

DEVELOPING THAI LEARNERS' CIC THROUGH TRANSLANGUAGING IN ONE-ON-ONE ENGLISH TUTORIAL SESSIONS

Tassanee Kampittayakul

Assumption University, Thailand

Shizuka_r@hotmail.com

Abstract

This article presents a conceptual paper, which proposes a concept of employing translanguaging as a pedagogical tool to promote the learners' CIC – Classroom Interactional Competence, which lies at the heart of learning. The aim of the concept is to bridge two practices of monolingualism between Thai teachers who teach English through Thai only and native speakers who use English only. Translanguaging reflects reality in terms of using both languages to interact to improve the interactional competence of the learners. When both the teachers and the learners translanguage in the classroom, 'translanguaging space' is established. This means boundary lines of the two languages are blurred and become so permeable that the learners are able to step in the space and utilize it to make their own 'space of learning' through interactions with the teachers. This concept implies that the more the learners interact with the teachers, the more they learn English. Thus, if the learners' CIC develops in translanguaging classroom context, it can be argued that translanguaging promotes Thai learners' CIC, which is seen the same thing as the progress of learning. The paper introduces the concept, reviews literature on translanguaging and CIC, discusses conceptual framework, and proposes significant issues in conducting a future study.

Key words: translanguaging, CIC (Classroom Interactional Competence), Thai learners, EFL classroom, Thailand

Introduction

Thailand is one of the members in ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), and one of the three pillars of ASEAN, therefore, there is a critical

need that all parties of both public and private sectors in Thailand prepare for the AEC era. One of the AEC aims is the free flow of capital, goods, services, and labors among the ASEAN members: the Philippines, Malaysia, Singapore, Brunei, Indonesia, Thailand, Myanmar, Cambodia, and Laos. As there is a difficulty of selecting ASEAN members' official language, English becomes an official lingua franca among the AEC members which is used at all meetings and proceedings. Since not many people from neighboring countries know Thai language, it is inevitable that Thais have to use English to communicate with her ASEAN neighbors.

Bolton (2008) stated that only 10 % of Thais speak English, much lower than the figures of Singapore, the Philippines, Brunei, and Malaysia, which accounted for 50, 48%, 39%, and 32% respectively (cited in Ramnath 2015). This implies that the number of Thai people who are able to speak English falls to the lowest rank of the other ASEAN member. Given this figure and the influence of AEC, the author sees the need to enhance the English proficiency of Thai students to play crucial roles for the impact of AEC and advance as human capital in the region. One of the challenges is to review whether a restrictive policy of having only native English teachers to teach English to Thai students should still be brought into play in English classrooms or not (Ramnath 2015).

In recent years, the increasing demand for native speakers in ELT industry has led to "a clear prejudice in the local models of English" (Ramnath 2015: 34). This affects Thai teachers in terms of their language capabilities, teaching methods, and classroom management. Alternatively, an idea of allowing the local teachers to play more roles in teaching English by sharing the learners' first language (Thai language) is one crucial element that the present study aims to do. Foley (2012) posits that the local teachers who share the students' first language have experiences of learning English as a second or foreign language that native speakers do not have (cited in Ramnath 2015). Therefore, the way Thai instructors teach English to Thai students could bring about a different result, which influences the learning process and the target language acquisition of the students in a way that improves their language proficiency. In other words, the teachers' flexible use of more than one language in the classroom, like Thai and English, should be supported. This not only brings the pride to the local multilingual teachers (Ramnath 2015) but also places Thai students in a new educational setting, which enables them to easily access the English language in a feel-at-home circumstance or in a more comfortable manner. Teachers who share the first language of the learners while teaching a foreign language in the

classroom are those who understand a particular socio-cultural context of the learners. Thus, these teachers are seen as Successful Users of English (SUE) rather than non-native speakers of English (Ramnath 2015). The local teachers who use English successfully, therefore, are the key to shaping the future of Thai students in developing English proficiency to keep pace with the emergence of the multilingual era.

Having recognized the rise of AEC, which will significantly affect the future direction of English communities in Thailand, the author implies that employing 'translanguaging' as a pedagogical method is a new challenge to get Thai students ready for the environment of multilingual continuum in the educational setting. Translanguaging is the most recent concept that has played a crucial role in ELT since it is seen as an effective tool for communicating in a multilingual community. Translanguaging blurs or softens the boundaries of the separation of two or more languages, thus blending all languages in the community. Therefore, all the teachers in the 21st century should brace themselves for being a dynamic bilingual (Adelman Reyes & Kleyn 2010; García 2009) or multilingual teachers by establishing and improving the students' additional languages while instructing them (García & Wei 2014).

To see the effectiveness of translanguaging as a language pedagogical tool in a more multilingual community, it is appealing to investigate how the teacher's and the students' navigating between the two languages shapes each student's classroom interaction competence (CIC) while being engaged in a multilingual discourse of an English tutorial session. A student's classroom interaction competence (CIC) is the key way for him/herself to participating in the classroom discourse by co-constructing/negotiating meanings, asking questions, responding to a teacher, interrupting and/or overlapping during the talk of lessons. According to Walsh (2006, 2011 and 2012), the more students develop their CIC, the better they learn and acquire knowledge of the lessons from the classroom. That is to say, the students' better understanding in the lessons through the new educational setting in the impending multilingual era is the ultimate goal for local English teachers.

However, translanguaging in Thailand has not been done especially in a one-on-one situation where interaction is the centrality. Generally, in a normal or traditional classroom, students, to a great extent, do not have an opportunity to interact with a teacher since there are too many students in the classroom. In contrast, in a one-on-one session, a student can interact all the time with a teacher; however, it has never been measured before. A

learner should never be deprived of interaction with his or her teacher. Therefore, it is crucial to study an individual learner's CIC through translanguaging in a one-on-one session. This is because in this situation the learner must inevitably use all possible linguistic and semiotic resources to interact with the teacher who also translanguages or navigates through all possible linguistic and semiotic resources to co-construct meanings with the learner to achieve a particular pedagogical goal.

