ESL TEACHER PRACTICES AND PERCEPTIONS OF CODE-SWITCHING IN A MALAYSIAN CHINESE INDEPENDENT SCHOOL

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ESL TEACHER PRACTICES AND PERCEPTIONS OF CODE-SWITCHING IN A MALAYSIAN CHINESE INDEPENDENT SCHOOL

ABSTRACT

Code-switching has always been a common phenomenon in contemporary English classrooms in Malaysia. Preliminary observation on the utilisation of code-switching has a distinctive attribute in Malaysian Chinese Independent School (MCIS). First, students are all Chinese medium background who at their primary levels had very little chance to use English. Such context is likely to encourage teachers to code-switch as Yao (2011) suggests, teachers are likely to use student's native language to engage with the students. Next, the MCIS community does not receive equal consideration to the national secondary school. Thus, comprehension of this setting is fractional, and the literature is restricted. In light of these, the present study provides analysis of English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers’ practices and perception of code-switching in an MCIS, Kuala Lumpur. The MCIS has been chosen on the basis of convenience. The study selected eight teachers, utilising purposive sampling. Ethnographic recording and a semi-structured interview were used to gather the information. This study infers that there is a relationship between teacher practice and perspectives on the code-switch within the MCIS English classroom.

Keywords: Code-switching, Teachers’ practice and perception, ESL classroom
AMALAN DAN PERSPEKTIF GURU ESL TERHADAP KOD PERALIHAN DI
SEKOLAH MENENGAH PERSENDIRIAN CINA

ABSTRAK


Kata kuncii: kod-peralihan, amalan dan perspektif guru, Kelas ESL
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<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ESL</td>
<td>English as a Second Language</td>
</tr>
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<td>CS</td>
<td>Code-switching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM</td>
<td>Code-mixing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MCIS</td>
<td>Malaysian Chinese Independent School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRF</td>
<td>Initiation-Response-Feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ</td>
<td>Research Question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPM</td>
<td>Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT3</td>
<td>Pentaksiran Tingkatan Tiga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PMR</td>
<td>Penilaian Menengah Rendah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UCSTAM</td>
<td>United Chinese School Teachers Association of Malaysia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UEC</td>
<td>Unified Examination Certificate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE</td>
<td>Bilingual Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETeMS</td>
<td>Teaching and Learning of Science and Mathematics in English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUEC</td>
<td>Junior Unified Examination Certificate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MBMMBI</td>
<td>Memartabatkan Bahasa Malaysia &amp; Memperkukuh Bahasa Inggerus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUEC</td>
<td>Senior Unified Examination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TESOL</td>
<td>Teaching English to Speaker of Other Languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STPM</td>
<td>Sijil Tinggi Persekolahan Malaysia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TGM</td>
<td>Translation Grammar Method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JM3</td>
<td>Junior Middle 3</td>
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<tr>
<td>SM3</td>
<td>Senior Middle 3</td>
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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Code-switching (CS) refers to a language phenomenon that occurs when one switches from one language code to another in a single communication event. Such language phenomenon is common in a multicultural society, such as that in Malaysia, due to its diverse linguistic landscape and evolving sociocultural characteristics (Hashim & Tan, 2012). The substantial number of researchers that have examined issues related to CS within the second language (L2) learning context seemed to have observed two common phenomena, which are the common use of Bahasa Malaysia in English classrooms, and the ideal use of CS. For instance, Ahmad and Jusoff (2009) found that the CS amongst Malaysian college instructors was associated with their students’ learning achievements. The study inspected the voices of 299 students in a college English Communication I proficiency course towards the teacher’s CS use in the lessons. The vast majority of the students concurred that CS was utilised by their instructors to conduct different classroom functions, like checking for comprehension, clarifying new vocabulary, overseeing classroom exercises, and giving satisfactory help, which impacted both positive and negative emotional conditions of the students. Ariffin and Husin (2011) found that CS is unavoidable in educating students with low capability in the L2. Educators code-switch in classrooms, as low proficiency students depend on their instructors’ CS to participate in the classroom interactions. High proficiency students, on the other hand, have less positive attitude towards teachers using CS. Ariffin and Husin (2011), additionally, emphasised that fluency among students in the target language has an impact on the instructors’ state-of-mind towards CS and their regular utilisation of CS in the classroom. Similarly, Lee (2010) revealed that most Malaysian educators expressed positive sentiments towards the use of CS in ESL classroom, as it helps students learn English. His study distinguished eight elements of CS amidst educators: giving directions, giving input, checking comprehension, clarifying new vocabulary, clarifying sentence
structure, helping students feel more confident and comfortable between the first language (L1) and the L2, talking about assignments and tests, and clarifying managerial data. His investigation showed that educators code-switched to give fundamental instructions only. The teachers, however, claimed that they should limit their use of code-switching in classroom.

Educationists agree that teaching is a mental process activity and teachers’ beliefs influence pedagogical practices (see Harmer, 2001; Farrell, 2000). Similarly, Crandall (2000) suggested that teachers’ perception and attitude affect their classroom behavior and their ways in using CS in the classroom. A study by Selamat (2014) in the area of CS in two Malaysian secondary schools demonstrated the inconsistent use of Bahasa Malaysia in the English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom. She asserted that CS is mainly used due to the ‘ingrained beliefs about the qualities of ideal ESL classrooms and monolingual principles about English Language Teaching’ (pg. 145). The finding is in line with that reported by Good and Brophy (2003), who mentioned that teachers are guided by their beliefs in the way they plan lessons and interact with students. Additionally, numerous studies have compared beliefs and reality in the classroom to display the considerable effect of beliefs on teachers’ actual classroom behaviour. For instance, Sinprajakpol’s (2003) study of three Thai EFL teachers’ beliefs found that their beliefs were formed by their judgments and perspectives. Such judgements and perspectives affect a teacher’s field practice. Liu, Ahn, Baek, and Han (2004) also described the CS practices in a South Korean high school is likely to be influenced by teachers’ teaching beliefs, while Mokhtar (2015) looked into teachers’ beliefs and CS in Malaysia’s polytechnic setting, which discovered that the teachers’ actual behaviours are strongly affected by their personal beliefs.
In Malaysia, the use of CS in the ESL classroom has always been a common phenomenon in contemporary English classrooms over the past three decades. Many researchers have examined the issue, and one of the most pressing areas of study refers to the gap between teachers’ beliefs towards and execution of CS in the classroom. In light of this, the present study reckons the necessity of understanding teachers’ thought processes, and how they influence the teaching and learning processes. The gap between perception and actual practice is reflected in the Malaysian national secondary and tertiary English classrooms; only a handful of studies have analysed this context within Malaysian Chinese Independent School (MCIS). The MCIS is unique because it assimilates some characteristics of the national secondary school; while simultaneously undergo a completely different education system (see Section 1.5). The comprehension of this setting in the ESL context is fractional, and the literature is limited. There may be new discoveries pertaining to the concept of CS and how they relate to the actual practice in the ESL classroom.

1.1 Research Purposes and Questions

As Richards and Lockhart (1994) commented, ‘what teachers do reflect what they know and believe’ (p. 29), this study probed into the nature of teachers’ perceptions with regard to the use of CS amidst the MCIS community. Additionally, this study examined how the teachers integrated their perceptions into classroom practices to provide effective pedagogy. The following questions serve to guide the present study:

1. How is CS manifested in the ESL classroom?

This question led to the analysis of the practice of CS observed in the ESL classroom. Cazden (cited in Merkel, 2015) suggested that discourse consists of beliefs disclosed through speech and action. In the attempt of addressing this
question, classroom observation was conducted to report the discourse of CS that took place in the classroom. The related outputs are presented in Chapter 4.

2. *What beliefs do ESL teachers hold about the use of CS in the classroom?*
   
   This question led to the examination of teachers’ views concerning CS in the ESL classroom and the factors that influenced their choices regarding CS. The interviews with teachers were analysed and the findings are presented in Chapter 5.

3. *Do teachers’ beliefs align with the practice of CS in the English classroom?*
   
   This research question (RQ) determined if teachers’ beliefs matched their observed classroom actions, including the link between belief and practices. This question led to the discussion of RQ1 and RQ2 using the comparative approach between data gathered from interviews with the teachers and classroom observations. The RQ is discussed in Chapter 5.

1.2 **Teachers’ Beliefs towards and Practices of CS**

   According to Lu (2003), teachers’ belief refers to the teachers’ own theoretical idea or perspective on teaching and learning. This belief system guides a teacher to make decisions and it can be observed through the teaching objectives, curriculum, and learning. Leoanak and Amalo (2018), in an investigation of beliefs and perception of CS in the Indonesian context, unveiled that teachers considered CS as a positive strategy. Thus, the teachers applied CS to serve pedagogical aims, as well as to facilitate teaching and learning process. Farjami and Asl (2013) led an interview study with 20 Iranian educators from various colleges in Iran. They found that these instructors trusted that CS could support a positive atmosphere, decrease class pressure, encourage students’ learning, and help them comprehend the lessons. Farjami and Asl inferred that the
instructors believed that their CS helped their students to learn the target language, aside from creating a stress-free classroom environment for the students.

Edstrom (2006), on the other hand, uncovered that her methods of CS did not match her conviction on the topic; she computed the amount of English words she utilised in each classroom by audio-recording her Spanish-language class, gathering original diaries, and conducting a poll. The study featured two discoveries. First, Edstrom (2006) had assumed that she would speak in English 10% of the time in her Spanish class; instead she found she had spoken English for 23%. Her next finding was that her utilisation of English increased to 42% in April, while in January she spoke English only 18% of the time and 22% in February. The investigation presumed three reasons for using English more than she had anticipated. English was used to build rapport with students, to help students accomplish more than one goal, and to easily clarify Spanish vocabulary in the students’ L1.

Liu et al., (2004) recorded thirteen secondary school English instructors’ classrooms and performed a 13-item open-ended poll. They discovered a connection between the educators’ CS practices and their convictions. For instance, two of the educators, who asserted that utilising more English was unnecessary, spoke English less than 25% of the time in class, while the clear majority of instructors who considered English as fundamental spoke English for over 55% of their class time.

Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999) examined two male Swedish instructors and a female French educator who could also communicate in Swedish, to monitor their CS in classrooms. They showed that the instructors’ beliefs regarding utilisation of students’ L1 (Swedish) was aligned with their actual practices. In Thailand, Tayjasanant and Robinson (2015) conducted a CS study on two university teachers, and their beliefs. The findings showed that the lecturers made 3 varieties of CS: tag-switching, intra-
sentential, and inter-sentential switches, which specialised in each education and social function. One teacher who spoke majority of Thai language believed that the switch was for information transmission functions, and this is influenced by her former teacher, while the other teacher who used mostly English had a powerful view in communicative language teaching (CLT) from her teacher-training.

The abovementioned research outputs uphold that teachers’ practice in classroom is indicative of their beliefs, although some inconsistencies seem to exist between their teaching beliefs and actual practices. These consistencies vary by situation. As such, the present study explored the beliefs upheld by teachers and their actual practice about CS in MCIS.

1.3 **Malaysian Primary and Secondary Schooling Systems**

Malaysia is a multicultural society rich in vast languages, including Malay dialects, Hokkien, Hakka, Tamil, Punjabi, and Sindhi, each with its literary tradition (Rustow, 1968 cited in Watson, 1980), used within the community. Due to the diversity of cultures; the schooling systems in Malaysia vary in linguistic complexity. Since independence, two types of primary schools have been established, which are the Sekolah Kebangsaan (*Malay-Medium National Schools*) and the Sekolah Jenis Kebangsaan (*Non-Malay-Medium National Schools*), also known as vernacular schools, to cater to students aged between 7 and 12 (Malakolunthu & Rengasamy, 2012). The *Malay-Medium National Schools* use the Malay language as the medium of instruction and are fully supported and funded by the government. On the other hand, the vernacular-type schools use Mandarin or Tamil as the medium of instruction, and the government partially supports them. All primary school students are required to take a national examination (Primary School Evaluation Test or UPSR) in their final year.
After six years of primary education, parents may choose to send their children to a national school or a private vernacular Chinese independent high school or an international school. In national secondary schools, students face two significant examinations in Form 3 (Pentaksiran Tingkatan Tiga) and in Form 5 (Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia, SPM). All assessments were changed from English to the Malay language until year 2003. Upon completing SPM, the students may wish to further their studies in Form 6, where they are required to take the local pre-university examination, Sijil Tinggi Persekolahan Malaysia, STPM (Malaysian Higher School Certificate).

As for the Chinese independent high schools, two critical examinations are held throughout a student’s secondary education, which are the Unified Examination Certificates (UECs) for Junior Middle Three (JM3) and Senior Middle Three (SM3). The difference between national school and Chinese school lies in the lack of recognition of the UEC by the Malaysian government, although the new government (after the 14th general election) intends to recognise the examination. As a result, it is impossible for a student to enrol in public universities upon completion. Upon completing the UEC for SM3, students from MCIS could opt for private universities or study abroad. Many of those who obtained good results on the UEC would pursue their studies overseas. However, if they opt for SPM examination (in schools that adopt both SPM and UEC syllabi), then the student may enrol in Form Six. The following figure illustrates a summary of the schooling systems in Malaysia.
Figure 1.1: Summary of Malaysian Primary, Secondary, and Tertiary Schooling Systems

1.4 Nation Building and Language Policy Changes in Malaysia

Under the British colonial control between the eighteenth and twentieth centuries, the schools were established to achieve the diverse needs of every ethnic community (Gill, 2004). For instance, the Chinese created schools for the Chinese community, Malay schools were established for religious education, and Tamil schools adopted their curriculum from India. Although these vernacular schools catered to the educational needs of the Malay, Chinese, and Indian communities, English was the compulsory medium of instruction in both primary and secondary schools prior to independence from British rule in 1957.

Gill (2006) suggested two catalytic events in the Malaysian language policy. One event that precipitated the movement towards the Malay language as the official language was the ethnic rioting that took place in year 1969, after which English was widely
perceived as a colonial language, and a language that did not represent the Malaysian national identity (Chan & Tan, 2006). The Malaysia’s first prime minister, Tunku Abdul Rahman, delivered a speech at the University of Singapore on 9th December 1964 highlighting that ‘we should want to have a language of our own, as a nation without a national language is a nation without a language of our own’ (cited in Jeyathurai, 2009). This movement led to the Bahasa Malaysia as the national language under the National Language Act in 1963, while English took the second place in the education system.

