NIDA
National Institute of Development Administration

GSLC
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

NIDA Journal of Language and Communication

Volume 27 • Issue 41 • January - June 2022

Research Articles

Academic Article

Book Review

http://lcjournal.nida.ac.th

ISSN : 2651-1983 (Online)

ISSN : 1513-4164 (Print)

Address: Graduate School of Language and Communication National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA)
118 Serithai Road, Klongchan,
Bangkapi, Bangkok 10240, Thailand
Tel. 02-727-3152 http://lc.nida.ac.th

NIDA Language and Communication Journal is the official journal of the Graduate School of Language and Communication, National Institute of Development Administration. The journal, ranked in the first tier of Thai Journal Citation Index (TCI), is currently published as a periodical, with two issues annually (June and December). The purpose of this journal is to disseminate information of interest to language and communication scholars, and others interested in related social sciences. The journal presents information on theories, researches, methods, and ideas related to language and communication as well as related interdisciplinary social sciences. The editors welcome a wide range of academic papers, including research articles, review articles, and book reviews.

Editor's Note

Greetings from GSLC NIDA. This issue of *NIDA Language and Communication* is released as the world is slowly but steadily coming back to the 'old normal.' The future looks promising now that everyone including members of academia can resume business as usual; researchers can now go back to the fields and teachers and students are back in the classrooms where they belong.

This issue presents four research articles, one academic article and a book review. There are myriad of topics that this issue touches upon. The first paper by Phanintra investigates the connection between language and cognition. Exploratory factor analysis is employed to classify the words found in the speech of depressed Thai teenagers. The results reveal that their speech signals distress and an appeal for help. Two papers are dedicated to advancement in English language teaching and pedagogy. Khomduen and Prapaipan's academic article takes a philosophical turn to investigate the issue of killing and survival in the novel *The Call of the Wild.* The reason and cause of the killing are discussed and finally the significance of the killing in the context of this novel is established. Kasin's paper contributes to the on-going TOEIC research. He categorizes the TOEIC score based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Language (CEFR). Then he looks at the correlation between the language skills and the scores in an attempt to find the best predictor of the test score. The paper by Wiriya shifts our attention to translation, exploring the implications of foreignizing translation strategies usage in student literary translation projects. This study attempts to overcome the challenges in translation by looking at translation strategies from a larger perspective.

Chutamas reports on the integration of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in English for music business course at an international university in Thailand. It is argued that the integrated approach can promote learner autonomy. Last but not least, Kalra introduces a book that can come handy in an age in which the old normal and new normal co-exist, *Suddenly Hybrid: Managing the Modern Meeting.*

We hope readers will find this issue informative as well as pleasant to read. We would like to take this opportunity to thank contributors, reviewers, and readers for letting *NIDA Language and Communication Journal* be your academic partner.

Warm Regards

Contents

Ethical Guidelines on Journal Publication

- Authors must ensure that their submission is original, fully referenced and that all authors are represented accurately.
- Authors must openly disclose the source of all data and third party material, including previously unpublished work by the authors themselves. Anything that could compromise the originality of the submission should be expressly avoided.
- Authors must identify any third party material that they intend to include in their article, and obtain written permission for re-use in each instance from the relevant copyright holders.
- Authors failing to comply with the above suggestions risk accusations of plagiarism and can result in retraction of published articles.

A Word-use Model for Depressed Thai Teenagers

Received : Nov 2, 2021
Revised : Jan 27, 2022
Accepted : Apr 7, 2022

Phanintra Teeranon
School of Liberal Arts
University of Phayao

Abstract

This study aims to introduce a word-use model for depressed Thai teenagers aged between 19–24 years old. Ten depressed Thai teenagers were asked to give a speech about their family life. Then, the words present in their speech were assigned to 11 word categories based on Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count (LIWC). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was utilized to determine the word categories. It was found that the social processes category was the most used by the depressed Thai teenagers. The word-use model suggested that three groups of words were used by the depressed Thai teenagers: "Emotion words," "Self-focus," and "Driving force." The results confirm Beck's cognitive model in terms of verbalizing thoughts as the signal for depression. It is suggested that most of the word categories used by depressed individuals tend to signal emotive meaning. In addition, driving force word-use category also indicates help-seeking of the depressed Thai teenagers.

Keywords: Thai, Depressed, Word

1. Introduction

Word categories serve as the foundation for semantic categories; words appear in certain locations in sentences and can thus be categorized syntactically (Rauh, 2016). The study of words can lead to the scientific conclusion that human language is made up of mental mechanisms (Pinker, 1998). In word studies, especially those on word categories, Chen and Jin (2017), Jarrold et al. (2011), and Zimmermann et al. (2017), among others, found that words can convey cognitive processes and two types of meaning: emotive meaning and conceptual meaning (Angkapanichkit et al., 2019). Emotive meaning signals the feelings or attitudes of a person, while conceptual meaning is mostly a basic propositional meaning. Based on these findings, not only negative perspectives are expressed by depressed individuals, as noted in Beck's cognitive model (Beck & Clark, 1997; Beck & Haigh, 2014), but also other conceptual word meanings are plausibly ventilated by the depressed ones.

Ramirez-Esparza et al. (2009), Wolohan et al. (2018), and Yoo and Ha (2019) are examples of studies that found that negative words are consistently used by depressed individuals in online platforms. In Thailand, where the prevalence of depression in Thai teenagers was found to be 14.9% (Chaveepojnkamjorn et al., 2017), Angkapanichkit et al. (2019) and Sathientharadol (2020) reported comparable results regarding the speech of Thai depressed teenagers. It can be inferred that these results confirm Beck's cognitive model.

Language, as a means of communication, can express the insights, feelings, and thoughts of depressed speakers (Evans, 2012). Currently, medical research and psychological research have undoubtedly accepted language as one indicator that can be used for the diagnosis of depression (O'Dea et al., 2021; Zapata-Vega et al., 2010).

The behavioural measure of self-focused attention correlates to Pyszczynski and Greenberg's (1987) model according to which the use of first-person singular pronouns, such as "I," "me," and myself," in spoken language is considered to be a well-established as a sign of depression (Rude et al., 2004). Edwards and Holtzman (2017) performed a meta-analysis of correlations between depression and first-person singular pronoun use and reported that "I-self-focus" was significantly related to depression. Later, Angkapanichkit et al. (2019) found that not only 'I-self-focus' but also first-person plural pronouns, such as "we," were often used by depressed Thai teenagers. In the context of inclusive storytelling, depressed Thai teenagers tend to include themselves in the story, which is an additional type of self-focused communication.

Recently, multiple studies have empirically extended Beck's cognitive model and Pyszczynski and Greenberg's model to include more word categories to signal various aspects emotional and mental health; one example is the Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count (LIWC) program by Francis and Pennebaker (1993). LIWC, as a linguistics installation, provides affirmed word-use categories associated with psychological thought. The word categories in LIWC have been widely employed by numerous studies (Lieberman & Goldstein, 2006; Ramirez-Esparza et al., 2009; Wolohan et al., 2018; Yoo & Ha, 2019) to examine more categories of language patterns used by depressed individuals.

Previous studies have indicated two main categories of words expressed by depressed individuals: linguistic dimension and psychological processes. The linguistic dimension includes function words, such as pronouns, prepositions, questions, and numbers; while psychological processes include affective processes, social processes, cognitive processes, perceptual processes, biological processes, drives, time orientations, relativity, personal concerns, and informal language.

Using LIWC and corpus-based analysis, Wolohan et al. (2018) reported that the following were highly expressed among depressed individuals: affective processes signalling negative emotion words, social processes signalling family and friend relationships, and time orientations telling the past and the future. However, using an online data set posted by depressed individuals, Yoo and Ha (2019) suggested that informal words, such as slang and abbreviations, were used as much as storytelling. The results of Yoo and Ha (2018) are consistent with the research by Angkapanichkit et al. (2019), in which storytelling was also reported to be a linguistic feature of the speech of depressed Thai teenagers, such as "I don't have much support" or "I feel like I can't breathe." In consequence, previous research findings on the Thai language has generated results that are comparable to studies in other languages. De Choudhury et al. (2013) extended classifiers based on the LIWC categories to find words and language patterns not included in the LIWC categories that would help identify people with mental illnesses.

In Thai depression research, Angkapanichkit et al. (2019) tentatively summarized approximately six word categories used by depressed Thai teenagers (collected from diary writings and interviews): *deixis* (e.g., I, father, mother), *cognitive processes* (e.g., think,

disappear, decide), perception (e.g., hearing, interested in), *affective processes* (e.g., happy, rich, lovely, bad, terrible, tired, angry), *negation processes*, *metaphor* (e.g., left behind, trash, garbage, sponge), and *action word* (e.g., forget, wake up). Moreover, in the study, the use of a combination of words among these six word categories and the use of intensifiers, for example, very+disappointed, were reported to be a sign of early depression in Thai teenagers. Angkapanichkit et al. (2019) also primarily reported pragmatic strategies used in depressed participants. Another study of depressed Thai teenagers'utterances was that by Sathientharadol (2020). The study reported four categories of word use in the participants: self, disease, society, and hope. Hence, it can be inferred that the word categories used in the speech of depressed Thai individuals are not clear, as few studies have addressed this issue. A fundamental finding was that studying word categories among depressed individuals yielded 72% accuracy in the early detection of depression (De Choudhury et al., 2013). Moreover, linguistic issues appear to be more important in medical and psychological studies than in other studies; the results shed some light on the development of cognitive models and indicators of depression in the fields of psychology and medicine to save lives. To posit reliable word categories used by depressed Thai individuals, more linguistic studies on this issue are necessary to establish linguistic patterns associated with depression.

To answer the research questions of which LIWC word categories highly relate to depressed Thai teenagers' cognition and the extent to which LIWC word categories represent depressed Thai teenagers' cognition, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is applied for quantitative analysis. There are a small number of word categories found in previous studies on language among depressed Thai individuals, and factor analysis is a multivariate technique (Fávero & Belfiore, 2019) suitable for identifying a comparatively small number of word categories that represent the cognition of depressed Thai teenagers. Therefore, this study aims to establish realistic linguistic patterns or word-use model associated with depressed Thai teenagers using LIWC and to quantify word categories using EFA.

2. Literature review

Few linguistic studies have addressed utterances among depressed Thai individuals to gain insights into depression; hence, to posit common ground of previous research, both the studies of depressed Thai contexts and non-depressed Thai contexts were reviewed and synthesized. In the context of Thai which is the main focus, Teeranon (2020) initially analyzed phonetic features among depressed Thai teenagers. Angkapanichkit et al. (2019) and Sathientharadol (2020) investigated utterances used by depressed Thai teenagers. Consequently, this research divides language use by depressed Thai teenagers into two linguistic levels: the phonetic and utterance levels.

2.1 Phonetic level

Depression was acoustically assessed using phonetic features, including pauses, loudness, pitch, intonation, and stress. Vicsi et al. (2012) reported the pause and speech rates in the speech of depressed individuals. This point was later confirmed by Yang et al. (2013) in a comparative study of the vocal characteristics of depressive and non-depressed adults. It was reported that pauses and loud speech were more likely to be used by depressed patients than non-depressed patients. The results of Vicsi et al. (2012) and Yang et al. (2013) were in line with those of Greden and Carroll (1980) and Greden et al. (1981), who found that frequent pauses in speech could indicate depression. Likewise, Vogel et al. (2011) found that people

with depression spoke more slowly than non-depressed people. However, Williamson et al. (2016) recently found that loudness was not an indicator of depression.

Some studies have found that in addition to pauses and loudness of speech, pitch is another clear indicator of depression. Breznitz (1992) and Nilsome (1998) found different fundamental frequency values before and after treatment for depression. Jiang et al. (2018), who examined this issue in the Chinese language, reported similar results. With reference to Thai language, Teeranon (2020) measured fundamental frequency and pause occurrences in the speech of depressed Thai individuals. The pause duration was approximately 1.4–1.5 times longer in those with depression than in those without depression. This finding is congruent with other previous research.

2.2 Utterance level

This assessment of depression was based on the words and utterances verbalized by the depressed individuals. Upon word level, the word categories tested in this study were compiled and synthesized from the research of Angkapanichkit et al. (2019), Francis and Pennebaker (1993), and Zimmermann et al. (2017); two main word categories were identified among depressed individuals: 1) linguistic dimension and 2) psychological dimensions. The utterance level was emphatically incorporated.

The linguistic dimension includes function words, such as pronouns; prepositions; and other grammatical aspects, such as questions and numbers.

Psychological processes include affective processes, social processes, cognitive processes, perceptual processes, biological processes, drives, time orientations, relativity, personal concerns, and informal language.

It is interesting that Ramirez-Esparza et al. (2009) found that word categories used by Spanish-speaking depressed people were more correlated with *social processes* than other types of word categories. A study by Wolohan et al. (2018) found that the words of depressed people had a high level of affective processes, such as anxiety and sadness. "I-self-focus" was also found to be an indicator of depression, consistent with the work of Zimmermann et al. (2017). Edwards and Holtzman (2017) performed a meta-analysis of the correlations between depression and first-person singular pronouns and confirmed that "I self-focus" was significantly associated with depression.

Regarding depression among Thai individuals, the research of Angkapanichkit et al. (2019) proposed a tentative word category and utterances for diagnosing depression. There are six word categories used by depressed Thai teenagers, including *deixis*, *cognitive processes*, *affective processes*, *negation processes*, *metaphor*, and *action words*. Recently, Sathientharadol (2020) found four word categories used by depressed Thai teenagers: self, disease, society, and hope.

It is worth mentioning that Angkapanichkit et al. (2019) tentatively formulated a word checklist in the Thai language for the early detection of depression. Modifiers to intensify the degree of feeling or stress are included in the checklist. Therefore, affection processes could co-occur with a modifier; for example, [kròt] 'angry/affection processes' + [ŋâai] 'easily/modifier' means [kròt.ŋâai] to 'get angry easily.' This study noted some other pragmatic strategies and pressure utterances used by depressed Thai individuals, such as 'I feel that can't

breathe.' Unlike previous research performed on Western languages, such as English, the first-person pronoun used in the utterances of depressed Thai individuals is [rau] 'we,' which is the first-person plural pronoun. Angkapanichkit et al. (2019) previously explained that depressed Thai teenagers tend to use 'we' as an inclusive pronoun and not 'self-focus' to include themselves into the story in order to signal that they are experiencing pressure and feel unworthy of being involved in the actions of others. Sathientharadol (2020) reported a similar finding that the 'hope' word category relates to subcategory of words signalling other people, such as family and friends; for example, 'friend'+'support' in 'I am lucky that my friend supports me' signals hope for depressed Thai teenagers to cope with negative feeling with the help of the others. In addition to the conceptual meaning of the words, the emotional meaning is also presented in the words used by depressed Thai teenagers.

It can be said that, at the utterance level among depressed Thai individuals, the first-person pronoun, i.e., the pronoun 'we,' and the utterances that express depression, loneliness, self-blame, and self-worthlessness could be the main clue to detect depression. It was also suggested that two or more linguistics features should be combined for screening depression.

It is clear that word categories in Thai associated with depressed thoughts need more linguistics study for solid evidence to establish a Thai depressed word-use model as an alternative method of Thai depression assessment. Additionally, more scientific and quantified research on the utterances of depressed Thai individuals will provide an explicit and well-adopted depressed word-use model.

3. Methodology

The studies of Litvinova et al. (2016) and Mairesse et al. (2007) noted that combining indexes from various studies is also crucial. Francis and Pennebaker (1993) provided early work on LIWC, while the Zimmermann et al. (2017) study is one of the most cited works in the field; Angkapanichkit et al.'s (2019) publication was the first linguistic study addressing Thai teenagers' depression. The synthesis of this research showed that there were two main categories of words: the linguistic dimension and psychological dimension.

3.1 Word categories derived from previous research on language use among depressed individuals

The linguistic dimension includes function words, such as pronouns; prepositions; and other grammatical aspects, such as questions and numbers. However, only first-person pronouns were selected to represent the linguistic dimension in the present paper, as Edwards and Holtzman (2017) reliably reported first-person pronouns to be significant well-established indicators of depression.

The psychological dimension or psychological processes include affective processes, social processes, cognitive processes, perceptual processes, biological processes, drives, time orientations, relativity, personal concerns, and informal language.

These aforementioned studies were ultimately enacted as the present research analysis framework.

3.2 Participants

The empirical data were from 10 depressed Thai volunteers attending Lampang Hospital, Thailand. All participants were diagnosed with an F.32 depressive disorder and were

between 19–24 years old. This participants' age range was assigned according to a World Health Organization (2018) statement noting that depression is most common among the 15–29-year-old age group. Moreover, it was found that 50% of patients with depression eventually attempt suicide (Cummins et al., 2015). The participants voluntarily participated in the project, and ethical approval was granted by the Lampang Hospital and the University of Phayao no. 3/019/2562.

3.3 Data collection

The 10 participants were interviewed for eight minutes using open-ended questions, such as "If you had eight minutes, what would you like to tell the doctor?" Face validity, which is appropriate for a short list of question (Connell et al., 2018; Crawford et al., 2011), was tested with three experts to justify the appropriateness of the questions. Two experts were psychiatrists working in the hospital for 20 years the other one was a depressed person using a service at the hospital. Connell et al. (2018) highlighted the value of service users' opinions on question acceptability and validity when creating a new metric. Then, the speech of the 10 depressed Thai teenagers was recorded using ICD-UX200 digital voice recorder. All speech was transcribed. Ramirez-Esparza et al. (2009) confirmed that a body of interview data of approximately 2,000 words is appropriate for analysis. This present study had a body of data of 13,537 words.

3.4 Data analysis

The 13,537 words of transcribed speech were categorized according to 11 main categories of words: first-person pronouns, affective processes, social processes, cognitive processes, perceptual processes, biological processes, drives, time orientations, relativity, personal concerns, and informal language.

First-person pronouns are words signalling the speaker, both singular and plural.

Affective processes are word categories signalling both negative and positive emotions (e.g., happy, fun, sad, and angry).

Social processes are words signalling relationships (e.g., family relationships or friendship).

Cognitive processes are words signalling words associated with thought, such as see and know.

Perceptual processes are words signalling the five human senses (e.g., hear and feel).

Biological processes are words signalling the body and consumption (e.g., body and rice).

Drives are words related to achievement (e.g., win and success).

Time orientations are words signalling time (e.g., present, past, or future statements).

Relativity is a word category that shows the direction (e.g., in, out, narrow, and end).

Personal concerns are word categories signalling personal matters (e.g., money, religion, and death).

Informal language is a word category signalling the informal use of language (e.g., abbreviation and slang).

There were two raters who are linguists in the analysis process to justify the classification of ambiguous words. Then, a table showing the word categories, frequency, and percentages was drawn.

3.5 Model validation

EFA was applied to analyze the relationships among the 11 word categories used by the 10 depressed teenagers and depression. EFA is a well-accepted statistical method that is the first step in finding correlation between variables (Marcoulides, 1998), and it is considered to be appropriate method for small samples.

The raw data of 13,537 words from word counts were integrated into the EFA. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity were used to test whether the raw data of 13,537 words from the 10 participants were adequate for EFA. The words from the 10 depressed teenagers were considered sufficient for EFA.

The KMO index (which ranges from 0 to 1) is considered appropriate (see Table 1) when it is around or greater than 0.50 (Chua, 2014). Bartlett's test of sphericity was shown to be significant (p =0.000, df = 55).

Table 1

KMO index and Bartlett's test of sphericity

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy	**Bartlett's Test of Sphericity**		
	Chi-Square (χ^2)	**df**	**p-value**
0.5	8188.774	55	0.000

Then, AMOS software was applied for the statistical analysis of EFA. The cumulative variance was examined to confirm whether or not the reconfigured number of word categories was statistically acceptable for Thai depressed teenagers' utterances. Orthogonal rotation using the varimax method was applied to determine the factor loadings, communalities, eigenvalues, and percentage of variance for depressed Thai teenagers' utterances. Items with communalities values less than 0.50 were dropped from further analysis (Hair et al., 2006). An eigenvalue > 1 indicated a word category should be retained (Girden, 2001). A word category model was drawn. In labeling new word categories in the model, two linguists specialized in semantics were the raters of justification.

4. Results

The word frequency count (see Table 2) found that first-person pronouns accounted for 15.54% of the words used by the Thai depressed teenagers. Words signalling affective processes accounted for 5.59% of words used, social processes for 21.96%, cognitive processes for 17.13%, perceptual processes for 5.87%, biological processes for 3.46%, drives for 2.01%, time orientation for 10.50%, relativity for 3.55%, personal concerns for 7.62%, and informal language for 6.77%. The words in the social processes category were the most common among the depressed Thai teenagers, and the drive category was the least used.

Table 2
Word frequencies of the participating 10 depressed Thai teenagers

Words	Word examples	Frequency	%
Linguistic dimension first-person pronouns	[nŭu] 'I', [phûak.rau] 'we'	2,103	15.54
Psychological processes			
Affective processes	[sâu] 'sad', [nɨ̀əi] 'tired', [kròt] 'angry'	757	5.59
Social processes	[phîən] 'friend', [khrɔ̂p.khrua] 'family', [phîi] 'brother'	2,973	21.96
Cognitive processes	[khít] 'think', [tɔ̂ŋ.kaan] 'want'	2,319	17.13
Perceptual processes	[rŭu.sɨ̀k] 'feel', [faŋ] 'listen', [hěn] 'see'	795	5.87
Biological processes	[hŭa] 'head', [khâu] 'rice'	468	3.46
Drives	[rák] 'love', [khwam.sùk] happiness	272	2.01
Time orientations	[lăew] 'already', [tɔ̀ɔ.nɨ̂əŋ] 'continuously'	1421	10.50
Relativity	[khâu] 'enter', [càak] 'from'	480	3.55
Personal concerns	[taai] 'dead', [nîi] 'debt'	1032	7.62
Informal language	[wít.lai] 'college', [mɔɔ] 'high school', [phɨ̌i.bâa] 'crazy person'	917	6.77
Total		**13,537**	**100.00**

** There are 5 tones in Thai: [ ] means mid tone, [̀] means low tone, [̂] means falling tone, [́] means high tone, and [̌] means rising tone.

The EFA identified three factors or three categories that can be derived from Table 2 with a cumulative variance of 99.9% (Table 3). From this, it could be inferred that three word categories were statistically acceptable for Thai depressed teenagers' utterances.

Table 3
Cumulative variance in depressed Thai teenagers' utterances

Factors	Proportion variance	Cumulative variance
1	99.8	99.8
2	00.1	99.9
3	00.1	99.9

After employing orthogonal rotation using the varimax method, the cumulative variance was 99%, indicating that the values calculated for EFA in Table 4 could explain a large proportion of the variation in the data.

Table 4

Factor loadings, communalities, and percentages of cumulative variance for depressed Thai teenagers utterances

Group	Word categories	Factor loadings			Communality	Eigenvalue	% of variance
		1	2	3			
1	Affective processes	0.592	0.577	0.562	.875	10.9799	99.8
	Social processes	0.627	0.544	0.557	.919		
	Cognitive processes	0.612	0.564	0.553	.930		
	Perceptual processes	0.599	0.568	0.564	.921		
	Biological processes	0.595	0.572	0.563	.886		
	Time orientations	0.618	0.587	0.523	.925		
	Personal concerns	0.604	0.565	0.562	.914		
	Informal language	0.614	0.573	0.542	.943		
2	First-person pronouns	0.565	0.625	0.538	.931	0.0068	00.1
3	Drives	0.562	0.581	0.589	.919	0.0059	00.1
	Relativity	0.585	0.554	0.592	.959		
Total							99.9

All factor loadings in Table 4 were found to be higher than 0.50, with three word categories according to the factor loadings. Next, the communalities of the items were all higher than 0.50; therefore, all word categories could be used for further analysis. Eigenvalues > 1 were detected from the EFA in the first group of word categories, while the second and third groups had eigenvalues < 1. All word categories could explain 99.9% of the variance in total.

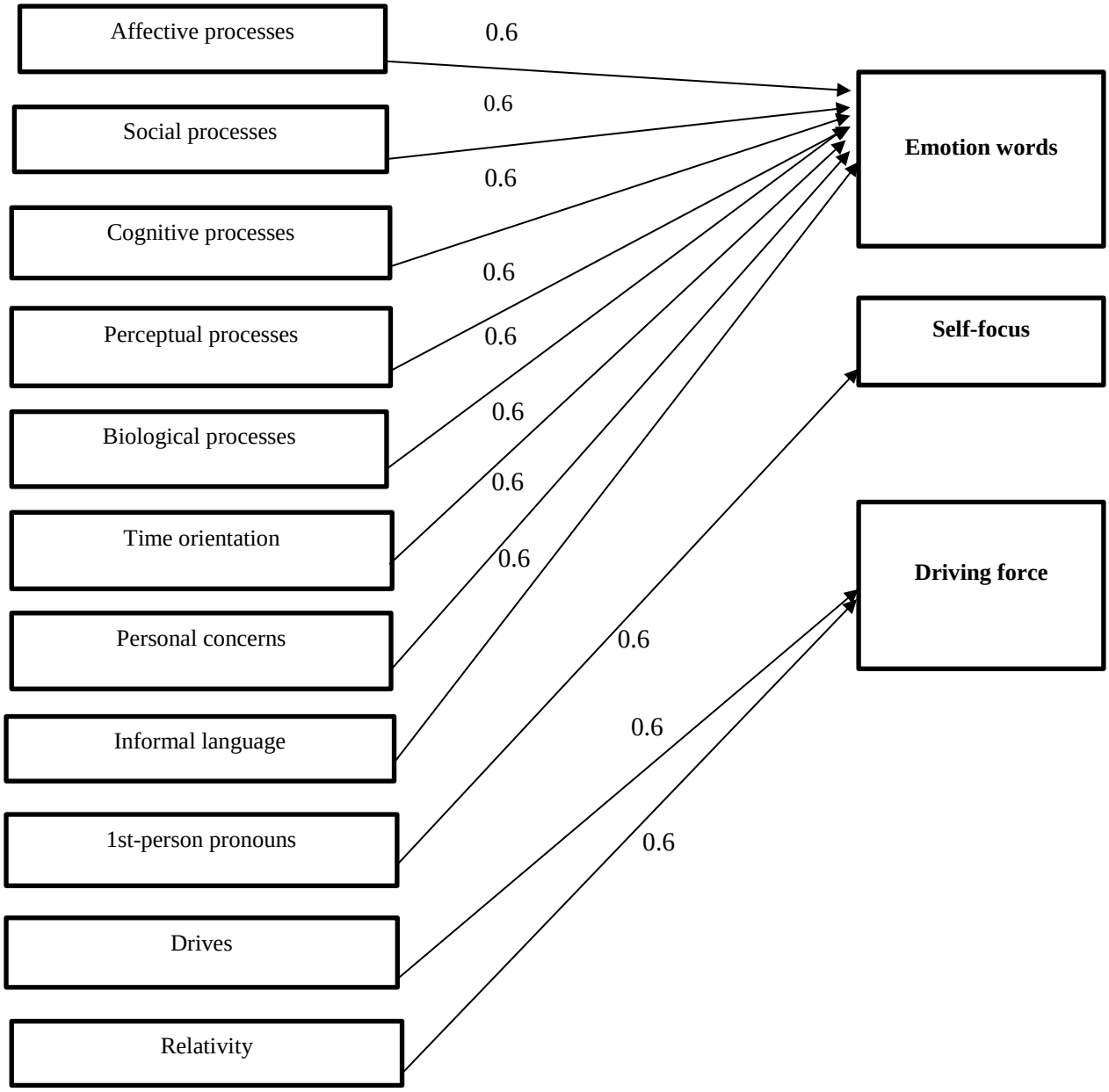
The first word category included eight subcategories, namely, affective processes, social processes, cognitive processes, perceptual processes, biological processes, time orientations, personal concerns, and informal language, with factor loadings of 0.562 – 0.627. This category was titled “Emotions words”.