Thus, seeing the need for promoting CIC among Thai learners, the views that there should be a study conducted to explore to what extent 'translanguaging' supports or hinders the L2 (English) learners' CIC, which is central to the learning process, and enhances an ability to interact in English. The findings of this study should shed some light on developing translanguaging as one of the most recent pedagogical methods of ELT in Thailand. Besides, the findings are believed to help guide the author and others who have the same area of interest to further develop complementary ways to integrate translanguaging to ensure that such integration will make a contribution to ELT in Thailand and elsewhere.

The following provides an overview of translanguaging and CIC including the basic concept and recent studies.

Translanguaging

Coined by Cen Williams (1994), translanguaging was firstly used during the 1980s in education to counteract the long-standing notion of separating the two languages of Welsh and English according to monolingualism. Namely, the two languages, English and Welsh, were given more space to be commonly favorable in places where there was a presence of such bilingualism as educational institutes, people, and communities. During the early 21st century, Williams emphasized that "translanguaging entails using one language to reinforce the other in order to increase understanding and in order to augment the pupil's ability in both languages" (2002: 40). In addition, translanguaging is seen as a strategy that bilingual people use for meaning making, experience shaping, comprehension and knowledge gaining, and sense making of their bilingual worlds through the daily use of two languages (García 2009). García and Williams share the same notion that translanguaging is the most effective way of learning. García views that a translanguaging classroom is more cognitively and communicatively advantageous as opposed to monolingual or separatist language practices (Lewis, Jones and Baker 2012). Creese and Blackledge

placed the practice of translanguaging as the language fluidity and movement in classrooms as heteroglossia. They posited that this “flexible bilingualism is used by teachers as an instructional strategy to make links for classroom participants between the social, cultural, community, and linguistic domains of their lives” (2010: 112). Recently, Pennycook (2014: 14) has stated that “we do not speak languages and are not native speakers of things called languages”. We do need a shared code to communicate; however, we are also capable of bringing our different linguistic and non-linguistic resources into sufficient alignment.

Previous Research on Translanguaging in Educational Context

The author has reviewed studies recently conducted by many scholar and researchers who have provided various perspectives regarding translanguaging. In this article, the author will discuss ones conducted in Thai contexts and other non-Thai contexts. In Thailand, so far there has not been any research concerning the application of translanguaging in the Thai context; that is to say, translanguaging has not still been explored earnestly. Thai researchers, educators, and academics still look at code-switching or code mixing, which, in fact, is only one simple subset of translanguaging practice in bilingual classroom in the 21st century. In other words, much of related research has been conducted on code-switching or code mixing. The next few relevant studies of code switching conducted in Thai settings are discussed in the following section.

Chaiwichian (2007) investigated code-switching (CS) phenomenon of Thai undergraduates who attended an English program in three different subjects including learning Math, English, and Science at a university. The aim was exploring the CS behavior of the learners who switched from both Thai to English and English to Thai during a couple of years of attending the program, the nature of CS at the sentential level of both Thai to English and English to Thai and, and the functions which determine CS behavior. Two groups of data were collected. The first group was collected during one and a half years of participating in the program and the second was gathered two years later. The subjects of the study were three male students and three female students. Overall, the results showed that the students spoke more English both inside and outside the classroom; however, they switched more to Thai outside classroom. In addition, it described the different functions of switching to Thai inside the classroom.

Janhom (2011) explored English-Thai code-mixing in Thai health magazines. This study aimed to investigate the extent of English-Thai code-mixing and analyze its patterns found in seven Thai health magazines from the cover page to the back page. The two highest occurrences of code-mixing linguistic patterns were proper nouns and the hybridization.

Likhitphongsathorn and Sappapan (2012) studied English code-mixing and code-switching in Thai pop songs which were used as communicative strategies for entertainment. The study investigated the types of English units as well as nativization characteristics of English words in Thai pop songs. Out of 1,521 English units of the 146 songs, it was found that the two most common types of English units were English words of nouns and verbs (approximately 40%) and sentences (approximately 37%). As for nativization, reduplication, which is repetition of an English word consecutively, was frequently used in Thai pop songs. However, this is not in a second language learning classroom context and the code switching and code mixing was used as a tool for songwriting to entertain rather than to support listeners' knowledge. It explored how English words were used in the lyrics, which were composed, revised, edited, not naturally occurring but somewhat cultural relevance.

Papichit (2013) explored Thai-English code-mixing in the series, titled 'Hormones'. The study investigated the characteristics of Thai-English code-mixing in the series and examined to what extent the Thai-English code-mixing reflected the significance and influence of the English language for media and Thai teenagers. All dialogues in 13 main episodes of the series were examined for code-mixing. The findings revealed that out of 151 English code-mixing words, intrasentential code-mixing words especially nouns were found the most. In addition, it was discovered that the use of English language, the media, and Thai teenagers were correlated as mixing English in Thai dialogues was found in every episode.

Thongwichit and Buripakdi (2014) explored perceptions of college students on the teacher's use of LI with three different levels of English proficiency: advanced, intermediate, and beginners. It was found that the subjects of the three degrees of English proficiency viewed that teachers' use of LI created a positive classroom atmosphere in terms of good emotions, better understanding in lessons and the increase in language proficiency. Even though the subjects of the advanced group preferred the use of English as the central medium of instruction, they admitted that LI use was beneficial to language learning if it was used appropriately.

Most recently, Kongkerd (2015) has studied code switching and code mixing in Facebook conversations in English among Thai users. The study reveals that the three main reasons of code switching and code mixing are to express politeness and respect according to a seniority system of Thai society, to convey clear meanings and authentic feelings by using Thai words, idioms, and proverbs, and to present their identities or group membership by using the same dialect. Moreover, the study reports that code switching and code mixing on Facebook, to some extent, support English learning and communication.

Given such studies, the majority of them investigated the use of code-switching or code-mixing in the media contexts rather than classroom contexts as Thai health magazines (Janhom 2011), Thai pop music (Likhithongsathorn and Sappapan 2012), Thai series (Papichit 2013), and Internet-based social networking community (Kongkerd 2015). In addition, these studies only focused on the types or the units of words and sentences used. Only two studies: Chaiwichian(2007) and Thongwichit and Buripakdi (2014), explored the use of code switching in classroom settings. Nevertheless, the former aimed at exploring CS behavior among the students, the nature of CS, and its functions at the sentential level only. That is to say, it did not place any emphasis on the instructors' behavior. Even though the latter research brought the teacher's use of LI in classrooms into consideration, it primarily paid attention to the perceptions of the students towards the teacher's use of LI. In other words, what instances of the students' using LI and the extent of the students' utilization of translanguaging to develop their interactional competence were left unreported.