In 2003, a change was made in the language policy after the fourth Prime Minister, Tun Dr Mahathir Mohamad, observed the declining English language proficiency among Malaysian students. As such, the ‘Teaching and Learning of Science and Mathematics in English’ (ETeMS) was implemented with the objective to ensure that students could keep up-to-date of the advancements in science and technology in the era of globalisation. Under the recommendation of the Ministry of Education (MOE), the change was implemented in stages, starting from the Standard One (first year of primary school), and followed with Form One (first year of secondary school), Lower Six (first year of Form Six), and all other levels. Despite such policy received compliment from most of the public, the plan required further improvement. For instance, many experienced teachers who were trained to teach science and mathematics in Bahasa Malaysia had to adapt to the new curriculum, which required them to teach English through content-based instruction. As a result, many teachers resorted to switch between English and Bahasa Malaysia to cope with the language used for instruction (Yamat, Maarof, Maasum, Zakaria, & Zainuddin, 2011).

Due to the issues that arose, the government decided to reverse the policy in 2009, with an understanding that shortage of English teachers is a factor for the declining English proficiency amongst Malaysian students (Chowdhury & Marlina, 2014, p.4). As
a result, the number of English lessons in schools was increased, and the ministry of Education implemented plans to recruit 13,000 English language teachers (The Star Online, 2010). Following that, a new policy to uphold Bahasa Malaysia and to strengthen the English language, ‘Memartabatkan Bahasa Malaysia & Memperkukuh Bahasa Inggeris’ (MBMMBI), was introduced in 2010 to substitute ETeMS. This policy had two objectives, which is to build towards the goal of 1Malaysia (pronounced ‘One Malaysia’, a concept proposed by Prime Minister Najib to emphasise ethnic harmony, national unity, and efficient governance), as well as to enable the country to compete nationally and globally (Malaysian Education Ministry, 2010). The MBMMBI policy was introduced to mitigate the effects of changes in the language instruction policy. Some suggestions proposed by the Ministry of Education are recruiting and training more qualified English language teachers, increasing the duration of English lessons in schools, and focusing the curriculum on developing essential literacy skills and grammar capability.

After the 14th general election in 2018, the new government urged the significance of mastering the English language because good command of English would help government officers communicate and negotiate effectively with foreign parties. It has been decided that an English Language Competency Test will be carried out for all high-ranking government officials (New Straits Times, 2018).
1.5 Brief Historical Account of Malaysian Chinese Independent School (MCIS)

As mentioned in Section 1.3, it is possible to pursue secondary school education after six years of primary education in Malaysia. The present study focused on the MCIS, a Chinese-language-dominant private school that protects and advances Chinese education in Malaysia. The philosophy of MCIS education is to build up a culture that consists of moral, intellectual, physical, social, and aesthetic aspects (Dong Zong, 2009).

A brief history of these schools is illustrated below.

Figure 1.2: Summary of the historical account of MCIS

The foundation of MCIS can be traced back as far as year 1819 in Penang. Affected by the Xinhai Transformation in China in 1911, an upheaval that ousted China’s last imperial dynasty and established the Republic of China, education was prioritised and widely supported by the Chinese community in Malaya (William, 2016). Chinese education in Malaya during the 1920s confronted significant opposition from the English colonial government as a result of the 1919 May Fourth Development, in which the English frontier government in China had upheld laws and controls through budgetary regulations. This did not hamper the growth of Chinese schools in peninsular Malaya.
They snowballed from 252 in 1921 to 1,015 in 1938. This growth ceased with the Japanese occupation of Malaya during World War II.

When the British reimposed their administrative control in 1945, Malaya encountered a period of ethnic clashing, as the diverse groups tussled for their rights and interests. The Barnes Report in 1951 proposed that all vernacular schools to become national schools and to utilise a solitary institutionalised framework with bilingual instruction in both Malay and English languages, whereas auxiliary schools to maintain the English language as their educational medium. This proposition received a robust challenge from the Chinese group, who wanted to use their own mother-tongue for education. In 1951, the United Chinese School Teachers’ Association of Malaysia (UCSTAM), or ‘Jiao Zong’, was established in response to the Barnes Report of 1951. The two associations worked together intimately to campaign for mother-tongue education through a liaison committee called ‘Dong Jiao Zong’.

The 1960, the Rahman Talib Report and the 1961 Education Act viewed MCIS as a ‘threat’. As a result, MCIS was required to change from Chinese medium school to national medium school in return for state financing. They were allowed to conduct Chinese exercises for one-third of the school syllabus. Seventeen MCIS declined to conform to the arrangement (cited in Low, 2016) and continued utilising Mandarin as the medium of instruction as a channel to protect and advance Chinese language instruction in Malaysia.

MCIS have proceeded under the supervision of Dong Jiao Zong with the objective to preserve, impart, and disseminate the Chinese language and its culture. To date, Malaysia is one of the few nations that have safeguarded a complete Chinese language education, alongside China and Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Australia. Malaysia has a Chinese school system from elementary to advanced, forming a complete Chinese
education system. The ‘three-three’ education framework is used, with three years of junior secondary school and another three years of senior secondary school, similar to the school system practised in China and Taiwan. Each level often takes less than a year, and students who fail their exams may be retained in the same level. As for the medium of instruction, mother-tongue education remains a direct and effective teaching medium. The English language is emphasised as well (Tay, 2005) in the attempt of balancing national and international needs and challenges manifested through educational linguistics policies (Gill & Kirkpatrick, 2013).

These schools often implement the examination-oriented culture (Lin, 2013). Besides the initial examination, MCIS students study for monthly subject tests, standardised tests, and semester tests. The UEC, established in 1975, stresses the significance of utilising three languages: Chinese, Malay, and English. Although the UEC has yet to be recognised by the Malaysian administration, it has the opportunity for admission to universities in other nations, such as Australia, England, Canada, China/Hong Kong/Taiwan, New Zealand, Singapore, and the United States of America. Chinese secondary school graduates have achieved a high degree of success on examinations and have performed well in remote colleges and universities. Some MCIS opt to adhere to the national school education modules and the MCIS curriculum to support students with government examinations, such as Penilaian Menengah Rendah (PMR), Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM), and Pentaksiran Tingkatan Tiga (PT3). Preparing students for these examinations tend to satisfy the desires of several guardians, apart from diminishing stress as UEC is not recognised by the national government.

1.5.1 **English Syllabus in Chinese Independent School**

Although MCIS is a Chinese medium school, English is emphasised with the goal of guaranteeing that students’ language abilities are sufficient for both national and
international arenas. The MCIS centres teach the four essential abilities through subject-based instruction: language content, language structure, sound framework, and vocabulary (Dong Zong, 2009). Vocabulary lessons are furnished with English, Malay, and Chinese dialect interpretations. MCIS students must sit for the junior and senior UEC (JUEC and SUEC) examinations, in which English evaluation is mandatory.

1.6 School Profile

This section depicts the four MCIS in Kuala Lumpur (KL). One MCIS was selected for this study on convenience basis; this MCIS integrates both national and MCIS curricula into the syllabus. The sample school is one of the largest MCIS in KL with approximately 5,300 students and 400 staff.

![Figure 1.3: School Location](image)

The school employs a three-three education framework, whereby the students go through three years of junior and three years of senior secondary school to receive a diploma upon completion. A grade-retention system is executed for those who fail to acquire an average of 60/100 within a year. Chinese is the immediate medium of instruction, the Malay language is taught as the national dialect, and English is taught as an advanced workplace language.

Classes in the school range from 50–60 students. The students are generally Chinese; hence, the native language shared by the students is Chinese. According to
Chowburdy (2013), within the Bangladeshi classroom context, CS is an effective tool for maintaining discipline in a large class. Moreover, the school clusters students based on their previous academic performance. Hence, the educators refer to the top-notch class as ‘brilliant students’ during the interview session.

This school executes a dual-track curriculum, in which MCIS education modules are taught as the principle course, while the government public examination preparation is taught as an accompaniment. The junior-middle 3 and senior-middle 2 students are required to sit for the UEC examination. Additionally, they are required to sit for the PT3 and SPM examinations. English is an obligatory subject in the school with six English exercise sessions in a week for all students and eight for the senior students. Each lesson is 40 minutes for all levels.

The EFL educators are from diverse academic backgrounds with teaching experiences that range from multiple months to 36 years. One intriguing fact about the school is that most of the instructors, particularly the Chinese educators who teach English as a subject, have yet to receive English instructional training, such as Certificate in Teaching English to Speaker of Other Languages (CELTA), Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL), or Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). The academic backgrounds and the instructional experiences of the teachers are portrayed statistically, as follows:
As depicted in Figure 4, most EFL educators derived from varied academic backgrounds. Most of them have not participated in any teaching training. However, they were consistently exposed to training for academic purposes. The following table lists the training courses prepared by the school for the EFL teachers.
Table 1.1: Training courses for years 2016 and 2017

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>《Z时代的教育心理学》</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘Enter into the Mind of Generation Z’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>Internet Teaching Resources, E-content, and E-assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>如何通过资讯提升独中教育发展？</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How to enhance MCIS education via media?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>Share Star and 21st Century Teaching Skill Workshop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February</td>
<td>《四层次提问及宁静活动体验暨推行方式》 工作坊</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4x4 Questioning techniques and Silent Reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>SPM 作答/写作技巧</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SPM answering techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>世界教育的趋势，学校的教育路/砂州墫点培训汇报</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The world education Trend, Teachers reflection, and report on the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>recent field trip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August</td>
<td>Planning and Improvisation – Scheme of Work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows that no English-based training was held in years 2016 and 2017. Liu (2004) asserted that when educators are not equipped with the essential theory of EFL, language instructors are left to developing their own instructional methods based on their own experience or by adhering to the model of a senior educator.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents the review of some relevant literature to the present study. The review covers the following:

- Bilingualism and Bilingual Education (Section 2.1)
- Language Choice (Section 2.2)
- Language use in ESL Classroom (Section 2.3)
- Code-switching (Section 2.4)
- Classroom Discourse and Code-switching (Section 2.5)
- Summary (Section 2.6)

2.1 Bilingualism and Bilingual Education (BE)

Bilingualism is a key factor in CS because an individual must know at least two dialects/languages to experience such phenomenon. For example, an educator who can change from one language to another is able to convey meaning in more than one language. As described Hamers and Blanc (2000, p.6), people who can speak two languages as native languages can be defined as bilingual. This definition sparked inquiry among theorists on whether a bilingual person can achieve competency and dominance of a L2 as well as a monolingual speaker of that language. Macnamara (1969), conversely, described a bilingual person as one who holds abilities in a main language, while maintaining the aptitude to talk, tune in, compose and peruse in a L2. A more accessible form of bilingualism is the ability to use occasional words from multiple dialects as needed (Grosjean, 1992). Haugen (1953) proposed that bilingualism is the point at which an individual has extensive expertise in delivering a complete, significant speech in the target languages. Baker (2011) suggested that bilingualism is the ability to speak one language fluently, while speaking another language less fluently. Such development
begins with the progression of civil rights and people’s call for equality in opportunities in education.

There are three classifications of bilingualism: compound bilingualism, coordinate bilingualism, and subordinate bilingualism. Compound bilingualism implies that an individual secures the first and second dialect during early adolescence. This type of bilingual person communicates in two languages when he/she was a child; supposedly, when thinking of ‘apple’ and ‘苹果’, this bilingual person accesses both isolated lexical representations and syntactic tenets. Two semantic codes are created simultaneously with one idea, as the two languages converge at the psychological idea. This depiction is supplemented by the proposal of Nomura (2003) that two language systems are created and maintained by the speaker, both accessible in the speaker’s etymological collection. Coordinate bilingualism happens when an individual experience the languages in two unique situations. In this variety, the individual has alternate interpretations that correspond to the dialect in use at that time (Archibald, 2000). Subordinate bilingualism refers to the ability of taking in a target language by refining the L2 through the mother tongue. This is where one word is laid over another; as such, significant ideas in the L2 are comprehended through L1.

Bilingual education (BE) alludes to language planning, wherein formal instruction encourages bilingualism. Such instructive program educates in at least two languages for a prolonged period (Abello-Contesse, 2013). Gaudart (1987) stated that bilingual instruction began when The Malay community employed Arabic-language as medium of instruction in the sixteenth century. In view of the training framework of the 1980s, Gaudart (1987) proposed four types of bilingual instructions in Malaysia:

- Initial transfer
- Re-transfer
- Circular Transfer
- Gradual transfer

Initial transfer occurs in National Primary school, in which standard Malay is the medium of instruction, while the English language is presented as a subject for half a year. The students later have the choice to learn other languages, such as Mandarin, Tamil, or Arabic, in the fourth year of primary instruction. The initial transfer comprises of three groups: a) Malay students who speak another Malay vernacular; b) students whose native language is English, Chinese, or Tamil; and c) students whose primary language is neither the Malay language nor the language being taught as a subject.

Re-transfer occurs in vernacular schools where Mandarin or Tamil is the medium of instruction. There are two phases of re-transfer: primary and secondary. The primary exchange occurs for students for whom the language of instruction is not the mother tongue, whereas the second transfer occurs when these vernacular students enter secondary school, in which the medium of instruction is Malay.

Circular transfer occurs for Malay dialect students who begin their education in vernacular school. To support students with restricted capability in the Malay language, individuals who do not score at least grade C in the UPSR are positioned in ‘remove class’, which refers to a one-year intensive course, before proceeding with their instruction in the first year of secondary education.

2.2 Language Choice

An individual chooses which language to use in interactions, as the ability to speak multiple languages provides an opportunity for the speakers to express themselves in their preferred language. According to Holmes (2013, p. 22), language choice happens in many instances, perhaps most, speech interactions. Coulmas (2005) suggested that language choice is the careful selection of a word, phrase, clause, or sentence in a language within
the speakers’ linguistic repertoire. David (2006) asserted that language choice is provoked by one’s social status, gender, educational achievement, ethnicity, age, occupation, rural and urban origin, speakers, topic, place, media, and formality of the situation.

Grosjean (1982, p. 127) stated that people continually alter their language to make the addressee understand the gist of the conversation. When a community understands a language, it becomes a community language. Using community language helps individuals expand their social networks, because membership in a network is often proven by the language the speaker uses.

There are three principles of language choice in the field of sociolinguistics: CS, code-mixing (CM), and variation in the same language (Somarsono, 2009). CS is influenced by factors, such as participants, topic, and situation; while CM appears in phrases and words. Variation is a combination of the same language between its formal and informal versions. One example of the language choice phenomenon derives from students of the English Department at the Faculty of Arts and Humanities, State Islamic University Sunan Ampel Surabaya. In the study, the participants used English in formal situations, while Indonesian in non-formal situations. In speaking to friends, they used community speech or vernacular language. They also used different languages, depending on the domain, such as the classroom, canteen, out-of-class, or in other places, that encourage them to choose their language (Suryadi, 2016).

