have a significant impact on teaching and learning practices. Therefore, it is imperative to conduct further research on the professional development and learning of teacher educators. Identifying the challenges and requirements that teacher educators still face even after participating in professional development programs can significantly aid in their ongoing professional growth. This study aims to investigate the attitudes of teacher development programs' effectiveness for teachers at teacher training universities. Additionally, it seeks to explore the challenges that EFL teacher educators continue to experience in their practice, even after participating in professional development activities.

Literature Review

Teacher educators' professional development refers to any training programs that aim at equipping teacher educators with skills, knowledge, competencies, and attitudes that will develop professional thinking and practices to improve teaching and learning practices while preparing teachers (Loughran, 2014). According to Loughran, any teacher educator's professional development program aims at improving classroom instruction by connecting theories to real practices. Loughran echoes the argument made by Mendenhall (2017) that professional development programs play a vital role in

shaping teacher educators' classroom instructions when preparing teachers. As H. Tack and R. Vanderlinde (2014) stated, there is still an urgent need for high-quality teacher education, and teacher educators' professional development was left behind until the end of the twentieth century. Research on this particular area of teacher educators' professional development started immediately; however, research on this field remains scarce (Loughran, 2014). According to J. Murray, J. and T. Male (2005), the teacher educators' profession is an under-researched and poorly understood occupational group. Another study (Tack, H. & Vanderlinde R. 2014) reports that teacher educators of specialized professional groups within education sectors have specific identities and professional development needs.

Teachers' professional development is a crucial area of skill development. Various researchers have proposed definitions of PD and discussed the importance of teachers' professional development activities. According to Guskey's 2002 study, high-quality professional development is a central component of almost every modern proposal for improving education. Although professional development programs may differ in content and design, they all aim to change and enhance the professional practices, beliefs, attitudes, and understandings of educators. Professional development programs are systemic efforts to bring about change in the classroom practices of teachers, their attitudes and beliefs, and their students' learning outcomes. The effectiveness of these programs is crucial, and they should have a substantial positive

impact on teachers' practices, attitudes, beliefs, and their students' learning achievements. The professional development and training should be aimed at fulfilling specific demands that teachers have, and the most important thing is quality and open access. These programs should help teachers to be effectively developed, changed, and improved so that student performance and achievement in classrooms will also improve. Considering these issues, emphasis should be placed on teachers' education and teacher educators' professional development. Some scholars have conducted studies on teacher educators' professional development programs and revealed the reasons why teacher educators should attend such programs.

According to Villegas-Reimers' study in 2003, professional development is crucial as it can have a significant positive impact on the participants' beliefs and practices, students' learning outcomes, and the implementation of educational reforms. The study reviewed international literature on professional development and described some key aspects of its importance, such as its ability to influence the beliefs and behavior of teacher educators or teachers.

Features of effective professional development programs

Various studies have explored the effectiveness of professional development programs for teacher-educators. One such study by Lee (2015) suggests that such programs should focus on addressing pedagogical problems faced by educators to improve classroom practice and teaching. It's essential that the content of these programs

aligns with the needs of the participants to help them provide quality instruction and prepare high-quality teachers. Lee also emphasizes the importance of involving program participants as partners throughout the process of planning, implementing, and evaluating the program. Another study by J. Darling-Hammond, M. Hyler, M. Gardner, and D. Espinoza (2017) stresses that teacher-educator professional development programs should be conducted in school settings and linked to school-wide efforts, with a focus on facilitating teaching and learning activities. Additionally, professional development should be an ongoing process that helps educators acquire new knowledge and skills. Finally, Desimone (2009) highlights that teacher-educator professional development programs should aim at improving both teacher-educator professional development and student achievement. The knowledge and skills gained during these programs should be evident in the academic and professional achievements of student-teachers.

Guskey (2002) identified characteristics of effective professional development by reviewing and citing various sources. He found that 21 lists of effective professional development programs all listed the enhancement of teacher content and pedagogy knowledge as the most important characteristic. The characteristics of effective professional development that Guskey identified are:

- Enhancing teachers' content and pedagogy knowledge
- Providing sufficient time and resources
- Promoting collegiality and collaboration

- Including procedures for evaluation
- Aligning with other reform initiatives
- Modeling high-quality instruction (in-school or site-based)
- Building leadership capacity
- Addressing teachers' identified needs
- Being driven by analyses of student learning data
- Focusing on individual and organizational improvement
- Including follow-up and support
- Being ongoing and job-embedded
- Helping accommodate diversity and promote equity
- Being based on the best available research evidence
- Taking a variety of forms
- Providing opportunities for theoretical understanding
- Being driven by an image of effective teaching and learning
- Providing for different phases of change
- Promoting continuous inquiry and reflection
- Involving families and other stakeholders.

Guskey (2002) discovered that effective professional development for teachers should fulfill three requirements: providing enough time and resources, promoting collaboration, and improving the instructional knowledge of teacher educators. Enhancing teachers' instructional and subject content knowledge is the most frequently mentioned characteristic of effective professional development. This study aims to examine the effectiveness of the professional development of teacher educators on their

practice and their students' achievement, teacher educators' expectations for their professional development from the educational authorities, and the challenges and necessities that teacher educators still face in their practice.

Five levels of evaluation as a descriptive model for professional development effectiveness

The study's conceptual framework will be influenced by T.R. Guskey's (2014) research on improving the quality of professional development programs. His list of five interconnected elements: Participants' Reaction, Participants' Learning, Organizational Support, Participants' Use of Knowledge, and Student Learning Outcomes will be used as a model. Guskey's five elements provide a means to explore how participants perceive the professional development they receive and how they interpret the components of professional development in their teaching. Guskey

argues that educators at all levels are required to provide evidence of the changes they make, yet there is a lack of evidence to support these claims. The model is useful for evaluating professional development programs and identifying ways to create a high-quality learning environment that leads to positive outcomes. As Guskey notes, "Measuring the effectiveness of educators' professional development requires consideration of the five critical stages or levels of information" (provide page number).

These five levels are illustrated in Figure 1.

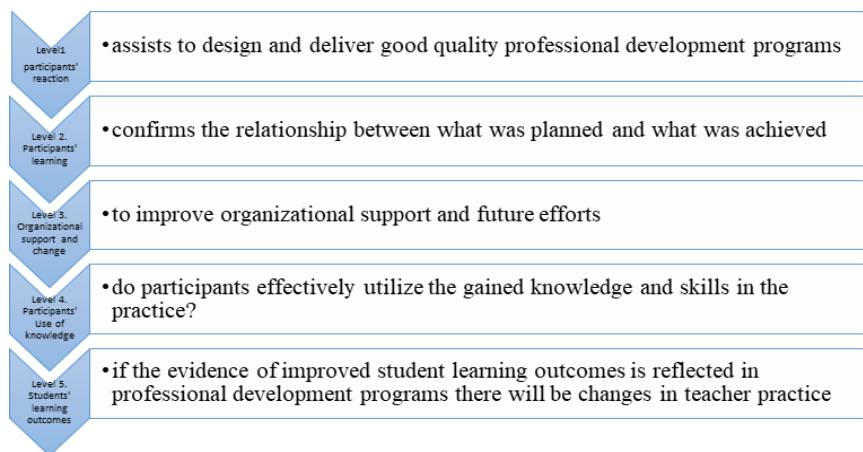


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework showing PD Evaluation Elements, Source: Modified from Guskey. (2000)

Participants' reactions can be defined collected after addressing the questions of their experience or whether they liked the program. If the time the participants spent was good, the information on their reactions or feelings about professional development programs can be gathered via the pre- and post-feedback questionnaires at the beginning and end of each program (Guskey, 2013; Yasar, Veronesi, Maliekal, Yeter, 2016). Measuring the satisfaction of the participants will help design and deliver professional development programs in more valid ways (Guskey, 2014). As (Guskey, 2014) stated, participant learning refers to participants' knowledge acquired from professional development programs, and it can be evaluated through the paper-and-pen assessment, oral and written reflections, portfolios, etc., and applied to improve the content of programs. Next, in the level of organizational support and change, the information gathered through interviews, meetings, and records can be utilized to improve organizational support and changes in future programs (Yasar, Veronesi, Maliekal, Yeter 2016). Teaching is a combination of teaching and learning. As some researchers (Ичинхорлоо, 2013) claimed, teacher professional development is a career-long, ongoing, and job-embedded process that is beneficial for keeping abreast with newly emerging issues and innovations in educational settings to refine their practice, broaden and recharge themselves as educators and as individuals (Sun, 2008). However, some support and guidance from scholars and policymakers is important for teacher-educator professional development programs to enhance their competencies and

develop new instructional practices (Ball, D., & Cohen, D., 1999). Documenting the implementation of program content is also essential, and it is vital to restructure future programs (Guskey, 2014). Finally, information on program impacts on student learning is helpful not only for assessing the overall impact of professional development but also for professional development program design and implementation. The evaluation results of any of these steps are significant for designing and improving further professional development programs.

Teacher professional development has been considered one of the most important factors in improving the quality of schools (Desimone, 2009). It is critical, inasmuch as teacher learning, the method and practice of teaching, and student learning are influenced by effective professional development. However, determining or measuring how effective professional development programs are a challenging problem. Generally, professional development programs possess two main purposes, which are improvement in the teacher-educator professional practice and increase in student-teacher academic achievement. Determining the purposes of teacher-educator professional development seems simple, yet the path teacher educators go through shows that there are still some challenges teacher educators face in real life. In this study, the researchers aim to examine the preferences of teacher educators towards their professional development content, the context and impact of the professional development programs they attend, whether teacher educators are satisfied or not, and what professional learning needs teacher

educators value and prefer. Supovitz (2001; cited in Kang, Cha, Ha, 2013), suggested that “*A logic behind professional development is that high-quality professional development will change teaching in classrooms, which will, in turn, lead to increase in student achievement.*”

Research methodology

This article studies how EFL teacher educators evaluate the effectiveness of professional development activities in which they took part. Challenges and problems that still exist after professional development programs were also sought. The study utilized qualitative methods during the data collection and data analysis. In this qualitative interview, 20 EFL teacher educators were allowed to participate.

Qualitative interviews have advantages as they have a long duration and are flexible. Many questions can be developed according to the respondents' answers (Bryman, 2008). A study showed that there is much greater interest in participants' points of view during a qualitative interview. Thus, it is beneficial for the examination of the perceptions.

Since the researchers wanted to collect deep information about the professional development programs provided for EFL teacher educators, an in-depth or qualitative semi-structured interview (Bryman, 2014) was the most suitable option. They tape-recorded the interviews and discussions with the permission of the participants and later transcribed them. The twenty EFL teacher educators were asked to participate in a face-to-face interview under

pseudonyms and informed that the consent forms were signed in advance.

Results and findings

To reiterate this study aims to find out the challenges EFL teacher educators face regarding professional development. All the participants were asked to identify the barriers that obstruct their professional development, and they concluded that they faced some challenges and difficulties regarding professional development. Not surprisingly, all participants mentioned lack of time and heavy workload, limited budget for professional development, and organizational support.

Time and workload: Results indicate that all the participants agreed with the fact that EFL teacher educators' professional development (PD) has a positive impact on their teaching practice. Some stated that school-based PD is preferred, as it provides opportunities to collaborate with colleagues. Nevertheless, participants complained that they have difficulties due to time to be engaged in PD studies. They emphasized that the timetable of PD activities is not flexible and does not match teacher educators' schedules. They noted, “The next difficulty is time for the training. We were not allowed to leave during work hours and sometimes had class at the same time as the training”. They have to handle these problems themselves. They asked colleagues to teach instead of each other and asked permission from the training manager to leave. Another participant also noted the coincidence of the teaching schedule of EFL teacher educators' classroom practice and the sudden

intervention of PD by outside providers. One interviewee emphasized that language teachers and teacher educators usually have much work pressure. “Language teachers have heavy workloads as the English language is quite popular. The PD programs are not planned very often”. Another claimed that the workload was one of the biggest problems. Sometimes PD programs are organized at the weekends. Most foreign language teachers are female, and they have to take care of their families. Thus, there is a need for PD programs to be organized during the time when EFL teacher educators have free time to attend the training.

Lack of Organizational Support for PD Programs: Results of the interviews with EFL teacher educators have shown that there seems to be less support from the organizations/institutions toward PD activities. Participants observed that most institutions do not have a deliberate policy on PD, which may make them accountable just in case they fail to support the teacher educators. For instance, one of the participants mentioned that organizations should have a regulation regarding the balance of workload and time for the PD of teacher educators. They are not allowed to leave during work hours and many times have classes at the same time as the training.

Participants also mentioned problems related to the accessibility of PD programs. The number of participants in PD programs organized by external providers such as embassies of native-speaking countries, international educational organizations, and higher-ranked foreign language training centers are often limited, and teacher educators have to compete for two or three

seats. Since the number of university EFL teachers is extensive and there are not enough seats in the training, they have to compete with each other or wait for their turn to take part in such high-quality PD programs. That’s why many teachers turn to developing themselves personally and professionally.

The last research question of the study was to find out the PD needs of EFL teacher-learners. And during the interviews, the teacher educators deliberately asked to state the most urgent professional learning needs for their PD. The results were as follow:

1. Time Management skills
2. Research skills
3. Publishing of academic writing
4. Needs related to pedagogy
5. Knowledge of current policies in teacher education

Discussion

The study results are in line with those found in the literature about the effectiveness of PDPs in teacher education. For instance, one study (Kennedy 2016) noted that the idea that PD should foster improvements in teaching is widely accepted (p. 945). In the same study (Guskey 2002) emphasized that PD should motivate teacher educators to be able to affect change during classroom practice. Furthermore, Hudson (2013) asserted that the ultimate goal of teachers and teacher educators’ PD is to enhance students’ learning outcomes. We can see that literature has emphasized not only looking at PDP as benefiting the teacher

educators themselves but has put much emphasis on the student's performance.

What is required, therefore, is a specific type of PDP that will be planned to meet the expectations of the EFL teacher educators. We argue that the PDP should consider the EFL teacher educators' expectations and, more importantly, aim at improving classroom teaching practices. Luckily, the findings indicate what expectations EFL teacher educators have on the kind of PDP they prefer. Among their expectations is that the PDP should aim to improve EFL teacher educators' competencies, change attitudes and beliefs towards PD, be more reflective on their practice, learn new ideas and different teaching approaches, and improve content knowledge.

The above discussion indicates that when planning and implementing PDPs, there is a need to consider the many factors that impact the teacher educators' perception of PDPs. The researchers argue that there is a need to do a needs assessment whenever there is a need to conduct PDPs with teacher educators, with emphasis put on finding out the expectations teacher educators have on PDPs. We agree with Lee (2015), who asserted that to develop an effective PDP, the project goals must respond to the potential project participants' needs and expectations of a program. We are sure that regardless of the teacher educator's experience, if the factors of PD that address teachers' needs, time frame or duration, the forms of PD programs, and teachers' motivation and commitment to improving their practice are considered, the teacher educators will

perceive the PDPs positively and will be able to participate in the programs.

Conclusion

To succeed in the Mongolian education system and improve its standards, Professional Development must start with the professional skills and teaching methods of the teachers in the English teacher training schools. This has been one of the most pressing problems, but it is still not completely solved. As people's interest in learning English increases, the problem of English language teaching personnel and the quality of teaching will be affected. To improve the quality of English teaching, we need to understand there is still a need for professional development of English teachers, and taking into account the needs of teachers is the basis for effective and rewarding teacher development programs. Through PD, the skills of English language teachers in public and private universities will be developed professionally to reveal attitudes toward the effectiveness of teacher development programs for English teachers at teacher training universities and colleges.

This study shows that despite the benefits of present forms of PD, many organizational factors hinder teacher educators from fully participating in PD activities. The study has identified factors such as lack of time and heavy workload, limited budget for PD by higher education institutions, and lack of PD policies to support teacher educators' PD. The other significant conclusion derived from this study is that for teacher educators to participate fully in PD activities, they need

institutional and organizational support. The study results identified some factors that hinder teacher educators' full participation in PD activities, including lack of time and heavy workload, limited budget for PD, and lack of general organizational support.

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Correlation Between English Binominal Phrases and Corresponding Structures in Mongolian

Tsengelbayar Bayarkhuu¹

Abstract: The phenomenon of Binominal Phrases (henceforth referred to as BNPs) is distinctive in language, appearing in a significant number of instances² and often leading to translation challenges. Therefore, this study aims to enhance translation quality by examining the characteristics, structure, and relations within BNPs and determining whether universals or uniqueness exist between English and Mongolian as non-cognate languages. The research employs general and specialized linguistic methods, along with the foundational principles and rules of universal grammar, and has revealed that the BNP structure in English, formed with the preposition OF, does not always involve any case marker in Mongolian³. Instead, the Mongolian language relies on the co-existence of language units alone. Hence, the BNP structures in English and Mongolian exhibited disparities, particularly in their E-structure. They possessed minimal, if any, shared universals, making direct comparison or contrast challenging. Nevertheless, considering the removal of case markers in the transformation from I-structure⁴ to E-structure⁵, it is appropriate to examine the hidden meanings to align them contextually.

Keywords: BNP, Binominal, head word, complement, preposition, case markers, relation

This research investigates the correlation between English Binominal phrases (BNP) and their structures in Mongolian, mostly focusing on the OF-based BNP construction. Notable examples include *heart of gold*, *power of persuasion*, *sense of humor*, *depth of knowledge*, *piece of cake*, and *essence of life*. Aarts serves as a key contributor to this study, offering a

comprehensive examination of the BNPs from both structural and semantic viewpoints. His analysis explores the syntactic structure of the BNPs, emphasizing the core meaning of NP₁+of+NP₂ with a focus on NP₂ (e.g., *a hell of a problem*, *a terrible problem*) (Aarts. B, 1998). This phrase possesses a distinctive feature that sets it apart from regular noun phrases.

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² In the "Study of NP structure of Mongolian, Japanese, and Turkish languages" conducted at the National University of Mongolia in 2024, it was observed that the phenomenon appeared in 48 BNP out of 500 noun phrases.

³ It is important to highlight that the examination is only limited to the NP₁+of+NP₂ structure.

⁴ Chomsky. N used the term Internal structure (I-structure) in his work "Language Knowledge" (Chomsky N, 1985).

⁵ Chomsky. N used the term Externalized (E-structure) in his work "Language Knowledge" (Chomsky N, 1965).

Constantinescu validates Aarts's notion that, generally in English syntactic structure, the head N_1 of a noun phrase incorporates a complement N_2 , imparting a specific meaning to N_2 (Tamura. Sh et al., 2021). For instance, in the example [NP *the picture* [PP *of that boy*]] (Asaka. T, 2002:114), *the picture* is the head of the NP structure, and *that boy* serves as the complement. However, Aarts argues that in expressions like *an angel of a girl* (Quirk. R et al., 1985:1285), this structure is equivalent in meaning to *an angelic girl*.

Apart from syntactic, semantic, and functional analyses of the BNPs, in various languages, it has been a subject of comparative, experimental, and quantitative studies. Tamura and colleagues contribute to this sort of work by examining the nature and classification of the BNP structure, along with its syntactic structure and meaning. They employ corpus linguistics to investigate these properties (Tamura, S., Shimura, H., Ishikawa, K., & Nagata, S, 2021). Kim (Kyung Hee University) and Sells (SOAS) developed a classification based on the function of the preposition OF, exploring its head, complement, and semantic relations of the BNPs (Jong-Bok Kim & Peter Sells, 2010). Rodriguez Sanchez examined the features and frequency of BNPs in Italian, correlating them with the BNP formation using statistical data from a language corpus database (Sánchez, I.R, 2013). Camacho and Serafim (São Paulo) outlined essential conditions for recognizing binomial phrases in Portuguese, considering conceptual, contextual, and grammatical components within discourse linguistics (Camacho. G & Serafim. S, 2021). Benigni and Latos

conducted a comparative study on words related to BNPs, such as natural water phenomena in Italian, Polish, and Russian, analyzing semantic and metaphorical aspects (Benigni et al., 2022).

Research on the BNPs has been conducted across various languages like English, Spanish, Italian, Japanese, Arabic, Romanian, etc. However, no specific research or articles have been found on the English BNP structures written in Mongolian. In terms of related terminology, it has not been fully adopted in Mongolian linguistics. Currently, there are only a few Mongolian texts that briefly touch on related topics, with no comprehensive works or research focusing on the features, structure, and relations of the BNPs in the Mongolian language. Among the works related to this topic, Otgonsuren explored the $NP_1+P(\text{of})+NP_2$ structure in both languages, revealing common features and analyzing overt and covert structures from a syntactic perspective (Otgonsuren.Ts, 2022). Battsetseg discussed the occurrence of common noun phrase structures in Mongolian from a universal grammar standpoint (Battsetseg. B, 2014). Notably, Azzaya investigated differences in meaning and role between the Japanese auxiliary word NO and the Mongolian case marker *-ын*, *-ийн*, though these works primarily focus on common noun phrases and do not delve into the BNPs (Azzaya. B, 2010).