In addition, the author has examined the most recent, overseas studies (Creese & Blackledge 2010; Wei 2011; García & Sylvan 2011; Canagarajah 2011; Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012; Garza & Langman 2014; García, Flores & Woodley 2015; Makalela 2015). The author found that there are a myriad of benefits from these studies in trying to adopt the practice of translanguaging, to explore the effectiveness of translanguaging, and to create flexible translanguaging space through multilingual practices. This article will discuss certain ones, which focus on translanguaging space, the key concept of the author's future research.

First, Wei (2011) studied translanguaging space among Chinese teenagers in London through 'Moment Analysis' which is "to capture what appears to be spur-of-the- moment actions that have semiotically highly

significant to the actors and their subsequent actions, what prompted such actions and the consequences of such moments including the reactions by other people” (Wei 2011: 1222). In the study, translanguaging space was not only a space for the act of translanguaging but also a space created through translanguaging. The study emphasized “creativity and criticality” (Wei 2011: 1223), which were believed to be the two main complementary elements of the space and the basis of multilingual practices.

To do so, data were then collected by means of observing, recording spontaneous interaction among the three youths, and interviewing them so as to obtain impromptu comments of their own language practices. The findings of the created and acted translanguaging space were found in the four main themes (Wei 2011: 1226-1229).

- (1) Fun with words; a great creativity of language use (freely mixing use of Chinese and English to make new words)
- (2) More flexible multilingualism; more space for multilingual opportunities at the university (speaking any language they want)
- (3) Creating space and building relationships; attempt to utilize their multilingual repertoires in favor of themselves and the society
- (4) Transnational space: freedom of living their life and comfort with their identities

The study shared the three students’ lives of growing up in a community which was influenced by “monolingual ideologies, their multilingual practices and the creativity and criticality shown through such practices, the identity positions they construct and present for themselves, and the social spaces they create and occupy within the wider space they find themselves in” (Wei 2011: 1222). Wei concluded that translanguaging spaces could be interactionally established. Wei (2011) shares a common ground with the author. Wei views that translanguaging ‘space’ could take place through social interaction. Therefore, translanguaging in one-on-one tutorial sessions creates space for each student to interact with the teacher, thus facilitating the student to develop his CIC, which is a learning tool. Nevertheless, the difference is that Wei’s study was conducted in the western-context with Chinese students (British-Chinese), allowing multilingualism to take place. By contrast, the author’s future study looks into translanguaging in Thai context where the subjects of the study are Thailand-born. Therefore, this may produce the dissimilar findings, which

appear to bring about other peculiar applications among English language classroom settings in Thailand.

Another research is from García, Flores, and Woodley (2015) who have recently conducted the study of two schools in New York. They look at translanguaging and describe how multilingual practices are needed in the context. García, Flores, and Woodley (2015) report on the two schools: *Latin American Intercontinental School* with 100% of Spanish-speaking students and *High School of Global Practices* with 90% of Spanish-speaking students. The pupils of both schools are categorized as “English Language Learners” (cited in Cenoz & Gorter 2015: 206-207).

At the first school, *Latin American Intercontinental School*, García, Flores, and Woodley investigated the construction of three different translanguaging spaces in the three classes: (1) English Language Arts class, (2) an officially ‘bilingual’ math, and (3) a Native Language Arts class (NLA). In English Language Arts class, an Italian teacher created translanguaging space. For example, the teacher showed a short movie clip in English with Spanish subtitles and then again without subtitles. During the discussion, the teacher allowed the students to use their Spanish language. Through this, the teacher leveraged the fluidity of languages, which enabled the learners to “use their entire semiotic repertoire to make meaning in the classroom and to develop language practices that are socially regarded as standard English” (García, Flores, & Woodley 2015; cited in Cenoz & Gorter 2015: 210). As a result, the students were engaged in ‘doing’ bilingualism rather than ‘having’. In the bilingual math class, even though English was used as the official language of instruction, the teacher used both Spanish and English flexibly, having the students read in English, writing English on the blackboard, translating into Spanish, and finalizing the terms of the lesson in English and Spanish. Consequently, the students developed a sense of ‘doing’ bilingualism as they were able to expand on their mother tongue to improve their school literacy. In NLA class, the teacher co-worked and co-planned with the teacher of English Language Arts class to make certain Spanish was used for all tasks. This is due to the fact that 20% of all of Spanish-speaking students accounted for the low level of Spanish literacy.

The second school, *High School of Global Practices*, has a Spanish feel as it was originally established for Spanish speakers only. The school came up with the program called ‘dual language programme’ with some courses instructed in English and some content courses taught in Spanish. Two classes: US History in Spanish and English class, are reported with

translanguaging practice. In the US History class, the teacher had the students read in English, got them to discuss in Spanish, and allowed them to freely choose any language when working on a writing exercise. In English class, the vast majority of the students used Spanish; however, the teacher did not overlook those few non-Spanish speaking pupils. Therefore, when a non-Spanish speaker did not understand a word, the teacher would have another student who shared the same language help translate the word.

The findings reveal that the success of Latino students at an American high school in developing more complex cognitive and linguistic repertoire is through *flexible translanguaging spaces*. García, Flores, & Woodley (2015) put that ‘translanguaging spaces’ created in this context is clearly pronouncing the resistance to “the asymmetries of power that a dominant language or two separate ‘language codes’ have created in the past” (cited in Cenoz & Gorter 2015: 221).

To the author, García, Flores, & Woodley (2015), like Wei (2011), highlights the creation of ‘flexible translanguaging space’ in multilingual classrooms. The study explores English classrooms in the two schools where the majority of the pupils are Spanish-speakers. This is another case that the L2 learners tend to use their entire linguistic and semiotic repertoire more fluidly when the boundaries between languages are softened. Thus, the author implies that if Thai learners are exposed in a translanguaging space created by a Thai teacher and the learners themselves, the learners could then take this dynamic space to co-construct with the teacher in order to learn the target language. However, like other studies, the research of García, Flores, & Woodley (2015) was carried out in classroom contexts and had a different focus on investigating the students’ academic subject performance rather than on the development of their CIC.