Myers-Scotton (1993a) suggested CS as part of language choice and is an indication of social negotiation of rights and obligation that appears between the speakers in a discourse. Similarly, Holmes (2013) suggested that language choice depends on what is essential to the speaker; for instance, the social distance between the speakers, the topic being discussed, or the status of the speakers in the situation. With this, she introduced the markedness model and distilled CS into three primary functions: (a) marked choice
(MC), (b) unmarked choice (UM), and (c) exploratory choice (EC). The MC is an unexpected choice that the speaker makes in a discourse. Depending on the situation, CS can likewise be used to exclude some speakers and direct the language only to a specific listener. The UM is an expected choice employed as a strategy to serve a communicative function. An EC is made when the speaker is uncertain about the choice of a mutual language. In this situation, the first speaker initiates a conversation in one language, and if the addressee does not fully understand, the initiator of the conversation switches to the language most likely to be intelligible to both parties. According to Verschueren (1999), teachers’ language choice could be an endless choice of language that they make for their classrooms. Mokgwathi (2016) utilized the markedness model when studying the influence of teachers’ home language on CS in the classroom. It was found that MC was unlikely to occur in the classroom because the objective of the classroom was not to exclude any student from the learning process; however, UC and EC were possible (Mokgwathi, 2016).

Suraya and Juriah’s (2014) study of language choice among students in Malaysian higher learning institutions observed the prevalent use of English language use as a medium of instruction. The study suggested careful planning and implementation of the language so that students would not be left behind in education.

2.3 Language Use in ESL Classroom

Teachers’ language refers to the use of the language, which is the target language of learners adopted by the teacher (Johnson, 1999), which plays an important role in the English language. English Language Teaching (ELT) has witnessed shifting views in relation to the use of mother tongue in ESL classroom. It was generally accepted or practised until the 19th Century, with primary focus on translation of mother tongue to target language, wherein written words were emphasised instead of spoken.
Growing discontent with the above approach - Grammar Translation Method (GTM) was initiated when the researchers realised the disconnected sentences in translation and the need for speaking proficiency. There was rejection of mother tongue language use in the classroom (Widdowson, 2004). Hence, the audio-lingual method was introduced to reject the use of the mother tongue (Corder, 1978). Krashen (1985) asserted that language acquisition develops over time, listening that precedes speaking and the unnecessary need for the teaching of grammatical rules. Thus, he introduced comprehensible input as the main component required for language proficiency and the negative effect of mother tongue language in obstructing or interfering in the process of L2 acquisition.

To date, varied responses have been observed amongst researchers towards the position of the use of language in ESL classroom. Some researchers believe that students’ mother tongue should be used as little as possible in the ESL classroom, while some discourage such practice. The following subsections review the argument of supporting and against mother tongue use in ESL classroom.

2.3.1 Argument in supporting ‘English Only’

The term ‘English only’ is an act that proclaims English as the official language of the United States and an educational practice in which English is used as the sole medium of communication and instruction within the classroom. Some researchers support English only in the ESL classroom. For instance, one of the pioneers, Krashen (1982), claimed that students’ language acquisition could be successful if they are exposed to the language beyond their linguistic level and receive adequate L2 input. To this end, English-only instruction offers the students the most efficient way of learning an L2. Kanmwangamalu (1989) asserted that CS or constantly change between languages in the ESL classroom is an act of impure linguistics behaviour. Such notion is powerful
for a few decades, where such belief is instilled in some contemporary ESL classrooms. For instance, Butzkamm (2003) observed teachers sense the presence of guilt and shame when using other languages in the ESL classroom. Similar to Pablo et al., (2011) pertaining to the perception of using students’ mother tongue in ESL classroom, the teachers expressed firm protest against the use of mother tongue in the L2. According to them, such act is not helpful as students lose opportunity to speak the target language and would depend more on the use of mother tongue language.

2.3.2 Arguments against ‘English Only’

Despite the study of ‘English only’ movement among ESL classroom, a more contemporary research acknowledges the role of mother tongue in facilitating the ESL classroom within various contexts. Turnbull (2001) claimed that the supporters of the English-only in classroom are losing their ground as many researchers have observed the positive role of mother tongue language in classroom. Cook (2001) in a paper entitled ‘using the first language in the classroom’ discussed arguments in which mother tongue language can be positively used in the English classroom. The study compared the acquisition processes of the mother tongue language and the target language. As a result, it was found that language learners differed in making connection and analysing language use, hence, the techniques may vary. Although a teacher tries to separate the L1 from the L2 in their teaching by using some techniques, such as miming or drawing, learners eventually make connection between the vocabulary, the syntax, and the phonology of their L1 and L2 in their minds. Therefore, Cook (2001) recommended the positive use of mother tongue language, for example:

- Explaining and checking meaning
- Explaining and teaching grammar
- Classroom management
- Explaining class activities and tasks
- Maintaining contact with students

Hidayati (2012) investigated the use of the mother tongue language to teach receptive skills in an English classroom. Similar to Cook (2001), the use of L1 was mainly to explain difficult vocabulary, grammar points, classroom instructions, and social interaction. Another finding discovered by Hidayati (2012) referred to the higher interaction in the classroom when mother tongue language was used by the teachers, when compared to the L2, because the students were able to understand, communicate, and participate during class.

Tang (2002) pointed out that occasional use of the mother tongue language can increase comprehension and help the L2 learning process. Parallel to the previous review on the study performed by Hidayati (2012), the mother tongue language helped the students in expressing themselves in a more effective manner. Liu (2015) also proposed a similar stance, in which:

‘Using L1 may increase learner interaction in the L2 classroom related to socio-cognitive negotiation of pedagogic roles, intersubjectivity, and intrapersonal constructs of inner and private speech’

Chuang (2009) revealed that the use of students’ mother tongue language improved the Taiwanese middle school students’ capacity to reading skills. Meanwhile, in China, Tian and Macaro (2012) found that Chinese students whose educator used mother tongue language in the classroom performed better in vocabulary than individuals who only received guidelines from the instructor in the target language. Due to such beneficial outcomes, Horasan (2014) and Liu (2010) proposed the use of students’ mother tongue in the L2 classroom as being useful.
2.4 Code-switching (CS)

According to Jacobson (2004), CS is a substandard dialect, ‘Bahasa Rojak’ or ‘Bahasa Pasar’, which regularly linked with connotations of sullied, unsystematic language, and has received much negative input. Bahasa Rojak has been prohibited from national TV stations, which have asserted that this substandard dialect could crumble the Malay language and is a ‘threat to the national language and personality’ (Abu Bakar, 2009). Ong (1990) led an investigation of CS among bilingual Malay students in secondary school, which found that the bilingual Malay students code-switched since they had low proficiency in the English language. This switching is undoubtedly a procedure for bilingual students to cover their low ability in L2.

CS also occurs among those bilingual and multilingual, regardless if the speakers are either cognizant of or oblivious to the switch. Cantone (2007) described CS as a non-precise procedure among bilingual people who blend two dialects in a discussion. Those who code-switch may express the first word that comes to the mind; the source language is not an issue of concern for the bilingual person. This is in line with the study conducted by Nomura (2003), who found that speakers may not notice code-exchanging in their correspondence or have the capacity to report which dialect they have utilised after the discussion. According to Crystal (2006), a person who moves from one dialect to another over a series of sentences or inside a similar phrase is below the level of cognisant mindfulness. Speakers do not generally understand that they switched between dialects in their speech (Crystal, 2006, p. 365). The principle concern for a bilingual speaker is the substance of the message. The speaker realises that the listener will comprehend the meaning whether they utilise one dialect or blend two dialects; in this way bilingual speakers regularly code-switch with no discernible reason (Grosjean, 1982, p. 145). Curzan (2002) concluded such events occur regularly among bilingual or multilingual people with elevated capability in multiple dialects.
CS is seen as a cognisant procedure and a tool to assist the speaker with achieving or evading an informative occasion. One of the procedures is straightforward, apathy, and powerless dominance of the objective dialect. For example, Kuang and David (2015) directed an investigation on the occurrence and the capacity of CM within a Malaysian Chinese business exchange setting. Using video-recording, they discovered that CS was used to augment a lack of capability in a dialect. It additionally helps separate or narrow economic well-being, making accentuation, enhancing one’s economic well-being and individualistic character. Søndergaard’s (1991) investigation of code-exchanging concluded that CS happens daily in a multilingual family. However, the implemented changes were caused by vocabulary deficiencies and regularly activated by the circumstance and the speaker’s state of mind.

CS is seen as a marker of enrolment in social standing, character, and solidarity of the speaker. Heller (1988) described CS as having an association with the style, ethnicity, and solidarity of every dialect throughout the world. Scotton (1993a) found frequent utilisation of French or English to express words of specialty, advancement, and innovation. Hindu-Urdu code-changing was found to convey a ‘macho portrayal’ in South India (Sridhar, 1978). Sert (2005) proposed that CS creates etymological solidarity, particularly between individuals who share similar ethno-cultural personality. Similarly, Crystal (2006) stated that a speaker’s change from the majority dialect to the minority communicates solidarity with the minority group and builds compatibility with the recipient.

2.5 Classroom Discourse and CS

When one speaks, he or she outlines what should be conveyed in the given circumstance. Speech is such an exchange, in which ‘who’ is involved and ‘what’ is shared matter (Gee, 2005). Classroom talk is the dialect that instructors and students use
to speak to each other in a classroom. The investigation of classroom talk began in 1910, when stenographs were utilised consistently to record speech between instructor and students in secondary schools. Bellack (1966) proposed a straightforward depiction of the hidden structure of classroom talk, shared among all classrooms: structure, expression, reaction, and response.

Sinclair and Coulthard (cited in Ur, 2013) claimed that the most popular method of classroom communication is Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF). IRF is a method use when the instructor begins an exchange, often in the form of a question, and one of the students reacts in the classroom dialect. The educator provides input and begins the following inquiry. There are also, as explained by Ur (2013), elective cooperation designs. The activity does not need to be provided by the instructor, and the ‘communication’ might be between students or with the material. Instructor speech in this frame, as described by Ur (2013), includes quiet reaction, such as recording something; however, no action involves the student.

In order to examine the structure and the examples of overall communication, three auxiliary divisions are listed in educational speech: the opening stage, the instructional stage, and the shutting stage (Mehan, cited in Waring, 2015). To condense this, Bracha Alpert (cited in Nutall, 2013) observed three types of talk in the classroom:

- Silent - The teachers talk most of the time and only ask the occasional question;
- Controlled - The teacher asks questions and students answer to create the curriculum progressively; and
- Active - The teacher facilitates while the students primarily speak to each other.
Sert (2005, p. 1) stated that “in ELT classrooms, CS comes into use either in the teachers’ or the students’ discourse”. CS exists in English classrooms and has many code variations. Chowdhury (2012) proposed that CS includes the punctuation interpretation technique, a strategy for discerning sentence structure by translating the expression from one dialect to the next (e.g., *the house* to *la casa*) and open-dialect educating, a set of standards regarding the objective of dialect instruction and how students take in a dialect. For example, Martin (2005) remarked that the utilisation of neighbourhood dialect in a target dialect classroom is an outstanding marvel, although, for an assortment of reasons, educators are frequently faulted for lacking English dialect competency. Meanwhile, Payawal & Reyes’s (2006) study that focused on the Philippines setting concluded that teachers’ CS confused students and influenced their cognisance.

Jendra (2010) asserted that grammatical classification could identify the pattern of CS because it depends on where in the sentence or expression the exchange occurs. Therefore, the grammatical classification of CS is used to reveal the pattern of CS used in the present classroom setting. According to Jendra (2010, p. 74), the grammatical classification of CS can be partitioned into three types: tag CS, inter-sentential CS, and intra-sentential CS.

I. Intra-sentential CS

Intra-sentential CS is a sophisticated method of switching that happens within a clause or a sentence. Nonetheless, it is the most found part in the utterances, though Jing Xia (2010) cautioned about the ‘syntactic risk’ that may take place within the clause or sentence boundaries. Jendra (2010 p.76) provided a more straightforward idea about intra-sentential CS, wherein the switch is discovered when the speaker embeds a word, phrase, or a clause of foreign language along his/her base language.
II. Inter-sentential CS

In inter-sentential CS, the language change is completed between sentence limits, where every provision or sentence is in the form of a set dialect. This composition is regularly seen between familiar bilingual speakers (Jisa, 2000) because this type of CS expression must fit in with the principles of two dialects (JingXia, 2010). This sort of switch requires advanced familiarity with the two languages, since critical parts of the articulation must adjust to the standards of both languages (JingXia, 2010).

In English classrooms, Qian, Tian, and Wang (2009) observed educators commonly used the inter-sentential switch, as it helped in giving directions and obtaining responses from the students. Rahimi and Jafari (2011) explored the types and the elements of CS, as well as the gender orientation in EFL classrooms. Fifty long periods of four class exhibitions were observed and the sound recorded. The investigation found that instructors frequently employed CS through attempts to give the Persian reciprocals of English words and articulations. Male students were found to code-switch when they delivered humorous expressions, while their female schoolmates did so more when they needed to provide L1 reciprocals. Filling in the disposition poll, most students believed that Persian should not be used in the English classroom, although it encouraged their cooperation and interaction.

III. Tag CS

Tag CS refers to ‘extra CS’ (Esen, 2016) or emblematic switching (Holmes, 2013), which includes a ‘tag’ in a language other than that of the rest of the sentence. Jendra (2010) described this as the capacity to embed a tag from a distinctive language towards the completion of articulation, although Hijazi (2013) and Jalil (2009) did not limit the tag to the completion of expressions. According to Holmes (2013), tag CS is
typically performed by interposing another dialect that demonstrates an ethnic character marker. The present study employed the idea of tag CS as a word or a phrase in another language that is tagged in the conversation and subjected to insignificant syntactic confinement, such as greeting or parting.

Beyond these three types of CS that occur along the string of sentences, a study by Bista (2010) reported another kind of CS, called ‘code-changing’. This is portrayed by the familiar intra-sentential movements, changing from one dialect to the next based on situational and expressive components; the switch between these two dialects is purposeful and done in cognisance. Nomura (2003) have discussed the two most basic examples of the switch amongst those bilingual and multilingual: situational and figurative exchanges. Situational exchange is a difference in dialect that relies on the circumstance the speaker wants to fit in. This sort of change does not alter the theme of discussion, but the code. Figurative exchange requires a change in point.