Examining the BNPs alongside regular Noun Phrase ($NP_1+\text{of}+NP_2$) constructions is vital due to their syntactic resemblance but significant semantic differences. This is crucial for accurate

translation, especially given the frequent occurrence of BNPs expressing quantity, leading to confusion. Although not always apparent, this phenomenon negatively impacts translation quality in both semantics and syntactics, necessitating dedicated research. The study investigates the BNP structures in universal grammar, various manifestations, and their expressions in the Mongolian language, aiming to propose an optimal translation version.

The research investigates whether there is a presence of the BNPs in Mongolian and it exhibits similar features to those in English. The hypothesis suggests that Mongolian may employ case markers of genitive akin to the English preposition OF. The study posits that the core structure in Mongolian involves hidden constituents, while the E-structure takes the form of BNP. This implies that Mongolian BNP undergoes abbreviation, shedding case markers, and case markers during the movement from the I-structure to E-structure. The arrangement in Adj+N, N+Adj, or N+N order highlights the Mongolian BNP's formulation by omitting the relevant case markers. The study defines BNP features theoretically, conducts structural analysis adhering to universal grammar principles and rules, and classifies the relations accordingly.

Methods and methodology

The study utilized an online linguistic database, a ready-made corpus¹ for the

English language, and a custom corpus generated exclusively for the Mongolian language from the sources "The Best Stories of Mongolia" (Tudev. L, 1981) and "The Secret History of the Mongols". From this, language data was compiled, comprising 58 English and 58 Mongolian BNPs, which were then analyzed for this research. The research procedure encompassed addressing problems, formulating hypotheses, setting goals, collecting research data, evaluating semantics, syntax, and thematic features, categorizing by universal relations, equating two languages, testing hypotheses, and summarizing results. The research methodology was based on the theory and principle of universal grammar including the Phrasal Structure Rule, Government, The Head Parameter, X Bar Theory, The Transformation Rule, Projection Principle, and the Principle of Empty Category (Tserenpil. D, 2011). Furthermore, a correlation analysis involving mathematical and statistical computations was conducted to objectively examine the research results.

In examining English, the study utilized resources such as the Sketch Engine Multilingual Online Corpus², COCA English Corpora³, BNC, and English Web Corpora. From a pool of 80,000 instances, 500 examples featuring the NP₁+of+NP₂ structure were selected, revealing the presence of the BNPs in 48 samples, constituting 9.5%. However, the occurrence of BNP structure in Mongolian was notably less frequent compared to that in English. For

¹ *The selected sample of English includes words commonly used in the online environment, including newspaper articles, historical and contemporary news, information, artistic and literary works.*

² *Language Corpora, "Sketch Engine".* <https://www.sketchengine.eu/>

³ *The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA).* <https://www.english-corpora.org/coca/>

Mongolian, a language database was artificially generated and processed using the Antconc¹ linguistics program, with the statistical SPSS² program utilized for mathematical calculations.

To enhance the realism of the research results, efforts were made to avoid similar examples as much as possible. When choosing corpus examples, a diverse range of themes was considered, and only noun phrases within a relevant context were selected. The criteria for selecting examples included maintaining the order of NP as Det (Adj) N of Det N.

Discussion

In this section, the analysis of the BNP in English and Mongolian corpora involves examining their structure and relations. The head and complement are defined in terms of semantics, syntactic, and

thematic features (Camacho. G. & Serafim. S, 2021). Distinctive patterns between the two languages are equated and categorized based on universals, leading to the proposal of an optimal translation version. This research aims to identify the corresponding examples in Mongolian for each English language category and unveil the associated grammatical typology.

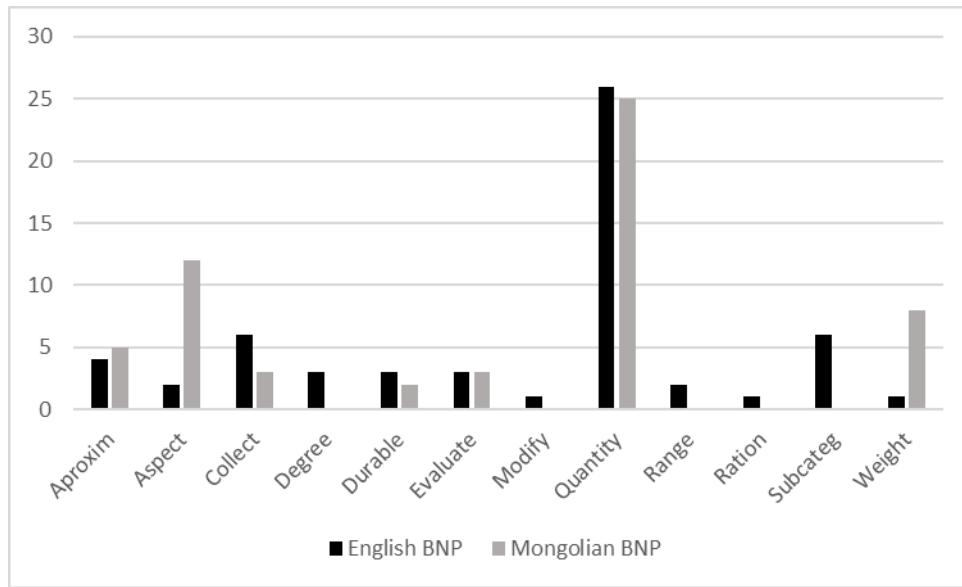
The study was classified according to 7 categories by Francesca Masini, with a focus on the syntactic domain, including head-complement structural relations and context influence (Masini, 2016). In addition, to make the relations more realistic, words were added, omitted, or replaced, as well as E- and I-structure transformations. A total of 58 samples were chosen from each language, following the criterion that a minimum sample size of 30 is more appropriate for conducting bivariate parametric statistics. (Soleman. H, 2006:128).

№	Category	EN. (Freq)	MN. (Freq)
1	Approximation	4	5
2	Aspect	2	12
3	Group	6	3
4	Degree	3	0
5	Time	3	2
6	Evaluation	3	3
7	Modification	1	0
8	Quantity	26	25
9	Range	2	0
10	Ratio	1	0
11	Subcategorization	6	0
12	Weight	1	8
	Total	58	58

¹ Antconc Corpus Linguistics. <https://www.laurenceanthony.net/software/antconc/>

² SPSS statistics. <https://www.ibm.com/products/spss-statistics>

Table 1. Category of English-Mongolian BNP in Linguistics



Graph 1. The graphical comparison of English and Mongolian BNP categories.

Among the total 12 defined categories, 7 Mongolian language categories corresponded to each English language category. In this process, the “weight” category is merged with the “quantity” category based on similar characteristics in Mongolian.

Among these defined categories, the most prevalent and noteworthy relationships are addressed as follows.

Consider the corresponding 6 categories along with relevant instances. These include:

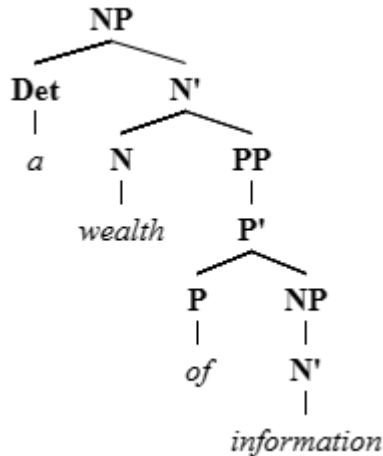
Quantity

1. a. *Our website offers a wealth of information about books, authors, illustrators, projects and useful resources* (Source 126: *outsideinworld.org.uk*)

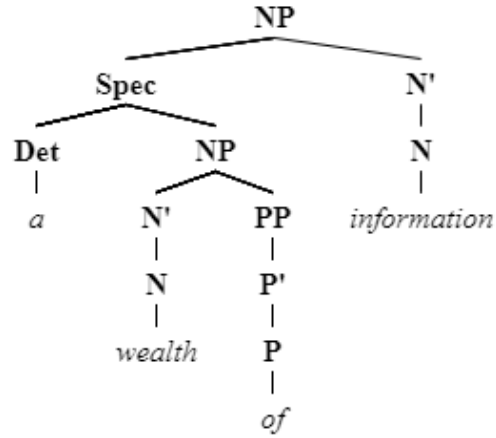
As a regular noun phrase, N_1 takes the core meaning, so it seems to be translated as *information richness*. However, since *a wealth of information* is a BNP expression that expresses quantity, it is appropriate to translate it as N_2 core meaning or wealthy information, and it is more consistent with the theme. Therefore, it is preferable to say the site offers wealthy information rather than the site offers a wealth of information. According to language typology, in the English language, a noun phrase structure is formed from two nouns using the preposition OF, and the modifier is created with a hidden typology that differs from the visible ordinary noun phrase form. For example, when the two nouns *wealth* and *information* are joined by the linking unit OF, *information* is placed first as the head word, and the modifier reveals *rich information* with a concealed meaning that differs from the normal *wealth of information*. As a result, it is fruitless to compare it directly to the English genitive or preposition OF, which

defines a relative relationship, and the Mongolian case marker of *-ын* and *-ийн*, which are used to distinguish possession.

1. § E-structure



§§ I-structure



2. a. ... of the water rushing, watching the wildlife, fishing after some much needed rain and sitting on the deck with a cup of coffee was a great getaway. (Source 213: gilmerfreepress.net)

The context determines whether it is a regular noun phrase or a BNP, as seen in example (2a). If *a cup of coffee* is interpreted as a regular noun phrase, then sitting on a platform carrying *a coffee's cup* was fantastic, therefore the semantic meaning of the noun phrase does not correspond to the theme. Actually, *a cup of coffee* should be understood as *a cup with coffee* since it describes how pleasant it was to sit on the platform carrying *a cup with coffee*. *A cup of coffee* is the most classic example of the BNPs in English.

Similar instances exist as *аяга цай* (*a cup of tea*) as an equivalent of the just above mentioned in Mongolian, of which, however, differs from English's, like (3a).

3. a. *Аяга цай /100-200гр/*
 “*А үсэг эрдмийн дээд*”

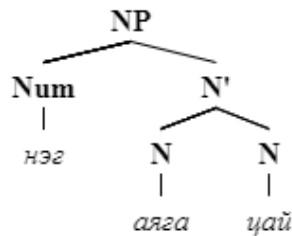
Аяга цай идээний дээж”
 (Пүрэвжанцан.А, 2017:16)

1. *Cup -e* (DET), GEN (QUANT)
tea -NOM
2. *a cup of tea* *a cup containing tea* →
tea with a cup → *tea served in a cup*

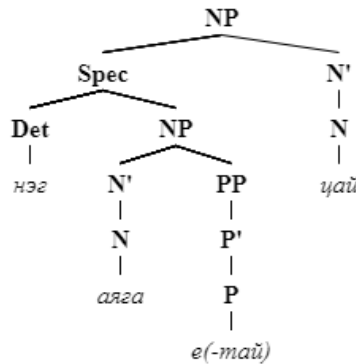
Аяга цай refers to *a cup containing tea* that weighs between 100 and 200 grams. In Mongolian, this type of phrase is placed in a row without any case marker that connects both the nouns, retaining the basic form of the word, with the primary word placed behind it and the accompanying word appearing before it as a modifier.

However, according to universal grammar, two nouns are not fundamentally or directly related in terms of the system, but a unit must connect them. Only such a unit whether apparent or concealed is a crux of the matter. In this example (3a), the unit *-тай*, which isn't present in the E-structure (3d§) but is retained in the I-structure like in (3d§§).

1. § E-structure



§§ I-structure



Examining it in depth and considering its E- and I-structure, it refers to *аягатай цай* (lit. *trans in Mong. tea in a cup*). Nevertheless, it becomes apparent that there is I-structure that can be revealed by *tea served in a cup* in the presence of the case markers *-тай*, and it may have been omitted, transforming it into *аяга цай* (lit. *trans in Mong. a cup tea*).

may be clarified and the translation quality can be enhanced.

The previous example uses the structure Adj +of + N to generate a binomial phrase. The *балчир нас* in (5) is a comparable example in Mongolian.

4. a. *I shut my eyes, too full of sorrow to move.* (Source 297: BNC, Written miscellaneous, Benn, June)

Example (4a) describes *eyes* overwhelmed with grief and *sorrow* that they cannot move. The head word NP₂(sorrow) might be either N₁ or N₂. *Too full of sorrow* might be interpreted in two ways, depending on its context, like (4b/c).

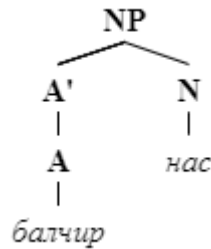
- b. *I shut my eyes, too full to move*
 c. *I shut my eyes, sorrow to move*

Example (4b) lacks the indefinite meaning of what is *full of*. In example (4c), the overall meaning of *sorrowful eyes* is very similar to the original statement when shifted, but it requires some clarification. As a result, it is evident that the head is *sorrow* because *too full of* serves as a modifier to emphasize the *sorrow*. In example (4a), *too much grief* or *full of sorrow* appears to make no difference, but when considering the head and complement, it is clear that the meaning

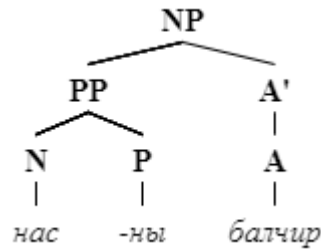
5. a. *Балчир нас /1-3 нас/*
 “Балбар бол хүүхдэд их ээлтэй хүн. Бага балчир амьтад юундаа дасаж ядах вэ дээ.” (Пүрэвжанцан.А, 2017:18)
 1. *young-DET age-NOM*
 2. *young age* → *age of being young* → *childhood*

The adjective *балчир* and the noun *нас* are placed sequentially with no case markers, retaining their original form. In fact, the I-structure of the phrase *балчир нас* (childhood) could have been *насны балчир* (young age). This means that as it converts into the E-structure, it shifts its position omitting its genitives.

2. § E-structure



§§ I-structure



6. а. *Хай баян хангай минь, хар ч гэсэн Хааны хишиг, бор ч гэсэн богдын хишиг гэсээр Дулам авгай аяга дүүрэн цайгаа өглөө* (Пүрэвжанцан.А, 2017:16)

1. full-DET cup-NOM
2. *full cup* → *cup filled with tea* → *full tea cup*

As *аяга дүүрэн* in Mongolian, the head word (*аяга*) is in front, and the complement word (*дүүрэн*) is behind, the modifier is placed behind the head and expresses a unified meaning by being placed in the row of the primary form of the direct word without any relative or genitive case markers overtly. As a result, the BNP was also identified in the structure N+of+Adj in Mongolian language like (6a).

Group

7. а. *A Russian spacecraft carrying a crew of three, including U.S. billionaire space tourist Charles Simonyi, landed safely in Kazakhstan* (Source 403: gilmerfreepress.net)

A crew of three - according to the BNP structure, the head word of *a crew of three* is three, and crew functions as an MP (modifier) to emphasize this core meaning. However, in the context of a regular NP structure, it becomes a *team consisting of three people*. In this situation, the main meaning turns to *crew*, on the contrary, in

another instance, *a page of book* refers to *a page in a book*, whereas *team of three* refers to *a team consisting of three people*. Which version it could be and how it will be interpreted depends on its given context.

8. а. *Азарга адуугаар арилжихгүй ийм сайхан буянаа нэг муу утаатай чулуугаар солих гэж байх уу?* (Пүрэвжанцан.А, 2017:9)

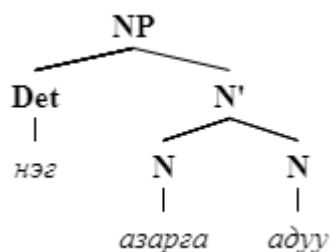
1. *a stallion-e* (GEN) *horse-NOM*
2. *horses of the stallion* → *horses in a stallion* → *horse belonging to the stallion*

A stallion is an example of a Mongolian word that corresponds to the English meaning of group. In Mongolian, horses are measured by the number of horses that belong to one stallion (*азарга*), that is approximately 10-15 horses per stallion herd (*азарга адуу*), therefore it falls into this category in the sense of a group measurement of something. In the N+N order in the E-structure, the noun at the beginning functions as a modifier, transferring the meaning of the head word, which is not connected to the complement by any case markers, to the noun behind it, which is not connected by any case markers, and expressing the meaning of a group of objects covertly that's in a hidden metaphorical meaning. Bazarragchaa. M (2017:33,34) states that if the modifier is formed by the genitive, it means not directly nominative or indirect belonging (Altai/n mountain is a mountain in the place called

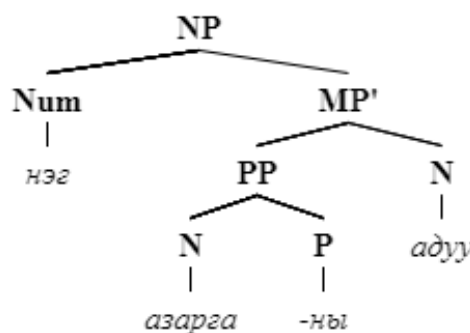
Altai, Khuvsgul sea is a sea in Khuvsgul province, Tuul river is called Tuul river branch, etc.), and these can be related to origin and meaning in relation to the whole part, so it is considered that there is a phenomenon of neutralization between them. In other words, it is a language phenomenon

manifested in the zero form of (e), and I also agree with his conclusion. So, the above mentioned example is about the horse belonging to the stallion, or the horse of the stallion, and the genitive case marker might have been omitted neutrally.

1. § E-structure



§§ I-structure



Evaluation

9. a. Right now, there is a tsunami of opportunities to create very disruptive healthcare companies. (Source 219: medstars.com)

In (9), it is unclear whether it's indicating *a tsunami of possibilities* or *a tsunami-like opportunity*. In the scholarly examination of contextual semantics, it will become apparent that it mentions the possibility of developing extremely destructive businesses. Since it is evident that *opportunities* are the head word, *a tsunami of* is appropriate as a modifier. Because there is no possibility of *a tsunami*, only a tsunami-like possibility exists, hence in this instance, the possibility is assessed like this and compared to *a tsunami* metaphorically, and it can be categorized as evaluation here.

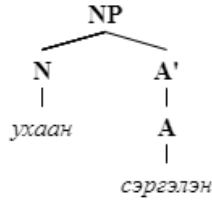
10. a. Хэдийгээр ухаан сэргэлэн боловч, зүүн хошууны захад хүрсэнгүй, баруун мөрний тэртээ гарсангүй, зөвхөн гурав дөрвөн өртөө эргэн тойрон

газрын дотор оршин суусан тул юуг үзэж мэдэж, юуг сонсох ажээ. (Түдэв,Л, 1981)

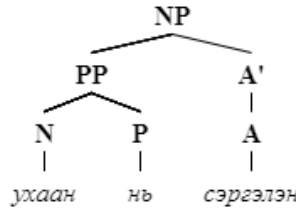
1. mind – NOM young-DET
2. mind of a young man → young man's mind → young mind

Ухаан сэргэлэн is an example of the Mongolian language as an equivalent to the English evaluation category in the sense of reviewing and judging by the expression of a global perspective. Placed in the NP+NP sequence, it expresses the cohesive idea of *a young man's mind* not using any case markers. In the sense that the BNP plays a role in shortening and economizing the language, as well as improving the meaning, it is distinguished by the fact that the adjective is moved to after the noun in Mongolian, as opposed to the more frequent concept that the English adjective placed before the noun. As it turns out, the concept of an adjective preceding a noun is irrelevant to the BNP structure.

1. § E-structure



§§ I-structure



Approximation

11. a. *Since then, West Ham have conceded a worrying average of 2.3 goals per game, and even 3 per game if we take just the last three weeks. (Source 238: fiso.co.uk)*

This category includes the approximate state of the size and the number of something. Since *goal* is the head and *average* is the modifier, the phrase *Average of 2.3 goals per game* should be translated as *Average of 2.3 goals per game*.

12. a. *Цагаан саарал морины нуруун дээр ногоон гөлөмтэй боржгин янзын эмээлийг тохсон нь холхи газрын хүлгийн өнгө ялгаран, үзэсгэлэн бүрдээд, түүний дээр залуу охин хормойг цэмцийтэл, гуяыг мөлчийлгөн ороогоод, хөндлөн суужээ.*

(Түдэв.Л, 1981)

- b. *remote-LOC territory-NOM*
 c. *territory in remote ... → loose within an empty space / faraway place*

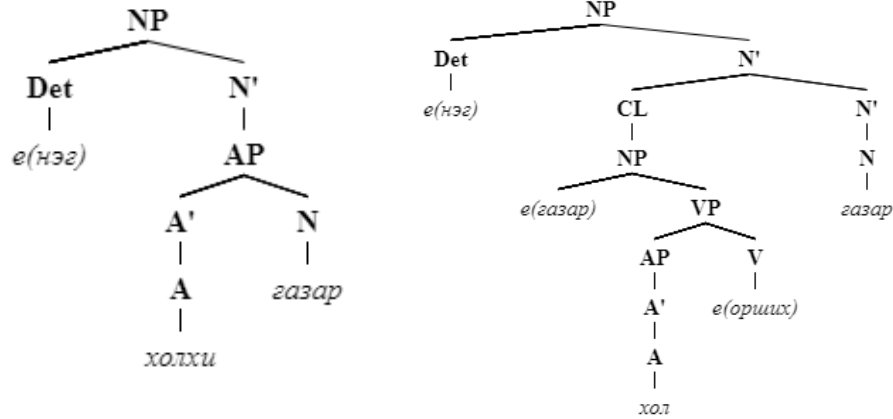
Холхи газар is an example of the equivalent in Mongolian language in which

d. § E-structure

§§ I-structure

the meaning of *холхи* refers to the distance between nearby and distant territory. So, it falls within the category of closeness in the sense that anything is dealt roughly using a generalized approximation that does not precisely define the dimensions. The Mongolian language dictionary defines *холхи* as “anything loose within an empty space”¹. Furthermore, the color of the faraway horse will stand out, ensuring that the meaning corresponds to the *холхи*. But there is an alternative explanation, according to Tserenpil, the element *-хи* alters the relation of the syntagma. In other words, the *хол байдаг, хол орших* (*lit.trans in Eng. being far away*) can be explained by the fact that its verb (*байдаг, орших*) is omitted (12d§§) and becomes the element *-хи* of the E-structure (12d§) because the verb *хол байдаг* is converted into a noun *холхи*. (Tserenpil. D, 1990)

¹ A great dictionary of Mongolian language. Source: <https://mongoltoli.mn/dictionary/detail/109753>



Aspect

The examples in the sense of abstracting and comparing something to another phenomenon fall into this category.