CIC- Classroom Interactional Competence

Walsh (2011: 158) defines ‘classroom interactional competence’ or CIC as “teachers’ and learners’ ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning”. In other words, interactants learn through co-constructed interactions, which allow them to demonstrate their capabilities to “jointly create discourse” (Walsh 2012: 5), thus making way for learning. Therefore, the centrality of CIC is how teachers and students make interactional decisions and take subsequent actions to improve learning and to produce more learning opportunities. To enhance learning and to create more learning opportunities mean all the speakers are able produce

and maintain 'space for learning'. Walsh (2011) considers *space for learning* the amount of interactional space that corresponds to a particular pedagogical goal of the moment and that is provided by teachers and students (cited in Walsh 2012). That is, linguistic resources and interactional forms need be adjusted to achieve the goal.

The main features of CIC come from two elements: *teachers'* perspective and students' perspective. This article elaborates more on the latter. CIC of the students' perspective could be illustrated by the following extract (Walsh 2012: 9-10), which is from an adult EFL class in the UK where the teacher was having the students get themselves ready for a listening session about places of interest.

Extract 1

- 1 T : Okay, have you have you ever visited any places ↑outside London?=
London?=
2 L : =me I stay in (.) Portsmouth and er:: in Bournemouth
3 T : [where've you been?
4 L : [in the south
5 T : down (.) here? (pointing to map)
6 L : yeah yeah
7 T : ↑why?
8 L : er my girlfriend live here and (.) I like this student place and all the people's young and a lot (.) er go out in the (.) evening
its very [good
9 T : [right

Remark: Symbols Explanation

Numbers	Turns
T	Teacher
L	Learner

- = Equal signs, one at the end of a turn and one at the beginning, indicate no gap between two turns called 'latched turns'.
- [Left brackets indicate the point at which a current speaker's talk is overlapped by another's talk.
- (.) A dot in parentheses indicates a tiny gap of 1/10 of a second.
- : Colons indicate prolongation of the immediate-prior sound, and the longer the row of colons, the longer the prolongation.

Source of symbols

<http://www.esourceresearch.org/eSourceBook/ConversationAnalysis/10TranscriptionSymbols/tabid/531/Default.aspx>

According to Extract 1, the learner (L) manifested his CIC in various aspects including turn management, floor holding, and turn handover. His response to the teacher's opening question was made promptly as indicated in latched turn 2 and overlapped turn 4. In addition to taking turn and holding the floor, this learner knew the signal 'right', marked by the teacher in turn 9 which hinted the learner that he was expected to stop his turn and hand over to another classmate. In brief, the learner was capable of taking cues, recognizing key signals, and managing his own turn-taking corresponding with the teacher's requirement. This extract shows that the learner knew his own contributions were shaped by the teacher and by the specific goal of the moment.

In conclusion, to develop CIC in learners in L2 classroom, there must be the convergence of linguistic resources and interactional resources used by both the teachers and the learners in order to create *learning space* in a specific context for co-constructing meanings between the teachers and the students. Walsh portrays the brief concept of CIC as follow:

By 'context', I mean the physical, geographical and temporal setting of the interaction in addition to the specific micro-context, or mode, of the moment...interactional and linguistic resources used by both teachers and learners will vary considerably according

to specific teaching and learning goals at a particular point in time. One aspect of CIC is the extent to which teachers match their use of language to their intended goals...CIC manifests itself through the ways in which interactants create space for learning, make appropriate responses 'in the moment', seek and offer clarification, demonstrate understandings, afford opportunities for participation, negotiate meanings, and so on. (Walsh 2012: 12)

In order that CIC effectively plays its role as a key to success in learning through interaction, the teachers need to build on learning space, establish the joint understandings, shape the learners' contributions, and have the learners engage in the classroom dialogue.

Previous Research on CIC

The first four studies were dyadic interactions or one-on-one sessions between a single learner and a native speaker, which is very similar to the author's future research. Other subsequent studies report on students' interactions in different contexts including Thai contexts.

First, Young and Miller (2004) studied one-on-one ESL writing tutorial sessions to explore the IC development of a Vietnamese student during four writing conferences with his American tutor in the weekly revision talk of the student's essay. Throughout four weeks of the four conferences, Young and Miller (2004) found the eight actions most frequently present during the talk: (1) paying attention to the student's writing, (2) identifying a problem in the student's writing, (3) explaining the need of revision, (4) directing the student to work on a candidate revision, (5) producing the candidate revision, (6) directing the student to write the revision, (7) writing the revision, and (8) evaluating the written revision (Young 2011: 431). Young and Miller (2004) revealed that the student's responses of the first week were of small utterances, meaning that the teacher produced almost all of the eight features of the talk. However, after four weeks, this was in a reverse pattern; that is to say, the student's performance significantly increased. He excelled more at developing his IC throughout actions number 2, 3, 4 and 7 without waiting for the teacher modeling. Young and Miller (2004) posited that the IC acquisition of the student was through the practice of revision talk, co-constructed by the teacher. In addition, Young and Miller emphasized the importance of the teacher's role

that “in fact, the effectiveness of the instructor is precisely in how she manages a division of participation that allows for growth on the part of the student” (Young and Miller 2004: 533).

The study of Young and Miller (2004) is very close to that of the author as the former investigated the dyadic interaction context between a tutor and a student. Even though the result of Young and Miller showed that teacher’s talk helped develop the student’s IC, the difference is that the author does not emphasize what happens after writing but before writing. That is to say, the author will rather look at the essay topic discussion (brainstorming session) than looks at revision talk of writing. Most importantly, the author aims to see how each student develops his or her CIC through the teacher’s translanguaging, which is not the central point of Young and Miller (2004)’s research.

Another research was conducted by Yagi (2007) who examined telephone conversations between ESL Japanese students and numerous bookstores in the US. The students called the bookstores to inquire about particular books and to ask about the stores’ opening hours. Yagi revealed that these repeated practices of conversations developed IC of the students as they interacted in a smoother and more productive fashion. In addition, Yagi(2007) even found that there was an attempt of a student to deal with his less knowledge of English language, which he was afraid that it may have caused interaction problem. Namely, the student defended himself that he was Japanese and did not speak well in English. This was his tactic to deal with his weak point to avoid the interaction difficulty. Yagi also suggested that IC of students be better advanced by having the students listen to their own speaking and by giving reflection on their utterances.