Although the capacity of CS in classroom has been disputed for much of the last three decades, the results of this debate are context-dependent. For instance, Ferguson’s (2003) investigation regarding CS in an African setting proposed the following functions of CS: 1) curriculum access; 2) classroom discourse management; and 3) interpersonal relations (p. 39). Macaro (2005, p. 69), who detailed that instructors utilised L1 to construct individual connections, gave complicated procedural guidelines, controlled students’ practices, showed language structure clearly, as well as deciphered and checked for comprehension.

Khonakdar and Abdolmanafi-Rokni (2015) observed the function of CS among 60 Iranian school EFL instructors in classrooms by rounding out the questionnaire stumbled upon several circumstances, in which the educators code-switched to interpret, give directions adequately, and clear up queries. Meanwhile, Makulloluwa (2013), in a
study of CS in L2 classrooms, utilised three research instruments: an audio-recording of the classes, teacher interviews, and non-participant observations. The study found that students’ L1 was employed by instructors to differing degrees in the college EFL classrooms to help students understand occasional educational objectives. The investigation uncovered that participants utilised L1 for interactional, educational, and regulatory purposes in the classroom. A significant percentage of the instructors showed that they felt inspired towards the utilisation of L1 in the class for dual capacities: as a compensatory method for students with low L2 comprehension, as well as to create a positive classroom environment. Butzkamm (2003) clarified that efficient utilisation of CS can help clarify directions for the students, with the goal that the students may more fully comprehend convoluted ideas and assignments. Correspondingly, Simon (2001) suggested that instructors can utilise CS as a platform to illustrate the target language by augmenting understanding; it can be employed to aid comprehension of the dialect to sustain the discussion.

Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002) recorded elements of educators’ CS in three classifications; interpretation, metalinguistic utilisations, and communicative employment. The instructors used students’ L1 to interpret words or expressions, so that the students would comprehend the reciprocals of the information received. Concerning metalinguistic uses, CS happens when instructors need to utilise students’ L1 to note or distinguish ideas in the L2. With regard to the communicative employment, the instructors code-switch to students’ L1 to address open issues, such as classroom administration, educators’ responses to students’ solicitations, and passionate articulations.

Moradkhani (2012) adjusted the characterisation of classroom code-exchanging given in Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002). Moradkhani’s coding framework is
comprised of two capacities; the pedagogical and social functions. The pedagogical purposes refer to language-situated CS, including translation, metalinguistic uses, and communicative uses. The social function, on the other hand, is identified with the social and administrative climate of the classroom. It comprises of classroom management, building affinity with students, and providing guidelines (e.g., indicating the important context, assigning tasks to students, and giving directions or prompts). The Moradkhani’s scientific categorisation is presented in the following:

**Table 2.1: Moradkhani’s (2012) taxonomy of CS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pedagogical Function</th>
<th>Functions</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>Translation of a word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Translation of entire sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metalinguistic</td>
<td>To show contrast</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grammar Explanation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Highlighting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicative uses</td>
<td>Clarification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Checking comprehension</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Directive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reprimand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Function</td>
<td>Managing Rapport</td>
<td>Giving feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reminder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Telling jokes / revealing emotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Providing Instruction</td>
<td>Giving instructions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 2.6 Summary

This chapter discussed relevant literature on the Bilingualism and Education, language choice, language use in ESL classroom, Code-switching and its relationship pertaining to classroom discourse. All past researches have disclosed the inconsistencies on these relationships, especially when intensified in the scope of contexts and situation. Therefore, this study is necessary to be administered from the perspective of teachers’ belief and practice in the classroom. Having said that, two research frameworks are aptly referred to provide a solid groundwork. The analytical framework adopted for the present study are Jendra’s (2010) classification of Cs and Moradkhani’s (2012) CS taxonomy.
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

This study adopted the qualitative approach of naturalistic classroom interaction. It is aimed at disclosing teachers’ beliefs and practices of language use in the ESL classroom, particularly focused on CS. This chapter covers the following:

- Research Design (Section 3.1)
- Data Collection Procedures (Section 3.2)
- Theoretical Framework for Data Analysis (Section 3.3)
- Ethical considerations (Section 3.4)

3.1 Research Design

This investigation reflects an ethnography research study that focused on describing, analysing, and deciphering the typical patterns and beliefs regarding CS that developed over time. As indicated by Starfield (2010), ethnographic methodologies can be applied to examine language practices within a group. The present examination considered English educators in MCIS who knew the students’ native language, as this group could offer specific beliefs about their practices. LeCompte and Schensul (1999) described the fundamental steps to gather information in a natural context; including vis-à-vis connection with participants, uncovering participants’ points of view or reflections regarding their practices, and translating results with culture as a focal point.

The population studied comprised of the EFL instructors from an MCIS. A purposeful sampling technique was utilised to obtain the liveliest point-by-point data to illuminate the study outcomes (Creswell, 2012). Three criteria were pre-set to identify suitable participants. First, the educators were required to be bilingual, to possess the ability to speak both in English and Chinese languages, as the present examination studied instances of CS between these languages in the EFL classroom. Second, the participants
must have had at least one year of experience teaching the English language. This prerequisite had been based on Golombek’s claim (1998) that instructors’ conviction goes before changes in their educating practices. Third, the study considered junior-middle 1 to junior-middle 3 students. These criteria empowered the investigation to obtain a holistic picture of CS practices in the present study. After determining the criteria, choosing the appropriate candidates was imperative.

The study concentrated on an MCIS in Klang Valley, Malaysia. There were 34 EFL educators in the school; among these, 19 were non-Chinese, while 5 were Chinese instructors who could not understand nor converse in students’ mother tongue language. As determined in the inclusion criteria, code-exchanging happens when one can control the two languages smoothly. Hence, these educators were eliminated from the sample. Only ten educators satisfied the stated criteria. One of these educators could not participate in the study because he did not have a junior class, whereas another instructor fell sick during data collection period, thus unable to participate. In the end, seven classroom observations and eight interviews were conducted with the educators.

This sample of instructors was adequate to extrapolate conclusions; the inclusion of many participants might lead to partial outcomes (Creswell, 2012). These educators had the standard attributes to enabled detailed exploration and understanding of CS in the language-learning classroom. The instructors’ identities were masked, and the participants were referred to as ‘the subject’ in the study (S1, S2, S3…). The profile of the research participants is presented in Table 3.1.
Table 3.1: Background of the participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject (S)</th>
<th>Teacher Highest Academic Background</th>
<th>Native Language</th>
<th>Teachers’ Teaching Experience</th>
<th>Know about the term ‘code-switching’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study adopted the following instruments to gather data. First, a naturalistic approach was employed to preserve the authenticity of the actual classroom speech. Non-participant observation was used as an approach in the present study because the teachers voiced their concerns regarding being recorded, although classroom observation was a common practice in this school. The recorder was given to the teachers before the lessons began to ease observer paradox, a situation in which the phenomenon being observed is unwittingly influenced by the presence of the researcher.

The study collected seven classroom recordings. The ethnographic recording was essential as it played a role in collecting the data for the second research question. The
data collection was unstructured, as the researcher anticipated that an explanation of classroom CS could be carried out after the recording.

After recording their classes, the teachers were invited to participate in an interview, wherein the inquiries were concerned about the linguistic phenomenon this study intended to explore. The interview addressed the first research question, allowing teachers to expound upon their views on the use of Chinese language during the English-language lesson, apart from comprehending the circumstances in which the teacher used Chinese language in the classroom. This interview enabled the researcher to obtain necessary information about the teachers’ opinions on the use of CS, factors influencing teachers’ choices regarding CS, and background information about the institution’s policies towards CS.

In addition to the main research instruments expended to collect data, the researcher collected materials to supplement the study. This included teaching materials, such as handouts from the lessons, and additional field notes that helped the researcher collect what was not recorded in the study; as Heller (2008) expressed,

‘Recordings should not be relied on alone. Fieldnotes help contextualise them, giving the data expected to comprehend associations, and to develop the reason for correlation or formative investigation that enables us to interface communications to institutional and social procedures and structures. (p. 258)"

These materials facilitate data transcription. Some composed documents were collected from the research context websites so as to help the researcher to better comprehend the research context. Hence, this information complemented the interviews carried out with the subjects. The following table summarises the data collection methods in the attempt of addressing each research question.
Table 3.2: Summary of the Data Collection Method

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Question</th>
<th>Data Collection Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. What beliefs do ESL teachers hold about the use of code-switching in the classroom?</td>
<td>Semi-structured Interview + Fieldnotes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. How is CS manifested in the ESL classroom?</td>
<td>Ethnography Recording</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Do teachers’ beliefs align with the practice of CS in the English classroom?</td>
<td>Comparing the data obtained in the present study</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2 Data Collection Procedures

According to Creswell (2012), data collection and analyses processes ought to concur and iterate simultaneously with data interpretation and report writing. Following this notion, the researcher began analysing interview and classroom observation data, while data were being collected. The analysis began by transcribing the interview and classroom observation data into verbatim transcripts. The researcher conducted the first classroom observation in October 2017, and the interview sessions were held the following week, as agreed upon by the participants. The researcher conducted all interviews and collected all classroom observations before 15th November 2017; however, S8’s video recording was unrecoverable. Hence, only interview data were used for the present study. The data collection schedule and the interview sessions are presented as follows:
Table 3.3: Data Collection Schedule

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Length of Time</th>
<th>Interview</th>
<th>Classroom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td>Classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>13/11/2017</td>
<td>00:06:44</td>
<td>8/11/2017</td>
<td>00:55:33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>24/10/2017</td>
<td>00:08:22</td>
<td>23/10/2017</td>
<td>00:36:26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>26/10/2017</td>
<td>00:08:18</td>
<td>25/10/2017</td>
<td>00:36:24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>26/10/2017</td>
<td>00:08:02</td>
<td>25/10/2017</td>
<td>00:32:11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5</td>
<td>26/10/2017</td>
<td>00:05:46</td>
<td>23/10/2017</td>
<td>00:35:31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S6</td>
<td>26/10/2017</td>
<td>00:06:53</td>
<td>26/10/2017</td>
<td>00:33:17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S7</td>
<td>24/10/2017</td>
<td>00:07:43</td>
<td>21/10/2017</td>
<td>00:34:07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S8</td>
<td>24/10/2017</td>
<td>00:05:31</td>
<td>24/10/2017</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As presented in Table 3.3, eight interview sessions and eight classroom observations had been carried out at the specified time. While transcribing the data, the researcher followed the convention for transcription adapted from Grumperz and Berenz (1993). During the transcription process, the focus was only on teachers’ talk, while disregarding all CS events by the students. The following table illustrates the convention that had been applied.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>,</td>
<td>Slight rise (more is expected)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>..</td>
<td>Pause of less than .5 of a second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>Pause of more than .5 of a second (unless precise times)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>Overlap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( )</td>
<td>Unclear word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(did)</td>
<td>Guess at unclear word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[clear throat]</td>
<td>Non-lexical phenomenon, vocal and non-vocal, which interrupts the lexical stretch</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3 Theoretical Framework for Data Analysis

A theoretical framework was adopted to assemble the systematic theories and form a frame from which the observations and inferences regarding CS had been based. In this section, Saldana’s (2015) coding analysis is presented to analyse the focal part of CS from the sentential theory, as proposed by Jendra (2010). In addition, Moradkhani’s (2012) CS taxonomy was used to examine the sentential and the functional nature of CS captured in the classroom.

3.3.1 The Coding System of the pattern of CS

Grosjean (cited in Jendra, 2010, p.74) asserted that the pattern of code switching can be identified by grammatical classification because it is based on where the sentence or utterance the switching appears. Therefore, grammatical classification of code-switching
is used to reveal the pattern of CS used in present classroom setting. According to Jendra, (2010, p.74), grammatical classification of code switching can be divided into three types. They are tag code switching, inter-sentential code switching, and intra-sentential code switching. Each description is explained in the following:

I. Tag code-switching

According to Jendra (2010, p. 75), tag code switching is an ability of a bilingual to insert a tag from different language at the end of the utterances. Poplack (as cited in Jalil, 2009) expressed the similar idea but it does not restricted the tag at the end of utterances. With this, the present study employ the idea of tag code-switching as a word or a phrase in other language is tagged in the conversation and subjected to minimal syntactic restriction like greeting or parting. For example:

Well, 我想去睡觉。

[Well, I want to go to bed.]

II. Inter-sentential Switching

Inter-sentential switching occurs at a clause or sentence boundary, where each clause or sentence is in one language or another. In another word, the speaker commonly uses one language in a sentence and use different language in another sentence. According to Romaine (1989), this kind of switch requires greater fluency in both languages than tag-switching since major portions of the utterance must conform to the rules of both languages (JingXia, 2010). For example:

He is the class monitor, 他会处理的。

[ He is the class monitor, he will handle it]
III. Intra-sentential Switching

Intra-sentential switching is a complex form of switching and it takes place within the clause or sentence. However, it is mostly found in the utterances, though JingXia (2010) warned about the ‘syntactic risk’ occurs within the clause or sentence boundaries. Jendra (2012, p.76) provides as simpler idea about intra-sentential code switching in which the switch is found when speaker insert a word, phrase, or a clause of foreign language inside his/her base language. For instance:

今天是 Christmas Eve!

[Today is Christmas Eve!]

3.3.2 The Coding system of the Function of CS

Since the study context is in school, the present study employed Moradkhani Code-switching taxonomy to explore role and function of CS in the classroom. Table 3.5 presented the Moradkhani’s (2012) CS taxonomy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PEDAGOGICAL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>Translation of a word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Translation of entire sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metalinguistic</td>
<td>To show contrast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grammar Explanation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Highlighting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 3.3.3 Coding Analysis

Coding is primarily an interpretive act (Saldana, 2015, p. 4), instead of a precise science. The outputs were obtained via consistent reading and re-reading to capture the meaning of the data. Transcriptions obtained from the interviews and classroom observations were analysed using the first and second cycle coding method proposed by Saldana (2015). The first cycle of coding refers to the ‘initial coding’ and alludes to the ‘first impression’ parsed from the data to identify conceivable codes in the transcripts. The following excerpt delineates the first cycle coding methods, in which multiple coding approaches, including descriptive and process coding approaches, were conducted to detect topics (Tesch, 1990). In the first cycle, a short description of the code and its function was provided. The following depicts the excerpt obtained from S3. Codes are

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Function</th>
<th>Coding Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Providing instruction</td>
<td>Giving instructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing Rapport</td>
<td>Giving feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reminder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Telling jokes / revealing emotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicative uses</td>
<td>Clarification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Checking comprehension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Directive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reprimand</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following excerpt delineates the first cycle coding methods, in which multiple coding approaches, including descriptive and process coding approaches, were conducted to detect topics (Tesch, 1990). In the first cycle, a short description of the code and its function was provided. The following depicts the excerpt obtained from S3. Codes are...
presented in capital letters towards the right-hand margin, next to the data with superscript numbers linking the excerpts. Meanwhile, table 3.7 presents excerpt obtained from S1, where the first cycle coding is to identify the CS excerpt and how the codes are categories in the second cycle coding.