The second word category included first-person pronouns with factor loadings of 0.544 – 0.625. This category was titled “Self-focus.”

The third word category included drives and relativity, with factor loadings values of 0.523 – 0.592. This category was titled “Driving force.”

The factors and their contributions led to three word categories, as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1
Word use model for depressed Thai teenagers



5. Discussion

Depressed individuals reflect their thoughts through their verbalized language. This study aimed to analyze the word categories used by depressed Thai teenagers based on LIWC and to quantify a model of word use for depressed Thai teenagers' utterances.

Words signalling social processes, such as friend, family, and brother, are the most used by depressed Thai teenagers. Words signalling cognitive processes account for 17.13% of

words, first-person pronouns for 15.57%, and the drive category for 2.01%. These findings are consistent with the studies of Angkapanichkit et al. (2019) and Sathientharadol (2020).

Similar to previous research in other languages, first-person pronouns are highly used by depressed Thai teenagers. This finding is in line with that of Zimmermann et al. (2017) and a quantitative study of Edwards and Holtzman (2017). The findings on the speech of the depressed Thai teenagers' in this study confirm Pyszczynski and Greenberg's (1987) model of self-focus. It is widely accepted that depressed individuals have lower self-regulation and compensate for this with self-focus. This assumption is also consistent with the research of Ramirez-Esparza et al. (2009) and Stirman and Pennebake (2001). Compared to Angkapanichkit et al. (2019), which found "we" to be an inclusive pronoun used by depressed teenagers in the Thai language, this present study is more likely to be congruent with Beck's theory of self-focus. This might be due to the different methods of data collection, as Angkapanichkit et al. (2019) mainly used the diary writings of depressed teenagers, while other studies used social media content or speech. The style of language use seems to affect the words used by depressed teenagers. There is another point suggesting that the style of language use among depressed individuals affects the research result. Yoo and Ha (2019) suggested that informal words, such as slang and abbreviations, were used as much as storytelling; however, the present study found a contrasting result, showing that the informal word category was less used by the depressed Thai teenagers. This difference is due to the fact that Yoo and Ha (2019) collected their data from social media, while the present study used interview data.

The drives category was found to be the least used by depressed Thai teenagers; this can be explained by the suggestion of Angkapanichkit et al. (2019) that depressed individuals feel tired and less motivated to live their lives. While Angkapanichkit et al. (2019) found that negative emotion was expressed by depressed individuals, Sathientharadol (2020) semantically linked hopeful words with social processes. Sathientharadol reached the conclusion that understanding from family and friends can give hope to depressed individuals.

Quantitative analysis using EFA in this study significantly indicated that there were approximately three word categories used by depressed Thai teenagers.

The first word category includes eight subcategories, namely, affective processes, social processes, cognitive processes, perceptual processes, biological processes, time orientations, personal concerns, and informal language with factor loadings of 0.562 – 0.627. This category is titled "Emotion words."

The second word category includes first-person pronouns, with factor loadings of 0.544 – 0.625. This category is titled "Self-focus."

The third word category includes drives and relativity, with factor loadings of 0.523 – 0.592. This category is titled "Driving force."

It is interesting that the first word category used by depressed Thai teenagers in this study includes eight LIWC word categories, including words signalling emotion among depressed individuals. This word category, renamed "Emotions words," appears to serve as the foundation for semantic categories as mentioned in Rauh (2016).

First-person pronouns were statistically classified as an independent category called "Self-focus." However, as the eigenvalue is less than 1; this category is unstable and requires more data to confirm its relationship with depression in Thai teenagers. Similarly, the third word category found in this present study called "Driving force" comprises drives and relativity and also has an eigenvalue less than 1. This category is undoubtedly in need of more data to confirm its significance. Regarding limitations, as it was found after employing EFA that the eigenvalues in the second and the third categories were less than 1; thus, further studies with larger sample sizes must be conducted.

Rude et al. (2004) and Schwartz (2018) suggest that the aforementioned results show depressed Thai teenagers are deeply dominated with heightened emotion and preoccupied by self-awareness thoughts that were then verbalized into language. Word use in depressed Thai teenagers signals vulnerability to depression.

However, the drives word category includes positive words, such as success and hope. This is in line with the results of Sathientharadol (2020), who found that the hope word category is used by depressed Thai teenagers. Sathientharadol (2020) explained that hope words signal help from people in society, which affects the feeling of depressed speakers. Moreover, it can be inferred that the co-occurrence between word categories might be a trend among depressed Thai individuals; for example, 'I' + 'success' was a word combination structure found to signal depression in the Thai language by Angkapanichkit et al. (2019). It seems that such words and their combinations are crucial for identifying depression. The present study has also yielded congruent results that depressed Thai teenagers tend to use the storytelling in the "Driving force" category, such as 'My mother helps me out,' which supports the findings of Sathientharadol (2020) that depressed Thai teenagers seek help from the others. The words in the social processes category (words related to friends and family) were the most used among the depressed Thai teenagers in this study, which also supports this finding.

Regarding the number of word categories used by depressed Thai teenagers, this study has proposed three categories of words linked to depression or word-use model for depressed Thai teenagers: "Emotion words," "Self-focus," and "Driving force." Meanwhile, previous research on the Thai language has found higher numbers of categories. Angkapanichkit et al. (2019) reported approximately six word categories, and Sathientharadol (2020) found four word categories used by depressed Thai teenagers. Applying the EFA method to establish a linguistic word-use model associated with Thai depression postulates different word-use categories. This present quantified results lead to ample evidence of a language word-use model to entail depressive signs than by a self-evaluated form as mentioned in Rude et al. (2001). The first category titled "Emotion words" had an eigenvalue higher than 1, which seems to confirm the cognitive model that depressed individuals highly express their feelings. This category of words can be used as an indicator for the diagnosis of depression (O'Dea et al., 2021; Zapata-Vega et al., 2010).

However, pragmatics of the Thai language used by Thai teenagers may have significant influence on the utterances; qualitative analysis of words is suggested for further research.

6. Conclusion

Based on our statistical analyses, three categories of words used in the speech of Thai depressed individuals are proposed. Utterances and word categories can be used for the early

detection of depression. Most of the identified word categories signal emotive meaning. This present result indicates the importance of emotive and self-centred thought to enact depressive vulnerability. In addition, driving force word-use category also indicates help-seeking of the depressed Thai teenagers.

Acknowledgements

I would like to extend my deepest gratitude to Program Management Unit on Area Based Development (PMU A) and Unit of Excellence of the School of Liberal Arts for research grants with human ethics number UP-HEC 3/018/62 and UP-HEC 2.2/053/64. I would also like to express my gratitude to Professor Dr. Unchalee Wongwattana for her valuable comments on the first draft of the paper.

Author

Phanintra Teeranon is an Associate Professor at the School of Liberal Arts, University of Phayao, teaching courses primarily in linguistics and area-based research. She received her PhD at Chulalongkorn University and has been researching and writing articles on linguistics and education. Conducting research on social issues to develop alternative solutions is currently her major concern. She has been awarded the "Excellent Research Award" from the University of Phayao and National Research Council of Thailand.

References

Angkapanichkit, J., Rojanahasadin, A., & Inthasian, S. (2019). *Language communication and depression: A survey of communication development in detection depression for sustainable life*. A Research Report, Thailand Research Fund. (in Thai)

Beck, A. T., & Clark, D. A. (1997). An information processing model of anxiety: Automatic and strategic processes. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, *35*(1), 49-58.

Beck, A. T., & Haigh, E. A. P. (2014). Advances in cognitive theory and therapy: The generic cognitive model. *Annual Review of Clinical Psychology*, *10*, 1-24.

Breznitz, Z. (1992). Verbal indicators of depression. *The Journal of General Psychology*, *119(4)*, 351-363.

Chaveepojnkamjorn, W., Pichainarong, N., Adthasangsri, V., Sativipawee, P., & Prasertsong, C. (2017). Depression and its associated factors among senior high school students in Nonthaburi Province, Thailand: A cross-sectional study. *JPHDC*, *2(3)*, 224-234.

Chen, Y.-H., & Jin, C. (2017). *A corpus-based study of depressive language in online teen health communications*. An Unpublished Working Paper of the University of Nottingham, University of Nottingham.

Chua, Y. P. (2014). *Statistik penyelidikan lanjutan: Ujian regresi, analisis faktor dan analisis sem*. McGraw Hill (Malaysia) Sdn Bhd.

Connell, J., Carlton, J., Grundy, A., Taylor, B. E., Keetharuth, A. D., Ricketts, T., Barkham, M., Robotham D., Rose D., & Brazier J. (2018). The importance of content and face validity in instrument development: lessons learnt from service users when developing the Recovering Quality of Life measure (ReQoL). *Quality of Life Research*, *27(7)*, 1893-1902.

Crawford, M. J., Robotham, D., Thana, L., Patterson, S., Weaver, T., Barber, R., Wykes, T., & Rose, D. (2011). Selecting outcome measures in mental health: The views of service users. *Journal of Mental Health, 20(4),* 336-346.

Cummins, N., Scherer, S., Krajewski, J., Schnieder, S., Epps, J., & Quatieri, T. (2015). A review of depression and suicide risk assessment using speech analysis. *Speech Communication, 71,* 10-49.

De Choudhury, M., Gamon, M., Counts, S., & Horvitz, E. (2013). Predicting depression via social media. *Proceedings of the International AAAI Conference on Web and Social Media*, *7*(1), 128-137.

Edwards, T., & Holtzman, N. S. (2017). A meta-analysis of correlations between depression and first person singular pronoun use. *Journal of Research in Personality, 68,* 63-68.

Evans, V. (2012). Cognitive linguistics. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Cognitive Science, 3*(2), 129-141.

Fávero, L. P., & Belfiore, P. (2019). *Data science for business and decision making*. Academic Press.

Francis, M. E., & Pennebaker, J. W. (1993). LIWC: Linguistic inquiry and word count. *Technical report*. Southern Methodist University.

Girden, E. R. (2001). *Evaluating research articles from start to finish*. Sage Publications.

Greden, J. F., & Carroll, B. J. (1980). *Decrease in speech pause times with treatment of endogenous depression*. *Biological Psychiatry*, *15*(4), 575-587.

Greden, J. F., Albala, A. A., Smokler, I. A., Gardner, R., & Carroll, B. J. (1981). Speech pause time: a marker of psychomotor retardation among endogenous depressives. *Biological Psychiatry*, *16*(9), 851-859.

Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B., Anderson, R., & Tatham, R. (2006) *Multivariate data analysis*. Pearson Prentice Hall.

Jarrold, W., Javitz, H. S., Krasnow, R., Peintner, B., Yeh, E., Swan, G. E., & Mehl, M. (2011). Depression and self-focused language in structured interview with older men. *Psychological Reports*, *109*(2), 686-700.

Jiang, H., Hu, B., Liu, Z., Wang, G., Zhang, L., Li, X., & Kang, H. (2018). Detecting depression using an ensemble logistic regression model based on multiple speech features. *Computational and Mathematical Methods in Medicine, 2018,* 1-9.

Lieberman, M. A., & Goldstein ,B. A. (2006). Not all negative emotions are equal: The role of emotional expression in online support groups for women with breast cancer. *Psychooncology, 15*(2), 160-168.

Litvinova, T., Zagorovskaya, O., Litvinova, O., & Seredin, P. (2016). Profiling a set of personality traits of a text's author: A corpus-based approach. *International Conference on Speech Compututer, 9811,* 555-562.

Marcoulides, G. A. (1998). *Modern methods for business research*. Psychology Press.

Mairesse, F., Walker, M., Mehl, M., & Moore, R. (2007). Using linguistic cues for the automatic recognition of personality in conversation and text. *Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research (JAIR), 30,* 457-500.

Nilsome, A. (1998). Acoustic analysis of speech variables during depression and after improvement under antidepressants. *European Neuropsychopharmacology, 76*(3), 235-245.

O' Dea, B., Boonstra, T., Larsen, M., Nguyen, T., Venkatesh, S., & Christensen, H. (2021). The relationship between linguistic expression in blog content and symptoms of depression, anxiety, and suicidal thoughts: A longitudinal study. *PLOS ONE, 16*(5), 1-29.

Pinker, S. (1998). *Words and rules: The ingredients of language*. Weidenfeld and Nicolson.

Pyszczynski, T., & Greenberg, J. (1987). Self-regulatory preservation and the depressive self-focusing style: A self-awareness theory of reactive depression. *Psychological Bulletin, 102*, 122-138.

Ramírez-Esparza, N., Chung, C. K., Sierra-Otero, G., & Pennebaker, J. W. (2009). *El lenguaje de la depresión: Categorías lingüísticas y temas usados en foros de discusión en el internet en Inglés y en Español.* [The language of depression: Linguistic categories and themes used in discussion forums on the internet in English and Spanish]. Revista de la Asociación de Psicoterapia de la República Argentina, Julios.

Rauh, G. (2016) Linguistic categories and the syntax-semantics interface: Evaluating competing approaches. In J. Fleischhauer, A. Latrouite & R. Osswald (Eds.), *Explorations of the syntax-semantics interface: Studies in language and cognition, 3*, pp. 15-55. Düsseldorf University Press.

Rude, S. S., Covich, J., Jarrold, W., Hedlund, S., & Zentner, M. (2001). Detecting depressive schemata in vulnerable individuals: Questionnaires versus laboratory tasks. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, *25*(1), 103-116.

Rude, S. S., Gortner, E. M., & Pennebaker, J. W. (2004). Language use of depressed and depression vulnerable college students. *Cognition and Emotion*, *18*(8), 1121-1133.

Sathientharadol, P. (2020). A semantic network analysis of Thai utterances used by depression patients. *Academic Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences Burapha University*, *28*(3), 116-142. (in Thai)

Schwartz, A. (2018). *Linguistic analysis of written language used by young adults with and without invisible disabilities*. [Unpublished honors thesis, The University of Tennessee at Chattanooga].

Stirman, S. W., & Pennebaker, J. W. (2001). Word use in the poetry of suicidal and nonsuicidal poets. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, *63*(4), 517-522.

Teeranon, P. (2020). An acoustic study of fundamental frequency and pauses in depressive teenagers in Thailand: A pilot study. *Journal of Universal Language*, *21*(1), 89-111.

Vicsi, K., Sztahó, D., & Kiss, G. (2012). Examination of the sensitivity of acoustic-phonetic parameters of speech to depression. *Proceeding of the 3rd IEEE International Conference on Cognitive Infocommunications*. December 2-5, 2012, Kosice, Slovakia.

Vogel, A. P., Fletcher, J., Snyder, P. J., Fredrickso, A., & Maruff, P. (2011). Reliability, stability, and sensitivity to change and impairment in acoustic measures of timing and frequency. *Journal of Voice*, *25*(2), 137-149.

Williamson, J. R., Godoy, E., Cha, M., Schwarzentruber, A., Khorrami, P., Gwon, Y., Kung, H-T., Dagli, C., & Quatieri, T. F. (2016). Detecting depression using vocal, facial and semantic communication cues. *Proceedings of the 6th International Workshop on Audio/Visual Emotion Challenge*. ACM, 11-18.

Wolohan, J. T., Hiraga, M., Mukherjee, A. Sayyed, Z. A., & Millard, M. (2018). Detecting linguistic traces of depression in topic-restricted text: Attending to self-stigmatized depression with NLP. *Proceedings of the First International Workshop on Language Cognition and Computational Models*. Retrieved from https://www.aclweb.org/anthology/W18-4102.pdf

World Health Organization. (2018). *Depression: Let's talk.* Retrieved August 17, 2019 from https://www.who.int/mental_health/management/depression/en/

Yang, Y., Fairbairn, C., & Cohn, J. F. (2013). *Detecting depression severity from vocal prosody*. *IEEE Transactions on Affective Computing*, *4*(2), 142-150.

Yoo, M. L., & Ha, T. (2019). Semantic network analysis for understanding user experiences of bipolar and depressive disorders on Reddit. *Information Processing & Management*, *56*(4), 1565-1575.

Zapata-Vega, M. I., De la Grecca, R., Altamirano, A., Gonzaga, V., & Vega-Dienstmaier, J. M. (2010). Diagnosing depression: Symptoms and vocabulary used by a sample of general practitioners. *Revista de Neuro-Psiquiatría*, *73*(3), 77-83.

Zimmermann, J., Brockmeyer, T., Hunn, M., Schauenburg, H., & Wolf, M. (2017). First-person pronoun use in spoken language as a predictor of future depressive symptoms: Preliminary evidence from a clinical sample of depressed patients. *Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy*, *24*(2), 384-391.

The Killings of Buck, the Dog, in Jack London's *The Call of the Wild*

Received : Nov 11, 2021
Revised : Dec 12, 2021
Accepted : Jan 27, 2022

Khomduen Phothisuwan
Rajamangala University of Technology Tawan-ok

Prapaipan Aimchoo
Srinakharinwirot University

Abstract

This study discusses the killings of Buck, the dog, in London's *The Call of the Wild*. Theoretical ideas regarding survival and killing proposed by philosophers such as Friedrich Nietzsche and Walter Bagehot are employed. Once a family's best friend, Buck turns out to be a killer. The objectives are to investigate: 1) the reasons behind each killing; 2) the causes driving him to kill; and 3) the results of his killings. It demonstrates that the dog Spitz, wild animals, and the tribal Yeehats are the main victims. The reasons behind killing Spitz are hatred, replacement, and the belief in the law of fang. The reasons to kill wild animals are hunger, independence, and pleasure. Taking revenge is the reason to kill humans. The causes driving him to kill are instinct, the warm taste of blood, and belief in the law of fang. The results of his killings are power and the acceptance of the call of the wild. This paper argues that, in untamed Alaska, Buck uses the law of fang not only for survival but for taking and maintaining power over others.

Keywords: Jack London, *The Call of the Wild*, Buck, killing, the law of fang

Born in San Francisco, California, Jack London (1876-1916) was a writer of adventure and science fiction novels and short stories. Also, London was a social activist. He joined protest marches in 1894 and a socialist party in 1896. In 1897, London became a part of the Klondike Gold Rush in Alaska. Mandy Stovicek reports that "His father, John London, had died while he was away, and London became the sole care-taker for his mother and family. He searched for work, but soon realized that he must plunge himself into writing" (2011, p. 36). In 1898, London sold his first short story "To the Man on the Trail." From that moment onwards, he has been accepted as a noted author. London wrote dozens of short stories such as "The Son of the Wolf" (1900), "To Build a Fire" (1902), and "The Mexican" (1911). His novels include *The Call of the Wild* (1903), *White Fang* (1906), and *Martin Eden* (1909). Of these works, *The Call of the Wild* is categorized as one of the 100 world classics by W. John Campbell (2000) in *The Book of Great Books: A Guide to 100 World Classics*. The novel was first published in 1903 and "sold 10,000 copies on the first day" (Walker, 1972, as cited in Stovicek, 2011, p. 35). Campbell views it as "the work that established him as a best-selling writer in 1903" (2000, p. 104). The story was adapted for film in 2020, directed by Chris Sanders for *20th Century Studios*. Harrison Ford, an American actor, stars as John Thornton, a warm-hearted and caring prospector. Ford's role surely contributed to the film's appeal to world audiences. Ford attracts the audience, but he is eventually overshadowed by Buck, the dog.

The story presents the protagonist Buck's hard life struggling to survive the bad times and become stronger. At the beginning of the narrative, Buck lives happily as a pampered dog

at a judge's large house in the Santa Clara Valley of California. However, Buck is then stolen by the judge's gardener and sold to be a sled dog in Klondike, east of the Alaskan border. There, he encounters unexpected situations and violence leading him to believe in the law of fang practiced by wild dogs. Buck has various owners who force him to pull heavy loaded sleds in traces with a team of dogs. Buck must stay and sleep on the snow-covered ground of the natural Alaskan environment. To become the dog team's leader, he kills Spitz, a fierce dog who had been until then the team leader. At a camp, Buck is beaten nearly to death by a cruel master. Thornton helps him by knocking the master down, after which Buck stays with Thornton. Wandering the wilderness of Alaska, Buck becomes a blood-longing dog. After Thornton and his friends, including his dogs, have been murdered by the Yeehats, a native American tribe, Buck kills several of tribe members. In the end, Buck is called "Ghost Dog" by the Yeehats. In the end, Buck is seen running at the head of a wolf pack into the Alaskan wilderness.

Researchers and reviewers have explored *The Call of the Wild* quite extensively. Raymond Benoit (1968) reports that it epitomizes the American dream of escaping from modern and complex society for a primitive state, as follows:

> London used just this pastoral made in *The Call of the Wild*: the myth of Buck, the great dog, is an embodiment of the American dream of escaping from the entangling complexity of modern living back to a state as unencumbered as the sled that Buck pulls. (p. 246)

Several features have been suggested as the necessities for Buck's survival. Donald Pizer (2011) argues that the story "proposes the wisdom of the beast fable that the strong, the shrewd, and the cunning shall prevail when, as is progressively true in this story, life is bestial" (p. 6). In terms of miscegenation, Yvonne Iden Ngwa (2015) studies Buck's mixture of breeds. Ngwa points out that "Buck is midway between several species or races. He is a cross-breed of a St Bernard and a shepherd; is at crossroads between the dog's race and the wolf's race; and is too human to be considered an animal" (p. 200). Buck is a newcomer struggling to survive and to maintain his own species in the Alaskan wilderness. Richard Fusco (1987) suggests that "Buck's metamorphosis is not as complete as a cursory reading might lead one to believe, however. Buck still retains vestiges of social advancement after his eventual leadership of the wolf pack" (p. 76).

The theme *survival in the wild* draws attention to the novel. The word *survival* means the state of continuing to live or exist in certain circumstances such as a hostile environment. In *Beyond Good and Evil*, Friedrich Nietzsche (1844-1900), a German philosopher, states that "the species needs itself as species, as something which, precisely by virtue of its hardness, its uniformity, and simplicity of structure, can in general prevail and make itself permanent in constant struggle with its neighbors, or with rebellious or rebellion-threatening vassals" (2014, p. 151). This is simplified by Roy Jackson who stated that "He believed the most important question should not be what is true or not but the extent to which a belief supports life and maintains a species" (Nietzsche, 2003, as cited in Jackson, 2010, p. 56). As the word *he* in Jackson's statements refers to Nietzsche, Jackson agrees with him that the true moral of an individual depends on the ability to exist. The idea is also consistent with the theory of evolution proposed by Charles Darwin, a renowned British scientist. According to Darwin, "This preservation of favorable individual differences and variations, and the destruction of those which are injurious, I have called Natural Selection, or the Survival of the Fittest" (2009, p. 77).

Darwin's theory of evolution has had a great influence on literary studies. In the case of *The Call of the Wild*, Campbell (2000) explains the term *social Darwinism* as "In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, this was called "social Darwinism," and *The Call of the Wild* is a good example of Darwin's influence on Jack London" (p. 107). Roman Bartosch (2010) also suggests that "Buck's strategy of survival relies on adaptation, and the implications of this will surely have been obvious to the contemporary readers' eye, possibly trained in or at least familiar with Darwinist thought" (p. 89).

According to the ideas and the research findings, this study views Buck's killing as a tool for his survival. The word *kill* means to make a person or animal die or to take someone's life. This act is conducted in a way that is intended. When killing occurs, some humans or animals either kill or are killed. In *Physics and Politics*, Walter Bagehot (2017) posits that "If A kills B before B kills A, then A survives, and the human race is a race of A's" (p. 91). In *The Myth of Sisyphus: And Other Essays*, Albert Camus mentions Nietzsche's idea about killing stating that "as for Nietzsche, to kill God is to become god oneself" (Nietzsche, 1978, as cited in Camus, 1991, p. 108). According to Nietzsche and Bagehot, taking life relates to taking power. Killing is used by a killer to take the power of someone who is killed. Under these definitions, this study defines the word *killing* as an action made by a killer to take someone's life. A killing takes place when the killer wants to maintain his or her existence, and moreover, to replace the someone who has just been murdered. As killing is displayed in the novel primarily by the dog Buck, this study aims to observe Buck's killings and propose reasons leading him to kill. Also, it points out the causes supporting the murders and subsequent outcomes. Thus, the following three main aspects of Buck's killings are considered: 1) the reasons behind each killing; 2) the causes driving him to kill; and 3) the results of his killings.