13. a. *I did not think of following him, my feet seemed rooted to the sandy path and I saw him through a mist of tears as he appeared to melt through the door, which closed behind him* (Source 296: BNC, Written miscellaneous, Benn, June)

In (13a), *a mist of tears* expresses varied meanings depending on where the head word of the phrase lies. Check this using the "0" principle.

1. *I saw him through a mist of tears ...*
2. *I saw him through a mist ...*
3. *I saw him through tears*

Example (c) states, *I saw him through the fog*, yet he actually saw through the tear, as in (d). In particular, example (b) clearly shows that it was seen through *cloudy tears*. As a result, N₁ of expression (13a) turns into *a mist*, and N₂ into *tears*. A mist acts as a modifier for *tears*. If phrase (13a) is translated as an ordinary noun phrase, it becomes: *I saw him through the mist of tears*. However, in the midst of the *misty tears*, it is theoretically compatible.

An example of such abstraction, as mentioned above, can be attributed to *үлгэр домог* which means *a Mongolian myth* due to its metaphorical abstraction.

14. a. *Болд хүн болсоор ийм юм үзсэнгүй тул үнэхээр нүд халтирч сэтгэл сэржигнэн, зүүд зэрэглээ, үлгэр домог мэт болж гайхна.* (Д.Нацагдорж “Үзэгдээгүй юм”)
1. *mythical-GEN tale-NOM*
 2. *a mythical tale → a myth like the tale → a myth of the tale*

The abstract concept is symbolically conveyed through the meaning *unbelievable* as *үлгэр домог* (*mythical tale*), similar to *a fairy tale* (*үлгэр*). As a result, it is often regarded as a metaphorical abstraction. In Mongolian, nouns with no case markers such as *myth* and *tale* reflect the concepts of empty and word of mouth. If we consider the context, *домог* (*a myth*) is a glorification, whereas *үлгэр* (*a story*) is an untruth, so the head word for this phrase is *үлгэр* (*a fairy tale*). *A myth* (*домог*) is a modifier that comes after a noun.

Time

A phenomenon being in a particular time cycle such as age, duration, etc., which

are measured by some time scale, are considered in relation to this category.

15. a. *Take a quick look at five centuries of great writing* (Source 58: *thegreatestbooks.org*)

In (15a), whether you are looking at *a great writing's five centuries* or *five centuries' great writing* is mainly determined by how you interpret the phrase *five centuries of great writing* in the context of a simple noun phrase or the BNP.

1. *Take a quick look at five centuries of great writing*
2. *Take a quick look at great writing*
3. *Take a quick look at five centuries*

According to the analysis, because we are looking at *агуу зохиол* (*a great writing*), not *таван зуун* (*five centuries*), the example (15c) is semantically closer to the original version. In this case, similar to the structural pattern that takes the preposition OF in English, the case marker of genitive is *-ын, -ийн*, which takes the head word of *зохиол* (*writing*) that is placed after it, rejecting the conclusion that the English BNP does not take case markers in Mongolian, indicating

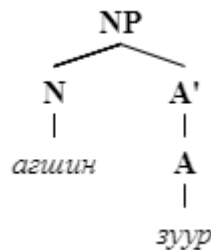
that it can be manifested in exactly the same way as English. Then it is necessary to determine the percentage of its appearance.

In the previous example, the English BNP, which uses the preposition OF, took the equivalent case markers as in Mongolian, but in the following example (16a), *агшин зуур* did not take the case markers when denoting the time dimension.

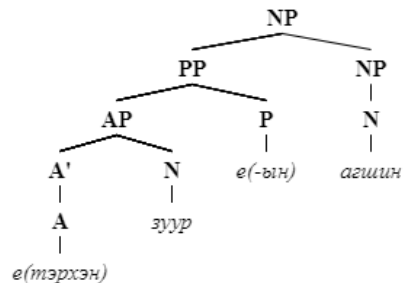
16. a. “*Оддын хотхонд монголчууд ирлээ*” гэсэн яриа *агшин зуур түгэн гарлаа*. (Түдэв.Л, 1981)
- b. *instant-DET moment-NOM*
- c. *instant moment* → *moment of the short-term*

Time relates to the category because it depicts the dimension of time, such as an instant or how long ago something occurred. The concealed expression of *түр зуурын агшин* (*short-term moment*) manifests itself without any case marker, capturing the head word of *зуур* (*moment*) as *агшин зуур түгэн гарлаа* (*momentarily spread*).

1. § E-structure



§§ I-structure



Зуур indicates the meaning of *while* which relates to expression such as *while taking a break* or *while leaving* described in

the Mongolian language dictionary¹. In that sense (16d), the noun *агшин* (Eng. *moment*) acts as a modifier and the I-structure of *тэрхэн зуурын агшин* (Eng. *short-term moment*) is summarized as *агшин зуур* and is manifested in the form of N+Adj. *Зуур* can also be understood as *in a moment*. In this case, the *while* becomes the preposition *in*, same as the unit *of*. So, it seems like expressing the meaning of *тэрхэн зуурын агшин* (lit. trans in Eng. instantaneous moment) (16d§§).

When comparing both language categories, BNP was not found in categories such as range, degree, ratio, subcategorization, and modification in Mongolian, therefore it wasn't addressed. For other categories, it has corresponded to instances from two languages.

The presence of English BNP in Mongolian is manifested as follows:

1. In the English BNP construction, the preposition OF is applied; in the Mongolian language, such differentiation was not generally revealed by the case markers. However, the time category was completely equivalent to *five centuries of great work* (15). This indicates that BNP is not fully unequivalent in the two languages.
2. In contrast, BNP in English appeared in Mongolian without any case marker, and it was primarily represented by being placed sequentially in the forms of N+Adj (6,10), Adj+N (5), and N+N (3,8,11,14,16).
3. In English, only N₂ appeared as a head word, whereas in Mongolian, either N₁ or N₂ might occur as a core meaning, with N₁ modifying N₂ and N₂ modifying N₁ like (5,6,10,12).
4. The BNP in the Mongolian language conveys meaning contextually through the I-structure, and when transformed into the E-structure, it presents a straightforward construction capable of expressing meaning clearly without the need for case markers. It performs the function of reducing complex language expressions and making the meaning clear and distinct. (3,8).
5. The idea of an adjective preceding a noun is not applicable to the BNPs. Modifiers have the flexibility to occur before or after a noun, and it has been observed that adjectives can indeed appear after nouns. (5,6,10,12).
6. In addition, two nouns can be collocated as BNP in Mongolian without a case marker. (3,8,14).
7. BNP is completely equivalent to its context, and metaphors with concealed meanings are frequently expressed without syntactic modification or suffixation. (8,12,14).
8. This phenomenon is predominantly observed in words conveying quantity like in (3,5,6) and in metaphors denoting aspects such as approximation in (12) or equivalence in (14) whether they imply something less or greater, far, or close.
9. The relationship between the head and complement word is determined by semantics, syntax, and context, and the meaning varies depending on whether one is the head or complement structure.
10. In Mongolian, BNP was recognized as a combination of two nouns without a case marker. It remains entirely consistent with its context, and metaphors with hidden meanings are often conveyed without undergoing grammatical transformation or the addition of case markers.

¹ A great dictionary of Mongolian language. Source: <https://mongoltoli.mn/dictionary/detail/49580>

Analysis

Examining the hypothesis that there is a common universal between the BNPs of the English and Mongolian languages, the statistical correlation is used, as proposed at the beginning of the study. If a relationship

exists, it is regarded as universal. For this, the following hypothesis is developed.

H₀: There is no relation between X and Y (r=0).

H₁: X and Y reflect a significant negative correlation (r < 0) or positive correlation (r > 0).

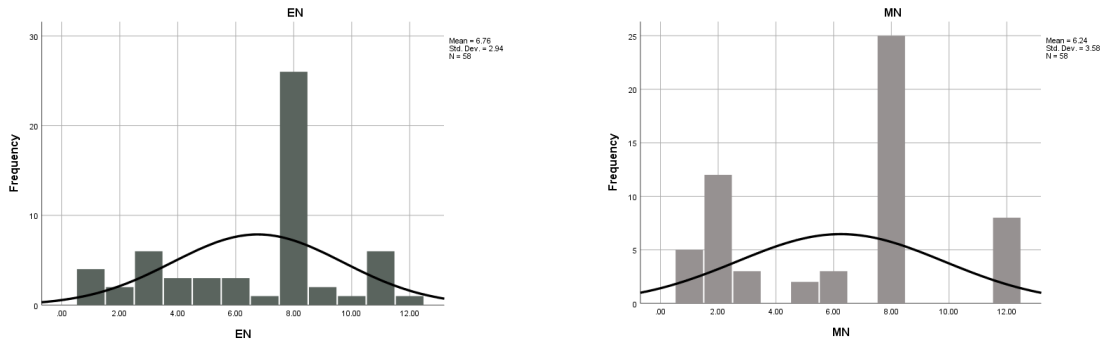
The table provides the necessary information created by the dependent and independent variable statistics.

Statistics	EN_Frequency	MGL_Frequency
Mean	6.7586	6.2414
Median	8.0000	8.0000
Mode	8.00	8.00
Skewness	-.479	-.031
Std. Error of Skewness	.314	.314

Table 2. Statistical data on the variables of English and Mongolian BNP.

1. The variables should be mode < median < mean. The English variable has a smooth, slightly negatively skewed distribution since its mean is greater than the median. (Mean-Median=6.7586-8.000=-1.242 negative)
2. In Mongolian, there is both a relatively small smoothness and a negative slight skewness. The mean is higher than the mode. mode < median < mean (Average-median=6.0784-8.000=-1.759 negative)
3. No transformation is required to approximate the shape of the normal distribution. The need for further transformation of the raw variables should be considered using Fisher's coefficient of variation.
4. The Fisher's skewness index coefficient must be $-1.96 < \text{Skewness/SES} < 1.96$ to meet the normal distribution requirement. The Fisher's index for the English language is $-0.479/0.314=-1.526$ ($-1.96 < -1.526 < 1.96$), indicating a normal distribution.
5. The Fisher's index in Mongolian language satisfies the requirements of $-0.31/0.314=-0.099$ or $-1.964 < -0.099 < 1.96$, indicating normal distribution.
6. The distributions are normal; therefore, no adjustments are required to approximate their shape.

The histograms indicate that the distribution curves are normally distributed¹.



Graph 2. The illustration of distribution of probabilities through a histogram graph.

The relation between the dependent and independent variables is provided in a table that compares the Pearson and Spearman correlation coefficients for each parameter.

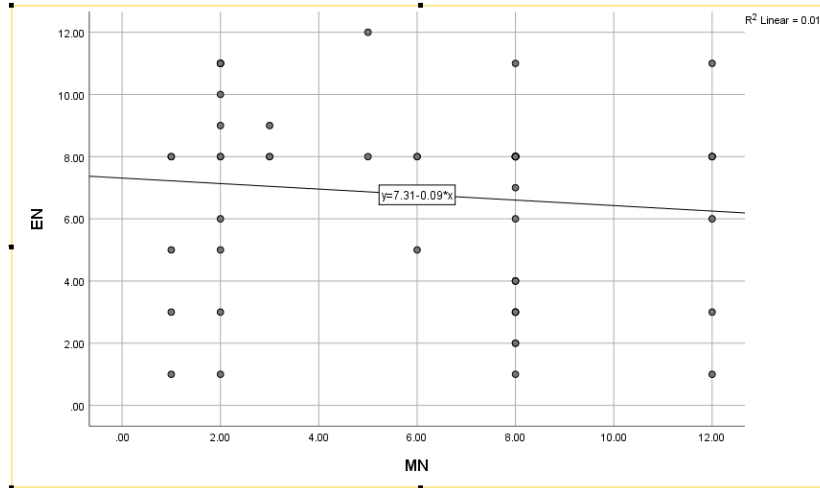
№	Correlations	LG10_EN_Frequency	LG10_MGL_Frequency
1	Pearson	1	-.108
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	-	.421
	N	58	58
2	Spearman's	1.000	-.127
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	-	.343
	N	58	58

Table 3. The depiction of relationships between variables through the calculation of Pearson and Spearman correlation coefficients.

The hypothesis H_0 (no relation between parameters) was rejected and not verified for the Mongolian language, as $R_s = -0.108$, $p < 0.01$. However, the hypothesis H_1 that there is a relationship is validated, with Spearman and Pearson confirming a very

weak negative association. If it's shown in a linear correlation graph, it reveals a minor inverse relation between English and Mongolian, indicating a lack of universalities in two languages.

¹ Because the distribution curves are not skewed and have a slightly smooth normal distribution, it was deemed unnecessary to apply logarithmic and square root adjustments to approximate the standard distribution. As a result, further research computations can be performed.



Graph 3. The representation of the relationship of English and Mongolian BNPs through a linear chart.

According to the findings, the initial hypothesis, that the preposition OF in the English BNPs would be identical in Mongolian, was denied. The correlation coefficients revealed that both the languages have very weak or almost non-existent universals. In other words, Ravdan. E stated that it was a mistake to accept the English preposition OF in Mongolian, which was supported by this study on the BNPs (Ravdan. E, 2020). The basic condition, which can be considered almost non-existent of universal, is that within the framework of the overt and covert formation of universal grammar principles, the BNPs of English is explained by the fact that the equivalence of English preposition OF in the BNP is *-bIH*, *-uIH* in Mongolian, but it is omitted in its E-structure, and it is arranged sequentially through the word collocation.

To enhance the validity of the research, additional variables should be included in the database, language sources must be broadened, and data from diverse sources should be compiled. Furthermore,

this linguistic phenomenon can be investigated by observing how it loses case markers over time as it transitions from I-structure to E-structure. Furthermore, according to J. Greenberg's principle¹ (Ravdan. E, 2020), parallel study in several languages is required (Japanese-Mongolian, Turkish-Mongolian, Chinese-Mongolian, etc.), translation from the standpoint of applied linguistics, and extensive investigation from the perspective of E-linguistics. Determining the structure, interrelation, and classification of BNP in English and Mongolian, as well as its typology, were critical cognitive steps toward understanding the nature of this exceptional language phenomenon. It was particularly significant in pioneering the use of optimal BNPs for addressing translation issues, including those involving electronic applications. The next study will conduct quantitative research to determine whether the BNP phrase has an effect on the quality of English-Mongolian translation or vice versa, what the effect is, and whether further investigation is required. In addition,

¹ According to J. Greenberg's concept, considering any phenomenon of one language as universal necessarily entails risks. Therefore, if a common language phenomenon

is established only in one or a few languages, it cannot be a common feature in many languages, but only a specific version of the phenomenon in many languages.

suggestions and conclusions will be provided on how to overcome current limitations to electronic application from a linguistic standpoint in terms of the BNP structure.

Result

In this study, the BNPs of the English language are illustrated in Mongolian and compared in the two languages. In comparison, the BNP phrase appears in English with the preposition OF, however in Mongolian, it was revealed in the form of N+N, N+Adj, and Adj+N without any case marker in I-structure except some instances. In English, it was generally expressed as a quantity, and in certain instances as a group, although in Mongolian, it also appeared as quantity and weight. Furthermore, both languages commonly used metaphorical terms.

When the categories are defined using the BNP relation as a base, 12 categories were identified in English and 7 categories in Mongolian. In terms of specs, 26 of the samples (44,8%) indicated quantity, whereas 6 (10,3%) were group. 6 or 10,3% identified subcategorization, with the remaining groups accounting for 1,7-5,1% respectively. In the Mongolian language, 25 samples (43,1%) were expressions, while 12 (20,6%) were abstraction. 8 or 13,7% indicated weight, 5 or 8,6% showed approximation, and the remaining categories ranged from 3,4-5,1%. (See Table 1).

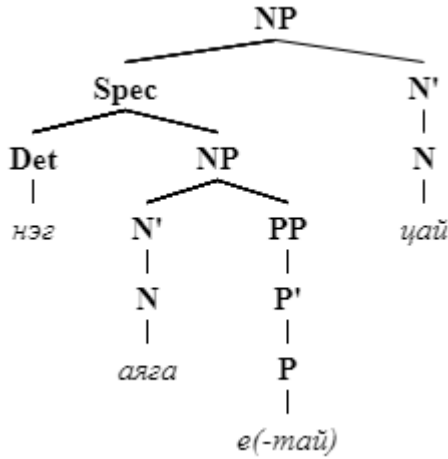
The hypothesis that there is a common similarity between the BNPs of English and Mongolian languages, proposed at the start of the research, was tested using a statistical correlation; the correlation strength was $R_s = -0.108$ by Pearson measurement (Soleman. H, 2006), and the coefficient of determination was $R_2 = (-0.108)^2 = 0.012$ or 1.2%. This implies that the correlation

between English and Mongolian is 1.2%, implying a weak relation or nearly no universal between the two languages. However, the remaining 98.8% can be determined by the influence of other factors, specifically the I-structure. In other words, the I-structure has a 98.8% chance of being universal in both languages.

In this way, the first proposal that the BNP structure of the English language is manifested by the case marker *-ын*, *-ийн* in the Mongolian language, like the preposition OF in English, is rejected, as is the hypothesis that the two languages have a common relationship or universal, which was assumed at the start of the study. However, this does not imply that the two languages have nothing in common, as evidenced by *the five centuries of excellent writing* (17) and the 1.2% weak correlations observed in the time category. It's worth noting that case markers are eliminated and rendered neutral in the transition from I-structure to E-structure.

In terms of E-structure, the BNP of English and Mongolian appear to be quite distinct, yet in terms of I-structure, BNP of the two languages are the equivalent as illustrated in the tree diagrams of the previous examples (3a), (1b). As the English preposition OF is revealed in the Mongolian language through the case marker in *e*-form (empty) or covertly, it indicates a universal presence in the I-structure between both languages.

§ I-structure



§§ I-structure

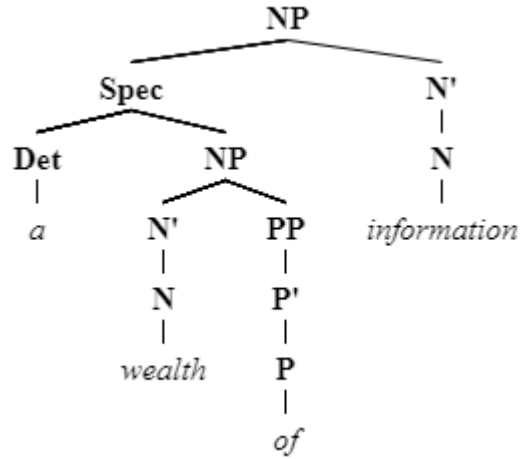


Figure §. Comparison of I-structure of BNP in English and Mongolian

Conclusion

After reviewing the research findings, the following conclusions were obtained. This includes:

- Due to the non-parallel structure of the BNP in Mongolian compared to English, the BNP phrase in Mongolian does not necessitate the use of the case markers similar to the English preposition OF, except seldom includes the genitive *-ын*, *-ийн* notably in specific cases. Thus, case markers might be omitted during the transition from I-structure to E-structure.
- BNP phrases are prevalent in both languages, illustrating through expressions of quantity, group, approximation and metaphorical abstraction. They may distinctly serve the purposes of simplifying and organizing intricate language expressions, abbreviating language, and enhancing clarity and precision in the Mongolian language.
- The BNP structures in English and Mongolian showed notable differences, with scarce universal (relatively weak) in

the E-structure when evaluating correlation strength. Thus, there is limited scope for comparison or contrast, instead, it is best to equate the two languages in I-structure.

In brief, the Mongolian manifestation of the English BNPs with the preposition OF primarily occurs without the presence of the case marker *-ын* and *-ийн*. Yet, this analysis leads to the inference that within its I-structure, a case marker exists covertly with relations marked by semantic mutuality. This relation might be expressed through metaphors, but it is somewhat diminished by the transformation of language.