Table 3.6: Example of data coding analysis for the interview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transcription</th>
<th>First Cycle Coding</th>
<th>Second Cycle Coding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I think that is beneficial for the students who are weaker in English but have a certain foundation in Chinese which mean they are more comfortable in the language. So, when you teach in English language, you connect them in Chinese language, they might already know the things that is being taught, just that they do not know about the exact wording for the topic, so a little bit of Chinese to teach them, actually they can easily understand compared to using just English language in the classroom.</td>
<td>1 BENEFICIAL - POSITIVE 2 COMFORTABLE - AFFECTION 3 CONNECT WITH THEM - AFFECTION 4 THEY MIGHT ALREADY KNOW- BELIEFS 5 HELP TO UNDERSTAND – MOTIVATION</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.7: Example of data coding analysis based on the Jendra’s (2010) pattern of CS and Moradkhani’s (2012) taxonomy of classroom CS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transcription</th>
<th>First Cycle Coding</th>
<th>Second Cycle Coding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ok 开始开始. We have three more ….</td>
<td>1 Ok 开始开始</td>
<td>Intra-sentential Switching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 Sentences Structure (Jendra, 2010)</td>
<td>Function of CS (Moradkhani, 2012)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As for the second cycle coding, pattern coding was employed to determine patterns or relationships among the previously generated codes by analysing commonalities and grouping them by similitudes. The coded data were clustered based on Jendra’s (2010) pattern of CS and Moradkhani’s (2012) taxonomy of classroom CS. Finally, the obtained data from the interview transcript and the observation were used to compare so as to identify the correlation between teachers’ belief and the actual practices. Figure 5 portrays the procedure of extracting data for analysis and figure 6 illustrates the stages of data analysis process.

Figure 3.1: Procedure of Extracting Data for Analysis
Figure 3.2: Stages of Data Analysis Process

3.4 Ethical Considerations

Ethics are an essential component to consider before undertaking a study, such as the present one, as it involves ‘human participation’, which means the study may pose
severe consequences towards the participants (Creswell & Clark, 2007). For this reason, the researcher weighed in several ethical matters of the present study to guarantee the protection and the privacy of the educators. First, each teacher was allotted a code (S1, S2, S3 …) as a unique identifier. The researcher acquired the teachers’ authorisation prior to detailing personal information, such as academic background, teaching experience, and factors that influenced teachers’ decisions to code-switch. Apart from these, no personal information from the teachers and students was unveiled.

In order to ensure that the participants and the research context were reviewed in strict confidence; the participants were made aware of the study objectives and were given the right to leave, prior to data collection. To begin with, ethical clearance to approach the principal was obtained from the University of Malaya Research Ethics Committee (UMREC) and the faculty. Next, the principal was well-informed about the study and how it would benefit the teachers and the research community. Next, the researcher provided an introductory letter to the teachers from the faculty, and each English teacher was given a consent form and an information sheet outlining the purpose of the research project during the subject-based meeting. A meeting was held to explain the study in more detail, as well as to answer any query the participants had about the procedures involved.

The students were briefly informed that their classes would be recorded when the instructor introduced the researcher to the students during the observation. Although the students were not the principle subject of the present study, the information could not be obtained in genuine circumstances without the students’ participation.

3.4.1 Trustworthiness

Despite of the many benefits and insights that can be gained using ethnography as the methodology for the present study, several impediments were noted in utilizing the approach. One such disadvantage is the difficulty in generalizing findings, as ethnography
aims for local knowledge, and varying cultural settings would generate different findings. Another shortcoming is the absence of unbiased perspectives (Creswell, 2002). To limit these shortcomings, Denzin and Lincoln (2008) suggested four criteria to assess and confirm the general reliability of the study. These criteria are credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability.

I. Credibility

Triangulation is the most basic strategy that guarantees credibility in a subjective research (Creswell, 2007). Denzin (1984) proposed four types of triangulation to guarantee the credibility of an investigation. Data source triangulation is observed in a different context and multiple sources. Investigator triangulation involves multiple researchers in an investigation. Theory triangulation means employing more than one theory in data interpretation. Finally, methodological triangulation uses multiple techniques to assemble information. In the present study, the researcher triangulated using the following data sources: ethnography recording, semi-structured interviews, and other materials, such as field notes. The credibility of this study was fortified through participant checks. The researcher shared the transcribed data with the teachers and requested the teachers to state their exact understanding of the information.

II. Transferability

According to Denzie and Lincoln (2008), transferability refers to the degree to which the study outcomes are applicable and constant in an alternate setting. The present study fortified its aspect of transferability by providing detailed descriptions of the socioeconomics and research setting in Chapters One and Three, enabling readers to transfer the findings to their specific situation (Starfield, 2010).
III. Dependability

Dependability involves clear research inquiries, solid examining criteria, and strong compatibility with the participants (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The present study-maintained dependability by having the research questions precisely formulated and using purposive sampling in participant selection. An explanation of the study was explicitly provided to the participants before the study began so as to ensure good rapport between the researcher and the participants.

IV. Confirmability

Confirmability checks if the gathered data are adequate to enable others to determine if the findings are based on the participants’ narratives and words, instead of the researcher’s biasness. This study described the stages of data collection and the process of data analysis in detail so that future researchers may check and recheck the gathered data throughout the study.
CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS (I)

This section reports the commonalities practice of CS retrieved from the classroom interaction using audio-recording. The report presented in this chapter is as follows:

- Language use in the ESL classroom (Section 4.1)
- Pattern analysis of CS (Section 4.2)
- Analysis of the function of CS (Section 4.3)

4.1 Language use in the ESL classroom

This section reports the frequency use of language among teachers in the 7 ESL classrooms. Analysis in the classrooms revealed that all subjects, through classroom observations and transcription analysis, frequently used the Chinese language in their respective English language classrooms through a more substantial proportion of the language being in English. The recorded number of words the teachers had code-switched is as follows:
Table 4.1: Frequency of Language use in the observed Classrooms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>Bahasa Malaysia</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>2627</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>84.4 %</td>
<td>15.5 %</td>
<td>0.06%</td>
<td>99.96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>830</td>
<td>745</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>52.7%</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>0.06%</td>
<td>100.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>1523</td>
<td>846</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>64.3%</td>
<td>35.7%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>1225</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>94.3%</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>0.08%</td>
<td>100.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5</td>
<td>1693</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>83.7%</td>
<td>16.3%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S6</td>
<td>304</td>
<td>1259</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19.4%</td>
<td>80.5%</td>
<td>0.06%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S7</td>
<td>2784</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>99.4%</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10986</td>
<td>3755</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(74.5%)</td>
<td>(34.2%)</td>
<td>(0.03%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1 shows that a total of 14,744 words had been gathered in this study. From the aggregate number collected, 3,755 words (34.2%) were in the Chinese language, while Bahasa Malaysia had five (0.03%) throughout the study. The data deduced that the
participants acknowledged the dominant language, which is the English language in the classroom, while Chinese or other languages were embedded. However, a teacher (S6) clarified that her students favoured an English instructor who can speak Chinese amid the lesson. Along these lines, the outcomes demonstrated that she utilised 80.5% of the Chinese language in the classroom.

Several situations were observed based on the data. First, the teachers commonly used English as their choice of language when they began their lesson. Cook (2008, p.181) stressed the importance of using L2 in the beginning of lesson because it may be difficult for the students to use it if the teacher speaks the students’ mother tongue language at the start. However, the study showed that the educators were quick to change the language to Chinese when students had difficulty understanding instructions. This is portrayed in the following instances:

**Example (1)**

| S3:   | Today, we are going to go through this piece of exercise about information transfer.. So.. please open to this page, you should have it in your blue file. 有没有? 有人没有吗? 全部都有? (Has it? Does anyone don’t have this? Everyone has it?) |

**Example (2)**

| S1:   | We have three more sessions before we will step into the exam hall. First, I have to revise with you…certain grammar topic that.. I think you should know lah. We will go over again one or two topics, one of them is the conditional tenses…|
| S:    | 老师要做什么? (What does teacher want us to do?) |
S1:

没有 (nothing), 做 (do) conditional tense, 我要跟你们讨论一下。 (*I want to discuss with you for a while*)

The extract from example (1) was taken from S3 when she began her lesson by informing the students about the lesson of the day in English and followed by the Chinese language when the students did not respond to the given instruction after a long pause. In example (2), which was taken from S1 in a situation when lesson in English was about to start, the teacher responded in Chinese upon inquiry by students made in Chinese. This is consistent with the study by Cheng (2003) that one would keep on talking the last language the speaker utters due to a condition called 'trigger impact'. This circumstance uncovers that the language selection of students may trigger instructors' CS. Furthermore, such an occurrence does not exclusively uncover at the beginning of the lesson but found amidst the lesson for different educators. For example:

**Example (3)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S4:</th>
<th>… So.. the first they... survival… survival means?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S:</td>
<td>生存 (to survive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4:</td>
<td>ya, 生存 (to survive)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example (3) depicts an excerpt from S4’s classroom. It was a reading class when S4 endeavoured to explain the importance of the new word. The teacher made an inquiry to look for students' comprehension of the word. At the point when the students replied by directly translating the English word to Chinese word, the teacher code-switched to confirm the students’ answer in the Chinese language.
Likewise, was noted when the students did not volunteer in noting teachers’ question or did not pay attention in class, wherein the teachers had to commonly repeat the question several times, from English to Chinese and back to English. For example,

**Example (4)**

| S2: | c…an someone make a sentence? In this 21st Century, what can you relate to this phrase? By beginning your sentence says in this 21st century, what can you say in your second half of your sentence? Anyone? Put up your hand if you’re ready for… eh… sentence 在这 21 世纪里 下一句可以讲什么谁的脑筋动的比较快 (in the 21st century, what can you say for next sentence, whose brains are moving faster?) anyone? yes? you have one? |

**Example (5)**

| S4: | XX, why do you need to face to the back constantly? okay? 有问题吗? (Do you have any question?) |

As noted in example (4), S2 requested one student to construct a sentence on the phrase ‘in this 21st Century’. He switches the phrase to Chinese and followed by asking the students to volunteer to construct the sentence. From the extract ‘谁的脑筋动的比较快’, it was also found that S2 code-switched by complimenting and motivating the person who would volunteer constructing the sentence later as having ‘quicker brain processing’.

As for example (5), S4 code-switched to ask if the student had a problem as the student constantly faced to the back instead of his teacher. In the extract, ‘okay’ was followed by ‘有问题吗？’, as the teacher repeated the question. The overall activities in examples (4) and (5) displayed that teacher rehashed the inquiry several times from English to Chinese to expect a response and behaviour change from the students.
Last but not least, the teachers code-switched to give explanation or to provide more information. The pattern always began by questioning the students about the matter. For instance,

**Example (6)**

| S2: | What is harmless? Harmful 是很有伤害性的 (is harmful), harmless 是没有伤害性的。所以你每次踩人家，讲人家，有没有伤害性？难免是有的。有时候你觉得是开玩笑那样，但别人感觉可能不一样。 (is harmless. So, whenever you step on others, talk about others, is it harmful? Inevitably yes/ Sometimes you think it is a joke, but others may not feel the same). you might think that you are joking but then sometimes others don’t feel the same way. |

**Example (7)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S1:</th>
<th>What is crane?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S:</td>
<td>鶴 (crane)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S1:</td>
<td>yes 鶴，什么颜色的？yes, (crane, what is the colour?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S1:</td>
<td>白色 (white)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S1:</td>
<td>白色 (white)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In examples (6) and (7), the teachers appeared to code-switch by expounding more information about a specific topic in Chinese. The topic for example (6) is the elaboration on the meaning of harmless. Instead of translating the word, S2 began by asking the
students ‘what is harmless’, then the teacher differentiated harmful from harmless, and later related the word ‘harmless’ to the main topic ‘bullying’. Meanwhile, example (7) looked into the word ‘crane’. S1 began by asking the students about the meaning of the word ‘crane’ and followed by asking the colour of a crane. The elaboration did not merely provide information. The teachers employed questioning skills to engage and assess students’ comprehension.

4.2 Pattern Analysis of CS

This section is devoted to reporting the current linguistic pattern within the MCIS ESL classrooms. Sentence-switching patterns were derived from the ethnography recording, wherein the data were observed and recorded in the classrooms. The pattern of CS is described based on the three categories of CS: inter-sentential CS, intra-sentential CS, and tag CS, as suggested by Jendra (2010). The summary of the analysis is given in the following,

Table 4.2: Summary of the Pattern Analysis of CS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Syntactical Analysis of CS</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intra</td>
<td>Inter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.2 shows the total number of the sentential switch in the classrooms. The data provided by S6 is not applicable to this section because the matrix language in her classroom was Chinese, while others were in the English language. The total would have been different with inclusion of data from S6. Overall, the data showed that intra-sentential is common among the teachers. Inter-sentential CS, however, was less in number when compared to the high-frequency use of intra-sentential CS. This finding differed from the study conducted by Gulzar and Abdulrahman (2013). The teachers used tag CS the least although such CS was easily inserted in a sentence made in the matrix language. However, if sentential CS was compared by each subject, (S1) and (S4) used more tag CS in the classrooms, as compared to inter-sentential CS.