To the author, the study of Yagi (2007) looked into an individual subject and witnessed the advancement of IC when the subject was engaged in a recurrent practice of interaction between each subject and a bookstore staff. Despite its one-on-one basis of the naturally occurring talk over the phone, Yagi’s study was not an English classroom context and the interlocutor of each student was not the teacher who usually plays a role in managing the classroom. Therefore, the author’s future study will account for classroom discourse where each lesson may need different patterns of utterances including prompt, elicitation, questions, responses, and teachers’ feedback. As a consequence, IC of the individual students may be shaped and improved in different manners according the classroom discourse of various lessons and pedagogical goals of the moment. The next study, conducted by

Dings (2007) in Granada, Spain, reported the one-year observation of 30-minute conversations between Sophie and Jose, an American student and a native speaker of Spanish. Dings emphasized three features: the student's speaker selection, topic and transition management, and alignment activity. The third one was defined as how the student assessed her own and her Spanish interlocutor's contributions and how she joined with her interlocutor in turn completion and topic extension (cited in Young 2011: 433). Dings summarized the development of the student's ability to co-construct the talk with the Spanish interlocutor as follows:

The most noticeable changes seen in co-construction while Sophie was holding the floor were the changing patterns in repair. [...] In general terms, Jose's role when holding the floor was relatively stable over the course of the year, while Sophie showed a growing involvement in elaborately co-constructing the interaction with Jose through her skillful deployment of alignment moves.

(Dings 2007: 215)

Dings's study (2007) is similar to the author's in terms of examining what happens between the two speakers in a dyadic conversation. However, while Dings paid the central focus on the student's interaction in Spanish, the author will investigate how translanguaging helps each student develop his or her interactional features and the ability to communicate in English. Besides, the author will explore what is going on between individual Thai students and the same Thai teacher in English classroom, in which translanguaging could take place any time. In contrast, in Dings's study, there was no report of translanguaging of both the teacher and the student. Nevertheless, the findings of Dings's study have made the author realize that a learner's IC could grow over a certain period of time with the same familiar interlocutor.

The fourth study was reported by Ishida (2009). Ishida investigated the monthly 30-minute conversations between an American student during his study in Japan and Japanese people. The record was when he talked to each Japanese with whom he was frequently in contact. Ishida examined the interactional functions of a single Japanese word 'ne' which, in general, is used by Japanese people to indicate their epistemic and/or affective stance, to point a known topic, and to index mutual alignment (cited in Young 2011: 433). Ishida revealed that the student first had minimal utterances of 'ne'; however, when the time passed by, he used it more often, more actively,

and more immediately to interact with people. Ishida pointed out that the learner improved his intersubjectivity by expressing that he agreed with his interlocutor's knowledge or stance (cited in Young 2011: 433). To the author, Ishida (2009) portrayed another picture that a learner was able to develop his interactional competence when talking to people over a period of time. This study showed that the learner was capable of using the single linguistic form of 'ne' more closely to what native Japanese usually did. However, this is dissimilar to the context of the author's future study in numerous aspects. Namely, the subjects of the author's study are Thai students who learn English in their home country in Thailand and interact with a Thai teacher who translanguages to co-construct and negotiate meanings with her student. In addition, each of the subjects has freedom to speak either of the languages (Thai or English) with which he or she feels comfortable to interact with the teacher in English classroom discourse.

Masuda (2011) conducted a very similar study to Ishida (2009). The difference was that Masuda investigated how six English-speaking learners used the word 'ne' when talking to their six native-Japanese classmates in Japan. The objective of the study was to see the use of 'ne' in appreciation, alignment, evaluation, turn, and topic development, which were believed to help better comprehend how the learners developed their IC (Masuda 2011: 534). In the first week of the study, the six pairs of conversations between the foreign learners and the peers were collected. Another six sets of the data from the same pairs were again recorded in the fifth week. The results in terms of developmental sequence of using 'ne' revealed that it was used in a more typical fashion. Like Ishida (2009), Masuda (2011) focused on the development of IC when the learners studied abroad. The IC development was the use of the target language with native speakers. This is in contrast to the author's study that does not require the student participants to speak the target language only. Instead, the author will allow the students to interact with the teacher through both languages (Thai and English) and sees the improvement of the student's naturally occurring interaction with the teacher, which is believed to help explain the developmental process of language learning.

Cekaite (2007) studied IC of a 7-year-old Kurdish girl from Iraq who attended Swedish immersion class in Sweden. She spoke both Arabic and Kurdish fluently; however, her Swedish was minimal at the beginning of the study. Video recorder was used to record longitudinal naturalistic data while she was participating in the classroom's activities with her teacher and her peers. The analyses focused on the novice's self-selection in multi-party

turn taking, and Cekaite revealed that the IC development of the novice is associated with the high dependence on the L2's mastery of the norm of the local classroom setting (Cekaite 2007: 58). Over the school year, the data were analysed in three phases. In the first phase, the student was "a silent child" (Cekaite 2007: 45) marginally participating in the classroom activities. In the second phase, she turned to be "a noisy and loud child" (Cekaite 2007, p.45), trying to call for attention from her teacher and classmates by raising her voice and interacting inappropriately. This led her to having serious arguments against her teacher and even her friends. However, in the third phase, she became "a skillful student" (Cekaite 2007: 45) after learning from her teacher's discipline and her peer reactions. She managed to "self-select at the right moment, thereby displaying her knowledge of the sequential organization of classroom activities" (Cekaite 2007: 58). To the author, this is another case to show that one's IC could be developed over time by means of learning from people around him and from the norm of the local institution. Again, like the other studies reviewed above, it depicted a different aspect of IC of a foreign girl who studied abroad and had to inevitably speak the target language. However, the author's study is in Thai context and lets the Thai teacher's translanguaging be part of the teacher's interactional tool to freely interplay with an individual Thai student who is allowed to speak either Thai or English. The ultimate goal of the present study is to see the CIC advancement of the students through translanguaging practice.