The data are derived from both primary and secondary sources. The primary source is London's *The Call of the Wild*, the version published in Kindle, a series of e-readers, designed by Amazon.com. The portrayals of the protagonist Buck and other dogs, especially Curly and Spitz were considered. The characterizations of Buck and human masters such as Thornton and Francois as well as the tribal Yeehats were gathered. The descriptions of events involving Buck were focused on. Various studies, reviews, and books relevant to the three objectives were considered as useful secondary sources. The 2020 film *The Call of the Wild* was also viewed as another useful source because it illuminates the lives of the characters. Some aspects of survival proposed by world theorists such as Friedrich Nietzsche, Walter Bagehot, and Charles Darwin were considered while the acts of killing in other literary studies were gathered. Then, the narration of the events involving Buck's killing were extracted for in-depth study. The analysis was carried out. The reasons leading Buck to commit such murder, the causes driving him to kill, and the effects of these kills were presented. Some arguments were posited, followed by the discussion, the conclusion, and the recommendations for further studies.

The study finds that Buck kills a Spitzbergen dog, named Spitz. This dog is the leader of the sled dog team to which Buck belongs. Spitz is sly and deceitful; he is strong and experienced. They have attacked each other before Spitz is killed:

> Every animal was motionless as though turned to stone. Only Spitz quivered and bristled as he staggered back and forth, snarling with horrible menace, as though to frighten off impending death. Then Buck sprang in and out; but while he was in, shoulder had at last squarely met shoulder. The dark circle became a dot on the moon-flooded snow as Spitz disappeared. (London, 2021, pp. 39-40)

The dogs are characterized as motionless like rock signify a sense of impending death. No one tries to help, or in fact, no one can help. This characterization implies that there is no chance for other dogs to do anything or participate in this situation. The only action they can take at the time is to stand and watch silently. If they had moved, the situation might have changed. However, the stillness of others means Spitz attacks alone. From the portrayal of Bucks' shoulders squarely meeting Spitz's it can be inferred that Buck uses his full physical strength to attack Spitz. Intertwined with his hatred and anger, Buck's power is made full use of to stop Spitz, his mortal enemy.

The reason behind this killing is that Buck hates Spitz. The feeling is clearly presented when his friend, Curly, a good-natured Newfoundland, was killed by a pack of wild huskies. The tragic death of Curly comes as a complete shock to Buck: "The scene often came back to Buck to trouble him in his sleep. So that was the way. No fair play. Once down, that was the end of you. Well, he would see to it that he never went down" (London, 2021, p. 16). Feeling anxious even in his sleep means that Buck deeply feels the pain of bereavement and cannot forget the event. Death of a close friend generally brings about sadness and depression. Particularly, an unnatural death such as being murdered results in much pain and grief. As a result, it is usual to feel grief. Unlike Buck, Spitz runs out his tongue and laughs at seeing the death: "Spitz ran out his tongue and laughed again, and from that moment Buck hated him with a bitter and deathless hatred" (London, 2021, p. 16). Although Curly and Spitz are not close, Curly is a member of the sled dog team, led by him. Instead of showing sadness or staying calm, Spitz laughs at Curly's death. These acts signal that Spitz did not care about Curly or what happened to her. Even worse, he finds this tragic passing funny. From that moment onwards, Buck is deeply affected by Spitz's hard-hearted and cruel acts, and he feels very angry and hates Spitz.

The belief in the law of fang is also a reason behind killing Spitz. The feeling of "no fair play" emerging in Buck's thoughts reflects his belief in the law presented and practiced by the wild huskies. The huskies use their fangs to kill Curly, who is weaker. The description *he would see to it that he never went down* implies that Buck understands and obeys the law and that he must practice it so that he does not lose his own life. His enemies or victims must go down instead. At that moment, Spitz is his only mortal enemy. For Buck, it is the right time to practice the law on him. Spitz must be killed by his fangs because he hates him with a bitter and deathless hatred. Most of all, he will kill him because Buck has a very strong sense of practicing the law of fang. According to Nietzsche, Buck can make himself preeminent in struggle with Spitz. In this sense, one of the reasons to kill Spitz is that he does not want to be the one who dies. This is also consistent with the idea of Bagehot as he states that "If A kills B before B kills A, then A survives" (2017, p. 91). In the story, Buck can kill Spitz while Spitz is trying to kill Buck. It is obvious that Buck survives.

Another reason behind this killing is the need to replace Spitz. After he has killed Spitz, Buck fully intends to be a leader of the team:

> Buck trotted up to the place Spitz would have occupied as leader; but Francois, not noticing him, brought Sol-leks to the coveted position. In his judgement, Sol-leks was the best lead-dog left. Buck sprang upon Sol-leks in a fury, driving him back and standing in his place. (London, 2021, p. 41)

From the word *coveted* it can be inferred that Buck has a very strong desire to take the position. Moreover, the words *in a fury* imply that Buck deprives Sol-leks with his full effort

and attention so that the permission to become a new leader is given. Buck informs Francois, a human master, that only he deserves to replace Spitz. If he had not taken these actions, no one would have realized this. However, Francois gives the position to Sol-leks, an experienced sled dog, not Buck. Finally, Francois realizes that Buck prefers to lead the team. This makes it clear that what Nietzsche says is right as he says that "to kill God is to become god oneself" (Nietzsche, 1978, as cited in Camus, 1991, p. 107). People give much importance or respect to God, so, in this text, God can refer to the leader of the sled dog team, the position taken by Buck, the killer. On a higher level, this shows that Buck can completely control the situation. While the action of killing Spitz indicates a great anger towards him, the action of depriving Sol-leks of the team leader position reflects Buck's real passion for order and control. A leader is the one who directs or controls others in the team. As a result, the attempts he has made to grasp the position mean that Buck understands the power of this duty and really needs it. According to this study, this kill takes place when Buck wants to replace the leader who has just been murdered.

Buck kills not only the bitter enemy but other animals. Apart from Spitz, Buck's victims consist mainly of small wild animals such as birds, rabbits, chipmunks, fish, and beavers:

> He could take a ptarmigan from its nest, kill a rabbit as it slept, and snap in mid air the little chipmunks fleeing a second too late for the trees. Fish, in open pools, were not too quick for him; nor were beaver. (London, 2021, p. 92)

The reasons to kill the small wild animals are hunger, independence, and pleasure. These small animals contribute significantly to Buck's diet. Without a human master, Buck becomes a beast who hunts to consume. Feeling hungry, he kills. In wilderness, the portrayals of Buck's killings affirm Darwin's concepts of evolution that the stronger ones remain alive while the weaker ones die. In Buck's case, other animals die and become his prey. Various kills taking place also indicate the capacity to hunt different animals in different habitats. On the other hand, as he eats the flesh of wild animals rather than any food fed by humans, these kills reflect that Buck can live in the primordial state without depending on the help of humans. From that moment onwards, killing is a skill Buck readily masters. Killing animals is not just hunting to eat but also a real enjoyment. When hunting and eating what he kills to survive becomes a habit, Buck kills every single day. These kills reflect Buck's deep thirst for killing while developing his killing skills. Furthermore, it can be interpreted that Buck presents his desire to stay away from humans and to become a real wild beast.

Later, Buck is challenged by a large and heavy moose: "Three hundredweight; he had lived a long, strong life, full of attacks and struggles, and at the end he faced death at the teeth of a creature whose head did not reach beyond his great knuckled knees" (London, 2021, p. 94). The moose is two times Buck's size. If the moose's size is compared to Buck's, Buck does not seem very large. However, Buck is described as larger than dogs in general: "He was not so large, —he weighed only one hundred and forty pounds" (London, 2021, p. 4). This description is shown in the first scene. One hundred and forty pounds is approximately 63 kilograms. Although he is characterized with the words *not so large*, Buck weighs the same as some fully-grown men. It is uncommon for a dog to be of this weight. As a result, this implies that Buck is prepared by his size to attack large animals such as moose. Moreover, the moose is portrayed not only to have a great deal of physical power but also to have the ability to attack. For Buck, because he is well prepared, he is not too small to kill the moose.

Subsequently, he kills moose: "He could not follow, for before his nose leaped the merciless fanged terror that would not let him go" (London, 2021, p. 94). The merciless fanged terror is Buck and he successfully kills the moose. While a wolf pack tackle large prey together, Buck stalks and attacks the prey alone. Buck is characterized as being a merciless predator who can make the moose feel extreme fear before being killed. This shows that, after little time alone in the forest, Buck's skill in hunting and killing becomes fully developed. Fangs are used repeatedly as lethal weapons to kill and to confirm the full use of the law of fang.

As with the killing of the small wild animals, the reasons behind killing the moose are to prove his ability to stay independently without human masters as well as showing how he feels about killing animals. Having killed the moose, Buck does not kill smaller animals any longer. He continues stalking moose within the forest: "Buck did not attempt to stay him, but loped easily at his heels, satisfied with the way the game was played, lying down when the moose stood still, attacking him fiercely when he strove to eat or drink" (London, 2021, p. 94). Buck moves close by and is perfectly silent. He attacks when the moose tries to eat or drink. These actions reflect how his strategies have developed through the killings. The strategies are so well-developed that he can attack the larger animals such as moose while they remain unaware of the danger. Moreover, the phrase *satisfied with the way the game was played* means that he is pleased when the killing occurs. He feels that it is a game he plays that ends in the way he wants. It can be said that he does not kill because of hatred or the need for power. Also, he does not merely hunt the moose for food. Buck kills because he enjoys killing. At this moment, he becomes a wild beast, living and killing alone in a wild environment. From his enjoyment of killing, it can also be interpreted that he becomes a bloodthirsty beast because he sometimes kills not to consume. Through this enjoyment, he can better develop his skill at taking the life of larger animals.

From that moment onwards, Buck switches to hunting purely moose. He kills and consumed more moose. He hunts effectively, and moreover, he is always around them: "At last, at the end of the fourth day, he pulled the great moose down. For a day and a night he remained by the kill, eating and sleeping, turn and turn about" (London, 2021, p. 95). Predators usually predate animals smaller than themselves. If they hunt larger animals, they do so in a hunting group. However, chooses fully grown adult moose as prey. The ability to bring the great moose down means that Buck's attack is powerful. He is tireless in his pursuit of the prey. Buck masters large kills. Most of all, Buck has tasted the warm blood of several animals ranging from dogs to moose. The taste of blood combined with the success of killing leads Buck to lose his fear of the danger posed by wild animals. On the contrary, he views their appearance as not only a potential source of food but takes pleasure in the taking of life.

Apart from the dog Spitz and various wild animals, Buck also kills humans. The humans he kills are the members of an native tribe known as Yeehats. Buck kills them after they kill Thornton, Thornton's friends, and his dogs:

> He sprang at the foremost man (it was the chief of the Yeehats), ripping the throat wide open till the rent jugular spouted a fountain of blood. He did not pause to worry the victim, but ripped in passing, with the next bound tearing wide the throat of a second man. (London, 2021, p. 97)

When Buck springs at the chief, a quick and terrible killing is depicted. The capacity to directly bite the man's throat reflects the effective use of the killing skill. He has no chance. He cannot escape or fight with him but stands still as a victim. After the chief has been killed,

the next to be killed also have no chance to fight back. That is, they are killed by Buck in the blink of an eye.

After some Yeehats are killed, the rest escape: "They scattered far and wide over the country, and it was not till a week later that the last of the survivors gathered together in a lower valley and counted their losses" (London, 2021, p. 97). The description uses the phrase *scatter far and wide over the country* to show that the tribe moved quickly in different directions. The chief's corpse being left behind is an important clue reflecting how they fled in terror as the corpse needed to be taken for burial. It is not until a week later that the corpse is retrieved. This means that they waited until their fear decreased sufficiently to return. Buck—the newcomer—comes as a greatest shock to their lives even though they have weapons and are expert at using them, as demonstrated by the fact that they use weapons to kill Thornton and others. However, with Buck, their weapons are useless. Their only choice is to escape. If they cannot flee, they die. For more interpretation, Buck's choice of killing the chief first reflects his presentiment to kill the most powerful one before moving on to others. This results not only in arousing great fear among the Yeehats but also raises Buck's confidence in his ability to kill the rest. From that moment onwards, killing the chief of the Yeehats marks Buck's status as the most powerful killer of the forests.

Buck kills the wild humans is to take revenge. However, he kills the Yeehats as punishment because they killed his much-loved master, Thornton. The Yeehats kill Thornton, so they must in turn be killed.

In addition to the reasons to kill, the study demonstrates the causes driving Buck to kill. The first reason is instinct. An instinct is a natural tendency to behave in a certain way. It also means a natural ability to know or understand something without learning. For Buck, he pits himself against the hostile world through his primitive instincts. First, Buck believes that the law of fang is essential. While he struggles to survive in the wild, he sees the killing skill as essential. Later, Buck kills various animals ranging from small to the large. The ability to kill is his first survival test, showing his capacity to survive in the wild. Finally, Buck chooses to live without humans. Although Thornton waits for him at the camp, Buck stays away. This is seen when Buck leaves the camp and heads towards the wild: "but they did not see the instant and terrible transformation which took place as soon as he was within the secrecy of the forest. He no longer marched. At once he became a thing of the wild" (London, 2021, p. 106). The transformation implies that Buck's behavior in the camp is different from when he is in the wild. It can be inferred that Buck behaves like a pet in the camp. Heading towards the wilderness, he transforms to be a thing of the wild. Buck keeps away from humans. It can be said that Buck, a bloodthirsty wild animal, is aware that he must live in the forests independently, without owing his survival to humans.

Enjoying warm blood is also a cause driving him to become a killer. Warm-blooded animals have a high body temperature. In one scene, laying into wild huskies, Buck senses warm blood: "Buck got a frothing adversary by the throat, and was sprayed with blood when his teeth sank through the jugular. The warm taste of it in his mouth goaded him to greater fierceness" (London, 2021, p. 27). Buck is provoked to attack more violently because of the taste of the warm blood. The verb *goad* reflects the power of the taste of blood that encourages him to keep on attacking and biting the huskies to make them bleed, not for food, but pleasure.

Buck shows this sense again: "Guided by that instinct which came from the old hunting days of the primordial world, Buck proceeded to cut the bull out from the herd" (London, 2021,

p. 92). Buck becomes used to taste of the blood of the wild huskies. However, when Buck is attacked by them, he is forced to fight; and the taste of blood is not the goal. However, when attacking the moose, he kills them intentionally. In general, carnivores depend solely on animal flesh. Although the warm taste of the moose's blood is not portrayed visibly with words in this scene, it can be assumed that Buck tastes it. Enjoying warm blood is a natural behavior or primitive instinct Buck continually demonstrates. A combination of experience and natural instincts as well as the need for food all contribute to Buck becoming a bloodthirsty animal. He continues killing and eating moose as well as remaining in the forests. Therefore, while instinct is a root cause of his killing, enjoying the taste of warm blood is also a cause.

Another cause driving Buck to kill is the strong belief in the law of fang. The law of fang is the wild law Buck learns and believes in. The law of fang signifies serious injuries or deaths of the weak as well as survival of the strong. The law becomes the root cause of Buck's killings, not just a contributing factor. In the case of the Yeehats, the belief in this law influences Buck not to be afraid when he returns to the camp and finds many Yeehats. Buck does not escape but decides to attack. These men use deadly weapons, yet Buck kills some and terrifies the rest. The law of fang leads Buck to believe that if he had not killed the Yeehats, he would have been killed. The killing was not only due to revenge but also because of the belief in the law. According to the law, Buck makes full use of his fangs to kill not only Spitz, the mortal enemy, and large animals, but also the Yeehats.

Even though the law of fang is useful for survival in the wild, Buck learns it through great sadness caused by the death of his friend Curly, one of the sled dogs. The law is enforced and practiced by the pack of wild huskies. The serious effects of the law are seen when the huskies attack and kill Curly, who is innocent and not strong enough to fight them. Curly presents her lack of the capacity to understand the true instinct of these wild dogs who use their fangs to defend their territory. According to the law of fang, Curly deserves to be attacked and killed because the territory he encroaches upon is controlled by the huskies. While the death of Curly troubles Buck, he realizes there is no fair play in this hostile world: "The scene often came back to Buck to trouble him in his sleep. So that was the way. No fair play. Once down, that was the end of you" (London, 2021, p. 16). The phrase *that was the way* implies that Buck accepts the use of the law of fang and understands that Curly had to be killed. The words *no fair play* also reflect that there are no rules indicating what is allowed and what is not. Buck realizes that the law must prevail if he wants to live in the wild.

The law of fang is a tool for survival in the wild. The law is repeatedly portrayed in this sense throughout the story. For example, the law is characterized as being without mercy or fear as noted by Buck:

> Mercy did not exist in the primordial life. It was misunderstood for fear, and such misunderstandings made for death. Kill or be killed, eat or be eaten, was the law; and this mandate, down out of the depths of Time, he obeyed. (London, 2021, p. 71)

Buck realizes that if he wants to survive, there is no place for mercy. Buck views that mercy must not be shown. Even more, it never existed. Also, fear results in death. When mercy is defined as fear, it reduces the chances of survival. The binary oppositions between these actions: kill or be killed and eat or be eaten indicate that killing, but not mercy, is crucial to survival. Because killers use fangs, mercilessness and fangs are connected. As a result, the law of fang is a belief made full use by those with fangs. The growing understanding of this

increasingly urges Buck to keep practicing the law. The understanding also marks a turning point in his development as a carnivore.

The law of fang is a sound basis not only for survival but for becoming a master. Buck knows that he will be mastered if he does not master others: "He must master or be mastered; while to show mercy was a weakness" (London, 2021, p. 71). According to the narration, mercy reflects weakness. As a result, it can be defined as a lack of power. As a master has power, the master is portrayed without mercy. If the master kills, the victim is killed brutally. In the wild environment, there are no rules or laws. Certain laws such as the law of club and the law of fang are used to represent the power of the master. Through the law of fang, masters possess two things in common: savagery and fangs. It can be said that the law of fang is not only helpful for every creature to survive but very significant for any master who wishes to gain and maintain power. In Buck's case, he uses the law of fang for survival and for becoming a killer. On the one hand, the portrayals of the killing Spitz, the small animals, and the moose convey the message that Buck is not only physically fit but also mentally strong enough to kill. On the other hand, the kills reflect his brutality which is an essential feature of a wild master. His strong desire to master others is revealed first when he kills Spitz and replaces him as leader of the sled dogs. Throughout the story, Buck presents his brutality again and again until he becomes an experienced predator. In the case of the tribe, Buck succeeds in killing them because he has trained himself to do so. He can replace them in their territory. This is consistent with the definition defined by this study. The killings take place when Buck wants to replace the Yeehats.

This study observes that the result of Buck's killings is power. According to the findings, Buck not only believes and accepts the law of fang but intentionally uses it to dominate others. Since a leader directs or controls a group, Buck shows serious attempts to seize the position. Whenever he decides to kill, Buck becomes a new leader and controls the others. Here are the clues demonstrating that Buck's true need is to become a master.

Buck kills Spitz first. As the leader of the sled dog team, Spitz is in authority controlling all dogs. Spitz is described as a fierce and cunning dog while Buck is characterized in positive ways such as being capable of adaptation: "It marked his adaptability, his capacity to adjust himself to changing conditions" (London, 2021, p. 22). According to Darwin, adaptability helps living beings to survive or causes them to be selected by nature. Buck possesses this important feature. He can change himself to be suitable for a new situation. According to the narration, Spitz is characterized as a villain. When the two dogs meet, the sharp contrast results in them becoming deadly enemies. A deadly enemy must be killed, and the villain deserves to die. Spitz is killed by Buck. While the killing symbolizes Buck's achievement to adjust himself to be able to kill, it delineates Spitz from Buck, as well as getting rid of him.

Having the ability to kill as an essential feature of adaptability in certain environments. Buck presents an unusual feature: the feature of a master. After he kills Spitz, Buck proceeds to reach a higher level by signifying that he deserves to be the new leader. To do so, when Francois gives the position to Sol-leks, Buck drives him back. Buck does it to show that length of service and experience do not count. This also reflects that Buck not only needs the position but also cannot wait his turn. He kills Spitz, so he should replace him. Usurping the authority of the position signifies that he needs to control others. It can be said that killing Spitz marks his adaptability. Meanwhile, it marks his new status from being a survivor to becoming a new leader. The law of fang reaches its peak when Buck gains power over the dog team by practicing the law of fang he believes in.

Buck keeps on killing, but the victims are wild animals, so they are not protected by human masters. In other words, unlike killing Spitz, these kills are committed beyond the sphere of humans. Hunger, not hatred, is the reason to kill. Every day, Buck kills wild animals and consumes them. First, he hunts small animals such as rabbits, birds, and fish. Later, he kills the larger animals such as moose. The moose are hunted for food as are small animals; however, they are two times Buck's size. After he has killed the first moose, Buck continues hunting them rather than small animals as a challenge to himself.

Killing the moose leads this study to suggest that hunger is not the only reason to kill. Buck kills the large animals to prove his domination. The moose killing spree reflect his intention to kill not only to practice the law of fang but to test his killing ability. It can be said that Buck feels wild and free to bring the law of fang into full play through killing the moose. It can be also said that he takes the lead in hunting after a short while in the new environments. The kills turn Buck into the most powerful predator of the forest which, at that moment, is a testing ground not only for his survival but also for his dominance. Without the control of humans, the native animals and their natural habitat are dominated by Buck, the newcomer, and the new settler-to-be of the land.

In addition to the wild animals, Buck also takes power over wild humans. After kills the chief of the Yeehats, the tribe is afraid of him. Buck is named a Ghost Dog:

> But more remarkable than this, the Yeehats tell of a Ghost Dog that runs at the head of the pack. They are afraid of this Ghost Dog, for it has cunning greater than they, stealing from their camps in fierce winters, robbing their traps, slaying their dogs. (London, 2021, p. 100)

A ghost is a spirit. It also refers to the spirit of the dead people that haunt places. From the given name of Ghost Dog it can be interpreted that Buck will remain and haunt the tribe for years to come although he is not a real spirit. The name also implies that no one in the wild doubts Buck's remarkable ability to kill. In the remote land, it is very rare for wild humans to die from dog attacks. As the name implies, the Ghost Dog is the most powerful killer, despite not being a lion or leopard which are typically associated as man-eaters. From this point, Buck freely hunts in the Yeehats' territory. Unlike in the killing of Spitz, Buck cannot directly replace the killed chief. Nonetheless, Buck is found running at the head of a wolf pack. This indicates that Buck becomes the leader of the pack. It can be said that Buck can live his life as a leader in the territory which is inhabited not only by other wild animals but also by the wild humans.

Buck also gains personal benefits from killing. The kills benefit Buck in his survival as a non-native animal in new environments. Becoming independent of humans, he kills to prevent hunger. His killing capacity reaches its peak when he uses it to gain dominance over humans. The killing skill plays a crucial role in the wild. A killer who wishes to become a leader must employ this skill. Power is the result. Most importantly, killings must be used continually to maintain power. In hostile environments, the law of fang is necessary for not only the establishment but also the maintenance of domination.

Despite having a strong belief in the need to take life and enjoying his power over others in the wild, Buck used to have an easy life under the protection provided by kind-hearted humans:

> He plunged into the swimming tank or went hunting with the Judge's sons; he escorted Mollie and Alice, the Judge's daughters, on long twilight or early morning rambles; on wintry nights he lay at the Judge's feet before the roaring library fire; he carried the Judge's grandsons on his back. (London, 2021, p. 4)

In the sheltered world of California, Buck possessed qualities such as being a loyal companion and assistant. He accompanies both children and adults. He is reliable and is accepted as a human friend. His actions reflect that life in the family is easy such as playing with a ball, going hunting with a boy, escorting girls, carrying a boy, and so on. He walks, runs, jumps, and lies when doing these actions. He does not have to understand or think beforehand. He does not possess a great deal of physical strength. Most importantly, he has a close friendship with the family and everything he does with them is done with happiness.

In the Alaskan wilderness, Buck is shaped by his beliefs. The identity of a wild beast is developed under the concept of the law of fang which refers to the beliefs and the practice under the sphere of brutality: "The blood-longing became stronger than ever before. He was a killer, a thing that preyed, living on the things that lived, unaided, alone, by virtue of his own strength and prowess" (London, 2021, p. 90). His characteristics and actions in California present sharp contrasts to his features presented in Alaska. In untamed Alaska, the description shows that he constantly needs to taste blood. Buck becomes stronger while the need for tasting blood as well as the practice of killing are closely intertwined. His strengthening body signifies he has been shaped into a real killer, meaning he is capable of killing anyone. The repeatedly used word *prowess* indicates that Buck has great skill at killing. On the other hand, others who do not possess this skill at the same high level are killed when encountering him. As a result, he can taste blood anytime and anywhere in the forests.

Another result of his killings is that Buck accepts the call of the wild. The concept of the laws Buck believes leads him to transform, or in other words, metamorphose from a gentle and kind dog into a killer. He decides to leave humans and starts his new life with wild wolves. In terms of a literary genre, Buck is the strongest and smartest, so he becomes a new hero of the wild. Other animals are weaker than him, so they must be killed or controlled by him. The tribesmen are villains, so it is reasonable for him to kill some and terrify the rest. It seems the wild is the place where Buck belongs.

This study notes that Buck feels free and wild in nature. It also affirms that Buck is a newcomer who calls Alaska home. This is consistent with earlier research such as the work of Benoit (1968), who stated that the American dream is of escaping from modern and complex society and its concomitant chaotic conditions to a primordial area. Moreover, the study states that a dream of becoming a leader is initially fulfilled when he becomes leader of the sled dog team. Eventually, Buck completely enjoys his power not only over the small and large animals in their own territories but also over humans in their native land. The study also agrees with Campbell (2000) and Bartosch (2010) that Buck's survival reflects Darwin's theory of evolution which highlights adaptation to the environment as a key for survival. According to Pizer (2011), this theory agrees with what he proposes to explain Buck's features such as strength, shrewdness, and cunning which lead Buck to be suitable for life in the natural environment and continue to live.