4.2.1 Inter-sentential CS

Inter-sentential CS refers to the switch between sentences or clauses (Jendra, 2010). This type of CS was noted in the actual classroom. It appeared that the first sentence was entirely in English, and the following sentence was in Chinese. Inter-sentential CS mainly occurred at the sentence level, starting from English sentence to Chinese sentence. For example,

**Example (8)**

| S5: She is polite because she is brought up in a very good family. 把孩子给养大，
在怎么样的环境里面? (To raise a child, in what kind of condition?) |  |
**Example (9)**

| S3: | Teasing becomes bully when it is repetitive or when there is a conscious intense to hurt another child.  
   |  | 所以怎样它会是成为一种霸陵的行为？当你一直不断地同样的东西一直重复某一样东西，一直去讲一直去讲 (So, how does it become a bullying behaviour? That’s when you continuously repeat the same thing, keep talking about it). |

**Example (10)**

| S3: | You need to write down what is necessary only.  
   |  | 你还是需要过滤一下那些资讯 (you still have to filter the information). |

When the teacher switched from English to Chinese, the teacher continued to deliver their information, which was a topic in the Chinese. As given in examples (8) until (10), the teachers mainly used inter-sentential CS when asking questions or explaining a situation. Noted in example (8) and (9), the teachers would ask the question based on the statement which they made in English language. The above CS phenomenon may happen in conscious or subconscious mind, as mentioned by Canagarajah (cited in Chowdhury, 2012), number of explanations like repetition, reformulation, clarification, exemplification may happen conscious or subconsciously, however, CS is considered as the most affective way in clarifying any kind of confusion or misunderstanding regarding any topic. As for example (10), the teacher CS to Chinese language to remind students that they have to filter the information though answer has been given in the passage. Such patterns of CS magnified in example (8) to (10) suggest that teachers are fluent in both languages because teacher utilised the major portions of the utterance in Chinese language.
and both the languages uttered by teachers conformed to the rules of both languages (JingXia, 2010)

4.2.2 Intra-Sentential CS

Intra-sentential is a switch within a sentence or a clause, which is categorised as the most complicated pattern of CS (Jalil, 2009; Poplack, 1980; Yletyinen, 2004). According to Poplack (as cited in JingXia, 2010), such switch may be avoided by all but the most fluent bilinguals. In the present study, intra-sentential CS was easily and mostly found in this community, which seems parallel to the study by Poplack (1980) on Puerto Rican speakers in New York where she found intra-sentential CS mostly occurred amongst those with good proficiency in both languages as it requires the speakers to possess sufficient knowledge of the grammars of both languages. From the data, the teacher began the subject in English and followed by a predicate or clause in Chinese. The teachers performed intra-sentential CS when they translated the meaning. This drew an inference that intra-sentential CS was mostly applied to translate the meaning of words directly to the students. For example,

Example (11)

| S3: | What is peer? Peer 是同年龄层的人 (is those who are same age) |

Example (12)

| S3: | Teasing 就好像是你踩人家这样子 (is when you step on others like this) |
Examples (13)-(16) present the excerpt of intra-sentential CS by the teachers in the study. Excerpts (11) until (15) depict that the teachers mostly used intra-sentential CS to explain a specific word. In example (16), intra-sentential CS was used to narrate an inference that the students may answer during assessment. Interestingly, all the sentence above revealed that the main language (matrix language) has switched from English language to Chinese language, meanwhile English language is the embedded language and play a lesser role.
Romaine (cited in Jeanne, 2015) stated that intra-sentential may be complicate as it involves ‘arguably, the greatest syntactic risk’ and the speaker must be able to control two linguistic system. Examples (11) - (16) depict the mentioned characteristic sophisticatedly as the teachers successfully conveying the meaning by switching the language from English to Chinese within a sentence.

4.2.3 Tag CS

Tag CS refers to inserting or switching ‘interjection, fillers, tags, and idiomatic expression (Poplack, 1980). From the data, tag CS was noted during classroom observation and in preliminary data, which is in agreement with that reported by Ariffin and Rafik-Galea (2009) that tag CS serves the purpose of utterances, holds student's attention, and moves forward the action. The following examples report the incidences of tag CS in the ESL classrooms.

Example (17)

| S2: | undoubtedly, unquestionably 是一样的. (are the same). |

Example (18)

| S2: | No, 也是有 (it has too). 你看 (You look at) second paragraph, first and second line, there are actually three possible answers. |

Example (19)

| S1: | If pig could fly, pork would become 要讲 (to say) become more expensive. Why? It is very hard to catch the pig. This is an impossible condition, you have to know this part 没有了 (no more). |
Example (20)

| S2: | Another girl please…right, 常见的那个现象 (common phenomenon). 来 (come) |

Example (21)

| S1: | shhh… those who are weak at critical reading, please 来, 5 题罢了 (come, 5 questions only) |

Example (22)

| S3: | You should have it in your blue file, 有吗？ 有人没有吗？ 全部都有？ (has it? Doesn't anyone have it? Everyone has it?) |

Example (23)

| S2: | 记得啊，社会英文叫做 (Remember ah, society for English is) society |

Examples (17)-(23) depict the tag CS discovered in the data. Examples (17) until (19) shows tag CS into a sentence to confirm a prior topic or response from the students. In examples (20) and (21), ‘来’ act as a filler to direct students to the next item, which the teacher had wanted the students to follow. For example (22), the teacher tagged ‘有吗’ to double confirm the exercise that should be kept in a blue file, while in example (23), ‘记得啊’ was tagged to remind the students of the word ‘society’.
4.3 **Functions of CS**

This section discusses the functions of CS used by the ESL teachers in the actual classroom. The data were analysed based on the taxonomy built by Moradkhani (2012), mainly because it explored the situation, especially for ESL classroom context. Both pedagogical and affective functions of CS were observed in the data. This section first discusses the function of CS based on the taxonomy of CS by Moradkhani (2012). The following table shows the summary of CS functions retrieved from this present study.

**Table 4.3: Summary of the Function of CS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PEDAGOGICAL</th>
<th>SOCIAL</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>Metalinguistic</td>
<td>Communicative Uses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S8</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>113</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>261</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3 shows the function of CS based on the taxonomy of CS by Moradkhani (2012). The total number of CS passages which were classified under different category of CS
was 265. Generally, the use of CS strategies for pedagogical purposes outnumbered that for social function. Such finding was consistent with Moradkhani’s (2012) study, which he claimed that the first language was mostly used to fulfill pedagogical function as compared to social function. Under the three subcategories of the pedagogical function, it could be observed that translation registering the highest number (113) followed by Metalinguistics uses (88) and Communicative Uses (66). However, if the data was compared by each subject under the category of pedagogical function, (S3) used more CS for communicative uses in the classrooms, as compared to translation. As for social function, a slight variation could be observed. Among the subcategories of the social function, managing rapport was the dominant subcategory (19), meanwhile, this is followed by providing instruction (13). The present study identified CS which did not carry any function of CS. For instance, calling students’

4.3.1 CS for Translation Purposes

In the data, the teachers were found to code-switch to translate the meaning of words. According to Moradkhani (2012), the function of translation is divided into two: translation of a word and translation of an entire sentence. For example,

Example (24)

| S5: | undeniably, 无可否认的 (undeniably) |

Example (25)

| S4: | Mascot, 吉祥物 (Mascot) |
Example (26)

| S2: | In this modern era, it is easy to lose tie with the tradition from our forefathers…fore father 是前人前辈 ei 什么意思？在这摩登时代，我们很容易跟我们的先主们失去接触 (is fore-father et what’s the meaning? In this modern era, we are easily to lose tie with our forefather) |

According to Pan (2012), who conducted a study on the use of translation in EFL classroom, the effectiveness of translation as a teaching method is practical as it serves as a communication tool to help teachers achieve competence in vocabulary, sentence structures, and cultural aspects. Similarly, Afzal (2013) viewed translation as having possible positive effects on the learner’s competence and performance skills (Afzal, 2013). Examples (24) and (25) occurred in a reading class where the teacher was reading from the literature exercise. The teacher directly translated the word to the students, while in example (26), an entire sentence was translated. In comparison to the direct translation of a word to the whole sentence of translation, one can draw inference that teacher provides more information to the students, and this raises learners’ awareness of the similarities and the differences between the two languages (Chellappan, 1991).

4.3.2 CS for metalinguistic uses

Metalinguistic refers to the functions that deal with the provision of further explanation about the target language that forms through students’ L1. Under metalinguistic uses, Moradkhani proposed three instances of metalinguistic uses: show contrast, grammar explanation, and highlighting. In this present study, the teachers code-switched to display contrast in both Chinese and Bahasa Malaysia, to explain grammar, and to highlight important points. For example,
Example (27)

S2: If you want to write like that, you must write properly, don’t follow Malay Style- globanisasi, modenisasi (globalisation, modernisation)

Example (28)

S2: 这边要提醒一下，有一些同学受马来文的影响 把 society 写成 sosial… 记得啊，社会英文叫做 society (society)

Example (29)

S4: …Foreshadowing, have you learnt this in Bahasa Melayu (Malay language)? In Bahasa Melayu (Malay language) we called it Imbas. (foreshadowing)

Example (30)

S5: …Another thing is house and home. There is a difference between these two words. How. House. House is more like a building.屋子.

Example (31)

S6: 这个(this) grown mushroom 的意思是好像马来文 (is like the Malays Language) bagai cendawan tumbuh selepas hujan (mushrooms grow after the rain) 。就是说一个东西他增加到很快(It mean one thing which grows really fast)
Examples (27) and (28) revealed that the teacher used to show contrast. Meanwhile, examples (30) and (31) showed that Bahasa Malaysia was found to have a closer vocabulary to the English language when making comparisons. Thus, the teacher explained in Bahasa Malaysia to differentiate both spelling and meaning. The teachers' responses analysed in this present study are consistent with Ruan’s (2003) findings, where teachers code-switched to Chinese language for metalinguistic functions.

4.3.3 CS for Communicative Uses

When teachers resort to move from one stage of teaching to another or switch the responsibility to students, this is called communicative use. The study observed that the teachers used question attention and later, switched to the Chinese language when they attempted to check comprehension from the students. According to Cotton (2001), question serves the purpose of evaluating students’ preparation for the next input. Questions in this context ensured that the students were ready to move to next stage in the lesson. For example,

Example (32)

| S8: 那 (then) people 加 (added with) S 是什么意思 (what meaning) ? |

Example (33)

| S5: Aisyah received an offer letter 入取通知书 (offer letter) from Cambridge University. 收到了哪里来的信件？(where does the letter from?) |

Examples (32) and (33) portray that the teachers switched the language to Chinese to check students’ comprehension by employing the questioning method (Tofade & Haines, 2013).
4.3.4 Managing Classroom / Building Rapport

According to Moradkhani’s taxonomy of CS, a variance is present between the communicative uses that fall under pedagogical functions and affective functions. Communicative function focuses on the teaching and imparting knowledge. Meanwhile, managing rapport deals with the social and managerial atmosphere, in which the target is not directly related to the target language. Managing rapport here also refers to teachers dealing with problematic students and reducing the social distance between them. Overall, the teachers seemed to code-switch to express their more reprimanding emotional aspect towards students’ behaviour. For instance:

**Example (34)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Dialogue</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S7</td>
<td>Okay, class, I will not give in if I have told you. don't tell me that you want to fight for you marks or whatever if I have told you, I will not give in. 我如果跟你们讲过了，我一定不会妥协。 (<em>If I have told you, I would not compromise)</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example (35)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Dialogue</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>Tit for that is an eye for an eye, a brat…. shhh… eh, 我不要教了 (I don’t want to teach already)(silent) Brat is a child who is spoiled ...真的是 我不要教了 (Really, I don’t want to teach already)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example (36)

| S1: | Okay so let’s look at the five questions on critical reading… shhh… those who are weak at critical reading, please 来 (come), 5 题罢了(five questions only), 我的要求不高(my requirement is not high), 娶老婆 要求要高还是嫁老公 (but marrying a wife or husband) HAHA XX, what are your conditions? |

Example (37)

| S1: | Can do or not? Can? 很累啦 (so tired la) continue la next time, okay? |

In example (34), the teacher (S5) did not use a word of Chinese language to deliver her lesson, however, when the teacher was unhappy with her students’ on-going objection on the marks distribution for an exam paper, she reverted to Chinese. This is parallel to the definition of CS by Grosjean (1982) as ‘the involuntary influence of one language on the other’, caused by a situation and emotional factors, such as stress, fatigue or last language spoken. Example (35) showed that the teacher code-switched to exert his emotion when the class made noise and was not paying attention.

Nonetheless, the teacher did not only use CS to express negative emotion, but also to deliver positive emotions, such as telling jokes, in example (36). Malik (1994) claimed that bilinguals who are tired or angry, tend to code-switch. This indicates that a speaker is in the right state of mind where he can find a suitable word or expression in the base language. In other word, it means a situation when people know the word they want to express in the language that they commonly speak, however, the word may be more
accessible in another language. Example (37) expressed that he was tired and sought opinion from the students on whether to continue the lesson.
CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS (II)

The research sought to discover teachers’ practices and perception of CS in MCIS ESL classrooms. This chapter reports the outcomes yielded from the semi-structured interview sessions held with 8 subjects. The findings answered the second and third research questions outlined in Chapter One:

- *What beliefs do ESL teachers hold about the use of CS in the classroom?*
- *Do teachers’ beliefs align with the practice of CS in the English classroom?*

Four areas related to teachers’ CS had been considered, as listed in the following:

- General view of the application of CS in the ESL classroom (Section 5.1)
- Reasons for CS being common in the ESL classroom (Section 5.2)
- The functions of CS (section 5.3)
- Summary for Research Question 2 (Section 5.4)
- The Relationship between teachers’ practices and perception on CS (Section 5.5)

5.1 **General view of the application of CS in the ESL classroom**

This section presents the general opinion on the use of CS from the 8 subjects. All the teachers in this school agreed that switching to the Chinese Language in the English classroom is a favourable strategy. The following presents the feedback from the subjects pertaining to their opinions on the use of Chinese language in the English lesson.
### Example (38)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S1</th>
<th>‘I think it is acceptable, quite useful la’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>‘I think this is preferable, essential and effective so as to make classroom learning smooth and productive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>I think that is beneficial for the students who are weaker in English but have a certain foundation in Chinese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>Sometimes I use Chinese during my lesson, sometimes I think it’s useful la</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5</td>
<td>It is quite useful for the students who are weak in English language...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S6</td>
<td>I think it’s okay la to do so, to use Chinese in English lesson.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S7</td>
<td>In Chinese school I think it’s very useful, especially when you are teaching in the weaker class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S8</td>
<td>the use of Chinese is necessary in order to carrying on the lesson.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above example was taken from (S1) to (S8) interview transcripts, in which all the teachers had similar opinion regarding the use of Chinese language in ESL classroom; however, varying explanations were provided as to why they used the Chinese language. For example, (S1) and (S6) gave short excerpts to support their views, whereas (S2) and (S8) claimed that it was essential to ensure that the lesson was going on smoothly. Additionally, (S3), (S4), (S5), and (S7) explained that CS was useful in the weaker classroom. Despite the positive feedback on the use of CS, two teachers were aware of the overuse of CS in the classroom. For example:
Example (39)

| S1   | ...in the English lesson, it’s better for you to use English all the time, you only switch to Chinese when you need to explain certain critical word which you find it very difficult to explain it in English’s if you use Chinese, student will get the meaning instantly but still I try to use English |
| S3   | you can’t teach everything in Chinese, you have to be selective as well like part of the language you want them to err translate and you want to guide them in Chinese because otherwise, they might rely on their mother tongue too much. |

The excerpts above given by (S1) and (S3) showed that some teachers were aware of the base language in the classroom, which is English language. Therefore, the maximum use the English language should be demonstrated in the class. The Chinese language should be minimised and used selectively, as they worry that the students may be fed on by the Chinese language that the teachers use in the lesson. The explanation is in line with the study conducted by Selamat (2014), that the teachers in her study expressed their concern about the overuse of CS.