Daroneh (2015) carried out a study in the 25-student EFL classroom at a school in Iran to explore a female teacher's SLC (Shaping Learner Contributions), which was a crucial index to the teacher's CIC development. This study was embedded in the CIC concept of Walsh (2006, 2011, and 2012), "the pioneer of CIC" (Daroneh 2015: 46). All naturally occurring interactions of three classes were video- and audio taped and CA (Conversation Analysis) was used to examine the classroom discourse. Daroneh concluded the findings that the teacher spoke Persian, which was the students' mother tongue, as a translation method to 'translate' and construct learning opportunities among the learners (Daroneh 2015). In addition, the teacher employed other interactional features with the students as Daroneh put that "extending, repeating, clarifying and elaborating students' input were also found to be important interactional features of SLC to confirm the accuracy of the responses in the form-and-accuracy context" (2015: 48-49). Daroneh (2015) such conclusions are similar to the notion of CIC established by Walsh (2006, 2011, and 2012).

The direct studies of CIC in Thailand have been unavailable so far. However, the following studies are comparatively related to classroom interactions, which are explored to assess the students' speaking skills, thinking skills, and other aspects.

Sinwongsuwat (2012) studied and proposed a new way to assess Thai EFL learners' speaking skills. Comparing between face-to-face interview and unscripted role-play through peer interaction, Sinwongsuwat (2012) suggested that the latter with an appropriate rubric allow teachers to better evaluate the students' capability when being engaged in naturally occurring conversation. It is to "push them out of their comfort zone to experience more genuine features of naturally-occurring conversation, and, with practice, to enable them to acquire skills necessary for conversing naturally and confidently in real-life communication" (Sinwongsuwat 2012: 77). The study directly assessed the students' English speaking skills, having them speak the target language by placing them in the communicative situation where they have to produce the naturally occurring talk in the target language. Although it emphasized the real nature of genuine conversational interaction, it was not aimed at seeing the interactional competency regardless of any language spoken by the students. That is to say, it is different from what the author plans to do in a way that the interlocutor of each student is a teacher, not peers. Besides, the students of Sinwongsuwat's were required to speak English (target language) to assess how they used the target language to interact with their classmates. This is dissimilar to the aim of the author's study, which focuses on investigating interactional competence as a way of learning tool rather than linguistic competence.

Abhakorn (2013) investigated classroom interaction and students' thinking skills development through teacher-talks in a grade 8-English classroom of 37 students and a female teacher at a Thai school. Abhakorn considered the teacher's utterance "a product of teacher and students co-constructing meaning through interaction" (2013: 118). Therefore, the research used conversation analysis to analyze the talk occurring in natural situations of a corpus of 16 English lessons of grammar and vocabulary. The data were analysed to explore three processes of successive sequences of questions, turn-taking pattern; and code-switching in teacher questioning (Abhakorn 2013: 116). The findings are as follows.

1. The teacher used display questions, a question seeking the answer already known by the teacher, to extend interaction sequences and to draw out the students' knowledge of the vocabulary's meaning (Abhakorn 2013: 119).

2. The teacher treated the whole class as a single unit by using 'you' or 'students'. Nevertheless, this pattern of structuring the whole class as the single unit seems to contradict to the fact that each student had different cognitive skills (Abhakorn 2013: 122).

3. The teacher switched code for meaning construction, for extension of interaction sequence, and for elicitation.

In brief, Abhakorn pointed out that the method of the teacher-talk could only improve basic thinking skills as she put "the teacher-talk in this classroom context only develop lower-order thinking skills of knowledge recall and information given" (2013: 124). Abhakorn (2013) shares some common ground to the author as it partly looked at the instances of the teacher's LI. However, it was conducted in the classroom, and its main objective was to see how the students developed their cognitive skills. Its result did not respond to the collective thinking skill as it treated all the students as a single unit despite the fact that each student was different. To fill this gap, the author will emphasize how translanguaging to LI augments the development of respective interactional competence for each student.

Teng and Sinwongsuwat (2015) examined whether or not the integration of Conversation Analysis (CA) would resolve some limitations of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Their study suggested that CA be employed by teachers as a pedagogical tool to increase classroom interaction since CA can be used as a tool to analyze classroom talk and identify problems, which may obstruct learners. Teng and Sinwongsuwat (2015) concluded that the accompanying use of both CLT and CA could raise students' communicative competence. The study of Teng and Sinwongsuwat (2015) brought CA into analysing what was going on in the classroom; however, they did not take the language medium of instruction into account. In addition, its aim was rather to use CA in conjunction with CLT to help create classroom interaction than to see the CIC's development over the period of time. In other words, they examined how CA and CLT worked mutually, but did not follow up to what extent of interaction would be subsequently. Plus, the integration of CA and CLT was designed for the large-sized classroom, which is a commonly recognized context of schools in Thailand. In contrast, the author will look at how each individual student improves his or her CIC.

Conceptual Framework of Translanguaging and CIC

Given the literature of translanguaging and CIC mentioned above, it is appealing to study whether or not and to what extent translanguaging helps promote learners' CIC in one-on-one English tutorial sessions. It is interesting to see how the learners create their 'space for learning' (Walsh 2012) when they are in 'translanguaging space' (García, Flores, & Woodley 2015; Wei 2011) established by both teachers and the learners who flexibly employ all linguistic resources (English and Thai) to make sense of each other. The established translanguaging space is permeable (see Figure 1) as it is where boundaries between the two languages are blurred. Thus, this should propel the learners to utilize the translanguaging space and create their own 'space for learning' (Walsh 2011 & 2012) through their interactions in the English tutorial sessions (see Figure 2).