This study argues that the chance to be selected naturally is not the only reason for Buck's survival. Buck intentionally enforces the law of fang to fulfil his ultimate dream—power. On the one hand, he kills Spitz because of hatred. On the other hand, he revolts against

Spitz's authority. This is seen when Buck refuses to accept Sol-leks, another strong dog who has spent more time in the team than himself. The energetic act to deprive Sol-leks of the position signifies that Buck accepts only himself as the new leader. It is the power over the dog team that mainly drives him to revolt against Spitz. This is consistent with Nietzsche's notion of metaphysical crime that "to kill God is to become god oneself" (Nietzsche, 1978, as cited in Camus, 1991, p. 108). While killing marks his higher status among the dogs, it reflects a profound sense. In terms of social change, it is consistent with a statement of Pham Xanh (2008), a Vietnamese political author, who affirms that "Ideologists all agree that the ultimate goal of every revolution is power" (p. 143). Then, when the Yeehats are killed and forced to flee, Buck gains power again. This is shown when Buck, running at the head of the wolf pack, terrifies the tribe. Power over the humans means that Buck has the most power in that habitat. In other words, Buck controls the land, not humans. This is also consistent with Bagehot (2017) who points out that "If A kills B before B kills A, then A survives, and the human race is a race of A's" (p. 91). This study agrees with Bagehot as it defines *killing* as the action of taking another's life and takes place when the killer wants to maintain his existence and replace the killed one. Buck kills the Yeehats before they kill him, thus Buck survives. The land is thus dominated by Buck and his kind.

The study concludes that London's portrayal of Buck symbolizes strength and violence, the key factors for survival in the primordial world. These characteristics lead him to accept the call of the wild and he is trapped in brutality. The novel confirms the law of the survival of the fittest through the law of fang which is learned and enforced by Buck. Buck kills Spitz, the leader of the sled dog team. The need to replace Spitz reflects his greed for power. Buck hunts small animals for food. Later, he hunts moose. Buck tests his killing ability through these kills to prepare himself for the killings to come. Buck kills the tribal Yeehats to take revenge. The story ends when Buck becomes leader of a wolf pack and lives his life in the wild. The main reason for killing is that Buck uses the law of fang to take power. All the kills reflect the methodical steps of killing which have been developed significantly. When subjective and active conditions are ripe, Buck kills humans. When the belief in the law of fang intertwines with lofty qualities such as intellect and strength as well as being well prepared, the law causes Buck to reach his prime goal, power. Therefore, the law of fang is a solid tool enforced by Buck to eliminate deadly enemies, to take power over others, and to maintain his domination.

Authors

Assistant Professor Khomduen Phothisuwan acquired a Doctor of Arts Degree in English from Faculty of Humanities, Srinakharinwirot University, Thailand. Her area of interest is literature. She now is a lecturer at Department of English as International Communication, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Rajamangala University of Technology Tawan-ok, Thailand. Also, she has been being a visiting lecturer at Kasetsart University, Sri Racha Campus, for 21 years. As an author, she has had various research articles published in TCI and a collection of research articles titled *Animal Farm and The Wapshot Chronicle: Some Motifs*, marketed by CU Book Center. She can be contacted at khomduenph@gmail.com.

Assistant Professor Prapaipan Aimchoo is a retired lecturer from Department of Western Languages, Faculty of Humanities, Srinakharinwirot University. Until now, she remains a visiting lecturer and adviser to the faculty. She acquired a Doctor of Arts Degree in Literature from National University of Singapore. She can be contacted at prapaipan44@gmail.com

References

Bagehot, W. (2017). *Physics and politics* [Kindle AZW version]. Amazon.com

Bartosch, R. (2010). Call of the wild and the ethics of narrative strategies. *Ecozon@: European Journal of Literature, Culture and Environment*, *1*(2), 87-96. http://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/b3bb/d5b98929959de6069f2142dfdf4f9befad8a.pdf?

Benoit, R. (1968). Jack London's "The call of the wild." *American Quarterly*, *20*(2), 246-248. https://doi:10.2307/2711035

Campbell, J. W. (2000). *The book of great book: A guide to 100 world classics*. Barnes & Noble.

Camus, A. (1991). *The myth of Sisyphus: And other essays* [Kindle AZW version]. (Eds). Amazon.com

Darwin, C. (2009). *The origin of species: 150th anniversary edition* [Kindle AZW version]. Amazon.com

Fusco, R. (1987). On primitivism in "The call of the wild". *American Literary Realism, 1870-1910*, *20*(1), 76-80. http://www.jstor.org/stable/27746265

Jackson, R. (2010). *Nietzsche: The key ideas*. McGraw-Hill.

London, J. (2021). *The call of the wild* [Kindle AZW version]. Amazon.com

Ngwa, Y. I. (2015). Miscegenation and representation: Buck in Jack London's the call of the wild. *Syllabus Review*, *6*(2), 181-202. https://www.academia.edu/28633298/Miscegenation_and_Representation_Buck_in_Jack_Londons_The_Call_of_the_Wild

Nietzsche, F. (2014). *Beyond good and evil* [Kindle AZW version]. Amazon.com

Pizer, D. (2011). Jack London: The problem of form. In H. Bloom (Ed.), *Bloom's modern critical views: Jack London* (pp. 3-12). Bloom's literary criticism. https://dlscrib.com/queue/jack-london-blooms-modern-critical-views_58e52440dc0d608130da9803_pdf?

Sanders, C. (Director). (2020). *The call of the wild* [Film]. Walt Disney Studios Motion Pictures.

Stovicek, M. (2011). Jack London and Buck: The call for wilderness. In D. Kimmel & E. Doseck (Eds.), *The Morpheus literary publication* (pp. 35-39). The Heidelberg University English Department. https://inside.heidelberg.edu/sites/default/files/users/rhiser/files/Morpheus%202011.pdf

Xanh, P. (Eds.). (2008). *Ho Chi Minh: The nation and the times 1911-1946*. The Gioi Publishers.

Adoptions of Foreignizing Translation Strategies in Students' Literary Translation Projects[1]

Received : Dec 23, 2021
Revised : Feb 15, 2022
Accepted : Mar 11, 2022

Wiriya Inphen
Mae Fah Luang University

Abstract

In the Thai translation context, most research aims to propose translation strategies that focus on solving translation problems. This is an important basis to investigate translation strategies from a larger perspective, that is, the ways in which translation strategies are used with adherence to source- or target-text language concept. Thus, the present research focuses on the concept of source-text oriented translation that is linked with foreignizing translation and aims to explore the ways in which foreignizing translation strategies are used (i.e., what are they for and how they are used) in the students' literary translation projects at Mae Fah Luang University. The researcher's aim is to draw an implication from such adoptions of foreignizing translation strategies that help students to be aware of the use of foreignizing translation strategies. As for material, the translations of culture-specific items are focused on as they pose challenges in translations. Thus, culture-specific words or phrases are extracted from the students' literary translation projects for analysis. Aixela's (1996) concept of translation strategies for culture-specific items is borrowed and adapted to identify translation strategies that belong to foreignizing translation. As for the results, five foreignizing translation strategies that are used in the translations (i.e., copying, transliteration, literal translation, intratextual translation, and extratextual translation) are identified. Based on the results, the discussion suggests that students should be aware of the difference between loan words and transliterations of culture-specific items in the Thai target language because the transliteration convention is not the same.

Keywords: foreignizing translation strategy, translation strategy, culture-specific items, Thai literary translation, English-Thai translation

Introduction

Most studies of translation focus on proposing translation strategies that serve the needs of solving translation problems arising from linguistic and cultural differences between source and target language (e.g., Aree, 2017; Boonterm, 2009; Leelaniramol, 2011). Source-text oriented refers to the ways in which translators move the readers close to the source language, while target-text oriented translation refers to the ways in which the source language is moved close to the readers (e.g., Schleiermacher, 1813/1977). These have been a topical topic in translation studies

[1] This article reports the outcomes of the research titled "Students' Uses of Foreignizing Translation Strategies in Literary Translation Projects: A Small-Scale Study in English Major Students at Mae Fah Luang University" which is funded by the Academic Extension and Development Office, Mae Fah Luang University, 2019.

for the last few decades (e.g., Liang, 2016; Toury, 1995; Venuti, 1998, 2008). However, the ways in which source-text oriented and target-text oriented translation are employed in translations, for example, from English into Thai remain underexplored. With this gap in mind, the present study aims to approach translation strategies from a source-text oriented translation (e.g., Venuti, 2008) perspective. This would shed more light on the ways in which foreignizing translation strategies are employed in literary translation into Thai.

The study particularly focuses on the students' literary translation projects because the aim of the research is to help students become aware of how foreignizing translation strategies are adopted to solve translation problems. The material of the present study includes culture-specific words or phrases that appear in the literary translation projects of English major students of the School of Liberal Arts, Mae Fah Luang University. The students are in their fourth year, aged between 21-22 years old. All students have already completed their Principles of Translation Course, the pre-requisite course for the Senior Project course. The focus is placed on culture-specific items (e.g., Aixela, 1996) because they mostly pose translation challenges to translators in the target language. Translation strategies for culture-specific items proposed by Aixela (1996) is adopted as the framework for the analysis. The details of the material, framework, and methods are to be thoroughly elaborated in the sections that follow.

To achieve this aim, the research questions are as follows:

1. What foreignizing translation strategies are applied in the students' literary translation projects?
2. What is the extent to which such foreignizing translation strategies were used in the translations?
3. Is there any implication that can be drawn from the analysis to help students become aware of how foreignizing translation strategies are used to deal with translation problems in the future?

Theoretical Framework

Source-text and target-text equivalence

Equivalence has long been a central concept in translation studies and it falls within the scope of Descriptive Translation Studies (DTS) (Toury, 1995). According to Roman Jakobson (1959/2012), translation is divided into three types. They are intralingual, interlingual, and intersemiotic translation (Jakobson, 1959/2012). As the present study strives to determine the translation strategies used to treat culture-specific words and phrases between English (as a source text) and Thai (as a target text), the concept of interlingual translation by Jakobson (1959/2012) is important.

Specifically, according to Jakobson (1959/2012, p. 127), interlingual translation refers to the interpretation of oral linguistic signs from one language into another language. As interlingual translation involves acts of interpretation of linguistic signs from source to target language, Jokobson (1959/2012) states that it is difficult to find full equivalence between code units of one language sign that is fully similar or adequate in the other (p. 127). This means that equivalence between the source and target language is mostly unequal and thus it requires interpretation of the

linguistic signs to determine mutual translatability between source-text and target-text code units (Jakobson, 1959/2012).

Translators attempt to produce translations that have close equivalents to the source texts (see the concept of formal and dynamic equivalence as proposed by Nida (1964). Particularly, Nida (1964) perceives that translation can have equivalence and equivalence effects through formal and dynamic equivalence (p. 159). The former refers to the ways in which translators adhere closely to the source-text linguistic structures and meanings while the latter refers to the ways in which translators strive to produce translations that have close equivalent effects in the source texts. According to Nida (1964), in achieving dynamic equivalence, a translation should make sense, convey meanings and senses of the source texts, read naturally in the target texts, and have a similar response (p. 164). However, when translation involves the actions of finding equivalence and producing equivalent effects between the two languages, it is difficult to find similar equivalence between the two different languages and cultural systems.

Translators mediate non-equivalence between source and target texts through translation strategies and they are adopted along the cline between the two opposite poles: source- and target-text adherent translation. In his lecture, Friedrich Schleiermacher (1813/1977) proposes the binary concept of translation strategy: whether to move the readers close to the author (target-text adherence) or the author close to the reader (source-text adherence). Lawrence Venuti (2008) links foreignizing translation concept with source-text adherence and, on the opposite side, target-text oriented translation with domesticating translation. When source-text adherent translation is linked with foreignizing translation strategy, it refers to the ways in which translators keep foreign items in the target-text translations (Paloposki, 2010, p. 40). This includes, for example, calque, transliteration, and direct transfer. On this basis, the ways in which foreign items have been retained can create unfamiliarity with the readers in the target culture (e.g., Nida's (1964) formal equivalence; Schleiermacher's (1813/1977) source-text oriented translation; Venuti's (2008) foreignizing translation). On the opposite side, while target-text adherent translation is linked with domesticating translation strategy, it covers the ways in which translators aim to replace source-text items that are culturally specific with more familiar words or phrases in the target culture (Paloposki, 2010, p. 40). Domesticating translation includes, for instance, naturalization and deletion, to name but two. This, as a result, gives a more fluent translation that sounds familiar to the target readers (e.g., Nida's (1964) dynamic equivalence; Schleiermacher's (1813/1977) target-text oriented translation; Venuti's (2008) fluent translation). To sum up, the ways foreign items are retained in translations are used to classify foreignizing and domesticating translation strategy.

However, in the Thai cultural context, the ways in which the binary translation strategy, especially the foreignizing translation strategy, is adopted need more thorough examination. Most research into translation in the Thai context focuses on linguistic and cultural differences of source and target language. To clarify, most studies of translation pay attention to translation strategies of English, Chinese, French, and so forth, into Thai (e.g., Aree, 2017; Boonterm, 2009; Inphen, 2010, 2013). For instance, Leelaniramol (2011) analyses translation problems and proposes translation strategies that arise from linguistic and cultural differences from Chinese into Thai. Similarly, Boonterm (2009) investigates the translations of idioms in Harry Potter novels and demonstrates translation strategies used in the translations. In this light, translation strategies have not been approached from the binary pole of translation strategy perspective. As a result, a more careful

investigation into adoptions of foreignizing translation strategies is both interesting and important (e.g., Ninrat, 2019). This would shed more light on how they are applied in a Thai cultural context.

Material and Methods

Novels in Students' Literary Translation Projects

Three translation projects of thriller novels were selected for the study. As thriller fiction emphasizes how the plot develops and leads to the mystery that is, later, resolved by the protagonist (e.g., Forster, 1927), words and phrases that are used to conceive the plots in the thriller genre are important to develop the stories. Source-text words and phrases are selected for the analysis because they are central to the plots of the thriller novel. This makes the plots important for the development of mysterious stories. The novels include: 1) *He Is Watching You* (Gallagher, 2018), 2) *She Is Not Coming Home* (Cox, 2012), and 3) *The Couple Next Door* (Lapena, 2017). Their Thai translations are produced by the students majoring in English (Class of 2019) and include: 1) the Translation Project of *He Is Watching You*, translated by Wirakan Thananchai (2019); 2) the Translation Project of *She Is Not Coming Home*, translated by Todsapon Intana (2019) and the Translation Project of *The Couple Next Door*, translated by Khamthip Taya (2019). As for the translation processes, the students selected three chapters from the novel and translated the source texts into Thai. The processes include a peer-editing process. This means that the translations were edited before submission to the lecturer.

The synopses of the novels are as follows. Firstly, *He Is Watching You* by Charlie Gallagher is about a serial killer who attempts to kill a woman. He locks the woman in a container while she is still alive. Detective Maddie Ives receives the report of the missing woman and her job is trying to rescue the contained woman before time runs out. Secondly, *She Is Not Coming Home* by Philip Cox is set in Boston, Massachusetts where Matthew and Ruth, a couple, live together. One day, Matthew finds out that Ruth is missing and has not returned home. Matthew then needs to resolve some mysteries about his wife to find her and her real identity. The last novel is *The Couple Next Door* written by Shari Lapena. The plot starts when a couple, Anne and Marco, lose their baby, Cora, after they come home from a party. They could not find their baby and this event is linked to some suspicious actions involving the couple themselves and the neighbors. It is the job of Detective Rasbach to unfold the mystery.

As can be seen by the synopses, plots are important to thriller novels and used to unfold the story. This means that words or phrases that are used in the plots are important (e.g., Forster, 1927). When the words or phrases that appear as an integral part of the plots are important, problems regarding translation could arise due to unmatched equivalence between source and target texts (e.g., Jakobson's (1959/2012) interlingual translation). For example, "Marco" or "มาร์โก" [back translation - Marco[2]] (Lapena, 2017, as cited in Taya, 2019, p. 6), "Superintendent Alan Jackson" or "ผู้กำกับการอลัน แจ็คสัน" [back translation - Superintendent Alan Jackson] (Gallagher, 2018, as cited in Thananchai, 2019, p. 6) could pose translation challenges to translators due to unmatched linguistic structures and cultural differences between English and Thai. As the novels are written in English and the plots involves a large some of words or phrases that are specific to

[2] All back translations are mine.

the English or Anglo-American culture, culture-specific words or phrases can have an important role in these thriller novels.

Culture-Specific Items in Students' Literary Translation Projects

The material of this study consists of culture-specific words or phrases that are extracted from the students' literary translation projects that were undertaken as part of their curriculum at Mae Fah Luang University (e.g., Intana, 2019; Taya, 2019; Thananchai, 2019). As for the selection criteria, all culture-specific items were selected from the three literary translation projects. To elaborate, each student was required to produce a translation from English into Thai of the three selected chapters in a novel. Each literary translation project contains aproximately 2,000 source-text words in total. As each translation project is rather similar in terms of text length, it can be assumed that each translation project has close numbers of source-text culture-specific words or phrases. As a result, 100% of culture-specific words or phrases are selected from the three literary translation projects. This, in total, produces 151 culture-specific words or phrases for the analysis.

Identifying Translation Strategies: Borrowed/Adapted Foreignizing Translation Strategies

To identify translation strategies used in the translations, the framework of Aixela's (1996) translation strategies for culture-specific items was used. Aixela (1996) focuses on translations of culture-specific items from English into Spanish and proposes 11 translation strategies. However, in this study, Thai differs greatly from Spanish in terms of linguistic structure, Aixela's (1996) translation strategies need to be adapted so that they are suitable for the analysis of the translations from English into Thai.

As the research intends to focus on foreignizing translation strategies only, there is a need to classify translation strategies into the foreignizing pole before adapting them for the analysis. As mentioned earlier, foreignizing translation strategy, according to Paloposki (2010), refers to the ways in which foreign items are retained or saved in the target-text versions. As a result, when foreign words or phrases are retained or saved in the Thai translations, they are classified as foreignizing. For example, a translation strategy that retains foreign items is copying. This translation strategy, according to Aixela (1996), is referred to as repetition (p. 61). Following the original idea of repetition, copying is adapted to include the ways in which translators copy source-text items and put them in the translations directly (Aixela, 1996, p. 61), for example, "911" was translated into Thai as "911" (Lapena, 2017, as cited in Taya, 2019, pp. 6-7). On this basis, copying aims to retain foreign items in the translation and is classified as a foreignizing translation strategy accordingly.

In order to analyze the translations of culture-specific items in the present study, translation strategies proposed by Aixela (1996) are either borrowed or adapted (pp. 61-65). These adapted or borrowed foreignizing translation strategies are data-driven and, in total, there are five borrowed or adapted foreignizing translation strategies in the present analysis. Specifically, the foreignizing translation strategies include copying, transliteration, literal translation, intratextual translation, and extratextual translation. The details of the five adapted translation strategies are to be elaborated together with the analysis in the Results section.

Results

Firstly, five translation strategies are identified and classified as foreignizing in the translations of culture-specific items. Secondly, the ways in which the foreignizing translation strategies were used are illustrated. Lastly, the implication drawn from the use of foreignizing translation strategies was also discussed in response to the last research question.

The Identified Foreignizing Translation Strategies

Five translation strategies are foreignizing: copying, transliteration, literal translation, intratextual translation, and extratextual translation. The details with examples, from highest to lowest frequency, are shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Foreignizing Translation Strategies and Adoption Frequencies

Foreignizing Translation Strategies	Extratextual	Intratextual	Literal Translation	Transliteration	Copying
Occurrences	7 (4.6%)	24 (15.9 %)	66 (43.7 %)	53 (35.1 %)	1 (0.7 %)
Total	151 (100%)				

Literal Translation

"Literal translation" is a translation strategy that is adapted from Aixela's (1996, p. 61) "linguistic (non-cultural) translation." It refers to the ways in which translators stay close to the source-text linguistic systems and forms closely (Aixela, 1996, p. 61). It is a method that translators follow the source-text structures and attempt to translate words or phrases into the translated versions with close adherence to such source-text language. However, in the present study, as English and Thai are greatly different in terms of linguistic systems, especially their linguistic structures, literal translation then extends to the ways in which translators adhere to the source-text language structures while allowing some translation modifications or shifts that are required as part of readability of the translated texts. In other words, the translated words or phrases are allowed to be rearranged so that they make sense in the translations.

Following the idea above, literal translation which is identified in the present study can be grouped into two cases: 1) ones with identical source-text linguistic structures and 2) ones with the adapted source-text linguistic structure. See Table 2.

Table 2
Circumstances Where Literal Translation Was Adopted

Translation Strategy: Literal Translation	Literal Translation with identical source-text linguistic structure	Literal Translation with the adapted source-text linguistic structure
Frequency	16 (24.2%)	50 (75.8%)
Total	66 (100%)	

The statistical data show that when literal translation was used in the translations, the translators tend to change to the source-text linguistic structure to maintain the source-text meanings. Specifically, Table 2 shows that 75.8% of literal translation instances were adapted to the target-text linguistic structure while 24.2% were not.

Firstly, literal translation is applied to literal translation with adapted linguistic structure of the target texts. For example, in Chapter 3 and 4 of the novel *The Couple Next Door* (Lapena, 2017, as cited in Taya, 2019, pp. 23, 26), literal translation with adapted linguistic structure includes "granite counter" or "เคาน์เตอร์หินแกรนิต" [back translation – counter stone granite], "the Contis' car" or "รถของครอบครัวคอนติ" [the car of the family Contis]. Some also were found in the novels *He Is Watching You* (Gallagher, 2018, as cited in Thananchai, 2019, p. 29) and *She's Not Coming Home* (Cox, 2012, as cited in Intana, 2019, p. 26) as well. The examples include "Leonardo's farm" or "ฟาร์มของลีโอนาร์โด" [the farm of Leonardo] and "frozen pizza" or "พิซซาแช่แข็ง" [pizza frozen]. To illustrate this circumstance further, below is detailed examples of literal translation with the adapted source-text linguistic structure.

Example 1

Source text	**Maddie's computer** was finally working after a twenty-minute conversation with an ironically named "help desk". She needed a break. She scanned the room. No one stood as somebody she could ask where the coffee machine was (Gallagher, 2018, as cited in Thananchai, 2019, p. 25).
Target text	ในที่สุด**คอมพิวเตอร์ของแมดดี้**ก็กำลังทำงานหลังจากสนทนายี่สิบนาทีกับ "โต๊ะช่วยเหลือ" เธอต้องการหยุดพัก เธอมองผ่านๆ ห้องนี้แล้ว ไม่มีใครโผล่ออกมาในฐานะใครสักคนที่เธอสามารถถามว่าเครื่องทำกาแฟอยู่ที่ไหน (Thananchai, 2019, p. 25)
Back translation	Finally, **the computer of Maddie** is working after conversing for twenty minutes with the help desk. She needed a break. She had a quick glance this room. No one stood out as someone she could ask where the coffee machine was.

To illustrate, the culture-specific phrase "Maddie's computer" comes from Chapter 9 of *He Is Watching You* (Gallagher, 2018). It appears in the scene when Maddie, the detective, attempts to inquire information from the help desk via telephone. The phrase was translated into Thai as

"คอมพิวเตอร์ของแมดดี้" [back translation – computer of Maddy]. Some modifications were made to the source-text phrase "Maddie's computer" because the linguistic structure of Thai does not function the same way as in English. Thus, the translation cannot be made to be identical to the source text that reads as "Maddie's computer" because it is not linguistically correct according to standard Thai. Furthermore, it does not make sense or sound natural in the target language. As a result, "Maddie's computer" needs to be re-arranged so that it reads naturally in Thai. In this sense, it was rendered into Thai as "computer of Maddy" accordingly. The same circumstance also appears in Example 2.

Example 2

Source text	It was still very warm, like a storm was brewing. It felt ominous in more ways than one. The station stood next to a far larger, more modern building that announced itself as **South East College** in huge letters (Gallagher, 2018 as cited in Thananchai, 2019, p. 15).
Target text	อากาศยังอุ่นอยู่เหมือนพายุกำลังก่อตัว มันทำให้รู้สึกเป็นลางไม่ดีในหลายๆ ทาง สถานนี้ตั้งอยู่ถัดจากอาคารที่ใหญ่กว่าและทันสมัยกว่าที่ประกาศตัวเป็น**วิทยาลัยเซาท์อีส**ด้วยตัวอักษรขนาดใหญ่ (Thananchai, 2019, p. 15)
Back translation	The weather remains warm and it seems that the storm was building. This makes it feel like bad signs in many ways. This place is located next to a bigger and more modern building announced as **College South East** in huge letters.

The culture-specific phrase "South East College comes from Chapter 9 of *He Is Watching You* (Gallagher, 2018). The phrase appears in the scene that narrates the location of the police station where Detective Sergeant Ives works. In other words, the phrase is used to narrate the scene where the police station is located close to South East College. In the translation into Thai, the phrase "South East College" was translated into Thai as "วิทยาลัยเซาท์อีส" [back translation – College South East]. The translated phrase was treated with literal translation. However, the structure of the source-text phrase requires adaptation due to the linguistic needs of the target language. Thus, a method in which translators adhere closely to the source-text linguistic structure with modifications or shifts (required due to the target-text linguistic structures) is categorized as "literal translation" with the adapted source-text linguistic structure on the above basis.

In addition, literal translation was also used with strict adherence to the source-text linguistic structure. For example, literal translation with identical source-text linguistic structure is found in Chapter 1 of *The Couple Next Door* (Lapena, 2017, as cited in Taya, 2019, pp. 10, 14). This includes "Detective Rasbach" or "นักสืบราสบาค" [back translation – Detective Rasbach], "Detective Jennings" or "นักสืบเจนนิงส์" [back translation – Detective Jennings]. Also, this translation strategy also appears in Chapter 1 and 3 of *She's Not Coming Home* (Cox, 2012, as cited in Taya, 2019, pp. 5, 28), for example, "the sound of Daffy Duck" or "เสียงของแดฟฟี ดั๊ก" [back translation – the sound of Daffy Duck] and "210 pounds" or "สองร้อยสิบปอนด์" [back translation – two hundred and ten pounds]. Example 3 is another example to demonstrate the case.