5.2 Reasons for CS being common in the ESL classroom

From the interview, the teachers pointed out the reason for CS in the ESL classroom. It was noted that teachers’ beliefs are connected to their personal perceptions in the use of CS and the environment or event that influences the teachers in using CS. The transcript was extracted, and five themes seemed to emerge, as categorised in the following:

- Practicability of CS (Section 5.3.1)
5.2.1 Practicability of CS

Practicability refers to the viability of CS for pedagogical purpose. In this present study, the teachers admitted that they used CS in the ESL classroom because CS was practical and gave convincing yields in their teaching. For example,

Example (40)

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>Sometimes if you speak mainly in English, some of them will not listen, just like when you want to scold them, or you want to tell them something serious it’s better to tell them in Chinese, so they will get the point.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>Here I have a one obvious example is to help them completely understand the given topic. In my case, any misunderstanding of the essay topic could result in students writing irrelevantly about the chosen topic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>It helps in the sense that they learn new vocabulary and they pick up the vocabulary slightly quickly compared to you know… just letting them figure out everything.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>Sometimes I think it’s very hard for me to just use English in the classroom, students are weak, if I just use, they will just shut down and not listening, and don’t even want to speak.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5</td>
<td>It helps students to know what I’m teaching, and somehow if I explain in Chinese, it can helps them to develop and explain their thinking on what I</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
was teaching in class, because they will think in a way that they know what I’m teaching, so for example, if the word they are really familiar with in Chinese but not in English, so when I explain in Chinese, they will be like oh, that’s the word that we have learnt before, so now we have learn a new word, in a more understanding way.

S6 Basically, it’s like I just felt that students would paying more attention and I felt like class is quieter if I use Chinese language in classroom because they will pay more attention.

S7 The students they don’t dare to speak English if they think that their English is weak and so on, so it is useful and I think we need to do that instead of using English only.

S8 The pupils will find hard to discuss for the details with the teacher if I can’t speak Chinese.

From example (40), S1 to S2 were aware of the differences when teachers code-switch from English to Chinese in the ESL classroom. Therefore, the teachers’ opinion can be an inference that the switch is practical, foreseeable, and achievable, which is possible to make the teachers in this community to employ the Chinese language in the classroom.

5.2.2 Characteristics of school

Another theme that emerged from the interview is the characteristics of the school. As discussed earlier, the study context is a Chinese school, whereby the students are mostly, and all the students can converse not just pure Mandarin, but high fluency of Mandarin in the community. The characteristic of the school with such advantage allowed the
teacher to believe CS is indeed helpful because the language is known to both the teachers and the students. For instance,

**Example (41)**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>S3</strong></td>
<td><em>We are in a Chinese school, they feel like… If they feel like you know their language, you have a certain connection to them… Supposed to sometimes, some teacher, other races may find it difficult to control the classes, to teach the classes, that because they use different language.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>S5</strong></td>
<td><em>...Because we are in the Chinese school, it is quite useful for the students who are weak in English language, so it really helps them to understand more if you couldn’t understand the words, the meaning, phrase and sentence I use in the class.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>S7</strong></td>
<td><em>… this is a Chinese school, so the teacher really needs to like to communicate with students in mandarin sometimes.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>S8</strong></td>
<td><em>Teaching English in Chinese school, I have to use Chinese to do explanation during the lesson</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**5.2.3 School policy**

Before school policy was discussed during the interview, the researcher delineated the concept of language policy to the teachers. This is to ensure the teachers understood the notion of school policy on language use. Conflict of interest was noted between the teachers on the opinion of school restriction on the use of Chinese language in the ESL
classroom. This showed that the teachers were not formally informed about the language use in the school. For example,

**Example (42)**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>S1</strong></td>
<td>Officially they want us to teach the lesson wholly in English. Of course, when we are in the class, we know what to do, you have some freedom to use Chinese. <strong>Supposed it’s just an official rule that is not enforced, so we still have some leeway to use Chinese in class.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>S2</strong></td>
<td>As far as I know, our school does not impose any restrictions on the use of Chinese language for classroom learning of English language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>S3</strong></td>
<td><strong>There is actually yes.</strong> It is not explicitly stated. Just that everybody understands that you’re teaching English, you should use English… It’s not explicit but it’s something more or less like an unspoken rule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>S4</strong></td>
<td>I don’t think they have a fix rule, but they try to encourage us to use only English in the classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>S5</strong></td>
<td>Yes. The school actually does not encourage us as Chinese teacher to use Chinese language in lesson, but then sometimes we don’t follow, why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>S6</strong></td>
<td>Err, nope our school didn’t restrict.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>S7</strong></td>
<td>Actually, yes. It's better not to use Chinese in the classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>S8</strong></td>
<td>So far, no.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nevertheless, when the teachers were questioned if they would abide by the rules if there was any restriction, it was found that the opinion had been based on the years of teaching experience. For those at entry level claimed that they would obey the rules set
by the school, while teachers with at least three years of experience refused to change as it would sabotage students’ interest in the lesson. From the following example, one can conclude that the external source of belief that relies on the teaching experience has an impact upon the use of CS.

Example (43)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses from teachers with at least two years of teaching experience at the school</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses from teachers with not more than three years of teaching experience at the school</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.4 Parents

Parents play an essential role in determining the teachers’ belief in the use of CS in classroom. As the school is a private school, parents are the sole persons who decide to send their children to school. If the parents decide that their children could benefit from the education environment, then it is set in stone. Therefore, a teacher with 35 years of experience in teaching the school voiced his concern over the banning of the use of Chinese in the classroom. Based on his analysis, he asserted:
Example (44)

| S2 | ‘If the school chose to implement a policy banning or restricting the use of Chinese language in teaching of English, surely students would be victimized and deprived of a great learning advantage which is explanation and clarification. Consequently, parents might decide not to send their children to our school in the future. So, this could be unthinkable’ |

5.2.5 Students

The reason why we have the teachers in the first place is the need to assist students in acquiring knowledge for specific purposes. Therefore, students are the key persons who are directly affected by the teachers’ choice of language in delivering the lesson. From the data, teachers’ source of belief seemed to derive from students’ language proficiency and feedback from the students.

Example (45)

| S4 | Depend on the class la, so let’s say I have 3 classes and one is considered the smart student, smart in using English, for that class I rarely use, for two other, students are quite weak la, so I might use Chinese more often. |

| S5 | it is quite useful for the students who are weak in English language, so it really helps them to understand more if you couldn’t understand the words, the meaning, phrase and sentence I use in the class. |

The excerpt above presents teachers’ source of belief due to the language proficiency of the students. As the school has a system for grouping students by their
academic results, which is why the teachers would call the front class as ‘smart students’, thus ‘depending on the class’ means students with exceptional results in the examination and the ‘two others’ reflect students whose language proficiency may be lower. S5 opined similar idea, as students with low proficiency benefit from CS. From the data, the teachers’ belief can also stem from the feedback given by the students. The evidence is as follows:

**Example (46)**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td><strong>Students have complained to me</strong> that for several years when they were taught by non-Chinese teachers or by teachers who would not use Chinese language their learning effectiveness was minimal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S6</td>
<td>first, I heard, the feedback from the students that they prefer teacher who can speak Chinese …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S7</td>
<td>I get <strong>the feedback from the student</strong> is that ‘teacher we cannot really understand, so can u translate. Of coz we will do that for our students, but I don’t know how to say, this is a Chinese school, so the teacher really needs to like to communicate with students in mandarin sometimes. The students they don’t dare to speak English if they think that their English is weak and so on, so it it useful and I think we need to do that instead of using Chinese only.**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on example (46), (S2), (S3), and (S6) provided feedback by comparing the situation in class with non-Chinese speaking teachers. (S7) claimed that her students struggled to comprehend the specific topic. Based on the students’ feedback, they decided to continue their pattern of teaching by employing the Chinese language in the classroom. Meanwhile, (S5), (S7), and (S8) stated that the characteristic of school, which is a Chinese
school, motivated the use of Chinese language to help them and the students achieve desired yields. This is a win-win situation for some teachers.

5.3 **Functions of CS**

During the semi-structured interview sessions, the researcher asked some questions on how CS helped the teachers in the classroom. Several functions of CS are coded and categorized as follows:

- Save Time (Section 5.4.1)
- Managing Rapport (Section 5.4.2)
- Translating (Section 5.4.3)
- Explaining (Section 5.4.4)
- Classroom Management (Section 5.4.5)

5.3.1 **Save time**

Rajoo (2011), in a study regarding CS and gender, discovered that one primary function of CS in the classroom was to save time. In this present study, 2 out of 8 subjects expressed that they believe that CS helped them to save time. For example:

**Example (47)**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>S1</strong></td>
<td>when you want to explain the word like phenomenon, if u use English, they students will still have some hazy ide, what phenomenon is all about? And if you use Chinese to explain, they will get it immediately, ahh, u know …so it’s the quickest way, and it helps you to save a lot of time and then you get the meaning across</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>S7</strong></td>
<td>Okay, to be honest, it is when we are running out of time. We need to explain a lot in the classroom if we use English because they are from Chinese</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
background, their mother tongue is Chinese and so on, so actually it would be easier for teacher to teacher them and for them, may be translate the sentence or even the words in to mandarin, may be they can understand better.

The excerpt above shows how the teachers saved time by implementing CS as a strategy in the classroom. S1 expressed that using the Chinese language to explain helped him to save time and concurrently, helped the student to get the meaning or intention immediately. Meanwhile, S7 gave similar idea as S1 by linking the events to the universal mother tongue language between the teachers and the students, wherein CS offers a shortcut and saves the teachers from explaining a lot.

### 5.3.2 Managing Rapport

The teachers used CS to help them engage with their students better, thus developing a friendlier learning environment to capture students’ attention during lesson. For example,

**Example (48)**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>S1</strong></td>
<td>Nelson Mandela once said: if you speak to their mother tongue, you speak to their heart. If you speak in their second language, you speak to their mind. So, having second language in classroom also help in building rapport with the students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>S3</strong></td>
<td>if they feel like you know their language, you have a certain connection to them. They will feel more connected to you and they will be more accepting of you. Supposed to sometimes, some teacher, other races may find it difficult</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the excerpt (48), S1 and S3 used CS to bridge the gap between teacher and students. Their explanation is in line with that stated by Sert (2005), wherein CS allows a teacher to build bridge from known to unknown, hence an important element in language teaching when used effectively. Meanwhile, S5 spoke about the ability of CS in enabling students to perform and respond to teacher’s questions. This was unveiled in Metila’s (2009) study, in which CS helped to improve class participation by inducing a relaxed class atmosphere that allowed students to perform better.

5.3.3 Translation

In the interview, the teachers opined that they only translated word and phrase levels. For example,

Example (49)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S2</th>
<th>Translate as in word, phrase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S5</td>
<td>Normally is when the students ask me to translate in Chinese language or I can see the conclusion on their faces, so I will use Chinese or if I use a deeper word, I will use Chinese as well</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above excerpt suggests that the teachers avoided translation in the ESL classroom and only translated when necessary. For instance, S2 said that he would only translate at word or phrase level, while S5 expressed that she only translated when requested by students. S7 doubted the students may understand better if she translated the word or sentence from English to Chinese language.

5.3.4 Explaining

The teachers admitted that CS helped them to explain meaning. For example,

Example (50)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S1</th>
<th>I think it helps me to explain meaning easily.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>Explanation done in Chinese is especially essential in the teaching of grammar items such as tenses, modal verbs and conditional sentences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>Normally I use it in those weaker classes, like I said just now, when I cannot make my students to understand it, then I would use Chinese to explain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5</td>
<td>It helps students to know what I’m teaching, and somehow if I explain in Chinese, it can help them to develop and explain their thinking on what I was teaching in class, because they will think in a way that they know what I’m teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S6</td>
<td>I know the students are Chinese educated so I felt that using Chinese would be better for them, especially in the explanation part.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The example (50) shows that the teachers believed that CS is indeed useful when there are lessons and important messages that require further explanation. S1 expressed that CS helped him to explain better, whereas S2 believed that CS is essential in grammar teaching. Yletyinen (2004), in her analysis of the functions of CS, explained that when the pupils and the teacher share a mother tongue, it is easier to use CS as the mode of instruction. S4, S5, and S6 believed that explanation done in the students’ mother tongue eased students in comprehending the study objectives.

5.3.5 Classroom Management

Various studies have suggested that CS does help in classroom management. For instance, Ferguson (2003) conducted a study in a post-colonial context and discovered that the teachers used CS for classroom management discourse. The purpose was give positive and negative reinforcement to the learners, for instance, motivate or to deal with late-comers, keep learners’ attention or to encourage classroom participation. In this present study, the teachers believed that CS helped them to manage the class. For example,

Example (51)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S4</th>
<th>I’m actually the class teacher for one of the classes. I like to reply their diary, and that’s when I have to use Chinese and sometimes, I have to like erm means to like doing those admin stuff, and then like spending with my students besides having the lesson. During recess I still have to like guide them, and then that’s when I also use Chinese</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S5</td>
<td>students will pay more attention for example sometime when I use an English statement, they would understand but when I translate using Chinese, they will give me response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S7</td>
<td>For me, I felt that using Chinese in the classroom. I felt that students would pay more attention compare to using English fully.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the example (51), S4, who was the form teacher for the class, upheld the importance of classroom management. In order to perform good classroom management, she believed in the choice of using Chinese language and CS helped her to manage her work. S5 and S7 expressed that CS helped them in managing their classes by getting more attention from the students.

5.4 Summary for Research Question 2

This chapter addresses the first research question; “What beliefs do ESL teachers hold about the use of CS in the classroom?” Hence, the teachers’ beliefs and attitude towards the use of CS had been analysed. Semi-structured interview sessions were held with 8 teachers to obtain data.