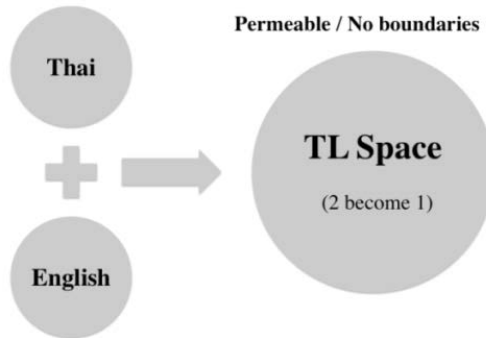


Figure 1: Translanguaging (TL) space

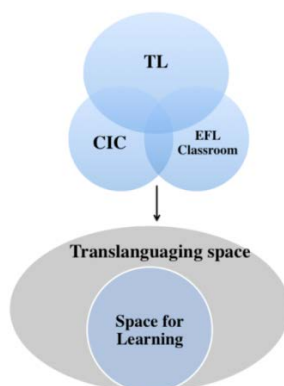


Figure 2: Translanguaging (TL) space and Space for learning

Conclusions for Future Research

Since the concept of translanguaging is a speaker's attempt to use all possible linguistic and semiotic resources to co-construct and negotiate meanings when he or she communicates with other people, the researcher found that it has shared a common ground with the concept of CIC which focuses on the ability of speakers to interact with other interlocutors so as to co-construct and negotiate meanings. CIC largely depends on high context-specific classrooms, pedagogical goals of the moment of a lesson, and ways in which a bilingual teacher (Thai nationality) uses his or her languages. Therefore, it would be interesting to see (1) how the teacher and each learner use their languages, (2) how translanguaging helps the teacher and each learner reach the pedagogical goal and the learning goal respectively, and (3) what reactions of the students will be when the bilingual teacher has tried every way to use all of her linguistic repertoire to teach her students. To see the reactions through translanguaging of the students is to examine how they interact with the teacher. According to Walsh (2006, 2011 & 2012), when students interact with their teacher by asking, responding, listening and interrupting, or participating in the classroom, it facilitates the process of learning the lesson to occur. By looking at this, the teacher knows how and when translanguaging is suitable for each of the students whose English proficiency degrees may be, to some extent, different to achieve pedagogical goals of the lessons.

Given the literature of translanguaging, none of the previous studies paid the central attention to exploring CIC's development among the students. Besides, most of them were conducted in typical classrooms in

schools and universities, meaning that it was rather hard to examine and to describe the results of the study of each subject. In addition, some focused on foreign students going to study in origin countries of particular target languages while some looked at those studying in their own countries but with foreign teachers. Moreover, a number of the studies are aimed at exploring how translanguaging helps immigrant learners learn a new language in the country of origin. This is, to a great extent, different from language classrooms in Thailand in which almost all students of schools or universities are Thai and have Thai language as their national language. As a result, Thai teachers can use Thai, which is the same mother tongue as the students', to teach.

Nevertheless, the practice of translanguaging in the second language classroom in Thailand has really yet to be researched. That is to say, what has been done in Thai context is the related concept of code-switching in English language classrooms (Chaiwichian 2007; Thongwichit & Buripakdi 2014) and in the media contexts or non-language classroom contexts (Janhom 2011; Likhithphongsathorn & Sappapan 2012; Papichit 2013; Kongkerd 2015). Moreover, in Thailand, the researcher found that not only translanguaging, but also CIC still has not gained a great deal of attention as most studies still looked at the role of CLT (Teng and Sinwongsuwat 2015) as a tool to analyse communicative competence, speaking skills (Sinwongsuwat 2012), and thinking skills (Abhakorn 2013) rather than the development of the students' CIC. In addition, when reviewing overseas studies, this study found that even though they focused more on CIC and on dyadic interactions, the aim seems (Young and Miller 2004; Yagi 2007; Dings 2007; Ishida 2009, Masuda 2011; Daroneh 2015) to see how the students improved CIC in the target language only when interacting with native speakers during their studying abroad.

Walsh (2012), however, argues that CIC lies between the teaching and learning and that the development of CIC among the learners is mutually supportive of learning. He points out that in the language classroom context; teachers mostly pay more attention to 'individual performance', which consists of accuracy, fluency and appropriateness of linguistic forms rather than the effectiveness of the learner's interaction with another interlocutor. Walsh (2012) calls for the more emphasis on what he calls 'joint competence' which is through involvement, engagement, and participation through social activity. Besides, he calls for more research in various contexts with different participants as it will unlock some uncovered

features of CIC, resulting in the deeper insights into teaching and learning in language classrooms.

From these studies it would seem that it is crucial that more attention be paid to the concept of translanguaging and CIC so as to see how it works in English classroom given the apparent lack of oral interaction in classrooms in Thailand. Perhaps future research should be conducted to directly investigate translanguaging as a tool in teaching and learning English language. This means that the teacher and the learners will use both Thai(L1) and English(L2) in a more coexisting and incorporated fashion (Baker 2010; Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012) or navigate between the two languages (Cenoz & Gorter 2015) so as to make sense of each other. Such research would allow researchers to see not only what instances in which each learner translanguages but also those in which the teacher translanguages when instructing each student with a pedagogical goal of the moment and to explore to what extent translanguaging promotes students' classroom interactional competence. Following Walsh (2006), the teacher plays a major role in shaping the learning atmosphere for the students' language acquisition. Thus, instead of typical classroom the setting one-on-one tutorial sessions in English would allow the teacher to pay closer attention to translanguaging with a particular student over a given period of time. This would enable the teacher to become aware of what is going on during the particular session and see the CIC development of the student over the period of time. As a result, a one-on-one tutorial sessions might well produce the rich data for the subsequent in-depth investigation, thus contributing to studies in this area.

Finally, the focus in this paper has been on the need to conduct studies in an attempt to bridge the gap between the use of translanguaging and the longstanding concept of code-switching and code mixing. It is hoped that the research will support a greater understanding of language classroom interaction through translanguaging so that teachers will not only improves their teaching, but also establishes the L2 classroom discourse through interaction to enhance learning and provide learning opportunities to the students.