Example 3

Source text	"Why not eat healthier?" the doctor had asked. "More salads for example?" "Doc, you gotta be kidding" Weber had replied. "If you think I'm sitting all night in the freezing rain and snow eating just a **Caesar salad**, you're on a different planet" (Cox, 2012 as cited in Intana, 2019, p. 29).
Target text	"ทำไมไม่กินอะไรที่ดีต่อสุขภาพมากขึ้นล่ะ อย่างเช่น กินสลัดมากขึ้น" หมอคนนั้นถาม เว็บเบอร์ได้ตอบไปว่า "หมอ คุณต้องล้อเล่นแน่ๆ ถ้าคุณคิดว่าผมจะนั่งอยู่ทั้งคืนในคืนที่ฝนหรือหิมะที่หนาวจนจะแข็งตกอยู่ โดยกินแค่**ซีซาร์สลัด** คุณก็คงอยู่บนดาวดวงอื่นแล้วล่ะ" (Intana, 2019, p. 29)
Back translation	"Why not eat something healthier? For example, eat more salads?" that doctor had asked. Weber replied, "Doctor, you must be kidding! If you think I'm sitting all night in the night that is freezingly raining or snowing and eating just a **Caesar salad**, you must be living on a different planet".

The culture-specific phrase "Caesar salad" comes from Chapter 3 of *She Is Not Coming Home* (Cox, 2012). The phrase appears in the scene when Weber talks to the doctor about his eating regime. As he is gaining more weight, the doctor asks him to change his diet to eat more vegetables. The translator decided to translate the phrase "Caesar salad" to "ซีซาร์สลัด" [back translation – Caesar salad]. The translation adheres very closely to the source-text phrase. This means that the linguistic structure of the source-text item remains unchanged in the target-text version. This is also classified as literal translation due to the adherence of source-text linguistic structure.

However, Example 3 illustrates that the orthography of the phrase "Caesar salad" should have more thorough examination in terms of how it is used in the Thai translation. Specifically, the phrase consists of two words: Caesar and salad. Caesar is a proper name while salad is a common noun. It is quite usual that proper nouns receive transliteration in Thai; however, most common nouns can be replaced with the Thai versions. In this example, "salad" was not replaced with the Thai version but, instead, was translated into Thai as "สลัด" [back translation – salad]. To elaborate, according to the Office of the Royal Society of Thailand (n.d., 2010), the word "salad" is a loan word from English. Thus, it can be seen that literal translation of the phrase "Caesar salad" is the combination of orthography of the source-text language and loan word from English. Example 4 is another detailed example to illustrate the case.

Example 4

Source text	"What the hell was that, Maddie?" **Superintendent Alan Jackson** bawled the moment **DS Maddie** Ives crossed the threshold of his office (Gallagher, 2018 as cited in Thananchai, 2019, p. 6).
Target text	"นี่มันอะไรกันแมดดี้"

	ผู้กำกับการอลัน แจ็คสัน ตวาดทันทีที่**จ่าสิบตำรวจหญิงแมดดี้ อีฟส์**ก้าวข้ามธรณีประตูสำนักงานของเขา (Thananchai, 2019, p. 6)
Back translation	"What was that Maddie?" **Superintendent Alan Jackson** scolded immediately as soon as **Detective Sergeant Maddie Ives** crossed the threshold of her office.

The culture-specific phrase "Superintendent Alan Jackson" and "DS Maddie Ives" come Chapter 8 of *He Is Watching You* (Gallagher, 2018). The phrases appear in the scene when Superintendent Alan Jackson converses with Detective Sergeant Ives about the unresolved mystery related to the crime. In the scene, the Superintendent felt frustrated about the case. This example shows that the phrases "Superintendent Alan Jackson" and "DS Maddie Ives" were translated into Thai as "ผู้กำกับการอลัน แจ็คสัน" "จ่าสิบตำรวจหญิงแมดดี้ อีฟส์" [back translation - Superintendent Alan Jackson and Sergeant Maddie Ives]. Interestingly, these were classified as literal translation because the translations follow the structures of the source texts very strictly. However, it also can be noted that the translations also contain the target-text versions as well. To clarify, the words "superintendent" was translated into Thai as "ผู้กำกับการ" or "phukamkap kan" which is the Thai phrase for the police rank in Thai. Similarly, the phrase "DS" or "Detective Sergeant" was translated into Thai as "จ่าสิบตำรวจหญิง" or "cha sip tamruat ying" which is the Thai version for police rank as well. In sum, the circumstances are classified as literal translation with identical source-text linguistic structure due to the unchanged linguistic structure in the target-text versions.

Transliteration

Transliteration is a translation method adapted from Aixela's (1996, p. 61) "orthographic adaptation." This translation method is employed to transliterate source-text items in the target versions with the target-text scripts (Aixela, 1996, p. 61). With this concept in mind, transliteration is thus borrowed from Aixela's (1996, p. 61) "orthographic adaptation" and includes transcriptions and transliterations of source-text language sounds. Later, translators rewrite them in the target-text translations using the target-text alphabets.

There are two main circumstances in which the translators used transliteration to treat culture-specific items in the translations. The circumstances are 1) transliteration of proper nouns and 2) transliteration of common nouns. Most proper nouns receive transliteration while a few common nouns receive the same translation strategy. Table 3 shows the statistical data where transliteration was employed in the translations.

Table 3
Circumstances Where Transliteration Was Adopted

Translation Strategy: Transliteration	Transliteration of proper nouns	Transliteration of common nouns
Frequency	49 (92.5%)	4 (7.5%)
Total	53 (100%)	

The analysis reveals that most proper nouns receive transliteration in the translations. Specifically, 92.5% of the total transliteration frequency was devoted to the translations of proper nouns. The translations of proper nouns include names of people, places, and items. For example, in Chapter 2 of *The Couple Next Door* (Lapena, 2017, as cited in Taya, 2019, p. 9), transliteration of proper names includes "Cynthia" or "ซินเธีย" [back translation – Cynthia], "Graham" or "เกรแฮม" [back translation – Graham]. Some also were found in Chapter 9 of *He Is Watching You* (Gallagher, 2018, as cited in Thananchai, 2019, p. 21) and Chapter 1 of *She's Not Coming Home* (Cox, 2012, as cited in Intana, 2019, p. 6). The examples include "Marilyn" or "มาริลีน" [back translation – Marilyn] and "Nathan" or "นาธาน" [back translation – Nathan], respectively. In addition, Example 5 and 6 present some detailed examples where transliteration was used to treat culture-specific items that refer to people.

Example 5

Source text	**Anne** feels her scream inside her own head and reverberating off the walls - her scream is everywhere. Then she falls silent and stands in front of the crib, rigid, her hand to her mouth. **Marco** fumbles with the light switch. They both stare at the empty crib where their baby should be (Lapena, 2017 as cited in Taya, 2019, p. 6).
Target text	**แอน**รู้สึกถึงเสียงกรีดร้องอยู่ในหัวของเธอเอง และเสียงนั้นยังก้องกังวานไปทั่วห้องและทุกที่ หลังจากนั้นเธอตกอยู่ในห้วงแห่งความเงียบงันยืนอยู่ตรงหน้าเปล ตัวแข็งทื่อ และเอามือปิดปากอยู่อย่างนั้น **มาร์โก**คลำหาสวิตช์ไฟ พวกเขาสองคนจ้องมองไปยังเปลที่ว่างเปล่า ซึ่งเป็นที่ๆ ลูกน้อยของเขาควรจะนอนอยู่ในนั้น (Taya, 2019, p. 6)
Back translation	**Anne** feels her scream inside her head and that voice remains reverberating all over the room and everywhere. After that, she falls within the space of silence in front of the crib, feels numb and uses her hand to cover her mouth. **Marco** fumbles with the light switch. They both stare at the empty crib where their baby should be.

Example 5 is drawn from Chapter 2 of *The Couple Next Door* (Lapena, 2017). The source-text words appear in the scene when the couple is terrified when they learn that their baby has been kidnapped. This illustrates that "Anne" and "Marco" are human subjects and thus are proper names in the source texts. Both words receive transliteration in the translation. Specifically, "Marco" was translated into Thai as "มาร์โก" [back translation – Marco] while "Anne" was translated into "แอน" [back translation – Anne]. From the example, human subjects are specific to the Anglo-American culture and are difficult to be recognized in the Thai culture. When both names receive transliteration, they could sound totally unfamiliar in the target language.

In addition, transliteration was employed to treat culture-specific items that are common nouns in English. However, this usually does not happen as the statistics show that only 7.5% of the total transliteration frequency was only devoted to treat culture-specific items that are common nouns. For example, in Chapter 2 and 4 of *The Couple Next Door* (Lapena, 2017, as cited in Taya,

2019, pp. 15, 26), transliteration of common nouns includes "alcohol" or "แอลกอฮอล์" [back translation – alcohol] and "sofa" or "โซฟา" [back translation – sofa]. A culture-specific item that is a common noun is also found in Chapter 2 of *She's Not Coming Home* (Cox, 2012, as cited in Intana, 2019, p. 26). The example includes "pizza" or "พิซซา" [back translation – pizza]. In addition, Example 6 is another detailed illustration where transliteration was used to treat a culture-specific item that is a common noun.

Example 6

Source text	Matt turned back to the pan of eggs. Just toast please, Daddy. Yes, I heard, sport. Just hold a second. And **jelly**. Matt raised his eyes. Was just about to say something when he heard footsteps coming down the stairs. He looked up as his wife Ruth wandered into the kitchen (Cox, 2012 as cited in Intana, 2019, pp. 6–7)
Target text	แมทหันหน้ากลับไปที่ไข่ดาวที่อยู่บนกระทะ ขอขนมปังปิ้งหน่อยฮะ พ่อ ครับ พ่อได้ยินแล้วเจ้าหนู ขอเวลาแป๊บเดียว แล้วก็**เยลลี่**ด้วย แมทช้อนตาขึ้น กำลังจะพูดอะไรสักอย่าง เมื่อเขาได้ยินเสียงฝีเท้าดังลงมาจากบันได เขาเงยหน้าขึ้นมองเมื่อ รูธ ภรรยาของเขาเดินเข้ามาในครัว (Intana, 2019, pp. 6–7)
Back translation	Matt turned back to the friend eggs on the pan. Toast please, Daddy. Okay. I heard it, son. Give me a second. And **yelly** as well. Matt raised his eyes. Was trying to say something when he heard footsteps coming down from the stairs. He looked up as Ruth, his wife, walked into the kitchen.

Example 6 illustrates that transliteration was also used to treat a culture-specific item that is a common noun. Specifically, the word "jelly" was transliterated into Thai as "เยลลี่" [back translation – yelly]. The source text comes from Chapter 1 of *She's Not Coming Home* (Cox, 2012) and appears in the scene when Matt is preparing breakfast and conversing with his son while his wife is walking into the kitchen. The word "jelly" is a common noun that is generic in English. The translators found no target-text equivalent in Thai and decided to transliterate it into Thai as "yelly". For this reason, it is a translation method in which translators transliterate or transcribe source-text words or phrases into Thai and is referred to as "transliteration."

However, when the word "jelly" received transliteration in the Thai translation, the translated word "เยลลี่" [back translation – yelly] did not follow the sound of the source-text language closely. Specifically, the "j" sound was replaced with the "y" sound in the Thai version. This is because the word "jelly" is considered a loan word from English, similar to the word "salad" which was discussed earlier. According to the Royal Society of Thailand, "jelly" is correctly

transliterated into Thai as "เยลลี" [back translation – yelly]. In addition, it can also be noted that the word "เยลลี่" [back translation – yelly] was transliterated incorrectly as the Royal Society of Thailand specifies that the transliteration of the word "jelly" should be written in Thai without an intonation mark. Thus, the correct way of transliteration is "เยลลี" not "เยลลี่". In sum, the word "jelly" is a loan word in Thai and thus it receives transliteration. However, in this case, the students did not transliterate it incorrectly.

Intratextual Translation

"Intratextual translation" is a translation strategy that is also borrowed from Aixela's (1996) "intratextual gloss" (p. 62). According to him, "intratextual gloss" is a translation method in which translators adhere to the source-text language and consider that such source-text words or phrases need more explanation (Aixela, 1996, p. 62). Thus, translators add words or phrases that are connected to the translated texts to explain them in the target language. In other words, more information is added to the translated texts (added as an integral part of the translated words or phrases) to explain what the source texts are. Mostly, "intratextual translation" was employed to explain culture-specific items that do not exist in the Thai culture.

The analysis reveals that intratextual translation was used to provide additional information to denote source-text references in the translations. For example, it is mainly used to provide location references to items or places that are specific to foreign cultures. Some culture-specific items that receive intratextual translation were found Chapter 3 and 4 of *The Couple Next Door* (Lapena, 2017, as cited in Taya, 2019, pp. 21, 36). It includes "Audi" or "รถออดี้" [back translation – car Audi] and "Ducati" "มอเตอร์ไซค์บิ๊กไบค์ดูคาติ" [back translation – motorcycle big bike Ducati]. Some also were found in Chapter 1 and 3 of *She's Not Coming Home* (Cox, 2012, as cited in Intana, 2019, pp. 11, 37). The examples include "Chestnut and Spruce" or "ถนนเชสนัทแอนด์สปรูซ" [back translation – road Chestnut and Spruce] and "Cambridge" or "ถนนแคมบริดจ์" [back translation – road Cambridge]. To further illustrate the case, Example 7 is a detailed example where additional information was glossed inside the translation to inform the audience of the location in the city of Boston.

Example 7

Source text	If the weather was too bad, and it was only heavy rain that affected her routine, she would take the bus. She could drive, but hated the regular gridlock on Boston's streets. Her morning route would take her across **Boston Common** between Beacon Street and Tremont Street and would take her twenty-five minutes (Cox, 2012 as cited in Intana, 2019, p. 17).
Target text	ถ้าอากาศเลวร้ายมาก ซึ่งก็มีแค่ฝนที่ตกหนักมากเท่านั้นที่จะกระทบต่อเส้นการเดินทางของเธอ เธอถึงจะขึ้นรถบัส รูธขับรถเป็น แต่เธอเกลียดถนนที่แออัดเป็นประจำของบอสตัน เส้นทางเดินเท้ายามเช้าของรูธจะพาเธอตัดข้าม**สวนสาธารณะบอสตันคอมมอน** ซึ่งอยู่ระหว่างถนนบีคอนกับถนนเทรมอนต์ และจะใช้เวลาราวยี่สิบห้านาที (Intana, 2019, p. 17)
Back translation	If the weather was too terrible and it was heavy rain only that affected her travel route, so she would take the bus.

> Ruth could drive but she hated the street that is usually crowded of Boston. Her morning walking route leads her to cut across the **public park of Boston Common** which is located between Beacon Street and Tremont Street. And it would take around twenty-five minutes.

The phrase "Boston Common" comes from Chapter 2 of *She Is Not Coming Home* (Cox, 2012). The culture-specific phrase "Boston Common" appears in the scene that describes how Ruth, the wife of Matt, commutes in her daily routine. The example shows that the phrase "Boston Common" was added to the source-text word "public park" to explain the location. Specifically, the location is a public place that is located in a city called Boston in the USA. The translator translated it into Thai as "สวนสาธารณะบอสตัน" [back translation – public park Boston Common]. As this location is mostly unknown in the Thai culture, the translators decided to add the word "public park" to provide information to the source-text word. In sum, this is a translation method in which translators add more information inside translated texts to help the target readers understand the source texts. Example 8 is another example to demonstrate the case.

Example 8

Source text	Weber started the car and pulled away. Turned into **Fruit Street** then left into Charles. (Cox, 2012 as cited in Intana, 2019, p. 36).
Target text	เว็บเบอร์ติดเครื่องรถยนต์แล้วขับออกไป เลี้ยวเข้า**ถนนฟรุ๊ตสตรีท** ก่อนจะเลี้ยวซ้ายเข้าสู่ถนนชาร์ลส์ (Intana, 2019, p. 36)
Back translation	Weber started the engine of the car and drove out. Turned into Fruit Street before turning left into Charles Street.

The phrase "Fruit Street" comes from Chapter 3 of *She Is Not Coming Home* (Cox, 2012). It appears in the scene where Weber was driving to a hospital in Massachusetts in Boston, USA. The translator decided to translate the source-text phrase literally into "ถนนฟรุ๊ตสตรีท" [back translation – road Fruit Street]. The phrase consists of two words "Fruit" and "Street." Both words were transliterated into Thai. However, the translation shows that the Thai word "road" was also glossed into the source-text phrase "Fruit Street." This results in the translation being supplemented with target-text explanation. More interestingly, it can be noted that the transliteration of the phrase "Fruit Street" was done incorrectly as it does not follow the transliteration convention defined by the Royal Society of Thailand. As mentioned earlier, the transliteration of the word "Fruit" must be done without an intonation mark in Thai. Thus, the correct transliteration would be "ฟรุตสตรีท" but not "ฟรุ๊ตสตรีท." In sum, the translation shows that the students did not follow the transliteration convention of the Royal Thai Society and, hence, transliterated it incorrectly.

Extratextual Translation

"Extratextual translation" is also borrowed directly from Aixela's (1996) "extratextual gloss" and it refers to a method in which translators decide to add an explanation to translated texts (p. 62). Interestingly, according to him, this translation strategy shares the same concept as "intratextual gloss" (Aixela, 1996, p. 62). This means that this translation strategy allows translators to add more information to explain source-text culture-specific items in the translations

in order to ensure that the target readers will understand or comprehend the translated texts better. However, the key difference between the intratextual and extratextual gloss is that the former allows the added information to be inside the translated texts, while the latter allows the added information to be outside the translated texts (specifically, in the forms of parentheses and footnotes).

The analysis reveals that the translators rarely used extratextual translation to treat culture-specific words or phrases in the translations. Specifically, as indicated earlier, extratextual translation was used only 7 times out of the total 151 occurrences. The examples that can be drawn from the analysis include extratextual translation found in Chapter 1 and 3 of *She's Not Coming Home* (Cox, 2012, as cited in Intana, 2019, pp. 7, 34), for example, "two plates of bacon strips" or "จานสองใบที่มี (ไข่และ) เบคอนจำนวนหนึ่ง" [back translation – two plates with (eggs) and some bacon strips] and "Troy" or "(นักสืบ) ทรอย" [back translation – (detective) Troy]. To further illustrate the case, Example 9 provides a detailed example where extratextual translation was used.

Example 9

Source text	Weber started the car and pulled away. Turned into Fruit Street then left into Charles. A couple of minutes later he pulled up outside the **Charles/MGH station** (Cox, 2012 as cited in Intana, 2019, p. 36).
Target text	เว็บเบอร์ติดเครื่องรถยนต์แล้วขับออกไป เลี้ยวเข้าถนนฟรุ๊ตสตรีท ก่อนจะเลี้ยวซ้ายเข้าสู่ถนนชาร์ลส์ ไม่กี่นาทีต่อมาเขาก็จอดรถนอก**สถานีรถไฟใต้ดินชาร์ลส์/เอ็มจีเอช*** (Intana, 2019, p. 36)
Back translation	Weber started the engine of the car and drove out. Turned into Fruit Street before turning left into Charles Street. In a few minutes, he parked outside the **subway station Charles/GMH***. ***MGH stands for Massachusetts General Hospital**

The phrase "the Charles/MGH station" comes from Chapter 3 of *She Is Not Coming Home* (Cox, 2012). It appears in the scene where Weber is driving to a hospital in Massachusetts in Boston, USA. The translator decided to gloss the source-text phrase with the target-text explanation. Specifically, the culture-specific phrase "the Charles/MGH station" was translated into Thai as "สถานีรถไฟใต้ดินชาร์ลส์/จีเอ็มเอช" [back translation – station train underground Charles/GMH; with a footnote – MGH stands for Massachusetts General Hospital]. The translators decided to add the clause "MGH stands for Massachusetts General Hospital" in parentheses after "MGH" to explain the source text. Specifically, the translators strive to inform the readers in the target culture that this is a location or a place in Boston. Considering that the added information appears outside the translated text (in the form of parentheses), the added text is considered extratextual. As a result, it is classified as "extratextual translation" accordingly.

Copying

Copying is a translation strategy adapted from Aixela's (1996) "repetition" (p. 61). According to Aixela (1996), repetition is a method in which translators "*keep as much as they can of the original reference*" (emphasis added) (p. 61). Based on this concept, copying is borrowed and it refers to the ways in which translators copy source-text words or phrases and transfer them

directly into the target-text versions. Example 10 illustrates this circumstance drawn from *The Couple Next Door* (Lapena, 2017).

Example 10

Source text	Marco still doesn't budge. Anne bolts across the hall to their bedroom, grabs the phone off the bedside table, and dials **911**, her hands shaking, getting vomit all over the phone. Marco finally snaps out of it (Lapena, 2017 as cited inTaya, 2019, pp. 6–7)
Target text	มาร์โกก็ยังคงไม่ขยับเขยื้อน แอนเดินผ่านห้องโถงไปยังห้องนอนของเธอ ยกหูโทรศัพท์ขึ้นมาจากโต๊ะข้างๆ หัวเตียงและกดโทรหา **911** ด้วยมือที่สั่นเทา โทรศัพท์เปื้อนไปด้วยคราบอาเจียน ในที่สุดมาร์โกก็รู้สึกตัว (Taya, 2019, pp. 6–7)
Back translation	Marco still doesn't move. Anne walks past the hall to her bedroom and lifts the phone from the bedside table and dials **911** with shaking hands. The phone is covered with vomit. Finally, Marco gains consciousness.

The example comes from Chapter 2 of *The Couple Next Door* (Lapena, 2017) and illustrates the circumstances around domestic violence between Marco and Anne. In the story, it seems that Marco is unconscious and Anne is trying to call for help by dialing the emergency number. In this case, "911" was translated into Thai as "911." The example shows that the translators decided to retain the culture-specific number in the translations without any modification. However, even though the source-text number is kept unchanged in the translation, the retained number likely remains understandable in the target language. This is because it is an emergency number and it is likely to be known universally. Thus, by following the copying procedure, a translation method in which translators copy source-text items and paste it directly into the translated texts in Thai, source-text form and meaning are kept closely to produce close equivalence between English and Thai.

Discussion

The analysis reveals an important implication about how to use transliteration in the Thai target texts. Firstly, it should be pointed out to students that loan words are different from other transliterations because loan words do not follow the transliteration convention determined by the Office of the Royal Society of Thailand (n.d., 2010). According to the Office of the Royal Society of Thailand (2010), loan words do not follow the sounds of the English source texts. For example, "jam" is translated into Thai as "แยม" [back translation – yam], "jean" into "ยีน" [back translation – yean], "jelly" into "เยลลี" [back translation – yelly (with no intonation mark)]. In the analysis, Example 2 points out that the transliterations of the words "salad" and "Caesar" are different. Specifically, "salad" is considered a loan word from English and does not follow the transliteration convention, while "Caesar" is a proper name and must follow the convention. Also, Example 6 demonstrates that the word "jelly" was transliterated into Thai incorrectly. When "jelly" is a loan word from English, it does not have to follow the source-text sounds strictly. For this reason, an intonation mark is not needed in the Thai translation. In sum, this should be differentiated and made explicit when teaching translation strategies to students.

Secondly, the analysis further shows that the transliteration convention determined by the Office of the Royal Society (n.d.) should be emphasized to students. Specifically, Example 8 of intratextual translation shows that the way in which the students translated culture-specific words or phrases into Thai was incorrect. When it comes to transliteration of source-text words or phrases, it is advised that the students follow the transliteration convention determined by the Office of the Royal Society (n.d.). According to the Office of the Royal Society (n.d.), in normal circumstances, the Thai transliteration should not contain intonation marks, for example, "feudal system" or "ระบบฟิวดัล," "metric system" "ระบบเมตริก." However, if translations into Thai would confuse the readers of the sounds, intonation marks are allowed, for example, Coke into "โค้ก," "coma" into "โคม่า." Following this notion, Example 8 shows that the phrase "Fruit Street" was translated into Thai as "ถนนฟรุ๊ตสตรีท" [back translation – road Fruit Street (with an intonation mark)]. This is an incorrect way of transliterating the phrase. To conclude, the use of loan words in Thai does not follow the transliteration convention determined by the Office of the Royal Society of Thailand while the transliteration of English words or phrases would require conformation with the convention.

Conclusion

The study shows that five foreignizing translation strategies were used in treating culture-specific items that appear in the students' literary translation projects. Their applications to the translations can vary based on types of culture-specific items. For example, transliteration is usually applied to deal with culture-specific items that are proper names. Overall, the analysis shows that the ways in which transliteration were used remained an area that can be emphasized to students because the convention between transliteration of loan words and transliteration of other common culture-specific items can be different, according to the Office of the Royal Society of Thailand (2010).

Author

Wiriya Inphen received his LL.B. from Thammasat University, Thailand in 2005. He later received his M.A. (English-Thai Translation) from the same university in 2009. Currently, he is pursuing his doctoral degree at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Jyvaskyla. His research interest is literary translation in the Thai literary context.

References

Primary sources

Cox, P. (2012). *She's not coming home* (paperback). CreateSpace Independent Publishing Platform.

Gallagher, C. (2018). *He is watching you* (paperback). Joffe Books.

Intana, T. (2019). *Translation Project: She's Not Coming Home by Philip Cox* (p. 115) [Senior Project Report]. Mae Fah Luang University.

Lapena, S. (2017). *The couple next door* (paperback). Penguin Books.

Taya, K. (2019). *Translation project: The couple next door by Shari Lapena* (p. 111) [Senior Project Report]. Mae Fah Luang University.

Thananchai, W. (2019). *Translation project: He is watching you by Charlie Gallagher* (p. 90) [Senior Project Report]. Mae Fah Luang University.