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Abbreviation

- Adj – Adjective
Adv- Adverb
BNP – Binominal phrase
CL- Clause
COM-Comitative case
DET – Determiner
Freq - Frequent
GEN – Genitive case
LOC-Locative case
MP – Modifier phrase
N - Noun
NP – Noun phrase
NOM – Nominative case
Num – Number

P – Preposition
QUAN-Quantifier

Examining Collocations in English Textbooks: A Corpus Study

Odtsetseg Yadamsuren¹ and Tsengelmaa Tserendorj²

Abstract: The present study analyzed collocations in a series of six English textbooks, used in public secondary schools in Mongolia from 5th-10th grades, addressing the distribution of total collocations, their repetition, and proportion of congruent and non-congruent collocations within and across the textbooks. Analysis of 335 different types of verb-noun collocations found in the textbook corpus of 35,685 running words showed (1) a fairly consistent increase in number of different types of collocations across the six textbooks, with an introduction of 60-70% of new collocations at different grades, (2) an insufficient repetition of collocations within and across the textbooks, with 85-90% of collocations occurred only one-to-two times in each textbook and 70% of all collocations occurred only once in one of the six textbooks, and (3) a 6:1 ratio of congruent and non-congruent collocations across the textbooks, suggesting that the collocations in the textbooks might be relatively simple to be learned implicitly from the readings and produced if the students know the meaning of the constituents. Implications for learning/teaching collocations and materials designing are discussed.

Keywords: collocations, textbooks, corpus analysis

Over the last two decades, collocations have received increasing attention among vocabulary researchers. Part of this is due to their ubiquity in language; as Nation (2001, p. 318) stated, “language knowledge itself is collocation knowledge.” Furthermore, from a pedagogical point of view, collocation knowledge enables second language (L2) learners to process language fluently under real-time conditions and to achieve more native-like proficiency (Ellis, Simpson-Vlach, & Maynard, 2008; Webb & Kagimoto, 2009).

However, the large amount of collocation knowledge to learn means that it

is nearly impossible for language teachers to teach enough collocations explicitly in the classroom, and mastering collocations presents a substantial challenge for L2 learners. This has motivated researchers to look closer into the development of collocation knowledge. A core factor that has been found to influence collocation knowledge development is the presence of collocations in learners’ input.

In EFL contexts, textbooks are generally the main source of L2 input (Choi & Chon, 2012; Tsai, 2015; Wray, 1999) with teachers following at least 75% of the contents of textbooks (Hsu, 2004) and with

students spending as much as 90-95% of class time interacting with their textbooks (Young & Reigeluth 1988, cited in Roohani, 2011). Among the handful studies of collocations in EFL textbooks, Gitsaki (1999), Wang and Good (2007), and Tsai (2015) investigated implicit learning of collocations or repetition of collocations in textbooks, and unanimously agreed that EFL textbooks do not provide sufficient input and lack sufficient repetition for learners to consolidate their collocation knowledge.

However, studies of collocations in EFL textbooks have, to date, been restricted to comparisons of different textbooks or different series of textbooks at the same level (e.g., Choi & Chon, 2012; Koya, 2004; Wang & Good, 2007), leaving us with little information about how, as level or grade increases, EFL textbooks systematically expand learners' collocation knowledge. The current study, therefore, analyzes collocations in a series of six English textbooks, used in all public secondary schools in Mongolia from 5th-10th grades, addressing the distribution of total collocations, their repetition, and proportion of congruent and non-congruent collocations within and across the textbooks.

Defining Collocations

Though collocations have been studied for decades, different researchers have defined them differently, with no single definition of what a collocation is. Early researchers (e.g., Firth, 1957; Palmer, 1933, cited in Nation, 2001) defined collocations simply as a string of words that need to be

learned as a whole, rather than as individual words. Further research built on this definition by adding frequency of occurrence as a criterion, and collocations began to be understood as words that co-occur relatively frequently in natural text (Benson, 1990; Shin, 2007).

Definitions of collocations have, at times, overlapped with other similar constructs. Some researchers have seen collocations as a type of multiword lexical unit, similar to idioms and fixed phrases (Boers, Eyckmans, Kappel, Stengers, & Demecheleer, 2006; Wray, 2002). Nation (2001) regarded collocations as an umbrella term that included idioms and fixed phrases. These unclear borderlines were investigated by Nesselhauf (2003). In an investigation of verb-noun combinations (e.g., *take a picture/photograph*), Nesselhauf defined collocations as separate from idioms and fixed phrases by applying the notion of restrictedness. Nesselhauf defined collocations as a combination where the noun is unrestricted (e.g., *take* can collocate with either *picture* or *photograph*) while the verb is restricted (*picture/photograph* can only collocate with *take*). This differentiates collocations from free combinations, in which the noun and verb are both unrestricted (e.g., *want a car*) and idioms whose components are fixed and all restricted (e.g., *kick the bucket*).

Importance of Collocations in L2 Learning

It is widely acknowledged that multiword lexical units, especially collocations, are essential to vocabulary

knowledge development (e.g. Nesselhauf, 2003; Siyanova & Schmitt, 2008; Tsai, 2015). Part of this is due to their prevalence; Erman and Warren (2000) suggest that multiword lexical units make up as much as one half of any discourse, while Hill (2000, 2003) suggests that that as much as 80% of written texts is collocations. These support Nation's (2001, p.318) point that "language knowledge is collocation knowledge."

In addition, collocation knowledge is important for L2 learners because it enables them to process language more fluently under real-time conditions and attain more native-like proficiency by utilizing fixed patterns or ready-made chunks, when necessary, instead of recalling word meanings individually and combining them unskillfully (López-Jiménez, 2013; McKeown & Radev, 2010, cited in Roohani, 2011; Webb & Kagimoto, 2009).

Collocation Knowledge Development

Three core factors have been found to have significant impact on L2 collocation knowledge development: 1) amount of input and repetition; 2) L2 learners' proficiency level; and 3) learners' L1.

Amount of input/repetition and L2 collocation knowledge development

Because there are numerous collocations that L2 learners need to learn, already know the meanings of the constituents of a particular collocation (Wang & Good, 2007).

yet classroom hours for explicit teaching of collocations are extremely limited, many researchers consider collocation knowledge development to rely on implicit learning, provided that there is enough L2 input (Durrant & Schmitt, 2010). Therefore, to facilitate implicit learning of collocations, sufficient repetition of collocations in the input is a key to collocation learning.

Hoey (1991, 2005) suggests that collocation knowledge is acquired incrementally, meaning that L2 learners store each new single lexical entry they encounter along with its surrounding words, and each new encounter with a word would either create a new collocation or reinforce and modify an old one. Many researchers claim that incidental learning of meaning of a salient single word requires a high number of repetitions ranging from 6-16 times (e.g., Crothers & Suppers, 1967; Kachroo, 1962; Webb, 2007). Lewis (1997) proposes that L2 learners' perception of multiword lexical units is similar to perception of single word items, and thus one can assume that a learner must encounter a collocation at least six times to learn it implicitly (see Durrant & Schmitt, 2010 for research that found advantages of repetition for collocation learning). However, collocations may present additional challenges as single word learning and collocation learning might require different numbers of encounters depending on how conscious learners are of the environment the collocation occurs in and whether learners

L2 proficiency and collocation knowledge development

Collocation knowledge development is a slow and uneven process (Laufer & Waldman, 2011). A number of studies have found a consistent increase in collocation use from beginner through advanced learners' language production (e.g., Bonk, 2001; Gitsaki, 1999; Gyllstad, 2007; Pei, 2008), suggesting linear collocation knowledge development. However, Laufer and Waldman (2011) found that the number of collocations produced at basic and intermediate proficiency levels was roughly beginner level. Hill (2000), on the other hand, claims that intermediate level is more appropriate for collocation teaching/learning as learners possess an adequate pool of single words, and at advanced level, priority should be placed on collocation learning as learners read extensively. Together, these studies suggest that besides the amount of input L2 learners receive, their language level may play an important role in their collocation knowledge development.

L1 influence and collocation knowledge development

Studies often show that even advanced learners often produce a high number of non-native-like combinations (Bahns & Eldaw, 1993; Laufer & Waldman, 2011; Nesselhauf, 2003). The majority of the errors are caused by congruence of collocations; that is the production of correct or acceptable collocations is vastly affected by congruence of learner's L1 and L2 (Nesselhauf, 2003). Nesselhauf (2003) examined the influence of congruence of L1 and L2 in order to gain better insight into L1-related errors by applying a strict definition

equal, and increased only at advanced level. The fact that even advanced learners have difficulty with collocations (Koya, 2004; Nesselhauf, 2003) leads researchers to question the appropriate level at which to introduce collocations. Given that lack of collocation knowledge is one thing that makes non-native language different from natives, Castillo Carballo (2001) and Higuera (2007, cited in López-Jiménez, 2013) argue for an early introduction of collocations at

of congruence. Under her definition, only combinations that sounded natural in both English and German and were rendered word for word were regarded as congruent, while combinations that do not have direct word-by-word translation were regarded as non-congruent. Nesselhauf found that learners were four times less likely to produce correct collocations in English if the collocations are not expressed in the exactly the same way as in their L1 (i.e., non-congruent) (see also Peters, 2016 for similar results).

Similar advantages of congruent collocations were found by Yamashita and Jiang (2010), who investigated L1 influence on collocation development among both second (SL) and foreign language (FL) learners using an acceptability judgment task, finding distinct advantages in reaction times and error rates for congruent collocations. This finding was further supported by Wolter and Gyllstad (2011) who found that congruent collocations were processed faster than non-congruent collocations using priming tasks and a receptive test of collocation knowledge. Together, these results suggest that in addition to the amount of L2 exposure and L2 learners' proficiency

level, congruence of collocations affects collocation use and knowledge development.

Collocations in EFL textbooks

Although single word vocabulary in language textbooks has been investigated extensively, there is comparatively little research examining collocations (Choi & Chon, 2012; Roohani, 2011; Tsai, 2015). Two main findings from the previous studies are a lack of collocations and frequency mismatch, and lack of sufficient repetitions of collocations in textbooks.

Lack of collocations and frequency mismatch

Koya (2004) examined verb-noun collocations in revised versions of four Japanese tenth grade English textbooks. Using collocation dictionaries, Koya identified 120 target collocations with the verbs and nouns in the revised textbooks as nodes. She then compared the results to the previously-used English textbooks in terms of type, presentation, and number of collocations. Only 44 out of the 120 collocations were found in the revised textbooks, the number of collocations in each textbook was very low, and very few

Lack of sufficient repetition of collocations

Tsai (2015) investigated verb-noun collocations in three popular EFL series in Taiwan, each with six textbooks, against a purpose-built collocation list of over 43,000 verb-noun collocations, nodes of which were

collocations were common among the textbooks. Comparison of collocations in both the revised and previous textbooks revealed a slight increase in number of different collocations, but a decrease in total number of collocations. Some collocations were found to have very low frequency, which suggests that the new textbooks failed to incorporate high-frequency collocations.

Choi and Chon (2012) extracted over 800 high frequency lexical collocations using the 41 most frequent content words from 16 tenth grade English textbooks in Taiwan and compared the top 50 high-frequency collocations to the 2k Graded Corpus (Cobb, n.d.) for their frequency. Many of the collocations which were high frequency in the textbooks were found to be low frequency in the corpus. Results from Moon's (2009) study are also in line with the above results, where noticeable differences were found in the frequency of the collocations in reading passages of EFL textbooks when compared to the British National Corpus in terms of frequency and naturalness of the collocations. These studies collectively suggest that not only are collocations inadequately presented in EFL textbooks but also that the collocations that are presented may be either not commonly used by native speakers or may not exist in English at all. extracted from a single-word list prescribed by the national secondary school curriculum. The collocations in the textbooks were examined for density, diversity, and repetition. The results showed not only that there was an inadequate number of collocations, but also there was a small range of patterns of collocations presented in the textbooks. It was also revealed that the

collocations did not recur enough to consolidate learners' collocation knowledge, with over 90% of the collocations being repeated fewer than five times throughout the three series. Molavi et al. (2014) also found similar results in their study of three series of general English textbooks. Over 50% of the collocations occurred only once and 30-40% were repeated between two to five times throughout the series. A more fine-grained analysis of repetition of collocations in textbooks was further carried out by Wang and Good (2007), who looked closely at repetition of each of 994 verb-noun collocations found in three series of English textbooks, with six volumes each, from high schools in Taiwan. No significant difference in number of collocations was found among the series and each different type of collocation was used fewer than twice per lesson, fewer than three times per volume, and fewer than five times throughout the whole series. These studies together suggest that EFL textbooks generally provide insufficient recycling for L2 learners to strengthen their collocation knowledge.

Although the findings from the previous research on collocations in textbooks have provided some insights, they have been restricted to comparisons between different textbooks at the same level or entire textbook series without differentiating by level (e.g., Choi & Chon, 2012; Wang & Good, 2007). Examining collocations across different textbooks at the same level is insufficient because collocation knowledge development is incremental, and thus factors such as how much collocation input, how many new collocations, and how often those collocations are repeated in the textbooks

used in earlier grades can have a major impact on shaping the textbook used in later grades. To date, however, no studies have analyzed how, as level or grade increases, EFL textbooks systematically expand learners' collocation knowledge. To address this gap, the current study investigated collocations in a series of English textbooks used in Mongolian public secondary schools over the period of six years of English instruction. The following research questions were posed:

1. Is there a consistent increase in the number of collocations across the textbooks? If yes, how many new collocations are introduced from one textbook to another?
2. How often are the collocations recycled within and across the textbooks?
3. What is the proportion of congruent and non-congruent collocations across the textbooks?

Textbook Corpus

The present study draws its data from a series of textbooks used for EFL classes in Mongolia. The textbook series has six textbooks and each textbook is mandatory for 5th-10th grades (one book per year) in public secondary schools. The textbooks were written by Mongolian teachers of English under the guidelines from the Ministry of Education of Mongolia. Each textbook consists of a student book and a workbook; however, due to the varied degree of use of workbooks across teachers and classrooms, the current study focused only on student

books. As the primary focus of the current study was on the availability of collocations for implicit learning, the analysis focused on readings in the textbooks (see also Moon, 2009; Wang & Good, 2007). Each textbook was checked page by page for selection of readings, which were scanned, converted to text using optical character recognition (OCR) software, and checked manually for errors in OCR conversion. Six sub-corpora were created with the readings for each textbook. The textbook corpus contained 35,685 running words in total.

Procedure and Data Analysis

The current study defined collocations according to Laufer and Waldman (2011) and Schmitt and Carter (2004) taking frequency, restrictedness, and characteristics of different multiword lexical units into consideration. Collocations are considered one type of multiword lexical unit, occurring relatively frequently, and using two-three words. They differ from free combinations in that one of the constituent words in the collocation is restricted, and differ from idioms in that collocations have a relatively transparent meaning compared to idioms, whose meaning is more opaque. As L2 learners find lexical collocations more problematic than grammatical collocations (Bahns & Eldaw, 1993; Gitsaki, 1999) and experience greater difficulties with verb-noun collocations than any other types (Nesselhauf, 2003; Yamashita & Jiang,

2010), the current study focused on verb-noun collocations in the textbooks.

To extract nouns as nodes, all the readings in the textbook corpus were first tagged by their parts of speech with TagAnt software (Anthony, 2015). The list was then saved and all nouns were extracted. Taking into account the current textbook corpus size and the previous research (e.g., Choi & Chon, 2012), a cut-off frequency of four was applied. As a result, there were a total of 509 nouns that occurred four or more times. These were used as nodes.

Verb collocates of each of the 509 nouns were then searched for in AntConc with a span of the preceding three words on the left. Both singular and plural forms of the nouns were included as long as each occurred more than four times separately. For example, both *problem* and *problems* were searched separately because when the noun *problem* was searched, verbs *have* and *solve* were found to be collocates, but the collocate *cause* could have slipped through unless the noun *problems* was checked separately.

Following Laufer and Waldman (2011), Nesselhauf (2005), and Siyanova and Schmitt (2008) we applied a bottom-up approach to identifying collocations, which involves first identifying the target combinations in the texts and then verifying collocability using collocation dictionaries or large corpora¹. In the present study, the verb-noun combinations identified in the textbook corpus were checked against the Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Learners of English (2009; CD-ROM version). This

¹ This is in contrast to “the top-down approach of compiling a prescribed list of statistically-verified collocations and then searching the target texts for

the occurrences of these collocations” (Tsai, 2015, p.726).

dictionary was specifically chosen as it contains restricted collocations excluding idioms and free combinations, and because it was used in a number of previous studies (e.g., Choi & Chon, 2012; Koya, 2004; Molavi et al., 2014; Roohani, 2011; Shimizu, 2015; Wang & Good, 2007). Only those combinations found in the collocation dictionary were regarded as collocations.

A total of 335 different verb-noun collocation types were identified from a total of 180 noun headwords. Although it is difficult to estimate how many collocations are sufficient, the total number of verb-noun collocations found in this corpus is similar to some previous studies, such as Wang and Good (2007) who identified approximately 330 verb-noun collocations in each of three textbook series.

In the present study, the following were calculated: the total number of collocations in each textbook, the number of occurrences of each collocation in each textbook, the number of new collocations introduced in each textbook, and the number of textbooks that each collocation appeared in. Each of the 180 noun headwords was checked in the concordancer AntConc to locate which of the 335 collocations appeared in which

textbooks. We then calculated the types (total number of different collocations) and the tokens (total occurrences of collocations, including repetitions) in each textbook. The number of new collocations introduced in each textbook was determined by locating the textbook in which a particular collocation appeared for the first time. For example, the collocation *make a friend* appeared once in textbook 3 and five times in textbook 4, so the collocation was counted as new in textbook 3 because that was the textbook in which it occurred first. The frequency range of the collocations in each textbook and their repetition across the textbooks were also calculated.

Translation of the 335 collocations was compared across L1 (Mongolian) and L2 (English) in order to find the proportion of congruent and non-congruent collocations across the textbooks. Collocations that have literal translations or could be translated word by word from English into Mongolian or vice versa (e.g. *wash hands* - *rapaa yraax* [hands wash]) were counted as congruent whereas collocations in which either one or both constituents have different semantic meaning from L1 to L2 or vice versa (e.g., *clap hands* - *алга таших* [palms clap]) were regarded as non-congruent.

Results and Discussion

Research question 1: Is there a consistent increase in number of collocation types across the textbooks? If yes, how many new collocations are introduced from one textbook to another?

To answer this question, we examined the total number of collocation types (different collocations) in each textbook, and how many appeared for the first time in each textbook (see Table 1).

Table 1
Distribution of Collocations across Textbooks

	Textbook number					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Total Types	36	54	81	117	93	113
New Types	36	33	57	76	61	62
New (%)	(100%)	61%	70%	65%	65%	55%

Textbooks 1 and 2 had fewer collocations (36 and 54, respectively) than the rest of the textbooks, while textbook 4 had the highest number of different collocations (117), followed by textbook 6 (113). Even though the series does not show a linear increase from textbook 1 through textbook 6, there appears to be a fairly consistent increase across the textbooks. This increase is not due to the total number of pages of each textbook as each has 125 pages. However, this gradual increase could be attributed to an increase in length of the readings across the textbooks; when the potential number of collocations per 100 words in the readings was calculated, textbooks 1 and 2 were estimated to have around 20-30 collocations while the number peaked at nearly 80 collocations in textbooks 4 and 5 with a slight decrease to 75 collocations in textbook 6.

In terms of the introduction of new collocations across the textbooks, Table 1 shows that 60-70% of the different types of

collocations found in each textbook are new, leaving little room for recycling previously encountered ones. The decrease in new collocations in textbook 6 may be natural as the earlier textbooks have a higher potential to include new collocations, leaving fewer available to repeat. The high number of new collocations introduced in each textbook, on one hand, yields a positive picture where one can assume that L2 learners are indeed provided with opportunity to expand their collocation knowledge; yet on the other hand, it could indicate insufficient repetition of the collocations.

Research question 2: How often are the collocations recycled within and across the textbooks?

With this question, we examined the frequency of occurrence/repetition of the 335 verb-noun collocations within and across the textbooks. Types, tokens, and mean frequency of occurrence of the collocations are shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Types, Tokens, and Mean Frequency per Type

	Textbook number					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Types	36	54	81	117	93	113
Tokens	54	76	111	171	131	170
Mean Freq.	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.5

The mean frequency per type in each textbook is quite consistent across all textbooks. Since the mean can be influenced by outliers and does not show us variability, the frequency range of the collocations in each textbook is summarized in Table 3.

Table 3
Frequency Range of the Collocations within Textbooks

Frequency	Textbook number					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	26 (72.2%)	39 (72.2%)	62 (76.5%)	83 (71%)	71 (76.3%)	84 (74.3%)
2	5 (13.9%)	12 (22.2%)	12 (14.8%)	21 (18%)	15 (16.1%)	17 (15%)
3	3 (8.3%)		3 (3.7%)	7 (6%)	5 (5.4%)	7 (6.2%)
4	1 (2.8%)	2 (3.7%)	4 (5%)	5 (4.2%)		2 (1.8%)
5	1 (2.8%)	1 (1.9%)		1 (0.8%)	1 (1.1%)	
6						1 (0.9%)
8						1 (0.9%)
9						1 (0.9%)
10					1 (1.1%)	

Note: Frequency indicates the number of times a collocation occurred. Numbers under each textbook indicate the number of collocations that occurred once, twice, etc. in each textbook. Percentages indicate the proportion of collocations in each textbook that occurred once, twice, etc.