References

- Abhakorn, J. (2013). Classroom interaction and thinking skills development through teacher-talks. *Kasetsart Journal (Social Sciences)*, 34(1), 116 – 125.
- Adelman Reyes, S. and T. Kleyn (2010). *Teaching in 2 Languages: a guide for K-12 bilingual educators*. California: Corwin.
- Bolton, K. (2008). English in Asia, Asian Englishes and the issue of proficiency. *English Today* 94 (24)(2), 3-13.
- Canagarajah, S. (2011). Codemeshing in academic writing: identifying teachable strategies of translanguaging. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 401-417.
- Cenoz, J. and D. Gorter (2015). *Multilingual Education: between language earning and translanguaging*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cekaite, A. (2007). A child's development of interactional competence in a Swedish L2 classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 91(1), 45-62.
- Cenoz, J. and D. Gorter (2011). Focus on multilingualism: a study of trilingual writing. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 356-69.
- Chaiwichian, U. (2007). *Thai-English Code Switching of Students in the Mini English Program (MEP)*. Nakhon Ratchasima: The Suranaree University of Technology.
- Creese, A. and A. Blackledge (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: a pedagogy for learning and teaching?. *The Modern Language Journal*, 94, 103-115.
- Daroneh, P.S. (2015). A Conversation analytic study on teachers' role in shaping learner contributions in Iranian context with reference to classroom interaction competence. *International Journal of Language and Applied Linguistics*, 1, 45-49.
- Dings, A. (2007). Developing interactional competence in a second language: A case study of a Spanish learner. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Texas, Austin.
- Foley, J.A.(2012). *Unscrambling the Omelette, Second Language Acquisition: Social and Psychological Dimensions*. Bangkok: Assumption University Press.

- Garza, A. and J. Langman (2014). Translanguaging in a Latin at bilingual community: negotiations and mediations in a dual-language classroom. *Association of Mexican-American Educators (AMAE) Special Issue*, 8 (1), 37-49.
- García, O.(2007). Foreword. In S. Makoni & A. Pennycook(eds.), *Disinventing and Reconstituting Languages* (pp. xi-xv). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- García, O.(2009). *Bilingual Education in the 21st Century: Global Perspectives*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- García, O. and N. Kano (2014) (in press). Translanguaging as process and pedagogy: developing the English writing of Japanese students in the U.S. In J. Conteh & G. Meier (eds.), *The multilingual turn in languages education: Benefits for individuals and societies*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- García, O. and C. Sylvan (2011). Pedagogies and practices in multilingual classrooms: singularities in pluralities. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3),385-400.
- García,O. and L. Wei (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, Bilingualism and Education*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Flores, N. and H.H. Woodley (2015). Constructing in-between spaces to 'do' bilinegualsim: a tale of two high schools in one city. In J. Cenoz and D. Gorter (2015), *Multilingual Education: between language learning and translanguaging* (pp.199-222). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hornberger, N.H. and H. Link (2012). Translanguaging and transnational literacies in multilingual classrooms: a biliteracy lens. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(3), 261-278.
- Ishida, M. (2009). Development of interactional competence: Changes in the use of *ne* in L2 Japanese during study abroad. In H.t. Nguyen & G. Kasper (eds.), *Talk-in-interaction: Multilingual perspectives* (pp. 351-385). Honolulu: University of Hawaii National Foreign Language Resource Center.
- Janhom, W. (2011). *English-Thai Code-Mixing in Thai Health Magazines*. Bangkok: Srinakharinwirot University.
- Kongkerd, W. (2015). Code switching and code mixing in Facebook conversations in English among Thai users. *Executive Journal*, 35(1),126-132.

- Lewis, G., B. Jones, and C. Baker (2012). Translanguaging: origins and development from school to street and beyond. *Educational Research and Evaluation: An International Journal on Theory and Practice*, 1-14. DOI: 10.1080 /13803611.2012.718488
- Likhitphongsathorn, T. and P. Sappapan (2012). *Study of English Code-mixing and Code-switching in Thai Pop Songs*. Bangkok: Thammasat University, Thailand.
- Makalela, L. (2015). Translanguaging as a vehicle for epistemic access: cases for reading comprehension and multilingual interactions. *Per Linguam*, 31(1),15-29, <http://dx.doi.org/10.5785/31-1-628>
- Masuda, K. (2011). Japanese language learners' use of the interactional particle "ne". *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(4), 519-540.
- Papijit, W.(2013). *Thai-English Code-Mixing in Hormones the Series*. Bangkok: National Institute of Development Administration.
- Pennycook, A. (2014). Principled polycentrism and resourceful speakers. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*,11(4),1-19.
- Ramnath, R. (2015). English language education in Thailand and AEC 2015. *Romanian Journal of English Studies (RJES)*, 2(1), 28-36.
- Sinwongsawat, K. (2012). Rethinking assessment of Thai EFL learners' speaking skills. *Language Testing in Asia*, 2(4), 75-85.
- Teng, B. and K. Sinwongsawat (2015). Teaching and learning English in Thailand and the integration of conversation analysis (CA) into the classroom. *English Language Teaching*, 8(3),13-23.
- Thongwichit, N. and A. Buripakdi (2014). Perceptions of college students on LI use with different levels of English proficiency on LI use in English classrooms. *Journal of Liberal Arts*, Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai Campus, 6(2), 96-109.
- Walsh, S. (2006). *Investigating Classroom Discourse*. London: Routledge.
- Walsh, S. (2011). *Exploring Classroom Discourse: language in action*. London: Routledge.
- Walsh, S. (2012). Conceptualising classroom interactional competence. *Novitas- ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language)*, 6(1),1-14.
- Walsh, S. (2012). Optimizing classroom interaction: an interview with Steve Walsh. In V. Fernández del Viso Román, *Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language & Literature*, 5(4), 69-74.

- Wei, L. (2011). Moment Analysis and translanguaging space: discursive construction of identities by multilingual Chinese youth in Britain. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43,1222–1235.
- Williams, C. (1994). Arfarniado Ddulliau Dysguac Addysgu yng Nghyddestun Addysg Uwchradd Ddwyieithog. Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Wales Bangor.
- Williams, C. (2002). *Ennill iaith: Astudiaeth o sefyllfa drochi yn 11–16 oed* [A language gained: A study of language immersion at 11–16 years of age]. Bangor, UK: School of Education. Retrieved from http://www.bangor.ac.uk/addysg/publications/Ennill_Iaith.pdf
- Yagi, K. (2007). The development of interactional competence in a situated practice by Japanese learners of English as a second language [electronic version]. *Hawaii Pacific University TESL Working Paper Series*, 5(1).
- Young, R. F. and E. R. Miller (2004). Learning as changing participation: negotiating discourse roles in the ESL writing conference. *The Modern Language Journal*, 88(4),519-535.