Secondary sources

Aixela, J. F. (1996). Culture-specific items in translation. In R. Alvarez Rodríguez & M. C. A. Vidal (Eds.), *Translation, power, subversion* (pp. 52-78). Multilingual Matters.

Aree, A. (2017). *A translation of "Model Law Against Trafficking in Persons" with an analysis* [Master's Thesis, Thammasat University]. http://ethesisarchive.library.tu.ac.th/thesis/2017/TU_2017_5806034111_6337_6117.pdf

Boonterm, B. (2009). A study of interjection translation in "Harry Potter and the Order of the Phoenix" and "Harry Potter and the Half-Blood Prince." *Language and Linguistics, 27*(2), 75-89.

Forster, E. M. (1927). *Aspects of the novel*. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Inphen, W. (2010). *Translation of "Marriage: The long-term contract by Lloyd R. Cohen" with an analysis* [Master's Thesis, Thammasat University]. http://digital.library.tu.ac.th/tu_dc/frontend/Info/item/dc:123080

Inphen, W. (2013). A translation of a compound sentence from English-Thai and its analyses. *Vacana Journal*, *1*(2), 1–20.

Jakobson, R. (1959/2012). On linguistic aspects of translation. In Lawrence Venuti (Ed.), *The translation studies reader* (3rd ed., pp. 126-131). Routledge.

Leelaniramol, N. (2011). Problems in translating Chinese fantasy fictions into Thai. *Chinese Studies Journal*, *4*(4), 84-111.

Liang, W. W. (2016). Translators' behaviors from a sociological perspective: A parallel corpus study of fantasy fiction translation in Taiwan. *Babel*, *62*(1), 39-66. https://doi.org/10.1075/babel.62.1.03lia

Nida, E. A. (1964). *Toward a science of translating: With special reference to principles and procedures involved in Bible translating*. Brill.

Ninrat, R. (2019). *The translation of allusion in crime fiction novels from English into Thai between 1960 and 2015* [doctoral dissertation, University of Surrey].

Paloposki, O. (2010). Domestication and foreignization. In L. van Doorslaer & Y. Gambier (Eds.), *Handbook of translation studies* (Vol. 2, pp. 40-42). John Benjamins Pub. Co.

Schleiermacher, F. (1813/1977). On the difference methods of translating. In A. Lefevere (Eds.), *Translating literature: The German tradition from Luther to Rosenzweig* (pp. 67-89). Van Gorcum.

The Office of the Royal Society. (n.d.). *Lak kane karn tub sup paasa Ungkrit (Principles for English transliteration)*. The Office of the Royal Society.

The Office of the Royal Society. (2010, February 8). "yam" gub "jam"("yam" and "jam") [Short article]. *The Office of the Royal Society*. http://legacy.orst.go.th/?knowledges=แยม-กับ-แจม-๘-กุมภาพันธ์-๒๐

Toury, G. (1995). *Descriptive translation studies and beyond*. Benjamins.

Venuti, L. (1998). Strategies of translation. In M. Baker & K. Malmkjær (Eds.), *Routledge encyclopedia of translation studies*. Routledge.

Venuti, L. (2008). *The translator's invisibility: A history of translation* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Which Factor–Listening, Reading, or Background–is the Best Predictor of CEFR–Based Scores?

Kasin Janjaroongpak
College of General Education and Languages
Thai–Nichi Institute of Technology

Received : Jan 7, 2022
Revised : Feb 28, 2022
Accepted : Mar 31, 2022

Abstract

TOEIC has been used in many countries around the world especially in Asian countries and there are a sizeable number of studies on TOEIC. Two ongoing topics in TOEIC research have been (1) indicative power between reading and listening sections in relation to the total (2) indicative power between test takers' background and TOEIC scores. To address the first point, this study adapts the research design by Park et al. (2020). The key difference is that (1) this study categorizes scores by using the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) level rather than intervals and (2) the scores used are official scores issued by Educational Testing Service (ETS) not scores derived from classroom test. For the second question, this study compares the result between mean scores from this study with the mean scores reported by ETS (2020a). Despite different sample sizes, the score distribution as well as correlation among listening, reading, and total between the two studies are relatively the same except the correlation between listening and reading sections. Reading is the indicative factor for A1-B2 learners' scores while the importance of listening emerges when the score reaches B2 level. On background analysis, test taker profile in the present study, mostly, appears to be in line with the report from ETS (2020a) on years of English study, academic major, and daily English use requirement, suggesting that background can serve as a useful indicator of TOEIC scores. Discussion and pedagogical implications are provided.

Keywords: CEFR, TOEIC, reading, listening, correlation

Introduction

The Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) has been widely used for decades globally thanks to both its reliability and practicality especially in business. Companies in non-English speaking countries have been using TOEIC as one of the main criteria for recruitment. As a result, job seekers, both students and currently-employed skill workers, are expected to submit TOEIC test results to companies they are applying for. This puts pressure on higher educational institutes to take TOEIC into consideration. In Japan, the trend of examinees has been rising (Institute for International Business Communication, 2021). TOEIC has been designed to measure English in real-life working environments (Powers & Powers, 2015). TOEIC has been integrated into the curriculum in many countries where TOEIC has enjoyed its presence (Nam, 2016). In Taiwan, TOEIC has been used as an exit exam (Hsieh, 2017). Oliveri and Tannenbaum (2017) revealed that TOEIC scores are one of factors in recruitment decision-making.

One of the earliest attempts has been from Wilson (1989). Wilson (2000) conducted exploratory factor analysis on both listening and reading components of TOEIC. Wei and Low (2017) reported on score pattern changes. Perception of test takers over TOEIC was presented in Powers et al. (2008). Schmidgall (2017) discussed the actions taken by TOEIC to emphasize its argumentation over its validity.

In Thailand, there has been a study on content validity of TOEIC reading section (Imsa-ard, 2019). In'nami and Koizumi (2012) in Japan tested directional score trend in reading and listening sections. According to Zhang (2006), there seems to be a divergence between reading scores and listening scores. This study included more than 40,000 Japanese and Korean examinees. Another review of reading section proposed that there should be a robust examination on TOEIC reading section to promote greater fairness (Suzuki & Daza, 2004).

Despite a sizeable number of pieces of research on TOEIC validity, a study based on official TOEIC scores in Thailand, as far as I am concerned, has been limited. Apart from papers sponsored by ETS, TOEIC test writer, most research–both large- and small-scale studies–has used TOEIC scores obtained by administering a classroom examination in their analyses. This study tries to provide analysis whose result is derived from a credible source. In theory, it is possible that a mock test is as reliable as the real one (Furwana, 2019), but the outcome might be different thanks to factors involved (Gamer, 2012).

In Korean (Jee & Lee, 2009; Park et al., 2020), studies revealed that it was possible to predict, to a certain extent, total score from either listening score or reading score based on score level. Conducting this study with the Thai learners will explore whether such correlation exists in Thai learners and the result would help Thai instructors to allocate their resources efficiently for Thai learners.

For studies on background, ETS (2020a) provided mean scores based on a large collection of data but the mean scores of other learners might be the same or different from Thai learners. If a similar study is carried out, it will provide insights into the correlation between learners' background and test scores for Thai learners. This would help both administrators and practitioners create a more effective curriculum.

Objective

The objective of this study is to shed light on the correlation between TOEIC reading section, TOEIC listening section, and TOEIC total scores in intermediate Thai learners from a higher education institute. After gaining insight into contributing factors in TOEIC scores internally, another purpose of this study is to explore to what extent learners' background can predict learners' TOEIC scores.

Relationship between Language Skills in Standardized Test

The four skills in language have been linked, by and large, as they are components of language. The main question is the relationship among them.

In Relation to Listening

One of such research is Bozorgian (2012). He found that listening closely links with reading (r = .735) but less so with writing (r =.643) and speaking (r = .654). Also, the link between listening and overall performance is more meaningful (r = .887). The importance of listening skill seems to far outweigh other language domains. To some scholars, listening comprehension is a skill that should not be left behind (Hogan et al., 2014).

In Relation to Reading

While some focus researchers on the crucial role of listening, others look at relations between reading and listening. Hedrick and Cunningham (1995) argued that reading ability could be enhanced by listening to the text. Others have argued that listening and reading should be dealt with differently because of their fundamental differences despite some common features (Lund, 1995). Diakidoy et al. (2005) revealed that differences between reading and listening would first place them apart and they would move closer as the time goes by, improving the skills of students, but text type could be a factor in disparity between reading and listening. To establish this, Wolf et al. (2019) teased out relations between reading and listening comprehension.

TOEIC Research in Universities

In Korea, Lee and Jin (2009) have conducted a study on English-only classes to improve students' TOEIC scores and revealed that the English-only class focusing on active learning such as presentation and role playing had a meaningful positive impact on students' scores. Meanwhile, Ha (2012) held that promoting a class focusing on reading rather than listening was more beneficial to students compared with listening class alone. A study in Japan by Harada (2016) found that balanced teaching produced the best result in TOEIC scores. He also points out that vocabulary should be the focus of teaching. This finding supports another study (Komatsu, 2015). In Thailand, a method-oriented approach to the teaching of TOEIC has been conducted (Lertcharoenwanich, 2020; Suvarnaphaet & Desgres, 2017).

CEFR and Standardized Tests

A study of CEFR and standardized tests was undertaken by Wudthayagorn (2018). She mapped and analyzed various standardized tests into the CU–TEP, a test developed by a university in Thailand. The main concern in creating a comparison table has been the point at which the threshold should lie. Nakanitanon (2021) has taken on the idea of cut-off scores and explored them further based on FRELE-TH, a test developed by Chiang Mai Rajabhat University in Thailand. The method used was Yes/No Angoff method. Apart from CU–TEP, there was another attempt to use CEFR in the same light (Athiworakun et al., 2018). In a paper (Waluyo, 2019), the result illustrated that a large number of participants were at A1-A2 level by comparing the WU–TEP test results with CEFR. WU–TEP was an in-house test developed by Walailak University in Thailand. By comparing WU–TEP and CEFR, both practitioners and learners would gain accurate understanding of learners' proficiency. For TOEIC, a study to establish a link between TOEIC and CEFR was reported in Tannenbaum and Wylie (2013).

To establish decisive factors contributing to success in standardized test, many researchers have conducted correlational studies on either relation among components of the test or relation between external factors and the total scores of the test or subset of the test. In Korea, there was a large-scale internal correlation study on TOEIC scores (Park et al., 2020). Pearson Correlation was used to determine the relation by dividing scores in 100-interval fashion. Two studies from Japan indicated that CEFR could be used to tease out the correlation of TOEIC scores. The first study, with 57 English-major participants, showed that there was a correlation between CEFR-J and listening score but not reading (listening r = .23; reading r = -.14) (Runnels, 2016). The second study, with 54 non-English-major participants, found, inconclusively, a greater correlation (listening r = .29; reading r = .50) on both ends (Richard, 2020). Clearly, CEFR was another possible means to examine the correlation among TOEIC scores.

Regardless of types of tests, language proficiency achievement is an interplay of various factors (Alyousif & Alsuhaibani, 2021; Cheng & Lee, 2018; El-Omari, 2016; Gu, 2015; Lehnert et al., 2018; Shi, 2021). In Korea, a study examined the correlation between learning strategies and years of studying English to predict English proficiency (Magno, 2010). The study suggested that time spent in formal English classes and compensation strategies were a significant factor in learner's English language ability. Another research investigated the correlation between background and test performance (Manna & Yoo, 2015).

Studies on Skill Predictors

Reading and Listening Predictor

For reading, recently, several studies have uncovered factors influencing reading skill: anxiety (Mardianti et al., 2021), self-esteem (Rosalina & Nasrullah, 2019), word form (Aziz et al., 2019), and vocabulary (Manihuruk, 2020). Thanks to the challenges in listening research, fewer correlational studies have been undertaken: personal profile (Kim & Petscher, 2021), factor analysis (Golen, 1990), and vocabulary (Hwang & Cabell, 2021).

Despite reading and listening both being receptive skills, relations between the two skills are debatable. Wong (2021) argued that there was a positive correlation between reading and listening while Sok et al. (2021) found that they both shared predictors of aptitude and phonological working memory, skill-specific predictor, and motivation. Disconnect between reading and listening was also reported in previous studies (Gauthier, 1988; Olejnik, 1978).

Many factor analysis studies on reading and listening have explored their relations to factors in a context of skill in general but factors might be different when it comes to reading and listening as a component of score in a standardized test.

TOEIC Score Predictor

In correlational research, a few studies on correlations between major and non-major students' performance on TOEIC have been conducted. The studies usually came in the form of attitudinal studies and did not investigate the score distribution. Robb and Ercanbrack (1999) compared the result of direct test preparation course on English-major students and non-English-

major students and argued that TOEIC reading course was beneficial for non-majors but not for the counterparts. Hong and Phan (2020) studied non-major students' self-efficacy beliefs and TOEIC performance in Vietnam. Despite a positive result, the study provided total TOEIC scores rather than score distribution and used a mock test rather than an official score report. Another perceptual research employing non-major students' questionnaire responses pointed out that the ramification of TOEIC being an exit exam was not recognized as strong but the participants were concerned with the shift towards teaching for testing rather than teaching for learning (Nguyen & Gu, 2020). This potential negative attitude derived from non-English major students on TOEIC was also voiced in a study from Vietnam (Phan et al., 2019). Not only were the scores not improved but the participants also were finding the test unfavorable. The significance of attitude towards the test and the test performance of non-English major students was further confirmed by a study from Thailand (Puengpipattrakul et al., 2007). This supported an earlier study (Wilson et al., 2005). In Korea, a study also cast the same light on relations between background and TOEIC (Shin & Lee, 2012). This study sifted through the relationship between cultural integration by meaning through exposure to American media and participants' performance on TOEIC reading part. In Taiwan, a study noted an interesting finding in that students with a business background outperformed their technology-oriented peers in the TOEIC listening comprehension test (Huang et al., 2015). In Indonesia, a study found that learning habit strongly correlated with the TOEIC performance by using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (Zakaria et al., 2017).

Background and Proficiency

For reading, studies on relations between reading and learners' background, as far as I am concerned, cover various fronts: role of background (Smith et al., 2021), word use (Wood et al., 2021), working memory (Shin et al., 2019), no correlation between background and reading (Roohani et al., 2017), and positive correlation between background and reading (Al-Noori, 2014). On listening, little research has been conducted to discern the relation between listening and learners' background: culture (Al-khresheh, 2020), role of linguistic knowledge (Long, 1990), and positive relation between background and listening challenges (Hadist et al., 2022; Hasan et al., 2017; Sadighi & Zare, 2006).

To sum up, there have been various studies on relations among language skills but only a limited number of pieces of research are looking into the relationship among skills in standardized tests as well as the relation between each skill and the total score. Previous relevant studies abroad focused on score relation by dividing scores into 100-score interval. This study, in Thailand, will shed light on score relation categorized by CEFR. The reason why this study compares the result with Park et al. (2020) is because both Korea and Thailand are considered expanding circle (Bolton & Kachru, 2006). In terms of environment, exposure, and necessity of English in daily life, the two countries are comparable. For age, participants in both studies are first-year and second-year undergraduate students. This study is an attempt to explore such relations in Thai test takers.

Research questions

- Is the correlation among listening comprehension, reading comprehension, and TOEIC total scores similar to the study from Korea (Park et al., 2020) should the scores be grouped by CEFR?
- Is the mean score of participants grouped by their background: academic major, daily English use requirement, and most frequent used language skill similar to the report from TOEIC (ETS, 2020a)?

Methodology

To make this study comparable with Park et al. (2020), the data collection and analysis set forth by Park et al. (2020) were adopted. The participants in this study came from students enrolling in a TOEIC preparation compulsory course in a university in Thailand. Simple sampling was used. Owing to the fact that each faculty had its unique characteristics, participants from each faculty were expected to come from different backgrounds. For instance, students from Faculty of Engineering were generally less familiar with English compared with their peers from Faculty of Information Technology. The former group involved with physical activities while the latter was spending much time coding in English. Forty-six students were from a business-related faculty, 24 were from science-oriented faculty, and the other 31 were from an IT faculty. All of them were second year students. On language proficiency, based on their TOEIC scores, the participants were mostly from A2 to B2 level. The exempt consent was applied thanks to the score submission being a part of matriculation assessment. The scores were collected during the semester. All personal confidential details were removed and deleted before the analysis took place. There were 101 scores submitted and they were grouped by their respective CEFR based on TOEIC-CEFR mapping provided (ETS, 2020b). After obtaining the scores, descriptive statistics were calculated, notably, means and the standard deviations for the listening and reading sections to scrutinize relationships between listening and reading sections and the total TOEIC scores. Then, Pearson's correlation, available in Microsoft Excel, was used to gauge relationships between the scores. Pearson's correlation has been widely applied in studies focusing on linear relational strength among factors in question (Ha, 2012). The value, in R, was from -1 to 1. In this study, it was utilized to uncover the relationships between the listening section and the total, the reading section and the total, and the listening section and the reading section. First, scatter plot was created to confirm linearity among the sets of components followed by correlation coefficient. The correlation was stronger when the two variables were coming close to a straight line. Positive correlation was observed when one variable was increased, the other variable increased at the same time we saw negative correlation when one variable was increased but the other variable decreased. In this vein, the correlation coefficient at 1 was an absolute positive correlation while -1 was an absolute negative correlation.

Result and Discussion

Research Question 1

Is the correlation among listening comprehension, reading comprehension, and TOEIC total scores similar to the study from Korea (Park et al., 2020) should the scores be grouped by CEFR?

Table 1
TOEIC Scores Descriptive Statistics

Skills	This study			Korean study (Park et al., 2020) with adaptation		
	Mean	Standard Deviation	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Listening	324.950	93.132	101	324.5242	69.02404	11,328
Reading	269.405	97.763	101	292.1941	72.97826	11,328
Total	594.356	180.356	101	616.7183	133.06549	11,328

Descriptive statistics processed by Microsoft Excel under the function data analysis provided other basic statistical analysis such as standard error, median, and mode but in this study only mean, SD, and count or total would be presented to replicate the analytical steps taken by Park et al. (2020).

Table 2
TOEIC Scores Pearson Correlations

Skills	This study			Korean study (Park et al., 2020) with adaptation		
Listening	1	.785**	.941**	1	.756**	.933**
Reading	.785**	1	.947**	.756**	1	.941**
Total	.941**	.947**	1	.933**	.941**	1
N	101	101	101	11,328	11,328	11,328

Despite the difference in participant number, the overall Pearson correlations showed a similar pattern between the two studies with minor differences.

Table 3
Thailand Mean Scores (ETS, 2020a)

Skills	Mean	SD
Listening	279	105
Reading	206	102
Total	485	200

In the Korean study, the regional mean scores were used but this study would not resort to the regional mean scores because they remotely related to the case of Thailand. From Table 3 (ETS, 2020a), the mean scores were at 279 in listening, 206 in reading, and 485 in total were far lower than scores distribution of participants in this study because of, arguably, sample differences and field of studies.

Table 4

Mean Scores Comparison (Listening, Reading, and Total) by CEFR

Skills	B2-C1 (N = 8)	B1-B2 (N = 24)	A2-B1 (N = 26)
Listening	460.625	347.391	229.808
Reading	406.250	318.478	187.692
Total	866.875	665.870	417.500
Gap	54.375	28.913	42.115

Table 5

Mean scores of the Listening, the Reading, Total, and the score gap between the Listening and the Reading

Skills	Score						
	900 (N = 144)	800 (N = 902)	700 (N = 1,978)	600 (N = 2,990)	500 (N = 3,027)	400 (N = 1,672)	(N = 615)
Listening	467.11	432.16	388.98	342.64	293.47	247.45	200.6
Reading	460.41	410.5	358.86	308.67	260.78	210.53	161.39
Total	927.53	842.67	747.84	651.31	554.25	457.98	362
Gap	6.7	21.66	30.11	33.96	32.69	36.91	39.21

The samples used in Table 4 were the samples after exclusion. The exclusion took place to select only samples clearing CEFR threshold. CEFR A2 must achieve at least 110 in listening and 115 in reading. Samples with listening scores at 110 but reading scores at 95, for instance, would be excluded. As a result, only 58 entries were processed. The first column, A2-B1, appeared to be in line with the pattern found in Table 5 in Park et al. (2020). The gap was approximately at 40 points and the trend remained constant in B1-B2, 785 scores equivalent, in that the gap was in the range of 20, compared with 800 band intervals. The discrepancy lay in the highest level, B2-C1. The Korean study found that there was only a slight difference between listening and reading, 6.70, while this study reported 54.375 points. Different number of participants might be a factor because this study included only 8 entries while the other took in 144 samples. On nature of score distribution, both studies showed that participants scored more on listening compared with reading.

Table 6
R values comparison between Listening & Total and Reading & Total

Skills & Total	B2-C1	B1-B2	A2-B1
Listening & Total	.883	.665	.745
Reading & Total	.778	.769	.854

Table 7
R values between the Listening & Total and the Reading & Total (Park et al., 2020)

Correlation	Score						
	Over 900	Over 800	Over 700	Over 600	Over 500	Over 400	Over 300
Listening & Total	.642**	.580**	.509**	.505**	.441**	.450**	.572**
Sig.(2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Reading & Total	.636**	.684**	.565**	.476**	.490**	.482**	.510**
Sig.(2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Next, the *r* values between listening-total and reading-total were calculated by the function correlation in data analysis from Microsoft Excel. Statistical interpretation referred to the guideline provided by Evans (1996). *R* value at lower end, 0.00-.19, was considered weak while the other end, .60-.79, was strong, and very strong for .80-1.0. Despite the different values, the overall trend of the correlations was relatively similar to the counterpart study. The B2-C1 band reported the *r* value at .883 for listening and .778 for reading with total scores. Despite the similar pattern in that listening score was closer than reading, the figure reported was different (.642 for listening and .636 for reading in 900 band score).

Table 8
Listening-Reading r values

Correlation	B2-C1	B1-B2	A2-B1
Listening and Reading	.392	.034	.289

Table 9
R values between the Reading & the Listening (Park et al., 2020)

Reading and listening	Score						
	Over 900	Over 800	Over 700	Over 600	Over 500	Over 400	Over 300
Correlation	−.184**	−.198**	−.423**	−.519**	−.566**	−.566**	−.414**
Sig.(2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

While the counterpart study found a moderate negative correlation in most bands except 800 and 900 intervals, this study found a weak positive correlation except for B1-B2 band which reported very weak correlation. In Jee and Lee (2009), there was a correlation in group with mean score of 705 at .50 *r* value but a weak correlation in lower band score at .20 and negative correlation at -.28 for the group of mean score at 94. This research was conducted with 599 participants. The similar point was that in the higher band score there was a strong to relatively strong correlation (.50 and .392).

To summarize, despite some differences, it appears that the correlation between reading, listening, and the total TOEIC scores of this study is similar to that of Park et al. (2020). On mean scores, despite the different sample size between the two studies, the mean scores are relatively comparable especially in listening skill. This implies that listening skill of Thai learners in the samples is on par with Korean learners in the other study. One way to interpret this is that Thai learners are, surprisingly, keen on listening on par with learners from developed countries. It is possible to argue that access to internet-mediated media is at play. Reading is the skill that Thai learners need to catch up. On correlation, given the different sample size, the correlation between the two studies shows the same trend. One possible application is that for correlation instead of aiming for a large sample size it is possible, to a certain extent, to use 100-sample study to bolster the claim. Also, the agreement between the two studies lent support to the argument that reading is slightly more indicative of the total TOEIC scores. Test takers who aim to excel at TOEIC are encouraged to prioritize reading over listening, considering time and energy one has to invest. Compared with mean scores of Thailand, learners in this study have higher mean scores on both listening and reading. One possible interpretation is that participants are from a university championing language learning, resulting in taking on many language-oriented undergraduate students.

Motivation is instrumental in achieving language learning success. On gap comparison, the lower level, A2-B2, shows the same trend as that of the other study in that the gap is wider on the lower end and it is narrowing as the score moves higher but the difference lies in scores at the advanced level. The fact that the gap, with listening score higher than reading score, is around 40 scores both A2-B1 and B1-B2 might be explained by the TOEIC scoring system in that it takes fewer correct answers to score points for listening compared with reading. For instance, 1 correct answer in listening might score 5 points while it takes 3 correct answers in reading to score 5 points. Though different score range has different requirements, listening, by and large, is an easier part compared with reading. We should expect a gap to be wider exclusively at B2-C1 because of vocabulary requirement. Milton and Alexiou (2009) proposed that a learner requires 3,250 words to reach B1 but it takes 4,500 words to attain C1, which is almost two times the vocabulary size of B1, resulting in a wider gap between those who just reached B2 and full C1. More research is called for to establish this. On correlation between listening and total scores and reading and total scores, this study suggests that those who aim at A2-B1 level should prioritize reading over listening because it correlates with the total score more than listening and they should continue to do so on B1-B2 level. Then, they should move to listening when they are on B2-C1 level by the same token.

Despite different *r* value, the Korean study shows that the correlation is stronger in listening on over 900 scores. Also, the scores on over 700 scores correlate strongly with reading. Both studies recommend starting with studying for reading and listening later. One key advantage of categorizing into CEFR rather than 100-score interval is that it describes a more accurate picture of learner's interlanguage. One notable example would be the indeterminate nature of *r* value on over-300 to over-400 scores. The fact that these two levels produce relatively the same *r* value is because they both fall under A2. This rings true until mid over-500 scores–550 scores which is the start of B1. Also, by grouping as B1-B2, we can see that reading will be a deciding factor until the upper-intermediate level, B2 or 785 TOEIC scores. Therefore, learners at B1 should pay more attention to reading. At the same time, over-500 scores gives little direction for learners because the *r* value is at .49 for reading and .44 for listening meaning that neither listening nor reading is indicative of the total scores. Upon a closer look, it reveals that the clear indication emerges when the score reaches over-800 level at .58 and .68 respectively, suggesting that reading is a leading factor. This interpretation is in line with .66 and .76 respectively reported in this study. On the correlation between listening and reading scores, both studies reveal that the correlation between the two skills are negligible. This implies that both reading and listening need to be developed individually–killing two birds with one stone is not applied.