We see that in textbook 1, 72% of the collocations in that textbook occurred only once, about 14% were repeated twice, 8% were repeated 3 times, and about 6% were repeated 4-5 times. This finding for textbook

1 is again consistent and robust for the other five textbooks with over 70% of the collocations occurring only once, 13-22% repeated twice, 3-8% repeated three times, and about 5% repeated 4-5 times. The fact

that 85-90% of the 335 verb-noun collocations were repeated 1-2 times throughout the series suggests that there is inadequate recycling of collocations in the textbooks. The few collocations that were

Table 4

Repetition of Collocations across the Textbooks

	1 TB	2 TBs	3 TBs	4 TBs	5 TBs	6 TBs
Types	230	73	19	7	3	3
Percent of total (335)	68.8%	21.8%	5.7%	2.1%	0.9%	0.9%

Note: The "1 TB" column shows the number of collocations that appeared in any one textbook, "2 TBs" indicates the number that appeared in any two textbooks, etc.

Table 4 shows that the students using this series will meet nearly 70% of the 335 total collocations in only one of the textbooks, about 22% in two textbooks, less than 6% in three textbooks, and less than 1% in all six textbooks over the period of their six years of English instruction.

The distribution of repetition within and across the textbooks in this study is in line with results from other studies. Tsai (2015) found that in all three series examined, over 90% of the collocations occurred fewer than five times and that around 60% of the collocation types were not recycled at all. Wang and Good's (2007) study also yielded similar results where around 40% of the collocations occurred just once, close to 50% occurred two to five times, and 20% occurred more than six times. A similar picture can be drawn from Molavi et al.'s (2014) study in which 54-65% of the collocations found in the textbooks occurred only once. On the surface, all these studies seem to have produced similar results, though a closer look into the findings of the current

found to be repeated more (ranging 6-10 times) in textbooks 5 and 6 were the result of the instructional language - (*read the text, read the letter, and so on*).

study revealed that the repetition of the collocations in this particular series was much less than the above studies; in this study, collocations occurring either once or twice accounted for 85-90% of the total collocations, while in other studies, there was a larger proportion of collocations that occurred three, four, or five times.

A body of empirical evidence suggests that a learner needs to encounter collocations from 5 to 16 times to learn them (Durrant & Schmitt, 2010; Peters, 2014; Webb, Newton, & Chang, 2013). However, the number of encounters of the collocations in this series is quite a bit less than this. These results clearly indicate that the textbooks do not offer sufficient recycling of collocations and the issue of recycling does not seem to have been taken into account in the textbook design.

The potential lack of collocations and insufficient repetition in this series could be closely related to two factors. First, collocation studies are relatively young compared to other areas of SLA including

single word learning, and commercial textbook writers started only a decade ago to address lexical chunks in language textbooks by incorporating vocabulary exercises or activities revolving around the chunks (Hsu, 2006). So, a decade ago when these textbooks were being developed, the textbook writers might have not yet been aware of collocations and thus may not have paid much attention to the collocations in these textbooks. Second, the content of this series is driven by cultural aspects. A great number of reading passages of these textbooks are culturally specific about customs, traditions, history, and people of Mongolia. These readings were written by the textbook writers themselves, Mongolian teachers of English, instead of texts written

by native English speakers that were adapted. A result of this might be a lack of collocations, as suggested by Roohani (2011), who found that the number of collocations was less in English textbooks written by non-native speakers than that by native speakers.

Research question 3: What is the proportion of congruent and non-congruent collocations?

As it has become clear that the textbooks do not recycle collocations adequately, we also wanted to see to what extent learning of the collocations by Mongolian learners of English may be facilitated by congruence with collocations in L1, as such congruence affects learnability.

Table 5
Proportion of Congruent and Non-Congruent Collocations

Congruent	Non-congruent
86%	14%

Table 5 shows that 86% of the collocations in the textbooks are congruent, meaning that they have a direct literal translation from English into Mongolian or vice versa. The remaining 14% of the collocations are non-congruent, meaning that they cannot be translated word-for-word between L1 and L2 because either one or both the constituent words of the collocations are semantically different from one language to another. For instance, *open eyes-НҮДЭЭ НЭЭХ* [eyes open] and *make clothes-ХУВЦАС ХИЙХ* [clothes make], were congruent collocations that the Mongolian learners can likely understand or create by translating each word from one language into another. However, non-congruent collocations such as *clap*

hands-алга тaших [palms clap] and *give concerts - концерт тоглох* [concert perform/play in] are likely to be more challenging for learners because one of the constituents in the collocations has a different meaning in the L1 and L2.

Thus, this finding indicates, on one hand, that although learners may receive inadequate exposure to collocations through these textbooks, they may be likely to learn some of the collocations implicitly from the readings or be able to produce appropriate collocations to some extent if they have good vocabulary knowledge of single words. On the other hand, however, greater exposure to non-congruent collocations would provide greater opportunity for teaching and learning

of collocations that students would not be able to learn and produce with little or no exposure. That is, as a material for facilitating students' learning, it may be useful for textbooks to more systematically target collocations that are non-congruent and would thus require greater attention.

Conclusions and Implication

This study investigated the prevalence of collocations within and across a series of six EFL textbooks used in public schools in Mongolia. The distribution of the 335 verb-noun collocations across the textbooks shows that the number of collocations increased consistently from one textbook to another. The 5th graders at an absolute beginner level of English are exposed to 36 different types of verb-noun collocations in textbook 1, and by the time they get to the 10th grade with textbook 6, they are exposed to around 110 verb-noun collocations. Among the total of 335 verb-noun collocations, 60-70% were newly introduced at different grades. Ideally, if these collocations in the textbooks are often recycled, there is the potential for increasing collocation knowledge development over time for the learners.

However, it is difficult to expect the learners to know these collocations as their level increases since the frequency range within and across the textbooks indicated that most (85-90%) of the collocations occurred only once or twice in each textbook, and approximately 70% of all collocations occurred only once in one of the six textbooks. Furthermore, each textbook is used for an entire academic year, making it

even harder for learners to learn and retain the collocations in the long run.

To complement this deficiency, the teachers using these textbooks need to provide supplemental materials and/or enrich the content of the textbooks investigated by modifying, adding, or expanding the exercises or activities in the textbooks to target the collocations in reading texts and to put them into practical use. If the teachers are unable to assist the learning beyond the textbooks due to their heavy workload, at least the workbooks should be regularly used in parallel with the student books to increase the possibility of repetition and strengthen the learners' collocation knowledge. At a broader level, there should be a list of single words and a corresponding list of collocations that students should learn upon the completion of secondary school, such as the one in Taiwan used by Tsai (2015), and if possible with an outline of the distribution of the vocabulary appropriate for each grade. This way the Ministry of Education of Mongolia would be able to maintain a national standard that requires future standard textbooks to include the vocabulary with repeated exposure.

Of the total 335 verb-noun collocations, 86% were congruent collocations suggesting that they might be relatively simple to be learned and produced if the students know the meanings of the constituents. However, the students should not be left on their own hoping they will pick them up gradually as there is just not enough recycling in these textbooks to make the collocations more salient. Although many of these collocations do not necessarily need to be taught explicitly, the teachers could shift

their vocabulary teaching from individual words to collocations and make sure they have students practice words beyond just form and meaning. On the other hand, teachers need to employ contrastive and explicit instruction for non-congruent collocations to prevent potential L1-related errors and fossilization in the future. It should be relatively easy for teachers to determine the non-congruent collocations in the textbooks and explain them in class if they share the same L1 with the students.

Limitations

The current study has a number of limitations. First, the corpus of this study is large enough for the scope of this study, but future studies could investigate larger corpora, potentially including sections of the textbooks beyond the readings. Second, although the results of this study largely

corroborate other studies, the corpus was limited to textbooks used in Mongolia and may not be generalizable to other contexts. Future research could compare textbook series from multiple countries. Third, using the three words preceding the target node for identification of verb collocates may have limited the total number of collocations identified, as a larger word span could contribute more collocations to the total number of collocations found. Fourth, like many other studies, the current study is restricted to one particular pattern of collocation - verb-noun. Investigation of a variety of collocation patterns might depict a different picture. Lastly, this study investigated only affordances offered by texts for collocation learning; further studies should investigate students' actual collocation learning to see whether it does or does not reflect the findings of the textbook analysis.

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The Typological Study of the Category of Number - in Russian and Mongolian Languages

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Abstract: The number is one of the most common classifications of nouns that identifies whether the noun refers to singular or plural and the languages of the world serve with diverse grammatical nuances and linguistic peculiarities. Among those, Russian and Mongolian stand as representatives of their respective language families Indo-European and Altaic, each bearing distinct grammatical features. As we started the exploration of the categories of numbers in Russian and Mongolian nouns, we studied the structures that shape how these languages express quantity/ numbering and plurality. While both languages share certain fundamental features, they also show unique characteristics that illustrate the richness and complexity of their linguistic peculiarities. This comparative analysis seeks to unravel the threads of similarities and differences and find ways of conceptualizing and articulating numerical distinctions within their nouns in both Russian and Mongolian languages.

Keywords: noun; the category of noun, number, the category of number, similarity, difference

Every language is characterized by internal features that make it particular. Moreover, it has been noticed that each language is composed of various and unique elements that are divided in several ways. One category of these elements is the whole combination of forming the category of the number of nouns when we communicate. Obviously, the study of linguistic structures and grammatical systems always tells us how

much our languages are similar or different from each other. The number is one of the most common classifications of nouns that identifies whether the noun refers to singular or plural. As mentioned before, the languages of the world serve with diverse grammatical nuances and linguistic peculiarities. Among those, Russian and Mongolian stand as representatives of their respective language families Indo-European and Altaic, each

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bearing distinct grammatical features. As we started the exploration of the categories of numbers in Russian and Mongolian nouns, we studied the structures that shape how these languages express quantity/ numbering and plurality. While both languages share certain fundamental features, they also show unique characteristics that illustrate the richness and complexity of their linguistic peculiarities. This comparative analysis seeks to unravel the threads of similarities and differences and find ways of conceptualizing and articulating numerical distinctions within their nouns in both Russian and Mongolian languages. Through this investigation, we aim to deepen our understanding of the general similarities and diversities that are employed in the grammatical categories of these two remarkable languages. Russian and Mongolian language learners and linguists can benefit from recognizing these features to gain a deeper appreciation for the rich diversities that are present in the grammatical expressions of Russian and Mongolian nouns and building grammatically correct sentences in their speech.

The contrastive study of how to express and explain the category of nouns in languages has long been one of the traditional topics of linguistics and researchers who study languages, particularly the languages that belong to the Indio-European language family groups. The category of numbers in certain languages or the contrastive study of the number category of nouns has been investigated in theses and books like “Russian Language” by Vinogradov.V.V (1972), “Some specific features of category quantity/number” by Turayev. Z.Ya (1985), “Grammatical category of numbers in

Mongolian language” by Rinchin. B (1973), “Referring to the number system of the Mongolian language “by Byambasan. P (1975), “Number of nouns in the modern Mongolian language” by Dashtsedent.T (1980), “Morphology of modern Mongolian language” by Unurbayan.Ts (1998; 2004). We have used these textbooks as the main literature sources, and other sources such as bilingual dictionaries that provide translations, usage examples, and grammatical information for both Russian and Mongolian, online grammar resources.

In this thesis, we employed the analytical, synthetic and contrastive approaches to study grammar rules, analyze sentence structures, and understand the logic behind language patterns of numbering to highlight similarities and differences. By combining these study materials and methods, we have found the nuances of categories of numbers in Russian and Mongolian nouns. According to our study, both the Mongolian and Russian languages exhibit distinct features in expressing plurality across various parts of speech, and while they share some similarities, there are notable differences in their grammatical structures. These are as follows:

Though certain nouns follow specific rules for forming plural forms, involving changes in suffixes or root replacements, in both languages singular and plural forms are indicated through numerals and specific suffixes. In the Russian language, some nouns are used exclusively in either the singular or plural. Nouns have singular and plural forms, often characterized by different endings based on gender and specific rules govern the formation of plural forms,

including changes in suffixes or root modifications. In the Mongolian language, adjectives do not necessarily agree with nouns in terms of number. The focus is more on the use of adjectives to describe qualities rather than indicating singular or plural forms. On the contrary, adjectives in Russian agree with nouns in both number and gender and suffixes in adjectives indicate whether they are in the singular or plural form. Both in the Mongolian and Russian languages, personal pronouns have distinct forms for singular and plural forms and the reflexive or indefinite pronouns do not have a number distinction. Numerals play a crucial role in indicating quantity and plurality in the Mongolian and Russian languages. Ordinal numbers may have singular or plural forms based on the objects they define; conversely, cardinal numbers typically do not express plurality. Some specific words that are used as nouns like "thousand" and "million." can express plurality. In the Mongolian language generally verbs show plural forms to match the subject's number except the verbs expressed through suffixes like – “цгаа”, particularly in the context of verb demands. Moreover, some verbs already have the meaning of plurality in their roots (without the help of suffixes). Meanwhile, verbs in Russian have singular and plural forms, strictly adjusting to the subject's number and the formation of future and past tense verbs involves changes in personal endings. In both languages, understanding the rules for expressing singular and plural forms is crucial for effective communication. While Mongolian relies on numerals, specific suffixes, and unique structures, Russian employs a system of gender-based noun

endings, adjective agreements, and distinct verb forms. Each language has its own set of rules contributing to the precision and richness of expression regarding quantity and plurality. Learners can benefit from recognizing these unique features within the broader context of each language's grammar and usage.

Different languages may have distinct rules for forming plurals, and some languages may not distinguish singular and plural forms.

Various linguists, researchers, and language scholars such as *Kumakhov.M.A* "Number and grammar" (Кумахов), *Turayeva.Z.* "Some features of the number category" (Тураева, Некоторые особенности категории количества, 1985) ,etc have contributed to the understanding of singular and plural nouns and presented their principles in slightly varied ways, but their fundamental concepts are widely recognized and agreed upon in the field of linguistics. According to *Turayeva.Z.* (Тураева, Некоторые особенности категории количества, 1985) attribute-quantity is a measure of the intensity of an objective or process quality. Subject-quantity is expressed by nouns, process-quantity - by verbs, attribute-quantity - by adjectives and adverbs. From this notion, it is clear that, when we are discussing the category of numbers in a particular language, there is no need to concentrate only on nouns as the other parts of speech serve to express singularity and plurality. Researcher Vinogradov. V.V. considered the plural number "a strong form of number" because it always tends to be isolated from the form of a single number. In most cases, lexicalization of forms occurs during the formation of plural number and the new word

pluralia tantum (for example, *мощь государства - святые мощи; корни - 'корни ;(power of state - holy powers)* (Виноградов, Русский язык, 1972. .) From the above-mentioned definition, the terms *singulare tantum* and *pluralia tantum* should be explained for later use.

As described in the Oxford English Dictionary of grammar, “The term for a noun that appears only in the singular form is *singulare tantum* (plural: *singularia tantum*), such as the English words: information, dust, and wealth. A word having only a singular form; esp. a non-count noun.” (<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/>)“A *plurale tantum* (Latin for 'plural only'; pl. *pluralia tantum*) is a noun that appears only in the plural form and does not have a singular variant for referring to a single object. In a less strict usage of the term, it can also refer to nouns whose singular form is rarely used”. (<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/>)

Singularity and plurality are inconsistent grammatical features of parts of speech in the Russian language and many words belonging to different parts of speech can have such a variable grammatical feature as the number. Interestingly, the grammatical categories of singular and plural are expressed by not only nouns, but also adjectives, pronouns, numerals, and verbs.

ягод- десять ягод – (жимс- арван жимс-berry - ten berries;)

дерево- пять деревьев- (мод- таван мод -tree - five trees;)

лист- много листьев –(навч-олон навч Leaf- many leaves;)

стол-несколько столов- (ширээ- хэд хэдэн ширээ -table - several tables.)

Number of Noun: If there is only one object, the noun that names it appears in the singular form. Depending on their gender, the singular forms of nouns have different endings:

masculine - стол

feminine- ягода

Neutral- озеро

Moreover, these above-mentioned items can be modified by words “один”, “одна”, “одно” (нэг- one) and express a more intensified meaning of singularity.

один стол – (нэг ширээ- one table)

одна ягода - (нэг жимс-one berry)

одно озеро – (нэг нуур one lake)

The singular number is a grammatical category that refers to one item or object and if we are talking about several or many more, these same words can be used in the plural form by changing their endings:

юноша – юноши (залуу –залуучууд junior – juniors)

ягода- ягоды (жимс жимснүүд berry berry)

озеро-озёра (нуур нуурууд lake – lakes)

поле-поля - (тариан талбай field – fields)

Masculine and feminine gender nouns in the nominative plural form get endings *-ы/-и*, and neutral nouns - *а/я*. The grammatical category of number in Russian is expressed by the plural endings or suffixes. On the contrary, some vary in employing other forms and rules to express the plurality, in other words, there are some exceptions for singularity and plurality.

1. A number of words are used only in the singular:

Счастье –(аз

жаргал –

happiness)

Зелень-
(салатны ногоо
– greenery)

2. Some nouns only have a grammatical plural form

брюки –(өмд-trousers)
каникулы- (амралт – holidays)
хлопоты – (асуудал- troubles)

Number of adjectives: If an adjective describes characteristics of a singular noun, a particular adjective must have a singular ending to agree with the certain noun in the different gender.

грустный взгляд – (гунигтай харц- *sad look*) синий карандаш –(хөх харандаа- *blue pencil*)(masculine);
грустная песня –(гунигтай дуу -*sad song*) синяя блузка (хөх/ цэнхэр цамц - *blue blouse*) (feminine);

грустное сообщение- (гунигт мэдээ - *sad message*) синее озеро (хөх нуур- *blue lake* (neutral gender).

If an adjective describes several objects, it takes on a plural form the ending to agree with the nouns that are modifying.

грустный глаза – гунигтай харц (нууд)- *sad eyes*;
грустные песни гунигтай дуунууд -*sad songs*;
грустные сообщения- гунигт мэдээнүүд - *sad messages*)
синие карандаши –(хөх харандаанууд- *blue pencils*)
синие блузки – (хөх цамцнууд - *blue blouses*)
синие озёра – (хөх нуурууд -*blue lakes*)

number gender	Singular	Plural
Masculine	спелый плод -ripe fruit высокий потолок -high ceiling	спелые плоды -ripe fruits высокие потолки -high ceilings
Feminine	газовая плита -gas stove синяя блузка -blue blouse	газовые плиты -gas stoves синие блузки -blue blouses
Neutral	короткое расстояние -short distance летнее платье -summer dress	короткие расстояния -short distance летние платья -summer dresses

The suffixes are employed to make the difference in singular and plural.

дуб могуч - дубы могучи (хүчирхэг царс
мод - хүчирхэг царс модод- *mighty oak*
- *mighty oaks*)
гора высока - горы высоки (өндөр уул-
өндөр уулс- *the high mountain – the high mountains*)
поле широкое, поле широкое (өргөн
тал- өргөн талууд- *wide field - wide fields*)

Number of pronouns: As pronouns refer to a person, animal, place or thing and replace them, category of number is present to the pronouns too. If a pronoun indicates an object or person, such pronouns can replace nouns and their number. The personal pronouns “я-би- I”, “ты-чи-you”, “он- тэр эрэгтэй he”, “она-тэр эмэгтэй-she”, “оно-тэр-it” have the singular form in first, second and third person, and the pronouns “мы-бид-we”, “вы-та нар-you”, “они- тэд- they” have a plural meaning. The reflexive pronoun

“себя- өөрөө-oneself” does not express a number. The indefinite pronouns such as “кто-хэн-who”, “что-юу-what”, “кто-то- хэн нэгэн- someone”, “что-то- ямар нэгэн-something”, “никто- хэнч биш-nobody”, “ничто- юу ч биш-nothing”, “кто-то/кто-либо- хэн нэгэн/хэн ч байсан-someone”, “что-либо – юу ч байсан something”, “кто-либо- хэн нэгэн-anyone”, “что-либо- аль нэгэн -anything” can indicate grammatical forms of the singular. Pronouns indicating the attribute of an object have singular and plural forms, like adjectives:

какой, какая, какое какие (аль нь- which)

некоторый, некоторая, некоторое - некоторые (зарим нь- some)

этот эта, это эти (энэ-this-these)

ничей, ничья, ничьё ничьи (хэний ч- no one's)

Number of numerals: When the ordinal number defines one subject, it is in the singular form, conversely, if it modifies plural objects the numerals are in the plural form.

первый звонок – (анхны дуудлага- first call)

первая строка, (тхний мөр -first line)

первое сообщение (эхний мэдээ-first message)

первые подснежники (анхны яргуй-first snowdrops)

Ordinal numbers change by gender, number and case, like adjectives. For cardinal numerals, which show a specific number of objects, this category is absent, except for the words “тысяча – нэг мянга-thousand”, “миллион – сая- million”, “миллиард-тэрбум -billion”, “триллион- их наяд -

trillion” etc. *тысяча страниц – мянган хуудас -a thousand pages*

тысячи глаз –мянган нүд-a thousand of eyes

миллион способов – түмэн арга- million ways

миллионы людей – түмэн хүн- millions of people

миллиард рублей –тэр бум рубль-billion rubles

миллиарды лет- тэр бум жил -billions of years

Number of verbs: Verbs have singular and plural grammatical forms. If an action has been performed, is being performed or will be performed by one subject, the verb is in the singular form.