After data analyses, the study discovered that all the teachers generally agreed to the positive use of CS in the ESL classroom. The major positive opinions of this study are linked to the practicability of CS in the ESL classroom, students, parents, characteristics of the school, and school policy. Among the five themes, characteristic of the school, which is a Chinese school, and the students, whose L1 is Chinese, played significant roles in influencing the teachers’ belief to code-switch. The teachers also believed that CS has the following functions in an ESL classroom. They (i) save time; (ii) manage rapport; (iii) translate languages; (iv) explain; and (v) manage classrooms. The following table presents the summary of teachers’ perceptions towards CS in their classrooms.
Table 5.1: Summary of the teachers’ perception of CS in ESL classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ opinion on the use of CS</th>
<th>All teachers agreed to and reckoned CS in classroom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sources of teachers’ beliefs</td>
<td>• Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Practicability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Characteristics of the school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• School Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functions of CS</td>
<td>• Save time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Managing Rapport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Explaining</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Classroom management</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.5 The Relationship between teachers’ practices and perception on CS

Teachers’ beliefs are essential because they can shape their teaching practices. For this reason, the third research question examined the teachers’ perceptions of CS and if those perceptions were in line with their actual practice. After analysing the data presented in Chapters Four and Five, the findings demonstrated that the relationship between the teachers’ belief and the actual practices can be identified via: language choice (Section 5.5.1), pattern of CS (Section 5.5.2), and functions of CS (Section 5.5.3).

5.5.1 Language Choice

According to Simon (2001, p. 312), teachers select languages between the language being taught and the language of the school or society. Such selection of
language among teachers is visible when the teachers claimed in the interview that they trust the necessity of switching to Chinese language in their English lesson because they are in a Chinese school. All the teachers, likewise, did code-switch from English to Chinese languages frequently in their actual practice. This present study also noted several reasons that influenced the way the teachers use CS in their ESL classrooms.

In the interview, the subjects were required to rate themselves on the frequent use of Chinese language in the classroom, in which the clear majority of the teachers replied that the use of Chinese language relied on the proficiency of the students. Next, the school executed the system where academic outcomes placed students in the classes, hence the ‘good students’ were assumed to be fluent in the English language, hence dismissing the use of Chinese language during English lesson. This occurred in classroom where S7 and S4 taught. They chose ‘Zhong’ class for the recording, which is the first class of the form, wherein minimal use of Chinese language had been observed. Thus, the teachers adjust their CS according to students’ response. Such a phenomenon was also reported in Ahmand and Jusoff’s (2009) study, indicating that students’ language proficiency levels influenced the teachers in CS. This account is coordinated with the actual practice in the classroom.

It is inevitable that the teachers speak the native language with their students or perform CS within the community. In this present study, a teacher utilised 80.5% of Chinese language during English lesson. The researcher was interested in adding an inquiry during the interview session to seek the motivation behind her decision. The interview was found parallel to the actual practice of the classroom because first, she claimed that the use of the Chinese language was ‘all right’ in the classroom as more students would focus in the class. She additionally asserted that she would utilise the Chinese language more often because she knew that students are Chinese-educated and it
would be better, especially in the clarification part. Moreover, she has heard criticisms from the students that they were inclined towards teachers who can speak the Chinese language.

From the above reasons, the researcher opined that this is an excellent instance of the relationship between teachers’ belief and practices of CS in the classroom. The teacher has communicated the students’ opinion that the Chinese language is acceptable in her lesson. She has, likewise, affirmed with the students regarding the language she used in the English classroom. This scenario has driven the teacher to choose her language to be conveyed to the class.

5.5.2 On the Pattern of CS

As for the issue pertaining to the pattern of CS, the teacher did not indicate any pattern of CS explicitly in the interview. However, the teacher asserted that they would generally explain in English followed by the Chinese language. Such a pattern was always uncovered in the actual practice, especially when the teachers translated words.

Next, the teachers found that they would adjust their use of language according to the students’ responses. In the interview, S3 claimed that she used a tad of Chinese language when her students looked confused. This study observed that she immediately switched to the Chinese language when there was no response from the students. Such action suggested that the teachers’ belief stemmed from the teachers’ experiences.

5.5.3 On the Functions of CS

The relationship between belief and actual practice was also detected in the function of CS, in terms of translation, explaining, and managing rapport.
I. Translation

When translating, the teachers claimed that they would translate beginning by using the English language, and then, the Chinese language, as follows:

Example (52)

| T: | It depends on their level, so if they have high level of English, if they are good in their English, then it's fine we can exclude that in the class... Normally is when the students ask me to translate in Chinese language or I can see the conclusion on their faces, so I will use Chinese or if I use a deeper word, I will use Chinese as well.... I may be translate the sentence or even the word into Mandarin, so they can understand better |

The example (52) was taken from S7, who claimed that she would translate from the English language to Mandarin. In practice, she has translated only one sentence in the class to reprimand her student who endeavoured to guarantee marks from her. Although the teacher did not frequently code-switch in the observed class because it is a smart class, she assured that she would translate based on students’ expression. Similar to the above section, the students were the key that influenced the teachers’ CS. Moreover, Shih (2010) suggested that teachers’ adjustment of language based on the students' language proficiency, which was aimed at assisting students to comprehend the knowledge the teachers conveyed.

II. Explaining

The relationship of teachers’ beliefs and actual practice were determined when the teachers endeavored to disclose specific context to the students. For instance, in the interview, one of the participants addressed:
Consequently, in his observed class, he explained the unfamiliar vocabulary first in English, and then in Chinese. In his experience, if the explanation of clarification is not switched to the Chinese language, the students would fail to understand new vocabulary or the general message of a passage in the case of critical learning. Therefore, switching from English to Chinese helped the teachers to ensure that every student understood the general meaning.

III. Managing rapport

The consistency could be observed from how the teacher managed rapport with the students. In the interview, the teacher illustrated,

Example (54)

| T: | Certain thing if you tell in Chinese, you will get the point across very quickly in a small effort, but for example if you want to scold them, it’s better to switch it to Chinese so that the message would definitely get across, in the place of jokes, ahh.. sometimes if you tell the joke in Chinese, it gets the favour across |

As a result, the teacher performed CS to build a good relationship by sharing with students his soft skills and emotions.
Example (55)

| T: 我第一次听你讲他的中文名，怎么念？ |

Example (55) occurred when the teacher was curious about a student's name in Chinese. He code-switched to Chinese to create solidarity with the students. Although the students did not respond in verbatim, the students expressed their emotions by laughing, hence, creating a stress-free learning environment in the ESL classroom.
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

This chapter summarises the CS phenomenon in an MCIS ESL classroom (see Section 6.1) and the recommended classroom practices concerning CS is presented in Section 6.2. Next, the chapter clarifies some implications of the present study (see Section 6.3). Finally, several recommendations for future study are proposed in Section 6.4.

6.1 CS in MCIS ESL Classroom

This study was undertaken to discover if teachers’ beliefs are consistent with the actual practice of CS in the ESL classroom. In order to address this notion, three RQs were outlined and a suitable research design was devised to obtain appropriate response. The overall results showed that teachers’ beliefs were almost consistent with the actual practice in the classroom.

The focus of the context was the MCIS, whereby the school shares the mother tongue, Chinese language. Overall, the teachers code-switched in classroom after considering their students’ understanding of the lesson and the affection that motivates the students to study. On the aspect of beliefs, the findings indicated that the teachers did have a set of belief systems that were reflected in the classroom. This study is parallel to the study of Lee (2009), who asserted that teachers’ beliefs have an important impact on teachers’ practices in the classroom. First, the teachers in this community agreed that the use of Chinese language (L1) and CS is essential and acceptable in the classroom, hence they chose to code-switch during their lesson. However, the teachers were aware that the act of CS should be minimal. Such belief was revealed in their classroom practices, as all the teachers code-switched from the English to the Chinese language in the classrooms.

On the function of CS among teacher, both interview and classroom observation appeared to be parallel to some extent to the taxonomy of CS introduced by Moradkhani
Among the significant functions that matched both interview and actual practice in the classroom were translation, metalinguistic, communicative uses and managing rapport, as well as giving instructions.

Several patterns of CS were identified in this community. Overall, the major reason for teachers to code-switch was related to school characteristics, practicability of CS in the ESL classroom, school policy, parents being a source of income for the school, and the students, whose language proficiency is not fully-fledged. The teachers commonly used the English language as their choice of language when they began their lesson. However, certain scenarios led to the use of CS, such as students who disobeyed or were unclear about the instructions given. Such pattern revealed that the teachers were forced to code-switch due to the inability amongst students in following the class flow, wherein CS was a choice that maintained the smooth lesson progress in the classroom. This revealed that the teachers did acknowledge the matrix language in the classroom. Since the teachers were Chinese and were employed by MCIS as English teachers with exceptional proficiency in both languages, intra-sentential switching frequently occurred in the classroom, and followed by tag-switching.

By comprehending the teachers’ belief and practices of CS in the ESL classroom, it is perhaps, time to arouse attention from the education authorities regarding the use of CS in classroom and to acknowledge that CS as an unavoidable phenomenon in MCIS classrooms to attain effective language acquisition in second or foreign language classroom.

6.2 Recommended Classroom Practices Concerning CS

Language plays an important role in supporting the school’s mission. Although the English language is not the L1 in MCIS schools, the English language lesson promotes a medium for language acquisition and development of students towards understanding
of a culture by comparing the languages and the cultures associated with them. Hence, it is important that the language policy in ESL classroom supports the teaching and learning process, so as to offer quality education in English for the students deriving from a variety of cultural backgrounds.

A policy is a scaffold for actions based on clear principles and this should influence practice and decision-making in the teachers and schools. However, one inference from the present study is that the school itself does not have a clear strategy for the teachers on the use of language in the ESL classroom (see Section 5.2.3). As a result, quality was not a consistent feature amongst the teachers as some teachers used excessive Chinese language during English lessons. Meanwhile, some teachers did not code-switch at all in the classroom. All language responses in the classroom depend on the teacher’s ‘power’ and ‘position’, which overpower the overall teaching and learning process in the ESL classroom (Gee, 2000, 2005).

Such phenomenon should be reviewed and updated in tandem with the school evaluation cycle because having teachers in an organisation who are clueless about the language used in the classroom may not be helpful, moreover, teachers who have not received the formal teaching education, such as TESL and TESOL would engage all their teaching method to what they believe is beneficial to their students. Such phenomenon is well illustrated in the present study (see section 5.2.3)

Among the strategies that can be implemented by the school is developing policy that supports improvement in teaching and learning in ESL classroom. First, the school may get a teacher to be involved in policy making as teachers are at the centre of policy formulation and implementation (Menken & Garcia, 2010). Moreover, they are the actors in making daily interpretations and decisions about language use (de Jong, 2008). Next, the school should have written policy and information for the teachers about how the class
should be operated or the amount of CS involved in classroom to ensure that the approaches used by the teachers are consistent and efficient.

While the teachers are encouraged to be proactive in their professional development, the school should incorporate a vigorous policy of teachers’ training and development, focusing on the ESL curriculum. Based on the in-service training provided by the school in year 2016 and 2017 (as discussed in Section 1.6), the in-service training focused on the general direction of the school, while little focus is given to the essential theory of ESL. As a result, teachers are left to discover their own instructional methods based on their own experiences or adhere to the model of a senior educator. Interestingly, CS is a strategy that is commonly used in MCIS ESL classrooms.

6.3 Implications

First, there is a need to identify the beliefs held by the teachers about language choice in the classroom because beliefs influence the methods teachers use to impart L2 (Pajares, 1992). Based on this present study, beliefs are demonstrated as a valuable indicator and provide a decent estimation of teachers on the use of CS.

Next, the teachers viewed CS as a valuable device in bilingual and multilingual classrooms. It helps the teachers in language teaching especially for the students with weak foundation in English. It also reflects a methodology and an opportunity for language development since the teacher would first clarify in the English language and followed by deciphering and providing more information that permits to a compelling transfer of information from teachers to students. Exposure of students to CS in the classroom may empower students to gear towards their inspiration and enthusiasm in language learning and gradually become a proficient learner of the English language due to the support of the language known to the students.
Cook (2002) asserted that CS in classes that does not share a similar mother tongue in many Nigerian classroom situations might be an issue for some learners (though maybe a few) who would feel being left out in the teaching process, thus creating psychological problems, such as defeating the goal of the learning process. Such situation was uncovered in this present study as some teachers revealed that supposed teachers who are not able to speak in the students’ mother tongue, the students would struggle to thrive, and the teacher may find it difficult to control and to teach the classes, mainly because they use a different language. Perhaps, CS should be used in the beginning level by getting a teacher who knows the students’ mother tongue to teach the language and gradually incorporate teachers to inculcate the standard form of English language when the students achieve a certain level of English proficiency.

6.4 Recommendations for future study

This section addresses some limitations and provides some recommendations that could be refined for future study.

First, the present study only focused on one of the MCIS located in KL. Therefore, the findings and the results may not be able to generalise to the beliefs and practices of CS in all MCIS. Nevertheless, future research could widen the scope of the study, for instance, to seek data from all four MCIS in KL that may deliver varying sentiment on the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and practices of CS.

Another limitation is the typical behaviour by the observed, known as observer paradox. One of the participants expressed that she did not know what to teach when the researcher was around. Therefore, the researcher’s presence in the classroom may have changed the dynamics within the classroom. To address this problem, the researcher decided to take the role of non-participation observer by handing the recorder to the teachers. However, this creates an issue when teachers or students handle the recorder as
S8’s audio could not be played. The future study could take note on this by giving brief instruction to the audio/video controller prior to the actual observations.

The interview ought to have more precise questions on the pattern of CS. As CS is part of the discourse in the classroom, some questions on classroom discourse and classroom situation, including the way the teachers started the lesson, in the midst of teaching or end the lesson, should be asked in the interview. As the interview was held right after the observation was performed, the research did not get the chance to analyse the data beforehand; as a result, the consistency report on the pattern of CS had been less, and merely the data employed for the analysis referred to the beginning of the lesson in the English language and switched to Chinese language.

Students’ voice may be helpful because the teachers claimed that they code-switched due to students’ low proficiency in English, struggling to comprehend. For instance, a teacher used 80.5% of Chinese in the classroom. Thus, the study would be more complete if students’ voice is embedded.

Finally, researcher bias was a possible limitation of this study. Trustworthiness is a vital concept in this qualitative inquiry, and there is a need to strive for objectivity in observations and interviews.
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