Research Question 2

Is the mean score of participants grouped by their background: academic major, daily English use requirement, and most frequent used language skill similar to the report from TOEIC (ETS, 2020a)?

To make the data set comparable, there were three domains to be investigated in this study: academic major, score by daily English Use Requirement, and Score by Most Frequent Used Language Skill. The following comparison will use all 101 participants because I wanted to include data as much as possible to compare with ETS report and mean comparison gave a proper overview.

Table 10

Mean Score Comparison Based on Academic Major

Faculty	EST Report						Gap	
	Listening	Reading	CEFR	Listening	Reading	CEFR	Listening	Reading
Business-related	309	259	A2	334	279	B1	25	20
Engineering	330	269	A2	316	258	A2	14	11
Sciences	345	284	B1	325	272	A2	20	12

There were fairly small differences between participant mean scores and the scores from the report. Participant's Business-related group underperformed its counterparts around 20 points per skill while the other groups from participant domain relatively outperformed its peers around 10 points. One Sample T-test was conducted on each pair and found no statistical significance. As a result, it was possible to interpret that the mean scores of participants were in line with global

standard of their peers in the professions. Employers had specific expectations on TOEIC in their respective field of professions (Puengpipattrakul et al., 2007).

Table 11
Mean Score Comparison Based on Daily English Use Requirement

Percentage	EST Report						Gap	
	Listening	Reading	CEFR	Listening	Reading	CEFR	Listening	Reading
1%-10%	329	269	A2	321	262	A2	8	7
11%-20%	309	259	A2	344	284	B1	35	25
21%-50%	345	284	B1	363	302	B1	18	18

The criteria to decide which topic to be included in the questionnaire was set out by ETS (2020a) including the choices available in the questionnaire, from none to 100%. The necessity to use language effectively or the drive to get message across successfully was particularly vital in survival. Therefore, Daily English Use Requirement should be incorporated. In Table 11, participants were divided into three groups to make the data comparable with the report. The first group was categorized as low English use requirement group because the main source of Daily English Use was reading textbook when they were studying in a few classes. The next group was placed into 11%-20% group because the participants had, at least, one class with a textbook in English every second day. The last group was assigned into 21%-50% because the textbooks used in almost every subject studied were in English. In particular, activities promoting listening such as English-only classes might help boost the listening section (Lee & Jin, 2009).

Table 12
Mean Score Comparison Based on Most Frequently Used Skill Language

Skill	EST Report						Gap	
	Listening	Reading	CEFR	Listening	Reading	CEFR	Listening	Reading
Four skills	396	337	B1	372	311	B1	24	26
Listening oriented	287	240	A2	319	255	A2	32	15
Reading oriented	338	277	B1	319	271	A2	19	6

The first group, reading, is arguably the proxy for learning style practiced in Thailand and is similar to the score distribution in the report group. It might be interpreted that the learning outcome of learners whose primary learning style is reading should fall into approximately 600 scores. Despite reading-oriented class, reading score precedes listening scores in both groups. The same pattern is shown in Ha (2012). For listening group, though the differences are not statistically significant, they remind the participants in this bracket that they should work on their reading scores to improve the overall score, provided that their mean scores fall into 500-interval, as

suggested in Park et al. (2020). The all-around group has the best overall scores and score distribution is the same in both groups, with the participant group outperforming its counterpart. This indicates that teaching English in a skill-balanced manner yields the highest overall TOEIC score, which is further supported by Harada (2016).

Table 13
Credit Comparison

Credit	Listening	Reading	CEFR
English-oriented (21 credits)	396	337	B1
Non-English-oriented (9 credits)	318	262	A2

After running mean comparison analysis, the report shows that the difference between the two groups, both listening and reading, is statistically significant. By and large, the scores rise in tandem with the number of credits. Wei (2013) pointed out that some background domains are predictive of TOEIC scores and the domain of English study time at 4-6 years is a contributing factor (variance explained at 46.21% for listening and 34.09% for reading) on global level but when the researcher looks into individual details by using random coefficient to tease out the correlation, the variance is reported at approximately 4%. It appears that number of years of studying English plays a useful role in TOEIC scores but it is not necessarily the unique one.

To summarize, on gap between mean score of participants in this study and the report by ETS, the score is relatively the same, 25-point difference. This means that language proficiency of this group is in line with Thai TOEIC mean scores. Comparison in this manner could be an informed bellwether for universities in Thailand to use as one of the key performance indicators for English proficiency should business English be their language goal. However, the score requirement might be subject to various reasons such as level of position, specialization, or type of company. On Daily English Use Requirement, the rule of thumb is the higher the requirement level, the higher the score but the participants in this report (11%-20%) show a disconnect in that their listening and reading scores are lower than that of 1%-10% bracket. It appears that these learners have not reached their end stage of language learning in university while the participants from the ETS report are from working people. Once the students in 11%-20% bracket reach their fourth year, the score should be improved. More research is required. On Most Frequently Used Skill Language, two key points emerge. First, despite reading being used most, reading score lags behind listening scores on both participants in this study and the participants in the ETS report. This suggests that frequency alone is not necessarily a determining factor in improving reading. Therefore, to improve reading, instructors and administrators need to explore other factors such as vocabulary, grammar, or metacognition rather than adding more hours of reading classes. Second, the four-skill group outperforms both listening-oriented and reading-oriented groups across the board. This means that learners who aim for high scores should attend language class that incorporate four skills rather than skill-specific course.

Pedagogical Implications

Between skills and background, reading skill is the best predictor of CEFR-based TOEIC scores. First, reading score correlates closer to the total TOEIC scores compared with listening score or background. Manna and Yoo (2015) reported the effect size of approximately 0.3 for many background factors. In addition, reading score is a laggard factor in every score range meaning that if a test taker wants to achieve a high score, reading score must be first dealt with. Second, background information might give a false impression and should be considered in relation to reading skill.

The listening and reading scores on the second research question come from participants in this study who turned in their TOEIC scores issued by ETS and the mean scores obtained from ETS (2020a). Two key factors in developing listening and reading scores are, from this study, the number of skills frequently used and the level of daily English requirement.

Despite its limited predictiveness, background could offer some quick cues to both practitioners and professionals. For instance, a quick round of field question on skills frequently used at the beginning of a class might help instructors grasp their learners' ability.

This study shows that the score distribution grouped by CEFR, in general, squares with the score distribution by 100-interval but it helps classify test takers in a systemic and linguistic manner. The three stages of development, A1, A2, B1, B2, C1 and C2 in CEFR (Council of Europe, 2020) are easier for both practitioners and test takers to develop specific areas for improvement. The way to improve reading and listening skills concurrently is by channeling strenuous efforts in learning a shared aspect between the two skills, which is vocabulary (Wolf et al., 2019). For teaching language skills, all four skills should be included as they produce the highest mean scores. If a class is limited to only one skill, reading-concentrated class is recommended (Wei & Low, 2017).

Grouping learners based on their proficiency appears to be beneficial because the cohort has relatively the same problem in their learning journey. However, the fine line should be trodden carefully when it comes to division (Hallinan et al., 2003; Jones & Gerig, 1994; Kiss, 2017; Kurian & Mekoth, 2021; Magableh & Abdullah, 2021; Mazenod, et al., 2019; McGillicuddy, 2021).

Lastly, credits or hours of studying English, in this study, are a significant factor in TOEIC scores. Despite criticism on TOEIC listening-reading scores being modality-specific, some studies suggest that the scores in question suffice as evidence for requesting credit waiver (Hahta et al., 2000; In'nami & Koizumi, 2017; Powers, 2013).

Author

Kasin Janjaroongpak is an English Department Lecturer at the College of General Education and Languages, Thai–Nichi Institute of Technology. His research interests include English as a Foreign Language, English Linguistics, and Corpus Linguistics. He can be contacted at kasin@tni.ac.th

References

Al-Khresheh, M. H. (2020). The impact of cultural background on listening comprehension of Saudi EFL students. *Arab World English Journal*, *11*(3), 349-371.

Al-Noori, B. S. (2014). The effect of the reader's background on reading comprehension performance. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, *5*(6), 194-203.

Alyousif, R., & Alsuhaibani, Z. (2021). English language learning demotivating factors for Saudi high school EFL students. *English Language Teaching*, *14*(8), 29-39.

Athiworakun, C., Vathanalaoha, K., Thongprayoon, T., Rajprasit, K., & Yaemtui, W. (2018). SWU-SET as a CEFR standardized English test. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *9*(2), 261-267.

Aziz, Z. A., Daud, B., & Ismar, R. T. (2019). Morphological awareness and its correlation with EFL reading comprehension of senior high school students. *TEFLIN Journal: A Publication on the Teaching and Learning of English*, *30*(1), 121-136.

Bolton, K., & Kachru, B. B. (2006). *World Englishes: Critical concepts in linguistics.* Taylor & Francis.

Bozorgian, H. (2012). The relationship between listening and other language skills in international English language testing system. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *2*(4), 657-663.

Cheng, A., & Lee, C. (2018). Factors affecting tertiary English learners' persistence in the self-directed language learning journey. *System*, *76*, 170-182.

Council of Europe. (2020). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment – Companion volume.* Council of Europe Publishing. Retrieved from www.coe.int/lang-cefr

Diakidoy, I.-A. N., Stylianou, P., Karefillidou, C., & Papageorgiou, P. (2005). The belationship between listening and reading comprehension of different types of text at increasing grade levels. *Reading Psychology*, *26*(1), 55-80.

Educational Testing Service. (2020a). *Report on test takers worldwide*. Retrieved from https://www.ets.org/s/toeic/pdf/2020-report-on-test-takers-worldwide.pdf

Educational Testing Service. (2020b). *TOEIC® Listening and Reading Test Scores and The CEFR Levels.* Retrieved from https://etswebsiteprod.cdn.prismic.io/etswebsiteprod/5290f06b-e1cf-4254-8776-4a7c757f5252_TOEIC-Listening-and-Reading-test-CEFR-correlation-table.pdf

El-Omari, A. H. (2016). Factors affecting students' achievement in English language learning. *Journal of Educational and Social Research*, *6*(2), 9-18.

Evans, J. D. (1996). *Straightforward statistics for the behavioral sciences.* Brooks/Cole Publishing Co.

Furwana, D. (2019). Validity and reliability of teacher-made English summative test at second grade of Vocational High School 2 Palopo. *Language Circle: Journal of Language and Literature*, 111-119.

Gamer, M. (2012). Validity of the Concealed Information Test in realistic mock crime scenarios: comment on Bradley, Malik, and Cullen. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 427-431.

Gauthier, L. R. (1988). A study of listening comprehension as a predictor of reading gains. *Reading Improvement*, *25*(4), 276-81.

Golen, S. (1990). A factor analysis of barriers to effective listening. *Journal of Business Communication*, *27*(1), 25-36.

Gu, L. (2015). Language ability of young English language learners: Definition, configuration, and implications. *Language Testing*, *32*(1), 21-38.

Ha, M. (2012). Effects on the improvement of TOEIC scores of college English learners using listening-focused and reading-focused teaching methods. *Foreign Languages Education, 19*(4), 323-348.

Hadist, M. K., Hidjanah, Dtakiyatuddaaimah, & Dewanti, L. (2022). An analysis of EFL students' difficulties in listening comprehension at STKIP Muhammadiyah Bogor. *Jurnal Educatio FKIP UNMA, 8*(1), 174-179.

Hahta, K., Butler, Y. G., & Witt, D. (2000). *How long does it take English learners to attain proficiency?* University of California Linguistic Minority Research Institute.

Hallinan, M. T., Bottoms, E., Pallas, A. M., & Palla, A. M. (2003). Ability grouping and student learning. *Brookings Papers on Education Policy*, *6*, 95-140.

Harada, S. (2016). Effects of the TOEIC course on students' TOEIC scores. *The Bulletin of St.Margaret's*, *48*, 1-17.

Hasan, A., Gushendra, R., & Yonantha, F. (2017). The Influence of prior knowledge on students' listening and reading comprehension. *IJEE (Indonesian Journal of English Education)*, *4*(1), 1-15.

Hedrick, W. B., & Cunningham, J. W. (1995). The relationship between wide reading and listening comprehension of written language. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, *27*(3), 425-438.

Hogan, T. P., Adlof, S. M., & Alonzo, C. (2014). On the importance of listening comprehension. *International Journal of Speech-Language Pathology*, *16*(3), 199-207.

Hong, N. X., & Phan, N. T. (2020). Students' self-efficacy beliefs and TOEIC achievements in the Vietnamese context. *International Journal of Instruction, 13*(4), 67-86.

Hsieh, C.-N. (2017). The case of Taiwan: Perceptions of college students about the use of the TOEIC® Tests as a Condition of Graduation. *ETS Research Report Series*, 1-12.

Huang, T.-Y., Chen, S.-C., Chen, S.-H. E., & Wey, S.-C. (2015). The Role of Background Knowledge and Proficiency in Vocational EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension. *International Journal of Education and Research*, *3*(9), 115-126.

Hwang, H., & Cabell, S. Q. (2021). Latent profiles of vocabulary and domain knowledge and their relation to listening comprehension in kindergarten. *Journal of Research in Reading, 44*(3), 636-653.

Imsa-ard, P. (2019). TOEIC Reading section: Evaluation of the four cardinal criteria for testing a test. *NIDA Journal of Language and Communication*, 91-110.

In'nami, Y., & Koizumi, R. (2012). Factor structure of the revised TOEIC® test: A multiple-sample analysis. *Language Testing*, 131-152.

In'nami, Y., & Koizumi, R. (2017). Using EIKEN, TOEFL, and TOEIC to award EFL course credits in Japanese universities. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, *14*(3), 274-293.

Institute for International Business Communication. (2021, October 10). *TOEIC program data & analysis 2020.* Retrieved from http://www.iibc-global.org/library/default/english/toeic/official_data/pdf/DAA_english.pdf

Jee, S., & Lee, S. (2009). A study on the correlation between listening comprehension and reading comprehension through an analysis of TOEIC score. *Journal of Language Sciences*, *16*(1), 111-128.

Jones, M. G., & Gerig, T. M. (1994). Ability grouping and classroom interactions. *The Journal of Classroom Interaction*, *29*(2), 27-34.

Kim, Y.-S. G., & Petscher, Y. (2021). Influences of individual, text, and assessment factors on text/discourse comprehension in oral language (listening comprehension). *Annals of Dyslexia, 71*(2), 218-237.

Kiss, D. (2017). A model about the impact of ability grouping on student achievement. *The B.E. Journal of Economic Analysis & Policy*, *17*(3), 20170036.

Komatsu, Y. (2015). An attempt to improve students' TOEIC test scores focusing on Part 2 & Part 5. *National Institute of Technology,Ishikawa College Bulletin*, *47*, 77-86.

Kurian, J., & Mekoth, N. (2021). Deconstructing coping using cognitive influences on ability groups. *Studies in Higher Education*, *46*(2), 177-188.

Lee, E., & Jin, S. (2009). English-only classes and student improvement on TOEIC. *Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, *13*(1), 23-38.

Lehnert, T. E., Krolak-Schwerdt, S., & Hörstermann, T. (2018). Language and nationality attitudes as distinct factors that influence speaker evaluations: Explicit versus implicit attitudes in Luxembourg. *Language & Communication, 61*, 58-70.

Lertcharoenwanich, P. (2020). Washback Effect of Direct TOEIC Preparation class on students' motivation. *Humanities and Social Sciences Journal, Ubon Ratchathani Rajabhat University*, *11*(1), 304-316.

Long, D. R. (1990). What you don't know can't help you: An exploratory study of background knowledge and second language listening comprehension. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *12*(1), 65-80.

Lund, R. J. (1995). A Ccmparison of second language listening and reading comprehension. *The Modern Language Journal*, *75*(2), 196-204.

Magableh, I. S., & Abdullah, A. (2021). The impact of differentiated instruction on students' reading comprehension attainment in mixed-ability classrooms. *Interchange: A Quarterly Review of Education, 52*(2), 255-272.

Magno, C. (2010). Korean students' language learning strategies and years of studying English as predictors of proficiency in English. *Teaching English to Speakers of Languages Journal*, *2*, 39-61.

Manihuruk, D. H. (2020). The correlation between EFL students' vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension: A case study at the English Education Department of Universitas Kristen Indonesia. *Journal of English Teaching*, *6*(1), 86-95.

Manna, V. F., & Yoo, H. (2015). Investigating the relationship between test-taker background characteristics and test performance in a heterogeneous English-as-a-second-language (ESL) test population: A factor analytic approach. *ETS Research Report Series*, *2015*(2), 1-23.

Mardianti, N., Wijayati, P. H., & Murtadho, N. (2021). The correlation between students' reading anxiety and their reading comprehension in ESP context. *International Journal of Language Education, 5*(2), 15-29.

Mazenod, A., Francis, B., Archer, L., Hodgen, J., Taylor, B., Tereshchenko, A., & Pepper, D. (2019). Nurturing learning or encouraging dependency? Teacher constructions of students in lower attainment groups in English secondary schools. *Cambridge Journal of Education, 49*(1), 53-68.

McGillicuddy, D. (2021). "They would make you feel stupid" - Ability grouping, children's friendships and psychosocial wellbeing in Irish primary school. *Learning and Instruction, 75*, 101492.

Milton, J., & Alexiou, T. (2009). Vocabulary size and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. In B. Richards, M. H. Daller, D. D. Malvern, P. Meara, J. Milton, & J. Treffers-Daller, *Vocabulary studies in first and second language acquisition*, 194-211. Palgrave Macmillan. doi:https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230242258_12

Nakanitanon, P. (2021). Linking an English proficiency test to the CEFR: Setting valid cut scores. *The New English Teacher*, *15*(1), 53-64.

Nam, E.-h. (2016). Analysis on the relationships between the perceptions and attitudes of Korean university students towards TOEIC and their TOEIC scores. *English Language & Literature Teaching*, 225-248.

Nguyen, H., & Gu, Y. (2020). Impact of TOEIC listening and reading as a university exit test in Vietnam. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, *17*(2), 147-167.

Olejnik, S. (1978). Factors affecting the relationship between listening and reading. *Reading Horizons*, *18*(4), 277-81.

Oliveri, M. E., & Tannenbaum, R. J. (2017). Insights into using TOEIC® test scores to inform human resource management decisions. *ETS Research Report Series*, 1-9.

Park, S., Kwak, E.-J., Tak, J.-y., & Tate, T. (2020). Investigation on TOEIC score trends in Korea and its pedagogical implications. *Cogent Education*, *7*(1), 1-13.

Phan, N. T., Quang, H. T., & Nhat, T. T. (2019). The effectiveness of a Toeic preparation Course on nonenglish majored students' Toeic scores at a university in Vietnam. *Journal Of Science And Technology*, *37*(1), 90-97.

Powers, D. E. (2013). *Assessing English-language proficiency in all four language domains: Is it really necessary?* Educational Testing Service.

Powers, D. E., & Powers, A. (2015). The incremental contribution of TOEIC® Listening, Reading, Speaking, and Writing tests to predicting performance on real-life English language tasks. *Language Testing*, 151-167.

Powers, D. E., Kim, H.-J., & Weng, V. Z. (2008). The redesigned TOEIC® (Listening and Reading) Test: Relations to test-taker perceptions of proficiency in English. *ETS Research Report Series*, 1-16.

Puengpipattrakul, W., Chiramanee, N., & Sripetpun, W. (2007). The challenge facing Thai graduates and their potential for English-required workforce. *Kasetsart Journal of Social Sciences*, *28*(2), 288-297.

Richard, J.-P. J. (2020). Investigating CEFR-J self-assessment and TOEIC listening and reading scores. *グローバルマネジメント[Global Management]*, *3*, 21-32.

Robb, T. N., & Ercanbrack, J. (1999). A study of the effect of direct test preparation on the TOEIC scores of Japanese university students. *TESL-EJ*, *3*(4). Retrieved from http://www.cc.kyoto-su.ac.jp/information/tesl-ej/ej12/a2.html

Roohani, A., Dayeri, K., & Farhang-Ju, M. (2017). Role of background knowledge in Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension test performance. *International Journal of Language Testing*, *7*(1), 28-39.

Rosalina, E., & Nasrullah. (2019). The Ccrrelation between self-esteem and student's reading comprehension. *English Language Teaching Educational Journal*, *2*(2), 70-78.

Runnels, J. (2016). Self-assessment accuracy: Correlations between Japanese English learners' self-assessment on the CEFR-Japan's can do statements and scores on the TOEIC®. *Taiwan Journal of TESOL*, *13*(1), 105-137.

Sadighi, F., & Zare, S. (2006). Is listening comprehension influenced by the background knowledge of the learners? A case study of Iranian EFL learners. *The Linguistics Journal*, *1*(3), 110-126.

Schmidgall, J. E. (2017). Articulating and evaluating validity arguments for the TOEIC® tests. *ETS Research Report Series*, 1-9.

Shi, H. (2021). Exploring factors for English language learners' language competence. *World Journal of Education*, *11*(1), 86-93.

Shin, J., Dronjic, V., & Park, B. (2019). The interplay between working memory and background knowledge in L2 reading comprehension. *TESOL Quarterly: A Journal for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages and of Standard English as a Second Dialect*, *53*(2), 320-347.

Shin, M.-H., & Lee, E. (2012). The importance of learning language and culture integration: Focused on TOEIC reading comprehension. *English Language & Literature Teaching*, *18*(3), 207-221.

Smith, R., Snow, P., Serry, T., & Hammond, L. (2021). The role of background knowledge in reading comprehension: A critical review. *Reading Psychology*, *42*(3), 214-240.

Sok, S., Shin, H. W., & Do, J. (2021). Exploring which test-taker characteristics predict young L2 learners' performance on listening and reading comprehension tests. *Language Testing*, *38*(3), 378-400.

Suvarnaphaet, K. M., & Desgres, D. (2017). Evaluation of the effectiveness of a lesson plan combining the Direct Teaching Method (DM) and the Task-Based Learning teaching (TBLT) approach in the context of an intensive TOEIC course for Thai students from Silpakorn University Animal Science. *Veridian E-Journal, Silpakorn University*, *10*(5), 35-45.

Suzuki, M., & Daza, C. (2004). A review of the reading section of the TOEIC. *TESL Canada Journal*, 16-24.

Tannenbaum, R. J., & Wylie, E. C. (2013). *Mapping TOEIC and TOEIC bridge test scores to the Common European Framework of Reference.* Educational Testing Service.

Waluyo, B. (2019). Examining Thai first-year university students' English proficiency on CEFR levels. *The New English Teacher*, *13*(2), 51-71.

Wei, Y. (2013). *Monitoring TOEIC listening and reading test performance across administrations using examinees' background information.* Educational Testing Service.

Wei, Y., & Low, A. (2017). Monitoring score change patterns to support TOEIC® listening and reading test quality. *ETS Research Report Series*, 1-20.

Wilson, K. M. (1989). Enhancing the interpretation of a norm referenced second-language test through criterion-referencing: A research assessment of experience in the TOEIC testing context. *ETS Research Report Series*, i-99.

Wilson, K. M. (2000). An exploratory dimensionality assessmentof the TOEIC test. *ETS Research Report Series*, 1-33.

Wilson, K. M., Nagara, S. K., & Woodhead, R. (2005). TOEIC ® /LPI relationships in academic and employment contexts in Thailand. *ETS Research Report Series*, *2004*(1), i-26.

Wolf, M. C., Muijselaar, M. M., Boonstra, A. M., & Bree, E. H. (2019). The relationship between reading and listening comprehension: Shared and modality-specific components. *Reading and Writing*, *32*(7), 1747-1767.

Wong, Y. K. (2021). Developmental relations between listening and reading comprehension in young Chinese language learners: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, *50*(2), 261-273.

Wood, C. L., Schatschneider, C., & VelDink, A. (2021). The Relation between academic word use and reading comprehension for students from diverse backgrounds. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools*, *52*(1), 273-287.

Wudthayagorn, J. (2018). Mapping the CU-TEP to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network Journal*, *11*(2), 168-180.

Zakaria, Rahma, M., Ridhwan, M., & Eriza. (2017). The correlation between students' English learning habits and their TOEIC institutional test scores in State Polytechnic of Sriwijaya. *Holistics Journal*, *9*(18), 31-41.

Zhang, S. (2006). Investigating the relative effects of persons, items, sections, and languages on TOEIC score dependability. *Language Testing*, 351-369.

From ESP to Soft CLIL: English for Music Business Course

Received : Nov 28, 2021
Revised : Feb 17, 2022
Accepted : Mar 22, 2022

Chutamas Sundrarajun
The Department of Business English, School of Arts
Assumption University

Abstract

This paper discusses the synergy of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approaches in an EFL setting. It draws on the similarities and differences of the two approaches and how CLIL has been employed in an ESP program in the English for Music Business course. The paper further presents the key elements of how CLIL approach has been applied in the design of an ESP course, English for Music Business, at an international university in Thailand in response to the advent of the 21st century skills and the demand for more internationalization. CLIL's 4 Cs was employed as the key model in the design of the course, addressing the language and content learning, and the use of authentic materials through collaborative learning and scaffolding. The attempt to shift from a traditional ESP approach to Soft CLIL has also promoted learner autonomy.

Key words: CLIL, English, ESP, Music Business course, scaffolding

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to discuss the pedagogical practices in the English Medium Program (EMP) in an international university in Thailand. One of the main responsibilities of educational practitioners, especially in an EFL context, is to constantly select an appropriate approach to enhance and develop student's learning. The English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach dates back to 1960 and has been employed in teaching and learning in response to students' needs for communication, specifically in professional settings. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) emerged 30 years after the ESP approach in Europe with its focus on a 'dual-approach'- the language learning and the content. The 'dual focus' of the approach can promote novel teaching practices.