телефон звонит – утас дуугарч байна- phone calls

телефон звонил- утас дуугарсан- phone rang

телефон будет звонить- утас дуугарна -the phone will ring.

If the action is performed by many of the same subjects, the verb takes a plural form:

телефоны звонили -утаснууд дуугарч байсан-the phones were ringing,

телефоны будут звонить-утаснууд дуугарна- phones will ring.

This is the future tense in singular forms of the verb “to say”

Я скажу-би хэлнэ- I will say

ты скажешь –чи хэлнэ-You'll say

он скажет- тэр хэлнэ-he will say

Plural forms are expressed with the help of suffixes expressing plurality.

мы скажем – бид хэлнэ-we will say

вы скажете – та нар хэлнэ-you say

они скажут they -тэд хэлнэ- will say.

In the past tense, the verb changes according to gender and number:

он сказал- тэр(эр) хэлсэн -he said
она сказала- тэр(эм)хэлсэн-she said,
оно сказало – тэр(саармаг) хэлсэн -it said
они сказали- тэд хэлсэн- they said

From the above-shown classification, the Russian language exhibits the grammatical feature of numbers in various parts of speech, including nouns, adjectives, pronouns, numerals, and verbs. The categories of singular and plural play a significant role in indicating whether there is one or more than one object or subject. Singular and plural forms exist in nouns, and they are characterized by different endings or suffixes based on gender. Some nouns are used only in the singular or only in the plural. Certain nouns have specific rules for forming plural forms, including changes in suffixes or root replacements. Adjectives agree with nouns in number and gender and the suffixes in adjectives indicate whether they are in the singular or plural form. Personal pronouns have distinct forms for singular and plural. Reflexive and indefinite pronouns do not have a number distinction. Ordinal numbers may have singular or plural forms based on the objects they define. Cardinal numerals typically lack a number category, except for certain words like "thousand" and "million." Verbs have singular and plural forms to match the subject's number. The formation of future tense and past tense verbs involves changes in personal endings.

Understanding the singular and plural forms across different parts of speech is crucial for proper use of Russian. The rules for each category provide a framework for expressing

quantity and specifying whether there is one or more of a particular thing.

Expressing the singularity and plurality in Mongolian language can be slightly different from the other languages particularly those from the Indo-European language family group such as Russian. Most scholars believe that the nouns in the Mongolian language are in the singular and plural forms. A few others explain that there is no category of singularity or plurality, but rather generic and plural forms. Moreover, they (scholars) debate whether the suffixes that form plural construction are grammatical suffixes or just inflections that change the form. However, the category of numbers in the Mongolian language has not been fully studied, compared to that of Russian, some scientists studied and kept the results in their books. These are as follows: B. Rinchen, "Mongolian grammatical category of Number ", P. Byambasan, "On the number system of the Mongolian language", B. Chuluundorj, "Categories of numbers in Russian Mongolian languages, Dashtsedn, Number of Modern Mongolian Nouns", Ts Onerbayan "the morphology of Modern Mongolian language, D. Tserenpil "Mongolian Grammar ".Below, we are listing their definitions of singularity and plurality of the contemporary Mongolian language.

According to scholar T. Dashtsedn, "Number is the contrast between one thing to another, and from this, there will be a clear distinction between general and specific numbers, singular, binary, and plural. When there is no preposition indicating how plural the noun is, it has a general meaning (number), if it is preceded by markers

expressing singularity and plurality, or if it takes a plural suffix, it has a specific number.” (Т.Дашцэдэн, 1980)

Professor P. Byambasan noted, "Mongolian language has a number category based on general and specific, singularity and non-singularity contrasts, of which general singular and plural are grammatical categories that can be detected by the grammar units" (Бямбасан.П, 1975)

Professor Ts. Onorbayan: "Mongolian nouns are mostly used in general numbers, and if there is a need to specify their number, the number expressing words must be employed.

The nouns of the Mongolian language have the category of numbers that is based on the general singular and plural contrast and there is no definite morpheme to detect general singularity. It can be detected only in the case it is contrasted to the morphemes indicating general plurality (Өнөрбаян.Ц, 1998, 2004) Generally, the category of numbers in the Mongolian language works as follows:

1. singular and plural forms of nouns-numerals

НЭГ ХОНЬ- ОЛОН ХОНЬ (одна овца – много овечек, one sheep - many sheep)

2. Suffix indicating multiple meanings –ууд, -үүд, -чууд, –чуул, -чүүл, -д, -с, нар, –ынхан, –ыхан

3. Some suffixes of the verb express plural meaning -цгаа4- (verb demand)

4. Pronouns indicate singular and plural meaning.- би(я- I)-бид(мы-we), тэр(он(а))-he/she)-тэд(они-they)

5. Repetition shows the meaning of the crowd. - айл айлын (от разных семей - from different families)

6. Quantitative Words – сүрэг (стадо - herd), амга (горстка -handful), багу, боодол (упаковка -package), etc.

From this classification, we can conclude that except the use of plural suffixes, singular and plural forms of nouns, as modified by the numerals, quantitative words and other adverbs that have the meaning of plurality, play a crucial role in indicating quantity in the Mongolian language. Moreover, plural meanings in verbs are conveyed through suffixes like -цгаа, -лц, along with the verbs that have the meaning of plurality, express quantity, emphasizing precision in describing numerical aspects. Pronouns, distinctly indicate singular and plural meanings. The concept of a crowd or multitude is conveyed through repetition, as seen in "айл айлын" (from different families), showcasing the importance of context and collective representation.

Both the singular forms in the Russian and Mongolian languages indicate the singularity of objects: For example: ложка- халбага-spoon, стол-ширээ- table, машина- машинсар...

For the meaning of plurality in the Russian language, certain inflections are employed. - а -я. -ья стулья -chairs -и, -ы forks- вилки, велосипеды- bicycles-. –е граждане. As can be seen from the examples, plural forms express an indefinite number of homogeneous objects. Russian forms of the singular, in addition to the singularity of objects, can sometimes be completely free from any relation to quantity. Along with the category of number, in the Russian language there is a category of collectiveness; sometimes having nothing to do with quantity. For example: молоко- сүү-milk,

масло - цөцгийн тос -butter etc. One of the peculiarities that Russian plurals differ from Mongolian counterparts is that their stresses often move from one syllable to another. In other words, the sign of the plural form of nouns is the movement of stress and alternation of consonants:

гри́б — гриба́; мөөг- мөөгнүүд;
mushroom - mushrooms;

друг — друзья; найз- найзууд ;friend - friends;

звено — звенья; холбоос - холбоосууд;
link - links.

Nouns used in singular and plural forms in both languages, referring to countable objects and persons or phenomena, can be coupled with numerals. For example: *один ученик - one student- нэг сурагч, два ученика- two students- хоёр сурагч, двадцать учеников- twenty students - хорин сурагч, сто учеников -one hundred students- нэг зуун сурагч.* In Russian forms, there is some contradiction between the lexical concept of plurality and its grammatical form: for example, when they say, three students, four students, etc., they mean a plurality of persons. However, the word student is used in the genitive case, singular. It is even more difficult in the Mongolian language: *арван сурагч (десять учеников -ten students), хорин сурагч (двадцать учеников – twenty students), зуун сурагч (сто учеников- a hundred students), etc.* in all cases, the word “сурагч” is in the singular form of the nominative case. The Mongolian language has the rule that if nouns are determined by quantitative words indicating plurality, they, as a rule, remain in the singular form.

In the Russian language, in the form of only the singular number Singulans

tantum, real, abstract, collective words and most proper nouns can be used: *кофе, цемент, лён, масло, сахар, нефть* (*,кофе, цемент, маалинга, цөцгийн тос, элсэн чихэр, газрын тос; coffee, cement, flax, butter, sugar, oil; Ленинград- Leningrad*)

According to Vinogradov. V.V., “...category of number and structure of nouns, like all other categories in this parts of speech, represents a complex subject-meaning node, in which various grammatical, lexical and semantic features of nouns are intertwined ...” That is why exceptions are often observed when using plural or singular forms in the Russian language. Thus, for example, individual abstract nouns can sometimes take on a plural form in the case of a concretization in other words, if these nouns are modified with the qualifying phrases that distinguish them from other certain types of nouns: For example, *седина — красота седины, бег — интенсивность бега; буурал үс - буурал үсний гоо үзэсгэлэн, гүйх - гүйлтийн эрч хүч; gray hair - the beauty of gray hair, running - the intensity of running,*

1. In addition, in the Russian language, some nouns are used only in the plural form. These are called “pluralia tantum” as we mentioned above paired items that consist of two parts: *ножницы, лыжи, двери, перчатки, линзы; хайч, цана, хаалга, бээлий, линз; scissors, skis, doors, gloves, lenses;*
2. material nouns: *отруби, чернила, сливки, духи;- хивэг, бэх, тос, үнэртэй ус;- bran, ink, cream, perfume;*

3. time periods: *выходные, каникулы, сутки; амралтын өдрүүд, амралтын өдрүүд; weekends, holidays, days;*
4. collective nouns: *деньги, финансы, дебри; мөнгө, санхүү, зэрлэг; money, finance, wilds;*
5. names of games: *шашки, догонялки, прятки; даам, уралдах, нуугдаж тоглох; checkers, catch-up, hide and seek;*
6. names of actions and abstract nouns: *выборы, хлопоты, именины; сонгууль, гэрийн ажил, нэрийн өдрүүд; elections, troubles, name days;*
7. some proper names: *Уральские горы, Карпаты, Афины; Уралын нуруу, Карпат, Афин; Ural Mountains, Carpathians, Athens;*

These types of nouns can be used in the Mongolian language in both singular and plural forms. In some cases in the Russian language, different plural forms are formed from the same word in the singular, differentiating the meanings: *from цвет-color – цветы (flowers/ цэцэгнүүд). цвета (colors/ өнгөнүүд) from bread (baked) (bread/ талх) and хлеба (in the field) – (corn /үр тариа).*

It should be noted that in the Russian language, the use of plural and singular forms is more clearly highlighted than in Mongolian. “*За пятилетие будет произведено сверх плана значительное количество автомобилей, дизелей, стали, проката, минеральных удобрений, товаров широкого потребления.*”- (“*Таван жилийн хугацаанд ихээхэн хэмжээний автомашин, дизель хөдөлгүүр,*

ган, цувьсан бүтээгдэхүүн, эрдэс бордоо, өргөн хэрэглээний барааг төлөвлөгөөнөөс давуулан үйлдвэрлэнэ” – “*Over the five-year period, a significant number of cars, diesel engines, steel, rolled products, mineral fertilizers, and consumer goods will be produced above the plan.*” (From the newspaper). Here is the mixture of plural and singular forms of nouns that can be accurately explained according to the point of view of grammatical norms of the modern Russian literary language. The use of forms of plurality and singularity is difficult to motivate when collectiveness is meant. For example, “*Повышена урожайность сельскохозяйственных культур и продуктивность скота и птицы*”- (“*Газар тариалангийн ургац, мал, шувууны ашиг шим нэмэгдсэн*”-“*The productivity of crops and the productivity of livestock and poultry have increased.*”) All these words would be translated into the Mongolian language only in the singular form. In specific contexts, in names, and phraseological units, the use of nouns in various forms cannot be explained by modern regular logical-grammatical and numerical patterns. Thus, the forms like *день учителя- багш нарын баярын өдөр*-teacher's day is presented as frozen, lexicalized and only used in singular form. Moreover, in the Russian language, people normally say “*Я это видала своим глазом/ not глазами - "Би үүнийг өөрийн нүдээр харсан*” - “*I saw it with my own eye*” (not with my eyes) - and in Mongolian it is expressed only in the singular form. However, in Russian it is often found phrases like *глазам не верить, etc., (and not with “глазами*”). It seems to us that in such situations, the specific noun “eye” is used in

a more abstract meaning, and specifically in the meaning of visual perception (vision). In the Mongolian language, for the meaning of plurality, another word “хоёр”- (two) can be added to the words нүд- глаз-eye”, чих-ухо-ear, giving an intensifying connotation. For example, Би хоёр нүдээрээ харсан- Я видел своими глазами (literally: I saw it with my own eye"- or (I saw it with my own/two eyes). Combinations of two nouns in the genitive case such as история болезни- medical history-өвчний түүх, which have long been a stumbling block for adherents of the culture of Russian speech, are extremely interesting. In fact, what is the best way to form the plural of such combinations: в десяти историях болезни or в десяти историях болезней? арван өвчний түүхэнд or арван өвчний түүхүүдэд -ten medical histories or in ten medical history. Here we are talking not so much about a grammatical rule but about the logical meaning. In the Mongolian language, grammatical forms of plurality are not very productive. In it, the concept of singularity and plurality is expressed contextually, that is, it reveals itself depending on a particular speech situation. The idea of collectiveness is expressed, for example, by the singular form: For instance, the sentence “Ууланд адуу бэлчиж явна.” (“Лошади пасутся в горах” “Horses are grazing in the mountains”) is, obviously, translated (literally) as “A horse is grazing on the mountain”. As can be seen from the example, the word “адуу” horse is in the singular form. However, this word is used in a collective meaning, normally converted into the Russian language by the plural form "лошади – horses- адуу " or a таун лошадей -herd of horses- адуун

сүрэг. Formally, the grammatical form of the singular адуу - лошадь-horse in conversation, does not cause ambiguity, since in the understanding of the Mongols one horse or one sheep cannot graze. For one more example, Доржынх өнөөдөр хонь гаргана. -Семья Доржы сегодня зарежет барана.- Dorj's family will slaughter a ram today. Again, everything becomes clear thanks to the situation: after all, in a family, usually only one ram is slaughtered at a time. Therefore, verbs are of great importance in such combinations in the Mongolian language. Very often in the singular form in the Mongolian language, we find a certain idea of collectiveness. Some researchers believe that there is no category of grammatical numbers in the Mongolian language. There is no doubt that in the modern Mongolian language, the form of plurality is not productive and rarely used. It can also be noted that in the Russian language, there is a fundamental possibility of using the singular form in a collective and generalized meaning, but it is limited stylistically.

Compare: *торгово-производственное-разведение **рыбы**, выведение тонкорунной **овцы**, народно-бытовое – **корове** на этих лугах, привольно газетно-патетическое – **зритель** восторженно принял зарубежных артистов* etc. However, as a general rule, one should consider a word combination like *общежитие **студентов**, перечень **книг*** etc., which are sequentially translated into Mongolian, *оюутны байр, номын жагсаалт*, etc. In the Mongolian language, nouns referring to paired organs and body parts, as a rule, do not have plural

forms. Moreover, nouns expressing general plurality do not necessarily take plural suffixes. In other words, these words already have the meaning of plurality in their meanings. Some Mongolian verbs can fall into this category. For example, жагсаал – (demonstration) цуваа (range, array)

In the modern Mongolian language, the use of plural forms is carried out in two main ways:

A). With the help of various suffixes –чууд, -чүүд, -д, -с, -нууд, -нүүд, -ууд, үүд.

Монголчууд-Монголы- Mongolians - Mongolian, эрэгтэйчүүд-мужчины-men, малчид-скотоводы- herdsmen, залуус-молодые- youngster, нуурууд-озёра- lakes, өрөөнүүд-комнаты-rooms.

Such inflections are very typical for the Russian language and sometimes for English.

table - стол (singular) ширээ

tables - столы (plural) – ширээнүүд

B) The concept of plurality can be expressed syntactically by additional components (numerals) that clarify the noun or by repetition of the noun itself.

For example, *Дөрвөн туурайнаас нь гал гарна-Искры летели из-под (четырёх) копыт- Sparks flew from under the (four) hooves.*

In this case, the meaning of plurality is given by adding the word “дөрөв – four”.

Moreover, the word туурай – hooves becomes singular. Дорж номын дэлгүүрээс

олон ном авав. - Дорж купил много книг в книжном магазине.- Dorj bought a lot of books from the bookstore. Plurality here is expressed by the word олон- много- many. But the noun Ном (книга- book) is also used in the singular. Уул уулын толгойд далбаа босгожээ -На горах были позведены флаги -Flags were erected in the mountains. The meaning on mountains/на горах in Mongolian is expressed by reduplication from -уул уулын. In many cases, numerals, depending on the context, take on completely opposite meanings. For example, in phrases like Нэг өвгөн эмгэн хоёр амьдарч байжээ" (Жили старик да старуха) " (Once upon a time there lived an old man and an old woman, the word нэг (один, одна, одни-one), according to the observation of scholar Ринчин.Б, is used in the meaning of the indefinite article." We noticed other meanings: Уулаар нэг хонь; Талаар нэг адуу. In these phrases, the word “нэг” is used in the sense of plurality, i.e. this does not mean that there is only one “ram in the mountains, and one horse in the steppe”, etc., Opposite, the mountains are covered with a flock of sheep, the steppe is sown with a herd of horses, etc. (Ринчен.Б, 1973, 74-77 х) Therefore, the author thinks that in the Mongolian language, there is a very unique category of plurality, used at different levels of the language (more precisely, morphological and syntactic), which needs a detailed study.

Table shows the formations of the category of numbers in targeted languages

No	Russian language	Mongolian language
1	The category of numerals is present (active)	The category of numerals is present
2	The category of numerals agree with pronouns and nouns that the refer to (active)	Some suffixes to express plurality
3	Adjectives agree with nouns in number and gender. The suffixes in adjectives indicate whether they are in the singular or plural form	Adjectives totally do not agree with nouns in number.
4	Pronoun expresses the numbers	Pronoun express the numerals
5	Repetition of words to express plurality is nearly absent	Repetition of words can express plurality айл айлын хүн, хүн хүний
6	Quantitative words refer to numbers.	Quantitative words refer to numbers
7	The verb inflection(endings) and suffixes can express plurality	Only a few verb suffixes express plurality - <i>лц-цгаа</i> ⁴

Conclusion

Russian and Mongolian, distinct languages from different language families (Russian is Indo-European, while Mongolian is Mongolic), share some similarities in how they express grammatical numbers, especially in their nominal systems. Here are some commonalities in the categories of numbers in Russian and Mongolian nouns:

Both Russian and Mongolian have a basic distinction between singular and plural forms. Nouns can take different forms to indicate whether they refer to one item or multiple items. The nouns often agree with numerals in terms of grammatical numbers. The form of the noun changes to match the number indicated by the numeral. This agreement is observed in pronouns. In Russian, plural forms of nouns are associated with specific case endings, and in Mongolian, plural forms can be formed with the help of various suffixes. Both languages have nouns with irregular plural forms that do not follow the standard pattern of adding a suffix. These irregularities may involve changes in the stem or other modifications. Historically,

both Russian and Mongolian had a dual number to represent pairs of items. While the dual number is no longer productive in modern Russian, some remnants of the dual can still be observed in certain pronouns. In Mongolian, the dual number is retained for specific words. In Russian, verbs change their form to match the grammatical number of the subject noun. In Mongolian, verbs do not show agreement with the number of the subject.

Despite these similarities, it is crucial to note that Russian and Mongolian are distinct languages with unique grammatical structures. While they share some features, the specifics of how number is expressed, the presence of irregularities can differ significantly between the two languages. While Russian and Mongolian share some similarities in the categories of numbers for nouns, they also exhibit notable differences. Here are some key distinctions between the categories of numbers in Russian and Mongolian nouns: Russian has a grammatical gender system with three genders: masculine, feminine, and neuter. The grammatical gender of a noun affects its form in the

singular and plural. Mongolian, on the other hand, does not have a concrete grammatical gender system that affects plurality. Russian has a complex category of cases of nouns with six grammatical cases: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, instrumental, and prepositional. The grammatical number of a noun affects its form in each case. In Mongolian, while it has a case system, does not have the same number of cases as Russian, and the use of number cases is generally simpler or nearly absent.

The formation of plural forms differs between Russian and Mongolian. In Russian, plural forms are typically created by adding suffixes to the noun. In Mongolian, plural forms can involve vowel changes, consonant changes, or other modifications to the stem or noun.

Mongolian exhibits vowel harmony, a phonology where vowels within a word harmonize or agree in terms of features such

as masculine or feminine vowel. This can influence the formation of plural forms in Mongolian. In Russian, adjectives agree with nouns in gender, number, and case. The form of the adjective changes to match these features. Mongolian also exhibits adjective agreement, but the agreement pattern may differ from Russian.

As the Russian and Mongolian languages have different word order patterns in the sentence, the way verbs agree with the number of the subject can vary. In Russian, verbs change their form to match the grammatical number of the subject noun versus in Mongolian

These differences highlight the distinct grammatical structures of Russian and Mongolian. Language learners and linguists should consider these variations to better understand how numbers are expressed in nouns within each language.

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EFL Students' Self-Efficacy and Self-Regulated Learning Strategies among Grade Levels

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Abstract: The study looks at the aspects of student-centered strategies that students thought were most beneficial. We pay particular attention to the self-efficacy and self-regulated learning strategies (SRL) of EFL college students, as these strategies help students advance in their English as a foreign language acquisition. The predominant technique used in English classrooms in Mongolia is still teacher-centered, meaning that teachers provide teaching to students in the foreign language. Students are discouraged from concentrating on their content knowledge and learning methodologies. The purpose of this study is to investigate whether there are significant differences in the scores of self-efficacy and SRL strategies among students according to their grade levels. The one-way ANOVA with post-hoc tests was used to determine the difference values between grades of EFL college students. Based on the highlighted components of this research, the results show that students who are motivated to learn English are more likely to govern their self-learning process and control their efforts. The results are particularly significant since they point to a clear improvement in English instruction at the higher education level in Mongolia.

Keywords: self-efficacy, self-regulated learning strategies, EFL, speaking skill

In this study, students who are learning English as a foreign language in Mongolia will have their English-speaking self-efficacy and English-speaking SRL techniques examined. The study is a component of the doctoral dissertation of the author. There are several obstacles that students face when learning English, particularly when speaking the language. Thus, one of the most important issues in the subject of EFL is how to help Mongolian students learn to speak English better. Mongolian students frequently

struggle with both the academic and EFL processes. It will be brief and concentrate on speaking, which is one of the useful abilities.

Self-efficacy

Perceived self-efficacy, according to Bandura (1997), is the belief in one's own abilities to achieve particular levels of performance. Self-efficacy can be defined as a measure of how far one can extend one's ability to carry out the required tasks under given circumstances. According to Bong and

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Clark (1999), self-efficacy is a mental assessment based on a set of requirements that individuals must fulfill. Students can set their own goals and use their cognitive talents to self-organize, self-reflect, and self-regulate in response to changes in the learning tasks, according to social cognitive theory. In order to control their behavior, students must be proactive in their own growth and aware of their own potential. This perspective on human agency relies heavily on self-efficacy and self-regulation (Pajares, 2008, Zimmerman, 2002). According to Kruger and Dunning (1999), those who lack expertise could be duped into believing they are more knowledgeable than they actually are, leading them to believe they are superior. People who believe in their own abilities are dedicated to reaching their objectives. People who have poor self-efficacy beliefs struggle and don't work hard enough to accomplish their goals (Eggen & Kauchak, 2013).

Self-efficacy affects a person's motivation, feelings, and behaviors, which makes it important for learning (Bandura, 1993). Most learners of English as a second language look for opportunities outside of the classroom to hone their speaking abilities in particular and their general language proficiency in general (Alotumi, 2021). According to earlier research, beliefs elements influencing the performance of EFL speaking could be structurally modeled (Kim, 2012). The role of self-efficacy and the input usage process of learners are crucial in the process of learning a foreign language (Putra & Saukah, 2020). Speaking, listening, reading, and writing are conveyed in four fundamental language abilities with the goal of helping learners get better at them.

According to Thornbury (2005), speaking, which is a necessary ability for daily living, is by far the most difficult skill for those learning a foreign language. Speaking is an ability that entails conversing with others and exchanging viewpoints. In order to accomplish this, pupils must be able to speak in a way that is acceptable for both the other person and the circumstance they are in (Lindsay & Knight, 2006).

Self-regulated learning strategies

Oxford (1990) separated learning methods into six subcategories, including cognitive, memory, and compensatory techniques that were directly related to the process of learning a language. These two primary divisions of learning strategies are called indirect and direct. It involves the storage and retrieval of new information, the application of various strategies to make up for knowledge gaps, functional practice in a realistic environment, and formal practice with language structure systems and sounds. The latter three, metacognitive, affective, and social, are indirect techniques that go beyond cognitive strategies in terms of planning, organizing, assessing, and managing an individual's learning as well as their emotions, attitudes, and motives for learning a target language. Four key presumptions for SRL strategies were put forth by Pintrich (2004): (a) learners actively construct meaning, set goals, and select strategies; (b) learners have the capacity to direct the course of their learning; (c) the strategies are goal-oriented rather than random; and (d) the strategies mediate the relationship between performance achievement and contextual and personal characteristics.

Self-regulation is a strategy used by people to increase their metacognitive understanding of certain aspects of cognitive and behavioral functioning and to concentrate on learning. Research conducted in 1981 by Carver and Scheier revealed that self-monitored information is processed cyclically through a self-oriented feedback loop. While operant researchers have characterized these changes as behavioral or environmental, humanistic scholars have defined this feedback loop in terms of alterations in covert processes (McCombs, 2001). The first people to design SRL were Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986), who created three distinct models. According to Zimmerman (1989), self-monitoring involved three self-oriented feedback loops: behavioral, environmental, and personal (cognitive and emotional). Figure 4 provides an illustration of this. Panadero (2017) states that Zimmerman subsequently started looking at how certain students pick up various cognitive models and become proficient in a range of tasks.

English Learning at Higher Education Levels in Mongolia

The Ministry of Education, Culture, and Science (MOECS) has been implementing initiatives to enhance higher-level English instruction since 2000. To make reforms in the English curriculum, the MOECS worked particularly closely with foreign partners to diversify the materials that were already accessible, such as curricula and textbooks. In order to meet the growing demand for English language instruction in Mongolia, officials focused on the curricula within the context of English education

reform, elevating the level of English and aligning it with worldwide norms.

The goal of Mongolian EFL researchers has been to identify the challenges faced by Mongolian EFL university students and how they may support successful teaching methods to support the creation of a higher-level curriculum that is appropriate to their needs. Some studies looked into a variety of issues, including a lack of curricula, the poor caliber of English teachers, students' learning motivation, and the school environment, that may have contributed to the historically poor performance of EFL college students in learning English (Gundsambuu, 2019). Therefore, the issue of understanding the nature of EFL learners' self-efficacy and SRL strategies rose among higher-level EFL teachers. Nowadays, studies intend to determine why Mongolian EFL college students still face obstacles in developing speaking skills.

Recently, the number of Mongolian students who learn English at the college level has increased steadily, making English the most widely learned foreign language in Mongolia. The Mongolian Education System pays more attention to increasing English language proficiency at the higher education level to prepare successful English language learners who can fulfill academic, business, and cultural demands (Yondonperenlei, 2011). In a study, Sainbayar (2019) discovered that Mongolian students were drawn to study abroad in order to obtain a better degree in education. The most popular destination countries included the United States of America, Japan, Australia,

Germany, Hungary, China, Russia, South Korea, and Taiwan. English language scores are essential for numerous foreign, government-funded scholarships, which significantly affect Mongolian students' outbound mobility.

A variety of studies were examined when performing this study to determine the nature of concerns with self-efficacy and SRL practices among EFL college students. According to Altansor's research (2016), the age and developmental characteristics of the students' were the most crucial factors demanding different learning approaches. In their second year, students seem to learn more with the help of a teacher, while in their third year, students seem to learn more by discovering new information from other sources, and in their fourth year, students seem to learn more through production practice. Studies on English language-learning strategies have focused on investigating different nations' EFL strategies. Yondonperenlei (2011) assessed 100 students' language-learning strategies at a Mongolian EFL university to examine the relationship between learners' language proficiency and LLS.

Most previous study participants were selected from universities in the capital city of Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia. They were in different years and studied in different fields such as business administration, humanities and social sciences, health sciences, economics, engineering, and law. Wang and Batbileg (2020) interviewed both EFL teachers and students and found in the study that teachers should determine the learning strategies used by their EFL students. The

majority of students find it difficult to learn English and experience worry when they see how far behind their peers they are. In addition, a lot of instructors, scholars, and researchers, particularly young ones, are calling for better curriculum development for both themselves and their students. In conclusion, TEFL instruction in Mongolia has begun to improve, and this trend is anticipated to continue quickly.

A literature review shows that there is a research gap regarding the self-efficacy and SRL strategies in learning EFL for Mongolian EFL students. This is where the current study finds its relevance and purpose. To accomplish this, the study aims to answer the question: How do self-efficacy and self-regulated learning strategies differ among Mongolian EFL college students according to their grade levels?

Methodology

The researcher described the particulars of the research method that was employed in this study. To answer the afore-mentioned research question, systematic data collection procedures were used, and the gathered data were analyzed as precisely as possible. This study's participants were found at different universities in the capital city of Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia. The selected universities are state and private universities that qualify majors requiring English as a foreign language course. The data collection method consists of three questionnaires, as the Demographic Information Questionnaire, the Questionnaire of English Speaking Self-Regulated Learning Strategies (QESSRLS),

and the Questionnaire of English Speaking Self-Efficacy (QESSE).

Data analysis and results

All study participants were asked at first to complete a demographic information questionnaire, which consisted of ten items with multiple choices or short answers. It aimed to obtain information about the participants' gender, age, major, experiential

background, institutional background, and English language level. The data analysis method included quantitative analysis. Descriptive statistics (e.g., mean and standard deviation) and reliability measures (e.g., internal consistency) for items of English-speaking self-efficacy and English-speaking SRL strategies were calculated to evaluate students' responses.

TABLE 1. Descriptive Statistics of Participants' Demographic Information

English Level			Learning Experience		Gender	
1	2	3	1	2	1	2
81	71	100	148	104	49	203

*English level: 1 = below average level, 2 = average level, 3 = above average level

Learning experience: 1 = 5-8 years, 2 = more than 8 years

Gender: 1 = male; 2 = female

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the participants' demographic information. The participants in the study were at universities where English teachers and students met in classrooms per semester during four years of a bachelor's degree program. The English Speaking Self-Efficacy (QESSE) questionnaire was adapted from the Questionnaire of English Writing Self-Efficacy (QEWSE) (Sun & Wang, 2020), which measured college students' writing self-efficacy and selected items measuring students' speaking self-efficacy. A

Cronbach's alpha analysis was performed to ascertain the internal consistency of each constructed category. The Cronbach's analysis was conducted to ensure that the items used to construct the subscale categories were all adequately related to each other. The internal consistency analysis revealed that all aspect categories (1-6) attained an alpha value above 0.90. Thus, the internal consistency of all the subscales used in the questionnaire was suitable and correlated well. Cronbach's alpha analysis results are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2. Items for Self-Efficacy

Factor	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Ideation	3	.97
Organization	4	.97
Grammar	4	.98
Use of English-speaking	3	.97
Speaking	6	.97
Self-efficacy for self-regulation	7	.97

The English Speaking Self-Regulated Learning Strategies (QESSRLS) questionnaire, which was created to assess students' use of SRL strategies in speaking, was adapted from the Questionnaire of English Writing Self-Regulated Learning Strategies (QEWSRLS). The questionnaire contains 21 items, including environmental SRL strategies (eight items), behavioral SRL strategies (six items), and personal SRL strategies (seven items) based on Zimmerman (1989). Environmental SRL

strategies were also subcategorized into seeking assistance strategies (Items 3, 11, and 17), persistence strategies (Items 4, 12, and 18), and review of records strategies (Items 9 and 15). Behavioral SRL strategies consisted of seeking opportunities strategies (Items 5, 19, and 20), self-monitoring strategies (Items 6 and 13), and self-consequences strategy (Item 7). The self-consequence strategy item was in the questionnaire, but it is not shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3. Items for Self-Regulated Learning Strategies

SRL	Strategies	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Environmental SRL			.94
	SAS*	3	.95
	PS	3	.95
	RRS	2	.95
Behavioral SRL			.94
	SOS	3	.95
	SMS	2	.95
Personal SRL			.94
	SES	2	.95

OTS	3	.94
GPS	2	.94

* SAS = seeking assistance strategies; PS = persistence strategies; RRS = review of records strategies; SOS = seeking opportunity strategies; SMS = self-monitoring strategies; SES = self-evaluation strategies; OTS = organization and transformation strategies; GPS = goal setting and planning strategies.

The data analysis method included quantitative analysis. A one-way ANOVA with post-hoc tests was used to analyze and investigate the differences in the scores of self-efficacy and SRL strategies in speaking by EFL learners' grade levels.

Differences in Self-Efficacy and Self-Regulated Learning Strategies among Grade Levels of EFL College Students

The purpose of the study is to investigate whether there are significant differences in the scores of self-efficacy and SRL strategies in speaking among grades of Mongolian EFL college students. As seen in Table 4, the differences in the scores of self-efficacy summarized are based on the participants' second, third, and final grades. The collected data was analyzed using a one-way ANOVA.

TABLE 4. Differences in Self-Efficacy Based on Grade Levels

	Second (n=81)		Third (n=71)		Final (n=100)		<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Ideation	3.44	1.20	3.93	1.38	4.66	1.17	21.83	.001
Organization	3.25	1.18	3.81	1.35	4.32	1.16	16.83	.001
Grammar	3.67	1.26	4.05	1.28	4.62	1.16	13.68	.001
Use of English Speaking	3.52	1.19	3.97	1.34	4.70	1.20	20.71	.001
Self-Regulation	3.46	1.19	3.46	1.19	4.57	1.22	18.02	.001
Speaking	3.66	1.20	4.15	1.40	4.91	1.20	22.61	.001

The findings show that self-efficacy significantly differs across grades ($p < 0.001$) in relation to factors such as ideation, organization, grammar, use of English speaking, and self-regulation. According to the purpose of the study's question, Tukey's

HSD used a post-hoc test analysis to determine the difference values between grades, such as the second, third, and final grades. A summary of the post-hoc test results is shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5. Post-Hoc Test Results for Self-Efficacy

Dependent variable	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	<i>Sig.</i>

Ideation	II*	III	-.48571	.20255	.045
	II	IV	-1.21477	.18624	.001
	III	IV	-.72906	.19335	.001
Organization	II	III	-.56029	.19990	.015
	II	IV	-1.07089	.18464	.001
	III	IV	-.51060	.19163	.022
Grammar	II	III	-0.38702	.19980	.130
	II	IV	-.94966	.18371	.001
	III	IV	-.56264	.19072	.010
Speaking	II	III	-.49707	.20529	.043
	II	IV	-1.25245	.18876	.001
	III	IV	-.75538	.19597	.001
Use of English Speaking	II	III	-0.44978	.20207	.069
	II	IV	-1.17658	.18580	.001
	III	IV	-.72681	.19290	.001
Self-Regulation	II	III	-0.43831	.20265	.080
	II	IV	-1.10372	.18633	.001
	III	IV	-.66541	.19345	.002

*II=second grade, III=third grade, IV=final grade

The findings suggest that students in the final grades have higher self-efficacy than students in other grades, such as the second and third grades. The study's findings support strong evidence of the nature of students' self-mastery and English language achievement (Aleks, 2019) during their learning period. In addition, the findings give more insight into students' self-efficacy beliefs about English performance (Wang, 2004). It means that students' successful performances with feeble expenditures of effort dramatically affect an individual's self-efficacy beliefs.

The result of this study provides a study on the speaking self-efficacy beliefs of final-year students (Demirel et al., 2020), showing self-efficacy increases after preparing speeches, reading feedback, and accomplishing tasks in classrooms. Moreover, the findings supported the studies with solid evidence between students' EFL achievement and their past mastery experiences, motivation factors during the learning process (Genç et al., 2016), human motivation to learn (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2021), and the importance of feedback in English classes (Leeming, 2017). The

analysis of the study found evidence for the lack of educational practices that influence Mongolian EFL students' foreign language achievement in classrooms (Dagvadorj, 2020). Self-efficacy in oral capabilities and participation in speaking activities in classrooms increase after completing tasks during the academic years.

Depending on the purpose of this research, Tukey's HSD was used to explore the differences in SRL strategies such as *Environmental SRL*, *Behavioral SRL*, and *Personal SRL* strategies among grades of Mongolian EFL college students. A summary of three SRL strategies for the second, third, and final grades is shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6. Differences in SRL Strategies Based on Grade Levels

	Second (<i>n</i> =81)		Third (<i>n</i> =71)		Final (<i>n</i> =100)		<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Environmental SRL	2.87	0.64	2.92	0.64	2.92	0.57	0.17	.830
Behavioral SRL	2.78	0.64	2.91	0.65	3.00	0.59	2.79	.063
Personal SRL	2.97	0.69	3.20	0.61	3.27	0.57	5.58	.004

Across SRL strategies, the result indicates that *Environmental SRL* and *Behavioral SRL* strategies were not significant except for the *Personal SRL* strategy among grades. The difference values were $F = .17$ for *Environmental SRL*. The highest mean scores reached were for the third grade ($M=2.92$, $SD=.64$) and final grade ($M=2.92$, $SD=.57$), respectively. The mean scores of the second grade ($M=2.87$, $SD=.64$) were the lowest. For the *Behavioral SRL* strategy, the difference values were calculated at $F=2.79$. The highest mean scores reached were in the final grade ($M=3.00$, $SD=.59$), and the third grade scores ($M=2.91$, $SD=.65$) were lower than those of the final grade. The lowest scores

shown were for the second grade ($M=2.78$, $SD=0.64$) *Behavioral SRL* strategies.

Tukey's HSD result indicated the differences in the values of *Personal SRL* strategies between the second, third, and final grades. A summary of the differences in grades is shown in Table 7. The result shows that the difference value was significant ($F=.004$), showing that students in the second grade ($M=2.97$) and students in the final grade ($M=3.27$) had a significantly higher SRL strategy among grades. The difference between the second and third grades was insignificant ($p=.056$). In addition, values were not significantly different ($p=.757$) between the third and final grades.

TABLE 7. Post-Hoc Test Results for SRL Strategies

Dependent variable			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Personal SRL	II	III	-.23521	.10170	.056
	II	IV	-.30427	.09351	.004
	III	IV	-.06905	.09708	.757

The present study confirmed that using SRL strategies to improve speaking depends on the grades of EFL college students. This is a significant finding in understanding SRL strategies from social cognitive perspectives, such as *Environmental SRL*, *Behavioral SRL*, and *Personal SRL* strategies for Mongolian EFL college students, who are learning to speak in a second language.

The study's findings supported strong evidence for the use of SRL strategies and English achievement among Chinese students (Sun & Wang, 2020) and Mongolian students' SRL strategies (Davaanyam & Tserendorj, 2015) from performance monitoring perspectives. The results lead to a similar finding, such as that non-traditional classrooms are online environments that empower students to interact with others, use computers individually to access different resources, and provide self-directed learning to students during their English learning period (Underwood, 2009). The results clearly show that *Personal SRL* strategies were different compared to those of the second and final-grade students. It is worth discussing these exciting facts revealed by the results of SRL strategies among Mongolian EFL college students.

Conclusion

In recent times, one of the most crucial concerns for EFL teachers in Mongolia has been teaching English. Investigating the differences in the scores of self-efficacy and SRL of EFL college students gives English instructors the benefit of knowing how to organize their classroom activities. The study looked at how students in the second, third, and final grades performed on self-efficacy tests and used SRL strategies when they were exposed to English speaking situations. According to this study, students in the final grades spoke in English more effectively than they spoke those in the second and third grades. The self-efficacy level of final-year students rises during the English learning period at a higher-level of education, and this determines how they use English learning strategies to accomplish their objectives. Based on the highlighted components of this research question, the results show that students who are motivated to learn English are more likely to govern their self-learning process and control their efforts. This research endeavor could have ramifications for the professional development of English teachers and help them choose more effective methods depending on grade levels.

To sum up, this study's results are important because they shed light on the role that self-efficacy and the application of SRL strategies have in English-speaking among EFL students at the college level. Additionally, this study is helpful for EFL teachers because it motivates students to employ additional learning tools and feedback in order to enhance their English-speaking abilities. Additionally, teachers need to give their EFL students at higher education levels more speaking resources and opportunities for practice in both academic and real-world contexts based on their self-efficacy and SRL strategies based on their grades. They also need to pay closer attention to the instructions for the various speaking activities, both inside and outside of the classroom.

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Foreignization in Translation

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Abstract: Foreignization has been widely used in Mongolian literary translation practices. Analysis reveals that the foreignization strategy has contributed to introducing different cultural views and points that are attract the interest of the readers. It is a significant discovery that originated from customs, traditions, habits, and geographical locations. It also expands and extends recognition across different cultures worldwide. When comparing the source text and the target text, some understanding and recognition of the words, phrases, idioms, and proverbs are new and adaptable to the readers. This expands their way of thinking and mentality of living style and culture, even if they are not close to each other. Also, foreignization can serve as a bridge between cross-cultural points, reflecting the exchange of local lifestyles, community habits, moral rules, and traditional customs.

Keywords: literary translation, foreignization, translation strategy, cultural difference, way of thinking

Literary translation has played an important role in human history and life, thoroughly connecting with the mind and spiritual world. Many nationalities and people over the world have different ways of tradition, custom and culture. Today, globalization and integration are heavily involved, and cross-cultural communication is required more and more.

E. A. Nida (Nida, 1969), a famed American translation theorist, recognized the major elements of culture as ecological culture, material culture, social culture, and

linguistic culture. All these show that language is a part of culture. Being an essential component of culture and playing a very important role in culture, language is influenced and shaped by culture; language carries culture, mirrors culture, spreads culture and helps develop culture. (Wang, 2014, p. 2424) These cultural elements and components are significant to the literary translation. Through reading literature, you can gain benefits of introducing differences and values of foreign culture including mental thinking, tradition, living conditions

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and environment. Therefore, literary translation is an efficient process of cultural

Theoretical background

Domestication and foreignization are the main strategies of translation. Lawrence Venuti said that “The two approaches reflect how far a text complies with the target culture. That is, translators may choose either to “domesticate” a text by making it conform to the target culture, or “foreignize” it by allowing the source culture into that of the target reader. The former option can guarantee a more fluent, smooth text with higher readability than the latter (L.Venuti, 1995, p. 20). Foreignization, on the other hand, takes the target reader to the culture of the source text by maintaining its cultural elements”.