Background of English for Music Business Course

English for Music Business course is offered at an international university in Thailand for students majoring in Music Business, School of Music Business, and in Business English, School of Arts. It also serves as a free elective course for students of other majors. The students enrolled in the course are third- and fourth-year Thai students whose English proficiencies are said to be in the intermediate to advanced level. All of the students have passed three out of the four English foundation courses required by the university. The course was first introduced to the Business

English curriculum in 2009. Initially, it adopted the ESP approach in which the course was heavily focused on the use of English and was devoted to grammar, terminology, and register in the context of the music business. When the course was offered in 2009, the focus was on the English language and the tasks were mostly limited to reading and the development of music terminology. With the advent of the 21st century skills, the demand for more internationalization, and the world being more globalized, it is inevitable for educators to adapt a new approach to their teaching and learning.

The objectives of the course are for the students to learn the basic structure of the music business, acquire knowledge about the journey and career paths of well-known artists and music producers, and read and write news stories in the music business context. The materials used in the course are authentic reading and listening materials derived from online music journals and video clips of artists' and music producers' interviews from YouTube. The reason for using online materials is because there are no commercial texts available and most importantly, the main aim of the course is to expose the students with 'real-life' reading and listening contents. The materials chosen were based on the current music business news. The reading texts were adapted to suit the students' language ability as many of the materials found online may be difficult or contain too many technical terms. The listening texts however, were not adapted but the main goal was to provide the students the opportunities to listen to authentic interviews and later group discussions were conducted to check their listening comprehension.

The teacher of the course has some background in the music business as she was a piano teacher for more than 10 years and worked at a music school for approximately 4 years. To acquire more in-depth knowledge about the music industry, the teacher also audited a course in Introduction to the Music Industry at a university during her fellowship in the U.S.A.

Task-based activities are also incorporated with a focus on the four skills which include reading and writing news stories in the journalistic style, writing song parodies, presenting about favorite artists, and listening to video clips of artists and music producer's interviews. A term project is also submitted at the end of the semester in which the students interview a businessperson who works in the music industry, such as an artist, a music producer, a music school owner, or a music teacher.

Concept of CLIL

The concept of CLIL may have been established since 1996 but it has been of interest in teaching and learning in Thailand only since 2006 when lecturers/educators in the Thai educational system started adopting the methodology. According to Coyle (1999), the 4 Cs's main principles are as follows:

- CONTENT: the matter of the subject
- COMMUNICATION: the language learned and used
- COGNITION: the learning and thinking processes
- CULTURE: the development of intercultural awareness and global citizenship

In addition, Mehisto et al. (2008) argued that CLIL is the ultimate communicative methodology. Students are to acquire knowledge and skills cognitively by being encouraged and engaged to participate more so that they can develop their capabilities. Moreover, Suwannoppharat and Chinokul (2015) mentioned that more interaction, active participation, and students' collaboration in CLIL modules could enhance students' problem-solving skills, as well as the ability to work with others effectively. Various forms of instructional activities also serve as opportunities for the students to learn language skills. Hence, it is deemed appropriate to adapt the approach to the teaching of the English for Music Business course.

Characteristics of ESP vs. CLIL Approach

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is the term that has traditionally referred to English courses that are context-driven and designed for specific disciplines such as Business English, English used in the airline industry, and other professional settings. In the 1960s, ESP meant that students learned or are exposed to technical words or vocabulary in a given profession or context (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). That is, ESP simply centers its approach on the language that is taught in a specific profession or workplace environment and is specifically based on the needs of adult learners.

CLIL, on the other hand, was first introduced 30 years after the introduction of ESP. Both ESP and CLIL share several features, namely the focus on communicative teaching methodology, the development of language learning based on the learners' needs, and the use of communicative language teaching methodology (Dalton-Puffer & Smit, 2013). CLIL is also viewed as a new and interactive approach to teaching English (Garrido, 2000). Furthermore, Riley (2013) asserted that an ESP program may be transformed to CLIL when discipline teachers and language teachers discuss and collaborate in order to decide on the balance of the amount of content and language to teach the students. Below is a comparison between ESP and CLIL approach drawing specifically on the course design, learning and teaching methodology, language focus, and design purpose.

Table 1
Comparison of ESP and CLIL Approach

	ESP Approach (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998)	**CLIL Approach (Coyle et al., 2010; Smit & Dafouz, 2012)**
Course Design focus	- Meets specific learners' needs	- Focuses on both the content and language
Learning/Teaching Methodology	- Employs various teaching activities/tasks in various disciplines - Generally, employs basic knowledge of target language	- Employs various teaching methodologies - Develops thinking skills and learner's cognitive ability - Enhances problem-solving skills
Language focus	- Focuses on grammar, lexis, register, skills, discourse, and genres depending on the activities	- Focuses on communication and learning obtained through use of language

Design Purpose	- May use authentic situation in specific scientific fields - Program or course designed mainly for adult learners either at tertiary level or other professional environments/contexts	- Use of authentic situations and environment - Learning of other cultures to enhance international understanding - May use scaffolding in certain activities

Hard CLIL vs. Soft CLIL

Hard CLIL refers exclusively to teaching content through the medium of foreign language with the focus on the content objectives. On the other hand, Soft CLIL refers to language teaching by bringing in the content through the medium of a foreign language but with a focus on language or linguistic objectives (Ball et al., 2015). Hence, this section draws on the differences between Hard CLIL and Soft CLIL in terms of the aim of the course, who teaches the course, the type of feedback given to the students, the kind of knowledge it provides, and the focus of assessment as follows:

Table 2
Soft CLIL versus Hard CLIL (adapted from Ikeda et al., 2022)

	Soft CLIL	**Hard CLIL**
Teachers	CLIL language teachers (in language lessons)	CLIL subject teachers (in subject lessons); Work on the language of their subject
Aim of the approach	To teach language (and some content)	To teach content and some language
Feedback	Give feedback mainly on language (and sometimes on content)	Give feedback mainly on content (and sometimes on language)
Type of knowledge	Knowledge of the content of the subject teacher's lessons which is sufficient to be able to work on related ideas and language during lessons	Content knowledge and knowledge about the language of their subject, such as text-types, vocabulary, or speaking activities, language functions
Assessment	Assess and mark language	Assess and mark content (and sometimes language)

CLIL Previous Research

CLIL is viewed as an innovative approach to teaching, and a number of studies revealed that adopting CLIL approach has had a positive impact/has improved of students' language competencies.

Chansri and Wasanasomsithi (2016) conducted a study with 27 students majoring in agricultural technology through quasi-experimental research with a one-group pre-test post-test design. They found that after implementing the CLIL approach, the students' writing ability significantly improved. The students were able to: write paragraphs with better organization; provide thorough and detailed content; use effective choice of words; use more grammatically correct sentence structures; and made fewer errors in terms of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and paragraphing. Likewise, Yang and Gosling's (2013) study of undergraduate students revealed that students in the CLIL program significantly improved their linguistic performance compared to the non-CLIL group of students. Chostelidoua and Griva (2014) conducted experimental research with 270 students majoring in accountancy. The aim of the study was to measure and evaluate the effectiveness of the CLIL approach in terms of reading skills development. The students were divided into two groups, 139 participants were assigned to the research group and 131 participants to the control group. The experimental group was presented with the CLIL approach while the control group received the non-CLIL teaching and learning approach. The results aligned with the aforementioned research regarding the implementation of CLIL, and the students' performance in both linguistic and content knowledge were significantly higher than that of the control group. In addition, Ikeda (2013) conducted a longitudinal study with upper secondary school students in Japan using the 'weak' CLIL approach. Students' perception about CLIL was derived from the course evaluation questionnaire and measurement of the students' language performance was derived from the pre- and post-writing tests. The result from the questionnaire was that the students appreciated the CLIL teaching style. With regard to writing ability, it was found that vocabulary selection, sentence construction, and discourse structure (fluency) improved, however; in terms of accuracy-grammar, language usage and mechanics did not significantly improve. This is probably the limitation of the CLIL approach which focuses on the 4 Cs and promotes students to learn English 'naturally' and to learn from 'making mistakes' rather than following a structured or systematic teaching style. Hence, this is aligned with the style of teaching and learning of the English for Music Business course.

Applying CLIL Methodology in English for Music Business Course

Drawing on CLIL pedagogy provides learners with a rich and naturalistic environment. In the case of the English for Music Business course, students had to read a number of authentic music business articles. They then discussed the articles in groups with regards to the gist of the article, their understanding, and shared their personal opinions, hence knowledge is constructed through interaction with others. This serves to reinforce language acquisition and learning, hence leading to greater proficiency in learners' abilities (Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

When reading, the students also worked in pairs to identify the features of journalistic articles as well as learn and define the terminology used in the text. Students gradually gained knowledge about the journalistic style of article writing, developed an inventory of terminology, and were later asked to write an article in the journalistic style applying the terminology. Hence, the 4 Cs were applied in the learning process as follows: Content: the students were exposed to the content of the music business articles; Communicate: the students discussed the music business features and terminology; Cognitive: the students adopted the thinking process in decoding the meaning of the article; and Culture: the students learned various music genres and culture' as conveyed in the articles. Similar to Tzoannopoulou's (2015) English for Journalist course, at this

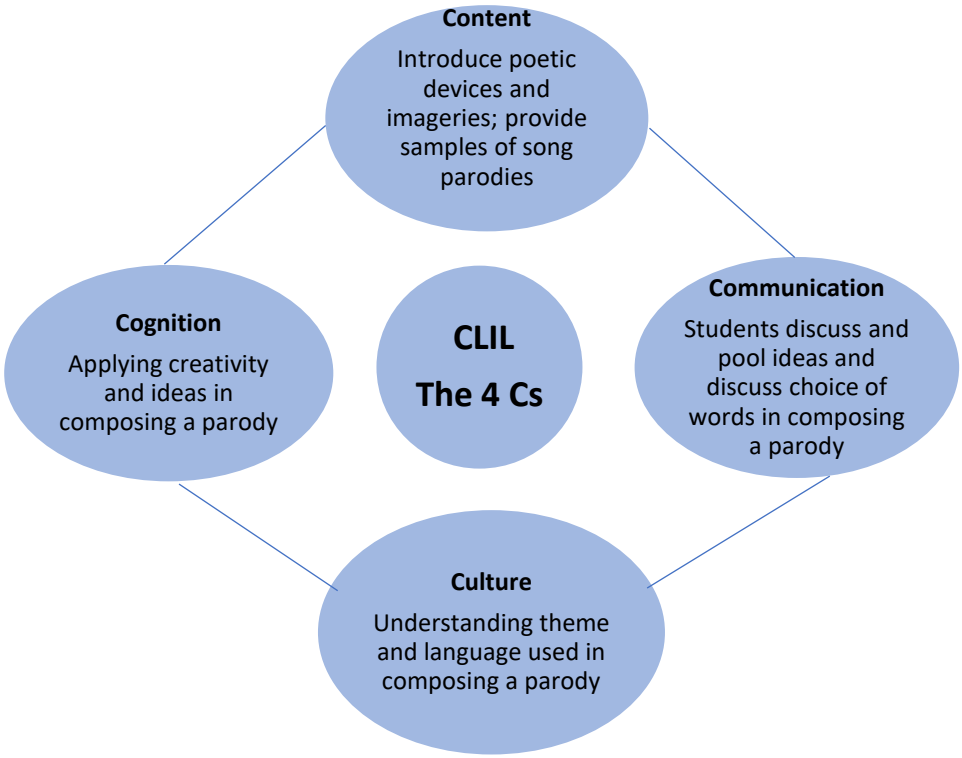
point the students had the opportunity to gradually incorporate their new knowledge, integrate their previous work, and accomplish a task independently. In addition, Coyle, et al. (2010) asserted that CLIL is by nature dynamic and student-centered; hence, this could lead students to be more active and gradually become autonomous learners. This further confirms that CLIL pedagogy with a focus on content fosters learners' cognitive development through its constructivist approach, such as employing new or modified knowledge to construct new learning experience. Consequently, this serves as an essential learning tool (Coyle, et al., 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2008). In addition, CLIL is closely connected with the scaffolding method. The ultimate goal of scaffolding is to promote autonomous learning in which students receive support from a teacher or a more capable peer in tackling a task (Tzoannopoulou, 2015).

Moreover, one of the tasks incorporated in the course in which Soft CLIL is applied and the principles of 4 Cs are integrated is composing a parody. A parody is a piece of musical work that is created by imitating an existing original work, usually to make fun of or comment on an aspect of the original. The parody composition task is presented in this article as it fits in with the principles of the 4 Cs and it could promote the students' creativity. First, the students were introduced to the authentic content which are poetic devices such as rhyming, metaphor and simile, and theme. This is followed with a short exercise on rhyming words, then having students give examples of metaphors and similes. After the students acquired some basic poetic features, they were then introduced to two songs from the movie Music and Lyrics: "Way Back into Love" and "Don't Write Me off Just Yet". The students were asked to identify the theme and other poetic devices in the two songs. Next, the students listened to three to four parodies from YouTube and later discussed the theme and techniques used in each parody. At this point, the students were said to be provided with sufficient scaffolding regarding the steps in composing a parody. Instructions given to the students were for them to pick a melody of any genre, agree on a theme, and compose a parody. The lecturer also guided the students when selecting team members, as it would benefit the group if one or two of the members have some music background. This is because the students with some music background would be able to help the group in terms of the singing and fitting the lyrics in the melody. Students with better English proficiency would work on the choice of words and apply the poetic devices. Hence, it can be seen that scaffolding was provided from the lecturers in introducing the features of poetic terms, and how a parody is composed, and through the collaboration among the students themselves. It was found that the students were able to work autonomously as mentioned by Coyle et al. (2010) that CLIL, with the integration of scaffolding, promotes students to be active and become responsible in their own learning. Hence, the students produced a parody through group interaction and authentic communication. They then applied the poetic devices and their creativity in the parody. Considering that the majority of the students did not have any background in music, the output of the task was satisfying. They explored the various genres of music and had been creative with the choice of words and use of poetic devices. The themes of the parodies that they devised were mostly about life in the university, about a certain subject that they have studied, or how they look forward to graduating soon. Feedback was given to the students in terms of language use and whether the poetic devices were applied correctly and appropriately. The students also provide reflections on the course at the end of each semester. The majority of the students mentioned that the course provided them with the opportunity to be creative and to 'think out of the box' especially when working on the song parody activity even though they found it challenging. Moreover, they also appreciated reading and listening to

authentic materials currently trending in the music business and the journey of the producers' and singers' career paths.

Figure 1 illustrates how CLIL's 4 Cs pedagogical approach was employed in the course.

Figure 1
4 Cs Pedagogical Approach: Composing a Parody



From ESP to Soft CLIL in English for Music Business Course

Soft CLIL involves a strong focus on language requirements and less focus on content knowledge, as opposed to the Hard CLIL approach where students are taught mostly content-based information with a small and supportive number of linguistic skills (Boyes & Gallagher, 2019). To ensure effective application of CLIL approach, the language lecturer consulted closely with the lecturers in the music business discipline about the materials and tasks as Riley (2013) asserted that there must be a careful collaboration between discipline teachers and language teachers. The attempt to shift the paradigm from ESP to CLIL was said to be a success for the Music Business course. However, based on the structure of how the course has been adapted, especially in terms of the tasks, the course has been modified to be more 'Soft CLIL' rather than 'Hard CLIL'. This is because the objectives are more language-driven or language-oriented. Table 3 provides an overview of how the structure of the course departed from the ESP approach to Soft CLIL.

Table 3
Shift from ESP to CLIL approach for English for Music Business Course

English for Music Business (ESP Approach)	English for Music Business (CLIL Approach)
Language-driven with a focus on terminologies and grammar	Focuses on content and language but with more emphasis on language (explanation of content is explained in almost all lessons)
More emphasis on language use rather than content	Use of 100% authentic materials for reading from online magazines and listening skills from YouTube, such as interviews of music producers and artists
Rare or little scaffolding; only when engaging in reading comprehension	Applies scaffolding strategies both from the lecturer and among students when doing pair or group activities; language usage is authentic
Some integration of international understanding of culture	There is international understanding of the cultures in terms of the music genres from various countries through reading texts
	Challenges students cognitively in the parody writing; application of poetic terms

Limitation of CLIL

Every approach to teaching and learning has advantages and disadvantages. The CLIL approach has the advantage of providing interesting topics, engaging activities, and authentic situations for the students to use the language (Coyle et al., 2010; Smit & Dafouz, 2012). However, the main problem and limitation of CLIL is the 'less systematic and less rigorous' approach when compared to the purely language-focused classes which tend to be more systematic (Harrop, 2021). Hence, students may not be able to grasp or improve language accuracy (e.g., grammar structure) in a CLIL classroom as seen in the studies reviewed earlier in this paper. The other main challenge is the teachers themselves as they may not have sufficient knowledge of the content; hence, the chosen content or topics may be based on their own interest or limited ability/knowledge of the subject matter. Thus, professional development training in certain subject matters is essential.

In terms of the number of students enrolled in the English for Music Business course which were approximately 20-25 students per class, applying CLIL was beneficial to the students. The small number of students in the class allowed the students to break into small groups and support one another in doing group tasks. The teacher also had sufficient time to provide scaffolding to the students whenever needed. However, if the approach is used with a large classroom, it may pose some constraints as scaffolding among the students as well as from the teacher may not be as effective.

However, as the students are Thai and they have been educated in a 'rigid' and systematic educational system and may not be familiar with discussion-type activities, and voicing their personal opinions. As a teacher, it was often challenging to encourage and motivate the students

to interact. One other problem found by the author was the process of choosing the materials and tasks to suit the students' ability and also ensure that they could foster language proficiency, authentic language, and cognitive fluency (Mehisto, 2012).

Conclusion

The CLIL approach can offer an authentic or real-life learning environment for language development of the students (Suwannoppharat & Chinokul, 2015). With a well-planned course design, it could enhance learners' motivation and language learning. Hence, whichever stance one takes, the one factor that both ESP and CLIL practitioners need to be aware of is to make careful decisions in finding a balance between the target language culture and professional subject matter in their courses or programs (Riley, 2013). It would be fruitful for other practitioners to duplicate this concept in their specific contexts as it appears that the ESP context could benefit from integration of the core elements of CLIL. Further research should also be conducted with a focus on the selection of CLIL materials, particularly to enhance scaffolding in the Thai teaching and learning context.

Author

Chutamas Sundrarajun is currently the Chairperson of the Department of Business English, School of Arts at Assumption University. She obtained a Doctor of Education (Ed.D.) in Applied Linguistics from the University of Bristol, UK. Her research interests include conversation analysis, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and Content and Language Integrated Learning approaches (CLIL).

References

Ball, P., Kelly, K., & Clegg, J. (2015). *Putting CLIL into practice (Oxford handbooks for language teachers)*. Oxford University Press.

Boyes, N., & Gallagher, A. B. (2019). Content brings learning to life: A short introduction to the CLIL approach. *名城大学教育年報 13*, 39-46. [*Meijo University Annual Educational Report, 13*, 39-46]

Chansri, C., & Wasanasomsithi, P. (2016). Implementing CLIL in higher education in Thailand: The extent to which CLIL improves agricultural students' writing ability, agricultural content, and cultural knowledge. *PASAA 51*, 14-27. DOI:10.14456/pasaa.2016.1

Chostelidoua, D., & Griva, E. (2014). Measuring the effect of implementing CLIL in higher education: An experimental research project. *Science Direct Procedia- Social and Behavioral Sciences. 116*, 2169-2174.

Coyle, D. (1999). Supporting students in content and language integrated learning contexts: Planning for effective classrooms. In J. Masih (Ed.), *Learning through a foreign language: Models, methods and outcomes* (pp. 46-62). Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research.

Coyle, D., Hood, P., & Marsh, D. (2010). *CLIL: Content and language integrated learning*. Cambridge University Press.

Dalton-Puffer, C. (2008). Outcomes and processes in CLIL: Current research from Europe. In W.

Delanoy & L. Volkman (Eds.), *Future perspectives for English language teaching.* Carl Winter.

Dalton-Puffer, C., & Smit, U. (2013). Content and language integrated learning: A research agenda. *Language Teaching*, *46*(04), 545-559. DOI:10.1017/S0261444813000256

Dudley-Evans, T., & St John, M. J. (1998). *Development in English for specific purposes*. Cambridge University Press.

Garrido, L. M. F. (2000). CLIL: A new approach to TEFL. *MIVCI: Últimas tendencias metodológicas en la enseñanza del inglés* [The latest methodological trends in teaching English]. Retrieved October 10, 2021 from https://www.yumpu.com/en/document/read/5521170/a-new-approach-to-tefl-la-pagina-personal-de-manuel-f-lara

Harrop, E. (2021). Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL): Limitations and possibilities. *Encuentro, 21*, 57-70.

Ikeda, M., Izumi, S., Watanabe, Y., Pinner, R., & Davis, M. (2022). *Soft CLIL and English language teaching understanding Japanese policy, practice and implications.* (1st ed.). Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.

Ikeda (2013) Does CLIL work for Japanese secondary school students? Potential for the 'Weak' version of CLIL. *International CLIL Journal*, *2*(1), 30-43.

Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (2006). *How Languages are Learned*. Oxford University Press.

Mehisto, P. (2012). Criteria for producing CLIL learning material. *Encuentro, 21*, 15-33.

Mehisto, P., Marsh, D., & Frigols, M. J., (2008). Uncovering CLIL: Content and language integrated learning in bilingual and multilingual education. Macmillan Education.

Riley, C. (2013). A long hard climb: Getting from the bottom to the top of the CLIL incline. *Recherche et pratiques pédagogiques en langues de spécialité. Cahiers de l'Apliut,* [Researching and Teaching Languages for Specific Purposes], *32*(3), 30-56.

Smit, U., & Dafouz, E. (2012). Integrating content and language in higher education. *AILA Review* 25. John Benjamins. The CLIL compendium (2001). Retrieved September 28, 2021 from http://www.clilcompendium.com

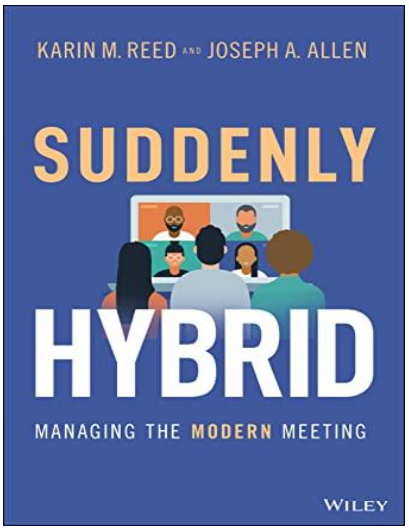
Suwannoppharat, K., & Chinokul, S. (2015). Applying CLIL to English language teaching in Thailand: Issues and challenges. *Latin American Journal of Content and Language Integrated Learning*, *8*(2), 237-254. DOI: 10.5294/laclil.2015.8.2.8

Tzoannopoulou, M. (2015). Rethinking ESP: Integrating content and language in the university classroom. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *173*. 149-153. DOI:10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.02.045

Yang, W., & Gosling, M. (2013). What makes a Taiwan CLIL program highly recommended or not recommended? *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *17*(4), 394-409. DOI:10.1080/13670050.2013.808168

Book Review

Reed, K. M., & Allen, J. A. (2022). *Suddenly hybrid: Managing the modern meeting*. Wiley.



Rusma Kalra

Assumption University

As remote work becomes less of an unusual exception and more of an everyday necessity, hybrid meetings—meetings in which some attendees are physically present while others are virtually present—are becoming the norm. The authors deliver a practical and actionable framework for attending, hosting, and managing hybrid meetings.

Perfect for senior business leaders, managers, and even individual contributors, *Suddenly Hybrid: Managing the Modern Meeting* is required reading for anyone expected to organize, host, or attend virtual or hybrid meetings in their workplace or school. The authors draw from their extensive experience in research and business, as well as firsthand stories and up-to-date studies, to offer a guide that is grounded in science and proven in the real world which is written in five sections comprising of 13 chapters.

The first section (chapters 1-4) contains the authors' introductory remarks, noting that much of the discussion herein draws on the foundational work on meeting modalities and the inevitability of hybrid meetings. The authors explain how hybrid meetings are vastly more complex than meeting in-person or virtually. They are easy to do poorly and hard to do well.

Section two (chapters 5-7) discusses the strategies for running a hybrid meeting and how to mitigate the potential pitfalls when leading these hybrid meetings. From crashing laptops to dying camera batteries to spotty Wi-Fi connections—the event tech landscape is fraught with potential issues. The authors create guidelines to improve the hybrid meeting experience for remote workers.

Section 3 (chapters 8-9) focuses on the attendees' ideas and opinions being seen and heard in hybrid meetings. The authors were able to tease out how setting effective meeting ground rules provides an opportunity to engage the group and helps shift ownership for the meeting's success to participants. They mention that it is vital that you create opportunities for your people to talk about their challenges from time to time.

Section 4 (chapters 10-11) bridge the physical and virtual workplaces together by enabling collaboration and creating presence for all the members. The authors stress the importance of a positive remote work culture which they say is the key component to help strengthen employee

morale and boost productivity. They provide tips and techniques for readers to build a sense of camaraderie with their team members.

In the last section (chapters 12-13) skill up for hybrid collaboration and signs of a healthy hybrid transition are discussed. The worst thing you can do is to see hybrid meetings as a burden. Instead, the authors suggest we should embrace the new circumstances.

All in all, this book is a must read for those who want to dig deeper into what to focus on when the future still seems so blurred. Despite its compact size, this book is dense with concrete examples, suggestions, and caveats often not addressed in other sources. Overall, this book is easy to read and full of insightful information to understand the concept. I would say this book highlights factors essential to be both successful online meeting hosts and participants.

Reference

Reed, K. M., & Allen, J. A. (2022). *Suddenly hybrid: Managing the modern meeting*. Wiley.

Author

Rusma Kalra, Ph.D. is a full-time lecturer in the Department of Business English, Faculty of Arts, Assumption University, Thailand. With over 10 years of teaching experience at tertiary level, she has covered a wide range of areas in her teaching including English for specific purposes and business communication writing. Her research includes classroom-based research and English for specific purposes.

NIDA Journal of Language and Communication Volume 27 - Issue 41 - January - June 2022

NIDA

WISDOM for Change

GSLC

Graduate School of Language and Communication

http://lc.nida.ac.th