L. Venuti supported the principle of foreignization as a strategy for translation and proposed the concept of “foreign and counter translation”. The “foreignness” of the original in target language, style and aspects are important parts of the translation. Also, it should be kept in favor of the reader to accept the foreign culture and the special place. Of course, the aim of translation is to bring back a cultural other as the same, the recognizable, even the familiar considering cross-cultural barriers and differences.

Foreignization has advantages, although it has some contradictions. Therefore, this study intends to present the advantages of foreignization, how it has played an important role in spreading culture and cultural transmission activities. Also, it revealed translators’ experiences and solutions to introducing the original culture and overcoming barriers presented by

transmission activity and the main tool of conveying cultural differences.

foreignness, the uses of foreignization in the translation practices from English into Mongolian, and how to carry foreign culture through foreignization for readers to understand them. The foreignization translation strategy occupies the leading position in the whole sphere of translation. It is an easy way to understand and accept foreign culture. Also, literary translation opens up more opportunities, then has improved readers’ cognition, knowledge and mind.

The foreignization investigation of translation has developed efficiently under the examples and practices of Western literary works into Mongolian language. Through literary translation, you can find out the image, national and local color of the people who live in another land, place, island, sea, and coastal areas. Foreignization is an effective way for introducing cultural facts and gaining recognition. In other words, it helps to understand diversity of mentalities among readers, including their lifestyle and manner of life. We can see how ST content and cultural context are transplanted into TL content and text, it is possible to adopt or receive on the reader’s demand and satisfaction.

Peter Newmark called foreignizing translation as the semantic translation. In the translation the foreignization is used, the cultural information of the original language will obtain the greatest degree of retention, and the readers will feel more atmosphere of the original language culture. However, it

should be clear that the foreignization is not simple translation from word to word; such translation from word to word does not be regarded as the true translation. (Newmark, 1988)

Foreignization in literature

Foreignization helps preserve the original expression and keep cultural differences. Also, it has been used increasingly due to the need for cross-cultural communication. Comparison of foreignization can represent correlation of different cultures and lifestyles based on ST and TT. For instance, we can compare and discuss that some descriptions of female characters may be dissimilar and new to readers due to the deep reflection of national and local colors, images, cognition, and reality. Women's beauty has different images in Western and Mongolian so foreignization has contributed to adopting them.

Example:1

*Mrs. Sohlberg (he finally thought it out for himself) was like the rich tinted interior of a **South Sea oyster-shell**—warm, colorful, delicate. (Dreiser, 1914, p. 86)*

Сольберг хатагтай халуун орны дун шиг нүдэнд дулаахан, өнгө үзэсгэлэнтэй авхай юм. (Т.Драйзер, Мундаг эр, 1977, хууд. 128)

“*South Sea oyster-shell*”-“*халуун орны дун*”, it was translated as a tropical oyster-shell omitted “*South Sea.*” “*South Sea oyster-shell*” is a metaphor for describing her beauty. It is a common phrase for Western readers, but it is very interesting and intriguing, it has some explanations for

readers. Therefore, the use of a metaphor for beauty in Mongolian literature is different depending on artistic and figurative thinking. Here “*South Sea oyster-shell*” is used to describe her beauty more clearly, conveying different and additional meaning. It is a measurement and value of women's beauty in that place and community. Also, it shows some information for readers, especially for Mongolian readers who live in landlocked territory, far from sea.

South Sea oyster-shells are very famous over the world for their beauty and quality. South Sea pearls are one of the most luxurious types of pearls. The South Sea pearl is cultured in a saltwater oyster named *Pinctada maxima*, that is native to marine waters between the Indian and the Pacific Oceans. People who know this quality compare beautiful woman with it, there it is symbol of beauty and attraction. Reader-oriented translation in the target text is rendered the author's task which describing local woman beauty, it is valued by oyster-shell. Furthermore, it is not a common oyster shell, the "South Sea oyster shell" is a metaphorical representation of cultural and historical traits.

It is rekindled interests to know it more and expand our knowledge by sharing new messages about sea life, sea animals and correlation between beauty view of that people. On another hand, it gives us a chance for comparison traditional Mongolian metaphors for beauty and others literary figurative expressions that develop imaginative ideas, spirit of cultural corner and lifestyle.

Example: 2

Fresh from her bath, a smooth, ivory Venus, she worked quickly through silken lingerie, stocking and shoes, to her hair. (Dreiser, 1914, p. 25)

Эйлин халуун усанд ороод **хаш цагаан цолмон бурхан** шиг туяаран гарч ирмэгцээ торгон цамц, оймс, гутлаа өмсөөд үс гээгээ аялуулж эхлэв. (Т.Драйзер, Мундаг эр, 1977, хууд. 38)

Venus was goddess of art, beauty, romance, and love in ancient Roman mythology. It is the icon of femininity and beauty, as well as, representing women's desires, interests, aspirations, and values that influence or attract others, especially men. As a result, since ancient times, it has been symbol of beauty, love, and attractiveness in literature of some cultures. So, it has many images, which can reveal the character's peculiarity.

"Ivory Venus" – "хаш цагаан цолмон бурхан": "Venus"-*"цолмон бурхан"* it is correct, but "ivory" translated as "хаш цагаан", it means that jade or snowy white like jade. Ivory means yellowish and creamy white. It is possible that the translator picked "snowy white like jade", because of common description that white color and face are used popularly in Mongolian literature rather than "ivory". It is the most interesting version of the translation, foreignization and domestication are used together at the same time. The translator intended to emphasize beauty, and attractiveness of the female character by using "snowy white like jade" to the reader. It is the reader-oriented translation, even though foreignization is used. Both domestication and foreignization can be used if we consider the translator's

purpose and target readers' demand. As a result, both strategies contribute to the introduction and development of the target language's culture.

Example: 3

She had that curious beauty of body, though, that made her somewhat like a figure on an antique vase, or out of a Greek chorus. It was in this light, unquestionably, that Cowperwood saw her, for from the beginning he could not keep his eyes off her. (T.Dreiser, Financier, 1912, p. 44)

Тийм үед Лилианыг харахад Грекийн найрал дуунд оролцогч буюу эртний ваар саван дээрх дүрсийг санагдуулна. Каупервуд түүнийг яг л тийм сайхнаар дүрслэх учир анх хармагцаа нүд огт салгаж чадсангүй ажээ. (Т.Драйзер, Санхүүч, 1973, хууд. 54)

Example: 4.

"You clover blossom," he would say to her, coming over and taking her by the arms. "You sprig of cherry bloom. You Dresden china dream." (Dreiser, 1914, p. 94)

Чи хонин нүдэн цэцэг л гэсэн үг гэж дэргэд нь очиж гараас нь барин интоорын нахиа, Дрездений шаазан урлал шиг хүн юм даа гэж өхөөрдөв. (Т.Драйзер, Мундаг эр, 1977, хууд. 139)

In above mentioned examples, you can find that female character's beauty and figures are described such as "a figure on an antique vase, or out of a Greek chorus" and "Dresden china dream".

"Antique vase, or out of a Greek chorus" the ancient Greeks who are best known for having produced beautiful vases that could be both decorative and

functional. Luxuriously painted funerary vases are a mark of wealth and power. Therefore, it symbolizes women's beauty, elegance, and fancy.

Vases have been used widely in literature and poetry as symbols and metaphors representing various themes. Furthermore, they have different meanings depending on the context, can represent the fragility of life, the transience of beauty, or the transformative power of art.

Additionally, it could be a writer's conception or image that has evolved through their writings and works.

Dresden china dream means that hard-paste porcelain (as Meissen) made in the vicinity of Dresden and typically characterized by daintiness of design and ornate decoration, having a delicate or insipid prettiness. So, women's beauty can be best described by its delicateness and prettiness. Of course, it was expensive and valuable at that time.

"*An antique vase*" and "*Dresden china dream*" represented their way of life, attitude toward household luxury and art values. You can say that women's beauty ideals may be affected more by a sedentary lifestyle and culture. The feminine beauty ideal is portrayed in literature; it has been described by physical attractiveness such as "*her somewhat like a figure*" or "*Dresden china dream*." The feminine beauty ideal has been an inseparable part of literature for many centuries. Main heroes and characters are portrayed as beautiful and keeping ethical standards. Translation of these words introduce new imagination. Also, language and culture are interdependent. Readers can receive other cultures through language as

well as through this translation. Later, these words may be localized and used in communication or literature. Because woman beauty reference has changed and enriched for many hundred years. Furthermore, there has been evidence of correlations between art and literature. The development of intellectual and mental prosperity has been significantly impacted by the combination of art and literature.

Example: 5

...*she surveyed him with those cool, dull blue eyes of hers—eyes that had the flat quality of unglazed Dutch tiles.* (Dreiser, 1914, p. 266)

... өөдөөс нь өнөөх гүн цэнхэр, *паландаагүй голланд ваар мэт хүйтэн харцат үл цавчрагч нүдээрээ ажиглан харснаа...* (Т.Драйзер, Мундаг эр, 1977, хууд. 387)

"*Unglazed Dutch tiles*" - "*паландаагүй голланд ваар мэт*", if you explore meaning of it, it is very interesting. "*Dutch tiles*" were made in Delft in South Holland, so these blue tiles made of natural materials like stone, clay, or terra cotta appeared around 1620. Traditional tiles are usually characterized by intricate designs and patterns, which are often inspired by nature, religion, or mythology.

"*Unglazed Dutch tiles*" is described unpleasant and coldly appearance of the character. *It is a very appropriate expression, portraying personal abhorrence.* "*Dutch tiles*" may be unknown to nomadic Mongolians who are used "ger", also it gives another image of dwellings and their components, reflecting cultural differences. The sedentary lifestyle of the *Dutch, Dresden china dream, and antique vases* are examples

of metaphors used to depict their lifestyles, which differ from that of the Mongolian nomads.

A source language-oriented translation strategy, helps to transmit forms, contents and culture of original texts for target readers, as it enriches reader's imagination and references. Also, it is a good experience to exchange cultural differences through literature.

Example: 6

Sohlberg the artist, responding like a chameleon to the various emotional complexions of life, (Dreiser, 1914, p. 109)

Амьдрал, сэтгэлийн хөдөлгөөн, аливаа үзэгдэлд өнгө хувилган хамелеон хорхой шиг байдаг өнөөх хөгжимчин Сольберг (Т.Драйзер, Мундаг эр, 1977, хууд. 162)

“*Sohlberg the artist, responding like a chameleon*”, his character is parenthetic and unstable, so it is used as a metaphor for someone who is able to adapt to any situation and can change mood or emotion. “*A chameleon*” is transcribed as “*хамелеон*” in Mongolian. It is common that the names of many animals, lizards or reptiles aren't translated. Using transcription is one of the popular strategies in translation. The natural reflection of color change is the main factor in using it, so it's the best metaphor.

Example: 7

They were under a great shadowy train shed, where the lamps were already beginning to shine out, with passenger cars all about and the train moving at a snail's pace. (T.Dreiser, Sister Carrie, 1900, p. 8)

Галт тэрэг мөлхөх мэт удаан явсаар дөнгөж сая гэрэл нь цэлс цэлс асах асар том хүнхгэр саравчтай буудалд хүрч ирэв. (Т.Драйзер, Керри эгч, 1983, хууд. 84)

“*Snail's pace*” means slow movement and moving very slowly. Snail is the main object of the meaning, therefore many idioms, proverbs and saying are popular in literature. Unfortunately, the translator omitted the idiom “*snail's pace*”, it translated “*мөлхөх*” in the target text, “*мөлхөх*” means to crawl, so they are synonymous with move slowly.

But it can't reveal the local mental expressions and sayings that the author used. If using foreignization, it allows to reveal the favor and color of the local community and culture, and it would be better and more advantageous for the target reader. D.Dashdavaa said that it is important keeping author's writing style in the translation (Орчуулах эрдэм, 1976, хууд. 17), it demonstrated benefits of this strategy.

Geographical location, landscape, weather, and climate have played a significant role in literature, as well as the main character's descriptions, which are supported and developed by them. Marine life, sea life, and ocean life are shown and described, including sea animals, fishes, sea tides, waves, storms, and hurricanes. These are efficient tools that reveal their happy and sad feelings, loneliness, emotions and many other actions. You can find out the local color, voice, and culture of the people who live by the sea or in coastal regions. Their lifestyle and living ways are different, interesting, and amazing. Readers can discover new meditations and experiences for themselves. Using foreignization translation

strategy, the reader can enjoy and feel the original flavor culture, overcoming cross-cultural differences.

Example: 8

Judge Wilbur Payderson, a lean herring of a man, who had sat in this case originally as the examining judge when Cowperwood had been indicted by the grand jury, and who had bound him over for trial at this term, was a peculiarly interesting type of judge, as judges go. (T.Dreiser, *Financier*, 1912, p. 286)

Каупервудыг шилжүүлэх эсэх тухай асуудлыг хэлэлцэж байсан мөрдөн байцаалтын үед даргалж байсан, май загас шиг туранхай хүн болих л маягийн этгээд хүн. (Т.Драйзер, Санхүүч, 1973, хууд. 359)

Example: 9

The sea was already full of whales. A common fish must needs disappear wholly from view-remain unseen. (T.Dreiser, *Sister Carrie*, 1900, p. 232)

Тэнгист нь халим энд тэндгүй язганаж байсан болохоор муусайн жижиц загас огт тоогдохоо больж байсан буюу тоогдох гэсний ч хэрэггүй болж байжээ. (Т.Драйзер, Керри эгч, 1983, хууд. 283)

“Herring, whales and fish” are necessary methods for representing a hero’s appearance and inside character. They act as metaphors originating from local color and lifestyle habits. It helps to acquire other cultures and enrich the image of characters who are different from stereotypical heroes in Mongolian literature. If translators used domestication strategies and replaced them with local animals, they could lose the real image and character that act as figurative expressions. Also, the reader can find

information about unknown fish, such as herrings and whales, which can be enjoyed by characters in their imagination and implication.

Example: 10

Whatever a man like Hurstwood could be in Chicago, it is very evident that he would be but an inconspicuous drop in an ocean like New York. (T.Dreiser, *Sister Carrie*, 1900, p. 232)

Херствүд, Чикагод ямар ч байр эзэлж байлаа гэсэн хамаагүй Нью-Йоркт далайн өчүүхэн дусал шиг байв. (Т.Драйзер, Керри эгч, 1983, хууд. 282)

Example: 11

He was like a vessel, powerful and dangerous, but rolling and floundering without sail.

(T.Dreiser, *Sister Carrie*, 1900, p. 173)

Херствүд одоо дарвуулгүй болчихоод салхины аясаар хөөгдөн буй асар том хөлөг онгоц мэт байв. (Т.Драйзер, Керри эгч, 1983, хууд. 211)

“Drop in an ocean-далайн өчүүхэн дусал” means that his position and ambition are small, so the translator added “өчүүхэн”, it means “so small”, cause of description full size.

“A vessel - асар том хөлөг онгоц”, here the translator added “асар”, it means “so big”. If you pay attention, the translator added “so” to intensify their sizes. The author used “drop” and “vessel”, to render opposite sizes that are measured by them. Using “drop” and “vessel” is a comparison of size, which expresses how small or big something is. It helps the reader to accept

these "foreignnesses" in their communication and understand the source culture.

Example: 12

It was blowing up cold, and out of her window Carrie could see the western sky, still pink with the fading light, but steely blue at the top where it met the darkness. A long, thin cloud of pink hung in midair, shaped like some island in a far-off sea. (T.Dreiser, Sister Carrie, 1900, p. 64) [Dreiser.1982.64]

Улаавтар нарийхан, урт үүлс алс холын тэнгисийн усанд орших эзэнгүй арал мэт харагдана. (Т.Драйзер, Керри эгч, 1983, хууд. 80)

Example: 13

All the fury of her tempestuous soul fell, as the sea falls under a lapse of wind. (Dreiser, 1914, p. 112)

Салхи намдахад тэнгис далайн долгион давалгаа намддаг шиг Эйлиний уур омог дарагдаж эхэлжээ. (Т.Драйзер, Мундаг эр, 1977, хууд. 165)

“Island in a far-off sea”- description of cloud shape that contains feeling of girl. The metaphor of the phrase reveals her loneliness and helplessness. Also “as the sea falls under a lapse of wind”-presents her emotion, it means that her fury temperament is measured by sea falls. “An island, sea, falls,” are effective tools and figurative expressions conveying local spirit and feeling of the community.

Example: 14

...a woman like Aileen was to leave her high and dry on land, as a fish out of its native element, to take all the wind out of her sails—almost to kill her. (Dreiser, 1914, p. 107)

Түүнгүйгээр Эйлин уснаас салсан загастай адил болой. Далбаа нь дэрвэхээ

больсон хөлгөөс юуны ялгаатай билээ. (Т.Драйзер, Мундаг эр, 1977, хууд. 158)

Example: 15

They were of the class which simply floats and drifts, every wave of people washing up one, as breakers do driftwood upon a stormy shore. (T.Dreiser, Sister Carrie, 1900, p. 388)

Тэд үй олон хүний дундаас далайн уснаас давалгаагаар эрэг дээр хаягдсан зомгол мэт олны урсгал дунд хөвөн зүг чиггүй салгалсаар нэг мэдэхнээ түлхэгдэн хаягдсан хүмүүс ажээ. (Т.Драйзер, Керри эгч, 1983, хууд. 477)

Example: 16

... the effect of the argument upon her nerves, all combined to make her a mass of jangling fibres—an anchorless, storm-beaten little craft which could do absolutely nothing but drift. (T.Dreiser, Sister Carrie, 1900, p. 181)

... сэтгэлийн там гэхчлэн бодохоос байж суух боломжгүй санагдаж, хүчит далайн шуурганд салхины аясыг даган хөөгдөх зангуугаа алдсан өчүүхэн онгоц мэт санагдах ажээ. (Т.Драйзер, Керри эгч, 1983, хууд. 220)

“Fish out, wind out of her sails, breakers do driftwood upon a stormy shore and an anchorless, storm-beaten little craft” are introduced sea lifestyle, marine life and marine phenomenon that connect their life, work, and action. Of course, the main characters’ actions, emotions and feelings are described through local phrases, idioms, and sayings including sails, breakers, driftwood, shore, craft. These words are added: wind, stormy, anchorless, and storm-beaten, then created into new phrases that describe the interconnection of the sea and natural actions.

These phrases reveal how difficult situations, hard feelings and survival are for them. Through phrases, you can recognize and feel the consequences of sea disasters and their victims, as well as the patience, tolerance, and survival of the inhabitants and sailors. Therefore, these phrases are an essential part of the author's writing style (С.Байгалсайхан, 1998, хууд. 67) and should be reflected in the target text. On other hand, their life, feelings and mentality, every occasion, action, good and bad memories are conveyed by them. It is obvious that their spirit, view and point of the culture have an effect on the reader. Also, it gives chances to accept disseminating the foreign culture, as well as being recognized and accepted slowly by the readers.

The foreignization strategy can be received in unexpected ways depending on the reader's interest; furthermore, it can generate new phrases and expressions. Mongolian theorist D.Dashdavaa (Орчуулах эрдэм, 1982, хууд. 125) noticed that "The national literary language has been developed through literary translation, has led to its recognition and enrichment of the culture. During the translation process, figurative expressions are employed, leading to the emergence of new words, phrases, and proverbs in the target language." As a result of literary translation, some new words, phrases, idioms, and proverbs are localized in the target language and used effectively. Also, it is considered as one of the main sources for literary language enrichment.

The advantages of foreignization

There are some advantages to foreignization, such as:

- keep cultural differences /cultural references/
- culture pervasion /cultural value of ST adoption/
- enrich native culture by new culture /to absorb new culture elements/
- support cross-cultural effects /way of exchange cross-culture/
- author's intention /to convey author's style and goal/
- reader-oriented /readability with original flavor/.

These advantages of foreignization have external and internal factors.

The results of the analysis should pay attention to what advantages of foreignization serve better in translating cross-cultural literary texts. This, of course, is the main goal of the study. The foreignization strategy has many advantages, such as expanding cross-cultural views through local cultures and environments, paying respect to foreign cultures, recognizing different cultures through cross-cultural communications, and keeping the author's writing styles. Foreignization clarifies the relationship between culture and language, as well as the relationship between culture and translation. Therefore, foreignization helps overcome cultural barriers and misunderstandings. The foreignization strategy helps introduce new phrases, expressions, and versions to the readers.

Foreignization has contributed to introducing different cultures, opening an

imaginary world, and expanding the reader's way of thinking and mentality of living style in the literary translation.

Conclusion

Foreignization is one of the best strategies for literary translation from English into Mongolian language, it has rendered successfully cultural differences and views from the Source Text. Mongolian researchers and translators have paid more attention to the foreignization of translation because it gives more opportunities to introduce Western lifestyles and cultures. As a result of cross-cultural communication, foreignization helps to understand and accept western civilization's cultural style.

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